Learning to translate from graded and negative relevance information

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Abstract

We present an approach for learning to translate by exploiting cross-lingual link structure in multilingual document collections. We propose a new learning objective based on structured ramp loss, which learns from graded relevance, explicitly including negative relevance information. Our results on English-German translation of Wikipedia entries show small, but significant, improvements of our method over an unadapted baseline, even when only a weak relevance signal is used. We also compare our method to monolingual language model adaptation and automatic pseudo-parallel data extraction and find small improvements even over these strong baselines.

1 Introduction

Typically, parameters of an SMT system are learned on a small parallel data set from the domain or genre of interest. However, while many multilingual data sets, especially in the realm of user-generated data, contain document-level links, sentence-parallel training data are not always available. A small number of sentences can be manually translated for in-domain parameter tuning, but this ignores most of the available multilingual resource. Monolingual language model adaptation via concatenation or interpolation is one viable solution which makes use of the target side part of a collection (see e.g. Koehn and Schroeder (2007) or Foster and Kuhn (2007)). Additionally, there are several approaches to automatic parallel data extraction from cross-lingual document-level links, such as Munteanu and Marcu (2005)’s work on news data, or more recent work on Wikipedia by Wolk and Marasek (2015), and on websites by Smith et al. (2013). We argue that these approaches work well if the cross-lingual links are a strong signal for parallelism, but fail if the signal linking documents across languages is weaker. We propose a method for tuning sparse lexicalized features on large amounts of multilingual data which contain some cross-lingual document-level relevance annotation. We do so by re-formulating the structured ramp loss objective proposed by Chiang (2012) and Gimpel and Smith (2012) to incorporate graded and negative cross-lingual relevance signals. Using translation of Wikipedia entries as a running example, we evaluate the efficacy of our method along with the traditional approaches on a manually created in-domain test set. We show that our method is able to produce small, but significant, gains, even if only a weak relevance signal is used.

Section 2 explains our learning objective and cost function. In Section 3 we describe the construction of our training and evaluation data, including pseudo-parallel data extraction. Section 4 contains details of our experimental setup and presents our experimental results. Section 5 concludes the paper.

2 Learning from graded relevance feedback

2.1 Learning objectives

We work within a scenario where we want to learn the parameters of an SMT system, but have no in-domain reference translations available. What we have, is a large collection of source and target language documents and a signal telling us that some target documents are more relevant to a source document.
than others. For example, in the multilingual Wikipedia, cross-lingual documents can be connected in different ways. First, a link exists between two documents if they are connected by an interlanguage link (we call this a mate relation). This is a very strong relevance signal. Second, a more indirect link exists between a source language document and a target language document if the target language document is connected to the source language document’s mate by a hyperlink (we call this a link relation). This is a weaker relevance signal. A cross-lingual mate is more relevant to an input document than a document that is only linked to by the mate. In turn, this linked document is more relevant to the input than a document that has no direct link to the mate. Any Wikipedia document is more relevant than a document from a different data set. We write relevance as \( d_1 \succ \succ d_2 \) ("\( d_1 \) is more relevant to \( f \) than \( d_2 \)). Another example of graded relevance information, which has been used in information retrieval, occurs in multilingual patent collections, where patent documents can be in a “family” relation if they contain publications of the same patent, or be related to a lesser degree, if a target document is cited by a source document’s family patent. Of course, other notions of relevance are conceivable, e.g. by document similarity, and we plan to further investigate such notions in future work.

