YSDA Participation in the WMT’16 Quality Estimation Shared Task

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Abstract

This paper describes Yandex School of Data Analysis (YSDA) submission for WMT2016 Shared Task on Quality Estimation (QE) / Task 1: Sentence-level prediction of post-editing effort. We solve the problem of quality estimation by using a machine learning approach, where we try to learn a regressor from feature space to HTER score. By enriching the baseline features with the syntactical features and additional translation system based features, we achieve Pearson correlation of 0.525 on the test set.

1 Introduction

The WMT’16 QE has included the sentence level sub-task. The goal is to predict the amount of effort required to post-edit machine-translated sentences. For this task the organizers provide a parallel corpus of English-German sentences obtained via some machine translation system, as well as corresponding manually post-edited reference sentences. The amount of post-editing is measured by edit-distance rate HTER (Snover et al., 2006) between the system’s translation and the reference translation. HTER scores were computed by TER\textsuperscript{1} software.

Our system extracts numerical features from sentences and uses a machine learning approach to predict HTER score. In addition to the baseline features we include syntactic features.

We also found that HTER scores have a long tailed distribution. More than 60% of examples have HTER score less than 30, at the same time the maximum value (on provided data) is 150, but there are only few sentences getting such high score. This observation led us to an idea first to predict BLEU (which is currently the most popular metric for evaluation in MT (Papineni et al., 2002).

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes analysis of provided data, Section 3 contains machine learning setup and features details, Section 4 summarizes and discusses the results.

2 Data analysis

The main goal of this task is to predict HTER score given source sentence and corresponding translation. The corpus contains HTER scores greater than 100 (in this task we use HTER * 100%, so the values should be in the range from 0 to 100). Organizers advised to clip scores at 100.

To analyze the data set we plotted the distribution of HTER (based on capped train data) (see Figure 1 and distribution statistics in Table 1).

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{HTER_distribution}
\caption{HTER distribution for train data}
\end{figure}

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & HTER & BLEU \\
\hline
mean & 25.79 & 0.61 \\
std & 20.59 & 0.24 \\
min & 0.0 & 0.07 \\
25\% & 9.10 & 0.42 \\
50\% & 23.08 & 0.60 \\
75\% & 38.46 & 0.80 \\
max & 100.0 & 1.0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Statistics of HTER and BLEU for train data}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{1}http://www.cs.umd.edu/~snover/tercom/
The plot demonstrates that more than 3% of all examples have score equal to 0. This distribution has sample median of 23 and a long tail. Therefore, the problem is to predict this tail by a few number of examples.

Motivated by this statistics we computed BLEU score, using translation and post-edited variant as a reference. We found that HTER and BLEU have a high Pearson correlation (-0.8423), while BLEU distribution is much easier to predict. Comparison of distributions can be found in Table 1.

According to our experiments, modified 2-gram precision (Papineni et al., 2002) has the best Pearson correlation (-0.943). For this reason we decided also to use modified 2-gram precision to simplify prediction problem.

3 Model description

This section describes the regression algorithm used to predict HTER score and features details.

3.1 Algorithms

We use SVR with RBF-kernel from scikit-learn toolkit\(^2\) for both regressors (BLEU and modified 2-gram precision), where C and \(\gamma\) were found by grid search on cross-validation. Then we use linear kernel SVR to combine predictions from the previous stage to predict target HTER.

