

# Extracting Structured Scholarly Information from the Machine Translation Literature

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## Abstract

Understanding the experimental results of a scientific paper is crucial to understanding its contribution and to comparing it with related work. We introduce a structured, queryable representation for experimental results and a baseline system that automatically populates this representation. The representation can answer compositional questions such as: “Which are the best published results reported on the NIST 09 Chinese to English dataset?” and “What are the most important methods for speeding up phrase-based decoding?” Answering such questions usually involves lengthy literature surveys. Current machine reading for academic papers does not usually consider the actual experiments, but mostly focuses on understanding abstracts. We describe annotation work to create an initial ⟨scientific paper; experimental results representation⟩ corpus. The corpus is composed of 67 papers which were manually annotated with a structured representation of experimental results by domain experts. Additionally, we present a baseline algorithm that characterizes the difficulty of the inference task.

**Keywords:** Information Extraction, Scientific Literature, Structured Prediction

## 1. Introduction

Current technologies enable one to access large scientific literature repositories via a variety of means, which range from simple keyword searches for content and authors to sophisticated inferences that exploit citation links (Dunne et al., 2010; Schäfer et al., 2011), techniques that automatically identify sections and section labels (Teufel and Kan, 2011), and unsupervised methods to infer information structures (Kiela et al., 2015). Unfortunately, these access methods fall short of supporting many queries that could significantly improve the day-to-day activities of a researcher. Imagine, for example, a young researcher who wants to begin working on Machine Translation (MT) or a seasoned researcher who wants to keep track of recent developments in the field. Ideally, they would like to quickly get answers to questions like:

- Which are the best published results reported on the NIST-09 Chinese dataset?
- What are the papers that show on training sets larger than 100M words that morphology-inspired models lead to improvements in translation quality that are statistically significant?
- What are the most important methods for speeding up phrase-based decoding?
- Are there papers showing that a neural translation model is better than a non-neural model?

To our knowledge, answering such queries is beyond the state of the art. Current methods cannot yet infer the main elements of experiments reported in papers; as a matter of fact, no consensus exists on what these elements should be and what the relations between them are.

In this paper, we take a few steps towards addressing these shortcomings. By focusing on MT as our exemplary subfield of study, we propose a representation that explicitly models the hidden structure of typical experiments: data sources used for training and testing, evaluation metrics,

languages, baseline algorithms, methods and algorithms that experiments are meant to highlight, etc. We also report annotation work aimed at creating a gold standard for this task, and we review a set of simple algorithms that we developed as a baseline to objectively characterize the difficulty of the task. By making our representations, data, and baseline results public, we hope to contribute to the more general effort of transitioning the Information Extraction field from identifying simple mentions and relations to identifying and reasoning with complex structures like events, scripts, and experiments.

## 2. Structured Representation of MT Experiments and Task Definition

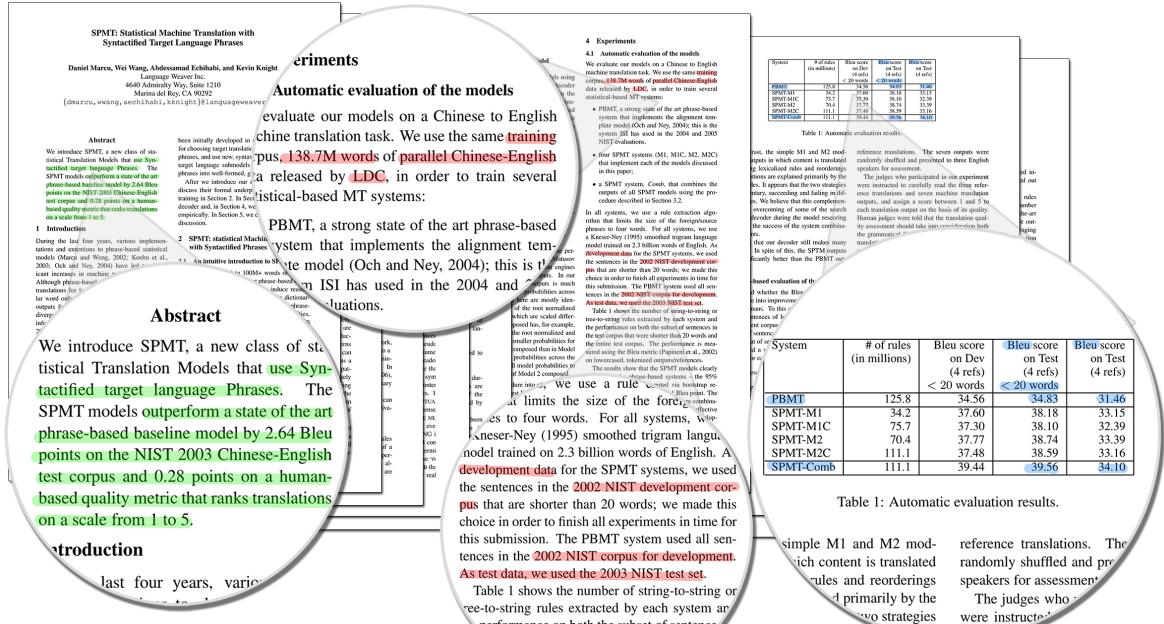
To capture meaningful elements of experiments in MT conference papers, we design a structural representation of experimental results. While this can be used as a reference to understand experiments in other fields, we intentionally designed it to answer meaningful queries about MT papers. Our overall task is to convert a paper (Figure 1, top) into a connected graph (bottom) of experimental results. Figure 1 shows an example of a paper “SPMT: Statistical Machine Translation with Syntactified Target Language Phrases” (Marcu et al., 2006). The structured representation is composed of DATASETS, EXPERIMENT TYPE, and RESULTS.

