## **Training HMMs**

# Outline

- Parameter estimation
- Maximum Likelihood (ML) parameter estimation
- ML for Gaussian PDFs
- ML for HMMs the Baum-Welch algorithm
- HMM adaptation:
  - MAP estimation
  - MLLR

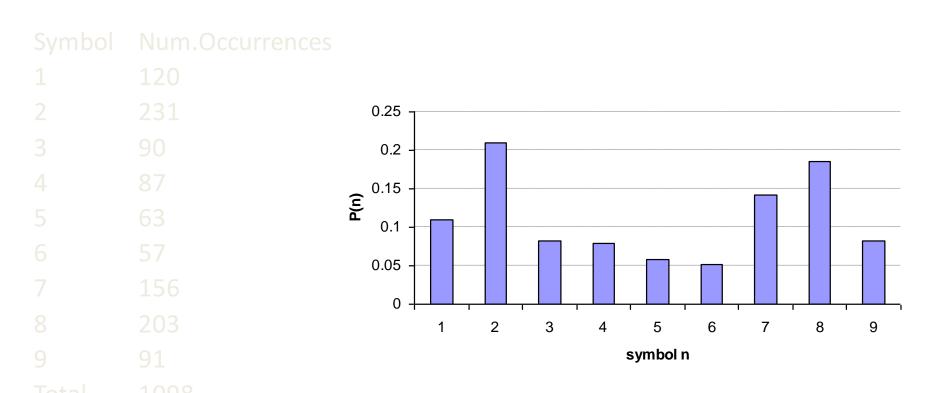
## Discrete variables

- Suppose that Y is a random variable which can take any value in a discrete set X={x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>,...,x<sub>M</sub>}
- Suppose that y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>,..., y<sub>N</sub> are samples of the random variable Y
- If  $c_m$  is the number of times that the  $y_n = x_m$ then an estimate of the probability that  $y_n$ takes the value  $x_m$  is given by:

$$P(x_m) = P(y_n = x_m) \approx \frac{c_m}{N}$$

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## **Discrete Probability Mass Function**



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## **Continuous Random Variables**

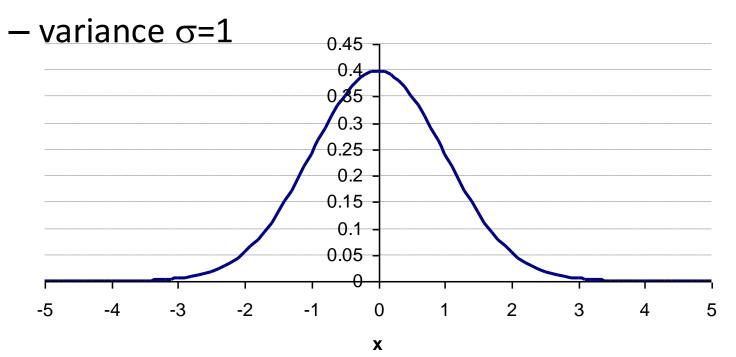
- In most practical applications the data are not restricted to a finite set of values – they can take any value in N-dimensional space
- Simply counting the number of occurrences of each value is no longer a viable way of estimating probabilities...
- ...but there are generalisations of this approach which are applicable to continuous variables – these are referred to as <u>non-parametric methods</u>

# **Continuous Random Variables**

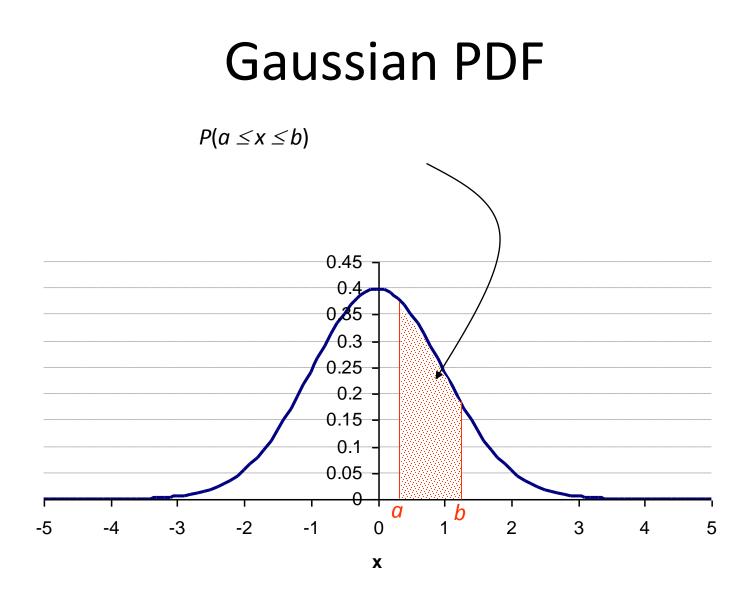
- An alternative is to use a <u>parametric</u> model
- In a parametric model, probabilities are defined by a small set of parameters
- Simplest example is a <u>normal</u>, or <u>Gaussian</u> model
- A Gaussian probability density function (PDF) is defined by two parameters
  - its mean  $\mu$ , and
  - -<u>variance</u>  $\sigma$

