Improving ASR Systems for Children with Autism and Language Impairment Using Domain-Focused DNN Transfer Techniques

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Abstract

This study explores building and improving an automatic speech recognition (ASR) system for children aged 6-9 years and diagnosed with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), language impairment (LI), or both. Working with only 1.5 hours of target data in which children perform the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals Recalling Sentences task, we apply deep neural network (DNN) weight transfer techniques to adapt a large DNN model trained on the LibriSpeech corpus of adult speech. To begin, we aim to find the best proportional training rates of the DNN layers. Our best configuration yields a 29.38% word error rate (WER). Using this configuration, we explore the effects of quantity and similarity of data augmentation in transfer learning. We augment our training with portions of the OGI Kids’ Corpus, adding 4.6 hours of typically developing speakers aged kindergarten through 3rd grade. We find that 2nd grade data alone — approximately the mean age of the target data — outperforms other grades and all the sets combined. Doubling the data for 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grade, we again compare each grade as well as pairs of grades. We find the combination of 1st and 2nd grade performs best at a 26.21% WER.

Index Terms: speech recognition, children speech recognition, autism spectrum disorder, language impairment, deep neural network, transfer learning.

1. Introduction

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a behaviorally defined neurodevelopmental disorder that is characterized by impairments in social communication and patterns of restricted and repetitive behavior. Children with ASD may or may not have a comorbid language impairment. To determine the presence of a language impairment, it is necessary to perform a comprehensive clinical language evaluation. The Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals edition 4 (CELF-4) [1] is one example of a standardized, norm-referenced language assessment used in a comprehensive evaluation. Administration of this test, however, is quite time consuming; the CELF-4 includes up to 18 subtests, all of which are currently scored on paper by speech language pathologists [2]. Automation of such a test would allow professionals more time to complete other aspects of the comprehensive assessment.

Recent advancements in automatic speech recognition (ASR) have caused the field of human-machine interactions to evolve to a new era in which innovative voice-based technologies such as voice-activated digital assistants (e.g., Microsoft’s Cortana and Amazon’s Alexa) have become part of daily life. Recent improvements of ASR systems are mostly due to the advent of deep neural networks (DNN) that have revolutionized many areas of machine learning including speech recognition and natural language processing (NLP). In addition, recent parallel processing advancements, made available through graphics processing units, have significantly boosted the computational power required in intensive training tasks, for example, in ASR systems [3, 4].

A wealth of data is the key to successfully training a DNN-based ASR system. As suggested in prior research, there exists a strong correlation between the performance of ASR systems and both the quantity and quality of training samples. This is particularly important in scenarios with limited training resources, for example, in medical applications. Similar challenges remain in development of ASR systems for low-resource languages such as Zulu [5]. To cope with data limitations, efforts have been made in recent years for creating speech corpora that are suitable for training and evaluating ASR systems. As an example, LibriSpeech [6], a corpus of 1000 hours of English read speech derived from audiobooks, is now freely available to the public. While large, open source corpora for adults have become widely available, there are few such corpora for children’s speech. The differences between adult and child speech preclude adult corpora from being directly used in training ASR models used in applications that interact with children. Moreover, datasets for children with language impairment and/or neurodevelopmental disorders are rare indeed.

In our study, developing a specialized ASR system is a core component as part of a larger system to automate scoring of children with language impairment (SLI), autism (ALN), and both autism and language impairment (ALI). Our target dataset includes less than 1.5 hours of speech from children performing a sentence repetition diagnostic task. In addition to challenges we encounter due to data scarcity, ASD and language impairments compound the difficulty of ASR training. Among the unique ASR challenges of this dataset are short vocal tracts, a variety of non-verbal vocalizations, and the wide phonological variance of both typical and atypical speech development. With the hope of overcoming some of these challenges, our aim is to employ a “transfer learning” approach to improve the performance of our ASR models built on no more than a couple hours of data. In particular, we explore a number of weight transfer configurations to empirically determine the optimal DNN architecture.

The structure of our experiments in this study are as follows: first we explore strategies in transfer learning to optimize the hyperparameters for the CSLU Autism Speech Corpus, setting up an effective baseline approach for later experiments. Second, we incorporate the OGI Kids’ Corpus [7], with scenarios designed to search the augmentation data broadly, learning how data from each age and grade contributes to ASR performance. Finally, we narrow our focus based on the
findings from the second experiment, exploring the effects of adding larger quantities of the best performing segments.

