Abstract

This paper describes the ON-TRAC Consortium translation systems developed for two challenge tracks featured in the Evaluation Campaign of IWSLT 2022: low-resource and dialect speech translation. For the Tunisian Arabic-English dataset (low-resource and dialect tracks), we build an end-to-end model as our joint primary submission, and compare it against cascaded models that leverage a large fine-tuned wav2vec 2.0 model for ASR. Our results show that in our settings pipeline approaches are still very competitive, and that with the use of transfer learning, they can outperform end-to-end models for speech translation (ST). For the Tamasheq-French dataset (low-resource track) our primary submission leverages intermediate representations from a wav2vec 2.0 model trained on 234 hours of Tamasheq audio, while our contrastive model uses a French phonetic transcription of the Tamasheq audio as input in a Conformer speech translation architecture jointly trained on automatic speech recognition, ST and machine translation losses. Our results highlight that self-supervised models trained on smaller sets of target data are more effective to low-resource end-to-end ST fine-tuning, compared to large off-the-shelf models. Results also illustrate that even approximate phonetic transcriptions can improve ST scores.

1 Introduction

The vast majority of speech pipelines are developed for and in high-resource languages, a small percentage of languages for which there is a large amount of annotated data freely available (Joshi et al., 2020). However, the assessment of systems’ performance only on high-resource settings can be problematic because it fails to reflect the real-world performance these approaches will have in diverse and smaller datasets.

In this context, the IWSLT 2022 (Anastasopoulos et al., 2022) proposes two interesting shared tasks: low-resource and dialect speech translation (ST). The former aims to assess the exploitability of current translation systems in data scarcity settings. The latter focuses on the assessment of the systems capabilities in noisy settings: different dialects are mixed in a single dataset of spontaneous speech. For the low-resource task, this year’s language pairs are: Tamasheq-French and Tunisian Arabic-English. The latter is also used, in constrained conditions, for the dialect task.

This paper reports the ON-TRAC consortium submissions for the mentioned tasks. The ON-TRAC Consortium is composed of researchers from three French academic laboratories, LIA (Avignon University), LIUM (Le Mans University) and LIG (University Grenoble Alpes), together with two industrial partners: Airbus France and ELYDATA. Our systems for the dialect task focus on the comparison between cascaded and end-to-end approaches for ST. For the low-resource task, we focus on the leveraging of models based on self-supervised learning (SSL), and on the training of ST models with joint automatic speech recognition (ASR), machine translation (MT) and ST losses.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the related work. The experiments with the Tunisian Arabic-English dataset for low-resource and dialect ST tasks are presented in Section 3. Results for the Tamasheq-French dataset for the low-resource track are presented in Section 4. Section 5 concludes this work.

2 Related work

Before the introduction of direct or end-to-end ST models (Berard et al., 2016; Weiss et al., 2017), the ST task was approached as a cascaded problem: the speech is transcribed using an ASR model, and the transcriptions are used to train a classic MT model. The limitations of this approach include the need for extensive transcriptions of the speech
signal, and the error propagation between ASR and MT modules. In comparison to that, end-to-end ST models propose a simpler encoder-decoder architecture, removing the need for intermediate representations of the speech signal. Although at first, cascaded models were superior in performance compared to end-to-end models, results from recent IWSLT campaigns illustrate how end-to-end models have been closing this gap (Ansari et al., 2020; Bentivogli et al., 2021; Anastasopoulos et al., 2021). Moreover, the joint optimization of ASR, MT and ST losses in end-to-end ST models was shown to increase overall performance (Le et al., 2020; Sperber et al., 2020).

SSL models for speech processing are now a popular foundation blocks in speech pipelines (Schneider et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021; Baevski et al., 2019, 2020). These models are large trainable networks with millions, or even billions (Babu et al., 2021), of parameters that are trained on unlabeled audio data only. The goal of training these models is providing a powerful and reusable abstraction block, which is able to process raw audio in a given language or in multilingual settings (Conneau et al., 2020; Babu et al., 2021), producing a richer audio representation for the downstream tasks to train with, compared to surface features such as MFCCs or filterbanks. Recent work found considerable performance gains and/or state-of-the-art performance by including these blocks in their target tasks, and more importantly, the final models can be trained with a smaller amount of labeled data, increasing the accessibility of current approaches for speech processing (Kawakami et al., 2020; Schneider et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021; Baevski et al., 2019, 2020).

