



HAL
open science

A weighted-variance variational autoencoder model for speech enhancement

Ali Golmakani, Mostafa Sadeghi, Xavier Alameda-Pineda, Romain Serizel

► **To cite this version:**

Ali Golmakani, Mostafa Sadeghi, Xavier Alameda-Pineda, Romain Serizel. A weighted-variance variational autoencoder model for speech enhancement. 2022. hal-03833827v1

HAL Id: hal-03833827

<https://inria.hal.science/hal-03833827v1>

Preprint submitted on 28 Oct 2022 (v1), last revised 20 Sep 2023 (v2)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

WEIGHTED VARIANCE VARIATIONAL AUTOENCODER FOR SPEECH ENHANCEMENT

Ali Golmakani¹, Mostafa Sadeghi¹, Xavier Alameda-Pineda², and Romain Serizel¹

¹Université de Lorraine, CNRS, Inria, LORIA, F-54000 Nancy, France

²Inria Grenoble & Univ. Grenoble Alpes, France

ABSTRACT

We address speech enhancement based on variational autoencoders, which involves learning a speech prior distribution in the time-frequency (TF) domain. A zero-mean complex-valued Gaussian distribution is usually assumed for the generative model, where the speech information is encoded in the variance as a function of a latent variable. While this is the commonly used approach, in this paper we propose a *weighted* variance generative model, where the contribution of each TF point in parameter learning is weighted. We impose a Gamma prior distribution on the weights, which would effectively lead to a Student’s t-distribution instead of Gaussian for speech modeling. We develop efficient training and speech enhancement algorithms based on the proposed generative model. Our experimental results on spectrogram modeling and speech enhancement demonstrate the effectiveness and robustness of the proposed approach compared to the standard unweighted variance model.

Index Terms— Speech enhancement, generative model, variational autoencoder, Student’s t-distribution.

1. INTRODUCTION

Speech enhancement is a fundamental task in signal processing and machine learning, aiming to recover a clean speech signal from a noisy observation [1]. A classical approach to this problem involves statistical modeling of clean speech and noise signals, e.g. using non-negative matrix factorization (NMF), followed by an inference method such as maximum likelihood (ML) or Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation [2, 3]. However, with the advent of deep learning, there has been a significant shift towards supervised (discriminative) frameworks, which train a deep neural network (DNN) on a large collection of paired clean and noisy speech signals [4]. Nevertheless, these methods suffer from generalization issues, e.g., for unseen noise environments, as the train and test conditions might be significantly different.

Recently, there has been a growing interest in alternative approaches based on deep generative models, including

Experiments presented in this paper were carried out using the Grid’5000 testbed, supported by a scientific interest group hosted by Inria and including CNRS, RENATER, and several Universities as well as other organizations (see <https://www.grid5000.fr>).

variational autoencoders (VAEs) [5–9], generative adversarial networks (GANs) [10], and normalizing flows (NFs) [11], due to their potential generalization advantage. In particular, VAE-based speech enhancement involves learning a prior distribution of (time-frequency domain) clean speech data with a latent variable model. More precisely, the distribution of each speech time-frequency (TF) point is modeled as a circularly symmetric complex Gaussian distribution, where the variance is a DNN-based parameterized function of a latent variable with a standard Gaussian prior. Given a noisy speech observation and the trained speech prior, a parametric statistical noise model is adaptively learned with an expectation-maximization (EM) approach followed by clean speech signal estimation. So, noise characteristics are modeled at test time, leading to potentially better generalization compared to supervised methods [5, 6].

In this paper, we propose to use a *weighted* variance circularly symmetric complex Gaussian distribution for VAE-based speech modeling, where the contribution of each TF point to parameter learning and inference is separately weighted. Assuming a Gamma prior for the weights and marginalizing them, the resulting model would become a Student’s t-distribution. This brings more efficient, robust, and flexible modeling power than the standard unweighted Gaussian variance model. We develop computationally efficient training and speech enhancement methods based on the EM framework. Our experiments show that the proposed weighted variance VAE model outperforms the standard unweighted counterpart, both in terms of reconstruction quality and speech enhancement performance.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews VAE-based speech generative modeling. The proposed speech generative and enhancement frameworks are detailed in Section 3. Section 4 discusses the related work. Experimental results are presented in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 concludes the paper.

