When you need the gist of something and there are no human translators around:
- translating e-mails & webpages
- obtaining information from sources in multiple languages (e.g., search engines)

If you have a limited vocabulary and a small range of sentence types:
- translating weather reports
- translating technical manuals
- translating terms in scientific meetings

If you want your human translators to focus on interesting/difficult sentences while avoiding lookup of unknown words and translation of mundane sentences.

What is MT good for?

Translation is the process of:
- moving texts from one (human) language (source language) to another (target language),
- in a way that preserves meaning.

Machine translation (MT) automates (part of) the process:
- Fully automatic translation
- Computer-aided (human) translation

What is Machine Translation?

Is MT needed?

Translation is of immediate importance for multilingual countries (Canada, India, Switzerland, . . . ), international institutions (United Nations, International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization, . . . ), multinational or exporting companies.

The European Union has 23 official languages. All federal laws and other documents have to be translated into all languages.

Example translations

The simple case

(1) (Yo) hablo español.
I speak Spanish.

Words in this example pretty much translate one-for-one

But we have to make sure hablo matches with Yo, i.e., that the subject agrees with the form of the verb.

Example translations

A slightly more complex case

The order and number of words can differ:

(2) a. Tu hablas español?
You speak Spanish?

b. Hablas español?
Speak you Spanish?
What goes into a translation

Some things to note about these examples and thus what we might need to know to translate:

- Words have to be translated. → dictionaries
- Words are grouped into meaningful units (cf. our discussion of syntax for grammar checkers).
- Word order can differ from language to language.
- The forms of words within a sentence are systematic, e.g., verbs have to be conjugated, etc.

Dictionaries

An MT dictionary differs from a “paper” dictionary:

- must be computer usable (electronic form, indexed)
- needs to be able to handle various word inflections
- contains (syntactic and semantic) restrictions that a word places on other words
  - e.g., subcategorization information: give needs a giver, a person given to, and an object that is given
  - e.g., selectional restrictions: if X eats, X must be an animate
- may also contain frequency information
- can be hierarchically organized, e.g.:
  - all nouns have person, number, and gender
  - verbs (unless irregular) conjugate in the past tense by adding ed.

Direct transfer systems

A direct transfer system consists of:

- A source language grammar
- A target language grammar
- Rules relating source language underlying representation (UR) to target language UR
  - A direct transfer system has a transfer component which relates a source language representation with a target language representation.
  - This can also be called a comparative grammar.

We’ll walk through the following French to English example:

(3) Londres plait à Sam.
London is pleasing to Sam
‘Sam likes London.’

Different approaches to MT

We'll look at some basic approaches to MT:

- Systems based on linguistic knowledge
  - Direct transfer systems
  - Interlinguas
- Machine learning approaches, i.e., statistical machine translation (SMT)
  - SMT is by far the most popular form of MT right now

Most of these use dictionaries in one form or another, so we will start by looking at dictionaries.

Linguistic knowledge-based systems

- Linguistic knowledge-based systems include knowledge of both the source and the target languages.
- We will look at direct transfer systems and then the more specific instance of interlinguas.
  - Direct transfer systems
  - Interlinguas

Steps in a transfer system

1. source language grammar analyzes the input and puts it into an underlying representation (UR).
2. The transfer component relates this source language UR (French UR) to a target language UR (English UR).
   - French UR
   - English UR
   - X plaire Y ↔ Eng(Y) like Eng(X)
   (where Eng(X) means the English translation of X)
   - Londres plaire Sam (source UR) → Sam like London (target UR)
3. target language grammar translates the target language UR into an actual target language sentence.
   - Sam like London → Sam likes London
Notes on transfer systems

- The transfer mechanism is in theory reversible; e.g., the *plaire* rule works in both directions
  - Not clear if this is desirable: e.g., Dutch *aanzien* should be translated into English as *begin*, but *beginnen* should be translated as *begin*.
  - Because we have a separate target language grammar, we are able to ensure that the rules of English apply; *like* → *likes*.

