

TECHNICAL APPENDIX

DM-CODEC: DISTILLING MULTIMODAL REPRESENTATIONS FOR SPEECH TOKENIZATION

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A RESOURCES

We provide the code for training DM-Codec, trained model checkpoint, and Dockerfile for a reproducible code environment. The links are shared anonymously for the double-blind review process. We will publicly share all resources after the completion of the review timeline.

- **DM-Codec codebase:** Codebase
- **Trained model checkpoints for inference:** Model-checkpoints
- **Dockerfile for reproducible environment:** Docker

B MODEL COMPONENTS

Encoder Decoder. The encoder-decoder architecture in DM-Codec is based on SEANet (Tagliasacchi et al., 2020), leveraging the successful design employed in recent speech tokenization models (Zhang et al., 2024a; Défossez et al., 2022; Zeghidour et al., 2021). The architecture is designed to efficiently process and reconstruct speech signals while maintaining high fidelity. The Encoder **E** consists of a 1D convolution layer with C channels and a kernel size of 7, followed by B residual convolutional blocks. Each block contains a strided convolutional downsampling layer with kernel size K (where $K = 2S$, and S represents the stride), paired with a residual unit. The residual unit comprises two convolutional layers with a kernel size of 3 and a skip connection, while the number of channels is doubled at each downsampling stage. This is followed by a two-layer BiLSTM and a final 1D convolutional layer with D output channels and a kernel size of 7. The Decoder **D** mirrors the encoder’s structure but replaces BiLSTM with LSTM, strided convolutions with transposed convolutions, and employs reversed strides for up-sampling. The final audio output is reconstructed from **D**. For the experiments, we use the following configuration: $C = 32$, $B = 4$, and $S = (2, 4, 5, 8)$.

Residual Vector Quantizers. The Residual Vector Quantizer (RVQ) plays a central role in our tokenization process, quantizing the encoder’s outputs. Our implementation is inspired by the training procedures described in Encodec (Défossez et al., 2022) and SpeechTokenizer (Zhang et al., 2024a). The RVQ projects input vectors to the most similar entry in a codebook, and the residual is calculated and processed in subsequent quantization steps, each utilizing a different codebook. The codebook entries are updated using an *exponential moving average* (EMA) with a *decay rate* of 0.99 for the matched item, while unmatched entries are replaced by candidates from the current batch. To ensure proper gradient flow during training, we employ a *straight-through estimator*. A *commitment loss* is also computed and added to the total training loss to promote stability. In our experiments, we utilize a codebook size of 1024 and 8 quantization levels.

Discriminators. We incorporate a trio of discriminators to enhance the quality and realism of the generated speech: the Multi-Scale Discriminator (MSD), the Multi-Period Discriminator (MPD), and the Multi-Scale Short-Time Fourier Transform (MS-STFT) discriminator. The MS-STFT discriminator follows the implementation outlined in (Défossez et al., 2022), operating on the real and imaginary components of multi-scale complex-valued STFTs. It begins with a 2D convolutional layer, followed by 2D convolutions with increasing dilation rates in the time dimension (1, 2, and 4) and a stride of 2 across the frequency axis in each sub-network. A final 2D convolution with a kernel size of 3×3 and a stride of (1, 1) is applied to produce the prediction. The MSD and MPD

054 discriminators follow the architectures introduced in (Kong et al., 2020), with adjustments to the
055 channel numbers to align the parameter count more closely with the MS-STFT discriminator. This
056 ensemble of discriminators works in concert to provide comprehensive feedback on various aspects
057 of the generated speech, contributing to the overall quality and naturalness of the output.
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060 C RELATED WORK

