Domain Adaptation Based on Mixture of Latent Words Language Models for Automatic Speech Recognition

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SUMMARY
This paper proposes a novel domain adaptation method that can utilize out-of-domain text resources and partially domain matched text resources in language modeling. A major problem in domain adaptation is that it is hard to obtain adequate adaptation effects from out-of-domain text resources. To tackle the problem, our idea is to carry out model merger in a latent variable space created from latent words language models (LWLMs). The latent variables in the LWLMs are represented as specific words selected from the observed word space, so LWLMs can share a common latent variable space. It enables us to perform flexible mixture modeling with consideration of the latent variable space. This paper presents two types of mixture modeling, i.e., LWLM mixture models and LWLM cross-mixture models. The LWLM mixture models can perform a latent word space mixture modeling to mitigate domain mismatch problem. Furthermore, in the LWLM cross-mixture models, LMs which individually constructed from partially matched text resources are split into two element models, each of which can be subjected to mixture modeling. For the approaches, this paper also describes methods to optimize mixture weights using a validation data set. Experiments show that the mixture in latent word space can achieve performance improvements for both target domain and out-of-domain compared with that in observed word space.

key words: domain adaptation, mixture modeling, latent words language models, latent variable space, automatic speech recognition

1. Introduction

Language models (LMs) are invaluable for natural language processing tasks such as automatic speech recognition (ASR) and statistical machine translation [1], [2]. LM performance strongly depends on the quantity and quality of the training data sets. Superior performance is usually obtained by using enormous domain-matched data sets to construct LMs [3]. Unfortunately, in practical ASR tasks, large amounts of domain-matched data sets are not available.

Therefore, LMs demand domain adaptation techniques to allow the use of multiple out-of-domain text resources [4], [5]. In language modeling, one of the most popular approaches to domain adaptation is based on mixture modeling [6], [7]. An adapted model can be constructed by combining LMs that are individually constructed from out-of-domain text resources with mixture weighting [8]. The mixture weights are optimized using a small amount of target domain text.

Previously, observed word space mixture modeling, i.e., n-gram mixture modeling, has been used in various cases [9]–[11]. Also, mixture modeling of recurrent neural network LMs (RNNLMs) was performed in the observed word space [12]–[14]. However, mixtures in the observed word space do not support flexible domain adaptation if domain-related data sets are hardly obtained. In the observed word space, a word directly represents a state in a mixture. It can be considered that effective state sharing is not available by merging LMs individually constructed from out-of-domain text resources since words are not overlapped.

In order to conduct flexible domain adaptation using the LMs constructed from out-of-domain text resources, this paper develops methods in which model merging is conducted in a latent variable space. In the latent variable space, a word is mapped into a latent variable space, so it can be expected to perform more flexible state sharing than is possible in the observed word space. To this end, this paper introduces latent words language models (LWLMs) to the mixture modeling [15]–[18]. The latent variables in usual class-based n-gram LMs are only model-dependent indices, so each model has a different latent variable space [19], [20]. Therefore, conventional class-based n-gram mixture modeling have to be performed in the observed word space [21], [22]. On the other hand, latent variables in LWLMs are represented as specific latent word, multiple LWLMs can share the common latent variable space.

In addition, this paper also focuses on the fact that any LWLM can be split into two elements, a transition probability model and an emission probability model, and each of which can be mixed independently. This concept of mixture modeling yields flexibility in that both elements are the intersections of different data sources. It is assumed that each element model has a different role, i.e., the transition probability model captures the sentence pattern in the latent variable space, while the emission probability model captures the lexical pattern in the observed word space. In fact, most available out-of-domain text resources in practical ASR tasks will partially match either the sentence pattern or the lexical pattern. It can be expected that a domain matched model will become available by optimizing both elements independently.

In this paper, two types of mixture modeling meth-
ods using multiple LWLMs are proposed. One is LWLM mixture models that can merge multiple LWLM in the latent word space with mixture weights. The other is LWLM cross-mixture models in which two elements in LWLMs are independently combined with mixture weights. Although the proposed models have complex model structure, they can be implemented into ASR decoder using n-gram approximation method, which randomly generates a lot of text data according to a stochastic process and a simple n-gram model is constructed from the generated data [16], [18].

For domain adaptation, this paper also presents their optimization method using a validation data set. In the observed word space mixture, the maximum likelihood (ML) criterion can be used because generative probabilities of each word of the validation data set can be directly calculated [23]. Unfortunately, this advantage is offset by the fact the latent word sequence of the validation data set cannot be determined uniquely. In order to estimate optimal mixture weights of the LWLM mixture models and the LWLM cross-mixture models, we introduce Bayesian criterion. The Bayesian criterion can be flexibly applied to various model structures, and sampling techniques can be used. In this paper, Gibbs sampling is introduced for estimating the latent word sequence and model index sequence underlying the validation data set [24].