3.2 Features

Along with the provided baseline features (Section 3.2.1), we extracted our own features:

- syntactically motivated features (Section 3.2.2)
- web-scaled language model features (Section 3.2.3)
- pseudo-reference and back-translation features (Section 3.2.4)
- miscellaneous features (Section 3.2.5)
- combinations of described above features (Section 3.2.6)

3.2.1 Baseline features

The next 17 baseline features were provided by organizers (Bojar et al., 2015):

1. number of tokens in the source sentence
2. number of tokens in the target sentence
3. average source token length
4. LM probability of source sentence
5. LM probability of target sentence
6. number of occurrences of the target word within the target hypothesis (averaged for all words in the hypothesis - type/token ratio)
7. average number of translations per source word in the sentence (as given by IBM 1 table thresholded such that \(\text{prob}(t|s) > 0.2)\)
8. average number of translations per source word in the sentence (as given by IBM 1 table thresholded such that \(\text{prob}(t|s) > 0.01)\) weighted by the inverse frequency of each word in the source corpus
9. percentage of unigrams in quartile 1 of frequency (lower frequency words) in a corpus of the source language (SMT training corpus)
10. percentage of unigrams in quartile 4 of frequency (higher frequency words) in a corpus of the source language
11. percentage of bigrams in quartile 1 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language
12. percentage of bigrams in quartile 4 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language
13. percentage of trigrams in quartile 1 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language
14. percentage of trigrams in quartile 4 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language
15. percentage of unigrams in the source sentence seen in a corpus (SMT training corpus)
16. number of punctuation marks in the source sentence
17. number of punctuation marks in the target sentence

3.2.2 Syntactically motivated features

We decided to use morphosyntactical information, that can be extracted from source and translation sentences.

To collect this information we used an implementation of dependency parser described in (Zhang and Nivre, 2011), trained for English and German.
The intuition is the more syntactically complex the source sentence is, the more corrections during post-editing are needed.

Firstly, the features based on syntactic tree structure for source and translation were extracted:

- tree width, i.e. how many dependencies the root has
- maximum tree depth, i.e. maximum number of dependency levels in the tree
- average depth of the tree
- proportion of internal nodes in the tree

Secondly, the information obtained from POS-tags and dependency roles (for both: source and translation) was used:

- number of verbs
- number of verbs with dependent subjects
- number of nouns
- number of subjects
- whether the sentence begins with a verb (indicator feature)
- number of conjunctions
- whether the German polite imperative is used as a translation for the simple English imperative (‘Fügen Sie’ for ‘Add’).

Thirdly, source-side syntactic features were extracted:

- number of relative clauses (the more relative clauses the sentence has, the poorer the translation is likely to be)
- number of attributive clauses

Due to the parser’s imperfection, it is also useful to inform the machine learning algorithm how confident we are that the sentence is parsed correctly. We use parsing scores for source and translation as additional features, as well as their difference, bearing the following observation in mind: it is more difficult to parse poorly translated sentence and a large difference is likely to be an indicator that more corrections will be required during post-editing.

3.2.3 Additional resources

It is well known that the performance of SMT systems heavily relies on the quality of their language models. We used in-house web-scale language models containing hundreds of millions ngrams to make the following features:

- Web LM probability for source and translation
- Web LM probability for translation with splitted compounds
- Web LM probability for translation without punctuation
- percentage of rare words in translated sentence – for each word we calculate Web LM probability and count percentage of words with weights lower than certain threshold. Threshold was chosen empirically by assumption, that terms, compounds, foreign and other rare words have lower probability. About 30% of all unique words in train set were marked as rare.

3.2.4 Pseudo-references and back-translations

Another set of features was obtained by using translations from additional online translation system\(^3\). For our purposes we generated two types of translations:

- pseudo-references for source sentence
- back-translations (Shigenobu, 2007) for machine translation

For both types of translation we calculated following features:

- BLEU
- modified 1-gram precision
- modified 2-gram precision
- modified 3-gram precision
- modified 4-gram precision
- brevity penalty

3.2.5 Miscellaneous features

We propose to use some information, which can be obtained from plain text:

\(^3\)http://translate.yandex.com/
• number of quotation marks – an odd number of quotations in the translation often indicates incorrect translation

• number of words ending with hyphen – a possible indicator of sentence complexity and, sometimes, errors (“Pinsel-Pop-upmenü” should be “Pinsel- Popupmenü” or “Überschriften- und eine Liste” should be “Überschrift und einer Liste”)

