

# Deep Neural Networks

DT2118 Speech and Speaker Recognition

Giampiero Salvi

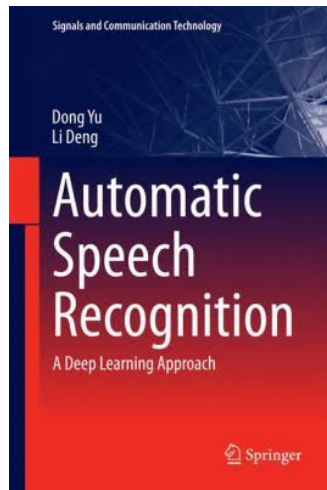
KTH/CSC/TMH [giampi@kth.se](mailto:giampi@kth.se)

VT 2016

# Literature

D. Yu and L. Deng. *Automatic Speech Recognition, a Deep Learning Approach*. Springer, 2015

Available in PDF through KTH Library



# Outline

State-to-Output Probability Model

Artificial Neural Networks

- Perceptron

- Multi Layer Perceptron

- Error Backpropagation

- Hybrid HMM-MLP

Deep Learning (Initialization)

- Deep Neural Networks

- Restricted Boltzmann Machines

- Deep Belief Networks

# Outline

## State-to-Output Probability Model

### Artificial Neural Networks

Perceptron

Multi Layer Perceptron

Error Backpropagation

Hybrid HMM-MLP

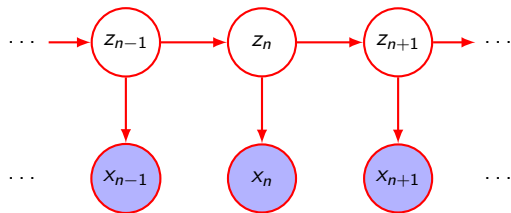
### Deep Learning (Initialization)

Deep Neural Networks

Restricted Boltzmann Machines

Deep Belief Networks

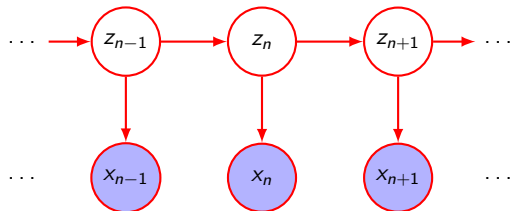
# State-to-Output Probability Model



is responsible for the discriminative power of the whole model

- ▶ GMMs used because easy to train and adapt
- ▶ discriminative training can improve results

# State-to-Output Probability Model



is responsible for the discriminative power of the whole model

Alternatives:

- ▶ artificial neural networks (ANNs)
- ▶ deep neural networks (DNNs)
- ▶ support vector machines (SVMs) not used for ASR

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Deep Learning (Initialization)

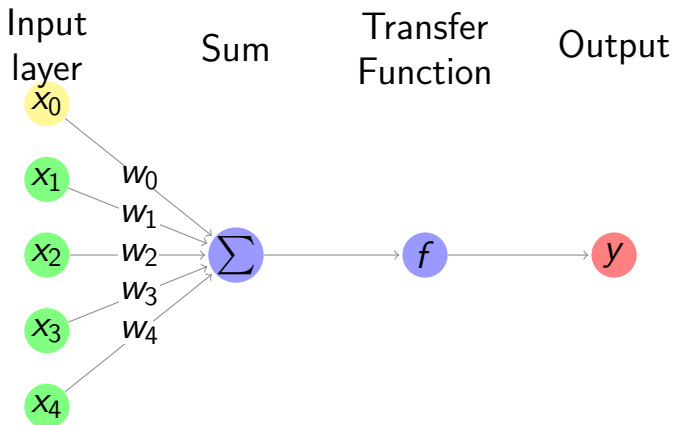
- Deep Neural Networks

- Restricted Boltzmann Machines

- Deep Belief Networks

# Perceptron

Known since the 1950's [7]