In fact, this paper is an extended study of our previous work in which LWLM mixture models were only presented [25]. In this paper, we additionally formulate the LWLM cross-mixture modeling and its optimization method, and clarify relationships to each mixture model. Our evaluation examines two kinds of setups. The first experiment employs in-domain training data set and out-of-domain training data set for constructing a target domain LM, and shows effectiveness of the LWLM-mixture models. The second experiment employs two types of partially matching training data sets on the assumption of a practical spontaneous speech recognition task, and shows the LWLM-cross mixture model yields additional adaptation effects which cannot be obtained by the LWLM-mixture model.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 overviews LWLMs and n-gram mixture models. Section 3 describes definitions of LWLM mixture models and LWLM cross-mixture models. In addition, optimization methods for domain adaptation and implementation methods for ASR tasks are detailed. Sections 4 and 5 present automatic speech recognition experiments. Section 6 concludes this paper with a summary of key points.

2. Previous Work

2.1 Latent Words Language Models

LWLMs are generative models that employ a latent variable called latent word [15]. An LWLM has a soft clustering structure, and a latent word is a specific word that can be selected from the entire vocabulary. Thus, the number of latent words equals the number of observed words, and multiple LWLMs can share a common latent variable space.

In the generative process of an LWLM, a latent word \( h_t \) is generated on the basis of a transition probability model and its context \( l_t = h_{t-n+1}, \ldots, h_{t-1} \). An observed word \( w_t \) is generated on the basis of an emission probability model and a latent word \( h_t \). A graphic rendering of LWLM is shown in Fig. 1. The gray circles denote observed words and the white circles denote latent variables. The LWLM produces the generative probability of the observed word sequence \( w = w_1, \ldots, w_T \). The probability is approximately calculated by the following point estimation:

\[
P(w) \approx \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{h_t \in V} P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{1w})P(h_t|l_t, \Theta_{1l}).
\]

where \( \Theta_{1w} \) indicates a model parameter of the LWLM, and \( V \) is the vocabulary. The transition probability model \( P(h_t|l_t, \Theta_{1l}) \) is expressed as an n-gram model for latent words; it can capture the sentence pattern on the basis of a latent variable sequence. The emission probability model \( P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{1w}) \) is expressed as a unigram model for each latent word and can capture the lexical pattern. Usually a hierarchical Pitman-Yor prior is used as the transition probability model, and a Dirichlet prior is used as the emission probability model. More details are provided in previous studies [15]–[18].

2.2 N-gram Mixture Models

N-gram mixture model is constructed by combining several n-gram LMs trained using different sources. A graphic rendering of an n-gram mixture model is shown in Fig. 2; the model index is represented as \( z_t \in \{1, \ldots, Z\} \). Each n-gram LM calculates the generative probability of word \( w_t \) given context information \( u_t \) using \( n-1 \) words behind \( w_t \). As shown in Fig. 2, the observed word sequence \( w = w_1, \ldots, w_T \) is generated dependent on model index sequence \( z = z_1, \ldots, z_T \). The generative probability of the observed word sequence \( w \) is defined as:

\[
P(w) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{z_t \in \{1, \ldots, Z\}} P(z_t)P(w_t|u_t, \Theta_{ng}^{z_t}),
\]

where \( P(z_t) \) is the mixture weight for the \( z_t \)-th n-gram model.
In practice, direct implementation of the n-gram mixture model to ASR is not ideal because it does not have a back-off n-gram structure. Actually, the n-gram mixture model can be approximately represented as a single back-off n-gram structure [26].

For domain adaptation of n-gram mixture models, mixture weights are optimized using a validation data set. The expectation maximization algorithm, which is based on maximum likelihood (ML) criterion, can be used for the optimization [23]. Given a validation data set \( \mathcal{W} = \{w_1, \cdots, w_{|\mathcal{W}|}\} \), the optimized mixture weight \( \hat{P}(z) \) is estimated in an iterative manner as:

\[
\hat{P}(z) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{W}|} \sum_{t=1}^{|\mathcal{W}|} \frac{P(w_t|z_t, \Theta_{ng}^{z_t})P(z_t)}{\sum_{z' \in \{1, \cdots, Z\}} P(w_t|z', \Theta_{ng}^{z'})P(z')}.
\]

(3)

After iterations, the optimized weight \( \hat{P}(z) \) is used in Eq. (2).

3. Proposed Method

3.1 LWLM Mixture Models

This paper details LWLM mixture models. A graphic rendering of LWLM mixture models is shown in Fig. 3. As shown, LWLM mixture modeling can be considered to be the union of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2. The gray circles denote observed words and the white circles denote latent variables and model indices.