1.1. Transfer Learning

Early attempts to improve the performance of small dataset ASR systems focused on adaptation techniques, in which acoustic parameters of the source model (the larger dataset) are transformed to mimic the acoustic properties of the target speakers. Mustafa et al. [8] successfully employed a maximum a posteriori (MAP) adaptation [9] technique to overcome the data scarcity in development of an ASR system for speakers with speech articulation disorders. Building the source model on two larger unimpaired TIMIT [10] and impaired TORG [11] speech corpora, they achieved a significant improvement in performance of adapted ASR model on recognizing impaired speech. More recently, adaptation techniques based on “transfer learning” have become popular for DNN-based ASR systems. Transfer learning aims to reuse the learned knowledge of the source model in a related target domain [12]. The method is especially useful in data-scarce scenarios where sufficient training data is unavailable for learning the source model. One can categorize several kinds of proposed transfer learning methods into three major approaches: weight transfer, multi-task training, and domain assimilation. Assuming the low-level features of the source and the target data are similar (e.g., lines or dots in various object recognition tasks), the weight transfer approach initializes the parameters (weights) of the target DNN model using the learned parameters of the source model. It has been empirically shown that given a small amount of data in the target domain, weight transfer can greatly improve the performance in addition to speeding up the training process due to the small number of parameters required to be fine-tuned [13]. In multi-task training, the shared hidden layers of the DNN model are simultaneously learned by multiple tasks with the hope of benefiting from correlated information shared across tasks [14, 15]. Unlike the two aforementioned approaches, domain assimilation selectively utilizes a subset of target data that is more similar to the target domain. Although it is one of the popular topics in image processing [16], domain assimilation has scarcely been explored in the ASR field.

2. Data

2.1. CSLU Autism Speech Corpus: Recalling Sentences

The primary target of our ASR efforts, the CSLU Autism Speech Corpus, is a dataset gathered between 2005 and 2012 at Oregon Health & Science University (OHSU) during the clinical administration of ASD evaluations. Each member of the study group was evaluated using the CELF-4. [1] The CELF-4 is an individually administered language assessment, published by The Psychological Corporation and used by speech language pathologists to determine if a child has a language disorder or delay. The specific task that was recorded and provided the speech data for this experiment is the Recalling Sentences task. In this task, the examiner reads sentences of increasing length and syntactic complexity (32 sentences in English) (the prompt), and the child is asked to repeat the sentence verbatim. These audio recordings amount to 1.5 hours of recorded speech. The study group includes 45 children, ages 6 to 9 years (mean age of 7 years 4 months), 17 of whom were diagnosed as having an ASD as well as a language impairment (ALI), 15 with ASD but no language impairment (ALN), and 13 with specific language impairment (SLI) but no ASD. The study group included 36 males and 9 females.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Speakers</th>
<th>Utterances</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSLU Autism</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALN (ASD without LI)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALI (ASD with LI)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLI (LI without ASD)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OGI Kids</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>2796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st grade</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grade</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd grade</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Breakdown of training data selected from the CSLU Autism and OGI Kids’ corpora

2.2. Data Augmentation: OGI Kids’ Corpus

Our data augmentation set, the OGI Kids’s Speech Corpus [7], was created as an effort by the Oregon Graduate Institute of Science and Technology’s (OGI) Center for Spoken Language Understanding (CSLU), an institution which has since been become a part of OHSU. This corpus was recorded at the Northwest Regional School District in the Portland, Oregon area and consists of two distinct examples of spoken language: one spontaneous and one read. One portion of the OGI corpus — the sentence reading task — was of particular interest for its similarity to our target data from Section 2.1, Recalling Sentences. Each recording has been evaluated for quality by the corpus authors, and we limited the data to only those rated at the best audio quality rating of “good.” The corpus includes voice recordings of 1,100 participants in kindergarten through 10th grade, but only data from grades kindergarten through 3rd grade were considered to limit the age ranges to those in the CSLU Autism Speech corpus. In order to control for speaker variance, we limited the number of speakers and utterances from each grade to the counts from the smallest grade (the kindergartners) at 85 speakers and 699 utterances. Details of the data selected from the OGI Kids’ Corpus, as well as the data selected from the CSLU Autism Corpus are shown in Table 1.