3 Tunisian Arabic-English Experiments

In this section we present our experiments for translating Tunisian Arabic to English in the context of the dialect and low-resource tasks from IWSLT 2022. Section 3.1 describes the data used in our experiments.

We investigate two types of ST architectures: end-to-end architectures (Section 3.3), and pipeline models (Section 3.2). For the latter, we include the obtained ASR results. For both, results on the ST tasks are presented in Section 3.4.

3.1 Data

The Tunisian Arabic dataset (LDC2022E01) use in our experiments was developed and provided by LDC to the IWSLT 2022 participants. It comprises 383 h of Tunisian conversational speech with manual transcripts, from which 160 h are also translated into English. Thus, it is a three-way parallel corpus (audio, transcript, translation). This LDC data constitutites basic condition of the dialect task. Arabic dialects are the informal form of communication in the everyday life in the Arabic world. Tunisian Arabic is one of several Arabic dialects: there is no standard written Arabic form for this language that is shared by all Tunisian speakers. Nevertheless, the transcripts of Tunisian conversations of the LDC2022E01 Tunisian Arabic dataset follow the rules of the Tunisian Arabic CODA – Conventional Orthography for Dialectal Arabic.

For the dialect adaptation condition, we use in addition to the LDC2022E01 dataset, the MGB2 dataset (Ali et al., 2016), which is composed of 1,200 h of broadcast news audio recordings in modern standard Arabic (MSA) from Aljazeera TV programs. These recordings are associated to captions with no timing information: they are not verbatim of the speech content, and can be an approximation. The MGB2 dataset also contains the automatic transcriptions generated by the Qatar Computing Research Institute (QCRI) ASR system. This external dataset is used for training our ASR systems.

3.2 Pipeline ST

For our pipeline ST models, we experiment with two different ASR architectures, presented in Section 3.2.1. We also train two MT models, presented in Section 3.2.2.

3.2.1 ASR system

End-to-end ASR model. Our end-to-end ASR system is implemented on the SpeechBrain toolkit (Ravanelli et al., 2021). It is composed of a wav2vec 2.0 module, a 1024-dimension dense hidden layer with a Leaky ReLU activation function, and a softmax output layer. The weights of the wav2vec 2.0 module were initialized from the XLSR-53 model released by Meta (Conneau et al., 2020). The CTC loss function (Graves et al., 2006) was used during the training process, and two different instances of Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2015) optimizers were used to manage the weight updates.
one dedicated to the wav2vec 2.0 module, the other one to the two additional layers. The output of the end-to-end model is based on characters.

The training of our model is separated in two stages. First, we train an end-to-end ASR model in MSA using the MGB2 data. To process this data, we used a dictionary of 95 characters (i.e. 95-dimensional output layer). Among the 1,200 h of speech associated to captions and automatic transcripts in the MGB2 dataset, we keep only the audio segments for which the captions and the automatic transcripts are strictly the same. This corresponds to roughly 820 h of speech.

Once our model in standard Arabic is trained, we use it to initialize our final Tunisian Arabic ASR model. The architecture is kept the same, excluding the 34-dimensional output layer, and we randomly reinitialise the weights of the 2 last layers. In other words, we keep only the weights of the ASR MGB2 fine-tuned wav2vec 2.0 model, performing transfer learning from MSA to Tunisian Arabic. We then train the end-to-end ASR model on the Tunisian audio data of the LDC2022E01 dataset and its normalized transcription. Lastly, we train a 5-gram language model (LM) on the normalized transcriptions.

**Hybrid HMM/TDNN ASR system.** In addition to the end-to-end ASR system described above, we train a Kaldi-based system (Povey et al., 2011). The acoustic model uses chain models with the TDNN architecture and 40-dimensional high-resolution MFCCs extracted from frames of 25 ms length and 10 ms shift, applying usual data augmentation methods: speed perturbation at rates of 0.9, 1.0, and 1.1, and spectral augmentation. We employ a graphemic lexicon of 88k words, and we use a 3-gram LM built using the SRILM toolkit (Stolcke, 2002) with the Kneser-Ney smoothing. This 3-gram LM is trained using the transcripts of the training set and the vocabulary covering all the words of the graphemic lexicon.