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[7] F. Rosenblatt. *The perceptron: A perceiving and recognizing automaton*. Tech. rep. 85-460-1. Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory, 1957



# Perceptron input/output

$$y = f \left( b + \sum_i w_i x_i \right)$$

where

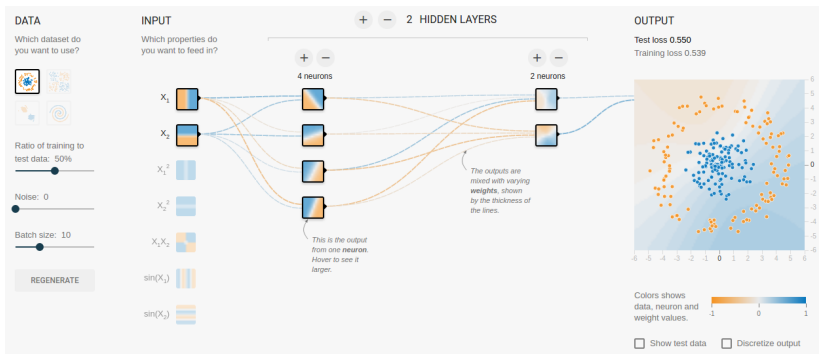
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad \text{sigmoid}$$

$$f(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}} \quad \text{hyperbolic tangent}$$

$$f(z) = \max(0, z) \quad \text{rectified linear unit}$$

Equivalent to logistic regression ( $b = w_0 x_0$  bias)

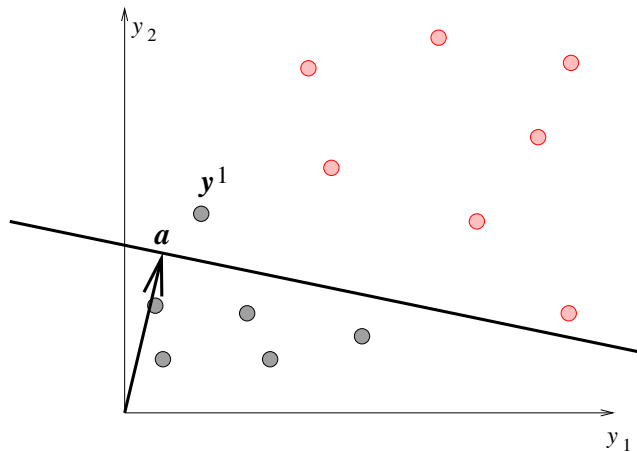
# Preceptron: Illustration



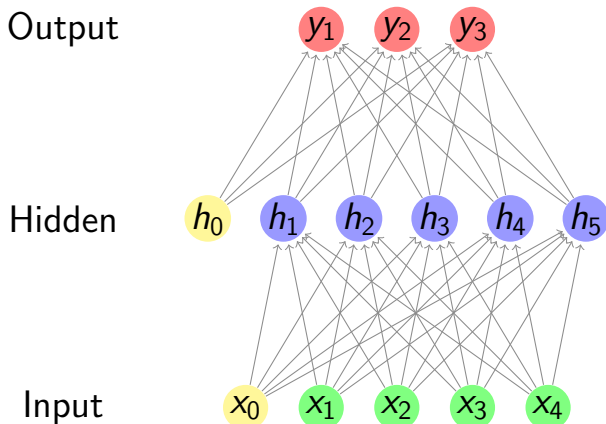
<http://playground.tensorflow.org/>

# Perceptron: Linear Classification

Learning adjust weights to correct errors



# Multi-layer Perceptron [6]



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[6] F. Rosenblatt. *Principles of neurodynamics. perceptrons and the theory of brain mechanisms*. Tech. rep. DTIC Document, 1961