2.3. Comparing age statistics of the two corpora

While the CSLU Autism corpus has precise age information at the time of testing, the OGI kids’ corpus only has each participant’s grade in school. To get a sense of how the age demographics compare, we used the following algorithm to convert participants’ ages into grades:

$$g = round(a - 5)$$

where $a$ is the participant’s age at the time of the exam, and $g$ is the whole number representing the grade, with kindergarten as 0, 1st grade as 1, and so on. As a result of this calculation on the CSLU Autism corpus, we found a grade range of 1 through 3, with a mean of grade of 1.89, or, just under 2nd grade. Table 2 presents the demographics of participants.

3. Experiments

For each experiment, the data from the CSLU Autism Speech Corpus was split into five folds to balance the sets by the
speaker’s ALN/ALI/SLI diagnosis. Rotating through the five folds, a model was trained on four folds and tested on the remaining fifth fold. For experiments augmented with the data from the OGI Kids’ Corpus, the supplemental material was simply combined with the train set. The reported word error rate (WER) is calculated as the sum of errors across all test sets divided by the total number of correct words.

3.1. Exp. 1: Finding an optimal weight transfer strategy

3.1.1. Methods

In order to establish the weight transfer approach for later experiments, we set up an exploratory experiment to determine the optimal hyperparameter configurations. This experiment was conducted on the CSLU Autism Speech corpus only.

We pre-trained a time-delay neural network (TDNN) model on the freely available LibriSpeech corpus [6], which consists of 1000 hours of volunteers reading books aloud. This model was trained using the lattice-free maximum mutual information (MMI) (“chain”) method as described in [17], and was built using the pre-configured scripts included in the Kaldi toolkit [18]. The DNN architecture consists of a pre-trained and fixed linear discriminant analysis (LDA) input layer, six TDNN hidden layers, and a fully connected output layer. Batch normalization is employed throughout the input and hidden layers in addition to L2 regularization and cross-entropy normalization.

We used the transfer learning approach described in [13] to adapt the LibriSpeech model to our target data. First, high-resolution mel-frequency cepstral coefficient (MFCC) features were extracted (with 40 mel bins and 40 cepstra) in addition to 100-length i-vectors calculated based on the same model trained for the LibriSpeech model. The LibriSpeech model is used to generate frame-level acoustic alignments for training. For the lattice-free MMI objective, we weighted the training values at a 10 to 1 ratio to the LibriSpeech data.

The weights were copied from the LibriSpeech model to initialize the target model, and various learning configurations for the layers were strategically explored. The general strategy was to first try all combinations of entirely trainable at the overall learning rate (1.0) and entirely frozen (0.0). We trained with these configurations over 5 epochs with an overall learning rate (1.0) and entirely frozen (0.0). We trained with a combination of the pre-configured scripts included in the Kaldi toolkit [18].

We settled on in Section 3.1.1, we transferred the weights from the LibriSpeech language model built configurations between 0.0 and 1.0. Upon decoding, we applied a weighted finite state transducer (WFST) language model built from the training data.

3.1.2. Results

On our dataset, it appears that the output layer contained the most important weights to retrain. The best results were consistently the experiments with the output layer set to learn at the full rate of 1.0. Only training the output layer resulted in a

### Table 2: Mean age and calculated grade demographics of the participants from the CSLU Autism Speech Corpus. Kindergarten would be grade zero.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Age (std)</th>
<th>Grade (std)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>any</td>
<td>7.31 (0.81)</td>
<td>1.89 (0.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALN</td>
<td>7.26 (0.85)</td>
<td>1.80 (0.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALI</td>
<td>7.23 (0.88)</td>
<td>1.88 (0.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLI</td>
<td>7.49 (0.69)</td>
<td>2.00 (0.71)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Exp. 2: Data augmentation and age domain selection

3.2.1. Methods

In the next phase of our study, we looked at the effect of augmenting the CSLU Autism dataset with the OGI Kids’ dataset. We pre-trained a time-delay neural network (TDNN) model on the freely available LibriSpeech corpus [6], which consists of 1000 hours of volunteers reading books aloud. This model was trained using the lattice-free maximum mutual information (MMI) (“chain”) method as described in [17], and was built using the pre-configured scripts included in the Kaldi toolkit [18]. The DNN architecture consists of a pre-trained and fixed linear discriminant analysis (LDA) input layer, six TDNN hidden layers, and a fully connected output layer. Batch normalization is employed throughout the input and hidden layers in addition to L2 regularization and cross-entropy normalization.

