

Welch approach, and the models without adaptation data could also be adapted by discriminating information from all its competitor utterances.

Experimental results: The above adaptation approaches were evaluated with both the dialect adaptation and speaker adaptation experiments using the TIMIT corpus. ML-based stochastic matching [2] of model-space transformation was used as the benchmark for comparisons. The experiments were designed such that phonemes defined in the TIMIT database were recognised. Each phoneme was modelled with a hidden Markov model with at most three states, and each state consisted of three mixture Gaussian densities. The number of states in each HMM was determined by the time duration distribution of its phoneme provided in the TIMIT database.

Table 1: Dialect-adapted phoneme correctness/accuracy with different number of adaptation sentences for Baum-Welch (B_W), MMD and stochastic matching (SM) approaches

	50 training sentences		100 training sentences		150 training sentences		200 training sentences	
	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
B_W	75.62	61.98	77.32	64.48	77.41	65.29	77.85	66.0
MMD	76.43	62.78	77.65	65.1	78.8	66.19	79.27	66.9
SM	75.46	61.74	76.55	64.66	76.56	64.8	77.3	65.5

The speaker-independent (SI) recogniser was built from the 852 si and sx sentences selected from the Dr1, Dr3-Dr6 and Dr8 (under the training section) in the TIMIT. All si and sx sentences in the Dr7 of the training section were used for dialect adaptation training and testing. The SI recogniser achieved a correctness rate of 75.09% with 61.37% accuracy. Table 1 shows the test performances with different amounts of adaptation speech data. It shows that the MMD has the highest performance improvement. The phoneme error rate was reduced by 16.78%/5.38% for 200/50 sentences, and the accuracy error reduction was 14.32%/3.65%. The Baum-Welch method is also better than the stochastic matching method. For example, for 200 sentences, the correctness error reductions were 11.08 and 8.87% for the Baum-Welch and stochastic matching methods, respectively.

Table 2: Speaker-adapted phoneme correctness/accuracy with different number of adaptation sentences for Baum-Welch, MMD and stochastic matching approaches

For speaker MDAB0 (SI: %correctness = 73.1, %accuracy = 66.31)										
	One sentence		Two sentences		Three sentences		Four sentences		Five sentences	
	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy	Correctness	Accuracy
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
B_W	74.18	68.48	76.35	71.81	76.78	72.15	79.82	74.65	81.12	76.48
MMD	77.65	70.64	78.58	73.14	80.04	74.65	82.85	77.87	83.93	79.48
SM	75.92	69.64	76.35	70.84	77.65	72.55	78.52	74.15	79.82	74.99
For Speaker FMDG0 (SI: %correctness = 75.27, %accuracy = 60.83)										
B_W	76.91	62.7	78.78	67.47	81.22	69.96	83.65	74.12	86.22	81.59
MMD	77.44	64.98	80.67	69.55	82.84	72.87	87.97	82.42	91.48	88.45
SM	76.78	62.43	78.38	67.34	80.65	69.23	81.34	72.0	84.64	80.08

For speaker adaptation, we selected speaker MDAB0 in Dr1 and FMDG0 in Dr6 of the test section from the TIMIT database as the target speakers. Each speaker had 10 sentences. Five si sentences could be used as adaptation data and the performance was tested for all 10 sentences. The SI recogniser's performance achieved 73.1% correctness, 66.31% accuracy for speaker MDAB0 and 75.27% correctness, 60.83% accuracy for speaker FMDG0. The test performance with different adaptation data is shown in Table 2. As in dialect adaptation, these results show that the MMD leads to the largest performance improvement for any amount of adaptation speech data, and the Baum-Welch method performs slightly better than the stochastic matching method in most cases. For speaker MDAB0, when five si sentences were used the MMD reduced correctness errors by 40.26% and accuracy

errors by 39.09%. The Baum-Welch method improved the correctness and accuracy errors by 29.81 and 30.19%, and 24.98, 25.76% for stochastic matching. Even when only one adaptation sentence was used, the MMD also improved the correctness and accuracy errors by 16.91 and 12.85%. For speaker FMDG0, 44.28, 65.55, 37.89% correctness error reduction and 53.0, 70.41, 49.14% accuracy error reductions were achieved for the Baum-Welch, MMD and stochastic matching methods, respectively.

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Start-up transition behaviour of TCP NewReno

Changhee Joo and Saewoong Bahk

NewReno has been proposed as the sender to recover multiple packet losses within a window by responding to a partial ACK. Since a great deal of time is required to recover all losses, the behaviour of the TCP sender during fast recovery greatly affects the overall performance. The dynamics of TCP NewReno variants during fast recovery are analysed.

Introduction: The transition control protocol (TCP) NewReno has been proposed to improve the performance by preventing unnecessary timeouts due to multiple packet losses from a single window of data during fast recovery [1-4]. TCP NewReno can recover multiple packet losses without any changes at the receivers, and has some variants according to the recovery procedures. With the increase in network bandwidth and the use of applications with short TCP connections, TCP start-up dynamics become important [1]. In this case, the overall performance is largely affected by procedures during fast recovery. In this Letter, we analyse the dynamics of TCP NewReno variants during fast recovery.

