COMBINING NOVEL ACOUSTIC FEATURES USING SVM TO DETECT SPEAKER CHANGING POINTS

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Abstract: Automatic speaker change point detection separates different speakers from continuous speech signal by utilising the speaker characteristics. It is often a necessary step before using a speaker recognition system. Acoustic features of the speech signal such as Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCC) and Linear Prediction Cepstral Coefficients (LPCC) are commonly used to represent a speaker. However, the features are affected by speech content, environment, type of recording device, etc. So far, no features have been discovered, which values depend only on the speaker. In this paper four novel feature types proposed in recent journals and conference papers for speaker verification problem, are applied to the problem of speaker change point detection. The features are also used to form a combination scheme using an SVM classifier. The results shows that the proposed scheme improves the performance of speaker changing point detection as compared to the system that uses MFCC features only. Some of the novel features of low dimensionality give comparable speaker change point detection accuracy to the high-dimensional MFCC features.

1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of speaker changing point detection (speaker segmentation) is to find acoustic events within an audio stream (e.g. finding the speaker changing point in the continuous speech files according to different speakers' characteristics). Automatic segmentation of an audio stream according to speaker identities and environmental conditions have gained increasing attention. Since some speech files are obtained from telephone conversations or recorded during meetings, there are more than one person speaking in the audio recordings. In such cases before performing speaker recognition it is necessary to separate audio signal according to different speakers. Features extracted from a speech waveform are used to represent the characteristics of the speech and speaker. Among the features acoustic features are those based on spectrograms of short-term speech segments. However, the feature values that represent a speaker also vary due to speech content, environment, type of recording device, etc. So far no features have been discovered, whose values only depend on the speaker. Also, different speech features contains different information about a speaker: some features reflect a person’s vocal tract shape while others may characterise the vocal tract excitation source.

Generally there are three main techniques for detecting the speaker changing points: decoder guided, metric based and model based. In this paper, a method using Support Vector Machines (SVM) to find speaker changing point in a continuous audio file is presented. SVM is a binary classifier that constructs a decision boundary to separate the two classes. SVM has gained much attention since the experimental results indicate that it can achieve a generalisation performance that is greater than or equal to other classifiers, but requires less training data to achieve such an outcome (Wan and Campbell, 2000). Speaker segmentation can be treated as a binary decision task: the system must decide whether or not a speech frame has the speaker changing point. This study uses the SVM for seeking speaker changing points by combining commonly used acoustic features with several novel acoustic features proposed recently. The novel features have been recently proposed by different re-
searchers for the problem of speaker recognition.

The paper is organised as follows: section 2 describes the speaker segmentation method with Bayesian Information Criteria. In section 3 the feature extraction is described for each feature type. In section 4 the structure of SVM speaker segmentation is explained. Section 5 presents the experimental results and draws the conclusion.

2 SPEAKER SEGMENTATION WITH BIC

A speaker changing point detection algorithm using Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) is proposed in (Chen and Gopalakrishnan, 1998). A speech signal is divided into partially overlapping frames of around 30 ms length using a Hamming window. Extraction of acoustic features is performed for each speech frame. A sliding window with minimum size $W_{\text{min}}$ and maximum size $W_{\text{max}}$ shifted by $F$ frames is used to group several consecutive frames. For detail grouping algorithm the reader may refer to (Chen and Gopalakrishnan, 1998). Each segment contains a number of frames and is represented by the corresponding acoustic feature vectors. A segment can be modelled as a single Gaussian distribution. The distance between consecutive segments is calculated based on variances of the Gaussian distributions that model the segments in the feature space. The variance BIC (Nishida and Kawahara, 2003) was developed from BIC and used to represent the distance between two speech segments represented as their feature vectors. Variance BIC is formulated with the following function:

$$\Delta BIC_{\text{variance}} = -\frac{n_1 + n_2}{2} \log(|\Sigma_0|) + \frac{n_1}{2} \log(|\Sigma_1|) + \frac{n_2}{2} \log(|\Sigma_2|) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \left( d + \frac{1}{2} d(d+1) \right) \log(n_1 + n_2)$$

