



Speaker Adaptation in Speech Synthesis

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Definition and Motivation

Speaker Adaptation:

Transformation of symbolic and/ or signal aspects of a **source** utterance to derive a **target** utterance which differs from the source in terms of **speaking style** and/ or **speaker identity**

Motivation for speaking style modification:

- increasing variability and therefore also naturalness of synthesised speech
- adapting synthesised speech to environmental needs (e.g. evoke hyperarticulation in noisy environments)
- evaluating influences of acoustic parameters on speaking style (by perception experiments with synthesised stimuli)

Motivation for speaker identity modification:

- commercially: enhance voice availability for e.g. navigation system customers
- evaluating influences of acoustic parameters on speaker identity (perception experiments)

Influence on Speaker and Speaking Style Characteristics

speaker-related influences:

- gender, age, body size, dialect, sociolect, health constitution, etc.

influences related to speaking style:

- occasion of the utterance, addressed hearer, emotion, importance of the conveyed message, etc.

Domains of Speaker adaptation in speech synthesis

Symbolic level

- word sequence (in **concept-to-speech**-synthesis)
- phoneme sequence
- prosodic structure: position and types of accents and phrase boundaries

Signal level

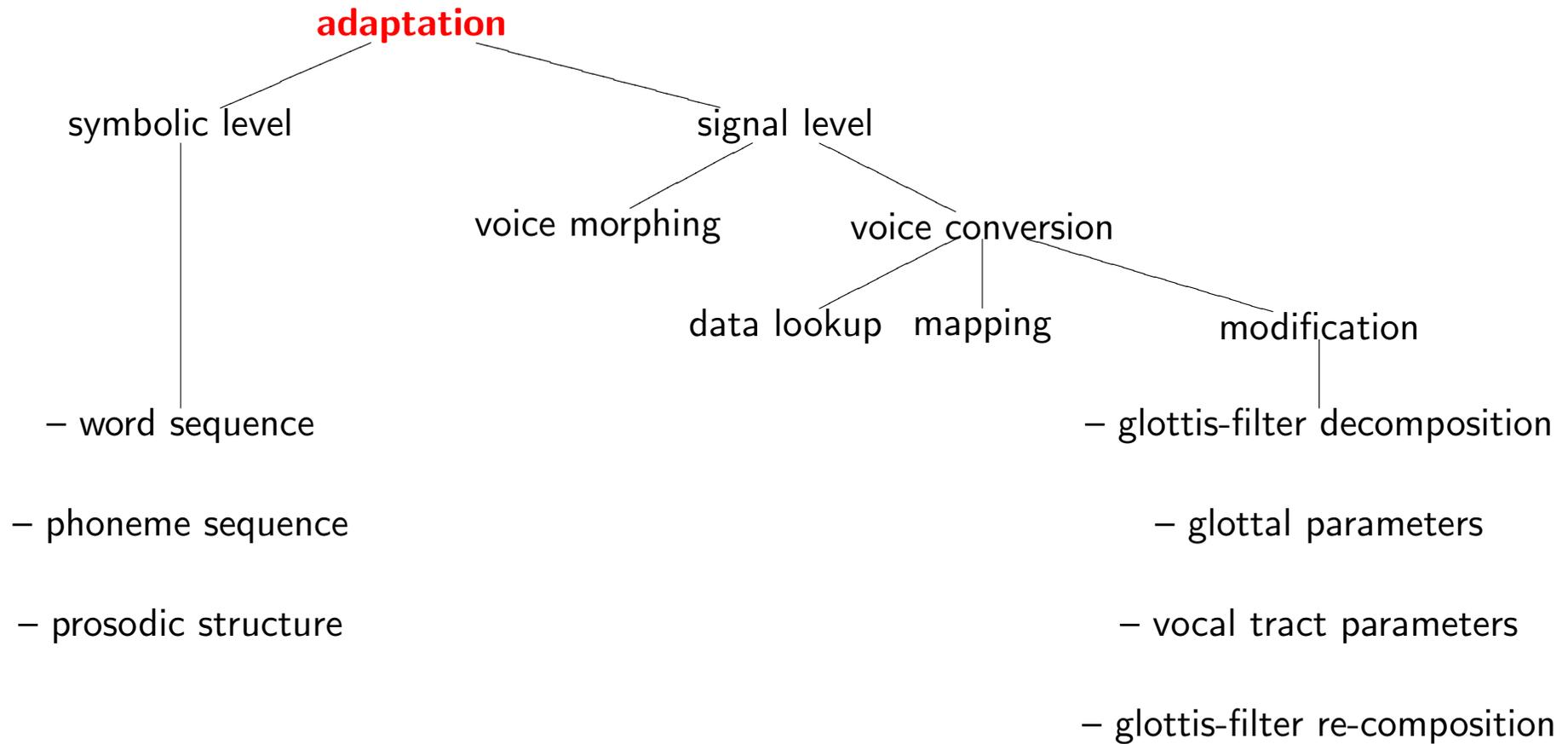
- f0 contour
- glottal excitation (voice quality)
- intensity
- vocal tract: formant frequencies, bandwidths, trajectories
- speech rate, segment duration
- most of these domains encode segmental as well as suprasegmental information

Example: Acoustics of emotions (excerpt of a collection by Schroeder, 2001)

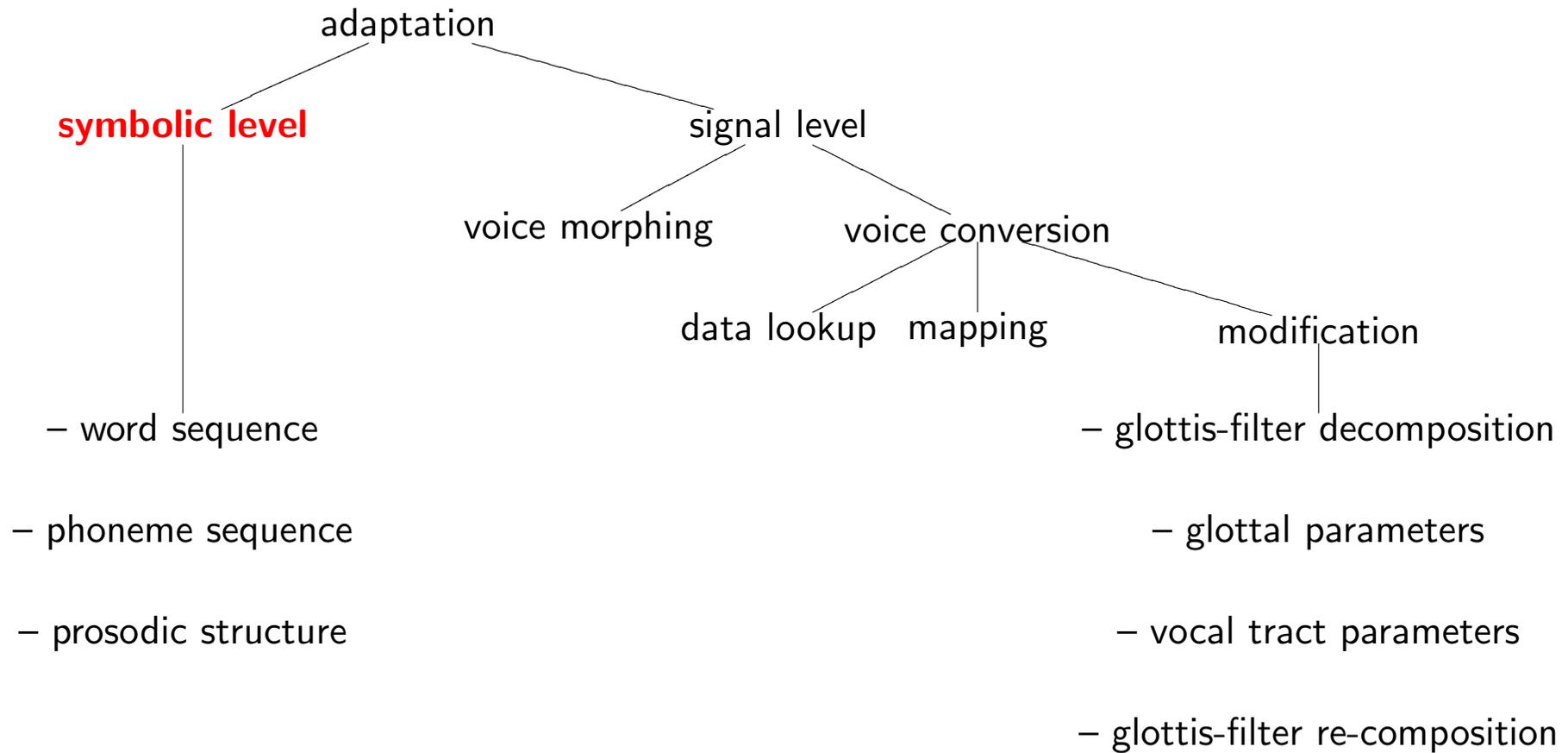
Emotion	Parameter Settings
Joy	F0 mean: +50 % F0 range: +100 % speech rate: +30 % voice quality: modal or tense
Fear	F0 mean: +150 % F0 range: +20 % speech rate: +30 % voice quality: falsetto

Is the expression of fear an increased expression of joy?