In order to incorporate graded relevance information, we modify the structured ramp loss objective by Gimpel and Smith (2012) to also include negative relevance information. Ramp loss based SMT tuning methods as presented by Gimpel and Smith (2012) and Chiang (2012) usually try to find parameters that separate a “good” hypothesis with respect to the reference from one that is “bad” with respect to the same reference. Goodness and badness are measured by an external cost function, or a cost function combined with the model prediction. Equation 1 shows one version of the structured ramp loss (“ramp loss 3”/equation 8 from Gimpel and Smith (2012)):

\[
L_{\text{Gimpel}}(\mathbf{F}; \theta) = \sum_{e \in \mathbf{F}} \left( -\max(\text{score}(e; \theta) - \text{cost}(e)) + \max(\text{score}(e; \theta) + \text{cost}(e)) \right) \\
\tag{1}
\]

where \( \mathbf{F} = \{f_1, f_2 \ldots f_n \} \) is a finite set of input examples, \( \theta \) refers to the model parameters and \( e \) is a translation hypothesis; \( \text{score}(e; \theta) \) is the log-linear model score of the hypothesis, which is proportional to the dot product between the feature vector associated with the hypothesis and the weight vector; \( \text{cost}(e) \) is a cost function, which measures the quality of the current hypothesis. Usually, this function is some per-sentence approximation of the BLEU score against one or more reference translations. Following Chiang (2012)’s terminology, this loss tries to maximize the distance between a hope derivation – which has high model score and low cost – from a fear derivation – which has high model score, but high cost.

We define two training objectives which are variations of this loss function, but which incorporate positive and negative relevance information. Our intuition is that instead of trying to separate hope and fear with respect to the same reference, we try to separate a hypothesis that has high model score and low cost with respect to a relevant document from one that has high model score and low cost with respect to a document that is irrelevant. Our first objective is given in Equation 2:

\[
L_{\text{ramp}^1}(\mathbf{F}; \theta) = \sum_{e \in \mathbf{F}} \left( -\max(\text{score}(e, f; \theta) - \text{cost}(e, d_+^+) + \max(\text{score}(e, f; \theta) - \text{cost}(e, d_-^-)) \right) \\
\tag{2}
\]

In this objective, \( \text{cost}(e, d) \in [0, 1] \) is the cost of a hypothesis \( e \) with respect to a document \( d \). \( d_+^+ \) and \( d_-^- \) are documents, such that \( d_+^+ \succ \succ d_-^- \). Unlike \( L_{\text{Gimpel}} \), this loss tries to separate two different hope derivations. One potential weakness of \( L_{\text{ramp}^1} \) is that it treats \( d_+^+ \) and \( d_-^- \) completely independently. This could lead to very similar hypotheses being selected, if there exist hypotheses that have low cost in both \( d_+^+ \) and in \( d_-^- \). To solve this issue, we propose a second modification of the loss.

In the second variant we define “good” and “bad” hypotheses as those which have the largest difference between the cost with respect to \( d_+^+ \) and \( d_-^- \), i.e. hypotheses that best distinguish \( d_+^+ \) from \( d_-^- \). This leads to the following objective given in Equation 3.
\[ L_{ramp_2}(F; \theta) = \sum_{f \in F} -\max_{e} (\text{score}(e, f; \theta) - (\text{cost}_\text{diff}(e, d^+_f, d^-_f))) \]
\[ + \max_{e} (\text{score}(e, f; \theta) - (\text{cost}_\text{diff}(e, d^-_f, d^+_f))) \]

where \( \text{cost}_\text{diff} \) is defined as
\[ \text{cost}_\text{diff}(e, d_1, d_2) = \text{cost}(e, d_1) - \text{cost}(e, d_2) \]

Note that with the above definition of \( \text{cost}_\text{diff} \), equation 3 can be reformulated as
\[ L_{ramp_2}(F; \theta) = \sum_{f \in F} -\max_{e} (\text{score}(e, f; \theta) - \text{cost}_\text{diff}(e, d^+_f, d^-_f)) \]
\[ + \max_{e} (\text{score}(e, f; \theta) + \text{cost}_\text{diff}(e, d^-_f, d^+_f)) \]

which is identical to the original structured ramp loss (Equation 1), but still allows to include positive and negative relevance signals via the cost function. We apply a linear scaling operation to squash our new cost function to return values between 0 and 1.

2.2 Implementation and learning

Parallelized stochastic subgradient descent. Algorithm 1 shows our learning procedure. Optimization is done using stochastic subgradient descent (SSD) as proposed for ramp loss by Keshet and McAllester (2011). In order to be able to train on thousands of documents, we use the method described in Algorithm 4 of Simianer et al. (2012), which splits training data into shards (line 1 in Algorithm 1), trains one epoch on each shard (line 3 to 12), and then applies feature selection by \( \ell_1/\ell_2 \) regularization (line 13) before starting the next epoch.