The generative process starts with model index \( z_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\} \), which corresponds to each LWLM index. Then, latent word \( h_t \) and observed word \( w_t \) are generated based on the basis of the selected LWLM’s stochastic process. In LWLM mixture models, the generative probability of \( w \) is defined as:

\[
P(w) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{h_t \in V, z_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\}} P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{2w}^{z_t})P(h_t|l, \Theta_{1w}^{z_t})P(z_t),
\]

(4)

where \( \Theta_{2w}^{z_t} \) is the \( z_t \)-th model parameter of the pre-trained LWLM, and \( P(z_t) \) indicates the mixture weight for the \( z_t \)-th model. In this equation, \( P(z_t) \) can be estimated from a validation data set. This equation is based on the characteristics that LWLMs share a common latent variable space.

3.2 LWLM Cross-Mixture Models

This paper also proposes LWLM cross-mixture models. In fact, LWLMs are divided into two components, i.e., a transition probability model and an emission probability model. Therefore, each component can be independently mixed. The mixture of transition probability models is performed in the latent variable space, and the mixture of emission probability models is performed in the observed word space. To this end, two model indices are introduced with respect to each component model. A graphic rendering of the LWLM cross-mixture models is shown in Fig. 4.

Its generative process starts when the transition probability model index \( a_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\} \) and the emission probability model index \( b_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\} \) are generated independently. Then, latent word \( h_t \) is generated on the basis of the selected transition probability model and its context \( l \). Observed word \( w_t \) is generated on the basis of the selected emission probability model and latent word \( h_t \). In a standard LWLM mixture model, \( h_t \) and \( w_t \) are generated using the same LWLM, whereas they are generated using different LWLMs in an LWLM cross-mixture model. In LWLM cross-mixture models, the generative probability of \( w \) is defined as:

\[
P(w) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{h_t \in V, a_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\}} \sum_{b_t \in \{1, \cdots, Z\}} P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{1w}^{a_t})P(h_t|l, \Theta_{2w}^{a_t})P(a_t)P(b_t),
\]

(5)
where \( \Theta_{lk}^{a_t} \) and \( \Theta_{lk}^{b_t} \) are respectively the \( a_t \)-th parameter of the transition probability model and the \( b_t \)-th parameter of the emission probability model in the pre-trained LWLMs. \( P(a_t) \) and \( P(b_t) \) are mixture weights and can be optimized using a validation data set.

3.3 Optimization for Domain Adaptation

To optimize mixture weights using a validation data set for domain adaptation, the ML criterion cannot be employed because the latent word sequence is an underspecified variable. If the ML criterion is used, all possible latent word assignments have to be considered since LWLM has a soft clustering structure. It is computationally and analytically intractable to calculate the expectation value. Therefore, this paper employs the Bayesian criterion and a sampling based procedure that is compatible with LWLM training. In the sampling based procedure, model index sequences of the validation data set are estimated for determining the mixture weights.

3.3.1 Optimization of LWLM Mixture Models

In order to optimize the LWLM mixture models, the optimized mixture weight \( \hat{P}(z) \) is estimated using a validation data set \( W = w_1, \ldots, w_M \). In the Bayesian criterion, a model index sequence of the validation data set \( Z \) and a latent word sequence \( H \) are estimated using the Gibbs sampling. A conditional probability of possible values for latent word \( h_t \in V \) is given by:

\[
P(h_t|W, H_{-t}, Z) = P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{lw}^b) i_{j=1}^{t+n-1} P(h_j|l_j, \Theta_{lw}^b).
\]

where \( H_{-t} \) represents all latent words except for \( h_t \). In a similar way, a conditional probability of possible values for model index \( z_t \in \{1, \ldots, Z\} \) is given by:

\[
P(z_t|W, H, Z_{-t}) \sim P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{lw}^a)P(h_t|l_t, \Theta_{lw}^b)P(z_t|Z_{-t}).
\]

where \( Z_{-t} \) represents model index sequence except for \( z_t \). Gibbs sampling can be used to sample new values for the model index and the latent variable according to these two distributions and place them at position \( t \).

Once model index sequence is concluded, \( P(z_t|Z) \) can be calculated as:

\[
P(z_t|Z) = \frac{c(z_t) + \beta}{\sum_{z \in \{1, \ldots, Z\}} c(z) + \beta Z},
\]

where \( c(z_t) \) denotes the count of model index \( z_t \) in \( Z \), \( \beta \) is a hyper parameter for Dirichlet distribution. 