2. VAE-BASED SPEECH MODELING

We denote the short-time Fourier transform (STFT) representation of clean speech signals as $\mathbf{s} = \{\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_T\}$, where $\mathbf{s}_t = [s_{ft}]_{f=1}^F \in \mathbb{C}^F$. The VAE framework associates a latent variable $\mathbf{z}_t \in \mathbb{R}^L$ to each time frame \mathbf{s}_t , where $L \ll F$.

The joint distribution $p(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{z}_t) = p(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t) \cdot p(\mathbf{z}_t)$ is modeled by some parametric Gaussian forms:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t) = \mathcal{N}_c(\mathbf{0}, \text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t))), \quad p(\mathbf{z}_t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad (1)$$

where $\mathcal{N}_c(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ denotes a circularly symmetric complex Gaussian distribution, and \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. Also, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\theta(\cdot)$ (applied element-wise) is a non-linear function denoting the standard deviation, which is modeled by some DNN, called the *decoder*, with parameters θ . To learn θ , one needs to compute the posterior distribution $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t)$, which is intractable. In the VAE framework, this term is approximated as follows:

$$q_\psi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_\psi(\mathbf{s}_t), \text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\psi^2(\mathbf{s}_t))), \quad (2)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_\psi$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\psi$ are implemented using a DNN, called the *encoder*.

The set of parameters, $\Phi = \{\theta, \psi\}$, is learned by optimizing a lower bound, denoted $\mathcal{L}(\Phi; \mathbf{s})$, on the intractable data log-likelihood $\log p_\theta(\mathbf{s})$. This is achieved by defining the evidence lower bound (ELBO) as follows [12]:

$$\mathcal{L}(\Phi; \mathbf{s}) = \mathbb{E}_{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})} \{\log p_\theta(\mathbf{s}|\mathbf{z})\} - \mathcal{D}_{\text{KL}}(q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})\|p(\mathbf{z})), \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{D}_{\text{KL}}(q\|p)$ stands for the Kullback–Leibler (KL) divergence between q and p . The first term in (3) measures the reconstruction quality of the model, and the second one is a regularization. Training proceeds by optimizing $\mathcal{L}(\Phi; \mathbf{s})$ over Φ using a gradient-based optimizer, along with the *reparametrization trick* [12].

3. PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

3.1. Generative model

As opposed to the commonly used unweighted variance model presented in (1), we propose a more flexible distribution, by introducing some weight parameters $w_t > 0$:

$$\begin{cases} p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t, w_t) = \mathcal{N}_c(\mathbf{0}, \text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t)/w_t)), \\ p(\mathbf{z}_t) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \\ p(w_t) = \mathcal{G}(w_t; \alpha, \beta), \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where, $\mathcal{G}(w; \alpha, \beta)$, $\alpha, \beta > 0$ is the Gamma distribution:

$$\mathcal{G}(w; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} w^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta w), \quad (5)$$

with $\Gamma(\cdot)$ being the gamma function. The mean and variance of this distribution are equal to α/β and α/β^2 , respectively. Note that $p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t)$ is essentially an infinite mixture of Gaussian distributions: $p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t) = \int p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t, w_t)p(w_t)dw_t$. This effectively takes the form of a Student's t-distribution, which is well-known for its robustness and flexibility advantages over standard Gaussian distribution [13].