063 **Tokenization Techniques in Speech.** Tokenization in speech processing can be broadly catego-
064 rized into two main approaches: (i) speech encoder-based and (ii) language-based. In the speech
065 encoder-based tokenization approach, a pretrained speech encoder serves as a teacher model, pro-
066 viding semantically rich audio representations. These representations are then used to guide the
067 training model, either through an alignment network (Messica & Adi, 2024) or by optimizing spe-
068 cific losses (Zhang et al., 2024a; Liu et al., 2024). Language-based tokenization approach involves
069 processing audio through a speech encoder to obtain discrete representations or using the corre-
070 sponding text to feed into a language model. The representations from the language model are then
071 utilized either to learn a tokenizer for speech (Turetzky & Adi, 2024) or to reconstruct speech (Has-
072 sid et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024b; Wang et al., 2024). Besides, (Zhang et al., 2024b) proposed
073 SpeechLM where two discrete tokenizers were introduced and learned in an unsupervised way and
074 converted the speech and text in a shared discrete space.

075 **Discrete Speech Representation.** There are two well-known methods for discrete speech represen-
076 tation: semantic tokens and acoustic tokens. Semantic tokens are derived through self-supervised
077 learning (SSL) techniques for speech (Baeviski et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2021; Chung et al., 2021)
078 and capture abstract, high-level features that relate to general, symbolic aspects of speech, while
079 omitting details related to speaker identity and acoustic characteristics. In contrast, acoustic tokens
080 are obtained using neural audio codecs (Zeghidour et al., 2021; Défossez et al., 2022; Yang et al.,
081 2023) and focus on delivering precise reconstructions of acoustic features. However, recent models
082 (Turetzky & Adi, 2024; Liu et al., 2024; Shi et al., 2024) have shown that speech models based
083 on self-supervised learning (SSL) are effective at extracting acoustic representations where LMs be
084 employed to refine these models further, enhancing their ability to extract more nuanced semantic
085 representations.

085 **Textual Language Models in Speech.** Research on speech models, including works by (Nguyen
086 et al., 2023), (Borsos et al., 2023), and (Kharitonov et al., 2022), has focused on utilizing raw audio
087 to extract prosodic features, identify speaker characteristics, and generate audio without depend-
088 ing on textual features or supervision from textual LMs. In contrast, many newer methods have
089 started using audio encoders to transform audio signals into discrete tokens, which can be processed
090 by textual LMs. *TWIST* method introduced by (Hassid et al., 2024) initializes the weights of the
091 SpeechLM using a pre-trained text LM, showing that this combination significantly improves per-
092 formance. Similarly, the *SELM* model developed by (Wang et al., 2024) leverages GPT (Radford,
093 2018; Radford et al., 2019) as its foundation due to its enhanced parallel processing capabilities
094 and capacity. However, text-based LLMs such as GPT-3 (Brown, 2020) and Llama (Touvron et al.,
095 2023) are essential for speech modeling. Once discrete audio representations are obtained, these
096 large text models are trained to align with or enhance the original text embedding space, as explored
097 in studies by (Zhang et al., 2023), (Fathullah et al., 2023), (Shu et al., 2023), and (Rubenstein et al.,
098 2023). This trend of integrating textual LMs into speech modeling has become increasingly popular
099 in recent research.

100 D RECONSTRUCTED SPEECH COMPARISON

104 We plot the Mel-Spectrogram of the original speech and the reconstructed speech from DM-Codec
105 and compare them with the reconstructed speech of EnCodec, SpeechTokenizer, and FACodec. Fine-
106 grained differences may not be readily apparent in the Mel-Spectrogram visually; therefore, we
107 encourage readers to click on the respective play button in Figure 1 for a hyperlink to the playable
audio file.