Czech-English example

(4) Kaufman & Broad *odmítla* institucionální investory
Kaufman & Broad declined institutional investors

`Kaufman & Broad refused to name the institutional investors.`

Example taken from Čmejrek, Cuřín, and Havelka (2003).

- They find the base forms of words (e.g., *obmítnout* 'to decline' instead of *odmíta* 'declined')
- They find which words depend on which other words and represent this in a tree (e.g., the noun *inventory* depends on the verb *jmenovat*)
- This dependency tree is then converted to English (comparative grammar) and re-ordered as appropriate.

Interlinguas

- Ideally, we could use an *interlingua* = a language-independent representation of meaning.
- **Benefit:** To add new languages to your MT system, you merely have to provide mapping rules between your language and the interlingua, and then you can translate into any other language in your system.

Levels of abstraction

- There are differing levels of abstraction at which transfer can take place. So far we have looked at URs that represent only word information.
- We can do a full syntactic analysis, which helps us to know how the words in a sentence relate.
- Or we can do only a partial syntactic analysis, such as representing the dependencies between words.
Interlingual problems

- What exactly should be represented in the interlingua?
  - e.g., English corner = Spanish rincón = ‘inside corner’ or esquina = ‘outside corner’
- A fine-grained interlingua can require extra (unnecessary) work:
  - e.g., Japanese distinguishes older brother from younger brother, so we have to disambiguate English brother to put it into the interlingua.
  - Then, if we translate into French, we have to ignore the disambiguation and simply translate it as frère, which simply means ‘brother’.

Sentence alignment

- sentence alignment = determine which source language sentences align with which target language ones (what we assumed in the bag of words example).
- Intuitively easy, but can be difficult in practice since different languages have different punctuation conventions.

Word alignment

- word alignment = determine which source language words align with which target language ones
  - Much harder than sentence alignment to do automatically.
  - But if it has already been done for us, it gives us good information about what a word’s translation equivalent is.

Different word alignments

- One word can map to one word or to multiple words. Likewise, sometimes it is best for multiple words to align with multiple words.
- English-Russian examples:
  - one-to-one: khorosho = well
  - one-to-many: kniga = the book
  - many-to-one: to take a walk = gulyat'
  - many-to-many: at least = kholya by (‘although if/would’)

Calculating probabilities

- With word alignments, it is relatively easy to calculate probabilities.
- e.g., What is the probability that run translates as correr in Spanish?
  1. Count up how many times run appears in the English part of your bi-text. e.g., 500 times
  2. Out of all those times, count up how many times it was translated as (i.e., aligns with) correr. e.g., 275 (out of 500) times.
  3. Divide to get a probability: 275/500 = 0.55, or 55%
- Word alignment gives us some frequency numbers, which we can use to align new cases, using other information, too (e.g., contextual information)
Word alignment difficulties

- Sometimes it is not clear that word alignment is possible.
  - (5) Ivan aspirant.
    Ivan graduate student
    ‘Ivan is a graduate student.’
- What does is align with?
- In cases like this, a word can be mapped to a “null” element in the other language.

The “bag of words” method

- What if we’re not given word alignments?
- Sometimes it is not clear that word alignment is possible.
  - Count up the number of possible translation words: 4.
- We can treat each sentence as a bag of words = unordered collection of words.
- If word A appears in a sentence, then we will record all of the words in the corresponding sentence in the other language as appearing with it.

Example for bag of words method

- English He speaks Russian well.
- Russian On khorosho govorit po-russki.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng</th>
<th>Rus</th>
<th>Eng</th>
<th>Rus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>On</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>khorosho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>khorosho</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>govorit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>po-russki</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The idea is that, over thousands, or even millions, of sentences, He will tend to appear more often with On, speaks will appear with govorit, and so on.