3.2. Parameters inference

To learn the parameters of the proposed Student VAE (St-VAE) model, denoted $\tilde{\Phi} = \{\theta, \psi, \alpha, \beta\}$, we need to compute the posterior distribution of the latent variables \mathbf{z}_t, w_t :

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t, w_t|\mathbf{s}_t) = p_\theta(w_t|\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{z}_t) \cdot p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t). \quad (6)$$

The first term writes $p_\theta(w_t|\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{z}_t) \propto p_\theta(\mathbf{s}_t|\mathbf{z}_t, w_t) \cdot p(w_t) = \mathcal{G}(\alpha'_t, \beta'_t)$, where:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha'_t = \alpha + F \\ \beta'_t = \beta + \sum_f \frac{|s_{ft}|^2}{\sigma_{\theta,f}^2(\mathbf{z}_t)}. \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

The second posterior distribution, i.e., $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t)$ cannot be computed in closed form. We, therefore, resort to a variational approximation: $p_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t) \approx q_\psi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t)$, with q_ψ defined similarly as in (2). Overall, we have:

$$p_\theta(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}|\mathbf{s}) \approx q_\psi(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) = p_\theta(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{z})q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s}), \quad (8)$$

where, $\mathbf{w} = \{w_1, \dots, w_T\}$. We target a lower bound on the data log-likelihood to learn $\tilde{\Phi}$:

$$\log p_\theta(\mathbf{s}) \geq \mathbb{E}_{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})} \left\{ \log \frac{p_\theta(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})}{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})} \right\} \triangleq \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\Phi}; \mathbf{s}), \quad (9)$$

which is simplified to

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\Phi}; \mathbf{s}) &= \mathbb{E}_{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w})} \{ \log p_\theta(\mathbf{s}|\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}) \} - \\ &\mathcal{D}_{\text{KL}}(q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})\|p(\mathbf{z})) - \mathbb{E}_{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})} \{ \mathcal{D}_{\text{KL}}(p_\theta(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{s})\|p(\mathbf{w})) \}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

The first and third terms can be further simplified. This will bring us to the following final form.¹

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\Phi}; \mathbf{s}) &= \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}_{q_\psi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t)} \left\{ - \sum_{f=1}^F \log |\sigma_{\theta,f}^2(\mathbf{z}_t)| - \right. \\ &(\alpha + F) \log \left(\beta + \sum_{f=1}^F \frac{|s_{ft}|^2}{\sigma_{\theta,f}^2(\mathbf{z}_t)} \right) \left. \right\} + \sum_{\ell=0}^{F-1} \log(\alpha + \ell) + \\ &+ \alpha \log \beta - \mathcal{D}_{\text{KL}}(q_\psi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{s})\|p(\mathbf{z})). \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

As in VAEs, we approximate the above expectation using a single sample $\mathbf{z}_t \sim q_\psi(\mathbf{z}_t|\mathbf{s}_t)$, followed by the reparametrization trick. The obtained objective function is then optimized over $\tilde{\Phi}$ using a stochastic gradient-based optimizer.

¹Due to the limited space, we provide the detailed derivations in Supplementary Material available online: <https://msaadeghii.github.io/files/stvae.pdf>.

3.3. Speech Enhancement

The observed noisy speech STFT time frames are modeled as $\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{s}_t + \mathbf{b}_t$, $t = 1, \dots, \tilde{T}$, where \mathbf{b}_t corresponds to background noise. For \mathbf{s}_t , the pre-trained generative model in (4) is used. For \mathbf{b}_t , the following nonnegative matrix factorization (NMF) based model is considered:

$$\mathbf{b}_t \sim \mathcal{N}_c(\mathbf{0}, \text{diag}(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{h}_t)), \quad (12)$$

where, $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{F \times K}$, and \mathbf{h}_t is the t -th column of $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{K \times \tilde{T}}$.

