TaylorBeamixer: Learning Taylor-Inspired All-Neural Multi-Channel Speech Enhancement from Beam-Space Dictionary Perspective

Andong Li¹², Weixin Meng¹², Guochen Yu¹, Wenzhe Liu³, Xiaodong Li¹², Chengshi Zheng¹²

¹Key Laboratory of Noise and Vibration Research, Institute of Acoustics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China
²University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China
³Tencent Ethereal Audio Lab, Tencent Corporation, Shenzhen, China
{lilandong, mengweixin, csszheng, lxd}@mail.ioa.ac.cn

Abstract

Despite the promising performance of existing frame-wise all-neural beamformers in the speech enhancement field, it remains unclear what the underlying mechanism exists. In this paper, we revisit the beamforming behavior from the beam-space dictionary perspective and formulate it into the learning and mixing of different beam-space components. Based on that, we propose an all-neural beamformer called TaylorBM to simulate Taylor’s series expansion operation in which the 0th-order term serves as a spatial filter to conduct the beam mixing, and several high-order terms are tasked with residual noise cancellation for post-processing. The whole system is devised to work in an end-to-end manner. Experiments are conducted on the spatialized LibriSpeech corpus and results show that the proposed approach outperforms existing advanced baselines in terms of evaluation metrics.

Index Terms: multi-channel speech enhancement, taylor’s approximation theory, beam-space, deep neural networks

1. Introduction

By virtue of the spatial information, multi-channel speech enhancement (MC-SE) can effectively extract the target speech from the noisy mixture and often leads to superior performance over the single-channel (SC) case [1, 2]. Recently, with the advent of deep neural networks (DNNs), we have witnessed the proliferation of neural beamformers (NBFs) by leaps and bounds, which make significant progress over traditional spatial filters [3, 4, 5, 6]. Existing methods can be broadly broken into three categories. The first class works in a hybrid mode, i.e., the speech/noise mask is estimated by a general network, and a traditional utterance- or batch-level beamformer is utilized for spatial filtering [3, 4]. A critic is that the two modules are often separately tackled, the performance is often limited and suffers from heavy degradation when the frame-wise processing is required. The second one follows the extraction-fusion protocol where the spectral and spatial cues are explicitly/implicitly extracted, and the network serves as the fusion module to combine both features in the non-linear space to derive the target speech in an end-to-end manner [5, 7, 8, 9, 10]. As a natural extension of SC-SE, they often cause non-linear speech distortion because the spatial discrimination property is not fully utilized. For the third class, more recently, a few studies reveal the potential and superiority of frame-wise all-neural beamformers in either time-domain [11] or time-frequency (TF) domain [12, 13, 14], where DNNs are employed to replace or abstract part of the signal-processing based operations to estimate the beamforming weights. As the beamforming weights are non-linearly mapped frame by frame, less algorithmic delay is required while the performance can be guaranteed under the E2E training criterion.

To enable frame-wise all-neural beamformers, the spatial and spectral modes are usually entangled in the non-linear feature space, and the whole system is usually encapsulated into a black box, thus lacking adequate interpretability and transparency [14]. [15] proposed to decouple the pipeline into the superimposition of the spatial and spectral processing modes based on Taylor’s approximation theory, where the 0th-order term corresponds to the spatial filter and the remaining several high-order terms are designed to cancel the residual interference in the spectral sense. Despite the deep insight, we find it still unclear or even unknown where does the generated spatial beam in the 0th-order term come from? In other words, given the noisy complex spectra from the array as the input, the estimated beam seems to be “created” from scratch via the network without any explicit prior representations. To this end, we revisit the spatial filtering behavior from the beam-space dictionary perspective, and formulate the beamforming operation into the adaptive activating and mixing of different basis beams in the beam-space domain [16]. Based on that, we propose a novel all-neural beamformer called TaylorBeamixer (abbreviated as TaylorBM) based on Taylor’s approximation theory. Specifically, the 0th-order term serves as the spatial filter by dynamically selecting and mixing the beam components with different spatial responses. And multiple high-order terms are superimposed as the residual noise canceller for post-processing. To enable the E2E training, we replace the complicated derivative terms with trainable modules. Compared with [15], we merely add one differentiable layer with negligible parameters. Nonetheless, it provides a different and new perspective on the beamforming process and also achieves on-par or better performance. We hope this work can take a further step toward understanding the internal logic of the white-box-oriented NBFs.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we formulate the problem. In Section 3, the proposed method is presented. Section 4 gives the experimental setup, and results and analysis are presented in Section 5. Conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

