ABSTRACT

This paper presents a method to improve a language model for a limited-resourced language using statistical machine translation from a related language to generate data for the target language. In this work, the machine translation model is trained on a corpus of parallel Mandarin-Cantonese subtitles and used to translate a large set of Mandarin conversational telephone transcripts to Cantonese, which has limited resources. The translated transcripts are used to train a more robust language model for speech recognition and for keyword search in Cantonese conversational telephone speech. This method enables the keyword search system to detect 1.5 times more out-of-vocabulary words, and achieve 1.7% absolute improvement on actual term-weighted value.

Index Terms— keyword spotting, data augmentation, language modelling, neural networks, low-resourced languages

1. INTRODUCTION

Training robust language models (LMs) on sparse data is a major challenge in automatic speech recognition (ASR). Several data augmentation approaches have been proposed to cope with this problem [1] [2]. For well-resourced languages, e.g., Mandarin and English, additional resources such as meeting and Web data have been successfully used to improve LM in broadcast news (BN) and conversational telephone speech (CTS) recognition through text normalization [3] and topic adaptation [4]. For low-resourced languages, it is also possible to harvest Web data to improve LM in BN recognition, e.g., on Luxembourgish [5] and Latvian [6]. However, data augmentation remains difficult for CTS recognition of low-resourced languages such as Cantonese. More recently, Mendels et al. (2015) collected Web data to improve LM for CTS recognition in several low-resource languages: Kurmanji, Tok Pisin, Kazakh, Telugu, and Lithuanian [7]. Yet such harvesting is challenging for Cantonese. The reason is that traditionally Cantonese is a spoken dialect without any universally recognized standard written form. Though currently both Cantonese and Mandarin speakers write in standard Chinese, Cantonese also contains a number of words and expressions that are unique to the dialect [8]. These factors make it difficult to collect Web data for Cantonese CTS LM training.

In this paper, we propose a framework to generate CTS transcripts for the low-resourced language, Cantonese. Using statistical machine translation (MT) models trained on a small corpus of parallel Mandarin-Cantonese subtitles, we convert a large set of Mandarin CTS transcripts to Cantonese. Our method makes use of the abundant resources available in Mandarin Chinese to train a more robust Cantonese CTS LM. In addition, it decreases the amount of out-of-vocabulary (OOV) words, which pose a serious problem for keyword search (KWS). Previous work on Cantonese ASR and KWS within BABEL project are reported in [9–13].

We show that the simple translation-based method can improve the ASR and KWS performance with significant gains in OOV detection. We report results with and without using a recurrent neural network (RNN) LM [14] for generating additional texts.

2. DATA AUGMENTATION USING MT

The quantity of transcriptions of audio data for conversational speech in Cantonese is quite limited, and substantially less than that for some other languages such as Mandarin or English. This poses a serious problem for LM training. Cantonese and Mandarin are both Chinese dialects and their written forms share many similarities in vocabulary, syntactic, and lexical compositions. They also share many unique words and characters [15]. However, there are notable differences in morphology, e.g., suffixes for plurals used in Mandarin are optional in Cantonese. Moreover, conversational speech exhibits some noticeable differences, e.g., different word order in predicative adjectives, comparison of quantities, double objects, omission of numerals, etc. To capture and generalize these regular differences, a statistical MT model was trained using the Moses toolkit [16] on a small corpus of parallel Cantonese and Mandarin TV subtitles [8], and used to convert a corpus (3.2M word tokens) of Mandarin CTS transcripts to Cantonese.

The words in the subtitle corpus are pre-segmented and separated with a space. The subtitle corpus consists of 4,135
pairs of aligned sentences, with a total of 36K characters in Mandarin, and 39K in Cantonese. In order to be consistent with both Mandarin and Cantonese CTS transcripts, the parallel corpus was converted to simplified Chinese.