Parameter estimation. To infer model's parameters, i.e., $\phi = \{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}\}$, we follow an EM approach, where in the expectation (E) step, the intractable posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{z}_t, w_t | \mathbf{x}_t)$ needs to be computed. As an approximation, we find only the points that maximize this distribution [14, 15]:

$$\mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^* = \underset{\mathbf{z}_t, w_t}{\text{argmax}} \log p_\phi(\mathbf{z}_t, w_t | \mathbf{x}_t), \quad (13)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^* = \underset{\mathbf{z}_t, w_t}{\text{argmax}} \log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{z}_t, w_t) + \log p(\mathbf{z}_t) + \log p(w_t). \quad (14)$$

It is straightforward to show that:

$$p_\phi(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{z}_t, w_t) = \mathcal{N}_c(\mathbf{0}, \text{diag}(w_t^{-1} \sigma_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{h}_t)). \quad (15)$$

Problem (14) is then solved via a first-order optimizer, e.g., Adam [16]. In the maximization (M) step, the parameters are updated by solving the following problem:

$$\max_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}} \sum_t \mathbb{E}_{p_\phi(\mathbf{z}_t, w_t | \mathbf{x}_t)} \{\log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_t, w_t)\} \quad (16)$$

$$\equiv \max_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}} \sum_t \mathbb{E}_{p_\phi(\mathbf{z}_t, w_t | \mathbf{x}_t)} \{\log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{z}_t, w_t)\}. \quad (17)$$

We approximate the above expectation using \mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^* as follows:

$$\max_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{H}} \sum_t \log p_\phi(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^*). \quad (18)$$

Substituting (15) and pursuing the approach proposed in [6], we obtain the following multiplicative update rules:

$$\mathbf{H} \leftarrow \mathbf{H} \odot \left(\frac{\mathbf{W}^\top (|\mathbf{X}|^{\odot 2} \odot \mathbf{V}^{\odot -2})}{\mathbf{W}^\top \mathbf{V}^{\odot -1}} \right)^{\odot 1/2}, \quad (19)$$

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} \odot \left(\frac{(|\mathbf{X}|^{\odot 2} \odot \mathbf{V}^{\odot -2}) \mathbf{H}^\top}{\mathbf{V}^{\odot -1} \mathbf{H}^\top} \right)^{\odot 1/2}, \quad (20)$$

where \odot denotes element-wise operation, $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{F \times \tilde{T}}$ is a matrix with columns $\mathbf{v}_t = (w_t^*)^{-1} \sigma_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t^*) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{h}_t$, and $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{C}^{F \times \tilde{T}}$ is a matrix with columns \mathbf{x}_t . The overall inference algorithm iterates between (14), (19), and (20).

Speech estimation. Having $\phi^* = \{\mathbf{W}^*, \mathbf{H}^*\}$ learned, the speech signal is estimated as the posterior mean $\hat{\mathbf{s}}_t = \mathbb{E}_{p_{\phi^*}(\mathbf{s}_t | \mathbf{x}_t)} \{\mathbf{s}_t\}$, $\forall t$, which can be equivalently written as

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{s}}_t &= \mathbb{E}_{p_{\phi^*}(\mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^* | \mathbf{x}_t)} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{p_{\phi^*}(\mathbf{s}_t | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{z}_t^*, w_t^*)} \{\mathbf{s}_t\} \right\} \\ &\approx \frac{(w_t^*)^{-1} \sigma_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t^*)}{(w_t^*)^{-1} \sigma_\theta^2(\mathbf{z}_t^*) + \mathbf{W}^* \mathbf{h}_t^*} \odot \mathbf{x}_t, \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

with element-wise division.

4. RELATED WORK

The closest work to ours is [17], which presents a VAE for robust density estimation applications with a Gamma prior distribution on the variance of the Gaussian decoder. The parameters of this distribution are then modeled as functions of the latent codes, i.e., $\alpha(\mathbf{z})$ and $\beta(\mathbf{z})$, implemented by some DNNs. However, our approach is different, as we consider a variance model, $\sigma_\theta^2(\cdot)$, that is shared among all the data, and we instead consider separate scalar weights for each data point. We also do not model the Gamma parameters as functions of \mathbf{z} , because, it would highly complicate the optimization of \mathbf{z} in the speech enhancement phase, i.e., (14). Furthermore, in contrast to [17], we do not marginalize the weights and instead follow a variational approach, which is much more efficient.