### Gaussian PDF

- 'Standard' 1-dimensional Guassian PDF:
  - mean  $\mu$ =0



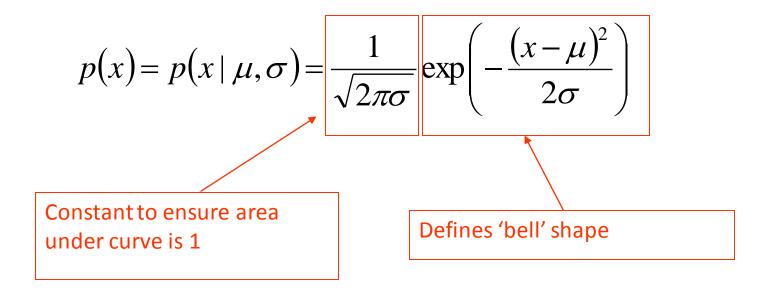
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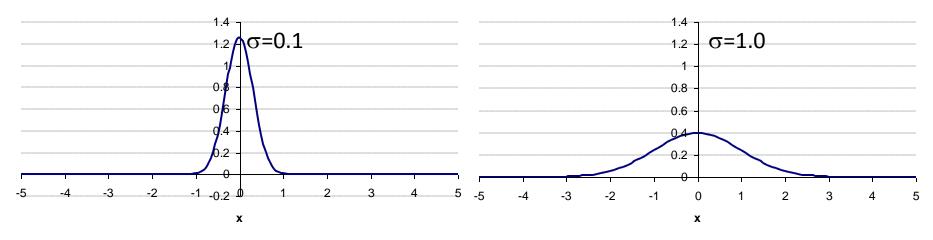
### Gaussian PDF

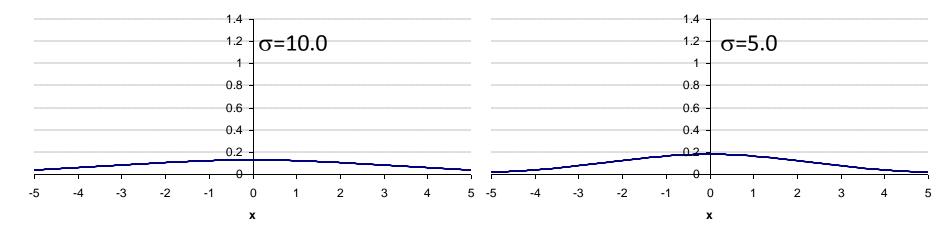
• For a 1-dimensional Gaussian PDF p with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma$ :



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#### More examples





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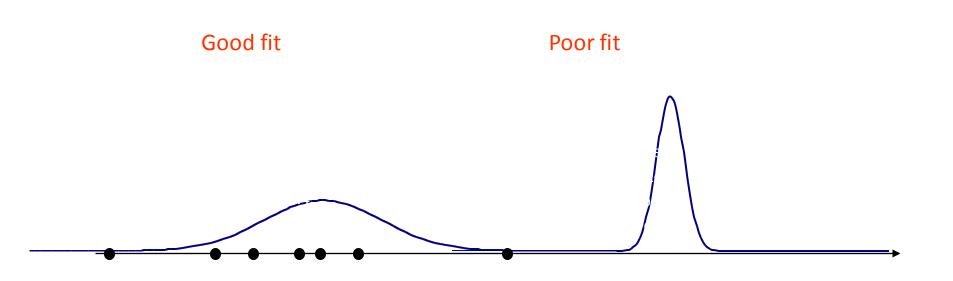
## Fitting a Gaussian PDF to Data

- Suppose y = y<sub>1</sub>,...,y<sub>n</sub>,...,y<sub>T</sub> is a sequence of T data values
- Given a Gaussian PDF p with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma$ , define:

$$p(y \mid \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(y_t \mid \mu, \sigma)$$

- How do we choose  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  to maximise this probability?