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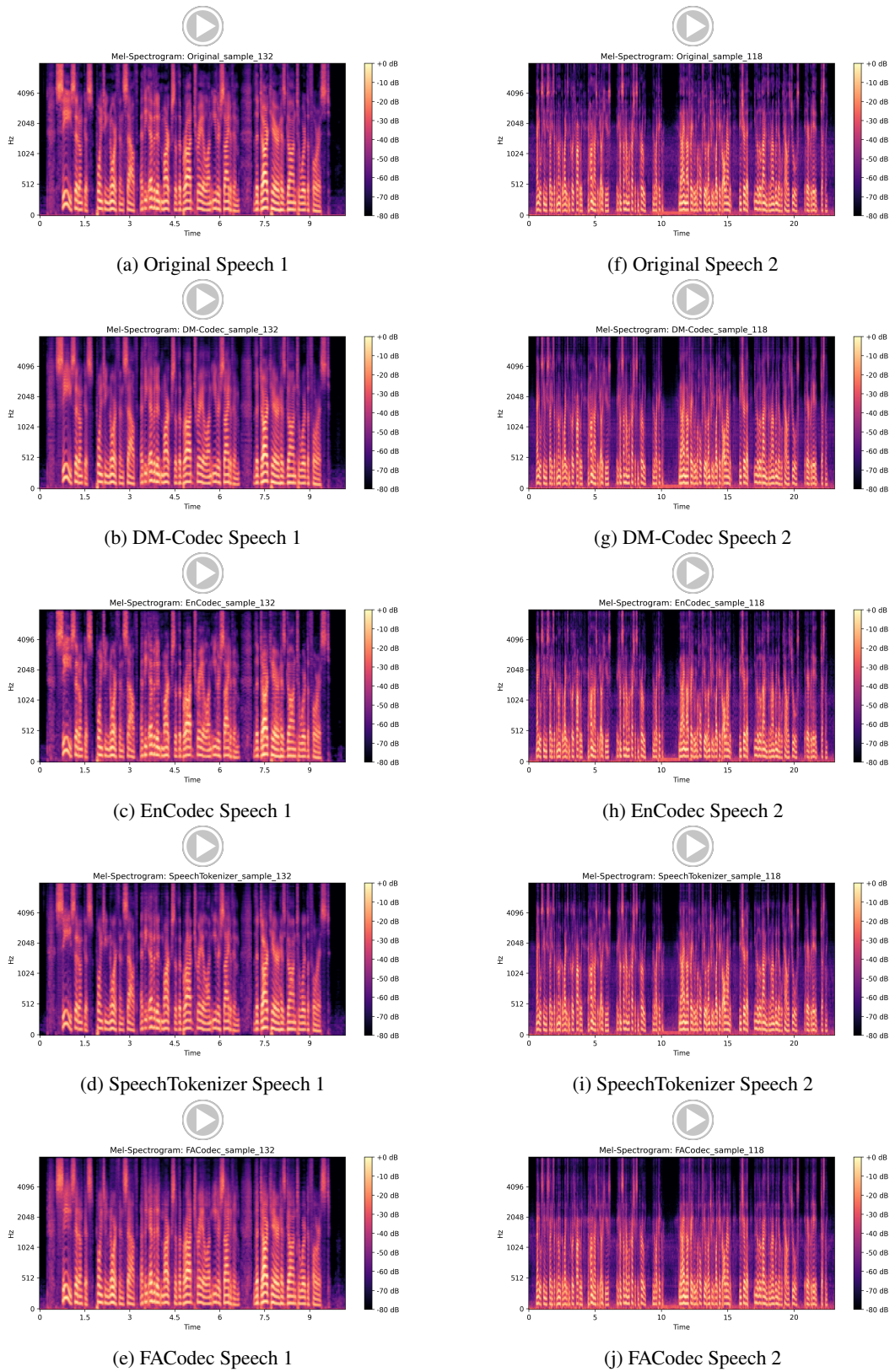


Figure 1: Reconstructed speech examples with clickable play buttons above each Mel-spectrogram.

Table 1: Significance Analysis and Comparison of DM-Codec (**D**), EnCodec (**E**), SpeechTokenizer (**S**), and FACodec (**F**). Results reveal DM-Codec consistently achieves significantly better scores. ✓ indicates significantly better, a ★ denotes significant dominance, and a ✗ means no significance in comparison. Avg and Std mean the average and standard deviation of each score.