In a Bayesian criterion, optimized value \( \hat{P}(z) \) is estimated by Monte Carlo integration. Multiple model index sequences sampled after the burn-in period are defined as \( Z^1, \ldots, Z^S \). \( \hat{P}(z) \) is estimated as:

\[
\hat{P}(z) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{i=1}^{S} P(z|Z^i).
\]

If \( \beta \) approaches 0, the Bayesian criterion is equivalent to the ML criterion.

3.3.2 Optimization of LWLM Cross-Mixture Models

In LWLM cross-mixture models, optimized mixture weights \( \hat{P}(a) \) and \( \hat{P}(b) \) are simultaneously estimated by defining both model index sequences of a validation data set \( W \). Gibbs sampling can also be used to assign latent word sequence \( H \), transition probability model index sequence \( A \), and emission probability model index sequence \( B \) to the validation data set \( W \). The conditional probability of possible values for latent word \( h_t \in V \) is given by:

\[
P(h_t|W, H_{-t}, A, B) \sim P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{lw}^b) i_{j=1}^{t+n-1} P(h_j|l_j, \Theta_{lw}^b).
\]

In a similar way, the conditional probabilities of possible values for model indices \( a_t \in \{1, \ldots, Z\} \) and \( b_t \in \{1, \ldots, Z\} \) are given by:

\[
P(a_t|W, H, A_{-t}, B) \sim P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{lw}^a)P(a_t|A_{-t}),
\]

\[
P(b_t|W, H, A, B_{-t}) \sim P(w_t|h_t, \Theta_{lw}^b)P(b_t|B_{-t}).
\]

where \( A_{-t} \) and \( B_{-t} \) represent model index sequences except for \( a_t \) and \( b_t \). \( P(a_t|A_{-t}) \) and \( P(b_t|B_{-t}) \) are respectively estimated from \( A_{-t} \) and \( B_{-t} \). This sampling procedure is iterated until convergence is achieved.

Once both assignments are defined, each probability can be calculated.

\[
P(a_t|A) = \frac{c(a_t) + \beta}{\sum_{a \in \{1, \ldots, Z\}} c(a) + \beta Z},
\]

\[
P(b_t|B) = \frac{c(b_t) + \beta}{\sum_{b \in \{1, \ldots, Z\}} c(b) + \beta Z},
\]

where \( c(a_t) \) denotes the count of model index \( a_t \) in \( A \), and \( c(b_t) \) denotes the count of model index \( b_t \) in \( B \). \( \beta \) is a hyper parameter for Dirichlet distribution.

In a Bayesian criterion, optimized values \( \hat{P}(a) \) and \( \hat{P}(b) \) are also estimated by Monte Carlo integration. Multiple model index sequences sampled after the burn-in period are defined as \( A^1, \ldots, A^S \) and \( B^1, \ldots, B^S \). \( \hat{P}(a) \) and \( \hat{P}(b) \) are estimated as:

\[
\hat{P}(a) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{i=1}^{S} P(a|A^i),
\]

\[
\hat{P}(b) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{i=1}^{S} P(b|B^i).
\]

3.4 Implementation for ASR

In order to implement the LWLM mixture model and the
LWLM cross-mixture model to ASR, a special technique is needed as well as a standard LWLM. Therefore, this paper introduces an n-gram approximation technique for both the LWLM mixture model and the LWLM cross-mixture model. The n-gram approximation is a method that approximates the n-gram structure, and offers one-pass ASR decoding. The n-gram approximation of LWLM mixture model has the following properties:

\[
lw_{1m} \sim P(w|\Theta_{1m}),
\]

\[
lw_{1mng} \sim P(w|\Theta_{1mng}),
\]

\[
lw_{1m} \approx lw_{1mng},
\]

where \(lw_{1m}\) is an observed word sequence generated from the LWLM mixture model, and \(lw_{1mng}\) is an observed word sequence generated from the approximated model with back-off n-gram structure.

In a similar way, the n-gram approximation of LWLM cross-mixture model has the following properties:

\[
lw_{1ecn} \sim P(w|\Theta_{1ecn}),
\]

\[
lw_{1ecnng} \sim P(w|\Theta_{1ecnng}),
\]

\[
lw_{1ecn} \approx lw_{1ecnng},
\]

where \(lw_{1ecn}\) is an observed word sequence generated from the LWLM cross-mixture model, and \(lw_{1ecnng}\) is an observed word sequence generated from approximated model with back-off n-gram structure.

The random sampling of LWLM mixture model is based on Algorithm 1. In addition, the random sampling of LWLM cross-mixture model is based on Algorithm 2. In line 1, \(I_1\) is initialized as a sentence head symbol `<s>`. With \(T\) iterations, \(T\) latent words, and \(T\) observed words are generated. The \(T\) observed words are used only for back-off n-gram model estimation.