## Fitting a Gaussian PDF to Data



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# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- <u>Define</u> the best fitting Gaussian to be the one such that  $p(y | \mu, \sigma)$  is maximised.
- Terminology:
  - $-p(y | \mu, \sigma)$  as a function of y is the probability (density) of y
  - $-p(y | \mu, \sigma)$  as a function of  $\mu, \sigma$  is the <u>likelihood</u> of  $\mu, \sigma$
- Maximising  $p(y|\mu,\sigma)$  with respect to  $\mu,\sigma$  is called Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation of  $\mu,\sigma$

# ML estimation of $\mu,\sigma$

- Intuitively:
  - The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\mu$  should be the average value of  $y_1, \dots, y_T$ , (the <u>sample mean</u>)
  - The maximum likelihood estimate of  $\sigma$  should be the variance of  $y_1, \dots, y_T$  (the <u>sample variance</u>)
- This turns out to be true:  $p(y \mid \mu, \sigma)$  is maximised by setting:  $\mu = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t, \quad \sigma = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} (y_t - \mu)^2$

# Proof

First note that maximising p(y) is the same as maximising log(p(y))

$$\log p(y \mid \mu, \sigma) = \log \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(y_t \mid \mu, \sigma) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p(y_t \mid \mu, \sigma)$$
Also
$$\log p(y_t \mid \mu, \sigma) = -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma) - \frac{(\mu - y_t)^2}{\sigma}$$

At a maximum:

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log p(y \mid \mu, \sigma) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log p(y_t \mid \mu, \sigma) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{-2(\mu - y_t)(-1)}{\sigma}$$
  
So,  $T\mu = \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t, \mu = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t$ 

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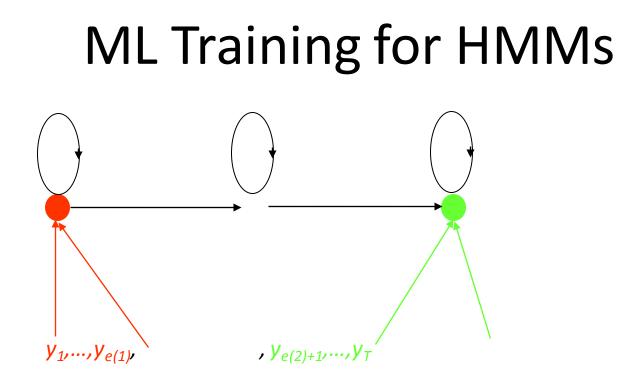
# ML training for HMMs

- Now consider
  - An N state HMM M, each of whose states is associated with a <u>Gaussian</u> PDF
  - A training sequence  $y_1, \dots, y_T$
- For simplicity assume that each y<sub>t</sub> is 1dimensional

# ML training for HMMs

- If we knew that:
  - $-y_1, \dots, y_{e(1)}$  correspond to state 1
  - $-y_{e(1)+1},...,y_{e(2)}$  correspond to state 2
  - y<sub>e(n-1)+1</sub>,...,y<sub>e(n)</sub> correspond to state n
     :
- Then we could set the mean of state *n* to the average value of  $y_{e(n-1)+1}, ..., y_{e(n)}$

— :

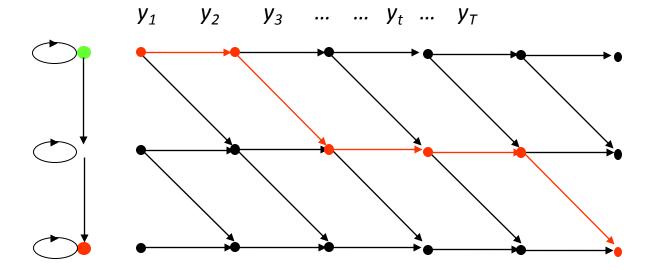


Unfortunately we <u>don't</u> know that  $y_{e(n-1)+1}, \dots, y_{e(n)}$  correspond to state *n*...