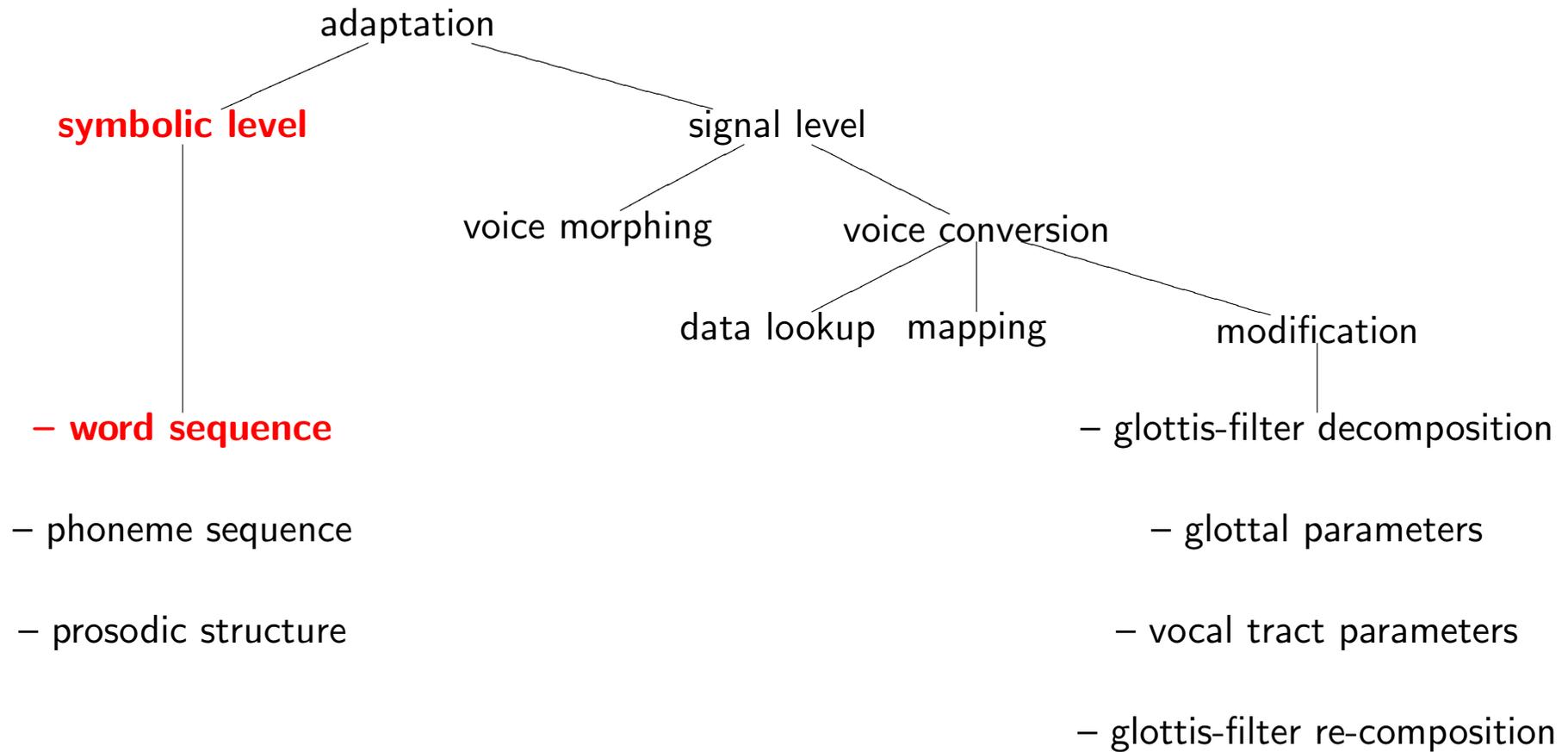
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Word sequence (not addressed yet)

- **Interlingua** (rule based)

1. translation of the source word sequence into an abstract semantic (Interlingua) representation

2. translation of this representation into the target word sequence

- **example:** transformation into colloquial speaking style

 - source:** Frank trinkt drei Bier

 - Interlingua:** TRINKEN(FRANK, BIER) \wedge ANZAHL(BIER, 3)

 - target:** Frank pfeift sich drei Bier rein

- translation between source, Interlingua and target by means of **Categorial Grammar** (Steedman, 1998)

- **Statistical machine translation**

1. **Training: Phrase alignment** of parallel texts in order to collect phrase co-occurrence probabilities. Further word sequence (**n-gram**) probabilities are collected.

2. **Application:**

- transformation of the source text S into a target text T that maximises $P(T|S)$
- in general $P(T|S)$ cannot be estimated directly, since T and S are usually not entirely given as parallel texts in the training data. So T and S need to be decomposed, which can be achieved by re-formulation of $P(T|S)$ (**Bayes' rule**):

$$P(T|S) = \frac{P(S|T)P(T)}{P(S)}$$

- $P(S|T)$ is called the **translation model**, and $P(T)$ is called the **language model** of T

Example:

- **Training:** phrase alignment in parallel texts; calculation of co-occurrence probabilities ($P(S|T)$) and word sequence probabilities ($P(T)$); here: *maximum likelihoods*.

Text A	Text B
Frank trinkt drei Bier	Frank pfeift sich drei Bier rein

$P(S|T)$: $P(\text{Frank trinkt drei Bier}|\text{Frank pfeift sich drei Bier rein}) = 1$

$P(T)$: $P(\text{pfeift}|\text{Frank}) = 1$, $P(\text{sich}|\text{pfeift}) = 1$, ...

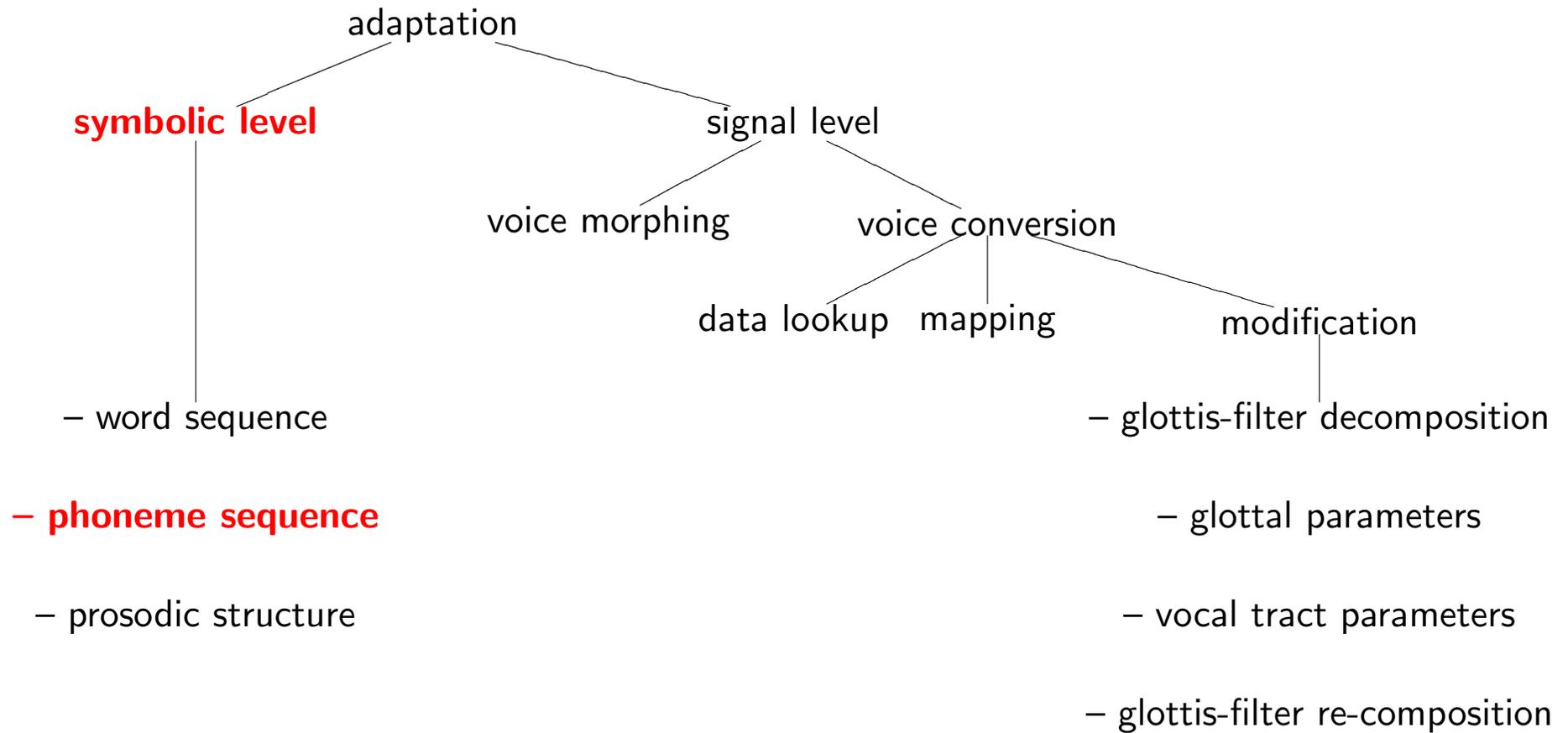
- **Application:**

$$\hat{T} = \arg \max_T [P(T|\text{Frank trinkt drei Bier})]$$

$$= \arg \max_T [P(\text{Frank trinkt drei Bier}|T) \cdot P(T)]$$

$$= \text{Frank pfeift sich drei Bier rein}$$

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Phoneme sequence

- Speaking style or speaker dependent **grapheme-to-phoneme** conversion, or
- **phoneme-to-phoneme** conversion e.g. from canonical pronunciation to a dialectal variation
- **Rule-based** conversion (Kipp, 1999, including knowledge of phonotactics)
- **Statistic classifiers:**
 1. **Training:** Phoneme alignment of parallel pronunciation dictionaries; let some classifier (decision tree, neural net, etc.) learn the relations
 2. **Application:** transformation guided by co-occurrence knowledge learned in the training phase