**Datasets** are corpora used to either to train or evaluate the systems. We decompose datasets into name, size, and language. The example uses four datasets, including LDC Chinese-English parallel corpus and 2002 NIST. Only the first dataset has a stated size, 138.7M words, while all of them use the Chinese-English language pair.

**Experiment type** refers to the goal of the experiment and the method used to achieve it. We define 9 goals and 27 methods.

**Results** are experimental results presented in the paper, consisting of numerical value, metric, and the name of the system that achieved the result. In Figure 1, we retrieved four values (34.83, 31.46, 39.56, 34.10) with the BLEU metric.

<sup>†</sup> Work done during internship at ISI. Both authors contributed equally.



## Abstract

We introduce SPMT, a new class of statistical Translation Models that **use Syntactified target language Phrases**. The SPMT models outperform a state of the art phrase-based baseline model by 2.64 Bleu points on the NIST 2003 Chinese-English test corpus and 0.28 points on a human-based quality metric that ranks translations on a scale from 1 to 5.

## Introduction

During the last four years, various improvements have been made to phrase-based statistical models (Och and Wong, 2002; Koehn et al., 2003; Och, 2003). These have led to significant increases in machine translation quality.

Although phrase-based models have made great progress, they still have some limitations.

For example, they do not handle out-of-vocabulary words well.

They also do not handle long sentences well.

Finally, they do not handle idiomatic expressions well.

In this paper, we propose a new class of statistical Translation Models that **use Syntactified target language Phrases**.

The SPMT models outperform a state of the art phrase-based baseline model by 2.64 Bleu

points on the NIST 2003 Chinese-English

test corpus and 0.28 points on a human-

based quality metric that ranks translations

on a scale from 1 to 5.

2 PBMT, a strong state of the art phrase-based System that implements the alignment template model (Och and Ney, 2004); this is the same system that ISI has used in the 2004 and 2005 NIST evaluations.

3 An initial introduction to SPMT, a new class of statistical Translation Models that **use Syntactified target language Phrases**.

The SPMT models outperform a state of the art phrase-based baseline model by 2.64 Bleu

points on the NIST 2003 Chinese-English

test corpus and 0.28 points on a human-

based quality metric that ranks translations

on a scale from 1 to 5.

4 Experiments

4.1 Automatic evaluation of the models

We evaluate our models on a Chinese to English machine translation task. We use the same training data as PBMT, and we use the same test data released by LDC, in order to train several different systems.

PBMT, a strong state of the art phrase-based system that implements the alignment tem-

plate model (Och and Ney, 2004); this is the

same system that ISI has used in the 2004 and 2005 NIST eval-

uation.

4.2 System reduction of the

4.3 Human evaluation

4.4 Results

4.5 Conclusion

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		Avg.	Count	St. Dev.
Text	Sections	7.55	1.38	
	Tables	3.76	1.78	
	Sentences	272.55	89.65	
Experiment Structure	Total Atoms	23.47	9.85	
	Train/Tune Dataset	4.33	4.14	
	Test Dataset	2.01	1.52	
	Result	6.84	5.01	
	Experiment Type	1.13	0.34	

Table 1: Structured text and survey response mean and standard deviation.

ID	Usage	Type	Name	Size	Source Language	Target Language
e.g., 1	train	bitext	Europarl	11K sentences	Czech	English

Experiment Type ID	Train Dataset ID	Test Dataset ID	System Name	Metric	Value
e.g., 1	[1,3]	2	Baseline	BLEU	32.11

Figure 2: Survey form to collect annotations.

commercial TET system.<sup>2</sup> As tables are often used to report experimental results, we pay special attention to their extraction. We extract tabular information using TableSeer<sup>3</sup> (Liu et al., 2007). We use ParsCit<sup>4</sup> (Councill et al., 2008) to derive the hierarchical structure of sections and subsections. We produce the final representation of papers with a system that combines the inputs of all three components. The process produces structured text, split into sections and subsections with parsed tables accompanied by captions, but does not include figures.