**ASR performance.** Tunisian Arabic ASR results for 3 different models are presented in Table 1. The primary system is the end-to-end ASR model described above, without LM rescoring. The second row presents the result for the hybrid HMM/TDNN system. Due to its lower performance on the validation data in comparison to the end-to-end system, we decided to not submit this system. The last row presents the results for the end-to-end ASR with the 5-gram LM, a post-evaluation result.

### Table 1: Results for Tunisian Arabic ASR systems in terms of WER. Submissions to the low-resource track.

| System           | Description        | valid  | test  |
|------------------|--------------------|--------|-------|
| primary          | E2E w/o LM         | 41.1   | 45.1  |
| not submitted    | HMM/TDNN           | 50.3   | -     |
| post-evaluation  | E2E + 5-gram       | 38.3   | 41.5  |

3.2.2 MT model

We train two MT models using the *fairseq* toolkit (Ott et al., 2019). The first model (contrastive1) is an bi-LSTM model from Luong et al. (2015), trained using the lstm luong wmt en de recipe. Both encoder and decoder consists of 4 LSTM layers, and the input is at the sub-word level using a BPE vocabulary of 8,000 units, trained on the target language.

The second model (contrastive2) is a fully convolutional model following the fconv wmt en fr sequence-to-sequence architecture from Gehring et al. (2017). It consists of 15 encoder and decoder layers, working on the sub-word level with input and output vocabularies of 4,000 BPE units.

3.3 End-to-end ST

The end-to-end ST model is a Conformer model (Gulati et al., 2020) based on the *Espnet* toolkit (Watanabe et al., 2018). This system is trained using 80-channel log-mel filterbank features computed on a 25 ms window with a 10 ms shift. We also use speed perturbation at rate 0.9, 1.0, 1.1 and SpecAugment (Park et al., 2019) with 2 frequency masks and 5 time masks. In addition, a global Cepstral Mean and Variance Normalization (CMVN) technique is applied on the top of our features.

Our Conformer model consists of a 6-block Conformer encoder and a 6-block Transformer decoder. We use 1,000 BPE as the modeling units. The model is trained for 100 epochs and the last 10 best checkpoints are averaged to create the final model.
Table 2: Results for Tunisian Arabic to English translation systems in terms of %BLEU for low-resource (LR) and dialect (D) tracks.

| System            | Track | Description | valid | test  |
|-------------------|-------|-------------|-------|-------|
| primary           | LR/D  | End-to-end  | 12.2  | 12.4  |
| contrastive1      | LR    | Cascade     | 15.1  | 13.6  |
| contrastive2      | LR    | Cascade     | 12.8  | 11.3  |
| post-evaluation   | LR    | Cascade     | 16.0  | 14.4  |

3.4 Results

Table 2 presents our ST results for dialect and low-resource tracks. Our primary system for both tracks is the end-to-end system presented in Section 3.3. The two pipeline systems, contrastive1 and contrastive2, are composed by the end-to-end ASR model, and they vary on the MT model used (presented in Section 3.2.2). Since ASR models use external data (MGB2), these submissions are for the low-resource track only. Finally, the post-evaluation model is the composition of the post-evaluation end-to-end ASR model from Section 3.2.1, and the MT model from contrastive1.

We observe that our cascaded models are very competitive compared against our end-to-end model (primary submission): our best ST result is obtained using the contrastive1. The post-evaluation model, which adds an 5-gram LM on the end-to-end ASR module, achieves even better scores. We believe that part of the reason this model is effective is the addition of the data in MSA from the MGB2 dataset, that is used to pre-train the end-to-end ASR model. Thus, the comparison between our cascaded and end-to-end models is not exactly fair, as out end-to-end model is trained on less data.

Moreover, we would like to highlight that although this dataset is offered as part of the low-resource track, we do not consider this setting to be one of data scarcity: 160 h of translated speech are available. We do, however, find this dataset to be extremely complex to work with. That is because there are multiple regional dialects from Tunisia mixed in the data, which makes the ST task harder. These regional dialects differ mainly on their accent, but sometimes also in terms of vocabulary and expression.

Nonetheless, we find that the real challenge for processing this data comes from its nature. This dataset is a collection of telephonic conversations, where the acoustic conditions can be sometimes very challenging: some phone calls are made from mobile phones in very noisy environments, and sometimes some portions of audio recordings are saturated because of sudden high audio input gain.