Example:

k		a		l		t
k		OY		-		d

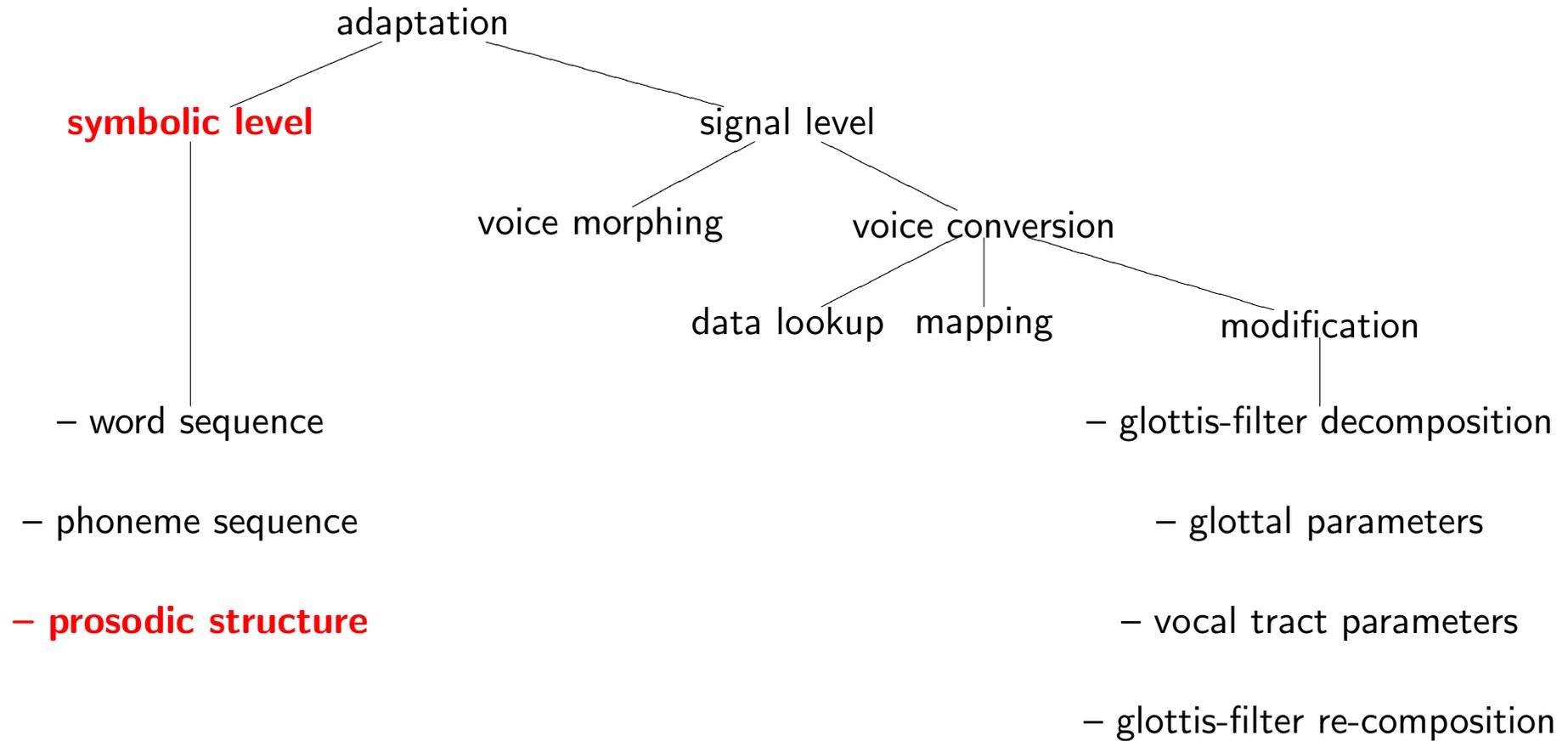
→ excerpt of derived co-occurrence knowledge in a 3-phoneme window:

k a l → **OY**

a l t → **-**

l t # → **d**

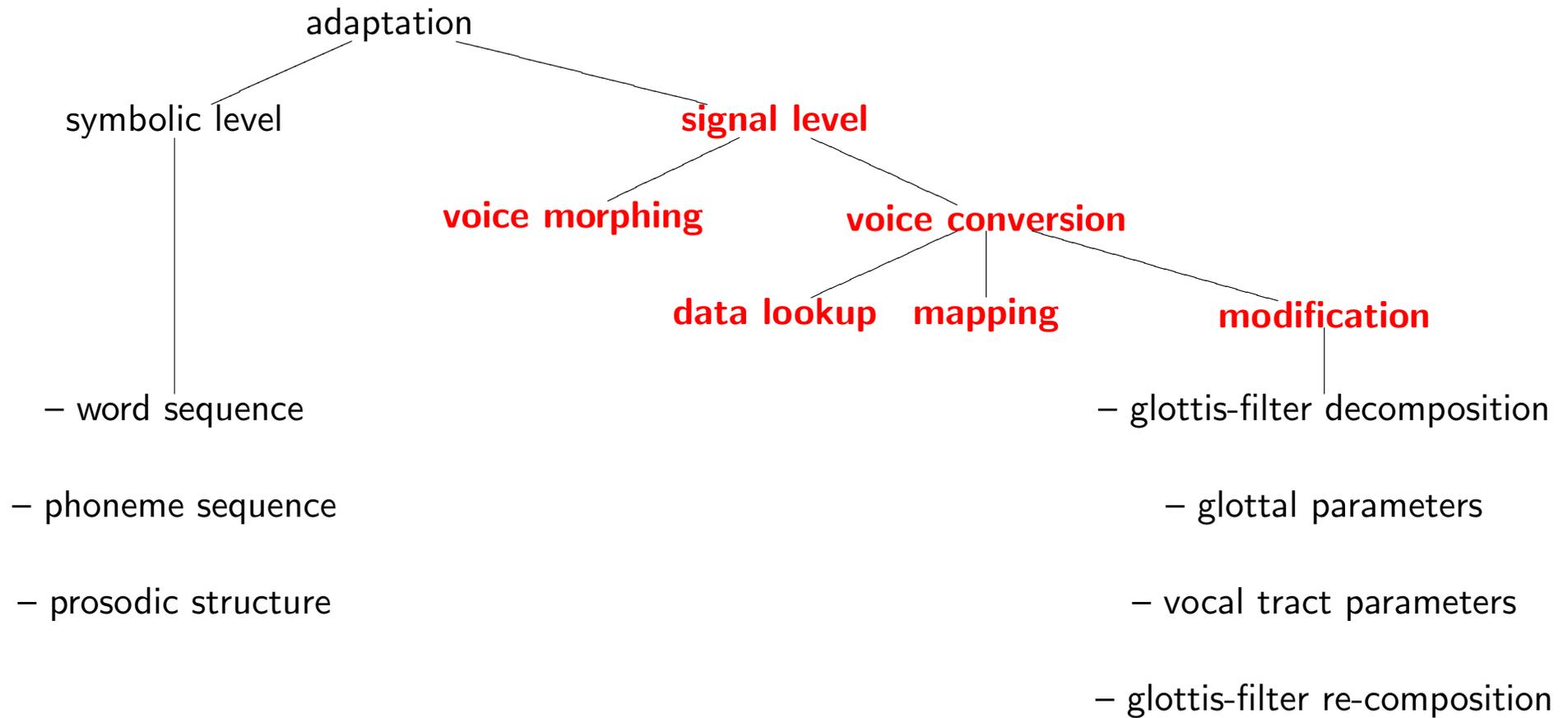
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Prosodic Structure

- **task:** sequence of syllables → sequence of stress and boundary levels
- Text-based prediction of accent and phrase boundary location guided e.g. by:
 - syntax (e.g. Chomsky et al., 1968; Gee et al., 1983)
 - phonology (e.g. metrical phonology, Liberman, 1977)
 - semantics, statistical predictability (Bolinger, 1972; Pan et al., 2000)
 - information structure (focus–background, given–new, theme–rheme; Vallduví, 1993)
 - speaking style: hyperspeech connected with density of accents and phrase boundaries (Lindblom, 1990)
- **rule based prediction** (Van Deemter, 1998) or training of **statistical classifiers** (Veilleux, 1994)

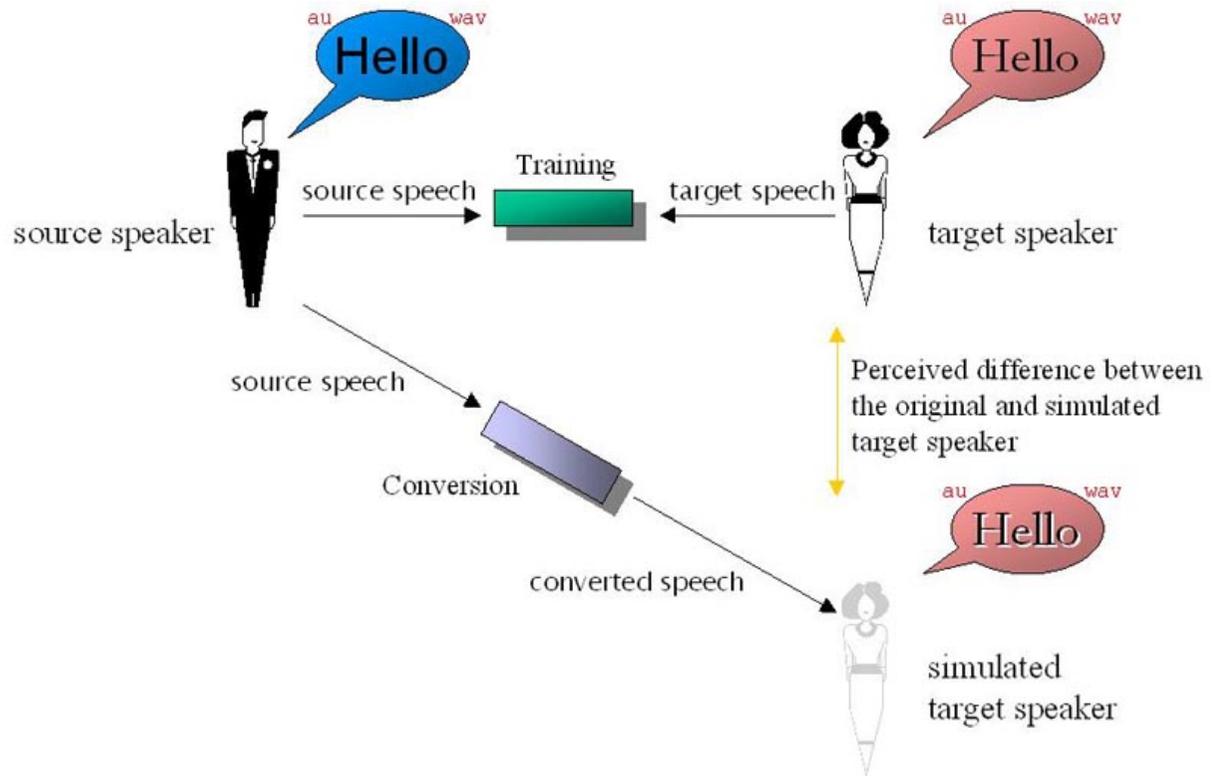
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Signal level