# Universal Approximation Theorem

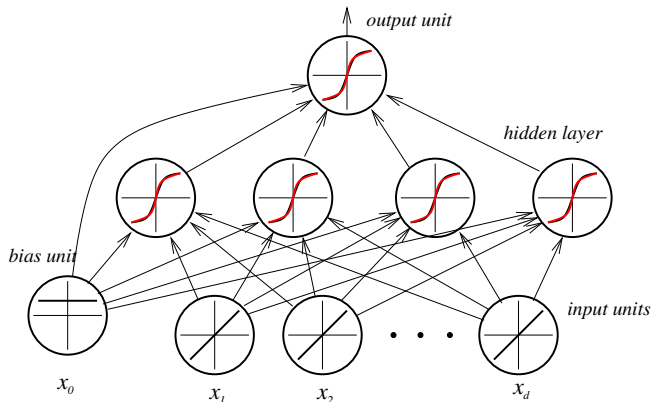
- ▶ First proposed by Gybenko [3]
- ▶ one single hidden layer and finite but appropriate number of neurons
- ▶ can approximate any function in  $\mathbb{R}^N$  with mild constraints

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[3] G. Gybenko. “Approximation by superposition of sigmoidal functions”. In: *Mathematics of Control, Signals and Systems* 2.4 (1989), pp. 303–314

# Multi-layer Perceptron: Training

Backpropagation algorithm [8]

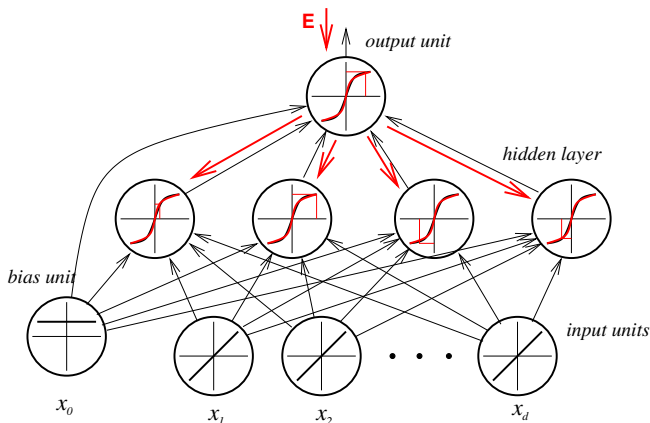


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[8] D. E. Rumelhart, G. E. Hinton, and R. J. Williams. *Learning internal representations by error propagation*. Tech. rep. DTIC Document, 1985

# Multi-layer Perceptron: Training

Backpropagation algorithm [8]



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[8] D. E. Rumelhart, G. E. Hinton, and R. J. Williams. *Learning internal representations by error propagation*. Tech. rep. DTIC Document, 1985

# Learning Criteria

Ideally minimise Expected Loss:

$$J_{\text{EL}} = \mathbb{E}[J(W, B, o, y)] = \int_o J(W, B, o, y)p(o)do$$

where  $o$  = features,  $y$  = labels

but we do not know  $p(o)$

Use empirical learning criteria instead:

- ▶ Mean Square Error (MSE)
- ▶ Cross Entropy (CE)



# Mean Square Error Criterion

$$J_{\text{MSE}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M J_{\text{MSE}}(W, B, o^m, y^m)$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_{\text{MSE}}(W, B, o^m, y^m) &= \frac{1}{2} \|v^L - y\|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (v^L - y)^T (v^L - y) \end{aligned}$$

# Cross Entropy Criterion

$$J_{\text{CE}} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M J_{\text{CE}}(W, B, o^m, y^m)$$

$$J_{\text{CE}}(W, B, o^m, y^m) = - \sum_{i=1}^C y_i \log v_i^L$$

Equivalent to minimising Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD)

# Update rules

$$\begin{aligned}W'_{t+1} &\leftarrow W'_t - \epsilon \Delta W'_t \\ b'_{t+1} &\leftarrow b'_t - \epsilon \Delta b'_t\end{aligned}$$

To compute  $\Delta W'_t$  and  $\Delta b'_t$  we need the gradient of the criterion function.