By computing the WER on each audio recording in the validation set using our best ASR model, we observe that the lowest one achieved is 18.3%, while the highest one is 88.5%. Thus, we achieve a global WER of 38.3% (post-evaluation in Table 1), with a standard deviation is 12.3%. This illustrates the high variability in terms of audio quality that might exist in this dataset.

4 Tamasheq-French Experiments

In this section we present our experiments for the Tamasheq-French dataset in the context of the low-resource ST track. This dataset, recently introduced in Boito et al. (2022), contains 17 h of speech in the Tamasheq language, which corresponds to 5,829 utterances translated to French. Additional audio data was also made available through the Niger-Mali audio collection: 224 h in Tamasheq and 417 h in geographically close languages (French from Niger, Fulfulde, Hausa, and Zarma). For all this data, the speech style is radio broadcasting, and the dataset presents no transcription.

Our experiments are separated in two different investigation branches:

1. The exploitation of SSL wav2vec 2.0 models (Baevski et al., 2020) for low-resource direct speech-to-text translation;
2. The production of approximate phonetic transcriptions for attenuating the challenge of training in low-resource settings.

We start by presenting the models proposed for the first branch: the SSL models pre-trained and/or fine-tuned for Tamasheq in Section 4.1, the pipeline experiments that use wav2vec 2.0 models as feature extractors in Section 4.2, and our primary system, an end-to-end architecture that directly fine-tunes a wav2vec 2.0 model, in Section 4.3. Section 4.4 focuses on the second branch of experiments, presenting our contrastive model that is...
based on the joint optimization of ASR, MT and ST losses. This is made possible by the use of a French ASR system for generating an approximated phonetic transcription of the Tamashq audio. In Section 4.5, we present and discuss our results, and lastly, Section 4.6 describes some less-successful experiments.

4.1 SSL models

Pre-trained models. We train two wav2vec 2.0 base models using the Niger-Mali audio collection. The Tamasheq-only model uses the 224 h in Tamashq, and the Niger-Mali model uses all the data available: 641 h in five languages. Additionally, we include in the training data for both models the 19 h present in the full release of the Tamashq-French corpus. Therefore, both models are pre-trained on the target data. For training them, we use the same hyperparameters from the original wav2vec 2.0, as well as the original fairseq (Ott et al., 2019) implementation. These models are trained until 500k updates on 16 Nvidia Tesla V100 (32GB), and they are available for download at HuggingFace.

Fine-tuned models. We experiment with the 7K large French wav2vec 2.0 model (LB-FR-7K) from the LeBenchmark (Evain et al., 2021b), and the multilingual XLSR-53 (Conneau et al., 2020). Both models are fine-tuned on the 243 h of Tamashq (224 h +19 h) for approximately 20k updates on 4 Nvidia Tesla V100 (32GB). Finally, using the Tamashq-only model, we also experiment fine-tuning it for the ASR task in MSA (primary ASR model from Section 3.2).

4.2 Pipeline SSL+ST models

Our models are very close to the recipe for low-resource ST from wav2vec 2.0 features described in Evain et al. (2021a). We use the fairseq s2t toolkit (Wang et al., 2020) for training an end-to-end ST Transformer model (Vaswani et al., 2017) with 4 heads, dimensionality of 256, inner projection of 1,024, 6 encoder and 3 encoder layers. The Transformer is preceded by a 1D convolutional layer (k=5, stride=2) for down-projecting the wav2vec 2.0 large (1,024) or base (768) features into the Transformer input dimensionality. These models are trained for 500 epochs using the Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2015) with 10k warm-up steps. For decoding, we use beam search with a beam size of 5. For these models and the ones from Section 4.3, we generate a 1k unigram vocabulary for the French text using Sentencepiece (Kudo and Richardson, 2018), with no pre-tokenization.

Lastly, we include baseline results that replace wav2vec 2.0 features by 80-dimensional mel filterbank (MFB) features. In this setting, the CNN preceding the transformer encoder is identical from the one in Evain et al. (2021a).

4.3 End-to-end SSL+ST models

Training an end-to-end ST model from a pre-trained speech encoder was first proposed in Li et al. (2021). In this work, our end-to-end ST model is similar to the end-to-end ASR model presented in Section 3.2.1. It is also implemented on SpeechBrain, and it comprises a wav2vec 2.0 as speech encoder, followed by a linear projection, and the Transformer Decoder from Section 4.2. The weights for the wav2vec 2.0 speech encoder are initialized from one of the models in Section 4.2, and the model is trained on the NLL loss. As in Section 3.2, two different instances of the Adam optimizer manage the weight updates: one dedicated to the wav2vec 2.0 module, the other one to the following layers.

