Measuring Word Alignment Quality for Statistical Machine Translation

Alexander Fraser  
University of Southern California

Daniel Marcu*  
University of Southern California

Automatic word alignment plays a critical role in statistical machine translation. Unfortunately the relationship between alignment quality and statistical machine translation performance has not been well understood. In the recent literature the alignment task has frequently been decoupled from the translation task, and assumptions have been made about measuring alignment quality for machine translation which, it turns out, are not justified. In particular, none of the tens of papers published over the last five years has shown that significant decreases in Alignment Error Rate, AER (Och and Ney, 2003), result in significant increases in translation quality. This paper explains this state of affairs and presents steps towards measuring alignment quality in a way which is predictive of statistical machine translation quality.

1. Introduction

Word alignment is the problem of determining translational correspondence at the word level given a corpus of parallel sentences. Automatic word alignment (Brown et al., 1993) has received extensive treatment in the literature as it is a vital component of all statistical machine translation approaches. However, the relationship between word alignment quality and statistical machine translation quality has not been explained.

There have been a number of research papers presented from 2000 to 2005 at ACL, NAACL, HLT, COLING, WPT03, WPT05, etc, outlining techniques for attempting to increase word alignment quality. Despite this high level of interest, none of these has been shown to result in a large gain in translation performance.

We confirm experimentally that previous metrics do not predict MT performance well and develop a methodology for measuring alignment quality which is predictive of statistical machine translation (SMT) quality. Unfortunately our findings invalidate the evaluations and conclusions of much of the recent work on word alignment which has relied on previous metrics such as AER.

2. Experimental Methodology

2.1 Data

To build an SMT system we require a bitext and a word alignment of that bitext, as well as language models built from target language data. In all of our experiments, we will hold the bitext and target language resources constant, and only vary how we construct the word alignment.

The gold standard word alignment sets we use have been manually annotated using links between words showing translational correspondence. Links which must be present in a hypothesized alignment in order for it to be correct are called “Sure” links. Some of the alignment sets also have links which are not “Sure” links but are “Possible” links.

* USC/ISI - Natural Language Group, 4676 Admiralty Way, Suite 1001, Marina del Rey, CA 90292-6601.  
Email: fraser@isi.edu, marcu@isi.edu

© ISI-University of Southern California
links (Och and Ney, 2003). The intuition for links that are “Possible” but not “Sure”\(^1\) is that such links may be present but need not be present.

We evaluate the translation quality of SMT systems by translating a held-out translation test set and evaluating our hypothesized translations against one or more reference translations using BLEU (Papineni et al., 2001). We also have an additional held-out translation set which we call the Maximum BLEU set, which is employed by the MT system to train the weights of its log-linear model to the final performance criterion (Och, 2003). We work with data sets for three different language pairs, examining French to English, Arabic to English, and Romanian to English translation tasks.

The training data for the French/English data set is taken from the LDC Canadian Hansard data set, from which the word aligned data (presented in (Och and Ney, 2003)) was also taken. The English side of the bitext is 67.4 million words. We used a separate Canadian Hansard data set (released by ISI) as the source of the translation test set and the Maximum BLEU set. We evaluate two different tasks using this data, a medium task where 1/8 of the data (8.4 million English words) is used as the fixed bitext, and a large task where all of the data is used as the fixed bitext. The gold standard word alignments have 4376 Sure Links and 19,222 Possible links.

The Arabic/English training corpus is the data used for the NIST 2004 machine translation evaluation \(^2\). The English side of the bitext is 99.3 million words. The Maximum BLEU set is the “NIST 2002 Dry Run”, while the test set is the “NIST 2003 evaluation set”. We have annotated gold standard alignments for 100 parallel sentences using Sure links, following the Blinker guidelines (Melamed, 1998) which calls for Sure links only (there were 2,154 sure links). Here we also examine a medium task using 1/8 of the data (12.4 million English words) and a large task using all of the data.

The Romanian/English training data was used for the tasks on Romanian/English alignment at WPT03 (Mihalcea and Pedersen, 2003) and WPT05 (Martin, Mihalcea, and Pedersen, 2005). We carefully removed two sections of news bitext for training Maximum BLEU and testing MT quality. The English side of the training corpus is 964,000 words. The alignment set is the first 148 annotated sentences used for the 2003 task (there were 3,181 Sure links).