Key trick: chain rule of gradients  $f(g(x))$ :

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$

# Backpropagation: Properties

- ▶ weights only depend on neighbouring variables
- ▶ algorithm finds **local** optimum
- ▶ sensitive to initialisation

# Practical Issues

- ▶ preprocessing: Cepstral Mean Normalisation
- ▶ initialisation: random (symmetry breaking), linear range of activation function
- ▶ regularisation (weight decay, dropout)
- ▶ batch size selection
- ▶ sample randomisation
- ▶ momentum
- ▶ learning rate and stopping criterion

# Output Layer

Regression tasks: Linear layer

$$v^L = z^L = W^L v^{L-1} + b^L$$

Classification tasks: Softmax layer

$$v_i^L = \text{softmax}_i(z^L) = \frac{e^{z_i^L}}{\sum_{j=1}^C e^{z_j^L}}$$

# Probabilistic Interpretation

1.  $v_i^L \in [0, 1] \quad \forall i$
2.  $\sum_{j=1}^C v_j^L = 1$

Output activations are posterior probabilities of the classes given the observations

$$v_i^L = P(i|o)$$

In speech:  $P(\text{state}|\text{sounds})$

# Hybrid HMM+Multi Layer Perceptron

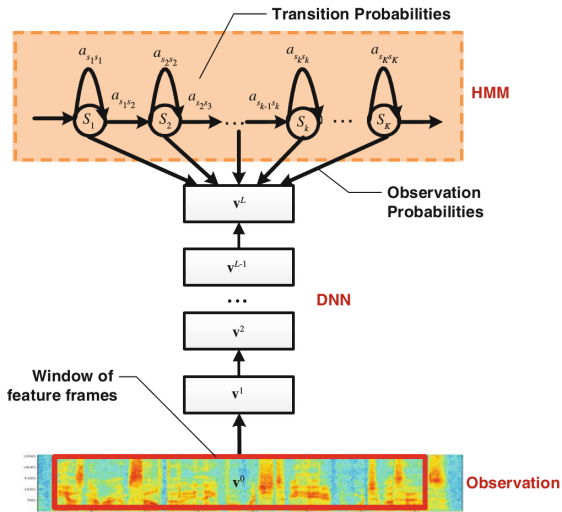


Figure from Yu and Deng



# Combining probabilities [1]

- ▶ HMMs use likelihoods  $P(\text{sound}|\text{state})$
- ▶ MLPs and DNNs estimate posteriors  $P(\text{state}|\text{sound})$

We can combine with Bayes:

$$P(\text{sound}|\text{state}) = \frac{P(\text{state}|\text{sound})P(\text{sound})}{P(\text{state})}$$

- ▶  $P(\text{state})$  can be estimated from the training set
- ▶  $P(\text{sound})$  is constant and can be ignored

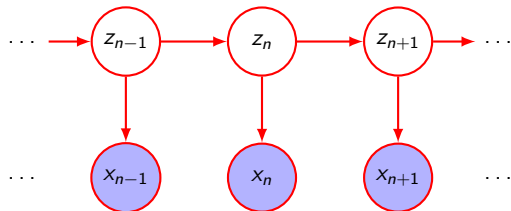
Use **scaled likelihoods**:

$$\bar{P}(\text{sound}|\text{state}) = \frac{P(\text{state}|\text{sound})}{P(\text{state})}$$

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[1] H. Bourland and C. J. Wellekens. "Links Between Markov Models and Multilayer Perceptrons". In: *IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.* 12.12 (1990)

