A SYSTEMATIC COMPARISON OF GRAPHEME-BASED VS. PHONEME-BASED LABEL UNITS FOR ENCODER-DECODER-ATTENTION MODELS

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ABSTRACT

Following the rationale of end-to-end modeling, CTC, RNN-T or encoder-decoder-attention models for automatic speech recognition (ASR) use graphemes or grapheme-based subword units based on e.g. byte-pair encoding (BPE). The mapping from pronunciation to spelling is learned completely from data. In contrast to this, classical approaches to ASR employ secondary knowledge sources in the form of phoneme lists to define phonetic output labels and pronunciation lexica. In this work, we do a systematic comparison between grapheme- and phoneme-based output labels for an encoder-decoder-attention ASR model. We investigate the use of single phonemes as well as BPE-based phoneme groups as output labels of our model. To preserve a simplified and efficient decoder design, we also extend the phoneme set by auxiliary units to be able to distinguish homophones. Experiments performed on the Switchboard 300h and LibriSpeech benchmarks show that phoneme-based modeling is competitive to grapheme-based encoder-decoder-attention modeling.

Index Terms—end-to-end speech recognition, attention, phonemes, byte pair encoding

1. INTRODUCTION & RELATED WORK

End-to-end models such as encoder-decoder-attention models [1–6], connectionist temporal classification (CTC) models [7–10], or the recurrent neural network transducer (RNN-T) [11, 12] have shown competitive performance for speech recognition. End-to-end models usually operate on
- graphemes (characters),
- graph. based subword units (byte-pair encoding (BPE)) [3, 13, 14], word piece model (WPM) [15, 16], unigram language model (LM) based segmentation [17, 18], latent sequence decompositions [19, 20], or pronunciation-assisted char. subwords [21]
- or whole words [22–27].

Grapheme-based modeling bears the advantages of easily allowing to recognize out-of-vocabulary words, enabling modeling, training and decoding simplicity and avoiding potential errors introduced by secondary knowledge sources like pronunciation lexica. The disadvantage of grapheme-based modeling might be limited scalability to low-resource situations. Phoneme-based modeling on the other hand easily enables adaptation to new pronunciations or inclusion of words with uncommon pronunciations [28]. These output-label modeling alternatives therefore provide a tradeoff between simplicity, flexibility, and controllability.

Hybrid neural network (NN) - hidden Markov models (HMMs) [29, 30] usually operate on context-dependent phonemes [31, 32], although it has been shown that they can also work on context-dependent graphemes [33–36]. Due to the resulting combinatorial complexity, phonemes (graphemes) in context usually are clustered via classification and regression trees (CART) [37, 38].

All end-to-end models easily allow for phoneme-based labels as well, although in most cases that requires a more complex decoder like a weighted finite-state transducer (WFST) decoder [39], and a pronunciation lexicon. Phoneme-based CTC models (context-independent or clustered context-dependent) [25,40,41] usually perform better than grapheme-based CTC models, just as hybrid NN-HMMs. Phoneme-based encoder-decoder-attention models [39, 42–45] have shown mixed results so far – in most cases the performance was slightly worse than grapheme-based attention models, or only the combination of both helped. More recently also phoneme-based RNN-T-like models [46, 47] were studied, although it is unclear whether pure phoneme-based RNN-T models perform better than pure grapheme-based models.

Subwords based on phonemes, like phoneme-BPE, was only studied so far by [44], which is a hybrid CTC / attention model [48]. They use multiple LMs in decoding: a phoneme-BPE LM and a word LM.

In this work, we perform a systematic comparison of grapheme-based and phoneme-based output labels with an encoder-decoder-attention model.

2. VARIATION OF LABEL UNITS

We want to perform a systematic study of the difference between phonemes, graphemes, subwords based on phonemes or graphemes, and whole words. In this work, we focus on
attention-based encoder-decoder models. We note that the results of such label unit study will likely look different depending on the type of model. E.g. subwords and words can possibly have variations in their observed audio lengths, which might be less of a problem for label-synchronous models but more a problem for time-synchronous models. For hybrid NN-HMMs or CTC models, we also know that clustered context-dependent labels help a lot [36, 38], while models with label feedback such as RNN-T and encoder-decoder already cover the (left) context. Hybrid NN-HMMs also usually split the phonemes into begin-middle-end states. As we perform the experiments with an encoder-decoder-attention model which is label-synchronous and auto-regressive, we also have the end-of-sentence (EOS) token in our vocabulary.

In case of a time-synchronous model, we possibly would add a blank label (like for CTC or RNN-T), or maybe repetition symbols (as in the Auto Segmentation Criterion (ASG) [49]), or a silence label (for hybrid NN-HMMs). It also might make sense to add noise or unknown labels (e.g. as in [39]).