### 4. Experiment 1

#### 4.1 Setups

In the first experiment, a target domain data set and an out-of-domain data set were prepared for constructing an LM. In the experiment, the Corpus of Spontaneous Japanese (CSJ) was divided into academic lectures and extemporaneous lectures [27]. Target domain was set to the academic lectures; a validation data set (Valid) was prepared for the target domain. Training data sets (Train A and B) and test data sets (Test A and B) were prepared for both domains. Vocabulary size for Train A was 40,725 and that for Train B was 64,543.

Details of the experimental data set are shown in Table 1.

For ASR evaluation, an acoustic model on the basis of hidden Markov models with deep neural networks (DNN-HMM) was prepared [28]. The DNN-HMM had eight hidden layers with 2048 nodes and was trained using the CSJ. The speech recognition decoder was VoiceRex, a WFST-based decoder [29], [30]. JTAG was used as the morpheme analyzer to split sentences into words [31].

In the evaluation, we aimed to compare following two settings. One setting was that single training data set is only available. Another setting was that multiple training data sets are available. For the former setting, the following base LMs were individually constructed from each training data set.

1. HPY3: Word-based 3-gram hierarchical Pitman-Yor LM (HPYLM) constructed from a training data set [32]. For the training, 200 iterations were used for burn-in, and collected 10 samples. HPY3 constructed from the training data set A is denoted as 1-A, and HPY3 constructed from the training data set B is denoted as 1-B

2. LW3: Word-based 3-gram HPYLM constructed from data generated on the basis of 3-gram LWLM. The generated data size was one billion words which was determined in consideration of previous work [18]. We pruned n-gram entries as to be comparable computation complexity to HPY3 using entropy based pruning [33]. The LWLM was constructed from a training data set. For the training of LWLM, 500 iterations were used for burn-in and collected a sample. LW3 constructed from the training data set A is denoted as 2-A, and LW3 constructed from the training data set B is denoted as 2-B.

| Domain          | # of words |
|-----------------|------------|
| Train A         | 3,468,133  |
| Train B         | 3,847,816  |
| Valid           | 28,046     |
| Test A          | 27,907     |
| Test B          | 18,251     |

### Algorithm 1 Random sampling based on LWLM mixture model.

**Input:** Model parameters \(\Theta^{1m}_{1} \ldots \Theta^{1m}_{T}\), number of sampled words \(T\)

**Output:** Sampled words \(w\)

1. \(I_1 = \langle s \rangle\)
2. for \(t = 1\) to \(T\) do
3. \(z_t \sim P(z_t)\)
4. \(h_t \sim P(h_t | h_t, \Theta^{1m}_{z_t})\)
5. \(w_t \sim P(w_t | h_t, \Theta^{1m}_{z_t})\)
6. end for
7. return \(w = w_1, \ldots, w_T\)

### Algorithm 2 Random sampling based on LWLM cross-mixture model.

**Input:** Model parameters \(\Theta^{1ecn}_{1} \ldots \Theta^{1ecn}_{T}\), number of sampled words \(T\)

**Output:** Sampled words \(w\)

1. \(I_1 = \langle s \rangle\)
2. for \(t = 1\) to \(T\) do
3. \(a_t \sim P(a_t)\)
4. \(h_t \sim P(h_t)\)
5. \(h_t \sim P(h_t | h_t, \Theta^{1ecn}_{z_t})\)
6. \(w_t \sim P(w_t | h_t, \Theta^{1ecn}_{z_t})\)
7. end for
8. return \(w = w_1, \ldots, w_T\)
Table 3 Perplexity and word error rate [%] results in Experiment 1.

| Adapted model | PPL (Target domain) | WER | Test A (Target domain) | PPL | WER | Test B (Out-of-domain) | PPL | WER |
|---------------|---------------------|-----|------------------------|-----|-----|------------------------|-----|-----|
| 1-A. Base model A | HPY3 | 70.57 | 20.80 | 62.85 | 21.98 | 183.38 | 32.51 |
| 2-A. (Target domain training set) | LW3 | 70.02 | 20.72 | 62.34 | 21.85 | 165.87 | 31.43 |
| 3-A. | HPY3+LW3 | 65.30 | 19.27 | 58.25 | 21.09 | 156.45 | 30.26 |
| 1-B. Base model B | HPY3 | 180.02 | 30.76 | 127.26 | 32.24 | 88.48 | 24.22 |
| 2-B. (Out-of-domain training set) | LW3 | 174.84 | 30.25 | 122.44 | 31.45 | 90.71 | 24.30 |
| 3-B. | HPY3+LW3 | 161.60 | 29.20 | 115.57 | 30.68 | 83.20 | 23.02 |
| 4. Adapted model | HPY3 | 71.68 | 18.78 | 64.19 | 20.34 | 178.71 | 26.25 |
| 5. | ALWM3 | 72.83 | 18.56 | 64.57 | 20.22 | 178.48 | 26.38 |
| 6. | LW3 | 72.72 | 18.45 | 64.39 | 20.10 | 162.87 | 25.29 |
| 7. | HPY3+ALWM3 | 67.52 | 17.88 | 60.45 | 19.62 | 178.53 | 26.25 |
| 8. | HPY3+LW3 | 67.38 | 17.64 | 60.19 | 19.36 | 164.46 | 25.34 |