# State-to-Output Probability Model



Use ANNs for  $P(x_n|z_n)$

# Time-Delayed NNs [11]

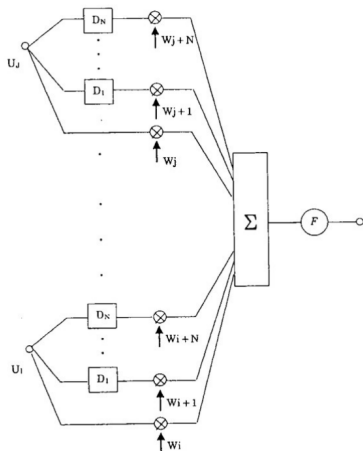
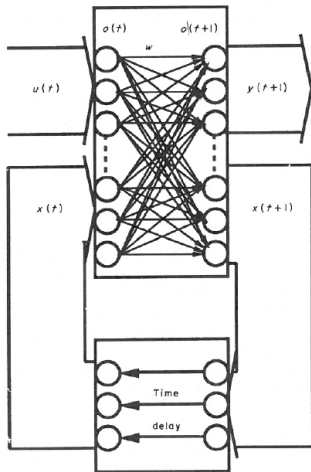


Fig. 1. A Time-Delay Neural Network (TDNN) unit.

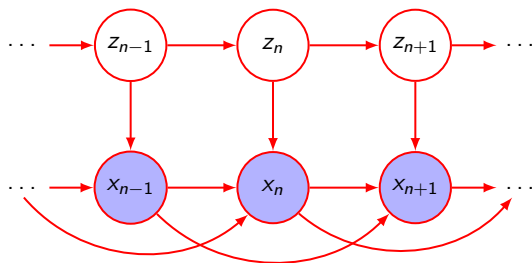
- [11] A. Waibel, T. Hanazawa, G. Hinton, K. Shikano, and K. J. Lang. "Phoneme Recognition Using Time-Delay Neural Networks". In: *IEEE Trans. Acoust., Speech, Signal Process.* 37.3 (1989)

# Recurrent ANNs [5]



- [5] T. Robinson and F. Fallside. "A recurrent error propagation network speech recognition system". In: *Computer Speech and Language* 5.3 (1991), pp. 259–274

# HMM + RNN Dependencies



How do the two models interact? [9]

- 
- [9] G. Salvi. "Dynamic Behaviour of Connectionist Speech Recognition with Strong Latency Constraints". In: *Speech Communication* 48.7 (July 2006), pp. 802–818

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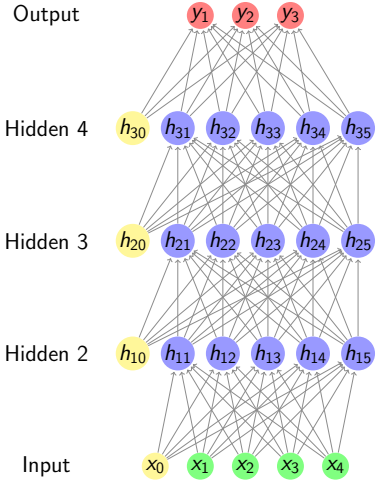
Deep Learning (Initialization)

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Deep Belief Networks

# Deep Neural Network



# DNN: Motivation

- ▶ depth  $\sim$  abstraction
- ▶ good initialisation (see later)
- ▶ fast computers, large datasets



# DNN and MLPs

- ▶ no conceptual difference from MLPs
- ▶ Backpropagation alone not powerful enough [2]
- ▶ local minima
- ▶ vanishing gradients

(later BP has been proven to be sufficient)

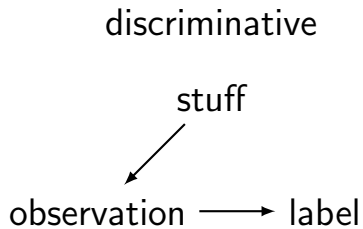
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[2] D. Erhan, Y. Bengio, A. Courville, P.-A. Mansagol, and P. Vincent. “Why Does Unsupervised Pre-training Help Deep Learning?” In: *Journal of Machine Learning Research* 11 (2010), pp. 625–660