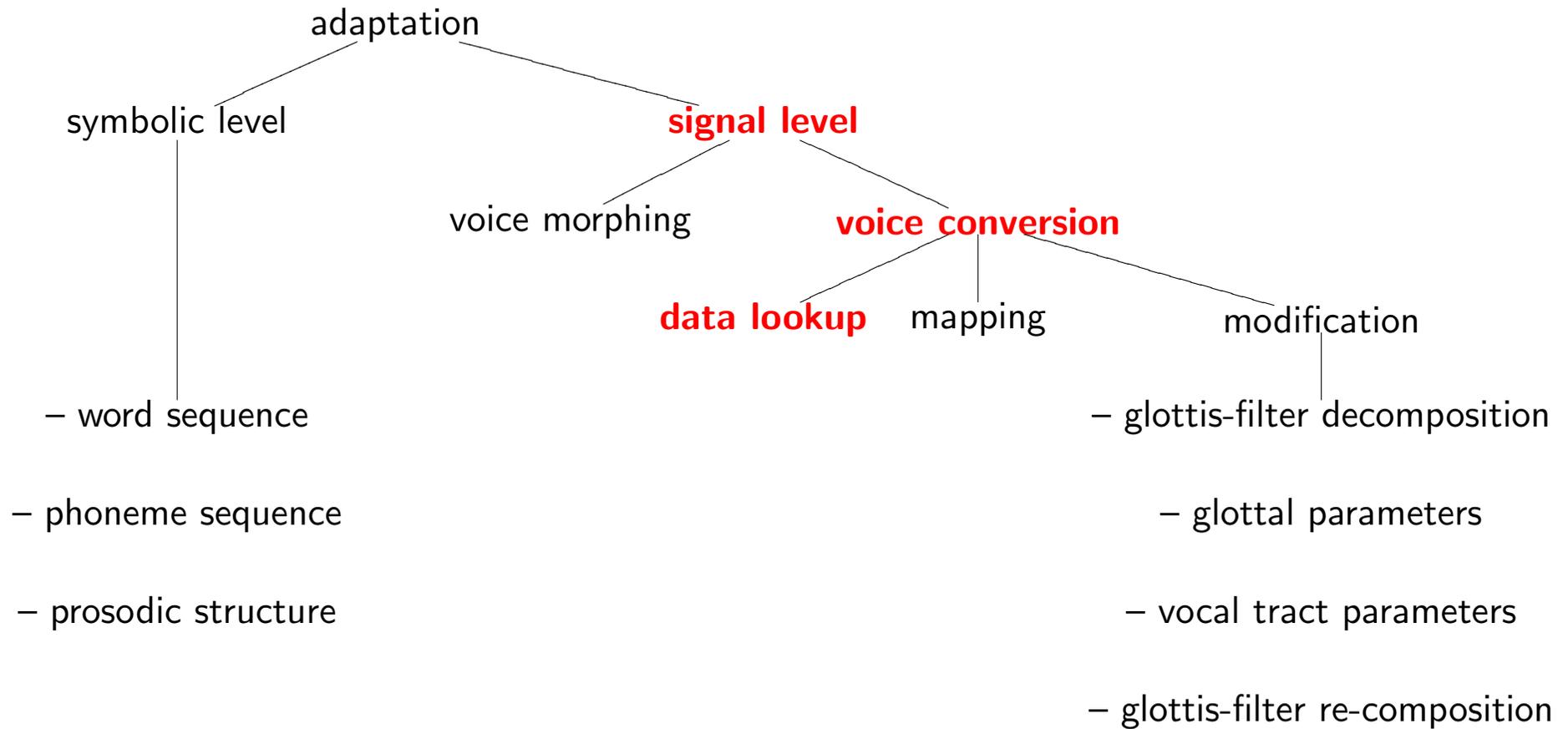
- **voice morphing:** continuous interpolation between two voices (e.g. Pfitzinger, 2004)
- **voice conversion:** changing a voice to a specified target
- **data lookup:** Selection of symbol and signal segments from huge labelled databases
- **mapping: replacement** of source entities by stored targets
- **modification: transformation** of source entities' features to target values

Voice Conversion



CSLU

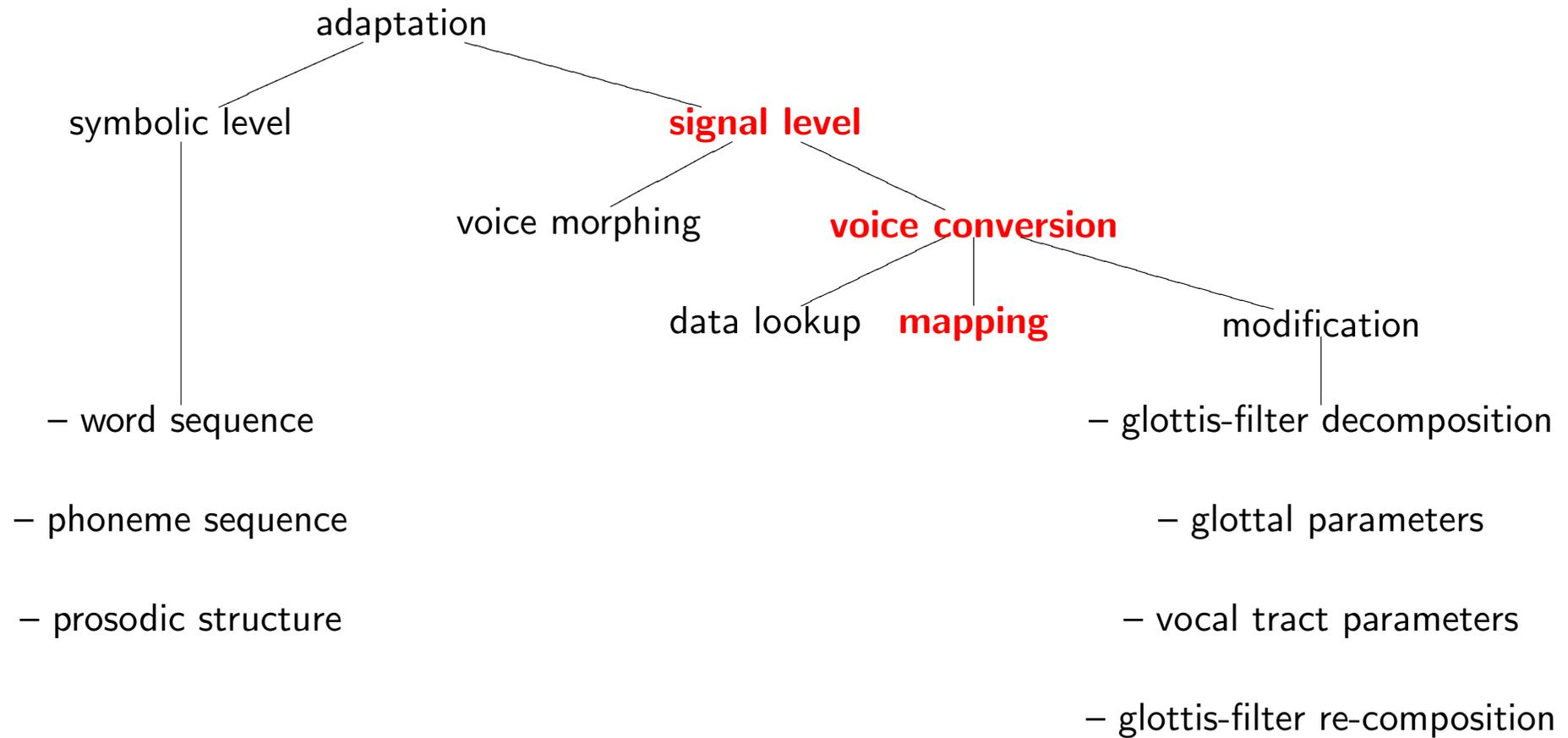
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Data lookup

- Speech signal selection from huge databases (e.g. Campbell et al., 1997)
- **Advantage:**
 - no artefacts arising from signal processing
- **Disadvantages:**
 - expensive and time consuming effort to record and label data
 - much less generic than other approaches (e.g. add new emotion → new recordings needed)
 - problem of real-time signal retrieval (huge search space)
 - black box: no phonetic knowledge acquisition

