Lessons from NRC’s Portage System at WMT 2010

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Abstract

NRC’s Portage system participated in the English-French (E-F) and French-English (F-E) translation tasks of the ACL WMT 2010 evaluation. The most notable improvement over earlier versions of Portage is an efficient implementation of lattice MERT. While Portage has typically performed well in Chinese to English MT evaluations, most recently in the NIST09 evaluation, our participation in WMT 2010 revealed some interesting differences between Chinese-English and E-F/F-E translation, and alerted us to certain weak spots in our system. Most of this paper discusses the problems we found in our system and ways of fixing them. We learned several lessons that we think will be of general interest.

1 Introduction

Portage, the statistical machine translation system of the National Research Council of Canada (NRC), is a two-pass phrase-based system. The translation tasks to which it is most often applied are Chinese to English, English to French (henceforth “E-F”), and French to English (henceforth “F-E”); in recent years we worked on Chinese-English translation for the GALE project and for NIST evaluations, and English and French are Canada’s two official languages. In WMT 2010, Portage scored 28.5 BLEU (uncased) for F-E, but only 27.0 BLEU (uncased) for E-F. For both language pairs, Portage truecasing caused a loss of 1.4 BLEU; other WMT systems typically lost around 1.0 BLEU after truecasing. (Human evaluation scores are not yet available at the time of writing). In Canada, about 80% of translations between English and French are from English to French, so we would have preferred better results for that direction. This paper first describes the version of Portage that participated in WMT 2010. It then analyzes problems with the system and describes the solutions we found for some of them.

2 Portage system description

2.1 Core engine and training data

The NRC system uses a standard two-pass phrase-based approach. Major features in the first-pass loglinear model include phrase tables derived from symmetrized IBM2 alignments and symmetrized HMM alignments, a distance-based distortion model, a lexicalized distortion model, and language models (LMs) that can be either static or else dynamic mixtures. Each phrase table used was a merged one, created by separately training an IBM2-based and an HMM-based joint count table on the same data and then adding the counts. Each includes relative frequency estimates and lexical estimates (based on Zens and Ney, 2004) of forward and backward conditional probabilities. The lexicalized distortion probabilities are also obtained by adding IBM2 and HMM counts. They involve 6 features (monotone, swap and discontinuous features for following and preceding phrase) and are conditioned on phrase pairs in a model similar to that used by Moses; a MAP-based backoff smoothing scheme is used to combat data sparseness when estimating these probabilities. Dynamic mixture LMs are linear mixtures of ngram models trained on parallel sub-corpora with weights set to minimize perplexity of the current source text as described in (Foster and Kuhn, 2007); henceforth, we’ll call them “dynamic LMs”.

Decoding uses the cube-pruning algorithm of (Huang and Chiang, 2007) with a 7-word distortion limit. Contrary to the usual implementation of distortion limits, we allow a new phrase to end
more than 7 words past the first non-covered word, as long as the new phrase starts within 7 words from the first non-covered word. Notwithstanding the distortion limit, contiguous phrases can always be swapped. Out-of-vocabulary (OOV) source words are passed through unchanged to the target. Loglinear weights are tuned with Och's max-BLEU algorithm over lattices (Macherey et al., 2008); more details about lattice MERT are given in the next section. The second pass rescores 1000-best lists produced by the first pass, with additional features including various LM and IBM-model probabilities; n-gram, length, and reordering posterior probabilities and frequencies; and quote and parenthesis mismatch indicators. To improve the quality of the maxima found by MERT when using large sets of partially-overlapping rescoring features, we use greedy feature selection, first expanding from a baseline set, then pruning.

We restricted our training data to data that was directly available through the workshop's website; we didn’t use the LDC resources mentioned on the website (e.g., French Gigaword, English Gigaword). Below, “mono” refers to all monolingual data (Europarl, news-commentary, and shuffle); “mono” English is roughly three times bigger than “mono” French (50.6 M lines in “mono” English, 17.7 M lines in “mono” French). “Domain” refers to all WMT parallel training data except GigaFrEn (i.e., for Europarl, news-commentary, and UN).

2.2 Preprocessing and postprocessing

We used our own English and French pre- and post-processing tools, rather than those available from the WMT web site. For training, all English and French text is tokenized with a language-specific tokenizer and then mapped to lowercase. Truecasing uses an HMM approach, with lexical probabilities derived from “mono” and transition probabilities from a 3-gram LM trained on truecase “mono”. A subsequent rule-based pass capitalizes sentence-initial words. A final detokenization step undoes the tokenization.

2.3 System configurations for WMT 2010

In the weeks preceding the evaluation, we tried several ways of arranging the resources available to us. We picked the configurations that gave the highest BLEU scores on WMT2009 Newstest. We found that tuning with lattice MERT rather than N-best MERT allowed us to employ more parameters and obtain better results.