Example for bag of words method

Calculating probabilities: sentence 1

So, for He in He speaks Russian well/On khorosho govorit po-russki, we do the following:

1. Count up the number of Russian words: 4.
2. Assign each word equal probability of translation: 1/4 = 0.25, or 25%.

Example for bag of words method

Calculating probabilities: sentence 2

If we also have He is nice./On simpatich’nyi., then for He, we do the following:

1. Count up the number of possible translation words: 4 from the first sentence, 2 from the second = 6 total.
   - Note that we are NOT counting the number of English words: we count the number of possible translations
2. Count up the number of times On is the translation = 2 times out of 6 = 1/3 = 0.33, or 33%.

All other words have the probability 1/6 = 0.17, or 17%, so On is the best translation for He.

Probabilities used in IBM models

Probabilistic models are generally more sophisticated, treating the problem as the source language generating the target and taking into account probabilities such as:

- \( n(\text{word}) \) = probability of the number of words in the target language that the source word generates
- \( p-\text{null} \) = probability of a null word appearing
- \( f(\text{word}|\text{sword}) \) = probability of a target word, given the source word (i.e., what we’ve seen so far)
- \( d(\text{position}|\text{sposition}) \) = probability of a target word appearing in position \( \text{position} \), given the source position \( \text{sposition} \)

But we need alignments to estimate these parameters.
**Statistical Machine Translation — Lecture 3: Word Alignment and Phrase Models**

**Parallel Corpora**

... la maison ... la maison bleu ... la fleur ... 
... the house ... the blue house ... the flower ... 

**Beyond Bags of Words**

A chicken-and-egg problem
- If we had the word alignments, we could estimate the parameters of our generative story.
- If we had the parameters, we could estimate the alignments.

**Expectation Maximization Algorithm**

The Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm works forwards and backwards to estimate the probabilities:

- EM in a nutshell
  1. initialize model parameters (e.g. uniform)
  2. (re-)assign probabilities to the missing data
  3. (re-)estimate model parameters from completed data (weighted counts)
  4. iterate, i.e., repeat steps 2&3 until you hit some stopping point

**Initial Step**

... la maison ... la maison blue ... la fleur ... 
... the house ... the blue house ... the flower ... 

- All connections equally likely.

**After 1st Iteration**

... la maison ... la maison blue ... la fleur ... 
... the house ... the blue house ... the flower ... 

- Connections between e.g. la and the are more likely.

**After Another Iteration**

... la maison ... la maison bleu ... la fleur ... 
... the house ... the blue house ... the flower ... 

- Connections between e.g. fleur and flower are more likely (pigeon hole principle).
Convergence

... la maison ... la maison bleu ... la fleur 

... the house ... the blue house ... the flower ... 

\[
p(\text{la} \mid \text{the}) = 0.453 \\
p(\text{le} \mid \text{the}) = 0.334 \\
p(\text{maison} \mid \text{house}) = 0.876 \\
p(\text{bleu} \mid \text{blue}) = 0.563 
\]

Phrase-Based Translation Overview

But this word-based translation doesn’t account for many-to-many mappings between languages

\[
\text{Morgen} \quad \text{Ich} \quad \text{nach Kanada} \quad \text{zur Konferenz}
\]

\[
\text{Tomorrow} \quad \text{I will fly} \quad \text{to the conference} \quad \text{in Canada}
\]

- Foreign “phrases” are translated into English.
- Phrases may be reordered.

Current models allow for many-to-one mappings → we can use those to induce many-to-many mappings

Intersecting Alignments

**english to spanish**

**spanish to english**

Growing Alignments

Advantages of Phrase-Based Translation

- Many-to-many translation can handle non-compositional phrases.
- Use of local context.
- The more data, the longer the phrases that can be learned.

We can now use these phrase pairs as the units of our probability model.

Induced Phrases

(Maria, Mary), (no, did not), (slap, daba una bofetada), (la, the), (bruja, witch), (verde, green), (Maria no, Mary did not), (no daba una bofetada, did not slap), (daba una bofetada a la, slap the), (bruja verde, green witch)
What makes MT hard?

We've seen how MT systems can work, but MT is a very difficult task because languages are vastly different. They differ:

- Lexically: In the words they use
- Syntactically: In the constructions they allow
- Semantically: In the way meanings work
- Pragmatically: In what readers take from a sentence.