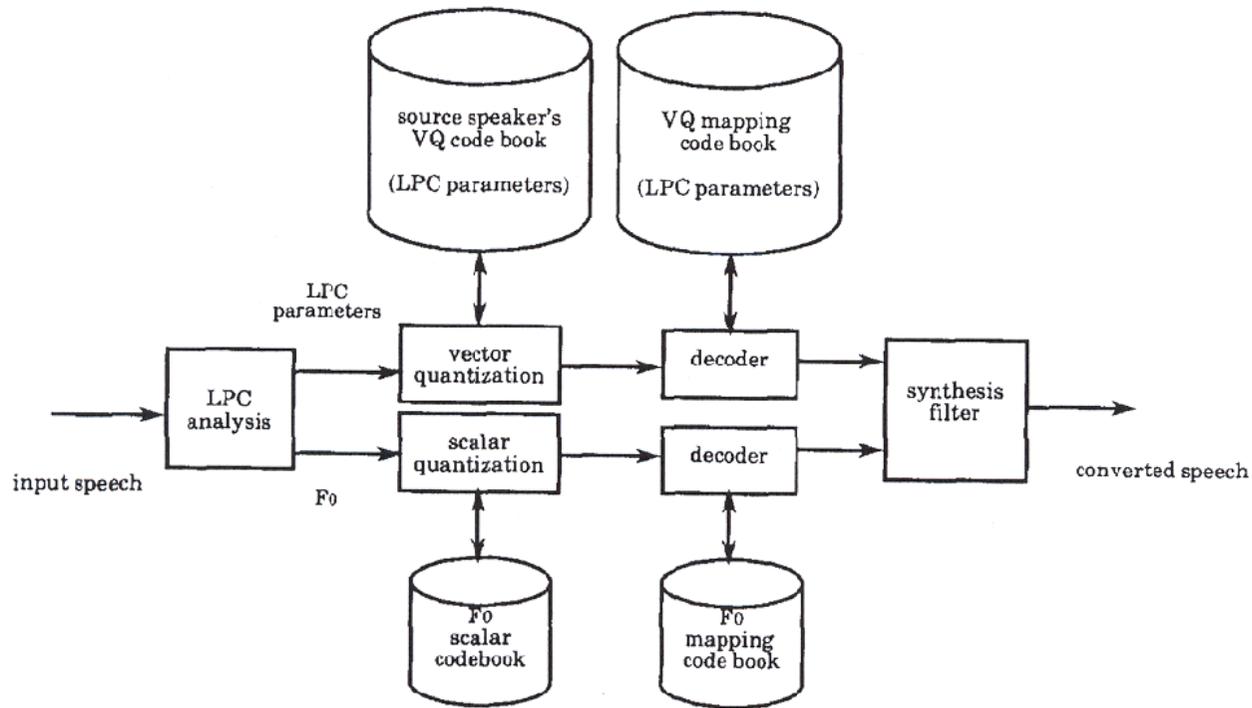
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Mapping

- needed: a) an acoustic characteristics representation, b) a training corpus, and c) a mapping algorithm
- **Characteristics representation:**
 - segments (e.g. 20 ms frames) in the training data are represented as feature vectors
 - vectors contain e.g. f_0 , representation of glottal spectrum and transfer function of the vocal tract in form of Mel-Cepstral, DFT or LPC coefficients
- **Training corpus:**
 - contains signals of source and target voice
 - phonetically segmented and labelled
 - **vector quantisation** of the feature vectors in a smaller number of prototype vectors (e.g. centroids of derived vector partitions) a) to get reliable co-occurrence counts of source and target vectors, and b) to be able during application to assign new unseen vectors to existing (most similar) prototypes.

- **Code book mapping algorithm:** (e.g. Abe et al., 1990)



Kuwabara et al. (1995)

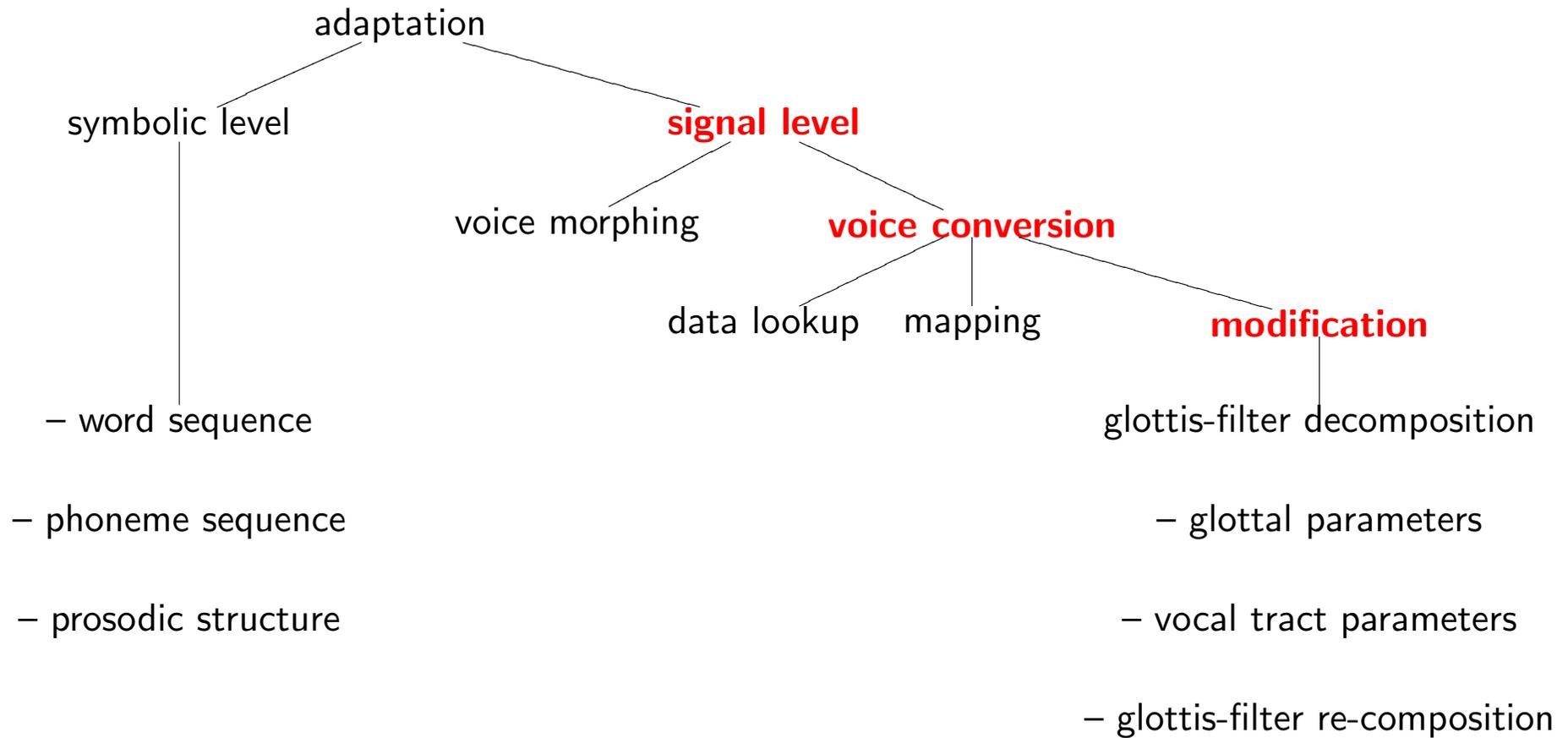
- **application task:** generate for each segment of the source voice an appropriate segment of the target voice, which is derived from the target voice database.
- Let S be the actual feature vector of the source voice to be mapped, which is assigned to the source prototype vector P_i^s . The corresponding target vector T is then calculated the following way:

$$T = \frac{\sum_j h_{ij} \cdot P_j^t}{\sum_j h_{ij}},$$

where h_{ij} is a weight reflecting the number of co-occurrence between source prototype vector P_i^s and target prototype vector P_j^t in the training data. Thus T is the normalised sum of all target prototype vectors in which the influence of each vector depends on its number of co-occurrence with P_i^s .

- mapping can be carried out independently for glottis and filter
- **Improvements:**
 - vector mapping at key points + interpolation (reduces data sparseness problem)
 - spectral smoothing vs. discontinuities of target vectors chosen independently of each other
 - smoothing via context dependent mapping (e.g. use also the neighbouring source vectors of S , use T history)

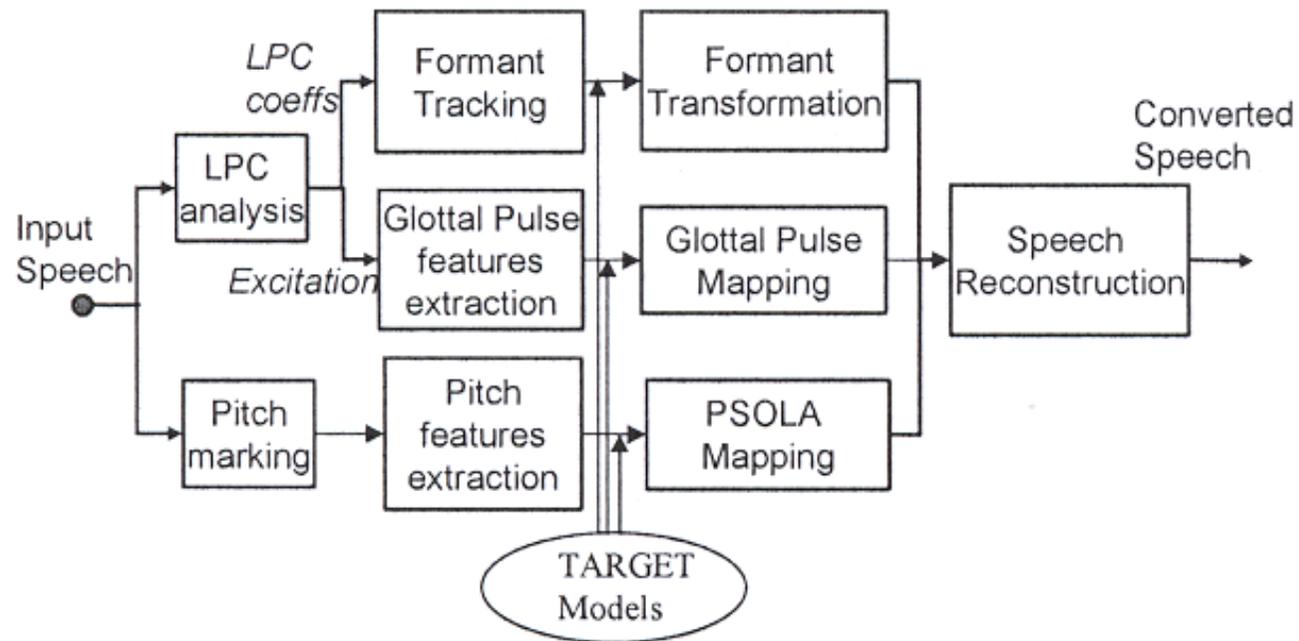
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Modification