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# Solution

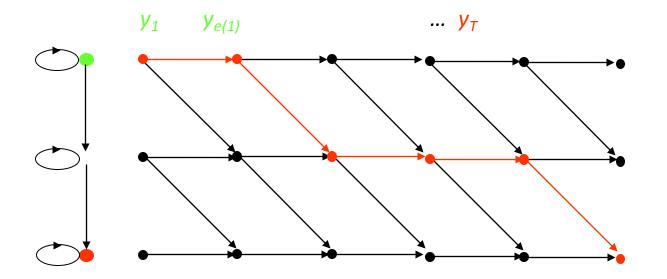
- 1. Define an initial HMM  $M_o$
- 2. Use the Viterbi algorithm to compute the optimal state sequence between  $M_0$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_T$



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# Solution (continued)

• Use optimal state sequence to segment y



Reestimate parameters to get a new model M<sub>1</sub>

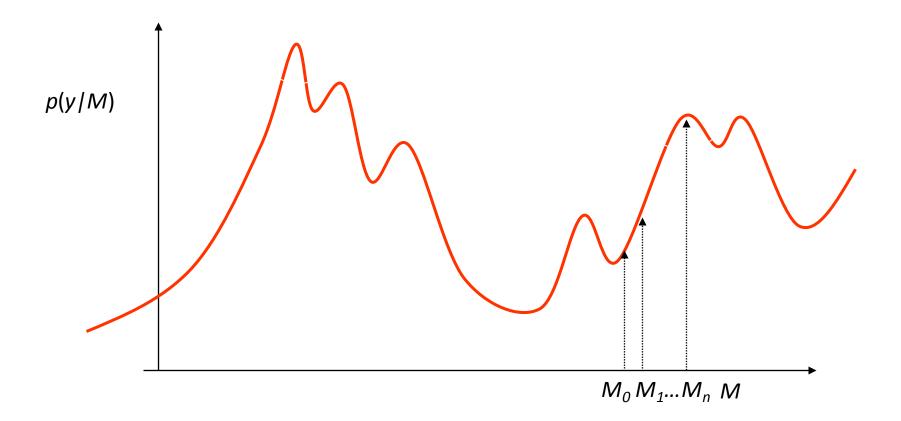
# Solution (continued)

- Now repeat whole process using M<sub>1</sub> instead of M<sub>0</sub>, to get a new model M<sub>2</sub>
- Then repeat again using M<sub>2</sub> to get a new model M<sub>3</sub>
- •

 $p(y \mid M_0) \le p(y \mid M_1) \le p(y \mid M_2) \le .... \le p(y \mid M_n) ....$ 

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#### Local optimization



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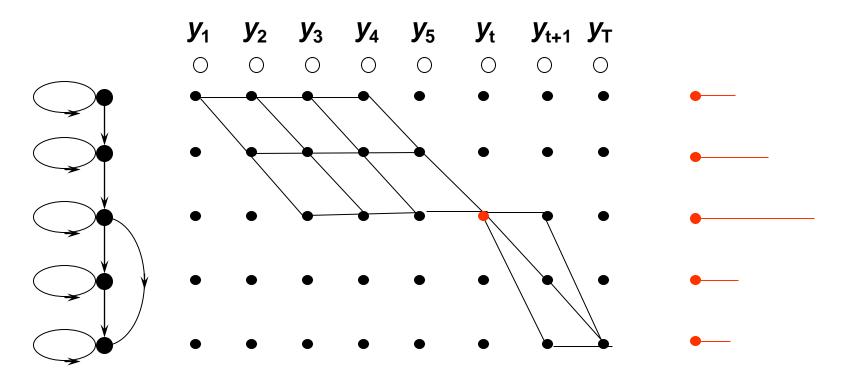
## Baum-Welch optimization

- The algorithm just described is often called <u>Viterbi training</u> or <u>Viterbi reestimation</u>
- It is often used to train large sets of HMMs
- An alternative method is called <u>Baum-Welch</u> reestimation

$$\mu(i) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{X \in S_{i,t}} P(Y, X \mid M_0) y_t}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{X \in S_{i,t}} P(Y, X \mid M_0)} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_t(i) y_t$$