5. EXPERIMENTS

5.1. Setup

In this section, we compare the performance of our proposed StVAE framework (4) against the standard VAE method based on (1) for both speech spectrogram modeling and speech enhancement. The former consists of auto-encoding the *clean* speech spectrogram using the trained VAE model. The reconstruction quality is measured based on the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) in dB. Moreover, we plug the original phase into the reconstructed spectrogram and obtain the time-domain speech signal using inverse STFT. This is to evaluate the intelligibility and perceptual quality of the reconstructed speech signal in terms of the short-term objective intelligibility (STOI) measure [18], ranging in $[0, 1]$, and the perceptual evaluation of speech quality (PESQ) score [19], ranging in $[-0.5, 4.5]$, respectively. To have a fair comparison, the VAE speech enhancement (VAE-SE), considered as the baseline, follows the same steps as those of StVAE-SE detailed in Section (3.3). In addition to PESQ and STOI, we report the scale-invariant signal-to-distortion ratio (SI-SDR) [20] values.

5.2. Datasets

For training the StVAE and VAE models, we used the speech data in the TCD-TIMIT corpus [21]. This dataset contains

Table 1: Average values of the input and output SI-SDR, PESQ, and STOI metrics for speech enhancement. Here, “clean” and “mixed” refer to $\{\text{clean}\}$ and $\{\text{clean} \cup \text{noise}\}$ training data.

Metric	SI-SDR (dB)					PESQ					STOI				
	-10	-5	0	5	10	-10	-5	0	5	10	-10	-5	0	5	10
Input (unprocessed)	-18.08	-12.80	-7.72	-2.91	2.04	1.40	1.51	1.76	2.05	2.37	0.12	0.20	0.30	0.43	0.56
VAE-SE - clean	-9.56	-4.25	0.57	5.23	10.13	1.58	1.80	2.07	2.36	2.67	0.15	0.24	0.36	0.50	0.64
StVAE-SE - clean	-8.92	-3.56	1.16	5.97	10.97	1.61	1.85	2.17	2.47	2.73	0.15	0.25	0.37	0.51	0.65
VAE-SE - mixed	-10.83	-4.84	0.22	4.87	9.89	1.57	1.75	2.03	2.29	2.61	0.14	0.23	0.35	0.49	0.63
StVAE-SE - mixed	-9.23	-3.74	0.87	5.89	10.83	1.59	1.81	2.11	2.42	2.70	0.15	0.24	0.36	0.51	0.65

speech utterances from 56 English speakers (39 for training, 8 for validation, and 9 for testing) with an Irish accent, uttering 98 different sentences, each with an approximate length of 5 seconds, and sampled at 16 kHz (~ 8 hours of data). The STFT of the speech data was computed with a 64 ms-long (1024 samples) sine window, 75% overlap, without zero-padding, which results in $F = 513$.

Table 2: Average values of the SNR, PESQ, and STOI metrics for speech spectrogram modeling.

Metric	SNR (dB)	PESQ	STOI
VAE - clean	6.94	3.29	0.85
StVAE - clean	7.98	3.51	0.88
VAE - mixed	5.93	3.12	0.83
StVAE - mixed	7.15	3.32	0.86

To test the speech enhancement performance, we used some noisy versions of the TCD-TIMIT dataset [22], including six types of noise, namely *Living Room (LR)*, *White*, *Cafe*, *Car*, *Babble*, and *Street*. For each noise type, we considered five noise levels: -10 dB, -5 dB, 0 dB, 5 dB, and 10 dB. From each test speaker, we randomly selected 5 utterances for each noise level and noise type, giving 1350 test samples.

Furthermore, to see how the two competing algorithms behave when the training data include some noise signals in addition to the clean speech data, we extended the training data by taking some noise data from the DEMAND dataset [23], including *STRAFFIC*, *DWASHING*, *SPSQUARE*, *NRIVER*, *TBUS*, *NPARK*, and *DKITCHEN*. The total amount of noise data is around 20% of the clean speech training data.