Table 2 Out-of-vocabulary rate [%] in Experiment 1.

| Model | Vocabulary size | OOV rate |
|-------|----------------|----------|
| Base model A | 40,725 | 0.89 |
| Base model B | 64,543 | 3.59 |
| Adapted model | 81,856 | 0.67 |

4.2 Results

Table 3 shows the perplexity (PPL) and word error rate (WER) results for each condition. The difference of PPL in base models and in adapted models cannot be compared since each vocabulary size differs.

Lines 1-A to 3-A show the results which only used the training data set A, and lines 1-B to 3-B show the results which only used the training data set B. LW3 provides results comparable to HPY3 in a same domain, and performs robustly in out-of-domain. The WER difference between LW3 and HPY3 in test set B was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The highest performance was obtained by HPY3+LW3. The WER differences between HPY3 and HPY3+LW3 in each test set were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). It can be considered that the performance was improved because LW3 and HPY3 had different attributes, which observed words are generated depending on latent words in LW3 while they are generated depending on last observed words in HPY3.

Next, Lines 4-8 show the results of adapted LMs which used both the training data set A and the training data set B. The results show performance improvements were obtained by using the out-of-domain training data compared with only using the target domain training data. About the target domain, ALWM3 and LW3 provided comparable performance to HPY3. In addition, both of LWLM-based adapted models acquired the improvement by combining mixture of HPYLMs. It is considered to originate in having the character in which HPY3 differ from LW3. The highest performance was obtained by HPY3+LW3. In terms of WER, statistically significant performance improvements ($p < 0.01$) were achieved by HPY3+LW3 compared to HPY3.

On the other hand, about the out-of-domain, LW3 achieved higher performance than HPY3 and ALWM3. The WER difference between ALWM3 and LW3 in test set B was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). This result shows that mixture modeling in the latent variable space can perform more flexible adaptation than that in the observed word space. Actually, in mixture modeling on a latent variable space, the mixture weight for base model B is comparatively high compared with that in an observed word space. The mixture weight for base model B in ALWM3 was 0.09 while

...
that in \text{LWM3} was 0.13. In terms of WER, statistically significant performance improvements ($p < 0.01$) were also achieved by \text{HPY3+LWM3} compared to \text{HPY3}. It turned out that \text{LWM3} can achieve improvement for both the target domain and the out-of-domain compared with \text{HPY3}.

5. **Experiment 2**

5.1 **Setups**

In the second experiment, two types of partially matched training data sets were prepared for constructing an LM. The target domain was set to academic lecture speech; its style is spontaneous speech and the topic is related to acoustics. A validation data set (Valid) and a test data set (Test) for the target domain were prepared from CSJ\cite{27}. Each data set had about 30K words.

Training data set A (Train A) consisted of transcriptions of simulated lecture speeches that are included in CSJ. The data size was about 4M words and the style matched that of the target domain but the topic was not related to the target domain. The vocabulary size was 64,761. On the other hand, training data set B (Train B) consisted of Web documents collected using the validation data set based on relevant document retrieval techniques\cite{34}. The data size was about 11M words and the topic was related to the acoustics but the style was written text. The vocabulary size was 64,152. These setups seem to be reasonable for practical spontaneous speech recognition tasks. Details of the experimental data set are summarized in Table 4.

For evaluating ASR performance, a DNN-HMM acoustic model was prepared\cite{28}. The DNN-HMM had 8 hidden layers with 2048 nodes and 3072 outputs. The speech recognition decoder was a WFST-based decoder\cite{29}.

Our experimental settings aimed to compare following two settings. One setting was that single partially matched training data set is only available. Another setting was that multiple training data sets which complement each other are available. For the former setting, four types of base LMs were individually constructed from each training data set.

1. **HPY3**: Word-based 3-gram HPYLM constructed from a training data set\cite{32}. For the training, 200 iterations were used for burn-in, and collected 10 samples. HPY3 constructed from the training data set A is denoted as 1-A, and HPY3 constructed from the training data set B is denoted as 1-B.

