Techniques for effective vocabulary selection

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Abstract

The vocabulary of a continuous speech recognition (CSR) system is a significant factor in determining its performance. In this paper, we present three principled approaches to select the target vocabulary for a particular domain by trading off between the target out-of-vocabulary (OOV) rate and vocabulary size. We evaluate these approaches against an ad-hoc baseline strategy. Results are presented in the form of OOV rate graphs plotted against increasing vocabulary size for each technique.

1. Introduction

The size and performance of a language model or speech recognition system are often strongly influenced by the size of its vocabulary. Ideally, the vocabulary is small, allowing us to build compact language models, and it is matched to the target domain so that as many as possible of the domain-specific words are known to the recognition system. Compact language models generate compact word graphs that are efficient to search and domain-matched vocabularies result in fewer out-of-vocabulary (OOV) words and consequently fewer recognition errors. In a study of the effect of OOV words on the Word Error Rate (WER) of a recognition system, Rosenfeld [1] arrives at a figure of about 1.2 WER points per OOV word in a typical large vocabulary task.

While a large and comprehensive vocabulary may be desirable from the point of view of lexical coverage, we often settle for smaller and more tractable vocabularies. Not only are large vocabulary language models themselves very large, but for speech recognition systems, there is also the additional cost and effort involved in determining accurate pronunciations for every vocabulary entry. Even with the help of tools to generate pronunciations and check consistency of entries, this is a difficult task [2].

Furthermore, there is also the attendant problem of increased acoustic confusability for speech recognition systems when the vocabulary is large [1]. For applications requiring a finite vocabulary, picking the *right* words for the vocabulary is especially important for achieving satisfactory performance. Usually, a number of text corpora from various domains and time periods are available on which to train. The target domain is known, and the amount of data available in the target domain is far less than in any of the training corpora. Clearly, restricting the vocabulary to just the words that are observable in a meager amount of available domain data would be disastrous. On the other hand, including the union of the vocabularies of all the training corpora would be intractable. What we want in this situation is to assume that the vocabulary of the target domain is somehow related to the vocabularies of each training corpus, and subsequently infer the target vocabulary from the individual training corpus vocabularies, considering the observable portion of the domain text to be a sample.

Even though vocabulary selection is an important issue and the problem appears to be simple, little work exists on this topic to date. The most common approaches seem to be ad hoc in nature, typically including words from each corpus that exceed some threshold frequency. This threshold depends on intuitions about the relevance of the corpus to the target domain [3]. In Rosenfeld's 1995 work [1] on optimizing vocabularies, attention was mainly directed at determining the effect on the OOV rate of corpus recency, size and origin. While it was found that all three factors strongly affected the OOV rate, no specific guidelines were proposed as to how to combine the vocabularies from these different corpora to choose the target vocabulary. Indeed, Rosenfeld remarks that an ad hoc approach that discounted words by 1% for every week of age of the corpus reduced the OOV rate only very slightly for vocabulary sizes in the range of 20,000 to 50,000 words.

The paucity of work on this important topic can partly be attributed to the general observation due to Zipf [4] that with even a moderate sized vocabulary chosen wisely, one can hope to get significant lexical coverage. Yet it is desirable from the point of view of scalability, extensibility and generality to study principled methods to address this problem. In this paper, we propose three such principled methods. The goal is to select a single vocabulary from many corpora of varying origins, sizes and recencies such that the vocabulary is optimized for both size and the OOV rate in the target domain. Section 2 defines the problem. Section 3 describes the proposed techniques, and Section 4 presents the results.

2. Problem Description

The vocabulary selection problem can be briefly summarized as follows. We wish to estimate the true vocabulary counts of a partially visible corpus of in-domain text (which we call the held-out set) when a number of other fully visible corpora, possibly from different domains, are available on which to train. There is an implicit assumption that the held-out text is related to the training text and the learning task amounts to inferring this relation. The reason for learning the in-domain counts x_i of words w_i is so that the words may be ranked in order of priority, enabling us to plot a curve relating a given vocabulary size to its OOV rate on the held-out corpus. Therefore, it is actually sufficient to learn some monotonic function $f(x_i)$ in place of the actual x_i . We may assume that the counts are normalized by document length so that the amount of available data for a particular corpus is itself irrelevant to the issue at hand.

Table 1 illustrates the problem; $n_{i,j}$ are the visible counts from each of the documents j, for the word w_i , and the x_i are the incomplete counts for words w_i in the partially observable domain text.

Word	Doc 1		Doc j		Domain text
w_1	$n_{1,1}$	•••	$n_{1,j}$	• • •	$f(x_1)$
w_i	$n_{i,1}$		$\vdots \\ n_{i,j}$		$f(x_i)$
			÷		

Table 1: Problem illustration. We wish to estimate some monotonic function of the true counts x_i for word w_i in the partially observed domain text based on a number of fully observed outof-domain counts $n_{i,j}$.

Let x_i be some function Φ_i of the known counts $n_{i,j}$ for $1 \le j \le m$ for each of the *m* corpora. Then, the problem can be restated as one of learning the Φ_i from a set of examples where

$$x_i = \Phi_i(n_{i,1}, \cdots, n_{i,m})$$

In the following section, we summarize three techniques for learning the Φ_i that optimize the vocabulary for the domain from which the held-out data was drawn.