5.3. Model architecture

The architectures of both StVAE and VAE follow the one proposed in [6], consisting of an encoder and decoder each having a single fully-connected hidden layer with 128 nodes and hyperbolic tangent activation functions. The dimension of the latent space was set as $L = 32$.

5.4. Parameters setting

Both VAE models are trained with stochastic gradient descent (batch size of 128) using Adam. The learning rate is equal to 0.0001. We used early stopping on the validation set with a patience of 20 epochs. The number of EM iterations for

speech enhancement is set to 100. The learning rate for optimizing (14) is set to 0.005, with 10 iterations.

Although α and β in StVAE could be learned according to (11), we observed in our experiments that fixing these values during the whole training process leads to more stable and improved results. As such, we empirically set $\alpha = \beta = 100$, resulting in the mean and variance for the prior distribution of the weights equal to 1 and 0.01, respectively.

5.5. Speech enhancement results

The input and output values of the speech enhancement metrics for different noise SNRs are reported in Table 1. Concerning clean training data, one can see that StVAE-SE outperforms VAE-SE in almost all the cases, demonstrating the efficiency of the proposed weighted variance Gaussian distribution compared to the standard, unweighted distribution. This is more noticeable for higher SNR levels. With respect to the mixed training data involving noise signals, i.e., $\{\text{clean} \cup \text{noise}\}$, we can also clearly see the advantage of StVAE. In addition, we note that StVAE-SE trained on mixed training data outperforms VAE-SE trained on clean data.

5.6. Spectrogram modeling results

Table 2 summarizes the speech spectrogram modeling results. It can be seen that the proposed StVAE model performs considerably better than the standard VAE model, in terms of both reconstruction SNR as well as speech quality measures, PESQ and STOI. As also observed in the speech enhancement results, the results of StVAE on $\{\text{clean} \cup \text{noise}\}$ data are better even than those of VAE trained on $\{\text{clean}\}$ data. This confirms that the weighted variance model (Student’s t -distribution) is a better fit for speech modeling.

6. CONCLUSIONS

We presented a weighted variance Gaussian generative model for speech signals based on variational autoencoders. The proposed probabilistic generative model assumes a separate stochastic weight for each data point with a Gamma prior distribution, providing a more flexible and effective modeling framework compared to the standard, unweighted variance model. We also presented efficient parameter inference and speech enhancement methodologies. Our experimental results showed the superiority of the proposed model both in terms of spectrogram auto-encoding quality, and speech enhancement results.