Sampling. For each training example, we first sample a document pair \( (d^+, d^-) \) (line 6). The \text{sample()} procedure draws documents \( d^+ \) from a set of relevant documents \( D^+ \) and \( d^- \) from a set of “contrast documents”, \( D^- \), according to some cross-lingual relevance signal. In our experiments, we first use random sampling. We also try out a weighted sampling strategy, if the relevance signal is weaker. In this case, we want to sample a document more frequently from \( D^+ \), if it is more similar to the input document. We calculate cross-lingual document similarity by using document representations from bilingual word embeddings. The embeddings are learned from the aligned parallel training corpus using the Bilingual Skip-gram model of Luong et al. (2015).\(^1\) Document representations are computed by averaging over all word representations in the document, weighted by the inverse document frequencies of the words. Cosine similarity is used to measure similarity between the current source document and the documents in \( D^+ \). We use weighted reservoir sampling (Efraimidis and Spirakis, 2006) to draw a document weighted by its similarity to the current source document. The contrast document \( d^- \) is drawn randomly from \( D^- \), but is re-drawn if \( d^- \) is more similar to the input then \( d^+ \).

Search. In lines 7 and 8 we identify the “good” and “bad” hypotheses \( h^+ \) and \( h^- \) by running \text{search}(). Most tuning algorithms use \( k \)-best lists to approximate the search space over possible translation hypotheses. However, \( k \)-best lists cover only a very small portion of the possible hypothesis space and often contain very similar hypotheses. Since we may not have a strong enough signal to differentiate between those hypotheses, we also experiment with using the entire search space, which in hierarchical phrase-based translation can be represented by a packed hypothesis forest, or hypergraph. In this scenario, \text{search}() amounts to finding the Viterbi derivation after annotating the translation hypergraph

\(^1\)github.com/lmthang/bivec
Algorithm 1 SSD

Require: input $X$, epochs $T$, initial weights $w_0$, cost function $cost$, document collection $D^+$, $D^-$, stepsize $\eta$, regularization strength $C$, number of shards $S$

1: $\{X_1, \ldots, X_S\} \leftarrow$ make_shards($S, X$) $\triangleright$ Create shards for parallel training
2: for $t = 1$ to $T$ do
3: for $s = 1$ to $S$ parallel do
4: $w_{s,t-1}^{(0)} \leftarrow w_{t-1}$
5: for $i = 1$ to $|X_s|$ do
6: $(d^+, d^-) \leftarrow$ sample($X_s^{(i)}, D^+, D^-$) $\triangleright$ Sample relevant and irrelevant document
7: $(h^+, h^-) \leftarrow$ search($X_s^{(i)}, w_{s,t-1}^{(i-1)}, cost, d^+, d^-$) $\triangleright$ Find hope and fear
8: $w_{s,t-1}^{(i)} \leftarrow w_{s,t-1}^{(i-1)} + \eta(\phi(h^+) - \phi(h^-)) - \eta C(\frac{w_{s,t-1}^{(i-1)} - w_0}{|X_s^i|})$ $\triangleright$ Update weights
9: end for
10: $w_{s,t} \leftarrow w_{s,t-1}^{(|X_s^i|)}$ $\triangleright$ Select features by $\ell_1/\ell_2$ regularization
11: end for
12: $w_t \leftarrow select(w_{1,t} \ldots w_{S,t})$
13: end for

edges with the cost for each edge. This requires a cost function which decomposes over edges, as will be detailed in section 2.3. We run experiments both using a k-best lists and the full search space.

Finally, the weights are updated in line 9 by adding the negative subgradient multiplied by learning rate $\eta$ and a regularization term which is obtained from adding $C \frac{1}{|X|} \|(w - w_0)^2\|$ to the ramp loss objective.