### 3.2. Structured Representation Annotation

Annotators are presented with the papers in PDF format. Ideally, annotators would highlight relevant information in the text and link it to the structured representation. However, such linking is very time consuming. As an alternative, we design a survey annotation tool, shown in Figure 2. From survey responses, we create the structured representation deterministically. We gather the annotations by sending the survey to the selected papers’ authors and by annotating them ourselves. From survey responses, we create the structured representation deterministically.

Six papers were annotated by two annotators. Inter-annotator agreement on these papers is shown in Table 3. Annotators disagree frequently on techniques, as a single paper can use multiple techniques. Lexical variability in naming a dataset or a system also causes disagreement. Instructed to choose the top and baseline performance for each important evaluation, people at times chose different experiments.

## 4. Baseline System Approach

We present a pipelined pattern-based system that extracts individual atoms from a plain text logical representation of a machine translation paper and selects and links them into a structured representation.

### 4.1. Atom Detection

In atom detection, the system generates lists of candidates for each atom type. The aim of atom detection is to detect as many atoms as possible to enable subsequent steps in the system to select among multiple candidates. Detection consists of finding substrings, overlapping words, and matching regex patterns in text or tables.

The **language detector** matches a pre-defined list of languages against the text. The list includes two and three-character language abbreviations.

The **dataset size detector** is based on regex pattern matching expressions such as ‘8M sentence pairs.’ These patterns either include a unit (as above) or are unitless, e.g., ‘8M.’

The **dataset name detector** matches a curated list of known MT datasets to text. Various ways to express datasets are encoded by regex patterns.

The **system name detector** finds candidates in result tables, excluding numerals and specific keywords.

The **result value detector** captures numeric cells in result tables, such as 24.3, 12%.

The **result metric detector** is based on a list of common metrics used in MT such as BLEU.

The **goal detector** and **technology detector** match pre-constructed lists of phrases.

### 4.2. Linking

Linking consists of two stages: (1) linking of atoms into intermediate structures and (2) linking of intermediate structures into the final composite structure. In the first stage, individual atoms are selected and linked together to first form a structure representing either a DATASET, an EXPERIMENT TYPE, or a RESULT. At this stage, many atoms are available to link and a selection process is carried out on atoms to create candidate intermediate structures. In the second stage, a selection process is subsequently carried out on intermediate structures to create the final composite structure representing a single paper.

**Dataset** We select language pairs based on frequency, and we find the closest dataset name and size atom. We choose edge labels by searching for keywords such as ‘train’ and ‘test’ in proximity.

**Result** We construct RESULT structures from tables, using the column, row, and caption of tables. We link system name atoms and result metric atoms found either in the first row or the first column.

**Composite** DATASETS are linked to RESULTS based on proximity measures and cues from text, for example mentions of languages or dataset names in captions or adjacent table cells. We limit each result to a single test DATASET, but allow multiple training DATASETS.

<sup>2</sup>PDFlib TET 4.4 Text Extraction Toolkit

<sup>3</sup><http://sourceforge.net/projects/tableseer>

<sup>4</sup><http://aye.comp.nus.edu.sg/parsCit>

Atom Type		P	R	F1	R*
Language	Single	21.3	<b>94.7</b>	34.8	100.0
	Pair	76.3	<b>87.1</b>	81.3	100.0
Dataset	Name	20.1	<b>28.9</b>	23.7	67.1
	Size	24.3	<b>25.0</b>	24.6	41.8
Result	Value	7.1	<b>84.7</b>	13.0	92.2
	Metric	35.5	<b>83.6</b>	49.8	92.4
	Name	7.1	<b>16.0</b>	9.9	46.7
Experiment	Goal	72.6	<b>65.2</b>	68.7	-
	Tech	24.2	<b>22.7</b>	23.4	-

Table 2: Performance of atom detector in terms of Precision, Recall, and F1 score, and reconstruction from survey response (R\*).

## 5. Evaluation

**Data** From the collected data, five papers are used for development, and 62 are used for evaluation.

**Evaluation Metrics** We evaluate system performance of atom detection with precision and recall. We approach the evaluation of the linked structured representation by transforming it into a directed acyclic graph and computing the Smatch score (Cai and Knight, 2013), previously used to evaluate the similarity between Abstract Meaning Representation (AMR) structures.

### 5.1. Atom Detection Evaluation

Table 2 shows the performance of atom detection. As annotators do not tell us where the information is located, we match the annotated atoms to every substring in the structured text and present annotation recall from text as R\* in Table 2. This presents a soft ceiling for our baseline approach. Finding annotated dataset name, size, and system name atoms was challenging due to abbreviations, PDF-to-text conversion errors, lexical diversity and name expansion, as well as extracted values consisting of scattered strings, as shown in Figure 3. These problems persist in atom detection.