3. Method

For simplicity, let the Φ_i be linear functions of the $n_{i,j}$ and that they are independent of the particular words, w_i . That is, $\Phi = \Phi_i = \Phi_j, \forall i, j$. Then, we can write

$$\Phi(n_{i,1},\cdots,n_{i,m}) = \sum_{j} \lambda_j n_{ij} \tag{1}$$

The problem transforms into one of learning the λ_j . We now outline three methods to do this. The first is based on maximum likelihood (ML) count estimation, the second and third are based on document similarity measures. We evaluate each of these three methods against a fourth baseline method that simply assigns identical values to all the λ_j .

3.1. Maximum likelihood count estimation

In ML count estimation, we simply interpret the normalized counts n_{ij} as probability estimates of w_i given corpus j and the λ_j as mixture coefficients for a linear interpolation. We try to choose the λ_j that maximize the probability of the in-domain corpus. Formally, let $P(w_i|j) = n_{i,j}$. Our goal is to find

$$\hat{\lambda_1}, \cdots, \hat{\lambda_m} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_m} \prod_{i=1}^{|V|} \left(\sum_j \lambda_j \mathbf{P}(w_i | j) \right)^{C(w_i)}$$
(2)

where $C(w_i)$ is the count of w_i in the partially observed heldout corpus and V is the set of words in the vocabulary. The λ_j can subsequently be estimated via the EM algorithm [5] and used to calculate the interpolated normalized counts. The procedure shown in Figure 1, for instance, is effective in rapidly computing the values of the λ_j .

3.2. Document-similarity-based count estimation

The document-similarity-based count estimation method calculates interpolation weights from similarity measures between the held-out corpus and each of the training corpora. This similarity measure can presumably be calculated using any of a

$$\lambda_j \leftarrow 1/m$$
 (3)

$$\lambda'_{j} \leftarrow \frac{\lambda_{j} \prod_{i=1}^{|V|} \mathbf{P}(w_{i}|j)^{C(w_{i})}}{\sum_{k} \lambda_{k} \prod_{i=1}^{|V|} \mathbf{P}(w_{i}|k)^{C(w_{i})}}$$
(4)

$$\delta \leftarrow \lambda'_j - \lambda_j \tag{5}$$

$$\lambda_j \leftarrow \lambda'_j$$
 (6)

Repeat from (4) if δ > some threshold

Figure 1: Iterative procedure to calculate the λ_j . The λ_j are reestimated at each iteration until a convergence criterion determined by some threshold of incremental change is met. The likelihood of the held-out corpus increases monotonically until a local minimum has been reached.

number of methods ranging from a simple Euclidean distance metric to a more sophisticated divergence measure between the observable probability distributions, such as Kullback-Liebler (KL) [6] or a symmetric variant [7].

The Euclidean distance metric is calculated as follows. Suppose we represent each document by a vector of its normalized word counts. Then, the Euclidean distance between two corpora C_a and C_b , $\Delta(C_a, C_b)$, is given by

$$\Delta(C_a, C_b) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{|V|} (n_{a,i} - n_{b,i})^2}$$
(7)

where $n_{a,i}$ and $n_{b,i}$ are the normalized counts of w_i in the corpora *a* and *b*, respectively.

Likewise, the KL-divergence, which we again denote as $\Delta(C_a, C_b)$ for the sake of uniformity, is given by

$$\Delta(C_a, C_b) = \sum_{i=1}^{|V|} \mathcal{P}(a, i) \log_2\left(\frac{\mathcal{P}(a, i)}{\mathcal{P}(b, i)}\right)$$
(8)

where we interpret the normalized word counts as probabilities.

In each of the above distance calculation schemes, let D_j be the distance of the *j*th corpus from the held-out domain text. Then, since the relevance of a corpus to the domain is inversely related to its distance from the domain, we define

$$\lambda_j = \frac{1/D_j}{\sum_k 1/D_k}$$

3.3. Data sources and implementation

The experimental setup consisted of learning the optimal vocabulary to model the language of the English broadcast news. A small amount of hand-corrected closed captioned data, amounting to just under 3 hours (about 25,000 words), drawn from six half-hour broadcast news segments from January 2001, was used as the *partially visible* held-out data to estimate the two mixture weights λ_1 and λ_2 . This held-out data is part of the corpus released by the Linguistic Data Consortium (LDC) for the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) sponsored English topic detection and tracking (TDT4) task.

The training corpora were deliberately chosen to be as different from each other in character as possible. The first corpus consisted of about 18.5 million words of English newswire data covering the period July 1994 through July 1995, and was distributed by the LDC for the NIST-sponsored Hub3 1995 continuous speech recognition task. It contained text from The NY Times News Service, LA Times, Washington Post News Service, Wall Street Journal and Reuters North American Business News. The second training corpus consisted of a closer match to the target domain and came from segments of the TDT4 dataset released by the LDC. This consisted of about 2.5 million words of closed captioned transcripts from the period November through December 2000.