# Deep Learning possible with Pre-Training

- ▶ pioneered by Geoffrey Hinton (Univ. Toronto)
- ▶ unifies properties of **generative** and **discriminative** models
- ▶ most of the large companies are using it (Microsoft, Google, Nuance, IBM)
- ▶ most promising technique at the moment

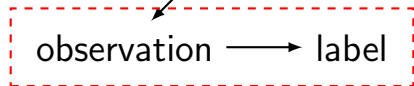
# Pre-Training: Idea



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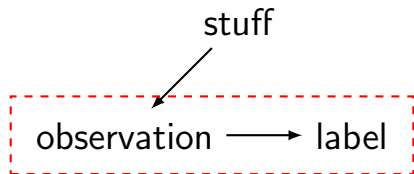
discriminative

stuff

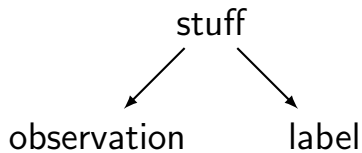


# Pre-Training: Idea

discriminative

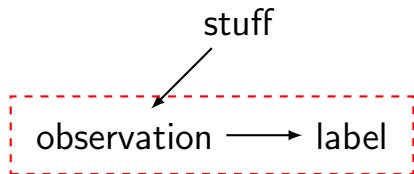


generative

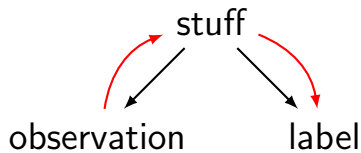


# Pre-Training: Idea

discriminative

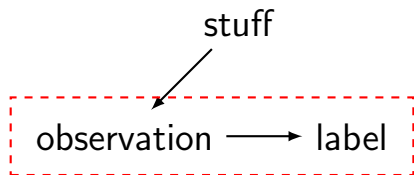


generative

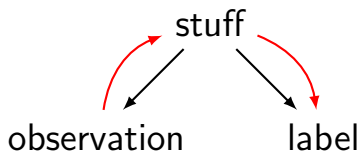


# Pre-Training: Idea

discriminative



generative



... but HMMs with Gaussian Mixture Models are also generative: why is this better?

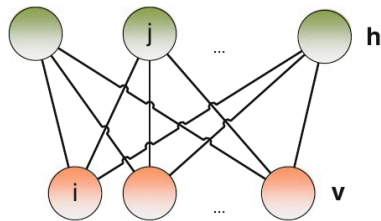
## Deep Learning: Idea #2

1. initialise DNN with Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBM) that can be trained unsupervised
2. use fast learning procedure (Hinton)
3. use **ridiculous amounts** of unlabelled (cheap) data to train a **ridiculous number** of parameters in an unsupervised fashion
4. at the end, use **small amounts** of labelled (expensive) data and backpropagation to learn the labels



# Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs)

First called Harmonium [10]

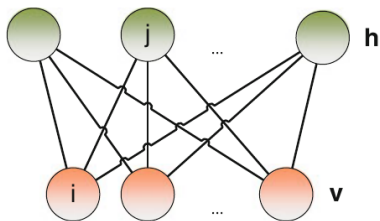


- ▶ binary nodes: Bernoulli distribution
- ▶ continuous nodes: Gaussian-Bernoulli

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[10] P. Smolensky. "Information processing in dynamical systems: Foundations of harmony theory". In: *Department of Computer Science, University of Colorado, Boulder, 1986. Chap. 6*

# Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs)



Energy (Bernoulli):

$$E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = -\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{v}$$

Energy (Gaussian-Bernoulli):

$$E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a})^T (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a}) - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{v}$$

# RBM: Probabilistic Interpretation

$$P(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = \frac{e^{-E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})}}{\sum_{\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}} e^{-E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})}}$$