2.3 Cost function

So far, we have not yet specified the cost function. Usually, $1 - psBLEU(e, r)$ is used as a cost function, where $r$ is a reference translation and $psBLEU$ is a per-sentence approximation of the BLEU score. Since we do not have reference translations as feedback, we need to use a cost function that will evaluate the quality of a hypothesis with respect to a relevant document. Like BLEU, we use average n-gram precision. Unlike BLEU, we cannot use reference length to control the length of the produced translation. Our solution is to use the source length, multiplied by the average source-target length ratio $r$ which can be empirically determined on the training set.

For k-best training, where we can evaluate complete sentences, we use average n-gram precision:

$$nprec(e, f, d) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{u_n} c_{u_n}(e) \cdot \delta_{u_n}(d) \cdot min(1, \frac{r \cdot |e|}{|f|})$$

where $N$ is the maximum n-gram size, $u_n$ are n-grams present in $e$, $c_{u_n}(e)$ counts the occurrences of $u_n$ in $e$ and $\delta_{u_n}(d)$ returns 1 if $u_n$ is present in document $d$ and 0 otherwise. The second term is the brevity penalty. As a cost function, this becomes $1 - nprec$. BLEU uses the geometric mean to account for the exponentially decaying precision, as $n$ increases. When calculating per-sentence BLEU, we might face the problem of zero-precision, as $n$ increases. Since BLEU is measured over a corpus and not over a sentence, the case of zero-values was not taken into consideration. A common solution to this is count smoothing. We use the arithmetic instead of the geometric mean, since it avoids the problem of zeros, and will return the same ranking as the geometric mean.

When training on hypergraphs, we are facing the problem that n-gram precision is not edge-decomposable. For our hypergraph experiments, we tried the simplest possible approach, which is to compute nprec at edge level:

$$nprec(e, f, d) = \sum_{\bar{e} \in e} nprec(\bar{e}, \bar{f}, d)$$

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In order to test the proposed loss and cost functions, we look at how they perform in a case, where we are learning translation model weights from a perfect signal, i.e. reference translation. Instead of sampling $d^+$ from a set of relevant documents $D^+$, we use the reference translation of input $x$. For the contrast set $d^-$, we sample another sentence from the target side of the training data. We train on 500-best lists for 20 epochs. We conduct this experiment on the IWSLT evaluation data, using IWSLT tst2010 for training and tst2013 for evaluation. The model is trained on out-of-domain data in the same way as the model described in 4.1. Figure 1 shows learning curves for $L_{ramp_1}$ which uses cost and $L_{ramp_2}$ which uses cost $\text{diff}$. We found cost $\text{diff}$ to perform much better than cost on both train and heldout data. Why does cost do so much worse? Remember, that in this scenario we select two hope-derivations. What is more, we only select them from a small $k$-best list (500 translations). With the cost $\text{diff}$ function we are required to choose hypotheses that distinguish most between $d^+$ and $d^-$. This will select a $h^-$ that is far away from the reference (similar to a fear derivation). While with cost, there is no guarantee that $h^-$ will differ from $h^+$.

3 Data preparation and extraction

3.1 Initial Wikipedia data set

Wikipedia is internally structured by cross-lingual links and inter-article links. We use the German-English WikiCLIR collection by Schamoni et al. (2014), along with their definition of cross-lingual relevance levels: A target language document has relevance level 3 if it is the cross-lingual mate of an input document. It is assigned relevance level 2, if there is a bidirectional link relation between the cross-lingual mate and the document. WikiCLIR contains a total of 225,294 mate relations with 1 average German mate per English document, and over 1.7 million bidirectional link relations, with on average 8.5 links per English document. We use the link information provided by WikiCLIR, but we work with the full Wikipedia documents rather than WikiCLIR’s abbreviated queries.

3.2 Automatic sentence alignment

The cross-lingual mate relation in Wikipedia is a strong indicator for parallelism. However, Wikipedia entries in different languages are not necessarily translations of each other, but can be edited independently. In order to find parallel sentences, we use an automated extraction method. We do this for three purposes:

1. To identify nearly parallel document pairs for the construction of a clean in-domain evaluation set without having to rely on manual translation.