Unigram counts for the training and held-out corpora were generated using language modeling tools from the SRILM [8] using Witten-Bell [9] smoothing. Estimation of the λ_j was performed on five of the six held-out segments which we collectively refer to as the development corpus, and OOV rates were measured on the remaining segment, which we refer to as the test corpus. This procedure was repeated six times, one for each possible split of the held-out data. The results we present are averaged numbers obtained from the six splits. Where applicable, we use the subscripts "hub3" and "tdt4" to refer to parameters specific to the above corpora.

4. Results and Discussion

We examine the results of our experiments to evaluate the various methods. Figure 2 shows a plot of the OOV rate against increasing vocabulary size from 1 word to 90,000 words. This figure, which is plotted in the logarithmic scale, is only meant to show the general shape of the individual plots and for drawing some broad generalizations. For instance, we see confirmation of the common observation that the OOV rate of a given vocabulary on a corpus is logarithmically related to the vocabulary size. Furthermore, it is also evident that for small vocabularies there exist obvious differences in the performances of the various vocabulary selection methods. But for large vocabularies, this difference is seen to diminish. Indeed, for vocabulary sizes in excess of about 60,000 words, the four plots practically merge into a single line showing that at around that threshold and beyond, we capture practically all the words that are likely to be used in the domain under consideration, regardless of the specific method used to choose the vocabulary.

For a finer-grained comparison of the individual techniques, we restrict our attention to the rectangular sub-region in Figure 2, which is depicted in a separate plot in Figure 3. It shows the performance of the four systems for a vocabulary range of 1,000 to 2,000 words. The trend of the curves in this graph, which continues up to a vocabulary size of around 40,000 words, clearly shows that the ML method outperforms all the other three methods by over 1% absolute. It is also clear that the method based on KL-divergence is the poorest of all, performing worse than even the uniform baseline. The Euclideandistance-based method performs almost identically as the uniform baseline (and thus the plot for the latter, being almost hidden behind that of the former, is barely visible).

In hindsight, the relatively good performance of the maximum-likelihood-based method is not very surprising because it is the only method that does not *look beyond* the development corpus vocabulary to compute its objective function. Both the KL-divergence-based method and the Euclideandistance-based method sum quantities over the entire vocabulary and are therefore affected by the values held by individual words that were not seen in the development corpus. This problem is especially acute because the actual vocabulary of the partially visible development corpus is typically tiny compared to the vocabularies of the training corpora. The KL-divergencebased method is affected most by this situation. Because KLdivergence involves calculation of log-probabilities, the method



Figure 2: Averaged OOV rate across the six test corpora when the vocabulary was determined by each of the four methods described in this paper. This plot is meant for the purpose of depicting the general trend. Expansions of the rectangular enclosure in a subsequent plot will serve as a more detailed point of discussion.

is extremely sensitive to the amount of probability mass devoted to unseen vocabulary items and consequently to the particular form of smoothing employed. Since a significant number of words in the vocabulary are typically unseen in the development corpus, these end up with very low unigram probabilities. Thus, in summing over the entire vocabulary, large negative numbers come into play which overshadow any significant contribution to the total divergence by the unigrams observed in the development corpus. We suspect therefore that we must not attach much significance to the final quantity computed by this method unless the size of the development corpus itself is substantial.

The Euclidean method is also likewise affected, but to a lesser degree and slightly differently. The computed distances tend to be dominated by words that are absent in the development corpus rather than by words that are present in it. Since the absent words form the bulk of the vocabulary, the distances computed between the various corpora and the development text, and consequently the λ_j will all roughly be the same, as evidenced by the figures in Table 2.

5. Conclusions

We have outlined three general techniques to select an optimal vocabulary for domain-specific speech and language modeling tasks. The techniques are scalable to arbitrarily large-sized corpora and extensible to any number of corpora. Whenever reasonable amounts of training data and reliable unigram count estimates are available, we believe that the maximum-likelihoodbased method we have described is a robust way to select a domain's vocabulary especially when its size is expected to be under a certain threshold. This threshold can be expected to



Figure 3: Averaged OOV rate across the six test corpora when the vocabulary was determined by each of the four methods described in this paper. The plot shows the segment of the OOV rate curve for a vocabulary size in the range of 1,000 to 2,000 words.

Method	λ_{tdt4}	λ_{hub3}	$\Delta_{\rm tdt4}$	Δ_{hub3}
Max Like	0.89	0.11	n/a	n/a
Euclidean	0.51	0.49	1.36	1.44
KL-Div	0.42	0.58	92.86	66.09
Uniform	0.50	0.50	n/a	n/a

Table 2: Inferred interpolation weights λ_j , along with the normalized corpus distances from the domain text for the distancebased methods. All figures are averaged across all six splits of the test data.

vary between domains and it is possible that when it is high, the choice of any particular strategy over another does not matter. However, we believe that always following a principled strategy to select the vocabulary offers the safest path.

We plan to continue to refine and evaluate the techniques presented in this paper and apply them for vocabulary selection in the English broadcast news recognition task of the NIST 2003 Hub4 evaluation.

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