The parallel corpus consists of pre-planned speech, free from false starts, repairs, repetitions, and other errors. We use the Moses toolkit in connection with GIZA++ for word alignment and IRSTLM [17] for target language modelling. 80% of the sentence pairs are randomly selected for training, and 20% for tuning and testing. The MT system’s LM was trained on the training portion of the parallel corpus and the Cantonese CTS corpus. Prior to tokenisation in Moses, we removed the Chinese punctuation marks in the parallel corpus. After tuning, the MT model is used to translate a corpus of Mandarin transcripts to Cantonese.

We also collected 665 Cantonese words and short-phrases commonly used in conversations with their Mandarin translations from an online Baidu archive1. If these words and phrases are found in the raw Mandarin transcripts, they are directly mapped to Cantonese via table look-up. The augmented Cantonese transcripts include the raw Mandarin CTS, the MT translated, and the transcripts produced using the look up table. The raw Mandarin CTS transcripts contain 418.1K sentences and 3.2M tokens. The MT translated Cantonese transcripts contain 4.7M tokens.

In our first experiments, the pronunciations of new words were generated using GIZA++ and Moses trained on the initial pronunciation lexicon [18]. We kept only the 1-best pronunciation for each new word. However, this approach is unable to generate pronunciations for new or unfamiliar characters, i.e., we simply replaced them with an unknown symbol. In later experiments, we also used Python module cjklib2 to generate pronunciations for the new characters and words.

Figure 1 illustrates the system architecture of translation-based data augmentation to improve LM. We trained separate LMs for the translation augmented transcripts, which are then interpolated with baseline LM. For simplicity, we refer to the LMs on the augmented transcripts as MT based LMs. The mixture weights are calculated via Expectation Maximisation using a held out set. The resulting bigram LM is used for decoding and the trigram LM for rescoring the word lattices.

3. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

3.1. ASR and KWS Data

The experiments are conducted using BABEL Cantonese full language pack (babel-101b-v0.4c). The training set contains 138 hours of manually transcribed spontaneous telephone conversations. The results are reported on the 20 hour development set. In the baseline experiments we use the BABEL reference pronunciation dictionary, which contains 28.5K word types and a total of 29.1K pronunciations variants. The training transcripts contain 78K sentences and 768K word tokens. In these transcriptions, the words are pre-segmented and separated with a space. The official development keyword list is used for evaluation. It contains 1050 in-vocabulary (IV) and 258 OOV keyword phrases. In total, the keyword list has 2.1K words. The average length of keyword phrase is 3 characters, and the longest keyword has 10 characters (5 compound words).

3.2. ASR System

The speech recognizer uses n-gram statistics estimated on speech transcripts for language modelling and HMMs with MLP posterior for acoustic modelling. The acoustic features are obtained using two bottle-neck MLPs, combining PLP and pitch features on one side, and TRAP-DCT features on the other side [19–21]. This results in a set of 88 features (46+42) which are then transformed using a speaker-based CMLLR transform estimated with a GMM-HMM.

The acoustic models are sets of tied-state, word-position dependent triphones. Each phone model is a left-to-right, 3-state triphone HMM. These triphones are word-position dependent in the sense that different models are used for word internal phones and word boundary phones. The decision tree state clustering is based on a set of about 800 questions automatically generated from the GMM-HMM triphones with a set of 66 phones. Clustering results in a set of 10k tied states. The MLP used to estimate the tied state posteriors has 5 hidden layers and a total of 10M weights.

The baseline language model is a standard Kneser-Ney backoff 3-gram model with a perplexity of 141.2 measured on the official development data. The word decoder generates a word lattice for each speech segment. Each word lattice is then converted to a word confusion network (CS) and the 1-best word consensus hypothesis is obtained by taking the word with the highest confidence score in each confusion network slot.

3.3. KWS System

As discussed in [22], keyword search was performed on consensus networks. The search on CN ignores word boundaries,
which handles a portion of the OOVs even for the baseline system. Score normalization is crucial for the right balance between true positives and false alarms. In this work, the raw scores are first normalized with a linear fit model, after which keyword-specific thresholding and exponential normalization (KST) is applied [23].

