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Combining Lightly-supervised Learning and User Feedback to Construct Andimprove a Statistical Parametric Speech Synthesizer for Malay

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Abstract: In this study, we aim to reduce the human effort in preparing training data for synthesizing human speech and improve the quality of synthetic speech. In spite of the learning-from-data used to train the statistical models, the construction of a statistical parametric speech synthesizer involves substantial human effort, especially when using imperfect data or working on a new language. Here, we use lightly-supervised methods for preparing the data and constructing the text-processing front end. This initial system is then iteratively improved using active learning in which feedback from users is used to disambiguate the pronunciation system in our chosen language, Malay. The data are prepared using speaker diarisation and lightly-supervised text-speech alignment. In the front end, grapheme-based units are used. The active learning used small amounts of feedback from a listener to train a classifier. We report evaluations of two systems built from high-quality studio data and lower-quality 'found' data respectively and show that the intelligibility of each can be improved using active learning.

Keywords: Active learning, lightly-supervised methods, statistical parametric speech synthesis

INTRODUCTION

Conventional speech synthesis depends heavily on the availability of data: both the transcribed speech data required for waveform generation -- whether that is through concatenation or statistical parametric models -- as well as additional expert-annotated speech and text data. These additional data are required to train numerous predictors of linguistic features, prosodic structures and so on (e.g., a pronunciation lexicon and a letter-to-sound module to predict the sequence of phonemes in an utterance). Our previous work has focused on finding ways to speed up the development of systems in new languages by developing techniques for transcribing 'found' data with only light supervision and by using unsupervised learning to reduce reliance on expert annotated data.

In this study, we describe the application of these techniques to the training of Text-To-Speech (TTS) systems for Malay. The existing techniques we have developed in previous work (Watts et al., 2013) and which are described in methodology are used to build a baseline voice. We then go on to describe and evaluate two new innovations to our existing toolset. All systems are based on the statistical parametric (“HMM-based”) technique in which the speech corpus is used to estimate acoustic models of context-dependent sub-word units, which are then used to generate novel speech utterances. The contributions of this study are in the preparation of the data and the construction of the text-processing front end. The estimation of the HMMs from the speech corpus is done in a standard way as described in Yamagishi and Watts (2010) for example.

Speaker diarisation technique was used for extracting a homogenous subset of speech data from a public source of data featuring considerable variation. This technique supplements our existing methods for the lightly-supervised harvesting of data for acoustic model training (Stan et al., 2013a) and is designed to further ease such data collection. The extension of our methods was found to be necessary because in the source of speech data used for the experimental systems of the present work, there is a much looser relation between speech and text than in the audio books we have used in previous work.

Then, an artificial intelligence method was employed for improving the letter-based synthesis used in the baseline system by exploiting some limited interaction with a native speaker to disambiguate instances of an ambiguous grapheme, but without incurring the cost of compiling a full lexicon. This is an attractive approach for languages with generally regular letter-to-sound correspondences but with a handful of ambiguous letters: Malay is one example of such a language, but we expect the technique would be more widely applicable.
Therefore, this study is mainly focus on how to alleviate the human effort in preparing training data by employing ready source which can be obtained online. And the processing which is done to improve the quality of harvested free data is explained step-by-step in the later part of this study. Artificial Intelligence technique was also used to meliorate the intelligibility of synthetic speech produced using free data collected online.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Baseline voice construction:** A baseline voice was built from purpose-collected studio data using the procedures described in Watts et al. (2013). The data and techniques used to build this voice will be briefly outlined in this section.

**Speech data collection:** The studio data was obtained as described in Yong and Swee (2014). The recording script was handrafted: starting from a word list (from a pre-existing lexicon), text covering this vocabulary was gathered from various sources such as online news in Malay and a Malay language textbook. In short, 3289 words were obtained and composed into 900 sentences using the words; the recording script was not obtained by directly taking the sentences from source. The sentences were edited to cover more words in lexicon. 250 sentences were composed from scratch using the words in lexicon. A Malay native male speaker was hired to record the resulting script, resulting in around 1 h of speech material.

**Front end processing:** We adopted the approach to constructing a front end processor described in Lorenzo-Trueba et al. (2012). The advantage of this method is that it requires no expert knowledge about the target language, such as a pronunciation dictionary, letter to sound rules or a part of speech tagger. Instead, an automatic distributional analysis, involving the construction of Vector Space Models (VSMs) is used to infer linguistic representations from a text corpus. For example, a VSM of letter distributions (i.e., simple syllable structure and a highly regular alphabetic orthography, transparent vowels, consonants, nasals, etc.

This is a reasonable choice because Malay has a highly regular alphabetic orthography, transparent affixation, simple syllable structure and a straightforward letter-to-sound relationship (with a small number of ambiguities, to which we offer a solution that does not rely on expert knowledge) (Yap et al., 2010), all of which make it eminently well matched to this approach to front end text processing. For both studio data and found data, the text corpus was manually transcribed and normalized. After normalization, our text data consisted only of words, whitespace and punctuation symbols and no abbreviations, numerals and other symbols remain.