2. Problem formulation

Given a recorded $M$-channel time-domain acoustic signal vector $x(n) \in \mathbb{R}^M$ in a reverberant and noisy environment, the physical model after the short-time Fourier transform (STFT) can be given:

$$\mathbf{X}_{\ell,k} = c_{\ell,k} \mathbf{S}_{\ell,k} + \mathbf{V}_{\ell,k}^{\text{early}} + \mathbf{V}_{\ell,k}^{\text{late}} + \mathbf{N}_{\ell,k}$$

where $\{\mathbf{X}_{\ell,k}, \mathbf{V}_{\ell,k}, \mathbf{N}_{\ell,k}\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^M$ denote the mixture, reverberation, and noise components in the frequency index of $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$ and time index of $\ell \in \{1, \ldots, L\}$. $c_{\ell,k} \in \mathbb{C}^M$ is the direct part of acoustic transfer function (ATF) vector of speech and $\mathbf{S}_{\ell,k} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ is the complex spectrum of the clean speech. Superscripts $^{\text{early}}$ and $^{\text{late}}$ namely denote the early and late part of the reverberation component. Without loss of generality, the first channel is selected as the reference channel.

We aim to suppress the directional noise and late reverberation
component, and the beamforming technique is commonly adopted, given by
\[
\tilde{S}_{l,k} = W_{l,k}^H X_{l,k},
\]
where \( W_{l,k} \in \mathbb{C}^{M} \) denotes the beamforming weights, \( \tilde{\cdot} \) and \( (\cdot)^H \) denote the estimated variable and Hermitian transpose, respectively.

In [17], the adaptive beamformer was decomposed into the product of a fixed beamformer (FB) and a post filter (PF):
\[
W_{l,k} = B_{l,k} G_{l,k},
\]
where \( B_{l,k} \) is a time-invariant fixed beam and \( G_{l,k} \) is a controlling coefficient in each T-F bin. However, as the desired speech source may appear in any spatial position with different direction-of-arrivals (DOAs), it seems far from adequate to track and approximate the adaptive beamformer with merely one set of FB and PF. Towards this end, we revisit the beamforming process and formulate it into the adaptive activating and mixing of a set of beam-space components. Concretely, we define a time-invariant beam-space dictionary (T1-BD) \( B = (B_1, \ldots, B_P) \in \mathbb{C}^{K \times M \times P} \) where \( B_p \in \mathbb{C}^{K \times M} \) refers to the basis beam with index \( p \in \{1, \ldots, P\} \). To control the gain, we can allocate each beam as a general activating coefficient, and the activating matrix can be defined as \( \mathcal{G} = (G_1, \ldots, G_P) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times K \times P} \). Therefore, the decomposition in Eq.(3) is converted into a more generalized format, i.e.,
\[
W_{l,k} = \sum_{p=1}^{P} B_{l,k,p} G_{l,k,p}.
\]

Recall that in the non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) based SE methods [18, 19], a similar mathematical expression has been given, but they are by no means the same. The major difference is that the dictionary herein is built in the beam-space domain, while the dictionary in the NMF-based SE is built in the frequency domain. Substituting Eq.(4) into Eq.(2), one can get
\[
\tilde{S}_{l,k} = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \sum_{k,p}^{p} \delta_{l,k,p} Y_{l,k,p},
\]
where \( Y_{l,k,p} \equiv p \delta Y_{l,k,p} \in \mathbb{C} \) refers to the obtained beam output by the \( p \)th basis beam. As such, we provide a different insight toward the beamforming process, i.e., the beamforming operation can be regarded as the mixing strategy within the beam-space dictionary weighted by different activating coefficients. This is in essence a type of dictionary learning [20, 21].

We assume that the beamformer does not introduce distortions directly from training data automatically. Besides, as the derivative operation is avoided, the training process can thus be more stable.

If Eq. (14) that involves both the derivative operation and high-order terms serve as the residual noise canceller for post-processing. Note that in [15], a similar format was derived. However, in this work, we provide a more intuitive explanation of the beamforming behavior, i.e., a set of beam components are first generated by the time-invariant beam-space dictionary in advance, followed by an adaptive activating matrix to mix and estimate the target spatial beam. In contrast, in [15], it remains unclear about the internal mechanism of the time-variant beam generation.

3. Proposed approach

3.1. Relation between adjacent order terms

In practical implementation, we usually truncate the order number into a finite value, i.e., \( Q \). To resolve Eq.(8), let us note the \( q \)th order term as \( \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta) \), it is
\[
\mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta) = \sum_{p=1}^{P} \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p)}{\partial Y_p} S^q_p.
\]

Note that the factorial term is dropped for convenience. To obtain the relation between adjacent orders, we differentiate \( \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta) \) with respect to \( Y_p \):
\[
\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta)}{\partial Y_p} = \frac{\partial}{\partial Y_p} \left( \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p)}{\partial Y_p} S^q_p \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial Y_p} \left( \sum_{q' \neq q} \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p)}{\partial Y_p} S^q_p \right).
\]

Ideally, if each acoustic source lies within a different beam component, neighboring beams can be approximately assumed as statistically mutually independent. The more the number of microphones and beams, the better the independence assumption can hold. Meanwhile, we can control the orthogonality of beams by selecting a suitable beam-space dictionary. To simplify the derivation, we assume the statistical independence between \( Y_p \) and \( Y_p' \) for \( p' \neq p \). Eq. (10) can then be further converted according to the chain rule:
\[
\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta)}{\partial Y_p} = \frac{\partial}{\partial Y_p} \left( \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p)}{\partial Y_p} S^q_p \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial Y_p} \left( \sum_{q' \neq q} \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p')}{\partial Y_p'} S^q_p \right)
\]

Notice that,
\[
\sum_{p=1}^{P} \frac{\partial}{\partial Y_p} \left( \frac{\partial^q F_p(Y_p)}{\partial Y_p} \right) S^q_p = q \mathcal{H}(q+1,Y,\delta),
\]

We can thus derive the recursive formula between \( \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta) \) and \( \mathcal{H}(q+1,Y,\delta) \) as
\[
\mathcal{H}(q+1,Y,\delta) = q \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta) + \sum_{p=1}^{P} \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}(q,Y,\delta)}{\partial Y_p} S^q_p.
\]

One can get that there exists one term in the right-hand of Eq. (14) that involves both the derivative operation and \( \delta \). Moreover, we actually do not know its real distribution. To this end, we replace the complicated term with a trainable network module and learn it directly from training data automatically. Besides, as the derivative operation is avoided, the training process can thus be more stable.
3.2. Time-invariant beam-space dictionary

To analyze the impact of the beam-space dictionary, three TI-BD tactics are investigated, namely fixed, semi-learnable, and full-learnable. For fixed type, we select two classical FBS as the candidate, namely delay-and-sum (DS) and superdirective (SD) [23], which can be expressed:

$$B_{k,p} = \Phi^{-1}_{h} h_{k,p} \Phi^{-1}_{\epsilon} \epsilon_{k,p}, \quad (15)$$

where $h$ and $\Phi$ denote the steering vectors and noise correlation matrix, respectively. When $\Phi$ is an identity matrix, the calculated beamformer corresponds to the DS case, and that of SD if $\Phi$ is the diffuse noise correlation matrix. Here we uniformly sample the space with $P$ beams by adjusting the steering vector toward the target DOA. For example, if the circular array is employed and spatial resolution $\Delta \theta = 10^\circ$, then the number of beams $P$ is $360 \times \frac{360}{\Delta \theta} = 36$.

In the semi-learnable setting, part of terms can be trainable. For example, we set the parameters of $\Phi$ to be trainable while steering vectors are fixed so that the noise correlation matrix can be optimized in the training process. Note that to guarantee the semi-positive property of the noise correlation matrix, its inversion is calculated by $\Phi^{-1} = UU^T$ [24] and $U$ is a lower triangular matrix.

For full-learnable scheme, two versions are set, namely notated as Full-v1 and Full-v2. For the former, both the noise correlation matrix and steering vectors to be trainable but the dictionary is still calculated following the formula of Eq. (15). For the latter, we investigate whether keeping the physical meaning of the basis beam is necessary or not. After the initialization, the whole dictionary is switched to be trainable and it does not need to follow the formula shown in Eq. (15) in the training process.

3.3. Network structure

The overall diagram of the proposed system is shown in Fig. 1. In general, any existing network structures can easily adapt to our framework, and in this study, we adopt the same structure as [15]. After being transformed by TI-BD, the noisy spectra from the array are projected into a beam set with $P$ beams, and we concatenate them along the channel dimension to obtain the tensor $Y \in \mathbb{C}^{L \times K \times P}$. In the 0th-order module, a typical “Encoder-Decoder” structure is adopted with cascade squeeze temporal convolution modules (S-TCMs) [25] in the bottleneck for sequence modeling. After that, sub-band LSTMs are utilized to estimate the activating matrix for beam mixing in each T-F bin. For the high-order terms estimation, we follow the recursive formula in Eq. (14) and multiple S-TCMs are adopted to model the distribution of the complicated derivative term. Finally, we superimpose both the 0th-order and high-order terms to obtain the target speech.

4. Experimental setup

4.1. Dataset configuration

We use the open-sourced LibriSpeech ASR corpus [26] to synthesize the multi-channel noisy-clean pairs, where train-clean-100, dev-clean, and test-clean are used for training, validation and testing, respectively. For directional noise source, we randomly select 20,000 types of noises from the DNS-Challenge noise set, whose duration is around 55 hours. We simulate multi-channel RIRs based on a circular array of seven microphones, where one microphone is placed in the center and the remaining six microphones are uniformly spaced on a circle. The radius of the circle is set to 4.25 cm. Without loss of generality, the microphone in the center is selected as reference. The room size ranges from 5-5.3 m$^3$ to 10-10.4 m$^3$ in the length-width-height format. The reverberation time (T$_{60}$) is sampled in the range of 0.1-1.0 s and the first 0.1 s of the room impulse response (RIR) with reverberation time shortening technique [27] is convolved with clean speech to obtain the target speech. For each target speech, we randomly choose 1-3 positions to play the noise and the distance between the source and microphone center ranges from 0.5 m to 5.0 m. All the sources are assumed to be static without changing their positions within one utterance. The signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) is chosen from $[-5,10]$ dB. Totally, we generate 40,000 and 10,000 noisy-clean pairs for training and validation, respectively, and the average utterance length is around 4-second.

For model evaluations, two sets are set, namely Set-A and Set-B. In Set-A, we only set one directional noise with four DOA-difference cases, namely 0-15°, 15°-45°, 45°-90°, and 90°-180°. For Set-B, 1-3 directional noises are placed with randomly selected DOAs. For both sets, around 50 noises from MUSAN corpus are selected [28]. Testing SNR ranges $[-5,5]$ dB, and 200 pairs are generated.

4.2. Training configuration

All the utterances are sampled at 16 kHz. 20 ms squared-root Hann window is selected with 50% overlap between adjacent frames. 320 FFT is adopted, leading to 161 dimensions in the frequency axis.
Table 2: Quantitative comparisons with advanced baselines. The values are specified with PESQ/ESTOI/SI-SNR/DNSMOS formats.

| Systems       | Param. (M) | MARS (G/s) | 0-15s | 15°-45° | 45°-90° | 90°-180° |
|---------------|------------|------------|-------|---------|---------|----------|
| Noisy         | -          | -         | 1.7049 | 5.515 | 1.212 | 1.762 |
| TI-MVDR (Oracle) | -          | -         | 2.5457 | 3.294 | 0.919 | 1.718 |
| TI-MWF (Oracle) | -          | -         | 2.6677 | 7.220 | 2.043 | 2.673 |
| CasNet-TAC(4ms) | 2.65      | 16.52     | 2.5370 | 3.384 | 0.442 | 3.983 |
| MMUB          | 1.96      | 8.35      | 2.2762 | 3.425 | 0.629 | 3.218 |
| NSF           | 12.96    | 4.99      | 2.6471 | 8.105 | 0.692 | 2.733 |
| COSPA         | 3.66     | 1.16      | 2.2722 | 2.622 | 1.210 | 2.309 |
| FT-JNF        | 3.35     | 54.36     | 2.7272 | 2.971 | 0.323 | 2.894 |
| EabNet        | 2.82     | 7.44      | 3.0078 | 8.739 | 0.768 | 3.108 |
| TaylorBM (Ours) | 5.63   | 9.18      | 3.0680 | 12.95 | 0.723 | 3.143 |

5.1. Ablation study

We conduct the ablation study to analyze the impact of the beam-space dictionary in terms of type and number, whose metric results in terms of PESQ [33], ESTOI [34], and SI-SNR [35] are shown in Table 1. Several conclusions can be drawn. First, when the DS and SD are employed in the beam-space dictionary, we observe the worst metric scores. This is because FBs only exhibit decent characteristics in the specific noise fields. For example, DS beamformer yields the largest white array-gain while the SD beamformer has the largest directivity under the diffuse noise field. However, in practical acoustic scenarios, the noise field can be relatively complicated, and using a fixed beam-space dictionary may not be adequate to describe the spatial relations accurately. Then we switch the noise correlation matrix to be learnable, and from entry 1a(b) to 1c, one can observe notable metric improvements. This reveals the significance to represent the time-invariant noise field properly. When both steering vectors and noise correlation matrix are learnable, only marginal performance gain is obtained. We attribute the reason as a dense beam sampling strategy is adopted, e.g., 36, which is a complete spatial representation even with oracle steering vectors. Finally, we observe further improvements when the basis beam does not obey the physical formula of FB anymore, i.e., from entry 1d to 1e. This shows that current manually prior constraints may not be always necessarily the feasible option from the joint learning perspective [13].

5.2. Results comparison with advanced baselines

Table 2 shows the quantitative comparisons with previous baselines. Besides PESQ/ESTOI/SI-SNR, DNSMOS [36] is also adopted, which is an effective tool to simulate the subjective rating. One can see that overall, the proposed method yields better performance than the baselines. Compared with TaylorBF, we only add one differentiable layer with neglectable the number of parameters, nonetheless, we observe consistent improvements in terms of different metrics. Also, as we convert the beamforming operation in the network into the beam-space dictionary learning and adaptive activating, the proposed method can exhibit better interpretability and provide more insight.

Fig. 2 shows the visualization of the beam activation and beampattern at the time index t = 3.3 s. The target source is located at 182° and 3 directional noises are placed at [1°, 218°, 237°]. One can see that in Fig. 2(b), the beam response has a relatively large value in the beam index of 18 and low values in the 1st, 21-24th index, indicating that the proposed model can properly select the beam component in the spatial sense. Interestingly, in Fig. 2(c), the activating distribution seems irregular and does not follow the expected spatial indication, and we attribute the reason as the beam-space dictionary and activating matrix are jointly learned and thus the basis beam may not obey the originally uniform spatial distribution. From Fig. 2(d)-(e), one can see that for either semi-learnable and full-learnable, the 0th-order term can effectively preserve the target source in the expected direction and suppress the noises by nulling, revealing that the 0th-order indeed serves as a spatial filter.

6. Conclusions

In this paper, we propose a Taylor-inspired all-neural beamformer dubbed TaylorBM for multi-channel speech enhancement. A beam-space dictionary is first employed to convert the received signals of different microphones into the dense beam distribution in the beam-space domain. Following Taylor’s series expansion formula, in the 0th-order term, the spatial filter works by adaptively aggregating and mixing the beam components with various responses. And multiple high-order terms serve as the residual noise for post-processing. Experiments on a circular array with seven microphones reveal the superior performance of the proposed approach.
7. References

[1] S. Gannot, E. Vincent, S. Markovich-Golan, and A. Ozerov, “A consolidated perspective on multimicrophone speech enhancement and source separation,” IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing, vol. 25, no. 4, pp. 692–730, 2017.

[2] S. Dočo, W. Kellermann, S. Makino, and S. E. Nordholm, “Multichannel signal enhancement algorithms for assisted listening devices: Exploiting spatial diversity using multiple microphones,” IEEE Signal Processing Magazine, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 18–30, 2015.

[3] J. Heymann, L. Drude, and R. Haeb-Umbach, “Neural network based spectral mask estimation for acoustic beamforming,” in 2016 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2016, pp. 196–200.

[4] J. Heymann, L. Drude, A. Chimaev, and R. Haeb-Umbach, “Blstm supported gev beamformer front-end for the 3rd chime challenge,” in 2015 IEEE Workshop on Automatic Speech Recognition and Understanding (ASRU). IEEE, 2015, pp. 444–451.

[5] Z.-Q. Wang, P. Wang, and D. Wang, “Complex spectral mapping for single-and multi-channel speech enhancement and robust asr,” IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, speech, and language processing, vol. 28, pp. 1778–1787, 2020.

[6] T. Ochiai, S. Watanabe, T. Hori, J. R. Hershey, and X. Xiao, “Unified architecture for multichannel end-to-end speech recognition with neural beamforming,” IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Signal Processing, vol. 11, no. 8, pp. 1274–1288, 2017.

[7] R. Gu, S.-X. Zhang, L. Chen, Y. Xu, M. Yu, D. Su, Y. Zou, and D. Yu, “Enhancing end-to-end multi-channel speech separation via spatial feature learning,” in ICASSP 2020-2020 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2020, pp. 7319–7323.

[8] S. Chakrabarty and E. A. Habets, “Time–frequency masking based online multichannel speech enhancement with convolutional recurrent neural networks,” IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Signal Processing, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 787–799, 2019.

[9] K. Tan, Z.-Q. Wang, and D. Wang, “Neural sparsespectral filtering,” IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing, vol. 30, pp. 605–621, 2022.

[10] K. Tesch and T. Gerkmann, “Insights into deep non-linear filters for improved multi-channel speech enhancement,” arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.13310, 2022.

[11] Y. Luo, Z. Chen, N. Mesgarani, and T. Yoshioka, “End-to-end microphone permutation and number invariant multi-channel speech separation,” in ICASSP 2020-2020 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2020, pp. 6394–6398.

[12] X. Xiao, S. Watanabe, H. Erdogan, L. Lu, J. Hershey, M. L. Seltzer, G. Chen, Y. Zhang, M. Mandel, and D. Yu, “Deep beamforming networks for multi-channel speech recognition,” in 2016 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2016, pp. 5745–5749.

[13] Z. Zhang, Y. Xu, M. Yu, S.-X. Zhang, L. Chen, and D. Yu, “All-mvdr: All deep learning mvdr beamformer for target speech separation,” in ICASSP 2021-2021 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2021, pp. 6089–6093.

[14] A. Li, W. Liu, C. Zheng, and X. Li, “Embedding and beamforming: All-neural causal beamformer for multichannel speech enhancement,” in ICASSP 2022-2022 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2022, pp. 6487–6491.

[15] A. Li, G. Yu, C. Zheng, and X. Li, “Taylorbeamformer: Learning all-neural multi-channel speech enhancement from taylor’s approximation theory,” arXiv preprint arXiv:2203.07195, 2022.

[16] W. Liu, A. Li, X. Wang, M. Yuan, Y. Chen, C. Zheng, and X. Li, “A neural beamspace-domain filter for real-time multi-channel speech enhancement,” Symmetry, vol. 14, no. 6, p. 1081, 2022.

[17] C. Pan and J. Chen, “A framework of directional-gain beamforming and a white-noise-gain-controlled solution,” IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing, 2022.

[18] Y. Bando, M. Mimura, K. Itoyaama, K. Yoshii, and T. Kawahara, “Statistical speech enhancement based on probabilistic integration of variational autoencoder and non-negative matrix factorization,” in 2018 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2018, pp. 716–720.

[19] D. Lee and H. S. Seung, “Algorithms for non-negative matrix factorization,” Advances in neural information processing systems, vol. 13, 2000.

[20] J. Tošić and P. Frossard, “Dictionary learning,” IEEE Signal Processing Magazine, vol. 28, no. 2, pp. 27–38, 2011.

[21] J. Mairal, F. Bach, J. Ponce, and G. Sapiro, “Online dictionary learning for sparse coding,” in Proceedings of the 26th annual international conference on machine learning, 2009, pp. 689–696.

[22] A. Li, S. You, G. Yu, C. Zheng, and X. Li, “Taylor, can you hear me now? a taylor-unfolding framework for monaural speech enhancement,” arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.00206, 2022.

[23] J. Benesty, J. Chen, and Y. Huang, Microphone array signal processing. Springer Science & Business Media, 2008, vol. 1.

[24] Z. Zhang, T. Yoshioka, N. Kanda, Z. Chen, X. Wang, D. Wang, and S. E. Eskimez, “All-neural beamformer for continuous speech separation,” in ICASSP 2022-2022 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2022, pp. 6032–6036.

[25] A. Li, W. Liu, C. Zheng, C. Fan, and X. Li, “Two heads are better than one: A two-stage complex spectral mapping approach for monaural speech enhancement,” IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Processing, 2022, pp. 1829–1843, 2021.

[26] V. Panayotov, G. Chen, D. Povey, and S. Khudanpur, “Librispeech: an asr corpus based on public domain audio books,” in 2015 IEEE international conference on acoustics, speech and signal processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2015, pp. 5206–5210.

[27] R. Zhou, W. Zhu, and X. Li, “Single-channel speech dereverberation using subband network with a reverberation time shortening target,” arXiv preprint arXiv:2204.08765, 2022.

[28] D. Snyder, G. Chen, and D. Povey, “Musan: A music, speech, and noise corpus,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1510.08484, 2015.

[29] A. Li, C. Zheng, R. Peng, and X. Li, “On the importance of power compression and phase estimation in monaural speech dereverberation,” JASA Express Letters, vol. 1, no. 1, p. 014802, 2021.

[30] D. P. Kingma and J. Ba, “Adam: A method for stochastic optimization,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6980, 2014.

[31] E. Guizzo, C. Marinoni, M. Penasse, X. Ren, X. Zheng, C. Zhang, B. Masiero, A. Uncini, and D. Kommendello, “L3das22 challenge: Learning 3d audio sources in a real office environment,” in ICASSP 2022-2022 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2022, pp. 9186–9190.

[32] M. M. Halimeh and W. Kellermann, “Complex-valued spatial autoencoders for multichannel speech enhancement,” in ICASSP 2022-2022 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP). IEEE, 2022, pp. 261–265.

[33] A. W. Rix, J. G. Boerends, M. P. Hollier, and A. P. Hekstra, “Perceptual evaluation of speech quality (PESQ)–a new method for speech quality assessment of telephone networks and codecs,” in Proc. ICASSP, vol. 2. IEEE, 2001, pp. 749–752.

[34] J. Jensen and C. H. Tial, “An algorithm for predicting the intelligibility of speech masked by modulated noise maskers,” IEEE/ACM Trans. Audio, Speech, Lang. Process., vol. 24, no. 11, pp. 2009–2022, 2016.

[35] J. Le Roux, S. Wisdom, H. Erdogan, and J. R. Hershey, “Sdr-half-baked or well done?” in Proc. ICASSP. IEEE, 2019, pp. 626–630.

[36] C. K. Reddy, V. Gopal, and R. Cutler, “DNSMOS: A non-intrusive perceptual objective speech quality metric to evaluate noise suppressors,” in Proc. ICASSP. IEEE, 2021, pp. 6493–6497.