Inspired by the layer-wise investigation for wav2vec 2.0 models described in Pasad et al. (2021), we explore reducing the number of layers in the Transformer encoder that is internal to the wav2vec 2.0 module. This is based on their finding that the Transformer encoder behaves in an auto-encoder fashion and therefore, the intermediate representations might contain a higher level of abstraction from the speech signal. In their work, they show that re-initializing the weights of the final Transformer Encoder layers increases performance in ASR fine-tuning.

Different from that, we propose to remove these layers altogether, which we believe is beneficial for low-resource ST fine-tuning for two reasons. First, a reduced wav2vec 2.0 module will still have considerable capacity for encoding the speech, and second, this reduction in number of trainable parameters might facilitate training.

For implementing this model, we simply drop the N final encoder layers from our training graph, keeping the final projection. We refer to this architecture as W2V-N+ST, where N is the number
of layers, starting from the first, kept during ST training.

4.4 End-to-end ASR+ST models

We investigate a ST architecture that jointly optimizes ST, MT and ASR losses, as in Le et al. (2020). For this evaluation campaign however, no Tamashq transcript nor phonetic transcription was provided, so we create an approximate phonetic transcription (Section 4.4.1) that we use in our end-to-end joint system for ST (Section 4.4.2).

4.4.1 Phonetic transcription for Tamashq

The Tamashq is a Tuareg language spoken by around 500 thousand speakers, mainly from northern Mali. Its phonological system contains 5 vowels (+2 short vowels) and approximately 21 consonants if we ignore the 6 consonants of Arabic origin that are of marginal use (mostly for loanwords) (Heath, 2005). This leads to a set of 26 phonemes. Almost all of those phonemes appear to occur in French, which contains 36 phonemes, 16 vowels, 17 consonants and 3 glides.

This motivates to use a phonetizer pretrained on French in order to “transcribe” the Tamashq signal into a sequence of pseudo-Tamashq phonemes. A phonetic force alignment using a pre-trained Kaldi (Povey et al., 2011) chain-TDNN acoustic model was used, followed by an ASR system trained using ESPNet (Watanabe et al., 2018). The model is trained on MFB features, and it uses 12 blocks of Conformer (Gulati et al., 2020) encoders, followed by 6 blocks of Transformer decoders. It uses a hybrid loss between attention mechanism and CTC (Graves et al., 2006).

The French corpus is composed of approximately 200 h coming from ESTER1&2 (Galliano et al., 2009), REPERE (Giraudeau et al., 2012) and VERA (Goryainova et al., 2014). No LM was used, and the phoneme error rate achieved on the ESTER2 test corpus is of 7.7% (silences are not ignored).

We highlight that there is no simple automatic way to evaluate the quality of the phonetic transcriptions we generated on Tamashq. We however, manually verified some transcriptions and confirmed that they seemed to be of overall good quality.

Table 3: Results for the pipeline and end-to-end (E2E) Tamashq-French ST systems in terms of %BLEU score. The first two rows present our submitted systems, while the remainder are complementary post-evaluation results.

| System          | Description               | valid | test |
|-----------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
| **primary**     | E2E, W2V-6+ST             | 8.34  | 5.70 |
| **contrastive** | E2E, ASR+ST               | 6.40  | 5.04 |
| contrastive2    | pipeline, W2V-ASR+ST      | 3.62  | 3.17 |
| contrastive3    | pipeline, W2V-FT+ST       | 2.94  | 2.57 |
| baseline        | pipeline                  | 2.22  | 1.80 |

4.4.2 Architecture

The system is based on the ESPNet2 (Inaguma et al., 2020) ST recipe. This end-to-end model is made of 12 blocks of conformer encoders (hidden size of dimension 1024), followed by 3 blocks of transformer decoders (hidden size of dimension 2048). Input features are 512-dimensional MFB features extracted from the wave signal.