7. REFERENCES

- [1] Emmanuel Vincent, Tuomas Virtanen, and Sharon Gan-
not, *Audio source separation and speech enhancement*,
John Wiley & Sons, 2018.
- [2] Cédric Févotte, Nancy Bertin, and Jean-Louis Durrieu,
“Nonnegative matrix factorization with the itakura-saito
divergence: With application to music analysis,” *Neural
computation*, vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 793–830, 2009.
- [3] Paris Smaragdis, Bhiksha Raj, and Madhusudana
Shashanka, “Supervised and semi-supervised separation
of sounds from single-channel mixtures,” in *Internation-
al Conference on Independent Component Analysis
and Signal Separation*. Springer, 2007, pp. 414–421.
- [4] DeLiang Wang and Jitong Chen, “Supervised speech
separation based on deep learning: An overview,”
*IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Lan-
guage Processing*, vol. 26, no. 10, pp. 1702–1726, 2018.
- [5] Yoshiaki Bando, Masato Mimura, Katsutoshi Itoyama,
Kazuyoshi Yoshii, and Tatsuya Kawahara, “Statistical
speech enhancement based on probabilistic integration
of variational autoencoder and non-negative matrix fac-
torization,” in *ICASSP*, 2018.
- [6] Simon Leglaive, Laurent Girin, and Radu Horaud, “A
variance modeling framework based on variational au-
toencoders for speech enhancement,” in *IEEE MLSP*,
September 2018.
- [7] Mostafa Sadeghi, Simon Leglaive, Xavier Alameda-
Pineda, Laurent Girin, and Radu Horaud, “Audio-
visual speech enhancement using conditional variational
auto-encoders,” *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio,
Speech, and Language Processing*, vol. 28, pp. 1788–
1800, 2020.
- [8] Xiaoyu Bie, Simon Leglaive, Xavier Alameda-Pineda,
and Laurent Girin, “Unsupervised speech enhancement
using dynamical variational autoencoders,” *IEEE/ACM
Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language Process-
ing*, vol. 30, pp. 2993–3007, 2022.
- [9] Huajian Fang, Guillaume Carbajal, Stefan Wermter, and
Timo Gerkmann, “Variational autoencoder for speech
enhancement with a noise-aware encoder,” in *IEEE
ICASSP*, 2021.
- [10] Santiago Pascual, Antonio Bonafonte, and Joan Serra,
“SEGAN: Speech enhancement generative adversarial
network,” *arXiv preprint arXiv:1703.09452*, 2017.
- [11] Aditya Arie Nugraha, Kouhei Sekiguchi, and Kazuyoshi
Yoshii, “A flow-based deep latent variable model
for speech spectrogram modeling and enhancement,”
*IEEE/ACM Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Lan-
guage Processing*, vol. 28, pp. 1104–1117, 2020.
- [12] Diederik P. Kingma and Max Welling, “Auto-encoding
variational bayes,” in *Proc. International Conference on
Learning Representations (ICLR)*, April 2014.
- [13] Kenneth L Lange, Roderick JA Little, and Jeremy MG
Taylor, “Robust statistical modeling using the t distribu-
tion,” *Journal of the American Statistical Association*,
vol. 84, no. 408, pp. 881–896, 1989.
- [14] Hirokazu Kameoka, Li Li, Shota Inoue, and Shoji
Makino, “Supervised determined source separation with
multichannel variational autoencoder,” *Neural compu-
tation*, vol. 31, no. 9, pp. 1891–1914, 2019.
- [15] Simon Leglaive, Xavier Alameda-Pineda, Laurent
Girin, and Radu Horaud, “A recurrent variational au-
toencoder for speech enhancement,” in *IEEE ICASSP*,
2020.
- [16] Diederik P. Kingma and Jimmy Ba, “Adam: A method
for stochastic optimization,” in *Proc. International Con-
ference on Learning Representations ICLR*, May 2015.
- [17] Hiroshi Takahashi, Tomoharu Iwata, Yuki Yamanaka,
Masanori Yamada, and Satoshi Yagi, “Student-t vari-
ational autoencoder for robust density estimation.,” in
IJCAI, 2018, pp. 2696–2702.
- [18] Cees H. Taal, Richard C. Hendriks, Richard Heusdens,
and Jesper Jensen, “An algorithm for intelligibility
prediction of time–frequency weighted noisy speech,”
*IEEE Transactions on Audio, Speech, and Language
Processing*, vol. 19, no. 7, pp. 2125–2136, February
2011.
- [19] Antony W. Rix, John G. Beerends, Michael P. Hol-
lier, and Andries P. Hekstra, “Perceptual evaluation of
speech quality (PESQ)-a new method for speech quality
assessment of telephone networks and codecs,” in *IEEE
ICASSP*, May 2001.
- [20] Jonathan Le Roux, Scott Wisdom, Hakan Erdogan, and
John R Hershey, “SDR–half-baked or well done?,” in
IEEE ICASSP, 2019.
- [21] Naomi Harte and Eoin Gillen, “TCD-TIMIT: An audio-
visual corpus of continuous speech,” *IEEE Transactions
on Multimedia*, vol. 17, no. 5, pp. 603–615, 2015.
- [22] Ahmed Hussen Abdelaziz et al., “NTCD-TIMIT: A
new database and baseline for noise-robust audio-visual
speech recognition.,” in *Interspeech*, 2017.
- [23] Joachim Thiemann, Nobutaka Ito, and Emmanuel Vin-
cent, “DEMAND: a collection of multi-channel record-
ings of acoustic noise in diverse environments,” in *Proc.
Meetings Acoust*, 2013, pp. 1–6.