**Successes** The language and language pair detectors achieve high recall. The result value and metric detectors also achieve high recall on par with the R\*. Dataset name and size detectors achieve around half of the gold recall. Even when they do not extract the entire name correctly, they often capture a substring. Dataset names and sizes can be expressed in a variety of ways—correct system output can differ from the annotation.

**Unresolved challenges** The language pair detector struggles with phrases such as ‘translating English to Japanese and Turkish,’ detecting only ‘English-Japanese.’ This name expansion happens in dataset names as well. Correctly interpreting information in tables, where information is presented in a structured manner analogous to Figure 3 is also interesting problem to be resolved. For datasets, errors are primarily due to the variety of ways to express dataset names and sizes (for example, MT03 – MT08 refers to a set of 6 datasets). Additionally, new unnamed datasets are constantly being introduced into the literature. Detecting system names is even more challenging, as there is no naming convention. Detecting the goal and technology of a paper achieves mediocre

PBMT					
Language	Experiment feats	method	BLEU		
			tune	test	
Urdu-English	base	MERT	20.5	17.7	
		MIRA	20.5	17.9	
	ext	PRO	20.4	18.2	
		MIRA	21.8	17.8	
		PRO	21.6	18.1	

Figure 3: System name annotated as ‘PBMT base PRO’.

		P	R	F1
Baseline	Atom	0.35	0.18	0.22
	S-Dataset	0.51	0.40	0.40
	S-Result	0.54	0.31	0.34
	S-Total	0.58	0.34	0.39
Inter Annotator	Atom	0.44 (Jaccard Score)		
	S-Dataset	0.66	0.66	0.64
	S-Result	0.77	0.77	0.73
	S-Total	0.68	0.68	0.65

Table 3: Linking performance evaluation results in terms of Precision, Recall, and F1 Smatch scores. In the case of atoms, precision, recall, and F1 of the selected atoms after linking is shown.

recall. This challenging problem is a focus of research by itself (e.g. Gupta and Manning (2011)).

### 5.2. Linker Evaluation

The linking performance is presented in Table 3. As a reference point, we present scores computed between two gold annotations as ‘Inter-Annotator.’ Analysis shows that the system can detect the highest scoring BLEU score on the correct language pair, but at times fails to recover the names of datasets or systems. For instance, in the example in Figure 1, the system is able to detect all four result values and the name PBMT, and link correctly to the language pair and metric, but it could not retrieve the name SPMT\_Combo. Furthermore, correctly linking a result to a set of training corpora is a challenge that can only be resolved by understanding long-distance dependencies in the document. While it is able to link subsets of datasets, the system often fails to recover the full expanded names of datasets. For the example in Figure 1, the system is able to retrieve NIST as both test and training data, but without specifying the year.

## 6. Related Work

Automatically processing scientific literature is receiving growing attention. Researchers focus on extracting information from abstracts, titles, and citations. There have been efforts to create extractive summaries (Abu-Jbara and Radev, 2011; Qazvinian et al., 2013) and flows of scientific ideas (Shahaf et al., 2012). Analysis of individual papers (Tsai et al., 2013; Gupta and Manning, 2011; Kiela et al., 2015) focuses mainly on abstracts.

J. Hutchins has manually compiled an electronic repository

of machine translation literature.<sup>5</sup> He categorizes 11,500 papers by methodology, language pairs, systems, linguistic aspects, etc.

For the applications of the automatic analyses, the iOpener project (Dunne et al., 2012; Dunne et al., 2010) and Schafer et al. (2011) present bibliometric lexical link mining, summarization techniques, and visualization tools. These focus on metadata such as keyword, author, institution, conference name, and citations.

## 7. Conclusions and Future Work

Presenting experimental information from scientific papers in a structured representation that supports queries will help researchers in understanding scientific literature. To this end, we propose a new task of automatically extracting experimental information from scientific papers. We focus on the field of Machine Translation, for which we created a structured representation capturing the experimental information. We create a dataset of 67 MT papers with manually annotated experimental information in the structured representation. The dataset is available at [https://github.com/eunsol/mt\\_lit\\_lrec16.git](https://github.com/eunsol/mt_lit_lrec16.git). Finally, we evaluate a simple baseline system, which demonstrates several challenges for automatic extraction of experimental information. These include finding and resolving structured information in tables, dealing with lexical variability and resolving long distance connections. Future work can explore injecting domain knowledge in the form of prior beliefs such as result ranges for metrics, as well as using manually compiled repositories for distant supervision.

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<sup>5</sup><http://www.mt-archive.info>