HI-CMLM: Improve CMLM with Hybrid Decoder Input

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Abstract

Mask-predict CMLM (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019) has achieved stunning performance among non-autoregressive NMT models, but we find that the mechanism of predicting all of the target words only depending on the hidden state of [MASK] is not effective and efficient in initial iterations of refinement, resulting in ungrammatical repetitions and slow convergence. In this work, we mitigate this problem by combining copied source with embeddings of [MASK] in decoder. Notably, it’s not a straightforward copying that is shown to be useless, but a novel heuristic hybrid strategy — fence-mask. Experimental results show that it gains consistent boosts on both WMT14 En↔De and WMT16 En↔Ro corpus by 0.5 BLEU on average, and 1 BLEU for less-informative short sentences. This reveals that incorporating additional information by proper strategies is beneficial to improve CMLM, particularly translation quality of short texts and speeding up early-stage convergence.

1 Introduction

In neural machine translation (NMT), autoregressive models decode tokens one-by-one: \( p(Y|X) = \prod_i^T p(y_i|y_{\leq i}|X) \), which ensures the robustness of intrinsic language models but slows down the inference. Non-autoregressive models break the dependency between adjacent tokens: \( p(Y|X) = \prod_i^T p(y_i|X) \), enabling to generate all outputs in parallel.

Recent years have witnessed impressive advances in non-autoregressive models, such as fully-NAT and its variants (Gu et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), insertion-based models (Stern et al., 2019; Gu et al., 2019) and iterative refinement models (Lee et al., 2018; Ghazvininejad et al., 2019). Mask-predict CMLM (CMLM) stands out of them owing to both significantly-fast inference and remarkable performance (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019). It extends the masked language model (Devlin et al., 2019) and enables it to solving generation tasks with iterative refinement. In each step, the model decodes target conditioned on \( m \) well-predicted tokens with high confidence and \((L-m)\times[\text{MASK}]\), where \( L \) is the length of target (see Section 2 for details). This mechanism leads to the issue that it’s liable to generate repeated tokens and slow down the convergence in early-stage iterations. We speculate this is because the proportion of useful tokens, i.e. \( m \to 0 \), is too small to provide enough information for the next step prediction. Intuitively, the model tends to predict similar or even identical tokens when observing [MASK] only and constantly.

To alleviate this problem, we ameliorate CMLM by incorporating additional information from source embedding into the decoder input (HI-CMLM in short). Experimental results show that it gains consistent boosts on both WMT14 En↔De and WMT16 En↔Ro corpus by 0.5 BLEU on average, and 1 BLEU for less-informative short sentences. This reveals that incorporating additional information by proper strategies is beneficial to improving CMLM, particularly translation quality of short texts and speeding up the convergence of the first four iterations, compared with CMLM.

2 Conditional Masked Language Models

2.1 Model

The architecture of CMLM is a standard encoder-decoder Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) without the decoder self-attention mask because the dependency on left tokens has been removed. Formally, given source/target pair \((X, Y)\), the model first predicts the target length based on \( X \) before decoding, with objective function:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{LEN}} = \log P(L|X; \theta). \tag{1}
\]
In token prediction at step $t$, the model refines unobserved tokens $Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t)}$ by minimizing MLM loss:

$$L_{\text{MLM}} = \sum_{y_i \in Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t)}} \log P(y_i | X, Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t)}; \theta).$$

(2)

based on a sequence consisting of observed tokens $Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t)}$ and masked tokens $Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t)}$. The total loss function is the sum of length loss and MLM loss:

$$L = L_{\text{MLM}} + L_{\text{LEN}}.$$  

(3)

### 2.2 Mask-predict Decoding

The decoder runs a mask operation, followed by predict for $T$ iterations. In each iteration $t$, it masks the $k$ tokens with the lowest probability scores, where $k$ is determined by a linear decay function of $t$: $k = L \times \frac{T-t}{T}$. Observed tokens $Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t+1)}$ and masked tokens $Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t+1)}$ are updated by:

$$Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t+1)} = \arg\min(p_i^{(t)}; k)$$  

(4)

$$Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t+1)} = Y^{(t)} \setminus Y_{\text{mask}}^{(t+1)};$$  

(5)

where $p_i^{(t)}$ is the probability score when the model predicts token $y_i$ at step $t$:

$$y_i^{(t)} = \arg\max P(y_i = w|X, Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t)})$$  

(6)

$$p_i^{(t)} = \max P(y_i = w|X, Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t)}).$$  

(7)

### 2.3 Training Strategy

To simulate the decoding process in each step, the ground truth target is corrupted by randomly replacing several tokens with [MASK]. The number and the position of the [MASK] follows the uniform distribution so that every token has equal chance to be masked. Then, the model has to recover the corrupted sequence.