2. To examine whether bidirectional links provide a strong enough signal for extracting pseudo-parallel training data.
3. To compare our method to automatic parallel data extraction based on relevance annotation.

We use the modified `yalign` method described by Wolk and Marasek (2015) for pseudo-parallel data extraction. We adapt their software to handle the WikiCLIR format. `yalign` requires a bilingual dictionary with translation probabilities. Following Wolk and Marasek (2015), we use a lexical translation table created from the TED parallel training data\(^2\) as our bilingual dictionary. We filter the dictionary for punctuation and numerals and discard all entries whose lexical translation probability is smaller than 0.3.

Figure 2 shows the frequency histogram of the number of extracted lines per document pair for document pairs with a mate relation. For most document pairs, only a single sentence pair was extracted. However, there were a few document pairs that yielded several hundred sentence pairs. In total, 533,516 sentence pairs were extracted.

Figure 3 shows our evaluation of `yalign`'s precision for the mate and link relations. We manually evaluated a sample of 200 automatically aligned sentence pairs. The sentence pairs were annotated using four categories: “fully parallel”, “almost parallel” – this category contains sentence pairs that have parallel segments, with other segments missing from the aligned part, “similar” – for sentence pairs that have similar content or wording but differ factually –, and “non parallel”. While 65.5% of sentence pairs from the mate relation were similar or parallel, the link relation yielded only 2.6% sentence pairs that were at least similar. We conclude that the bidirectional link relation is too weak to extract useful pseudo-parallel data.

\(^2\)https://wit3.fbk.eu/
3.3 Evaluation data construction

To construct our in-domain evaluation data, we sorted all automatically aligned documents by the number of aligned sentences up to a limit of 10,000 sentences. We then selected eight documents for manual alignment, discarding other document pairs which appeared to have been machine-translated, only contained few parallel sentences, or consisted of lists of proper names. During manual alignment, we also fixed sentence splitting errors and removed image captions and references. We split the documents into two groups of four, making sure to keep the sets diverse. Table 1 shows the two sets of extracted documents. They are topically diverse, similar in length, and contain a considerable percentage of parallel sentences.

| Set  | Length | # parallel | Title                                                   |
|------|--------|------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| set1 | 323    | 285        | Polish culture during World War II                     |
|      | 710    | 677        | Black-figure pottery                                    |
|      | 457    | 375        | Ulm Hauptbahnhof                                        |
|      | 587    | 375        | Characters of Carnivale                                 |
| Total| 1712   |            |                                                         |

| set2 | Length | # parallel | Title                                                   |
|------|--------|------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
|      | 360    | 268        | J-pop                                                  |
|      | 501    | 388        | Schüttorf                                              |
|      | 549    | 438        | Military history of Australia during World War II      |
|      | 676    | 432        | Arab citizens of Israel                                 |
| Total| 1526   |            |                                                         |

Table 1: Wikipedia development and test documents.

4 Experiments

4.1 Out-of-domain translation system

Our baseline English-German translation system is trained on 2.1 million sentence pairs (61/59 million English/German tokens) from the Europarl v7 corpus (1.78 million sentence pairs), the News Commentary v10 corpus (200K sentence pairs) and the MultiUN v1 corpus (150K sentence pairs). Word alignments are computed using MGIZA++, alignments are symmetrized using the grow-diag-final-end heuristic. A 4-gram count-based language model is estimated from the target side of the training data using lmplz (Heafield et al., 2013). All experiments use the hierarchical phrase-based decoder cdec (Dyer et al., 2010). Hierarchical phrase rules are extracted using cdec’s implementation of the suffix array extractor by Lopez (2007) with default settings. Our baselines use 21 decoder features (7 translation model features, 2 language model features, 7 pass through features, 3 arity penalty features, word penalty and glue rule count features), which are implemented in cdec. Feature weights are optimized on the WMT Newstest 2014 data set (3003 sentence pairs) using the pairwise ranking optimizer dtrain. We run dtrain for 15 epochs with the hyperparameters k-best size=100, loss-margin=1, and a learning rate of 1e⁻⁵. The final weights are averaged over all epochs. Performance of our baseline system (baseline 1) is given in the first row of Table 2.