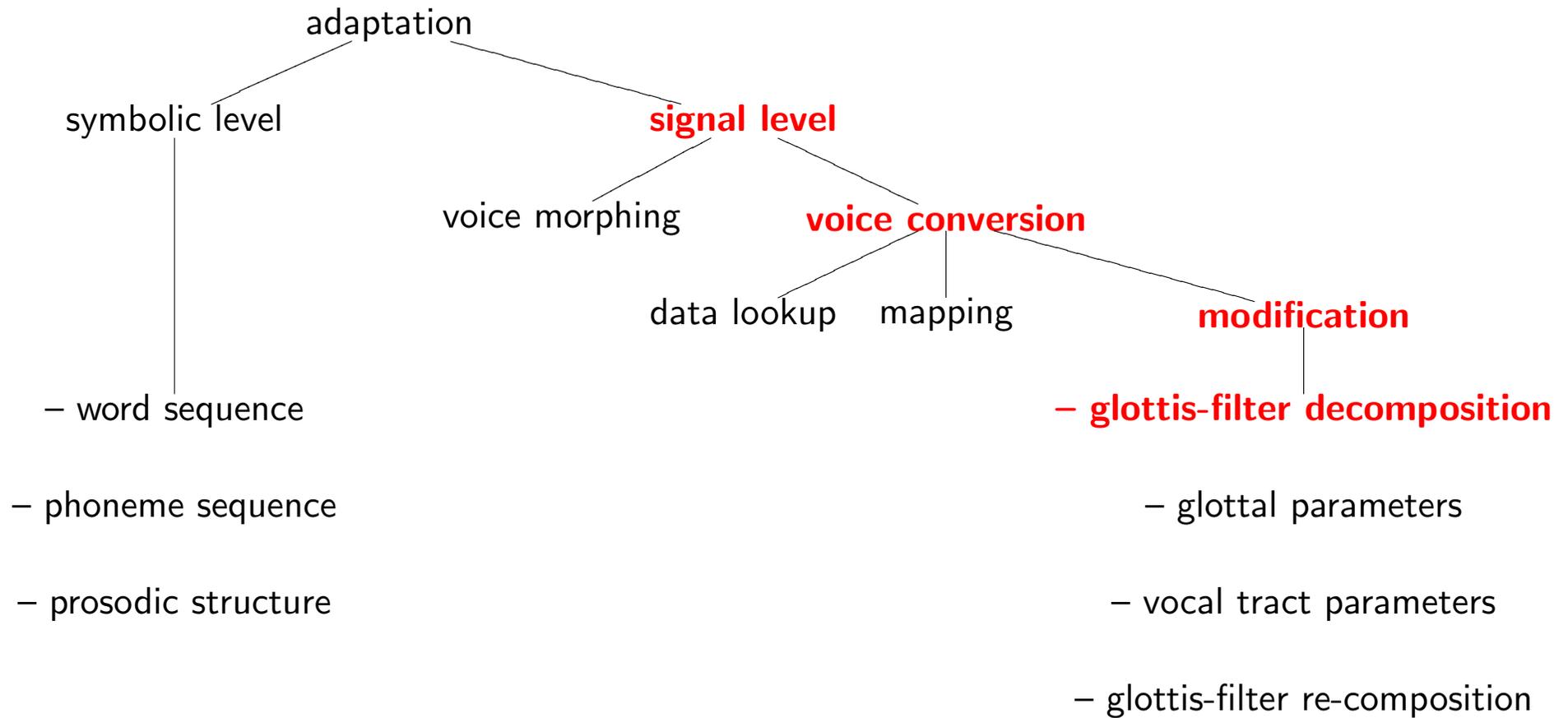
- e.g. Rentzos et. al. (2003)
- **Advantages:**
 - work on small databases → fast data acquisition, low footprint applications
 - highly generic
 - acquisition and evaluation of phonetic knowledge
- **Disadvantages:**
 - artefacts arising from signal processing
 - so far less natural than previous approaches

- Procedure:

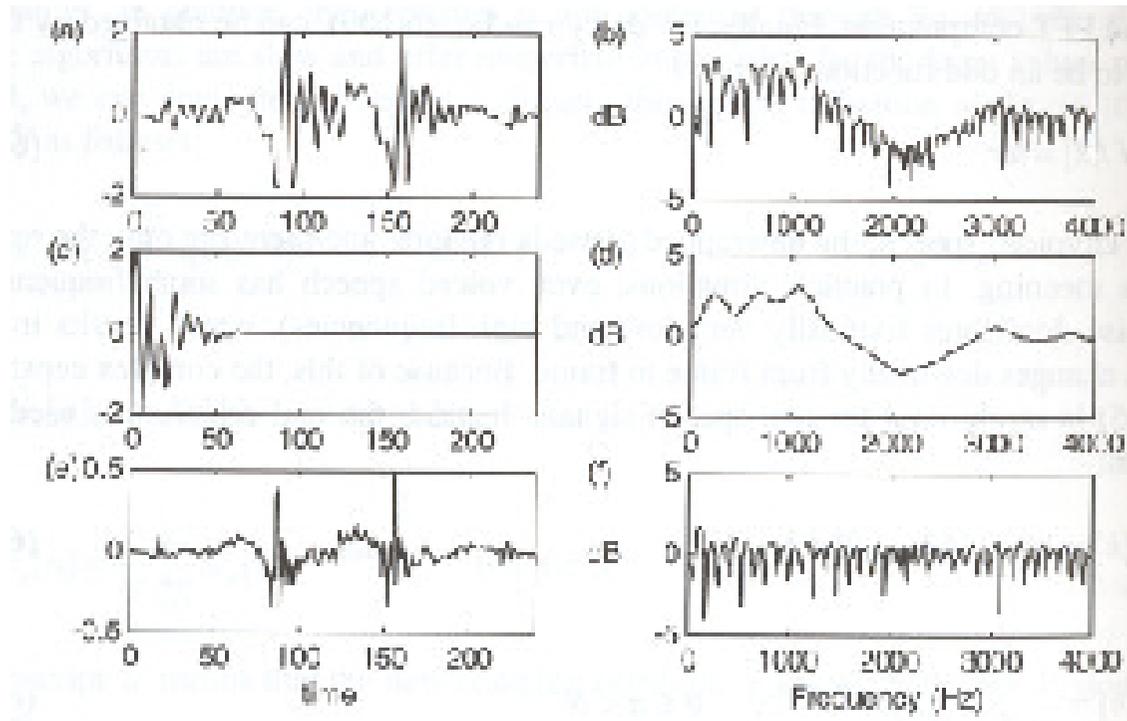


Rentzos et al. (2003)

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Excitation-filter decomposition



Huang et al. (2001)

Decomposing a speech signal (a) with spectrum (b) into vocal tracts impulse response (c, d) and glottal excitation (e, f) by **cepstral analysis** or **linear prediction**. Not needed for prosody modification with TD-PSOLA (see below).

Cepstral Analysis

- DFT of a time signal \longrightarrow spectrum¹
- macrostructure of the envelope corresponds to filter characteristics, microstructure to the excitation
- reapply DFT on the spectrum treating the frequency axis as a time axis
- excitation found in high frequency components, filter characteristics in low frequency components
- low pass filtering to separate excitation and filter

¹**log** spectrum to transform the multiplicative composition of excitation and filter into an **additive** one, needed by the subsequent steps.

Linear prediction LP

- the n -th sample in a sequence can be predicted by the p previous samples

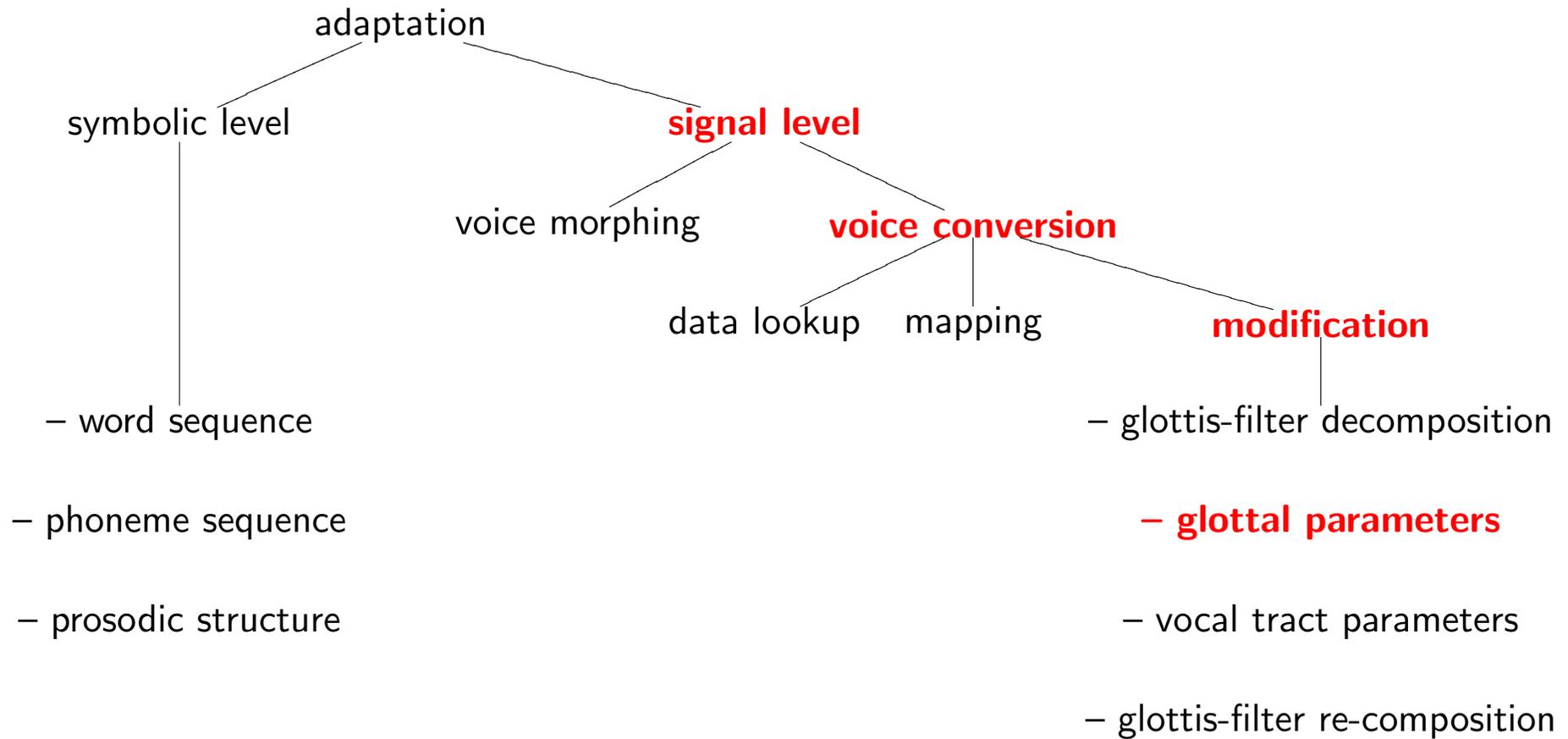
$$\hat{s}[n] = \sum_{k=1}^p a_k s[n - k]$$