(1)

where $\Sigma_0$, $\Sigma_1$ and $\Sigma_2$ are the covariance values of the whole segment, the first segment and the second segment respectively, $n_i$ is the number of frames for the $i$-th segment, and $d$ is the dimensionality of the acoustic feature vectors. The larger the variance BIC of two segments is, the larger is the probability that there is a speaker changing point between these two segments. A sliding window is used to calculate the variance BIC value for the whole speech files (Chen and Gopalakrishnan, 1998). Local maxima in variance BIC values of the whole speech are marked as the speaker changing points.

When different acoustic features are used, there will be different variance BIC values generated for a speech file. These values can be used as features forming feature vectors to be used for determining speaker changing points. Fig. 1 shows the process of generating a variance BIC vector after acoustic feature extraction. After the feature extraction for each frame, the feature vector of each frame is used to calculate the variance BIC values.

Most of the acoustic features are of high dimensionality, and simple concatenation of the feature vectors will result in a feature vector of even higher dimensionality, which, in turn, will require too many training samples to be trained reliably. Instead, in the current study the variance BIC value is calculated from each of the acoustic features as described above. The BIC values calculated for the same frames using different acoustic features form new feature vectors are then used with the SVM classifier (Fig. 2).

3 EXTRACTION OF FEATURES

The features were extracted from speech sampled at 16 kHz. Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCC) (Oppenheim and Schafer, 2004) features were used to calculate the variance BIC values. MFCC vectors were extracted from 30 ms frames without overlap. The feature values were normalised by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard
deviation. First order difference features were added. In addition, several novel acoustic features were used to calculate variance BIC acoustic values: Mel Line Spectrum Frequencies (MLSF) (Cordeiro and Ribeiro, 2006), Hurst parameter features (pH) (Sant’Ana et al., 2006), Haar Octave Coefficients of Residue (HOCOR) (Zheng and Ching, 2004), and features based on fractional Fourier transform (MFCCFrFT).

FrFTMFCC are extracted similarly to MFCC with the only difference that the fractional Fourier transform of order $p$ is used in place of the integer one. Features of various orders $p$ were tried and FrFTMFCC$_{0.9}$ were chosen because they gave the next highest speaker segmentation accuracy after FrFTMFCC$_{1.0}$, which are the conventional MFCC, as measured by the F-score (see below). MLSF are similar to Line Spectrum Frequencies calculated from LP coefficients and were proposed in the context of the speaker verification problem. A mel spectrum was generated via Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) and mel filter bank applied to 30 ms frames. The inverse Fourier transform was applied to calculate the mel autocorrelation of the signal, from which MLSF features were then calculated via Levinson-Durbin recursion. LP of order 10 was used. The feature values were normalised by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation.

Hurst parameter is calculated for frames of a speech signal via Abry-Veitch Estimator using discrete wavelet transform (Veith and Abry, 1998). In the current study a frame length of 60 ms was used, and Daubechies wavelets with four, six, and twelve coefficients were tried giving rise to pH$_4$, pH$_6$, and pH$_{12}$ features. The depth of wavelet decomposition was chosen to be 5, 4, and 3 for pH$_4$, pH$_6$, and pH$_{12}$ correspondingly, thus resulting in 5-, 4-, and 3-dimensional feature vectors (Sant’Ana et al., 2006).

While LP coefficients are aimed at characterising the person’s vocal tract shape, information about the glottal excitation source can be extracted from the residual signal $e_n = s_n + \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k s_{n-k}$. Haar Octave Coefficients of Residue (HOCOR) features are extracted by applying Haar transform to the residual signal. In the current study the LP of order 12 was applied to 30 ms frames. HOCOR$_\alpha$ features of order $\alpha$ 1, 2, 3, and 4 were extracted (Zheng and Ching, 2004).