We used the transfer learning approach described in [13] to adapt the LibriSpeech model to our target data. First, high-resolution mel-frequency cepstral coefficient (MFCC) features were extracted (with 40 mel bins and 40 cepstra) in addition to 100-length i-vectors calculated based on the same model trained for the LibriSpeech model. The LibriSpeech model is used to generate frame-level acoustic alignments for training. For the lattice-free MMI objective, we weighted the training values at a 10 to 1 ratio to the LibriSpeech data.

The weights were copied from the LibriSpeech model to initialize the target model, and various learning configurations for the layers were strategically explored. The general strategy was to first try all combinations of entirely trainable at the overall learning rate (1.0) and entirely frozen (0.0). We trained with these configurations over 5 epochs with an overall learning rate starting at 0.001 for epoch 0, decreasing linearly at each iteration to end at 0.0001. With those results, we tried a number of starting at 0.001 for epoch 0, decreasing linearly at each iteration to end at 0.0001. With those results, we tried a number of

3.2.2. Results

Training with the full augmentation set yielded a 28.60% WER, a 0.78% absolute improvement on the unaugmented performance from Section 3.1.2. Training with each smaller, age-specific portion of the augmentation set consistently performed better than the larger K-3 set. The smaller K-3 set was second best at 27.61%. The best result was found augmenting only with the 2nd graders, with a WER of 27.07%. This was an absolute improvement of 1.53% versus the larger augmentation set, and a 2.31% absolute improvement versus the unaugmented performance. Note how we determined in 2.3 that our target data had an approximate mean age of 2nd grade.

Testing the diagnoses separately, we found the 2nd grade subset performed best across all test splits except the subset of children with both diagnoses (ALI), where 700 utterances of the combined grades had a WER of 29.95% versus 2nd grade’s 30.05%. Considering children with only an autism diagnosis (ALN), we found a WER of 20.51%, a 2.64% absolute improvement on the unaugmented model. The subset of children without an autism diagnosis but with LI (SLI) had a WER of 36.60%, improving on the unaugmented model by 3.55% abso-

### Table 3: Optimizing learning rate factors (LRFs) to get the lowest word error rate, trained and tested on only the CSLU Autism data. A layer’s learn rate is equal to the LRF times the overall learn rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Rate Factors</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Hidden</th>
<th>Output</th>
<th>Test WER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>29.38%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>30.24%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>30.85%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>37.87%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>58.11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>78.09%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>83.19%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3. Exp. 3: Strategically adding more data

3.3.1. Methods
Using the knowledge gained from our previous experiment, we wanted to see the effect of larger quantities of the best-performing data. We doubled the number of OGI Kids’ Corpus utterances to 1,398 per grade. With insufficient data to double the kindergarten set, we eliminated the youngest speakers from the augmentation dataset altogether, leaving the best-performing 2nd grade, as well as the adjacent 1st and 3rd grades. Following the methods from previous experiments, we transferred the weights from the pre-trained LibriSpeech model and retrained to the CSLU Autism Corpus and each of these new augmentation sets. We also re-trained the model on the CSLU Autism Corpus combined with each pairwise combination of the new 1st, 2nd, and 3rd grade augmentation sets.

3.3.2. Results
The overall best WER of 26.21% was the combination of 1st and 2nd grades — an improvement of 0.71% from the previous experiment’s best — followed closely by the combination of 2nd and 3rd grades at 26.36%. Of the individual grade sets, 2nd grade still performed better than the others at 26.77%, a 0.30% improvement on 2nd grade at half the quantity from the previous experiment.

4. Conclusions
In our scenario of data scarcity and domain specificity, even seemingly small changes in quantity and similarity of supplementary data can have an impact on model performance. Experiment 2 demonstrated the effect of data quality over quantity, where a narrow age range similar to the target data outperformed other combinations with both greater variance and greater quantity. Experiment 3 showed how larger quantities of data can still improve model performance if domain similarity can be successfully identified and expanded upon.

Our experiments focused on the age of speakers in training data for children’s ASR, which can have a profound impact on acoustic properties, but other forms of domain similarity can be much harder to define. While we show how important an age match in data augmentation with young children can be, age is only one facet of an ASR domain. Note how the different diagnoses yield significantly different WERs in Figure 1; this hints at some possibilities for further refinement of a model based on that domain aspect. Previous work on the CSLU Autism Speech Corpus has shown that the ALN and SLI groups can be distinguished from one another using only pitch information [19]. Future work will look at unsupervised methods of “fine tuning” weight transfer, using techniques like those in [16], in which low-level feature similarity can automatically drive data selection for optimized augmentation of scarce data.

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6. References