WER					WIL					ViSQOL					STOI				
DM-Codec																			
Avg	Std	E	S	F	Avg	Std	E	S	F	Avg	Std	E	S	F	Avg	Std	E	S	F
0.053	0.113	✓	✓	✓	0.082	0.157	✓	✓	✓	3.258	0.184	★	✓	✓	0.937	0.019	✓	✓	✗
EnCodec																			
Avg	Std	D	S	F	Avg	Std	D	S	F	Avg	Std	D	S	F	Avg	Std	D	S	F
0.061	0.131	✗	✗	✗	0.090	0.158	✗	✗	✗	3.078	0.201	✗	✗	✗	0.920	0.017	✗	✗	✗
SpeechTokenizer																			
Avg	Std	E	D	F	Avg	Std	E	D	F	Avg	Std	E	D	F	Avg	Std	E	D	F
0.060	0.139	✓	✗	✗	0.089	0.166	✓	✗	✗	3.087	0.190	✓	✗	✗	0.923	0.021	✓	✗	✗
FACodec																			
Avg	Std	E	S	D	Avg	Std	E	S	D	Avg	Std	E	S	D	Avg	Std	E	S	D
0.057	0.123	✓	✓	✗	0.086	0.163	✓	✓	✗	3.129	0.250	✓	✓	✗	0.949	0.923	✓	✓	✓

E LIMITATIONS AND BROADER IMPACT

Limitations. In this work, we present the effectiveness of our proposed method, DM-Codec, based on the LibriSpeech dataset. Future research could investigate its performance across a variety of datasets and domains. Additionally, exploring the capabilities of DM-Codec in multilingual contexts would be valuable. Another limitation of our work is the absence of experiments with emerging LLMs. Currently, we focus solely on masked language models to derive representations. Further investigation into these decoder-based LLMs’ impact on DM-Codec can be studied and addressed.

Broader Impact. The integration of language models in speech processing has traditionally focused on model-specific implementations or specific training objectives. In this work, we propose a novel approach by leveraging language models during the tokenization phase through our model, DM-Codec. By incorporating language-specific representations from the corresponding text, DM-Codec enhances the quality of discrete speech representations. This method bridges the gap between language and speech models, offering a more unified approach to multimodal representation learning. DM-Codec provides a robust framework for generating high-quality audio representations, with potential applications in various domains, including multilingual speech processing, low-resource languages, and other audio-related tasks. Our findings pave the way for more effective and contextually aware speech processing models, contributing to advancements in the broader field of speech and language technologies.

F SIGNIFICANCE ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON

To compare the significance of speech reconstruction results between our proposed DM-Codec and baselines EnCodec (Défossez et al., 2022), SpeechTokenizer (Zhang et al., 2024a), and FACodec (Ju et al., 2024), we follow the approach of Dror et al. (2019) and measure the stochastic dominance at $\alpha = 0.05$. We compute the inverse cumulative distribution functions (CDFs) for individual WER, WIL, ViSQOL, and STOI scores obtained for 300 randomly sampled speech from the LibriSpeech test clean subset. Significance was evaluated using the ϵ value, indicating dominance. Scores were categorized as: significantly better when $0.0 < \epsilon \leq 0.5$, significantly dominant when $\epsilon = 0.0$, and not significantly better when $\epsilon > 0.5$.

Table 1 shows the full significance analysis, comparing between DM-Codec (**D**) and the baselines: EnCodec (**E**), SpeechTokenizer (**S**), and FACodec (**F**). The significance of DM-Codec is indicated by it outperforming all baselines across most metrics with better average and standard deviation. Among the baseline, however, FACodec achieves improved results over EnCodec and SpeechTokenizer, whereas SpeechTokenizer surpasses EnCodec in performance.

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