• whether the sentence contains an url address

• number of untranslated words

Some features were based on data provided for the QE sub-task 2 “Word and phrase-level QE” – word-level alignments between source and translation sentences:

• mean number of alignments for each source word

• maximum number of alignments for each source word

• number of unaligned words in translation

3.2.6 Feature combinations

Also we decided to use additional features, which were combined from ones described earlier. For example, if source part had 2 quotations, and translation has 3, we decided to indicate it somehow. For these reason we added differences between following features:

• number of punctuation marks in source and translation sentences

• number of quotations in source and translation sentences

• LM probabilities of source and translation sentences

• Web LM probabilities of source and translation sentences

• Web LM probabilities of translation before and after compounds splitting

• Web LM probabilities of source sentence and translation with splitted compounds

• Web LM probabilities of source sentence and translation without punctuation

• number of words in source and translation sentences

4 Experiments and Results

4.1 Preprocessing

Taking into consideration domain specifics of the data, i.e. large amount of URLs, file names, as well as presence of compounds in German, we make a simple preprocessing by applying the following rules:

• replace URLs and file names with a single dummy token

• split German compounds with compound splitting algorithm similar to (Koehn and Knight, 2003)

• remove redundant punctuation from provided machine translations

4.2 Feature selection

We applied the following popular feature selection algorithms to detect weak features:

• removing features with low variance

• univariate feature selection

Due to this analysis, two baseline features were removed: “percentage of unigrams in quartile 1 of frequency (lower frequency words) in a corpus of the source language (SMT training corpus)” and “percentage of trigrams in quartile 1 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language”.

4.3 Feature scaling

Since features have different nature, feature normalization is needed. Every feature was scaled with the following transformation:

$$x = \frac{x - \text{mean}(x)}{\text{std}(x)}$$

where mean is the feature’s mean value and std is its standard deviation. Mean and std for each feature were extracted from train set. After this procedure every feature has zero mean and a standard deviation of 1.

4.4 Evaluation

There are three metrics for this task: Pearson correlation (primary metric), MSE, and RMSE. The main disadvantage of using MSE and RSME here is a long tail of target values: if the model fails to predict a high score, an absolute error for this prediction will be large as well.
| Features set                               | Pearson correlation | MAE  | RMSE |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------|------|------|
| Baseline                                  | 0.387               | 13.83| 18.98|
| Baseline + Syntax                         | 0.438               | 13.50| 18.51|
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM                | 0.469               | 13.30| 18.24|
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM + Pseudo references | 0.519       | 12.75| 17.71|
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM + Pseudo references + Miscellaneous + Combinations | **0.530** | **12.60** | **17.35** |

Table 2: Results on dev set

| Features set                               | Pearson correlation | MAE  | RMSE |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------|------|------|
| Baseline                                  | 0.370               | 13.43| 18.05|
| Baseline + Syntax                         | 0.445               | 12.95| 17.44|
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM                | 0.489               | 12.72| 17.01|
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM + Pseudo references | **0.530** | **12.28** | **16.51** |
| Baseline + Syntax + Web LM + Pseudo references + Miscellaneous + Combinations | 0.525               | 12.30| 16.41|

Table 3: Results on test set

4.5 Results

Results on dev and test sets can be found in Tables 2 and 3 respectively. All experiments have the same preprocessing setup. Since BLEU ranges from 0 to 1, we clip predicted values to fit into this interval. Predicted HTER is also clipped to fit into [0, 100] interval.

Feature set names are as follows:

1. Baseline features contains provided 17 features. For the next experiments we used 15 baseline features, which remained after feature selection.
2. Syntax features use syntactical information about sentences (Section 3.2.2).
3. Web LM features are additional resource features (Section 3.2.3).
4. Pseudo references features use information from pseudo-references and back-translations (Section 3.2.4).
5. Miscellaneous + Combinations features include miscellaneous information from sentences and features combinations (Section 3.2.5, Section 3.2.6).