3.4. Performance Measures

ASR performance on Cantonese is measured with character error rate (CER), which is a conventional way of scoring Chinese speech recognition systems. KWS in BABEL program is measured with actual term-weighted value (ATWV) and maximum term-weighted value (MTWV)\(^4\). ATWV for the keyword \(k\) at the specific threshold \(t\) is defined as

\[
ATWV(k, t) = 1 - P_{FR}(k, t) - C \cdot P_{FA}(k, t)
\]

where \(C = 999.9\) is a constant, \(P_{FR}\) and \(P_{FA}\) are probabilities of miss and false accept, respectively. MTWV is computed as a maximal ATWV over all possible values of \(t\).

4. RESULTS

In this section we report the influence of the method used for pronunciation generation on the results and a comparison of data used for the speech recognition LM.

4.1. Pronunciation generation for newly added words

Although the initial lexicon is provided in the Babel resources, we need to generate pronunciations for new words added by MT. One method for generating pronunciations of new words is using GIZA++ and Moses trained on the original pronunciation lexicon. Another method makes use of an available Jyutping dictionary, and a Python module cjklib to generate the pronunciations for all the new words. Here cjklib was used to first generate the Jyutping pronunciations of a word and each of its individual characters. Pronunciations of unfamiliar words are generated by combining Jyutping at the character-level.

Table 1 summarizes the number of words and ASR performance when MT transcripts are used in language modeling, with different pronunciation generation approaches used for the new words.

Python cjklib is able to extend the baseline dictionary with 2K words compared to Moses, because in the latter we filtered all unknown characters. In all remaining experiments, the method based on cjklib is used for pronunciation generation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th># words</th>
<th>CER (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>original</td>
<td>28.5K</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moses</td>
<td>42.4K</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cjklib</td>
<td>44.4K</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Dictionary generation using Moses and Python cjklib from the MT augmented transcripts (trn+MT).

4.2. Data augmentation using MT

First two lines of Table 2 summarize the ASR and KWS performance with the baseline system and the improvements obtained by adding the MT transformed Mandarin-to-Cantonese transcripts in the LM. Interpolating the baseline LM with the MT LM (Section 2), reduces the dev set perplexity from 141.2 to 126.0. The interpolation weight is 0.96 for the baseline LM and 0.04 for the MT LM. The original 28.5K word lexicon obtained from the training transcripts was extended with 15.8K words, reducing the OOV rate by 22% relative.

The CER of the baseline system with the LM trained only on the audio transcripts is 40.5% and the overall ATWV is 0.487. The interpolated LM (trn+MT transcripts) gives a small CER reduction and improves the overall KWS ATWV performance by 2%, with a larger gain for the OOV keywords (0.189 to 0.283).

Table 3 presents a more detailed analysis on how the transcripts affect the final ASR/KWS performance. In particular, mand\(_{CTS}\) denotes the raw Mandarin CTS transcripts, \(MT_{Moses}\) denotes the Cantonese translations from the Moses system, \(MT_{table}\) denotes the transcripts produced using the look up table. The best performing system used raw data, Moses MT translation and table lookup, as shown in entry (trn+mand\(_{CTS}\)+\(MT_{Moses}\)+\(MT_{table}\)). All LMs have about the same OOV rate of 1.9%. Since augmenting the vocabulary changes the IV/OOV keyword split, Table 3 also reports the KWS performance on all the 1308 keywords (ALL), 1050 IV remains IV (I-I), 68 OOV becomes IV (O-I), and 190 OOV remain OOV (O-O).

In addition, we experimented with a semi-supervised training of Moses MT models, i.e. we used aligned Moses output translations and Mandarin source data to augment Moses phrase tables, which were used to produce another transcript. However, this demonstrated only a tiny improvement of the ASR system alone and no gain in combination with other texts.