2.2 Measuring Translation Quality Changes Caused By Alignment
In consecutive word phrasal SMT (Koehn, Och, and Marcu, 2003) the knowledge sources which vary with the word alignment are the phrase translation lexicon (which maps source phrases to target phrases using counts from the word alignment) and some of the word level translation parameters (sometimes called lexical smoothing). However, many knowledge sources are used which do not vary with the final word alignment, such as rescoring with IBM Model 1, N-gram language models and the length penalty (these are constant in our experiments).

In our experiments, we use a state of the art phrase-based system, similar to (Koehn, Och, and Marcu, 2003). The weights of the different knowledge sources in the log-linear model used by our system are trained using the Maximum BLEU training algorithm defined by Och (2003). For all of our experiments, we use two language models, one built using the target language training data and the other built using additional news data. We run Maximum BLEU for 25 iterations individually for each system.

---

\(^1\)“Sure” links are by definition also “Possible”.

\(^2\)http://www.nist.gov/speech/tests/summaries/2004/mtt04.htm
2.3 Generating Alignments of Varying Quality
We have observed in the past that generative models used for statistical word alignment create alignments of increasing quality as they are exposed to more data. The intuition behind this is simple; as more cooccurrences of source and targets words are observed, the word alignments are better. Following this intuition, if we wish to increase the quality of a word alignment, we allow the alignment process access to extra data which is used only during the alignment process and then removed. If we wish to decrease the quality of a word alignment, we divide the bitext into pieces and align the pieces independently of one another, finally concatenating the results together.

To generate word alignments, we follow the current state of the art, using GIZA++ (Och and Ney, 2003), which implements both the IBM Models of (Brown et al., 1993) and the HMM model (Vogel, Ney, and Tillmann, 1996). We use IBM Model 1, the Aachen HMM, and IBM Model 4 in that order (these models “bootstrap” from one another). The output of these models is an alignment of the bitext which projects one language to another. In this approach, GIZA++ is run end-to-end twice. In one case we project the source language to the target language, and in the other we project the target language to the source language. The output of GIZA++ is then post-processed using “symmetrization heuristics”. We use three symmetrization heuristics described in (Och and Ney, 2003). We evaluate our approaches using these three heuristics because we would like to account for alignments generated in different fashions. These three approaches have been used as the baselines in virtually all of the recent work on automatic word alignment, and most of the best SMT systems use these techniques as well.

3. Word Alignment Quality Metrics
One challenge for working with alignment systems is measuring the quality of a hypothesized alignment. Alignment quality can be compared by building state of the art SMT systems where only the alignment of a fixed bitext is allowed to vary. But this is a slow way to evaluate. It would be desirable to have a fast intrinsic metric of alignment quality to use for system development, and to use as a criterion for discriminative training of more sophisticated alignment models.

3.1 Alignment Error Rate is an Inadequate Measure of Alignment Quality
We begin our study of metrics for word alignment quality by testing Alignment Error Rate (AER) (Och and Ney, 2003). AER requires a gold standard manually annotated set of “Sure” links and “Possible” links (referred to as $S$ and $P$). “Sure” links are used for measuring Recall, and “Possible” links are used for measuring Precision. Given a hypothesized alignment consisting of the link set $A$, three measures are defined:

\[
\text{Precision}(A, P) = \frac{|P \cap A|}{|A|} \tag{1}
\]

\[
\text{Recall}(A, S) = \frac{|S \cap A|}{|S|} \tag{2}
\]

\[
\text{AER}(A, P, S) = 1 - \frac{|P \cap A| + |S \cap A|}{|S| + |A|} \tag{3}
\]

In our graphs, we will present $1 - \text{AER}$ so that we have an accuracy measure. We first aligned the bitext itself. We took the medium French/English training set and broke it into pieces corresponding to $1/16$, $1/8$, $1/4$ and $1/2$ of the medium set to generate artificially degraded alignments. We used 2, 4, and 8 times the medium data to generate
artificially enhanced alignments. The graph in Figure 1 shows the correlation of 1 − AER with machine translation quality, measured by BLEU. For the “fractional” data sizes, the average AER of the “fractional” alignments is used (ie, for 1/16, we calculate AER 16 times, once for each piece). High correlation would look like a line from the bottom left corner to the top right corner. As can be seen by looking at the graph, there is low correlation between 1 − AER and the BLEU score. A concise mathematical description of correlation is the coefficient of determination ($r^2$), which is the square of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($r$). Here, $r^2 = 0.12$, which is low.