### 2.4 Rethinking Effectiveness of Mask

In mask-predict, what should be highlighted is that for the first iteration: $t = 0 \rightarrow k = L$, the model masks all the tokens, thus it predicts entire target sequence merely depending on a full sequence of [MASK] of length $L$. This leads to the fact that the decoder always requires more than 5 refinement iterations to converge, which is significantly against the original intention to be faster.

We speculate this may result from following reasons: 1) The proportion of $Y_{\text{obs}}$ is too small to support the masked language model generating fluency sentences and 2) The representation of $Y_{\text{mask}}$ is less informative and distinguishable, and the consecutive [MASK] padding form exacerbates the situation because of lacking useful information inferred from surrounding tokens. We hypothesize that proper initialization of $Y_{\text{obs}}^{(t)}(t \leq 3)$ may be beneficial to speeding up refinement, and improving the final performance. But the question is what initialization would be helpful? Put differently, how to incorporate additional information to $Y_{\text{mask}}$ to ameliorate prediction in initial steps.

### 3 Method

In this section, we propose three hybrid approaches to incorporate source embeddings and describe modifications on training strategy accordingly.

#### 3.1 Copy of Source Embedding

The most straightforward method is to mix mask tokens with the source embedding. To address the inconsistency of length, we follow the prior work by uniform copy or soft copy (Gu et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019) but with a modified copy function which copies tokens according to their relative position instead of the absolute position. We denote the copy function as $z_i = \Phi(e)$:

$$d_{ij} = -\frac{i}{L_Y} - \frac{j}{L_X}$$  

(8)

$$\alpha_{ij} = \frac{\exp(d_{ij})/\tau}{\sum_j L_X \exp(d_{ij})/\tau}$$  

(9)

$$z_i = \sum_j \alpha_{ij} \cdot e_j;$$  

(10)

where $d_{ij}$ is the distance between the target token $y_i$ and source token $x_j$ normalized by specific length, $\alpha_{ij}$ represents the weight and $e_j$ is the embedding of source $x_j$. $\tau$ is the temperature of the softmax function set as 0.2 in our experiment.

#### 3.2 Hybrid Strategy

We compare three strategies to mix copied source embeddings with masks (denoted as Z and M for simplicity) with the baseline (All mask) — All copied, Weighted Sum and our heuristically-proposed Fence Replace, as shown in Figure 1.

**All Mask:** It’s exactly same as CMLM, served as baseline.
Figure 1: The hybrid strategy.

All Copied: We replace all embeddings of mask with copied source embedding added with position embedding, which is equivalent to entirely using the information from source.

Weighted Sum: It mixes the information by adding $M$ and $Z$ elementwise with a certain weight. We test 4 combinations ranging from 0.2 to 0.8 for $M$ and $Z$ with the stride set as 0.2, i.e. $(0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8)M + (0.8, 0.6, 0.4, 0.2)Z$ and report the best result where the weights are 0.6 and 0.4 for $M$ and $Z$, respectively.

Fence Replace: During experiments, we find it’s important to dynamically change the volume of information added to the decoder input with addition of $Y_{obs}$. Concretely, $Z$ may become noise instead of useful signals when $Y_{obs}$ has been fully capable to support MLM independently. Therefore, we propose to replace the masked tokens at odd positions with half of $Z$ exploited, avoiding the decoder input to incorporate too much information and ultimately act as noise. More formally, we first define a mask $(0, 1, 0, 1, ..., 0, 1)$ like a fence with length of $L$ and apply it to stagger the $M$ and $Z$ into a mixed embedding $Z'$, where odd positions are filled with $Z$ and even positions are filled with $M$. Finally, we replace the embedding of $Y_{mask}$ with the mixed embedding of specific positions.

### 4 Experiments

#### 4.1 Experimental Setup

We evaluate HI-CMLMs with the proposed hybrid strategies on standard machine translation benchmarks including WMT14 En↔De and WMT16 En↔Ro in both directions.