2. **RNN**: Class-based RNNLm with 500 hidden nodes and 500 classes constructed from a training data set\cite{12}. RNN constructed from the training data set A is denoted as 2-A, and RNN constructed from the training data set B is denoted as 2-B.

3. **LW3**: Word-based 3-gram HPYLM constructed from data generated on the basis of 3-gram LWLM. The generated data size was one billion words which was determined in consideration of our previous work\cite{18}. We pruned n-gram entries as to be comparable computation complexity to HPY3 using entropy based pruning\cite{33}. The LWLM was constructed from a training data set. For the training of LWLM, 500 iterations were used for burn-in and collected 10 samples. LW3 constructed from the training data set A is denoted as 3-A, and LW3 constructed from the training data set B is denoted as 3-B.

4. **HPY3+LW3**: Mixed model which combined HPY3 and LW3 with a mixture weight. The mixture weight was set as 0.5 that was an optimal value for the validation set. The mixed model trained from training data set A is denoted as 4-A, and the mixed model trained from training data set B is denoted as 4-B.

Next, for the latter setting, following adapted LMs were constructed using the trained base LMs.

5. **HPYM3**: HPYLM mixture model constructed from HPY3 trained from the training data set A and HPY3 trained from the training data set B. The mixture weights were optimized using the validation data set. It was converted into a back-off n-gram structure and implemented in a WFST-based one-pass decoder.

6. **RNNM**: RNN mixture model constructed from RNN trained from the training data set A and RNN trained from the training data set B. The mixture weights were optimized using the validation data set. It cannot be converted into WFST format, so single use of RNNM was only tested in perplexity evaluation. 1000-best rescoring was used when RNNM was combined with other LM.

7. **LWM3**: Word-based 3-gram HPYLM constructed from data generated on the basis of an LWLM mixture model. The LWLM mixture model was constructed from an LWLM trained from the training data set A and an LWLM trained from the training data set B. For the n-gram approximation, one billion words were generated as with LW3. We pruned n-gram entries as to be comparable computation complexity to HPYM3 using entropy based pruning. The mixture weights were optimized using the validation data set.

8. **LWLM3**: Word-based 3-gram HPYLM constructed from data generated on the basis of an LWLM cross-mixture model. The LWLM cross-mixture model was constructed from an LWLM trained from the training data set A and an LWLM trained from the training data set B. For the n-gram approximation, one billion words were generated as with LW3 and LWLM3. We pruned n-gram entries as to be comparable computation complexity to HPYM3 using entropy based pruning. The mixture weights were optimized using the validation data set.

| Style  | Topic     | # of words |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| Train A | Spontaneous | Various topics | 5,833,883 |
| Train B | Written   | Acoustics   | 10,541,945 |
| Valid   | Spontaneous | Acoustics   | 28,547    |
| Test    | Spontaneous | Acoustics   | 28,504    |

Table 4: Experimental data set in Experiment 2.
Table 6  Perplexity and word error rate [%] results in Experiment 2.

|   | Valid (Target domain) | Test (Target domain) |
|---|-----------------------|----------------------|
|   | PPL | WER | PPL | WER |
| 1-A. | Base model A | HPY3 | 247.73 | 31.42 | 186.11 | 35.94 |
| 2-A. | Training set A | RNN | 244.73 | - | 184.16 | - |
| 3-A. | LW3 | 239.91 | 31.09 | 179.83 | 35.45 |
| 4-A. | HPY3+LW3 | 223.68 | 29.86 | 169.93 | 34.16 |
| 1-B. | Base model B | HPY3 | 235.91 | 30.68 | 273.09 | 37.33 |
| 2-B. | Training set B | RNN | 275.23 | - | 326.31 | - |
| 3-B. | LW3 | 207.91 | 30.05 | 240.08 | 36.47 |
| 4-B. | HPY3+LW3 | 200.90 | 28.82 | 232.93 | 34.88 |
| 5. | Adapted model | HPYM3 | 130.30 | 25.24 | 119.22 | 30.33 |
| 6. | RNN | 126.35 | - | 118.45 | - |
| 7. | LW3 | 121.60 | 24.47 | 113.76 | 29.84 |
| 8. | LWM3 | 133.85 | 25.50 | 123.55 | 30.48 |
| 9. | HPYM3+RNNM3 | 114.15 | 24.32 | 106.49 | 29.40 |
| 10. | LWM3+LWC3 | 116.54 | 24.06 | 108.44 | 29.37 |
| 11. | HPYM3+LWM3 | 115.72 | 24.27 | 109.26 | 29.55 |
| 12. | HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3 | 111.90 | 23.88 | 105.74 | 29.20 |
| 13. | HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3+RNNM | 105.81 | 23.42 | 100.82 | 28.64 |