E-F system components:

1. Phrase table trained on “domain”;
2. Phrase table trained on GigaFrEn;
3. Lexicalized distortion model trained on “domain”;
4. Distance-based distortion model;
5. 5-gram French LM trained on “mono”;
6. 4-gram LM trained on French half of GigaFrEn;
7. Dynamic LM composed of 4 LMs, each trained on the French half of a parallel corpus (5-gram LM trained on “domain”, 4-gram LM on GigaFrEn, 5-gram LM on news-commentary and 5-gram LM on UN).

F-E system components:

1. Phrase table trained on “domain”
2. Phrase table trained on GigaFrEn
3. Lexicalized distortion model trained on “domain”
4. Distance-based distortion model
5. 5-gram English LM trained on “mono”
6. 4-gram LM trained on English half of GigaFrEn
7. Dynamic LM composed of 4 LMs, each trained on the English half of a parallel corpus (5-gram LM trained on “domain”, 4-gram LM on GigaFrEn, 5-gram LM on news-commentary and 5-gram LM on UN).

3 Details of lattice MERT

Our system’s implementation of lattice MERT (LMERT; Macherey et al., 2008) is the most notable recent change in our system. As more and more features are included in the loglinear model, many of them strongly correlated, N-best MERT (Och, 2003) shows more and more variability in its results, because of convergence to local optima (Foster and Kuhn, 2009). We had been looking for methods that promise more stability and better convergence. LMERT seemed to fit the bill. It optimizes over the complete lattice of candidate translations after a decoding run. This avoids some of the problems of N-best lists, which lack variety, leading to poor local optima and the need for many decoder runs.

Though the algorithm is straightforward and is highly parallelizable, attention must be paid to space and time resource issues during implementation. Lattices output by our decoder were large and needed to be shrunk dramatically for the algorithm to function well. Fortunately, this could be achieved via the finite state equivalence algorithm for minimizing deterministic finite state
machines. The second helpful idea was to separate out the features that were a function of the phrase associated with an arc (e.g., translation length and translation model probability features). These features could then be stored in a smaller phrase-feature table. Features associated with language or distortion models need to be handled in a larger transition-feature table.

The above ideas, plus careful coding of data structures, brought the memory footprint down sufficiently to allow us to use complete lattices from the decoder and optimize over the complete development set for NIST09 Chinese-English. However, combining lattices between decoder runs again resulted in memory requirements. We achieved acceptable performance by searching only the lattice from the latest decoder run; perhaps information from earlier runs, though critical for convergence in N-best MERT, isn’t as important for LMERT.

Powell’s algorithm (PA), which is at the core of MERT, has good convergence when features are mostly independent and do not depart much from a simple coordinate search; it can run into problems when there are many, correlated features (as with multiple translation and language models). Figure 1 shows the kind of case where PA works well. The contours of the function being optimized are relatively smooth, facilitating learning of new search directions from gradients.

Figure 2 shows a more difficult case: there is a single optimum, but noise dominates and PA has difficulty finding new directions. Search often iterates over the original co-ordinates, missing optima that are nearby but in directions not discoverable from local gradients. Probes in random directions can do better than iteration over the same directions (this is similar to the method proposed for N-best MERT by Cer et al., 2008). Each 1-dimensional MERT optimization is exact, so if our probe stabs a region with better scores, it will be discovered. Figures 1 and 2 only hint at the problem: in reality, 2-dimensional search isn’t a problem. The difficulties occur as the dimension grows: in high dimensions, it is more important to get good directions and they are harder to find.

For WMT 2010, we crafted a compromise with the best properties of PA, yet allowing for a more aggressive search in more directions. We start with PA. As long as PA is adding new direction vectors, it is continued. When PA stops adding new directions, random rotation (orthogonal transformation) of the coordinates is performed and PA is restarted in the new space. PA almost always fails to introduce new directions within the new coordinates, then fails again, so another set of random coordinates is chosen. This process repeats until convergence.

Our LMERT implementation has room for improvement: it may still run into over-fitting problems with many correlated features. However, during preparation for the evaluation, we noticed that LMERT converged better than N-best MERT, allowing models with more features and higher BLEU to be chosen. After the WMT submission, we discovered that our LMERT implementation had a bug; our submission was tuned with this buggy LMERT. Comparison between our E-F submission tuned with N-best MERT and the same system tuned with bug-fixed LMERT shows BLEU gains of +1.5-3.5 for LMERT (on dev, WMT2009, and WMT2010, with no rescoring). However, N-best MERT performed very poorly in this case; we usually obtain a gain due to LMERT of +0.5-1.0 (e.g., for the submitted F-E system).
4 Problems and Solutions

4.1 Fixing LMERT

Just after the evaluation, we noticed a discrepancy for E-F between BLEU scores computed during LMERT optimization and scores from the 1-best list immediately after decoding. Our LMERT code had a bug that garbled any accented word in the French reference; previous LMERT experiments had English as target language, so the bug hadn’t showed up. The bug involved a Perl script that implicitly converted text from ISO Latin 1 encoding to Unicode UTF-8 (this doesn’t affect characters in the 7-bit ASCII set, such as English ones, but affects French accents). Words in candidate translations were not garbled, so correct translations with accents received a lower BLEU score than they should have. As Table 1 shows, this bug cost us about 0.5 BLEU for WMT 2010 E-F after rescoring (according to the version of BLEU used internally at NRC, which differs from the WMT definition of BLEU in the way the brevity penalty, tokenization, and smoothing are handled). It is remarkable that despite this bug, the system tuned with buggy LMERT (and submitted) was still better than the best system we obtained with N-best MERT. The bug had no impact on F-E scores.

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<tr>
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<th>Dev</th>
<th>WMT2009</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LMERT (bug)</td>
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<td>26.85</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMERT (no bug)</td>
<td>25.43</td>
<td>26.89</td>
<td>28.07</td>
</tr>
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Table 1: LMERT bug fix (E-F BLEU after rescoring)

4.2 Fixing odd translations

After the evaluation, we carefully studied the system outputs on the WMT 2010 test data, particularly for E-F. Apart from truecasing errors, we noticed two kinds of bad behaviour: translations of proper names and apparent passthrough of English words to the French side.

Examples of E-F translations of proper names from our WMT 2010 submission (each from a different sentence):

Mr. Onderka → M. Roman, Lukáš Marvan → G. Lukáš, Janey → The, Janette Tozer → Janette, Aysel Tugluk → joints tugluk, Tawa Hallae → Ottawa, Oleson → production, Alcobendas → ;

When the LMERT bug described above was fixed, some but not all of these inappropriate translations were corrected (e.g., 3 of the 8 examples above were corrected).

Our system passes OOV words through unchanged. Thus, the names above aren’t OOVs, but words that occur rarely in the training data, and for which bad alignments have a disproportionate effect. We realized that when a source word begins with a capital, that may be a signal that it should be passed through. We thus designed a passthrough feature function that applies to all capitalized forms not at the start of a sentence (and also to forms at the sentence start if they’re capitalized elsewhere). Consecutive sequences of capitalized forms are grouped into a phrase suggestion (e.g., Barack Obama → barack obama) which competes with phrase table entries and is assigned a weight by MERT.

The passthrough feature function yields a tiny improvement over the E-F system with the bug-fixed LMERT on the dev corpus (WMT 2008): +0.06 BLEU. It yields a larger improvement on our test corpus: +0.27 BLEU. Furthermore, it corrects all the examples from the WMT 2010 test shown above (after the LMERT bug fix 5 of the 8 examples shown above still had problems, but when the passthrough function is incorporated all of them go away). Although the BLEU gain is small, we are very glad to have found a way of handling this type of error: human beings find it extremely annoying.

The opposite type of error is apparent passthrough. For instance, “we’re” appeared 12 times in the WMT 2010 test data, and was translated 6 times into French as “we’re” - even though better translations had higher forward probabilities. The source of the problem is the backward probability $P(E=\text{“we’re”}|F=\text{“we’re”})$, which is 1.0; the backward probabilities for better French translations of “we’re” are lower. Because of the high probability $P(E=\text{“we’re”}|F=\text{“we’re”})$ within the loglinear combination, the decoder often chooses “we’re” as the French translation of “we’re”.

The $(E=\text{“we’re”}, F=\text{“we’re”})$ phrase pair in our WMT 2010 phrase tables arose from two sentence pairs where the supposed French translation of an English sentence is in fact a copy of that English sentence. In both cases, the original English sentence contains “we’re”. Naturally, the English words on the “French” side are consistently word-aligned with their identical twins on the English side. In general, if the training data has sentence pairs where the “French” sentence contains words from the English sentence, those
words or phrases will end up with very high backward probabilities of being translated as themselves. This problem won’t necessarily manifest itself as an apparent passthrough. Instead, it might cause MERT to lower the weight of the backward probability component and thus hurt performance.

We looked for English contamination of the French side of the parallel training data. The degree of contamination is roughly 0.05% for Europarl, 0.5% for news-commentary, 0.5% of UN, and 1% of GigaFrEn (in these corpora the French is also contaminated by other languages, particularly German). We didn’t quantify foreign contamination of English for these corpora, though it appears to be much less frequent. Contamination can take strange forms. We expected to see English sentences copied over intact to the French side, and we did, but we did not expect to see so many “French” sentences that interleaved short English word sequences with short French word sequences, apparently because text with an English and a French column had been copied by taking lines from alternate columns. We found a large number of these interleaved “French” sentences, and found some of them in exactly this form on the Web (i.e., the corruption didn’t occur during WMT data collection). The details of contamination may not matter: whenever the “French” training sentence contains words from its English partner, there is potential for serious damage via the backward probabilities.