**Datasets** The sizes of the dataset are 4.5M and 610k for En↔De and En↔Ro respectively. We create the knowledge distilled data as suggested in (Gu et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2020) with same configurations. BPE (Sennrich et al., 2016) is used for tokenization with the vocabulary size set to 42k and 40k for En↔De and En↔Ro.

**Model Configurations** We apply the same weight initialization method and configurations on hyperparameters as prior work: $n_{layers} = 12$, $n_{heads} = 8$, $d_{hidden} = 512$, $d_{FFN} = 2048$ (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019; Vaswani et al., 2017). Our model is trained on 4 Tesla V100 GPUs with the max batch size of 8k tokens per card. Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2015) is used for optimization. The learning rate warms-up for 20k steps to 5e-4 and decays with the inversed-sqrt scheduler. We implement models in the experiment with fairseq (Ott et al., 2019).

#### 4.2 Results and Analysis

Table 1 shows the performance of the proposed HI-CMLM with the BLEU score (Papineni et al., 2002). For each language pair, the model obtains consistent improvements with the Fence Replace, but no gains with another two.
Table 1: The performance of the AT teacher, the baseline CMLM, and the HI-CMLM with different hybrid strategies.

| Model                                      | En-De | De-En | En-Ro | Ro-En |
|---------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017)         | 27.30 | -     | -     | -     |
| Transformer (Our Implementation)           | 27.72 | 30.04 | 34.03 | 33.93 |
| CMLM (Ghazvininejad et al., 2019)          | 27.03 | 30.53 | 33.08 | 33.31 |
| CMLM (Our Implementation)                  | 26.89 | 30.71 | 32.94 | 33.07 |
| HI-CMLM + All Mask                         | 27.01 | 30.74 | 32.89 | 33.03 |
| HI-CMLM + All Copied                       | 26.76 | 30.82 | 32.74 | 32.95 |
| HI-CMLM + Weighted Sum                     | 26.81 | 30.79 | 32.80 | 33.14 |
| HI-CMLM + Fence Replace                    | 27.42 (+0.53) | 31.32 (+0.61) | 33.36 (+0.42) | 33.51 (+0.44) |

Table 2: BLEU scores of target sentences with different lengths at the 10-th step.

| Length    | CMLM | HI-CMLM (Fence Replace) |
|-----------|------|-------------------------|
| Overall   | 26.89 | 27.42 (+0.53)           |
| [0,10)    | 22.24 | 23.27 (+1.03)           |
| [10,23)   | 26.46 | 26.98 (+0.52)           |
| [23,+)    | 27.61 | 27.81 (+0.20)           |

Figure 2: BLEU scores of every step with max_iter=10 for all hybrid strategies as well as the baseline.

To further investigate why Fence Replace stands out, we draw outputs of each step for four strategies in Figure 2 with max_iter=10. It shows from step 4, the model with All Copied and Weighted Sum strategy start to fall back to the All Mask level, which means for the later steps, the added information turns into noise, but can be appropriately controlled by the Fence Replace. We empirically explain how it controls below.

**Results on different length targets** We evaluate performance of Fence Replace over three bins based on the length of targets: [0, 10), [10, 23), and [23, ∞). Table 2 shows more gains are obtained on short sentences. Intuitively, we guess the benefits result from the enhanced condition of \( p(y_i | X) \), by complementing sparse \( X \) of short sentences with informative \( \text{mix}(Z, M) \) in early steps. But if so,

why All Copied and Weighted Sum do not work? We show it’s not the whole story. In Figure 3, the proportion of \( Z \) actually used for replacement has been reduced from step 6 for all length bins due to the sparsity of re-masked tokens, particularly for shorter sentences, it’s much less than 50% that is pre-determined by fence and dropped faster. So the outstanding performance of Fence Replace is not only attributed to incorporated source embedding but the significantly-reduced proportion of \( Z \) in later steps as well, effectively avoiding \( Z \) from acting as noise.

This comprehensively reveals that the Fence Replace can flexibly balance the information feed to decoder inputs, more signals in early-stage refinement and less information in later steps.

Figure 3: The proportion of copied source embedding within the masked area for sentences with different length when applying the Fence Replace strategy.

**5 Conclusion**

We present HI-CMLM, an extension of CMLM by mixing source embedding with a hybrid strategy — Fence Replace, which can appropriately balance the information applied to the model. It achieves consistent improvements on two benchmarks in both directions, particularly short sentences.
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