Table 5  Out-of-vocabulary rate [%] in Experiment 2.

| Vocabulary size | OOV rate (%) | Valid | Test |
|-----------------|--------------|-------|------|
| Base model A    | 64,761       | 3.59  | 3.55 |
| Base model B    | 64,152       | 1.77  | 1.61 |
| Adapted model   | 100,677      | 0.83  | 0.68 |

The vocabulary size for each adapted model was 100,677. Furthermore, combined models of the adapted models were also constructed. For the Monte Carlo integration, \( S \) was set to 10. In these settings, other hyper parameters were optimized using the validation data set. Table 5 demonstrates OOV rate for both base LMs and adapted LMs.

5.2 Results

Table 6 shows the PPL and WER results for each condition. The difference of PPL in base models and in adapted models cannot be compared since each vocabulary size differs.

Base LMs constructed from training data set A are shown in lines 1-A to 4-A, and those constructed from training data set B are shown in lines 1-B to 4-B. The validation set was linguistically more complicated than the test set so low perplexity could be achieved in the test set. On the other hand, the test set was acoustically more complicated than the validation set, so WERs on the test set were higher than those of the validation set. In addition, training data set B was collected using the validation data set, so perplexity results for the validation set were relatively low compared to the test set. Among the base LMs, LW3 provided better results than RNN and HPY3, and the highest result was achieved by LW3+HPY3 for both the base model A and the base model B. These results are in agreement with experiment 1 and previous papers that state that LWLMs offer robust performance in multiple domains [16]–[18]. In both validation set and test set, the WER differences between LW3+HPY3 and HPY3 for both training data sets were statistically significant \((p < 0.01)\).

Adapted LMs constructed from the base LMs are shown in lines 5 to 13. They show that each adapted LM was superior to the base LMs in terms of WER, so domain adaptation based on mixture modeling seem to be effective. LWCM3 was relatively weaker than LWM3 although LWM3 did achieve some improvement over HPYM3. It can be considered that the cross-mixture structure, which makes component parameters partially exchangeable between the base LMs, adversely impacts mixture modeling. In fact, individual LWLMs were trained by a sampling technique, so latent word space were not universal between LWLMs. It can be expected that LWCM3 is well constructed by increasing number of samples in LWLM training. On the other hand, the highest performance was achieved by LWM3+LWC3 that combines an LWLM mixture model and an LWLM cross-mixture model although the WER differences between LWM3+LWC3 to LWM3 were statistically no significant \((p > 0.05)\). This is because an LWLM cross-mixture model has different characteristics than those of a standard LWLM mixture model. Thus, it seems that an LWLM cross-mixture model can mitigate domain mismatching between the target domain and each training data set. In both validation set and test set, the WER differences between LWM3+LWC3 and HPYM3 were statistically significant \((p < 0.05)\). LWM3+LWC3 demonstrated higher performance than state-of-the-art RNNM in terms of PPL.

In addition, HPYM3+LWM3 outperformed HPYM3 and LWM3. It is considered to originate in having different characters in which observed words are generated depending on latent words in LWM3 while they are generated depending on last observed words in HPYM3. Among WFST-based one-pass decoding results, the highest performance was obtained by HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3. The WER differences between HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3 to HPYM3 were statistically significant \((p < 0.01)\). In all results, HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3+RNNM that fused HPYM3+LWM3+LWC3 with RNNM in two-pass decoding presented the best performance. In terms of WER, stas-
tically significant performance improvements ($p < 0.05$) were achieved by $\text{HPYM}3+\text{LWM}3+\text{LWCM}3+\text{RNNM}$ compared to $\text{HPYM}3+\text{RNNM}$ in validation set and test set. This indicates that $\text{LWM}3+\text{LWCM}3$ could improve the state-of-the-art domain adapted systems that combines n-gram language modeling and RNN language modeling.

6. Conclusions

In this paper, LWM mixture models and LWM cross-mixture models were reported to enhance domain adaptation using out-of-domain text resources. Latent variables in LWMs are represented as specific words that can be selected from the observed word space, so we can realize mixture modeling with consideration of the latent variable space. The LWM mixture models can perform latent word space mixture that can mitigate a domain mismatch between a target domain and training data sets. Besides, the LWM cross mixture models that construct a mixture model for each component in LWMs can utilize partially matched text resources. The proposed models can be optimized using a small amount of target domain data as well as n-gram mixture modeling. Detailed experiments showed that LWM mixture modeling outperformed n-gram mixture modeling. In addition, combination of the LWM cross-mixture model and the LWM mixture model yielded performance improvements, while using an LWM cross-mixture model by itself offers little benefit.

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