One reason that the correlation is low is because of what we believe to be a significant shortcoming of AER which to our knowledge has not been previously reported. (Och and Ney, 2003) states that AER is derived from F-Measure. But AER does not share a very important property of F-Measure, which is that unbalanced precision and recall are penalized, in many scenarios where $S < P$ (ie, we make the Sure versus Possible distinction, instead of annotating all links as Sure). This is easy to show algebraically using an example. We first define the measure “F-Measure with Sure and Possible” using Och and Ney’s Precision and Recall formulae together with the standard F-Measure formula (Manning and Schuetze, 1999). In the F-Measure formula, there is a parameter $\alpha$ which sets the trade-off between Precision and Recall. When an equal trade-off is desired, $\alpha$ is set to 0.5.

$$F\text{-measure with Sure and Possible}(A, P, S, \alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha \text{Precision}(A,P) + (1-\alpha) \text{Recall}(A,S)}$$

(4)

We compare two hypothesized alignments where $|A|$, the number of hypothesized alignment links, is the same, for instance, $|A| = 100$. Let $|S| = 100$.

In the first case, let $|P \cap A| = 50$ and $|S \cap A| = 50$. Precision is 0.50 and Recall is 0.50. In the second case, let $|P \cap A| = 75$ and $|S \cap A| = 25$. Precision is 0.75 and Recall is 0.25.

The basic property of F-Measure, if we set $\alpha$ equal to 0.5, is that unbalanced precision and recall should be penalized. The first hypothesized alignment has an F-Measure with Sure and Possible score of 0.50. The second hypothesized alignment has a worse score, 0.375. This shows that if we use the formula for F-Measure with Sure and Possible, unbalanced precision and recall are correctly penalized.

However, if we substitute the relevant values into the formula for AER, we see that 1 − AER for both of the hypothesized alignments is 0.5. Therefore AER does not share the property of F-Measure (with $\alpha = 0.5$) that unbalanced precision and recall are penalized. Because of this, it is possible to maximize AER by favoring precision over recall, which can be done by simply guessing very few alignment links. This is not a problem if $S = P$ because the two quantities $|P \cap A|$ and $|S \cap A|$ are the same. Unfortunately when $S < P$ this leads to strong biases which makes AER not useful.

If we examine the graph in Figure 2, we see that F-Measure with Sure and Possible has some predictive power for the data points of a particular heuristic, but the overall correlation independent of heuristic is low, $r^2 = 0.21$. We need a measure which predicts BLEU without having a dependency on the way the alignments were generated.

3.2 Balanced F-Measure is Better, but Still Inadequate

We wondered whether the low correlation was caused by the Sure and Possible distinction. We reannotated the first 110 sentences of the 484 sentence test set using the Blinker

---

$^1$While $r^2$ can be thought of as a percentage of correlation. It does not show the direction of correlation. All correlations in this work are positive correlations.
guidelines (there were 2,292 Sure links). We define F-Measure without the Sure versus Possible distinction (i.e., all links are Sure) in Equation 5. This measure has been extensively used with other word alignment test sets. Figure 3 shows the results. Correlation is higher, $r^2 = 0.64$.

$$F\text{-measure}(A, S, \alpha) = \frac{1}{\alpha \text{Precision}_{(A,S)} + (1-\alpha) \text{Recall}_{(A,S)}}$$

(5)

3.3 Varying the Trade-off Between Precision and Recall leads to Good Measurement of Quality

We then hypothesized that the trade-off between precision and recall is important. This is controlled in both F-Measure formulae by the constant $\alpha$. We search $\alpha = 0, 0.1, 0.2, \ldots, 1.0$. The best results are: $\alpha = 0.3$ for the original annotation annotated with Sure and Possible (see Figure 4), and $\alpha = 0.6$ for the first 110 sentences as annotated by us (see Figure 5). The relevant $r^2$ scores were 0.84 and 0.93 respectively. With a good $\alpha$ setting, we are able to predict the resulting machine translation quality reasonably well.

For the original annotation, recall is more important, while for our annotation, precision is more important. Our results suggest that higher correlation will be achieved when using the Blinker Sure-only annotation style than with the original annotation style which used Sure and Possible links.

We then decided to try this using the medium Arabic training set. See Figure 6 which shows the results for the best setting $\alpha = 0.2$, for which $r^2 = 0.92$. This is again a good correlation and shows that F-Measure is effective in predicting machine translation quality for this set.