The label units which we are going to compare are:

- Phonemes
  - Single phonemes
  - Single phonemes + end-of-word (EOW) symbol
  - Single phonemes + word-end-phones (#)
  - Phoneme-BPE
- Graphemes (characters)
  - Single characters + whitespace
  - Char-BPE
- Whole words
- Phoneme-BPE is simply the application of BPE on phoneme sequences. We generate the phoneme BPE codes by taking a single pronunciation for each word (the most likely as defined by the lexicon) for all the transcriptions. The same phoneme sequence is also used for training. The end-of-word (EOW) symbol for phonemes is similar as white-space character for grapheme-based models. Others [39, 42] have observed that the EOW symbol can be helpful for phoneme models. We follow [50] to evaluate another variant for single phonemes where for each phoneme label \( x \), we add another label with word-end-phone marker "#" yielding "\( x \# \)". This will make the vocab. size twice larger.

For phoneme-based models, we need a lexicon for the mapping of phonemes to words. But then there are cases where a phoneme sequence can be mapped to multiple possible words (homophones). E.g. the word "T" and "eye" both have the same pronunciation consisting of the phoneme sequence "ay". To be able to discriminate between "T" and "eye", usually an external language model on word-level is used. Alternatively, we can also add special word-disambiguate symbols to the labels (the phoneme inventory), in such a way that we can always uniquely discriminate between all words. We go through the pronunciation lexicon and collect all phoneme sequences which can not be uniquely mapped to words. For all these phoneme sequences, we add special symbols $1$ to $N$. For example "ay $8$" → "eye", "ay $9$" → "I", . . . , "r eh d $2$" → "read", "r eh d $3$" → "red". These word-disambiguate symbols allow for decoding without an external language model, and also allows us to use our simplified decoder implementation. It also might improve the performance as the model has now the power to discriminate between words. Note that this scheme of adding these symbols does not allow for an easy extension of the lexicon for further homophones after we trained the model.

3. MODEL

We use an encoder-decoder-attention model [51, 52]. Our encoder consists of 6 layers of bidirectional long short-term memory (LSTM) [53] networks with time-downsampling via max-pooling by factor 6. Our decoder is a single layer LSTM network with global attention. We use SpecAugment [4] for on-the-fly data augmentation. For further details, please refer to our earlier work [3, 5], which is exactly the same model, except for the variations of the output label.

3.1. Training

We maximize the log-likelihood \( \log p(y_1^T|x_1^T) \), for target sequences \( y_1^T \) and input feature sequences \( x_1^T \) over the training dataset. We always have a single ground-truth target sequence. In the case of phonemes, we reduce the lexicon to contain only a single pronunciation per word, and thus this becomes unique. This is a simplification, which we only do for training, not for decoding.

3.2. Decoding

Our simplified decoder performs beam search over the labels with a fixed beam size (e.g. 12 hypotheses) without any restrictions (i.e. it allows any possible label sequence). Our simplified decoder allows for log-linear combination with a LM on the same label-level (e.g. phone-BPE) but not with word-level LM. After we find a label sequence with this simplified beam search, we map it to words. In case of BPE, we first do BPE merging. In case of phonemes with word-disambiguate symbols, we try to lookup the corresponding word (which is unique because of the word-disambiguate symbols), or replace it by some UNK symbol if not found. That way, we eventually end up with a sequence of words.

Our advanced decoder performs prefix-tree search based on a lexicon. This lexicon defines the mapping between words and corresponding phoneme or grapheme label sequences. The resulting lexical tree restricts the search to possible label sequences from the lexicon. It also allows log-linear combination with a word-level LM. The LM score is applied to a hypothesized path whenever it reaches a word-end. Optionally, LM lookahead can also be applied to incorporate the LM score into the tree for a more robust search. The standard beam pruning using a fixed beam size is applied at each search step. Finally, the decoded best path directly gives the recognized word sequence.
4. EXPERIMENTS

We use RETURNN [54]. The advanced decoder is implemented as part of RASR [55], while the simplified decoder is implemented within RETURNN. All our config files and code to reproduce these experiments can be found online1.

4.1. Switchboard 300h

We perform experiments on the Switchboard 300h English telephone speech corpus [56]. We use Hub5’00 as a development set, which consists of both Switchboard (SWB) and CallHome (CH), and Hub5’01 as a test set.

During training, because of GPU memory constraints, we filter out too long sequences based on a threshold on the target sequence length. The length of the target sequences varies depending on the labels unit, e.g. a sequence of phonemes can be much longer than with grapheme-BPEs. Thus, to have a fair comparison, we set the maximum allowed target sequence length for all label units individually such that we drop the same amount of training utterances (0.35% are dropped).

We collect our experiments with our simplified decoder without LM in Table 1. The simplified decoder can only produce reasonable results if the label units allow for word disambiguations, such as in the case of graphemes, but also for phonemes with added word-disambiguate symbols. We find that BPE subwords perform much better than single units and also better than whole words, both for phonemes and graphemes. In later experiments with the advanced decoder, where the search is restricted to valid sequences from the lexicon, we will see that single phoneme units perform much better. Moreover, word-end-phones perform better than EOW symbol, which is also different with the advanced decoder. For grapheme-BPE, BPE-534 model seems to perform best whereas for phoneme-BPE, both BPE-592 and BPE-1k models are comparable. Note that the num. of labels has an impact on the training time, due to the softmax output layer, and different output sequence lengths. Single (EOW) phoneme training is 10-20% relatively slower than BPEs or whole words.