**Acoustic modeling training:** Acoustic feature extraction and model training was done in the same way as described in e.g., Yamagishi and Watts (2010). Briefly, frames of 60 bark cepstral coefficients extracted from smoothed STRAIGHT (Kawahara et al., 1999) spectra were used, together with mel-warped F0 and STRAIGHT aperiodicity measures in 25 frequency bands with non-linearly varying bandwidths. Dynamic (delta and delta-delta) coefficients were appended to the static parameters in the normal way.

The model was initialized by training context-independent grapheme models. These monographe me models were then converted into full-context models and retrained. The names of these full-context models encode the textual features described in front end processing. To handle problems of data sparsity and to be able to handle unseen contexts at synthesis time, decision trees were used to cluster acoustically similar states which are then tied, after which the tied models are retrained. Two iterations of clustering and retraining were used.

**Synthesis of speech:** At run-time, sentences to be synthesized are processed by the front end, resulting in a sequence of context-dependent grapheme labels for each utterance. According to this sequence, the decision trees built during model training are descended and the corresponding acoustic states are concatenated into an HMM of the utterance. A speech parameter generation algorithm (Tokuda et al., 2000) is then used to generate spectral and excitation parameters. The STRAIGHT vocoder is then used to generate a speech waveform from these generated parameters.

The two new techniques proposed for incorporation into the basic recipe outlined above are now described.

**Speaker diarisation to extract speech from found data:**

**Found data:** The found data for this study is from the website http://free-islamic-lectures.com which is a free resource of Islamic teaching including speech audio. It offers a free download of an audio recording of Al-quran read in intoned Arabic interspersed with a sentence-by-sentence translation into Malay. A total of 60 h of audio data chunked into 114 files can be found on that website. Excluding the Arabic part leaves approximately 30 h of Malay speech data. The Malay speech was recorded with an adult male voice, consistent speaking tone and using standard Malay speaking accent suitable for training data. However, the given text does not correspond exactly to the speech with a word accuracy of only approximately 30%. A subset of the texts was therefore manually corrected: This is an expensive process and we were only able to obtain 3 h of Malay speech with corrected transcription.

**Diarisation:** To extract Malay speech from the found data, we applied a speaker diarisation technique (Sinclair and King, 2013) as it is able to identify
speaker homogenous regions throughout the speech data. First, feature extraction is performed on the data using HTK with the standard ASR features. A GMM-HMM framework was applied whereby 16 clusters are initialized by dividing the speech frames into 32 uniform parts and using 2 parts (from different points in the data) to initialize each of the 16 GMMS. With these models, segmentation of the entire speech is done using a Viterbi algorithm with a forced minimum constraint of 250 ms. The models are retrained after segmentation followed by a clustering step to merge similar clusters based on the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). A penalty factor parameter is not required as the merged models have a complexity equal to sum of the complexity of the models being merged. The iteration terminates at the stopping criterion which is when the BIC scores for all clusters are below 0. Four wav files consist of 7 h of raw data in total were chunked using diarisation. After the stopping criterion was met, there are 5 to 10 clusters remain in each file. Only the first cluster is the Malay speech that we want. All the other clusters are the intoned Arabic part. As result, 3 h of Malay speech data were extracted from 7 h of raw data and were chunked into 564 pieces of smaller data.

**VAD alignment:** To extract transcribed segments of speech suitable for speech synthesizer training, we applied lightly supervised GMM Voice Activity Detection (VAD) (Mamiya et al., 2013) and grapheme-based automatic alignment (Stan et al., 2013b) to our speech and text data. The aim of using these techniques is to segment the audio data and confidently match a subset of the resulting chunks with the corresponding text transcription. Our techniques require no prior language-specific knowledge and can be done in a very lightly-supervised manner: The only user input required is to match an initial few utterances to their transcription, which can be done with only some knowledge of the script used. The technique confidently aligned approximately half of the data, resulting in a total of 90 min of speech data which were then used for training our TTS systems.

**Interactive construction of letter-to-sound rules using active learning:** The approach described in Lorenzo-Trueba et al. (2012) and outlined in methodology has been shown to be effective for a variety of languages (Watts et al., 2013). Because context-dependent models of grapheme-based acoustic units are used, it is at least theoretically the case that any predictable ambiguities in the letter-to-sound mapping (such as single letters that can be pronounced as two or more sounds) can be learned from the examples in the training data. Whilst this is an apparently elegant solution that does not require expert intervention, its performance is limited in practice by two factors. First, the training data are from the speech corpus being used for acoustic model estimation, which limits the number of types and tokens seen. Second, the letter-to-sound model is an integral part of the decision trees used for acoustic model parameter clustering and these trees may not be the most efficient classifiers for resolving pronunciation ambiguities. Therefore, it may be necessary to identify and resolve ambiguities using additional measures. Here, we focus on the resolution of one example ambiguity, which we identified by expert listening. Ongoing work is investigating how non-expert listeners could also be used to identify such problems, as well as to resolve them. The method we employ exploits some limited interaction with a native listener, but without incurring the cost -- or requiring the expertise -- involved in compiling a full pronunciation dictionary.