We tested our techniques with the larger corpora mentioned in Section 2.1. For the large French/English corpus the best results are with $\alpha = 0.3$ for the original annotation of 484 sentences and $\alpha = 0.7$ for the new annotation of 110 sentences with Sure links (see Figure 7). Relevant $r^2$ scores were the same, at 0.64 and 0.64 respectively. Disappointingly, our measures are not able to fully explain resulting MT quality for the large French/English task. This may be caused by interactions between the size of the phrasal lexicons extracted and the settings used for the search for the best translation hypothesis (such as probabilistic and histogram beams (Koehn, Och, and Marcu, 2003)) at these large data sizes.

For the large Arabic/English corpus, the results were better, the best correlation was with $\alpha = 0.2$, for which $r^2 = 0.89$, see Figure 8. For the large Arabic/English task, we can predict resulting MT quality. It is worth noting that the Arabic/English translation task and data set has been tested in conjunction with our translation system over a long period, but the French/English translation task and data has not. As a result, there may be hidden factors that affect the performance of our MT system which only appear in conjunction with the large French/English task.

We also tested a smaller corpus. One well-studied task is the Romanian/English shared word alignment task from the Workshop on Parallel Text at ACL 2005 (Martin, Mihalcea, and Pedersen, 2005). We again only decreased the quality of the alignments and because the bitext is small only 5 data points for each symmetrization heuristic were used. The best setting of $\alpha$ was $\alpha = 0.4$, for which $r^2 = 0.87$, showing that F-Measure is effective for this task.

---

4 We also checked the first 110 sentences using the original annotation to ensure that the differences observed were not an effect of restricting our annotation to these sentences.

5 $\alpha$ less than 0.5 weights recall higher, while $\alpha$ greater than 0.5 weights precision higher, see the F-Measure formulae.
Figure 1
French 1 – AER versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.12 \)

Figure 2
French F-Measure with Sure and Possible \( \alpha = 0.5 \) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.21 \)

Figure 3
French F-Measure \( \alpha = 0.5 \) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.64 \)

Figure 4
French F-Measure with Sure and Possible \( \alpha = 0.3 \) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.84 \)

Figure 5
French F-Measure \( \alpha = 0.6 \) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.93 \)

Figure 6
Arabic F-Measure \( \alpha = 0.2 \) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.92 \)

Figure 7
Large French F-Measure \( \alpha = 0.7 \) (110 sentences) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.64 \)

Figure 8
Large Arabic F-Measure \( \alpha = 0.2 \) (100 sentences) versus BLEU, \( r^2 = 0.89 \)
4. Conclusion

We have presented an empirical study of the use of simple evaluation metrics based on gold standard alignment of a small number of sentences to predict machine translation quality. On the basis of our experiments we can now draw the following conclusions:

1. When $S \neq P$, AER does not share the important property of F-Measure that unequal precision and recall are penalized, making it easy to obtain good AER scores by simply guessing less alignment links. As a result we believe AER is not a useful metric for predicting MT accuracy.

2. Good correlation was obtained for the medium French and Arabic data sets, the large Arabic data set and the small Romanian data set. We have explained most of the effect of alignment quality on these sets, and if we are given the F-measure of a hypothesized word alignment for the bitext we can make a reasonable prediction as to what the resulting BLEU score will be.

3. We have only partially explained the effect of alignment quality on BLEU for the large French data set, and further investigation is warranted.

4. We recommend using the Blinker guidelines as a starting point for new alignment annotation efforts, and based on our results recommend that the Sure-only annotation style outlined in that document be used. However, we believe our results show that if a gold standard alignment set is already available which is already annotated using the Sure versus Possible distinction, this will have only slightly worse results.

5. While we have addressed measuring alignment quality for phrasal SMT, similar work is now required to see how to measure alignment quality for other settings of machine translation and for other tasks.

Our work invalidates the conclusions of recent alignment work which presented only evaluations based on metrics like AER or balanced F-Measure, and explains the lack of correlation in the few works which presented both such a metric and final MT results. A good example of the former are our own results (Fraser and Marcu, 2005). The work presented there had the highest balanced F-Measure scores for the Romanian/English WPT05 shared task, but based on the findings here we do not know if our alignments were the best for SMT quality, and it is possible that a different algorithm tuned for the correct criterion would have had better MT performance. Other examples include work relying on combining the Competitive Linking algorithm (Melamed, 2000) with discriminative scoring functions (Cherry and Lin, 2003; Taskar, Lacoste-Julien, and Klein, 2005). Competitive Linking usually results in higher precision and lower recall than IBM Model 4 symmetrized using the “Refined” or “Union” heuristics, because it enforces a constraint that each word has at most one translation correspondent. But we showed that AER is broken in a way that favors precision in Section 3.1. It is therefore likely that the results reported in these papers are affected by the AER bias and that the corresponding improvements in AER score do not correlate with increases in phrasal SMT performance. To avoid these problems we think that it is good practice to compare alignment algorithms by measuring performance in an identified final task such as machine translation. F-Measure with an appropriate setting of $\alpha$ will be useful during the development process of new alignment models, or as a maximization criterion for discriminative training of alignment models (Cherry and Lin, 2003; Liu, Liu, and Lin, 2005; Fraser and Marcu, 2005; Ittycheriah and Roukos, 2005; Moore, 2005; Taskar, Lacoste-Julien, and Klein, 2005).
Acknowledgments