- the weights a_k are to be chosen in order to minimise the error (= residual) $e[n]$ between the real sample value $s[n]$ and the predicted value $\hat{s}[n]$

$$e[n] = \arg \min_{a_1 \dots a_p} \left[s[n] - \sum_{k=1}^p a_k s[n - k] \right]$$

- by z-transform the filter transfer function is derived from the coefficients $a_1 \dots a_p$. the glottal signal is derived from the residual $e[n]$

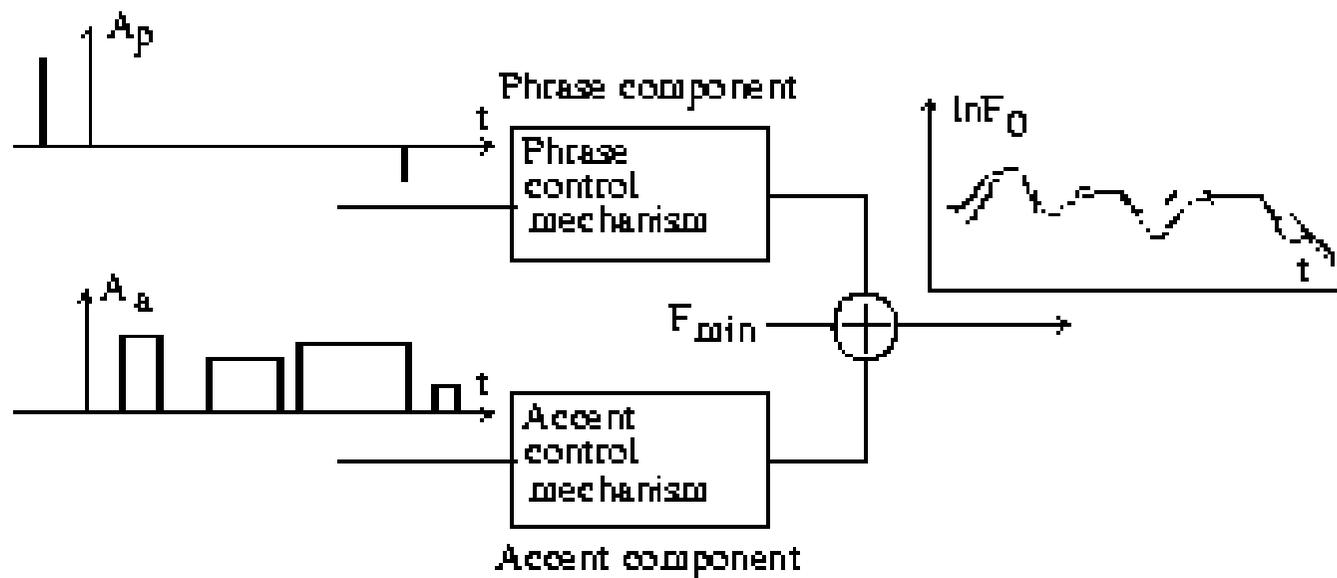
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Glottal parameters, Prosody

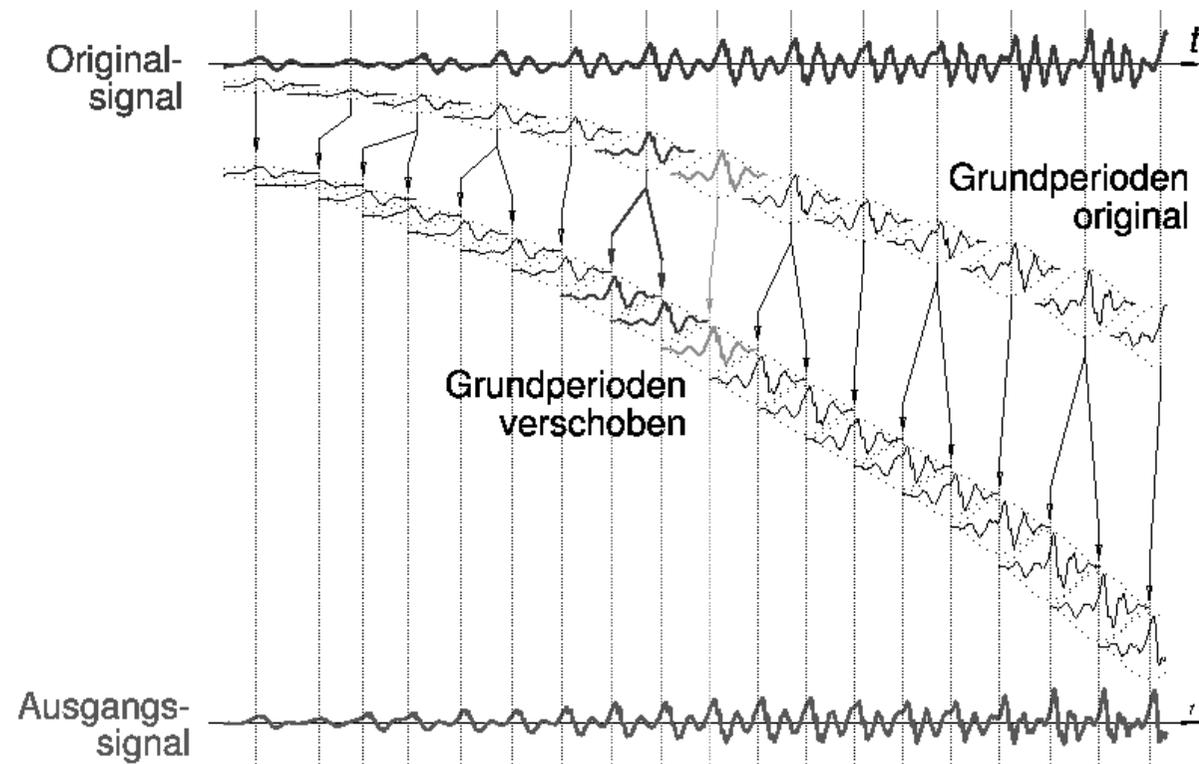
- pitch, duration, intensity, voice quality
- **Pitch measurement: e.g. by autocorrelation**
 - time domain algorithm, no need for source filter decomposition
 - signal is correlated with a version of itself, which is moved along the time axis
 - the correlation reaches its first maximum when the signal maximally resembles its displaced version
 - this takes place as soon as the displaced version has been moved exactly 1 period T of the signal, which is $\frac{1}{f_0}$
- simple: **Pitch rescaling:**
 - $f_{0T} = a + b \cdot f_{0S}$
 - moving f_0 average and pitch span

- more elaborated: **Transforming prosodic structure to intonation**
 - Parameterisation of intonation e.g. by the **Fujisaki model** (Fujisaki, 1987)



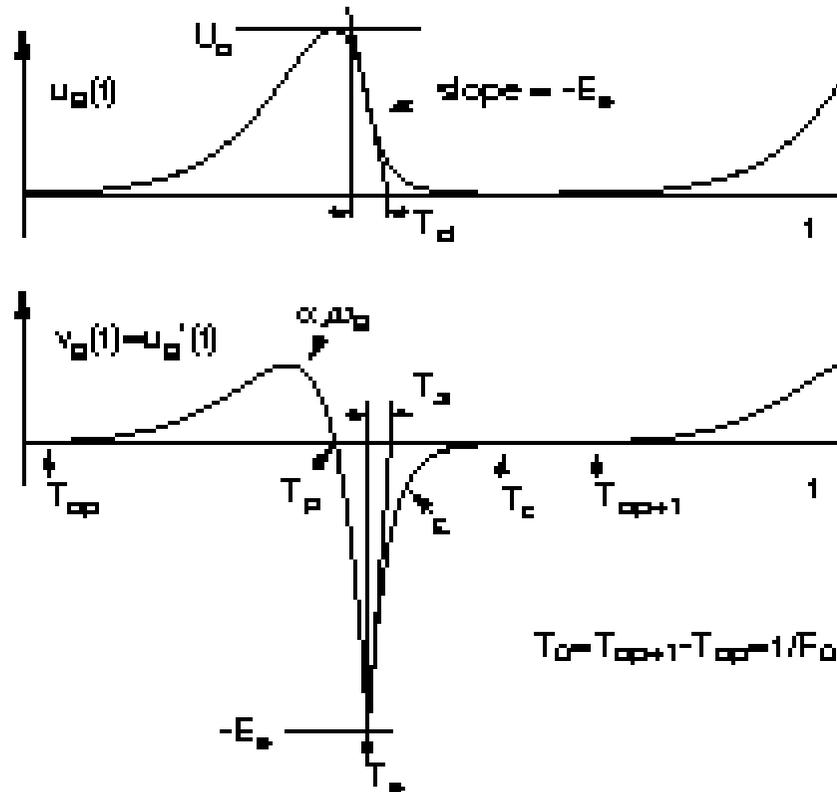
- super-position of phrase component, accent component and baseline f_0
- components $C_p(t)$ and $C_a(t)$ realised as critically damped systems (just positive oscillation values)
- systems are fed by phrase commando A_p (dirac impulse) and accent commando A_a (rectangle impulse) respectively.
- **phrase component:** global intonation contour of intonation phrase
- **accent component:** local f_0 movements tied to accentuated syllables
- text and speaker based prediction of parameter values (Möbius, 1993)
- estimating parameter values for each intonation phrase by minimising the error between original contour and Fujisaki model output (**analysis by synthesis; but: no bi-uniqueness given**)