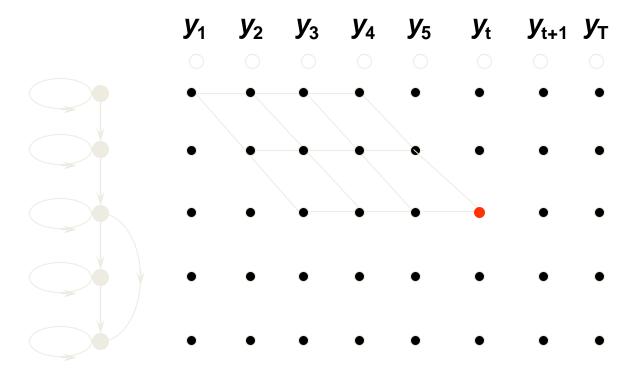
#### **Baum-Welch Reestimation**

 $P(s_i \mid y_t) = \gamma_t(i)$ 



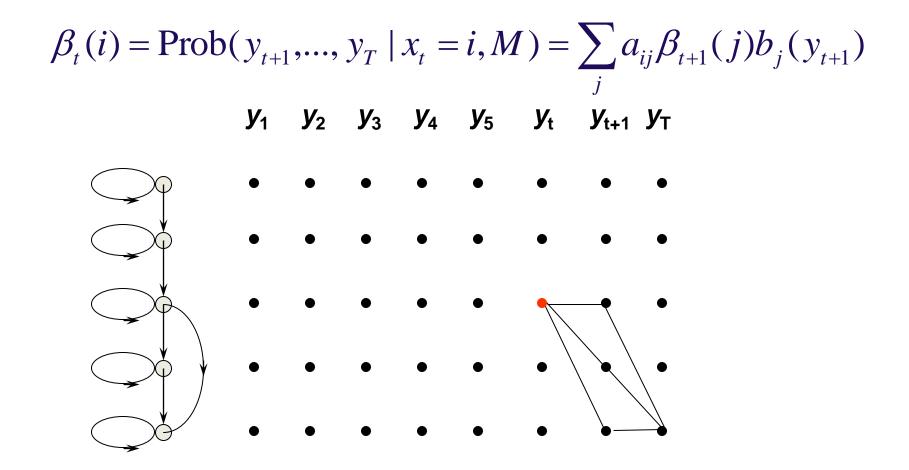
### 'Forward' Probabilities

$$\alpha_t(i) = \operatorname{Prob}(y_1, ..., y_t \text{ and } x_t = i | M) = \sum_j \alpha_{t-1}(j) \alpha_{ji} b_i(y_t)$$



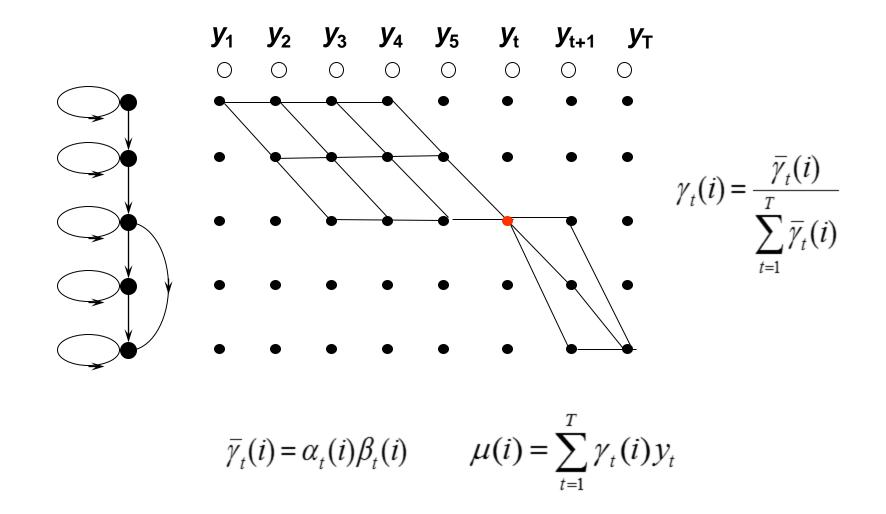
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#### 'Backward' Probabilities



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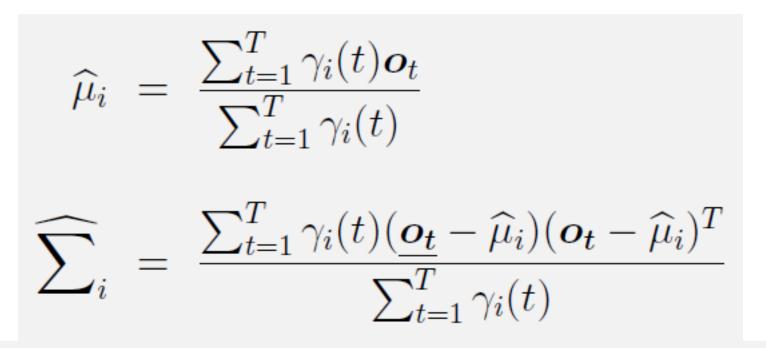
### 'Forward-Backward' Algorithm