So the experiments described above led to significant improvement of classifier’s quality. The most noticeable increase was achieved by implementing syntactically motivated features. This result is related to the fact that sentences with complex syntactical structure are difficult to translate. Moreover, syntax of poorly translated sentences is harder to parse, leading to less confident parsing scores.

Adding features based on pseudo-references also improves the quality of our model. Those cases, where translations differ from pseudo-references, are likely to be complex for MT. Back-translation features were also helpful for checking out whether the original meaning was lost during translation.

It is worth noting, that optimal features for the test set and the dev set differ. The best model has been chosen according to the dev set, so some adjustment to this set could occur. Despite it there are only 1000 sentences in the dev set and this could be insufficient for obtaining adequate estimation.

4.6 Feature importances

After model training we calculated the most informative features using Random Forest (Breiman, 2001) algorithms:

- modified 2-gram precision for pseudo-reference (Pseudo references)
- percentage of trigrams in quartile 4 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language (Baseline)
- LM probability of source sentence (Baseline)
- difference between syntactical parser scores of source and machine translation (Syntax)
- BLEU for pseudo-reference (Pseudo references)
• percentage of bigrams in quartile 4 of frequency of source words in a corpus of the source language (Baseline)
• BLEU for back-translation (Pseudo references)
• difference between LM probability of source and translation (Combinations)
• Web LM probability of machine translation (Web LM)
• average number of translations per source word in the sentence (as given by IBM 1 table thresholded such that prob(t|s) > 0.2) (Baseline)

4.7 Discussion
While analyzing results we found some MT-sentences, that receive small scores from our algorithm (predicted HTER – pHTER) and at the same time have large HTER scores.

There are cases, where the editor attempts to broaden the context rather than to minimize the number of corrections. For example, while the original translation is valid and no corrections are needed, it is completely rewritten by the editor:

SRC: Complete the dialog box.
MT: Füllen Sie das Dialogfeld.
PE: Nehmen Sie im Dialogfeld die erforderlichen Einstellungen vor.

HTER: 66.667
pHTER: 7.899

It can be seen here, that our regressor predicts small edit distance, while edit distance between MT and PE is over 50 (that means the translation is incorrect).

There is also inconsistency in the way German compounds are treated. In some cases a compound in machine translation is replaced with a combination of two words in post-edited sentence, while in others it remains joined. For example, in one case “Kanälenbedienfeld” is replaced with “Bedienfeld Kanäle”, but in another – it stays the same. And the difference between HTER score and predicted score in second case is larger, respectively. There are also opposite cases, when words are joined into a single German compound in post-edited sentence.

Similar observation holds for sentences with if-clauses, where they are swapped with main clauses: in some cases post-edited sentence contains swapped clauses, but in others the original order is kept.

It was noticed, that there is no regularity in post-editings. This can lead to greater difference between original and predicted HTER scores as well as cause noise during machine learning. It can also be critical while training set is not very large and peculiarities mentioned above can affect algorithm adversely.

5 Conclusions and future work
In this paper YSDA submission for WMT16 Shared Task on Quality Estimation (QE) / Task 1: Sentence-level prediction of post-editing effort, is discussed. This work is based on the idea that the more complex the sentence is the more difficult it is to translate. For this purpose, the information, provided by syntactic parsing, was used. This allowed to estimate the quality of machine translated sentences as well as complexity of source sentences. We also decided to replace the target metric for the regressor (HTER to BLEU) to obtain a more robust machine learning solution. Further work will address the implementation of our model for other language pairs. It would be interesting to study how this approach works for distant language pairs (i.e. English-Turkish). We also plan to work on syntactically motivated features in order to extract more complex, as well as more informative, features from parsed data.

6 Acknowledgements
We thank Irina Galinskaya and Alexey Baytin for their help and detailed feedback.

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