- **Applying the new pitch information; manipulation of pitch, duration and intensity (prosody): TD-PSOLA**
 - Moulines et al. (1990)
 - TD: manipulation in the **time domain**, no excitation-filter decomposition needed
 - PSOLA: elementary building blocks are overlapping (OL) windows spanning about 2 f_0 periods of the signal, and being centered on glottal pulses (PS: pitch synchronous)
 - A: manipulation by moving the windows and adding (A) the signals
 - **manipulating f_0 : increasing** by moving the windows closer to each other, **lowering** by moving the windows away from each other (+ replication or deletion of windows to preserve duration)
 - **manipulating duration:** replication of windows
 - **manipulating intensity:** sum copies of a window



Hess (2004)

- Manipulating not just pitch but also the glottal excitation pattern:
Liljencrants-Fant parameterisation



Iseli, et al. (2000)

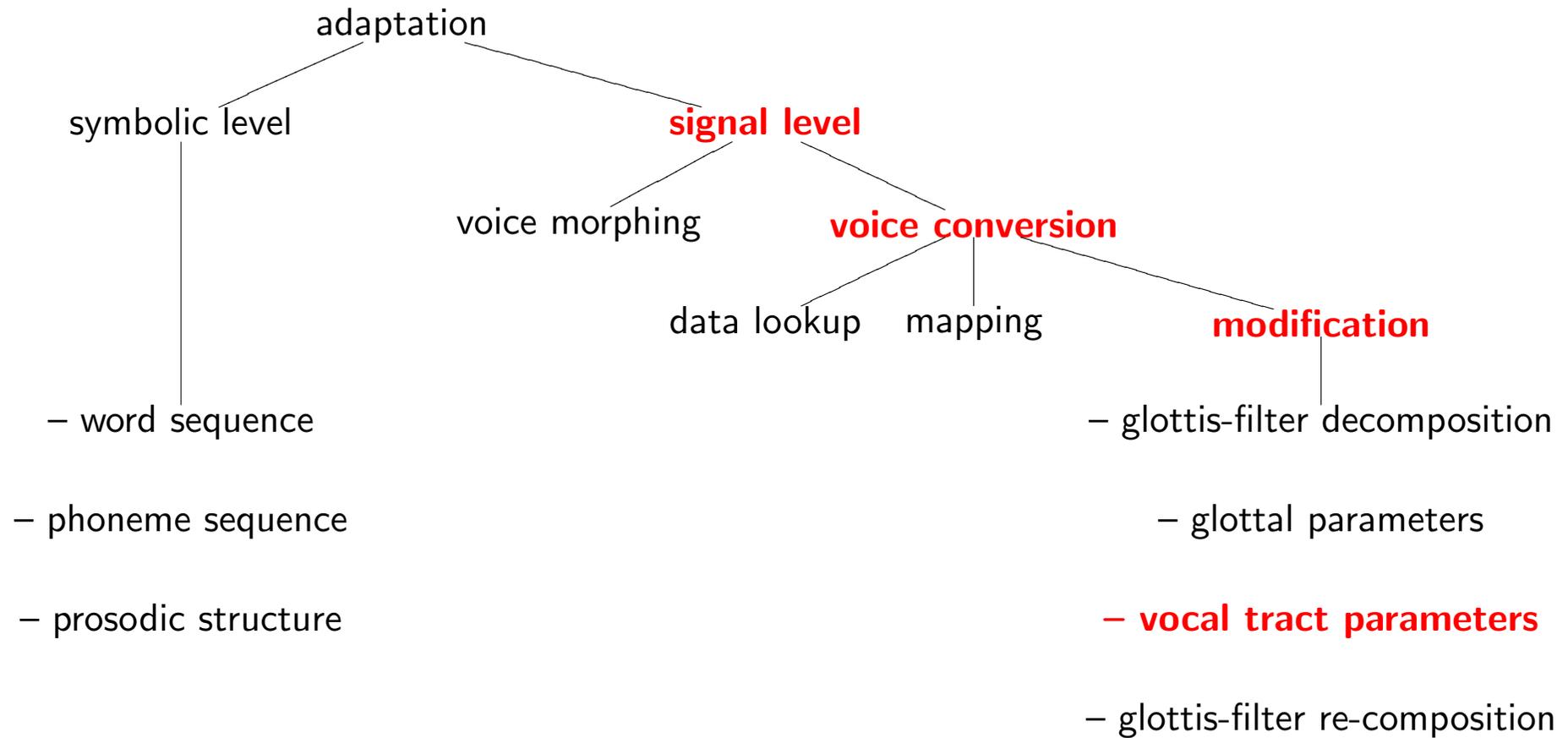
- model of glottal flow $u_g(t)$ and its derivate $v_g(t)$ (representing flow changes)

LF Parameter	Description
T_{op}	instant of glottal opening
T_e	instant of maximum flow decrease (short before glottal closure)
T_p	instant of maximum glottal flow
T_a	effective duration of glottal flow decay
...	

- estimating parameter values for each glottal cycle by minimising the error between original excitation signal and LF modelled signal (**analysis by synthesis; but: no bi-uniqueness given**)
- **Relation between the parameters and voice quality:**

(Derived) Parameter	Calculation	Effect
Open Quotient	$\frac{T_e - T_{op}}{T_0}$	high \longrightarrow breathy low \longrightarrow creaky
T_a	$\frac{1}{\text{cut-off frequency}}$	spectral tilt shorter closing phase \longrightarrow steeper upper falling flank of spectral envelope (word stress marker)

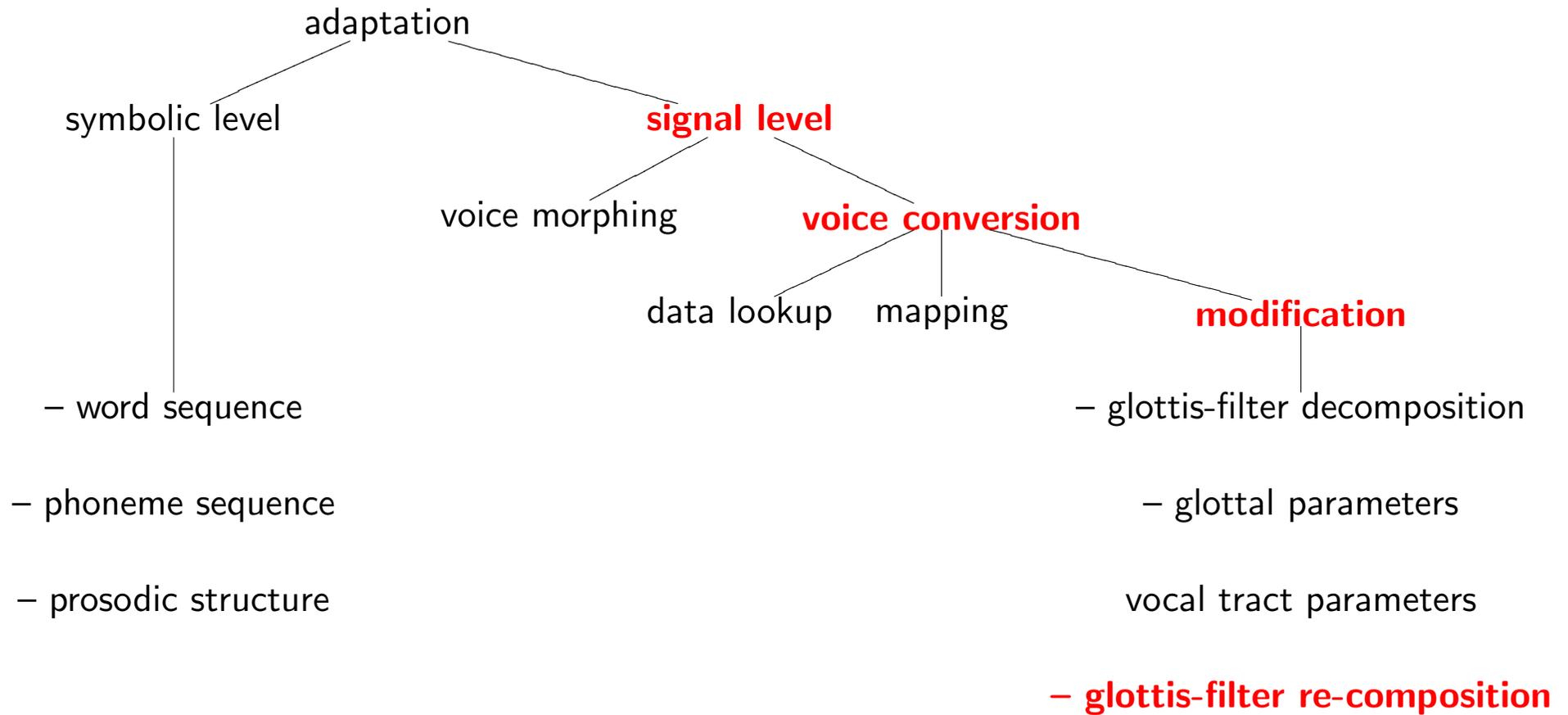
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Manipulation of vocal tract parameters

- long term average spectrum, spectral envelope, formant frequencies, formant trajectories, formant bandwidths
- LP coefficients can approximately be related to vocal tract geometry (sequence of log areas; Markel et al., 1976)
- global re-scaling of coefficients to simulate vocal tract shape
- local modifications to treat speaker dependent articulatory/ acoustic trajectories
- calculate coefficients connected to a desired vocal tract shape and movements
→ new time varying filter transfer function (Childers, 1989)

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Excitation-filter re-composition:

- **convolution** of an excitation signal (← e.g. LF model) and a time varying filter (← e.g. LPC coefficients)

Thank you for listening!