4.2 Translation model and language model adaptation

For translation model (TM) adaptation we add the automatically extracted pseudo-parallel Wikipedia data (see Section 3) to our baseline training data and re-train the translation model. For language model (LM) adaptation, we sample 500,000 sentences from the German Wikipedia data, which we add to the out-of-domain language model data to re-build a combined 4-gram language model. Both language model and translation model adaptation boosted performance. Rows 1 and 3 in Table 3 show BLEU.

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3www.statmt.org/europarl/, see (Koehn, 2005)
4www.statmt.org/wmt15/training-parallel-nc-v10.tgz
5www.euromatrixplus.net/multi-un/, see (Eisele and Chen, 2010)
6www.cs.cmu.edu/ qing/giza/
7https://github.com/pks/cdec-dtrain
4.3 Learning from Wikipedia mates and links

We train our method on 10,000 input sentences sampled from the English WikiCLIR documents. Each input sentence is annotated with a document identifier in order to sample positive and negative examples. The relevant document collection $D^+$ includes all German documents which are linked to an English document by a mate or bidirectional link relation. For the contrast documents $D^-$ we use the News Commentary corpus, split into documents. In a pre-processing step, we extract $n$-grams up to order 3 from each document, which we need to calculate $n$-gram precision. We also experimented with a larger training set of 200,000 input sentences but found no significant improvement. All experiments use the same 21 features as the baseline, keeping those weights fixed, but train sparse lexicalized features (rule identifiers, rule source and target bigrams and lexical alignment features described in Simianer et al. (2012)) in parallel on 10 shards, followed by an $\ell_1/\ell_2$ feature selection step which keeps at most 100,000 features. We use a constant learning rate of $\eta = 1e^{-4}$ and regularization strength $C = 1$. Experiments were run for up to 20 epochs and performance on the heldout set1 was used as an early stopping criterion.

Table 2 reports BLEU scores on set2, when our model is trained on an unadapted baseline model (baseline 1). Significance tests were conducted by multeval (Clark et al., 2011). While training on $k$-best lists produced a small incremental gain, training on hypergraphs improved up to 0.6 BLEU over the baseline. Both cost and cost_diff produced an improvement over the baseline, however, cost_diff performed slightly better. As expected, using the strongest signal, the cross-lingual mate relation, worked best. When only the link relation was used, only the experiment with the weighted sampling strategy produced a significant improvement. Figure 4 shows learning curves over epochs on heldout set1 for
Table 3: Results for training on Wikipedia with adapted model. * indicates a significant difference to the baseline at a significance level of 0.05.

| Experiment                                           | %BLEU set2 |
|------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| baseline 2 (LM adaptation)                           | 13.62      |
| hypergraph-train (mates, cost diff)                  | 13.93* (+0.31) |
| baseline 3 (LM and TM adaptation)                    | 14.96      |
| hypergraph-train (mates, cost diff)                  | 15.17* (+0.21) |

Table 3 shows results for training on mates with an adapted baseline model. In both experiments, there was a small, yet significant, improvement over the adapted model, showing that additional information can be learned from the relevance signal.

Examples. To give a better impression what is learned by our method, Table 4 contains some example translations from baseline 1 and the best adapted model from Table 2. Spans in which our model performed better are marked in boldface. Example 1 shows that our model fixed word order mistakes made by the baseline, such as “Apartheid zionistischen”, which is fixed to “zionistischen Apartheid”. The same is true for the proper name and attribution “Thomas Michael Hamerlik (CDU)” in Example 2. Both examples suggest that by training on Wikipedia documents, which include frequent parentheses, quotations and named entities, our model becomes better at handling these types of phrases. Example 3 is interesting, because in this case the baseline produced an idiomatic, rather informal translation for “postponed indefinitely” (“auf den Sankt - Nimmerleins - Tag verschoben”) which would be correct in a spoken language context but strange to use in a Wikipedia article, while our model produced the correct translation (“auf unbestimmte Zeit verschoben”).