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#### 'Forward-Backward' Algorithm

$$\gamma_t(i) = \frac{\alpha_t(i) \ \beta_t(i)}{P(O|\lambda)} = \frac{\alpha_t(i) \ \beta_t(i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_t(i) \ \beta_t(i)}$$



These are weighted averages  $\Rightarrow$  weighted by Prob. of being in state j at t STUDENTS-HUB.com

#### **Re-estimate Transition Probabilites**

$$\xi_t(i, j) = \frac{\alpha_t(i) a_{ij} b_j(O_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j)}{P(O|\lambda)}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_t(i) \ a_{ij} b_j(O_{t+1}) \ \beta_{t+1}(j)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_t(i) \ a_{ij} b_j(O_{t+1}) \ \beta_{t+1}(j)}$$

 $\overline{\pi}_i$  = expected frequency (number of times) in state  $S_i$  at time  $(t = 1) = \gamma_1(i)$ 

 $\overline{a}_{ij} = \frac{\text{expected number of transitions from state } S_i \text{ to state } S_j}{\text{expected number of transitions from state } S_i}$ 

$$= \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_t(i, j)}{T-1}$$
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## Adaptation

- A modern large-vocabulary continuous speech recognition system has <u>many thousands of</u> <u>parameters</u>
- Many hours of speech data used to train the system (e.g. 200+ hours!)
- Speech data comes from many speakers
- Hence recogniser is 'speaker independent'
- But performance for an individual would be better if the system were <u>speaker dependent</u>

## Adaptation

- For a single speaker, only a small amount of training data is available
- Viterbi reestimation or Baum-Welch reestimation <u>will not work</u>
- Adaptation:
  - the problem of robustly adapting a <u>large</u> number of model parameters using a <u>small</u> amount of training data



Number of parameters

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## Adaptation

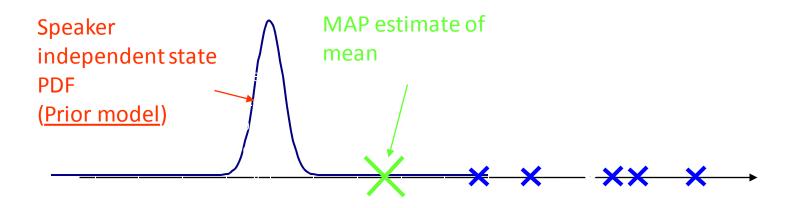
- Two common approaches to adaptation (with small amounts of training data)
  - <u>Bayesian adaptation</u> (also known as MAP adaptation (MAP = Maximum a Posteriori))
  - <u>Transform-based adaptation</u> (also known as MLLR (MLLR = Maximum Likelihood Linear Regression))

# Bayesian (MAP) adaptation

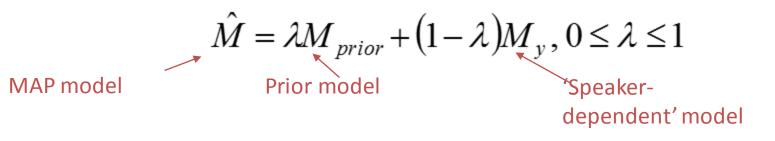
- MAP estimation maximises the <u>posterior</u> probability of M given the data y, i.e., P(M | y)
- From Bayes' Theorem:  $P(M | y) = \frac{p(y | M)P(M)}{p(y)}$
- *P*(*M*) is the prior probability of *M*
- p(y | M) is the likelihood of the adaptation data on M

# Bayesian (MAP) adaptation

- Uses well-trained, 'speaker-independent' HMM as a prior P(M) for the estimate of the parameters of the speaker dependent HMM
- E.G:



## Bayesian (MAP) adaptation



- Intuitively, if the adaptation data set y is big, then the MAP adapted model will be biased towards y, so λ will be small
- Conversely, if there is very little adaptation data, the MAP model will be biased towards the prior, so  $\lambda$  will be big