To test this hypothesis, we filtered all parallel and monolingual training data for the E-F system with a language guessing tool called text_cat (Cavnar and Trenkle, 1994). From parallel data, we filtered out sentence pairs whose French side had a high probability of not being French; from LM training data, sentences with a high non-French probability. We set the filtering level by inspecting the guesser’s assessment of news-commentary sentences, choosing a rather aggressive level that eliminated 0.7% of news-commentary sentence pairs. We used the same level to filter Europarl (0.8% of sentence pairs removed), UN (3.4%), GigaFrEn (4.7%), and “mono” (4.3% of sentences).

Table 2 shows the results: a small but consistent gain (about +0.2 BLEU). We have not yet confirmed or refuted the hypothesis that words in the target sentences of parallel data that are copies of words in the corresponding source sentences lead to damage to backward probability estimates that has a significant impact on system performance.

### 4.3 Fixing problems with LM training

After the evaluation, we realized that our arrangement of the training data for the LMs for both language directions was flawed. The grouping together of disparate corpora in “mono” and “domain” didn’t allow higher-quality, in-domain corpora to be weighted more heavily (e.g., the news-related corpora should probably have higher weights than Europarl, but they are lumped together in “mono”). There are also potentially harmful overlaps between LMs (e.g., GigaFrEn is used both inside and outside the dynamic LM).

To see if these flaws had an impact on performance, we trained a new set of French LMs for the E-F system, which replaced all the French LMs described in section 2.3 in the E-F system:

1. 5-gram LM trained on news-commentary and shuffle;

We did not apply the passthrough function or language filtering (section 4.2) to any of the training data for any component (LMS, TMs, distortion models) of this system; we did use the bug-fixed version of LMERT (section 4.1).

The experiments with these new French LMs for the E-F system yielded a small decrease of NRC BLEU on dev (-0.15) and small increases on WMT Newstest 2009 and Newstest 2010 (+0.2 and +0.4 respectively; results without resoring). We didn’t do F-E experiments of this type.

### 4.4 Fixing truecasing

Our truecaser doesn’t work as well as the truecasers of other groups: we lost 1.4 BLEU by truecasing in both language directions, while others lost about 1.0 (and some lost less). To improve our truecaser’s performance, we tried: 1. Training it on all data available for the relevant language. 2. Collecting case-pattern statistics over 3-grams instead of unigrams. Neither of these helped scores significantly. We now believe that

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<th>Dev</th>
<th>WMT2009</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
<td>25.23</td>
<td>26.47</td>
<td>27.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>Filtered</td>
<td>25.45</td>
<td>26.66</td>
<td>27.98</td>
</tr>
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Table 2: Data filtering (E-F BLEU, no rescoring)
we could improve truecaser performance by letting case information from source words influence the case of the target words they generate. Unfortunately, we didn’t have time to carry out the necessary software changes before submission of this paper.

5 Lessons

LMERT is a clear improvement over N-best MERT. The submitted system was one for which N-best MERT happened to work particularly badly, so we got ridiculously large gains (after the evaluation, with non-buggy LMERT) of +1.5-3.5 BLEU for LMERT over N-best MERT. These results are outliers: in experiments with similar configurations, we typically get +0.5-1.0 for LMERT over N-best MERT. The changes we tried after submission that yielded improvement were (E-F BLEU gain in brackets): LMERT bug fix (about +0.5); passthrough function (+0.1-0.3); and filtering out of foreign-language information (+0.2 BLEU). We don’t know yet how additive these gains will be. We also obtained a small apparent gain on test data by rearranging E-F LM training data (section 4.3), though the loss on “dev” suggests this may be a statistical fluctuation. Nothing we tried helped truecaser performance significantly, though we have some ideas how to proceed.

More importantly, we learned some general lessons from the WMT 2010 evaluation.

Always test your system on the relevant language pair. Our original version of LMERT was developed on Chinese-English and worked well for that pair, but had a bug that surfaced only when the target language had accents.

European language pairs are more porous to information than Chinese-English. Our WMT system reflected design decisions for Chinese-English, and thus didn’t exploit case information in the source (which gives clues both to the case of corresponding target words, and to their translations). It passed through OOVs to the target, but didn’t pass through other words that are likely to be proper nouns.

It is beneficial to remove foreign-language contamination from the training data.

Finally, when entering an evaluation one hasn’t participated in for several years, always read system papers from the previous year. Some of the WMT 2008 system papers mention passthrough of some non-OOVs, filtering out of noisy training data, and using the case of a source word to predict the case of the corresponding target word.

References