We compare different decoding variants in Table 2. Our advanced decoder restricts the search to only label sequences which occur in the lexicon, including only the BPE splits seen during training, in contrast to the simplified decoder, which does not have this restriction. We see that in the case of single phone or grapheme labels, i.e. where we have a weaker model, the restriction on the lexicon by the advanced decoder is significantly helpful (consistent with [10]) while it is hurtful for the BPE variants, esp. in the case of phoneme-BPE. We also see that the word-level LM improves the performance in all cases (as expected).

We study the effect of the word-disambiguate symbols for phoneme-based models in Table 3. We find that the word-disambiguate symbols seem to be hurtful. We are still careful in drawing conclusions from this, as this might be due to the specific variant of how we added such symbols.

1https://github.com/rwth-i6/returnn-experiments/tree/master/2020-phone-bpe-attention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labels</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>#Num</th>
<th>WER[%]</th>
<th>SWB</th>
<th>CH</th>
<th>Σ</th>
<th>Σ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grapheme</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>35k</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>126</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>176</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>534</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td><strong>15.3</strong></td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1k</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2k</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5k</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10k</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20k</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>30k</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. LibriSpeech 960h

Furthermore, we conduct experiments on the LibriSpeech 960h corpus [59]. All models are trained for 13 epochs. Our results are in Table 4. Consistent with [39], having EOW helps. In this setting, we observe that word-end-phones are worse, in contrast to the simplified decoder without restriction from the lexicon.

Finally, we compare our results to other results from the literature in Table 5. We observe that many other works train for much longer, and that seems to lead to yet better results. Our phoneme-based models perform slightly better than our final grapheme-based models, although they are very close.

5. CONCLUSIONS

We compared phoneme-based labels vs. grapheme-based labels for attention-based encoder-decoder models and found their performance to be similar – the phoneme-based models are slightly better on the smaller Switchboard corpora, but worse on the LibriSpeech corpora. We also compared single
Table 2: Decoding comparison on Switchboard 300h. All phoneme models here have word-disambiguate symbols. Single phoneme is with EOW symbol. Single grapheme is with whitespace. All with beam size 12 and the optional LSTM LM is on word-level. The advanced decoder is also restricted on the lexicon and the unique greedy BPE-split.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labels</th>
<th>Decoder</th>
<th>WER(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SWB</td>
<td>Hub5'00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hub5'01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phon.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single (EOW)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Simplified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LSTM</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPE-592</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LSTM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graph.</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Simplified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LSTM</td>
<td>Advanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPE-534</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LSTM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Studying word-disambiguate symbols on Switchboard 300h by comparing different phoneme variants. All with word-level LSTM LM, and the advanced decoder.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phoneme Labels</th>
<th>Beam size</th>
<th>WER(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>#Num</td>
<td>Disamb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single (EOW)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPE</td>
<td>592</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>588</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Comparing end-of-word (EOW) and word-end-phones variant for single phonemes. WER is on Hub5’00. All results are with word-level LM and advanced decoder, beam size 32, without word disambiguate symbols.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variant</th>
<th>#Num</th>
<th>WER(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No EOW</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOW</td>
<td>48</td>
<td><strong>14.4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word-end-phones (#)</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Comparing results from the literature on Switchboard 300h. One big difference in varying results is the different amount of training time (number of epochs). *no train seq. len. filter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>#Ep</th>
<th>LM</th>
<th>WER(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SWB</td>
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<tr>
<td>[32] Phon.</td>
<td>CART</td>
<td>4.5k</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>13.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>[5] Graph.</td>
<td>BPE</td>
<td>1k</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>[5]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[58]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4k</td>
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<td>[44]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2k</td>
</tr>
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<td>[6]</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>500</td>
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<td>[4]</td>
<td>WPM</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>No</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours</td>
<td>Graph</td>
<td>BPE</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phon.</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPE</td>
<td>588</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ours*</td>
<td>BPE</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>760</td>
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<td>7.2</td>
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</table>

Table 6: Comparing models with different label units on LibriSpeech 960h. All phoneme models are without word-disambiguate symbols. All with word-level LSTM LM, and the advanced decoder.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labels</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>#Num</th>
<th>dev</th>
<th>clean</th>
<th>other</th>
<th>clean</th>
<th>other</th>
<th>WER(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phoneme</td>
<td>Single (#)</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>5k</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPE</td>
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<td>10k</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>9.31</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20k</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>9.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grapheme</td>
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<td>5k</td>
<td>3.35</td>
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<td>9.48</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10k</td>
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<td>8.32</td>
<td>3.59</td>
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<td>20k</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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</table>

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