TCP NewReno: TCP NewReno has been proposed with many variants [4]. We have used the NewReno variants that have the following properties during fast recovery:

- Retransmit a single packet for each partial ACK
- Reset the retransmit timer after receiving each partial ACK (slow-but-steady variant)
- Avoid multiple fast retransmits (less careful variant)

One variant of TCP NewReno is whether the partial window deflation (PWD) algorithm is used or not. With the PWD algorithm, if a sender receives a partial ACK, TCP NewReno retransmits the first unacknowledged packet, then decreases the congestion window (*cwnd*) by the amount of new data acknowledged and adds one packet back. This algorithm attempts to prevent packet burstiness when fast recovery eventually ends by

Conclusions: We have analytically compared two popular variants of TCP NewReno in terms of their start-up transition behaviours. We have focused on the number of new packets sent during fast recovery, and the packet burstiness that may occur just after fast recovery ends. In NewReno with PWD, these values were determined by the number of drops. In NewReno without PWD, since these values varied with drop patterns, we could obtain the maximum values.

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Upper bound on the bit error probability of TCM over frequency-selective Rayleigh fading channel

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A new upper bound on the bit error probability using Chernoff's bound of trellis code modulation (TCM) is introduced. It can be applied to a frequency-selective Rayleigh fading channel. The bound indicates a new design criterion, which is the product of the intersymbol interference (ISI) distance.

Introduction: In a frequency flat fading channel, the effective code length (ECL) and the minimum product distance (MPD) play an important role in the performance of TCM [1, 2]. For a frequency-selective fading channel, the performance of a combined equaliser-decoder has been shown in [3 - 5]. The upper bound was also discussed in [4, 5], but it was derived based on the complement error function and therefore could not provide further insight into the design methodology.

In this Letter, Chernoff's bounding technique is applied to pairwise error probability. The channel is modelled as an independent Rayleigh fading channel. This results in easily evaluated bit error probability.

System model: The output of the encoder is a sequence of coded symbols drawn from an alphabet of size M , denoted by $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots)$ transmitted to the channel. The channel is assumed to be frequency-selective Rayleigh fading with a memory denoted by L . The discrete time channel model is employed. The received signal sequence is denoted by $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_k, \dots)$, where each y_k can be represented by:

$$y_k = \sum_{j=0}^L g_{j,k} x_{k-j} + n_k \quad (1)$$

where n_k is complex white Gaussian noise with variance $2\sigma_n^2$. $g_{j,k}$ is a complex Gaussian variable with zero mean and variance $2\sigma_{g_j}^2$ corresponding to path j , representing the channel impulse response of path j at time k . They are assumed to be independent for each path j and also for each time k .

The decoder performs maximum likelihood sequence decoding on the combined equaliser and the code trellis. The state of the combined trellis is given by [3]

$$\mu_k = (x_{k-L}, x_{k-L+1}, \dots, x_{k-1}; \sigma_k) \quad (2)$$

where σ_k is the state of the encoder trellis. Hence, if the encoder trellis has S states and the number of input bits per encoding interval is m , the combined trellis has Sm^L states with m transitions emerging from each state.

The branch metric evaluated in the combined trellis is

$$\lambda(x_k, y_k | g_{0,k}, g_{1,k}, \dots, g_{L,k}) = \left| y_k - \sum_{j=0}^L g_{j,k} x_{k-j} \right|^2 \quad (3)$$

The additive path metric is defined as

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{g}) = \sum_{k=1}^N \lambda(x_k, y_k | g_{0,k}, g_{1,k}, \dots, g_{L,k}) \quad (4)$$

The decoder selects the path with the minimum additive path metric as the decoded sequence.

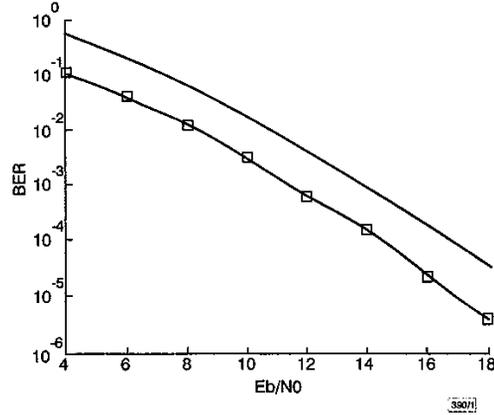


Fig. 1 Performance of four-state 8-PSK TCM with combined equaliser-decoder

—□— simulation
 — upper bound

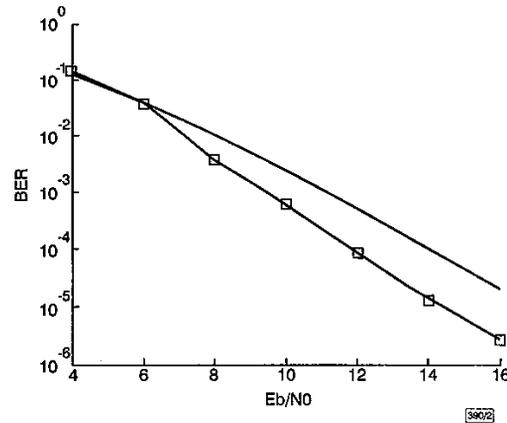


Fig. 2 Performance of eight-state 8-PSK TCM with combined equaliser-decoder

—□— simulation
 — upper bound

Performance analysis: The error event of length l is the interval where the incorrect path diverging from the transmitted path remerges with it in the combined trellis. The bit error probability can be estimated from [5]

$$P_b \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_l b_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}}(l) P_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}}(l) \quad (5)$$

where m is the number of input bits per encoding interval, $P_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}}(l)$ is the pairwise error probability of error event of length l , i.e. the probability that the decoder selects the sequence $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$, and $b_{\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}}(l)$ is the number of erroneous bits along the event $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \neq \mathbf{x}$ of length l .