5 Conclusion and future work

In this paper we have presented a new objective for learning translation model parameters from graded and negative relevance signals. Using Wikipedia translation as an example, we were able to achieve significant improvements over an unadapted baseline. As expected, a stronger relevance signal produced larger gains, but we were able to produce small, but significant, improvements, even when learning only from indirect links. We compare our method to baselines that use monolingual data to adapt the language model or rely on strong parallelism signals to adapt the translation model. Our approach was able to yield a small gain even when combined with these strong baselines.

It is worth mentioning that our approach is not restricted to Wikipedia data, but could be applied to other large multilingual collections where cross-lingual relevance information can be extracted. For example, cross-lingual mates could be extracted for multilingual patent corpora through patent family relations (i.e. versions of the same patent submitted to different patent organizations). In addition, weaker links are given by the international patent classification system, or by citations between patents. Another application scenario could be social media data which use the same hashtags across languages. If no explicit signals are available, or if they are not strong enough, one could also use unsupervised document similarity metrics or cross-language information retrieval techniques to detect relevant documents in a target language collection and use these documents as positive examples. We plan to explore these directions in the future.

Since our general learning setup and objective is agnostic about the type of translation system we also plan to apply it to neural machine translation.

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Example 1
Source political demands include “the return of all Palestinian refugees to their homes and lands, an end to the Israeli occupation and Zionist apartheid and the establishment of a democratic secular state in Palestine as the ultimate solution to the Arab-Zionist conflict.”
Baseline 1 politische Forderungen: “alle palästinensischen Flüchtlinge die Rückkehr an ihre Heimstätten und Land beenden, an Ende der israelischen Besatzung und Apartheid zionistischen und die Einrichtung einer demokratischen säkularen Staat in Palästina als die ultimative Lösung für das arabisch-zionistischen Konflikt.”
Hypergraph-train politische Forderungen aufzunehmen “die Rückkehr aller palästinensischen Flüchtlinge in ihre Heimat und zu ihren Ländereien, an Ende der israelischen Besatzung und zionistischen Apartheid und die Gründung eines demokratischen säkularen Staates in Palästina als endgültige Lösung des arabisch-zionistischen Konflikts.”
Reference politische Forderungen von Abnaa el-Balad sind u. a. “... die Rückkehr aller palästinensischen Flüchtlinge in ihre Heimat und auf ihr Land, ein Ende der israelischen Besatzung und zionistischen Apartheid und die Gründung eines demokratischen säkularen Staates in Palästina als endgültige Lösung des arabisch-zionistischen Konflikts.”

Example 2
Source the current mayor is Thomas Michael Hamerlik (CDU) with two deputies:
Baseline 1 der derzeitige Bürgermeister Michael Hamerlik Thomas ist mit zwei Stellvertreter (CDU):
Hypergraph-train der derzeitige Bürgermeister ist Thomas Michael Hamerlik (CDU) mit zwei Abgeordneten:
Reference Bürgermeister ist zurzeit Thomas Michael Hamerlik (CDU) mit zwei Stellvertretern:

Example 3
Source this plan was frustrated by the Japanese defeat in the Battle of the Coral Sea and was postponed indefinitely after the Battle of Midway.
Baseline 1 dieser Plan wurde von den Japanern frustriert Niederlage im Kampf der Coral See und nach der Schlacht von Midway auf den Sankt-Nimmerleins-Tag verschoben wurden.
Hypergraph-train dieser Plan wurde frustriert durch die japanische Niederlage im Kampf der Coral Meer und nach der Schlacht von Midway auf unbestimmte Zeit verschoben wurde.
Reference der japanische Plan erlitt mit der Niederlage in der Schlacht im Korallenmeer einen ersten Rückschlag und wurde nach der Niederlage in der Schlacht um Midway auf unbestimmte Zeit verschoben.

Table 4: Translation examples from the test set, comparing the unadapted baseline to adaptation with our method.
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