4 SVM SPEAKER SEGMENTATION

Fig. 3 shows the structure of SVM speaker segmentation. To be used in SVM the frames which contain speaker changing point are labelled as $-1$, the frames without speaker changing point are labelled as 1. The acceptable error range of the found speaker changing points was chosen to be 1 second (Ajmera et al., 2004), which means the frames that are half a second before and after a speaker changing point are all labelled as $-1$. The variance BIC values that are obtained from different acoustic features are of different order. To use them as features in SVM a linear scaling is applied:

$$f_i^j = \frac{f_i^j - \langle f_i \rangle}{\sigma_i}$$

where $i$ represent different features, $j$ is the frame number of the $i$-th feature, $\langle f_i \rangle$ is the mean value of $f_i^j$ and $\sigma_i$ is its standard deviation.

Figure 3: SVM speaker segmentation system.

The SVM classifier returns two values for each frame that are related to the distance to the separating hyperplane (either of them can be monotonically mapped into the conditional class probability). The values sum to one and indicate to what extent the frame belongs to class $-1$ (or 1). The $-1$ class value is analysed to determine the true speaker changing point. A peak search algorithm was used to determine the local maxima of $-1$ class value as we moved along the frames. The peak searching algorithm uses adaptive threshold in an attempt to eliminate small peaks due to noise and find only true local maxima.

5 RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The NIST HUB-4E Broadcast News Evaluation data set was used in this study. The data was obtained from the audio component of a variety of television and broadcast news sources and each audio file consist of approximately one hour of speech in English.
and includes the speech of several speakers in one audio channel (Hub, 1997). To evaluate the performance of the speaker changing point detection, two criteria were used: the precision of speaker changing points that were found and the number of missed changing points. The precision indicates the percentage of true turning points from the total number of turning points that were found. The recall indicates how many of the true turning points were missed. These two are combined into an \( F \)-score. \( F \)-score indicates how good a system is: it is high when both precision and recall values are high and low when either of them is low (Nishida and Kawahara, 2003).

Table 1: \( F \)-score, precision and recall for different features and their combination via SVM. \( d \) is the dimensionality of the acoustic feature vectors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>( d )</th>
<th>( F )-score</th>
<th>Precision</th>
<th>Recall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MFCC</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLSF</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pH4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pH6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOCOR_1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOCOR_2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOCOR_3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOCOR_4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FrFTMCC_{0.9}</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM_1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM_2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 (except for the two bottom rows) shows the speaker changing point detection results achieved when different acoustic features were used to calculate the variance BIC and the peak detection algorithm was used to detect speaker changing points from the BIC values. It is worth noticing that using pH features gives \( F \)-scores comparable to those when MFCC features are used, even though the dimensionality of feature vectors of pH features is far less than those of MFCC. This suggests that pH features may be a better choice when the training data set is small.

The features used for SVM combination 1 (SVM_1) are the 10 variance BIC values resulted from the 10 acoustic features. The results in Table 1 show that the proposed SVM speaker changing point detection scheme improves the speaker changing point detection performance as compared to each of the individual acoustic features, with a higher \( F \)-score of 0.64. This means that other acoustic features, which were originally proposed for speaker recognition problem, can be used for the problem of speaker segmentation as well. Because of low both precision and recall values achieved on HOCOR features, a combination of the acoustic features was attempted without HOCOR features. The results (SVM_2 in Table 1) were comparable with those of SVM_1. However, elimination of any other acoustic features from the combination degraded the speaker segmentation performance.

This study demonstrates that the new features do carry additional information about speaker differences to MFCC features, and some of them also have attractiveness because of their low dimensionality. Further study may find better ways of how to integrate complimentary information about speaker differences contained in the new features with traditional features such as MFCC and LPCC.

REFERENCES