In addition, there is a good deal of real-world knowledge that goes into a translation.

Lexical ambiguity

Words can be **lexically ambiguous** — have multiple meanings.

- *bank* can be a financial institution or a place along a river.
- *can* can be a cylindrical object, as well as the act of putting something into that cylinder (e.g., John cans tuna), as well as being a word like *must*, *might*, or *should*.

Semantic relationships

Often we find (rough) **synonyms** between two languages:

- English *book* = Russian *kniga*
- English *music* = Spanish *música*

But words don’t always line up exactly between languages.

- English **hypernyms** = words that are more general in English than in their counterparts in other languages.
  - English *know* is rendered by the French *savoir* (‘to know a fact’) and *connaître* (‘to know a thing’)  
  - English *library* is German *Bücherei* if it is open to the public, but *Bibliothek* if it is intended for scholarly work.
- English **hyponyms** = words that are more specific in English than in their language counterparts.
  - The German word *berg* can mean either *hill* or *mountain* in English.
  - The Russian word *ruka* can mean either *hand* or *arm*.

Semantic overlap

And then there’s just fuzziness, as in the following English and French correspondences (Jurafsky & Martin 2000, Figure 21.2)

- *leg* = *étape* (journey), *jambe* (human), *pied* (chair), *patte* (animal)
- *foot* = *pied* (human), *patte* (bird)
- *paw* = *patte* (animal)

Venn diagram of semantic overlap

![Venn diagram showing the overlap between English and French words related to 'leg', 'foot', 'paw', and synonyms.](image)

Semantic non-compositionality

Some verbs carry little meaning, so-called **light verbs**

- French *faire une promenade* is literally ‘make a walk,’ but it has the meaning of the English *take a walk*
- Dutch *een poging doen* ‘do an attempt’ means the same as the English *make an attempt*

And we often face **idioms** = expressions whose meaning is not made up of the meanings of the individual words.

- e.g., English *kick the bucket*
  - approximately equivalent to the French *casser sa pipe* (*break his/her pipe*)
  - but we might want to translate it as *mourir* *(die)*
  - and we want to treat it differently than *kick the table*
Idiosyncratic differences

Some words do not exist in a language and have to be translated with a more complex phrase: **lexical gap** or **lexical hole**.

- French *gratiner* means something like 'to cook with a cheese coating'
- Hebrew *stam* means something like 'I'm just kidding' or 'Nothing special.'

There are also idiosyncratic **collocations** among languages, e.g.:

- English *heavy smoker*
- French *grand fumeur* ('large smoker')
- German *starker Raucher* ('strong smoker')

How language is used (Pragmatics)

Translation becomes even more difficult when we try to translate something in context.

- Thanks you is usually translated as *merci* in French, but it is translated as *s'il vous plaît* 'please' when responding to an offer.

Real-world knowledge

- Sometimes we have to use **real-world knowledge** to figure out what a sentence means.

  (6) Put the paper in the printer. Then switch it on.

- We know what it refers to only because we know that printers, not paper, can be switched on.

Evaluating quality

Two main components in evaluating quality:

- **Intelligibility** = how understandable the output is
- **Accuracy** = how faithful the output is to the input
  - A common (though problematic) evaluation metric is the BLEU metric, based on n-gram comparisons

And some methods we can use to gauge these properties:

- **Error analysis** = how many errors we have to sort through and how they affect intelligibility & accuracy
- **Test suite** = a set of sentences that our system should be able to handle

Intelligibility

Intelligibility Scale (from Arnold et al., 1994)

1. The sentence is perfectly clear and intelligible. It is grammatical and reads like ordinary text.
2. The sentence is generally clear and intelligible. Despite some inaccuracies or infelicities of the sentence, one can understand (almost) immediately what it means.
3. The general idea of the sentence is intelligible only after considerable study. The sentence contains grammatical errors and/or poor word choices.
4. The sentence is unintelligible. Studying the meaning of the sentence is hopeless; even allowing for context, one feels that guessing would be too unreliable.

Further reading

Some of the examples are adapted from the following books: