BRIDGENETS: STUDENT-TEACHER TRANSFER LEARNING BASED ON RECURSIVE NEURAL NETWORKS AND ITS APPLICATION TO DISTANT SPEECH RECOGNITION

Jaeyoung Kim, Mostafa El-Khamy, Jungwon Lee

Samsung Semiconductor, Inc. USA
Emails: {jaey1.kim, mostafa.e, jungwon2.lee}@samsung.com

ABSTRACT

Despite the remarkable progress achieved on automatic speech recognition, recognizing far-field speeches mixed with various noise sources is still a challenging task. In this paper, we introduce novel student-teacher transfer learning, BridgeNet which can provide a solution to improve distant speech recognition. There are two key features in BridgeNet. First, BridgeNet extends traditional student-teacher frameworks by providing multiple hints from a teacher network. Hints are not limited to the soft labels from a teacher network. Teacher’s intermediate feature representations can better guide a student network to learn how to denoise or dereverberate noisy input. Second, the proposed recursive architecture in the BridgeNet can iteratively improve denoising and recognition performance. The experimental results of BridgeNet showed significant improvements in tackling the distant speech recognition problem, where it achieved up to 13.24% relative WER reductions on AMI corpus compared to a baseline neural network without teacher’s hints.

Index Terms— distant speech recognition, student-teacher transfer learning, recursive neural networks, AMI

1. INTRODUCTION

Distant speech recognition (DSR) is to recognize human speeches in the presence of noise, reverberation and interference caused mainly by the large distance between speakers and microphones. DSR is a challenging task especially due to unavoidable mismatches in signal quality between normal close-talking and far-field speech signals. Traditional speech recognizers trained with speech samples from close-talking microphones show significant performance drops in recognizing far-field signals.

There have been great efforts to improve DSR performance. Traditional front-end approaches interconnect multiple independent components such as speech enhancer [1, 2], acoustic speech detector [3, 4], speaker identification [5, 6] and many other blocks before a speech recognition module. The interconnected components denoise and dereverberate far-field speeches to generate enhanced data. A major issue in these approaches is the mismatch between combined components because they are independently optimized without consideration of each other.

Many end-to-end methods are proposed to overcome the issue of front-end approaches by jointly optimizing multiple components in the unified framework. Among them, we discuss two popular approaches relevant to our method.

Multi-task denoising [7, 8, 9] jointly optimizes denoising and recognition sub-networks using synchronized clean data. It minimizes the weighted sum of two loss functions: cross-entropy loss from recognition sub-network output and mean square error (MSE) loss between denoising sub-network output and clean data. Although multi-task denoising showed some improvements on DNN acoustic models, minimizing MSE between raw acoustic data and high-level abstracted features is often unsuccessful. Its performance depends heavily on the underlying acoustic models.

Knowledge distillation (KD) [10, 11] transfers the generalization ability of a bigger teacher network to a typically much smaller student network. It provides soft-target information computed by the teacher network, in addition to its hard-targets, so the student network can learn to generalize similarly. Generalized distillation (GD) [12, 13, 14] extends distillation methods by training a teacher network with separate clean data. A student network is trained on noisy data and, at the same time, guided by the soft-labels from a teacher which has access to synchronized clean speech. The generalized distillation methods showed decent performance on CHiME4 and Aurora2 corpora.

In this paper, we propose novel student and teacher transfer learning, BridgeNet which further extends knowledge distillation [10]. There are two key features in BridgeNet.

- BridgeNet provides multiple hints from a teacher network. KD and GD methods utilize only teacher’s soft labels. BridgeNet provides teacher’s intermediate feature representations as additional hints, which can properly regularize a student network to learn signal denoising.

- The proposed recursive architecture in the BridgeNet can iteratively refine recognition and denoising performance. As ASR performance can be enhanced by sig-
nal denoising, signal denoising can be also improved by reference to ASR output. The proposed recursive architecture enables bi-directional information flows between signal denoising and speech recognition functions by simple network cascading.

The experimental results confirm the effectiveness of BridgeNet by showing that BridgeNet with multiple hints presented up to 10.88% accuracy improvements on the distant speech AMI corpus. With a recursive architecture, BridgeNet achieved up to 13.24% improvements.

2. BRIDGENETS

2.1. Network Description

BridgeNet provides novel student-teacher transfer learning based on a new recursive architecture to deploy the learning-from-hints paradigm [15]. Figure 1 presents a high-level block diagram of BridgeNet. Both student and teacher networks are constructed from a recursive network. They don’t need to have the same recursion number. Typically, a teacher network can have more recursions because its complexity only matters during training stage.

BridgeNet uses a collection of triplets as training data: \((x_t^*, x_t, y_t)\). \(x_t^*\) is enhanced or less noisy data, \(x_t\) and \(y_t\) are noisy data and their labels. A teacher network is trained with \(x_t\) and \(y_t\) pairs. The trained teacher network provides its internal feature representations as hints to a student network. Knowledge bridges are connections between teacher’s hints and student’s guided layers. The connected two layers at the knowledge bridges should have similar level of abstraction. For example, the student’s knowledge bridge of LSTM3 in Figure 3 should be connected to the similar LSTM output at the teacher network.

An error measure \(e_i\) of how a feature representation \(q_i\) from a student network agrees with the hint \(h_i\) is computed at the knowledge bridge as a MSE loss,

\[
e_i(\phi_S) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{t=1}^{L} |h_i(x_t^*) - q_i(x_t; \phi_S)|^2
\]

where \(\phi_S\) is the learnable parameters of a student network. Since \(h_1\) and \(q_1\) are softmax probabilities of teacher and student networks, the cross-entropy loss is used for \(e_1\) instead.

\[
e_1(\phi_S) = -\frac{1}{L} \sum_{t=1}^{L} P_T(x_t^*; \phi_T) \log P_S(x_t; \phi_S)
\]

The parameters of the student network are then optimized by minimizing a weighted sum of all corresponding loss functions,

\[
L(\phi_S) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i e_i(\phi_S)
\]

where \(\alpha_i\) is a predetermined weighting factor for \(e_i\).

Since student and teacher networks have multiple recursions, the same knowledge bridges can be repeatedly connected for every recursion. However, any knowledge bridge added at the intermediate recursion always degraded performance. BridgeNet adds knowledge bridges only at the last recursion as shown in Figure 1.

2.2. Recursive Architecture

In this section, we present a new recursive architecture. A recursive neural network is popularly used in sentence parsing, sentimental analysis, sentence paraphrase and many other areas. It applies the same set of weights recursively over a structure. Its concept is similar to a recurrent network but there is a clear difference in that a recursive neural network can traverse a given structure in any topological order.

Figure 2 (a) shows building blocks of a proposed recursive architecture. It is composed of four sub-blocks: \(I\) and \(F\) take acoustic features and feedback states as their input, \(M\) merges \(I\) and \(F\) outputs and \(L\) produces recognized phone states. Each block can be any type of network. \(p_i^n, f_i^n, m_i^n\) and \(s_i^n\) represents output for the corresponding sub-blocks. \(n\) indicates the recursion number. \(l_{init}\) is a zero vector used as input for the zero recursion.

The advantage of this sub-block division enables a network to recurse with heterogeneous input and output types. For example, a typical acoustic model has context-dependent phones as a network output. This output cannot be fed into an input for the next recursion because the network input is an acoustic signal that is totally different from phone states. The proposed architecture provides two different input paths. They are processed independently and merged later at the \(M\).

Figure 2 presents how to unroll the proposed recursive network in the depth direction. \(R\) implies the number of recursion. The same input \(x_t\) is applied to the network for each
recursion. This repeated input acts as a global shortcut path that is critical to train a deep architecture. Our proposed recursive network can be formulated as follows:

\[ m^n_t = g \left( W_1 \cdot i^n_t(x_t) + W_2 \cdot f^n_t(s^{n-1}_{t-1}) + b \right) \]  \(4\)

\(W_1, W_2\) and \(b\) are the internal parameters of \(M\). Two paths are affine-transformed and added together before going into non-linear function \(g\). Compared with the recursive residual network proposed in [16], our model has two differences. First, the model in [16] can only recurse with homogeneous input and output. Second, a global shortcut path is always added with the output of the prior recursion in [16] but our model allows to flexibly combine two heterogeneous inputs. Simple addition is a special case of Eq. 4.

\[ x_{t} \rightarrow F \rightarrow L \rightarrow \text{lin}_t \rightarrow I \rightarrow M \rightarrow \text{st}_n \rightarrow m_{t} \rightarrow i_{t} \rightarrow f_{t} \rightarrow x_{t} \]

Fig. 2. Unrolling of a Recursive Network: \(R\) is the number of recursions. (a), (b) and (c) show how a recursive network is unrolled in the depth direction. The blocks with the same color share the same weights.

Figure 3 shows our implementation of a recursive network for BridgeNet. It has four components: CNN layers (I), first LSTM layers (F), second LSTM layers (L) and dimension reduction layer (M). Since feedback phone states and acoustic input don’t have correlations in frequency and time directions, they cannot be fed into the same CNN layers. Instead, feedback phones are separately processed in \(F\) controlled by a gate network, \(g^{fb}_n\). Its formulation is referred from [17],

\[ g^{fb}_n = \sigma \left( w_x x_t + w_s s^{n-1}_t + w_h h^n_t \right) \]  \(5\)

where \(s^{n-1}_t\) is a feedback state from the \((n-1)\)th recursion, \(h^n_t\) is the output of \(F\) at the \(n\)th recursion and \(w_x, w_s\) and \(w_h\) are weights to be learned. Two input paths are combined later at the dimension reduction layer. The dimension reduction layer is a fully-connected one to merge them and reduce their dimensions for the second LSTM block, \(L\).

A residual LSTM [13] is used for \(F\) and \(L\) sub-blocks. It has a shortcut path between layers to avoid vanishing or exploding gradients commonly happening to deep networks. It was shown that residual LSTM outperforms plain LSTM for deep networks.

\[ x_t \rightarrow F \rightarrow L \rightarrow \text{lin}_t \rightarrow I \rightarrow M \rightarrow \text{st}_n \rightarrow \text{SoftMax} \]

\[ \text{SoftMax} \rightarrow \text{Residual LSTM} \rightarrow \text{Residual LSTM} \rightarrow \text{Residual LSTM} \rightarrow \text{M} \]

\[ \text{Dimension Reduction} \]

\[ g^{fb}_n \]

\[ h^n_t \]

\[ s^{n-1}_t \]

\[ \text{Merge} \]

\[ x_t \rightarrow S_t, R_{t-1} \]

Fig. 3. CNN-LSTM Recursive Network

3. EXPERIMENTS

3.1. Experimental Setup

AMI corpus [19] provides 100 hours meeting conversations recorded both by individual headset microphones (IHM) and single distant microphones (SDM). IHM data is cleanly recorded but SDM has high noise and other speaker’s interferences. SDM can be improved by beamforming multiple SDM channels, which becomes MDM data. Since IHM, SDM and MDM corpora are synchronously recorded, an alignment label generated by one corpus type can be used to train a network with any other corpus. BridgeNet is trained with a clean alignment from IHM.

Kaldi [20] and Microsoft Cognitive Toolkit (CNTK) [21] are used to train and decode BridgeNet. Log filterbank amplitudes with 80 dimensions are generated as feature vectors. They are stacked as 9 frames to be fed into BridgeNet. Residual LSTMs in BridgeNet has 1024 memory cells and 512 hidden nodes. The final softmax output has 3902 context-dependent phone classes. Two CNN layers has 9x9 and 3x1 kernels with 256 feature maps, respectively.

Since SDM or MDM corpus is a meeting conversation between multiple speakers, we provide two types of word error rates (WER): all-speakers and main-speaker WERs. The all-speakers WER is to decode up to 4 concurrent speeches, which is a big challenge considering training procedure only focuses on a main speaker. The main-speaker WER is to decode single main speaker at each time frame, which is more
Table 1. Multi-Task Denoising on SDM: CNN-LSTM* was trained with a clean alignment from IHM. Other models used a noisy alignment from SDM.

| Acoustic Model               | WER (all) | WER (main) |
|-----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| DNN                         | 59.1%     | 50.5%      |
| DNN, denoised               | 58.7%     | 50.2%      |
| CNN-LSTM                    | 50.4%     | 41.6%      |
| CNN-LSTM, denoised          | 50.1%     | 41.4%      |
| CNN-LSTM*                   | 46.5%     | 37.7%      |
| CNN-LSTM*, denoised         | 46.9%     | 38.2%      |

realistic performance measure for SDM or MDM corpus. We provides both WERs in the later evaluations.

3.2. BridgeNet and Multi-Task Denoising on AMI

Table 1 provides WER evaluation of multi-task denoising on SDM corpus. Multi-task denoising shows only 0.7% and 0.6% main-speaker WER reduction on DNN and CNN-LSTM, which is contrary to the bigger improvement observed in [7]. The trained DNN has 8 layers and each layer has 2048 neurons except bottleneck layers, which is the same as the model in [7]. The main difference is that our DNN model showed significantly lower WERs. It is conjectured that the gain from multi-task denoising decreases for better acoustic model. Next, CNN-LSTM is trained with a clean alignment from IHM corpus. The main-speaker WER of CNN-LSTM got improved more than 9% simply changing alignment labels. However, multi-task denoising on the improved CNN-LSTM degraded WER from 37.8% to 38.2%.

Table 2 presented BridgeNet WER results on SDM corpus. A CNN-LSTM is a baseline network. KD, DR and LSTM3 are knowledge bridges shown in Figure 3. KD in Table 2 means a BridgeNet with only knowledge distillation connection. Likewise, KD+DR and KD+DR+LSTM3 imply BridgeNets with corresponding knowledge bridges. BridgeNets with R0 have no recursion both for student and teacher networks. For BridgeNets with R1, a student network has one recursion but a teacher network has two recursions.

For no recursion, BridgeNet with KD, DR and LSTM3 showed 6.9% and 1.6% relative WER reduction over CNN-LSTM and BridgeNet with KD, respectively. These results showed Knowledge bridges at the intermediate layers further improved a student network by guiding student’s feature representations. For recursions, KD+DR+LSTM3 with R1 showed 3.7% relative WER reduction over KD+DR+LSTM3 without recursion. Compared with CNN-LSTM and KD, KD+DR+LSTM3 with R1 provided 10.34% and 5.04% improvements, respectively. The recursive architecture significantly boosted the performance of a student network.

Table 3 presented BridgeNet WER results on MDM data.

Table 2. BridgeNet: A teacher network is trained with IHM data and a student network is trained with SDM data. Rn means the network has n recursions. (e.g. baseline CNN-LSTM with R2 has two recursions)

| Acoustic Model                        | WER (all) | WER (main) |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| CNN-LSTM (baseline), R0               | 46.5%     | 37.7%      |
| KD, R0                                | 44.8%     | 35.7%      |
| KD+DR, R0                             | 44.1%     | 35.3%      |
| KD+DR+LSTM3, R0                       | 44.0%     | 35.1%      |
| CNN-LSTM, R2                          | 45.8%     | 36.9%      |
| KD, R1                                | 43.7%     | 34.7%      |
| KD+DR, R1                             | 43.4%     | 34.7%      |
| KD+DR+LSTM3, R1                       | 42.6%     | 33.8%      |

MDM data was formed by beamforming 8 channel SDM data using BeamformIt [22]. A student network is trained with beamformed MDM training data and also evaluated with beamformed evaluation data. Similar to the SDM results, BridgeNet provides significant improvements. For no recursion, KD+DR+LSTM3 showed 5.29% and 2.72% relative WER reduction over CNN-LSTM and KD. With recursions, its gain increased as 13.24% and 10.88% compared with the baseline and KD.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a novel student-teacher transfer learning, BridgeNet. BridgeNet introduces knowledge bridges that can provide multiple guiding references to a student network. Knowledge bridges provide a student network with enhanced feature representations at different abstraction levels. BridgeNet is also based on the proposed recursive architecture, which enables to iteratively improve signal denoising and recognition. The experimental results confirmed training with multiple knowledge bridges and recursive architectures significantly improved distant speech recognition.
REFERENCES

[1] Michael Brandstein and Darren Ward, Microphone arrays: signal processing techniques and applications, Springer Science & Business Media, 2013.

[2] Shoji Makino, Te-Won Lee, and Hiroshi Sawada, Blind speech separation, vol. 615, Springer, 2007.

[3] Jongseo Sohn, Nam Soo Kim, and Wonyong Sung, “A statistical model-based voice activity detection,” IEEE signal processing letters, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 1–3, 1999.

[4] Javier Ramirez, José C Segura, Carmen Benitez, Angel De La Torre, and Antonio Rubio, “Efficient voice activity detection algorithms using long-term speech information,” Speech communication, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 271–287, 2004.