This work was supported by DARPA-ITO grant NN66001-00-1-9814, NSF grant IIS-0326276 and by the GALE program of the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency, Contract No. HR0011-06-C-0022.

We would like to thank the USC Center for High Performance Computing and Communications (HPCC).

References

Brown, Peter F., Stephen A. Della Pietra, Vincent J. Della Pietra, and R. L. Mercer. 1993. The mathematics of statistical machine translation: Parameter estimation. Computational Linguistics, 19(2):263–311.

Cherry, Colin and Dekang Lin. 2003. A probability model to improve word alignment. In Proc. of the 41st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL), Sapporo, Japan, July.

Fraser, Alexander and Daniel Marcu. 2005. Isi’s participation in the romanian-english alignment task. In ACL 2005 Workshop on Building and Using Parallel Texts: Data-Driven Machine Translation and Beyond, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Ittycheriah, Abraham and Salim Roukos. 2005. A maximum entropy word aligner for Arabic-English machine translation. In Proc. of Human Language Technology Conference and Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, Vancouver, British Columbia, October.

Koehn, Philipp, Franz Josef Och, and Daniel Marcu. 2003. Statistical phrase-based translation. In Proceedings of the Human Language Technology and North American Association for Computational Linguistics Conference (HLT/NAACL), pages 127–133, Edmonton, Canada.

Liu, Yang, Qin Liu, and Shouxun Lin. 2005. Log-linear models for word alignment. In Proc. of the 43rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL), pages 459–466, Ann Arbor, Michigan, June.

Manning, Christopher D. and Hinrich Schuetze. 1999. Foundations of Statistical Natural Language Processing. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.

Martin, Joel, Rada Mihalcea, and Ted Pedersen. 2005. Word alignment for languages with scarce resources. In ACL 2005 Workshop on Building and Using Parallel Texts: Data-Driven Machine Translation and Beyond, Ann Arbor, Michigan, June.

Melamed, I. Dan. 1998. Manual annotation of translational equivalence: The blinker project. Technical Report 98-07, Institute for Research in Cognitive Science, Philadelphia, PA.

Melamed, I. Dan. 2000. Models of translational equivalence among words. Computational Linguistics, 26(2):221–249.

Mihalcea, Rada and Ted Pederson. 2003. An evaluation exercise for word alignment. In HLT-NAACL 2003 Workshop on Building and Using Parallel Texts: Data Driven Machine Translation and Beyond, Edmonton, Alberta, July.

Moore, Robert C. 2005. A discriminative framework for bilingual word alignment. In Proc. of Human Language Technology Conference and Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, Vancouver, British Columbia, October.

Och, Franz Josef. 2003. Minimum error rate training in statistical machine translation. In Proc. of the 41st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL), pages 160–167, Sapporo, Japan, July.

Och, Franz Josef and Hermann Ney. 2003. A systematic comparison of various statistical alignment models. Computational Linguistics, 29(1):19–51.

Papineni, Kishore A., Salim Roukos, Todd Ward, and Wei-Jing Zhu. 2001. BLEU: a method for automatic evaluation of machine translation. Technical Report RC22176 (W1009-022), IBM Research Division, Thomas J. Watson Research Center, Yorktown Heights, NY, September.

Taskar, Ben, Simon Lacoste-Julien, and Dan Klein. 2005. A discriminative matching approach to word alignment. In Proc. of Human Language Technology Conference and Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, Vancouver, British Columbia, October.

Vogel, Stephan, Hermann Ney, and Christoph Tillmann. 1996. HMM-based word alignment in statistical translation. In COLING ’96: The 16th Int. Conf. on Computational Linguistics, pages 836–841, Copenhagen, Denmark, August.