Three losses are jointly used for training, as described in Equation 1. There, $L_{ST}$ is the loss for Tamashq speech to French text translation; $L_{MT}$ is the loss for Tamashq pseudo-phonetic transcription to French text translation; and $L_{ASR}$ is the loss for Tamashq speech to Tamashq pseudo-phonetic transcription.

$$L = 0.3 \times L_{ST} + 0.5 \times L_{MT} + 0.2 \times L_{ASR}$$ (1)

4.5 Results

Results are presented in Table 3. Our primary submission (W2V-6+ST) uses the Tamashq-only wav2vec 2.0 base model, with only 6 transformer encoder layers (from a total of 12). Results with different numbers of layers are present in the Appendix A.1. Our contrastive submission is the end-to-end model from Section 4.4. Finally, the three last rows present complementary results, including a baseline trained on MFB features, and two pipeline models. The contrastive2 uses the Tamashq-only wav2vec 2.0 model fine-tuned for the Arabic ASR task from Section 3.2 as feature extractor, while contrastive3 extracts features from the Niger-Mali wav2vec 2.0 base model fine-tuned on Tamashq. Other pipeline SSL+ST models achieved lower scores, and their results are grouped in Appendix A.2.

8https://github.com/espnet/espnet/tree/master/espnet2/st
Looking at our results, and concentrating on SSL models, we notice that models that use wav2vec 2.0 as feature extractor (contrastive2 and contrastive3) achieve better performance compared to a baseline using MFB features. However, this finding does not hold for the wav2vec 2.0 large models fine-tuned on Tamaseq (XLSR-53 and LB-FR-7K), which scored as poorly as our baseline (results in Appendix A.2). We find this result surprising, especially in the case of the multilingual model (XLSR-53). This could mean that these large models are not useful as feature extractors for low-resource settings, even after task-agnostic fine-tuning on the target language.

Regarding the fine-tuning procedure, as in Evain et al. (2021a), we notice that ASR fine-tuning is more beneficial to ST than task-agnostic fine-tuning: contrastive2 achieves better scores compared to contrastive3. We find this result interesting, considering that the ASR fine-tuning performed in this case did not targeted Tamaseq, but MSA. This could mean that, when languages are sufficiently similar, ASR fine-tuning in a different language could be performed for increasing the performance on a low-resource language without transcripts.

Regarding our primary system, we found better results by reducing the amount of trainable encoder layers inside the wav2vec 2.0 module. We also investigated freezing it partially or entirely during end-to-end ST training, but this resulted in performance decrease in the validation set.

Regarding the different wav2vec 2.0 models trained (Section 4.1), and focusing on our primary model, we find that similar to pipeline SSL+ST models, we achieved our best results with base architectures (Tamaseq-only and Niger-Mali). Close seconds to the performance obtained with our primary model (on the validation set) were the models using the same wav2vec 2.0 modules from contrastive2 and contrastive3.

These results indicate that having a dedicated wav2vec 2.0 model trained on the target or on close languages is indeed better than fine-tuning large monolingual (LB-FR-7K) or multilingual (XLSR-53) models. This is particularly interesting considering that the Tamaseq-only model is trained with only 234 h of speech, whereas XLSR-53 learned from approximately 56 thousand of hours. We believe that more investigation is necessary in order to confirm the observed trend. Finally, we find the gap between the primary’s performance in validation and test sets surprising, and we intend to investigate this further as well.

Concluding, the contrastive model we propose in our submission presents a different approach for low-resource ST. By creating an approximate transcription of the Tamaseq audio, we are able to train more effectively, reaching a performance close to our primary model for the test set. This illustrates how transcriptions can be an effective form of increasing performance in low-resource settings, even when these are automatically generated. A possible extension of this work would be the combination of our primary and contrastive models: by inserting the primary’s wav2vec 2.0 speech encoder into the training framework from the contrastive model, one can hypothesize that we could achieve even better scores.

4.6 Other Approaches

XLS-R ST model. During development, we tried to apply XLS-R for translation (Babu et al., 2021), using the implementation available on the HuggingFace. In this approach, we aimed to use the pre-trained model, that is trained on 21 source languages with one target language (English), called wav2vec2-xls-r-300m-21-to-en to first translate the Tamaseq validation set to English. Then, as a second step, to translate the English system output to French. However, we observed that the decoder, based on a mBART (Liu et al., 2020), repeated several groups of tokens during decoding of up to hundreds of times. For example, the phrase: “the sun was shining in the sky” for the sentence: “In the evening, the sun was shining in the sky, and the sun was shining in the sky...” was repeated 32 times. This illustrates that out-of-shelf models can still fail to provide decent results in zero-shot settings.