[5] Daniel Garcia-Romero and Carol Y Espy-Wilson, “Analysis of i-vector length normalization in speaker recognition systems,” in Interspeech, 2011, vol. 2011, pp. 249–252.

[6] Mirco Ravanelli, Philemon Brakel, Maurizio Omologo, and Yoshua Bengio, “Batch-normalized joint training for DNN-based distant speech recognition,” in Spoken Language Technology Workshop (SLT), 2016 IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 2016, pp. 5725–5729.

[7] Geoffrey Hinton, Oriol Vinyals, and Jeff Dean, “Distilling the knowledge in a neural network,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.02531, 2015.

[8] Adriana Romero, Nicolas Ballas, Samira Ebrahimi Kahou, Antoine Chassang, Carlo Gatta, and Yoshua Bengio, “Fitnets: Hints for thin deep nets,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1412.6550, 2014.

[9] Javier Ramirez, José C Segura, Carmen Benitez, Angel De La Torre, and Antonio Rubio, “Efficient voice activity detection algorithms using long-term speech information,” Speech communication, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 271–287, 2004.

[10] David Lopez-Paz, Léon Bottou, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Vladimir Vapnik, “Unifying distillation and privileged information,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.03643, 2015.

[11] Konstantin Markov and Tomoko Matsui, “Robust speech recognition using generalized distillation framework,” Interspeech 2016, pp. 2364–2368, 2016.

[12] Shoji Makino, Te-Won Lee, and Hiroshi Sawada, Blind speech separation, vol. 615, Springer, 2007.

[13] Jongseo Sohn, Nam Soo Kim, and Wonyong Sung, “A statistical model-based voice activity detection,” IEEE signal processing letters, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 1–3, 1999.

[14] Javier Ramirez, José C Segura, Carmen Benitez, Angel De La Torre, and Antonio Rubio, “Efficient voice activity detection algorithms using long-term speech information,” Speech communication, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 271–287, 2004.

[15] Daniel Garcia-Romero and Carol Y Espy-Wilson, “Analysis of i-vector length normalization in speaker recognition systems,” in Interspeech, 2011, vol. 2011, pp. 249–252.

[16] Mirco Ravanelli, Philemon Brakel, Maurizio Omologo, and Yoshua Bengio, “Batch-normalized joint training for DNN-based distant speech recognition,” in Spoken Language Technology Workshop (SLT), 2016 IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 2016, pp. 5725–5729.

[17] Geoffrey Hinton, Oriol Vinyals, and Jeff Dean, “Distilling the knowledge in a neural network,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.02531, 2015.

[18] Adriana Romero, Nicolas Ballas, Samira Ebrahimi Kahou, Antoine Chassang, Carlo Gatta, and Yoshua Bengio, “Batch-normalized joint training for DNN-based distant speech recognition,” in Spoken Language Technology Workshop (SLT), 2016 IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 2016, pp. 5725–5729.

[19] Javier Ramirez, José C Segura, Carmen Benitez, Angel De La Torre, and Antonio Rubio, “Efficient voice activity detection algorithms using long-term speech information,” Speech communication, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 271–287, 2004.

[20] Daniel Garcia-Romero and Carol Y Espy-Wilson, “Analysis of i-vector length normalization in speaker recognition systems,” in Interspeech, 2011, vol. 2011, pp. 249–252.

[21] Mirco Ravanelli, Philemon Brakel, Maurizio Omologo, and Yoshua Bengio, “Batch-normalized joint training for DNN-based distant speech recognition,” in Spoken Language Technology Workshop (SLT), 2016 IEEE International Conference on. IEEE, 2016, pp. 28–34.

[22] Adriana Romero, Nicolas Ballas, Samira Ebrahimi Kahou, Antoine Chassang, Carlo Gatta, and Yoshua Bengio, “A network of deep neural networks for distant speech recognition,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.08002, 2017.

[23] Geoffrey Hinton, Oriol Vinyals, and Jeff Dean, “Distilling the knowledge in a neural network,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.02531, 2015.

[24] David Lopez-Paz, Léon Bottou, Bernhard Schölkopf, and Vladimir Vapnik, “Unifying distillation and privileged information,” arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.03643, 2015.