4.3. Text generation using RNN

We also investigated using a recurrent neural network (RNN) LM to generate new data as proposed by Mikolov et al. [14]. An RNN trained on 80% of the Cantonese CTS transcripts is used to generate 100 million words of texts. As was done for the MT texts, these pseudo transcripts are used to train a component LM, which was then interpolated with the baseline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LM texts</th>
<th>Perplexity</th>
<th>OOV (%)</th>
<th>CER (%)</th>
<th>ATWV (all / IV / OOV)</th>
<th>MTWV (all / IV / OOV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trn (baseline)</td>
<td>141.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>0.487 / 0.531 / 0.189</td>
<td>0.491 / 0.536 / 0.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trn+MT</td>
<td>126.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td><strong>0.507 / 0.540 / 0.283</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.509 / 0.541 / 0.289</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trn+RNN</td>
<td>135.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>0.497 / 0.537 / 0.222</td>
<td>0.499 / 0.540 / 0.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trn+RNN+MT</td>
<td>117.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>0.512 / 0.546 / 0.277</td>
<td>0.512 / 0.548 / 0.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>combine</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td><strong>0.516 / 0.547 / 0.303</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.516 / 0.548 / 0.307</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. System performance on the development data: perplexity, OOV (%), character error rate (%), actual and maximum term-weighted values (measured on development keyword list).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LM texts</th>
<th>Perplexity</th>
<th>CER (%)</th>
<th>ATWV(ALL/I-I/O-I/O-O)</th>
<th>MTWV(ALL/I-I/O-I/O-O)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>trn+mand_CTS</td>
<td>130.3</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td><strong>0.505 / 0.539 / 0.509 / 0.226</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.508 / 0.543 / 0.536 / 0.231</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trn+mand_CTS+MT_Moses</td>
<td>126.2</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td><strong>0.507 / 0.541 / 0.502 / 0.224</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.508 / 0.542 / 0.534 / 0.228</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trn+mand_CTS+MT_Moses+MT_table</td>
<td>126.0</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td><strong>0.507 / 0.540 / 0.505 / 0.235</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.509 / 0.541 / 0.531 / 0.239</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. System performance using different types of MT based transcripts. mand\_CTS denotes raw Mandarin CTS transcripts, MT\_Moses denotes the Moses translated transcript, MT\_table denotes the transcripts from table look-up. The OOV rates of the three LMs are all about 1.9%.

LM. These two approaches are complementary as the RNN finds long contextual regularities in Cantonese transcripts, but does not address the OOV problem. This can be seen in 3rd entry (trn+RNN) of Table 2, where although the CER is reduced by 0.3%, the RNN generated transcripts are less useful for KWS than the MT-LM. The result of interpolating the 3 LMs are given in the 4th entry (trn+RNN+MT), where the dev set perplexity is reduced to 117.9, and the system obtains a CER of 39.9% CER and an ATWV of 0.512.

An additional gain is obtained by combining the outputs of all systems. For the ASR system outputs, a ROVER combination of 1-best hypotheses [24] was used. For KWS the keyword hits are combined based on the maximum of the raw scores, with score normalization applied to the combined list.

5. CONCLUSION

We proposed a novel approach to generate new transcripts for Cantonese from Mandarin transcriptions. An MT model trained on a small corpus of parallel Cantonese-Mandarin subtitles was used to convert a large corpus of Mandarin transcriptions to pseudo transcripts in the low-resourced Cantonese dialect. The produced transcripts contained 17K new words with respect to the original lexicon. N-gram language models were trained on the new texts and the resulting LM was interpolated with the baseline LM. With the interpolated LM, the dev data OOV rate and perplexity were substantially reduced, and the ASR and KWS performance improved. Using an RNN to generate additional pseudo transcripts further improves performance. The best results are obtained combining the three systems, achieving a CER of 39.9% and ATWV of 0.516. We are currently investigating other ways to improve the MT system and apply the proposed method on other language pairs, e.g., English and Lithuanian.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was in part supported by the Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA) via Department of Defense US Army Research Laboratory contract number W911NF-12-C-0013. The U.S. Government is authorized to reproduce and distribute reprints for Governmental purposes notwithstanding any copyright annotation thereon. Disclaimer: The views and conclusions contained herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the official policies or endorsements, either expressed or implied, of IARPA, DoD/ARL, or the U.S. Government.

6. REFERENCES