ST fine-tuning for large wav2vec 2.0 models. All end-to-end models described in Section 4.3 are trained on a single Nvidia Tesla V100 (32GB). This limited our investigation using large wav2vec 2.0 models, since these only fit in this size of GPU after extreme reduction of the decoder network. Therefore, we find difficult to assess if the inferior performance of these large end-to-end models is

9By close we mean: (1) languages that are geographically close and with a known degree of lexical borrowing; (2) similar speech style and recording settings.

10https://huggingface.co/facebook/wav2vec2-xls-r-300m-21-to-en
due to the architecture size, or due to the speech representation produced by the wav2vec 2.0 models. In any case, reducing the number of encoder layers, and freezing some of the initial ones, resulted in better performance. The attained scores were however still inferior compared to pipeline models.

5 Conclusion

In this paper we presented our results for two IWSLT 2022 tasks: dialect and low-resource ST. Focusing on the Tunisian Arabic-English dataset (dialect and low-resource tasks), we trained an end-to-end ST model as primary submission for both tasks, and contrastive cascaded models that used external data in MSA for the low-resource track. Our cascaded models turned out to outperform slightly our end-to-end model, which we believe might be due to the additional 820h of data in MSA that was used to pre-train our end-to-end ASR model. Finally, we observe a considerable variability in our ASR results, hinting that the quality of this dataset might be mixed.

Our experiments with the Tamasheq-French dataset (low-resource task) included the training and application of wav2vec 2.0 models for ST as either feature extractors or speech encoders. We find the latter to be more beneficial: by fine-tuning half of a wav2vec 2.0 base model trained on the Tamasheq language on the ST task, we achieve our best results. Between our findings regarding the use of SSL models for low-resource ST, we highlight two interesting points: first, we find that fine-tuning wav2vec 2.0 models for the ASR task turns out to be effective even when the fine-tuning and target languages are not the same. Second, we disappointingly observe that large models perform poorly in this low-resource setting, even after fine-tuning in the target language. These last results hint that it might be more beneficial to train wav2vec 2.0 in smaller sets of unlabeled target data (or in related languages in the same speech settings) than fine-tuning massive off-the-shelf SSL models.

Concluding, we also investigated the generation of approximate transcriptions on Tamasheq by using a French ASR model. Using these transcriptions to jointly constrain an end-to-end ST model on ASR, MT and ST losses, we achieved our second best reported results. This illustrates that even automatically generated approximate transcriptions can reduce the challenge of performing ST in low-resource settings.

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A Tamasheq-French Experiments

A.1 ST fine-tuning from intermediate layers

| # layers | valid | test |
|----------|-------|------|
| 12 (all) | 3.68  | 2.34 |
| 11       | 4.40  | 3.21 |
| 10       | 5.96  | 4.11 |
| 9        | 7.32  | 5.40 |
| 8        | 7.64  | 5.64 |
| 7        | 8.29  | 6.00 |
| 6        | 8.34  | 5.70 |
| 5        | 7.88  | 5.13 |
| 4        | 6.54  | 4.02 |

Table 4: Post-evaluation results for the end-to-end W2V-N+ST models from Section 4.3, using different $N$ values (number of layers). All models were trained using the Tamaseq-only wav2vec 2.0 base model. Best results in bold.

A.2 Pipeline SSL+ST Results

| W2V model       | Fine-tuning | valid | test |
|-----------------|-------------|-------|------|
| LB-FR-7K        | -           | 2.36  | 1.80 |
| LB-FR-7K        | Task-agnostic | 2.48  | 1.92 |
| XLSR-53         | -           | 2.05  | 1.42 |
| XLSR-53         | Task-agnostic | 1.99  | 1.91 |
| Tamaseq-only    | -           | 2.99  | 2.42 |
| Tamaseq-only    | ASR (Arabic) | **3.62** | **3.17** |
| Niger-Mali      | -           | 2.81  | 2.68 |
| Niger-Mali      | Task-agnostic | 2.94  | 2.57 |

Table 5: Post-evaluation results for the pipeline SSL+ST models from Section 4.2. Task-agnostic corresponds to the fine-tuning on 243 h of Tamaseq, as described in Section 4.1. Best results in bold.