Posteriors (conditional independence):

$$P(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{v}) = \dots = \prod_i P(h_i|\mathbf{v})$$

and

$$P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{h}) = \dots = \prod_i P(v_i|\mathbf{h})$$

# Binary Units: Cond Prob

Posterior equals sigmoid function!!

$$\begin{aligned}P(h_i = 1|\mathbf{v}) &= \frac{e^{(b_i1+1\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})}}{e^{(b_i1+1\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})} + e^{(b_i0+0\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})}} \\ &= \frac{e^{(b_i1+1\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})}}{e^{(b_i1+1\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})} + 1} \\ &= \sigma(b_i1 + 1\mathbf{W}_{i,*}\mathbf{v})\end{aligned}$$

Same as Multi Layer Perceptron (viable for initialisation!)

# Gaussian Units: Cond Prob

$$P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{h}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

with

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{a}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{I}$$

# RBM Training

Stochastic Gradient Descent (minimise the negative log likelihood)

$$J_{\text{NLL}}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}) = -\log P(\mathbf{v}) = F(\mathbf{v}) + \log \sum_{\mathbf{v}} e^{-F(\mathbf{v})}$$

where

$$F(\mathbf{v}) = -\log \left( \sum_{\mathbf{h}} e^{-E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})} \right)$$

is the free energy of the system.

**BUT: the gradient can not be computed exactly**

# RBM Gradient

$$\frac{\partial J_{\text{NLL}}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v})}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{v})}{\partial \theta} - \sum_{\tilde{\mathbf{v}}} p(\tilde{\mathbf{v}}) \frac{\partial F(\tilde{\mathbf{v}})}{\partial \theta}$$

- ▶ first term increases prob of training data
- ▶ second term decreases prob density defined by the model

# RBM Stochastic Gradient

The general form is:

$$\nabla_{\theta} J_{\text{NLL}}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}) = - \left[ \begin{aligned} & \left\langle \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})}{\partial \theta} \right\rangle_{\text{data}} \\ & - \left\langle \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})}{\partial \theta} \right\rangle_{\text{model}} \end{aligned} \right]$$

Example: visible layer

$$\nabla_{w_{ij}} J_{\text{NLL}}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}) = - \left[ \begin{aligned} & \langle v_i h_j \rangle_{\text{data}} \\ & - \langle v_i h_j \rangle_{\text{model}} \end{aligned} \right]$$



# Gibbs Sampling

$\langle v_i h_j \rangle_{\text{model}}$  computed with sampling

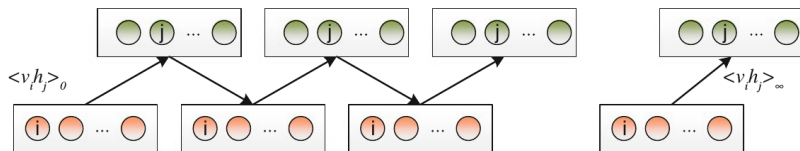
Sample joint distribution of  $N$  variables, one at a time:

$$P(X_i | X_{-i})$$

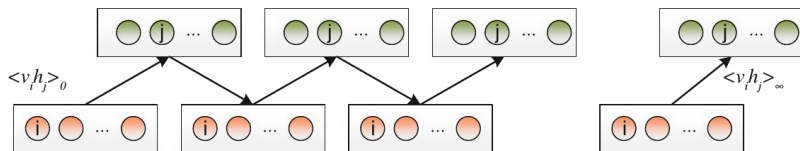
where  $X_{-i}$  are all the other variables

**BUT:** it takes exponential time to compute exactly

# Contrastive Divergence



# Contrastive Divergence



Two tricks:

1. initialise the chain with a training sample
2. do not wait for convergence

# RBMMs and Deep Belief Networks

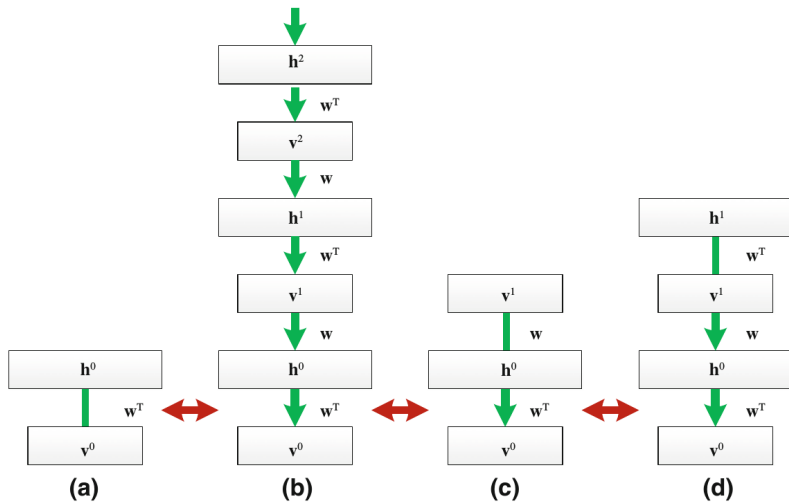


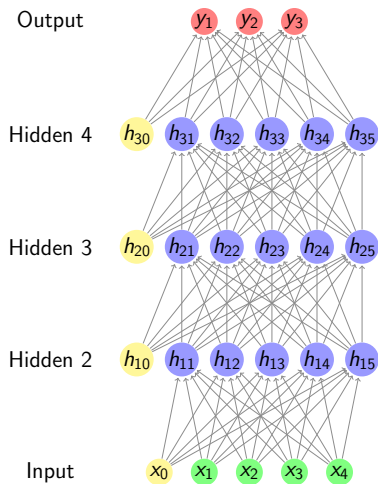
Figure from Yu and Deng

# Deep Belief Networks: Training

Yee-Whye Teh (one of Hinton's students) observed that DBNs can be trained greedily for each layer:

1. train a RBM unsupervised
2. excite the network with training data to produce outputs
3. use the outputs to train next RBM

# Final Step: Supervised Training



# The importance of pre-training

- ▶ 2006: Backpropagation alone not powerful enough [2]
- ▶ 2016: Backpropagation on large data sets (with tricks) is good enough (missing citation)

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[2] D. Erhan, Y. Bengio, A. Courville, P.-A. Mansagol, and P. Vincent. “Why Does Unsupervised Pre-training Help Deep Learning?” In: *Journal of Machine Learning Research* 11 (2010), pp. 625–660

# Deep Learning: Performance

- ▶ state-of-the-art on most ASR tasks
- ▶ Made people from University of Toronto, Microsoft, Google and IBM write a paper together [4]
- ▶ experiments with learning the features from speech signal

Yu and Deng's book has many examples

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[4] G. Hinton, L. Deng, D. Yu, G. Dahl, A. Mohamed, N. Jaitly, A. Senior, V. Vanhoucke, P. Nguyen, T. Sainath, and B. Kingsbury. "Deep Neural Networks for Acoustic Modeling in Speech Recognition". In: *IEEE Signal Processing Magazine* (2012)



# ANNs in ASR: Advantages

- ▶ discriminative in nature
- ▶ powerful time model:
- ▶ Time-Delayed Neural Networks (TDNNs)
- ▶ Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)

# ANNs in ASR: Disadvantages

- ▶ training requires state level annotations (no EM available)
- ▶ usually annotations obtained with forced alignment (Viterbi training)
- ▶ not easy to adapt
- ▶ we still need GMM-HMMs for the training

# Typical Training Procedure

1. train a full context dependent GMM-HMM system
2. cluster CD HMM states into senones (order of 1000)
3. use senones to define output of DNN
4. run forced alignment with GMM-HMMs
5. train DNN with forced aligned transcriptions