The relation between graphemes and phonemes in Malay is generally straightforward, but there are a limited number of graphemes with ambiguous pronunciations. One example is the letter <e>, which can correspond either to the phoneme/e/or to schwa.

The uncertainty sampling approach to active learning was used (Lewis and Gale, 1994): Several hundred examples of /e/in different words were collected and as predictor features neighboring letters in a 7-letterwindow were collected. 150 randomly picked examples were initially hand-labelled (using the arbitrary symbols <e> and <ê> to disambiguate the pronunciation). A further 200 examples were selected (one at a time) by active learning and presented to the user for labelling. The classifier resulting from the final iteration of active learning was then used to predict the pronunciation of new examples, including in the transcript of speech data for acoustic model training.

The learned classifier achieved an accuracy of 89.83% on the held-out, semantically unpredictable sentences described in result and discussion. Note that active learning has been used previously for learning letter-to-sound rules (Dwyer and Kondrak, 2009). The difference in the current word is that instead of being asked to supply phonemic transcriptions of lexical items, a possibly technically naive user is instead asked to make a binary choice for each example of a small subset of letter types.

**Experiment:**

**Systems built:** Four TTS systems were built, covering all combinations of data type (purpose-recorded vs. web-harvested) and letter-to-sound rules type (graphemes with actively learned disambiguation vs. plain graphemes). The four systems are summarised in Table 1. Systems B and D were trained on the 882 utterances of studio data described in speech data collection and systems C and E on the 435 utterances of web-harvested data. The quantity of data for all systems is comparable (approximately 1 h). All systems are letter-based: Systems B and C are purely letter-based...
Table 1: Description of systems built

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Natural speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Studio data without active learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Found data without active learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Studio data with active learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Found data with active learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and systems D and E use the actively learned classifier for predicting the correct pronunciation of \(<e>\).

As a reference ‘system’, utterances of the natural speech drawn equally from the purpose-recorded and found data and held out of the training set were used. These samples constitute ‘system’ A.

**Evaluation method:** The synthetic speech from all systems was evaluated in a perceptual test performed by listeners. Two aspects of the speech were evaluated in this study: naturalness and intelligibility. For naturalness, Mean Opinion Score (MOS) was used: listeners were asked to rate the synthetic speech using a 5-point scale (1 for ‘completely unnatural’ and 5 for ‘completely natural’). Natural speech (system A) was included in the naturalness section of the test. To test the intelligibility of the synthetic voices, listeners were asked to transcribe the synthetic speech they heard. In this part, Semantically Unpredictable Sentences (SUS) were generated based on the criteria described in Benoit et al. (1996). As naturally spoken SUS were not available, system A was excluded from this part of the evaluation.

**Naturalness:** For the naturalness part of the evaluation 10 sentence-texts were used; these were provided by the held-out natural utterances of system A. These 10 texts were synthesized with each TTS system, resulting in 50 experimental stimuli.

**Intelligibility:** 10 utterance texts for the intelligibility part of the evaluation were generated for each system from the templates shown in Table 2. These sentences were synthesized by each of systems B--D, resulting in a set of 40 experimental stimuli. The SUS were generated in such a way that they consist mostly of out-of-training-corpus words. Only a few function words appear in both training data and the SUS script (e.g., *dengan, dan, ini, itu, ke* and *yang*).

In short, the complete listening test consisted of 50 sentences to evaluate naturalness and 40 to evaluate intelligibility. In the intelligibility test, listeners were not permitted to listen to a sentence twice; they were exposed to speech synthesized by each system. 28 listeners were hired to listen to the stimuli and rate or transcribe them. The test was conducted via the web: Listeners were asked to use headphones to listen...
to the speech. A subset of 8 listeners were invited into a quiet room to listen to the synthetic speech.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result of the naturalness test is shown in Fig. 1. Listeners' transcriptions were aligned with the known reference text of the stimuli and Word Error Rates (WER) of their transcriptions were computed per system. Figure 2 shows the Word Error Rates (WER) of the systems, illustrating that the active learning improves intelligibility in both the high- and low-quality data scenarios. We performed a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test (alpha = 0.05) to test the significance of the differences between all pairs of systems. All differences in WER were found to be significant except that between systems B and E, showing that active learning is highly effective in improving intelligibility.

CONCLUSION

We have presented four configurations of a Malay statistical parametric speech synthesizer in this study, which allowed us to evaluate the effect of replacing the standard high-quality studio data with lower-quality ‘found' data and to test a novel active learning technique for pronunciation disambiguation in both data conditions. The Malay language is straightforward in terms of orthography and language structure and in general it poses no major problems in building TTS systems. However, one major difficulty is predicting correct pronunciations for the ambiguous grapheme \(<e>\). In this study, when classifiers trained using the active learning technique were used to predict the correct pronunciation of this letter in words encountered at run-time, we found significant improvements to intelligibility for systems trained on both types of data.

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REFERENCES


