Quantitative and Qualitative Evaluation of Human and Machine-Translated EU Economic Texts in the English-Greek Language Pair

Dimitris Boumparis

Master's Student University of Antwerp, Belgium

Christos Giannoutsos

Freelance Translator Kremasti, Rhodes, Greece

dimitrios.boumparis@student.uantwerpen.be christosqiannoutsos@gmail.com

Abstract

Studying the literature regarding EU texts, we see that there are publications on the usefulness of neural machine translation (NMT) for translators in EU institutions, who professionally translate from a major into minor languages. However, there is a research gap regarding the quantitative analysis of human and machinetranslated texts in major-to-minor language combinations. This paper explores the quantitative characteristics of both kinds of texts and tries to profile them. We explore the impact of many input textual features, including word n-grams frequencies, Parts of Speech (PoS), function words, punctuation, and a number of stylometric indices (e.g., readability index, type/token ratio, and mean sentence length). We compiled a corpus of 646 English press releases manually translated into Greek by professionals in the European Central Bank, along with their NMT counterparts by state-of-the-art systems. We produce input features for a Support Vector Machines (SVM) algorithm that can predict whether a text is produced by a human or an NMT system and achieves 90% accuracy and f1-macro score. Furthermore, we compare the similarity between the original and the NMT outputs using methods for dimensionality reduction and cluster analysis (PCA, HCA, t-SNE). Finally, we evaluate the quality of the NMT outputs using BLEU.

1 Introduction

"The closer a machine translation is to a professional human translation, the better it is" (Papineni et al., 2002, 311). Recently, we witnessed a deep learning system outperform translation professionals in the task of translation from a major (English) into a minor language (Czech) (Popel et al., 2020). After studying the literature regarding EU texts, we see that there are publications on the usefulness of neural machine translation (NMT) for translators employed by European Union institutions, who are

professionally involved in translating from a major language, such as English (Rado, 1987; Song, 1991; Cronin, 2003; Parianou, 2009), into minor languages, such as Hungarian (Lesznyák, 2019), Polish (Stefaniak, 2020) and Slovene (Arnejšek and Unk, 2020). This raises the question of the main quantitative textual characteristics of translations that have been produced by both human professionals and the MT systems NMT systems, and, by extension, whether there is a significant difference between the two.

2 Previous work

The research conducted on this topic is limited to studying the length (Pouget-Abadie et al., 2014) or the lexical richness (Vanmassenhove et al., 2019, 2021) of the two versions of the texts. In our case, the human-produced texts are, on average, 10.3% longer than the machine-translated ones. While this paper will not go further and discuss why that seems to be the case, it seems that this result can be attributed to the critical thinking that takes place during the translation process in the minds of the professionals (Wu et al., 2016; Stasimioti and Sosoni, 2020). Translators are well aware that the text they are producing is going to be read and hence understood by another human being, so they may dive deeper into the text and translate more freely if it serves the purpose of the translation.

The differences between various MT systems, with regards to the quality of their output and the types of errors included therein, have been reported by several recent studies. Some of them (Bahdanau et al., 2014; Jean et al., 2015; Junczys-Dowmunt et al., 2016; Dowling et al., 2018) relied on automatic evaluation metrics (AEMs) like BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) and HTER (Snover et al., 2006); others used human evaluations of the MT output quality, employing adequacy and fluency ratings

(Bentivogli et al., 2016), manual error analyses (Klubička et al., 2017; Popovic, 2017; Klubička et al., 2018) or a combination of methods (Burchardt et al., 2017; Castilho et al., 2017a,b, 2018; Toral and Sánchez-Cartagena, 2017; Shterionov et al., 2018; Koponen et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2019; Sosoni and Stasimioti, 2019).

In other words, we saw a gap in research regarding the evaluation of human and machine-translated texts when it comes to the quantitative analysis of such texts. This paper explores the various quantitative characteristics of both kinds of texts and tries to profile them. We explore the impact of a large number of input textual features, including, but not limited to, frequencies of character and word n-grams, Part-of-Speech, function words, and punctuation (especially pronouns and full stops, respectively), use of capitalisation, and a number of stylometric indices such as the readability index, type/token ratio (TTR), and mean sentence length. All these indices have been proved to be relevant in quantitative analysis of texts (Read, 2000; Grieve, 2007; Wu et al., 2021).

3 Corpus

To do our analysis, we compiled a parallel corpus of 646 press releases of the European Central Bank (ECB) in English¹ that have been manually translated into Greek by professionals who work or have worked in EU institutions, along with their machine-translated counterparts by a state-of-the-art NMT system. The length of the initial 2,572 texts ranged from 13 to 1,135 words. However, we excluded those with less than 20 words and, after we eliminated those not translated into Greek, our final corpus contained 646 texts.

4 Methodology

We then proceed to quantitatively analyse the texts at hand and produce input features for a Support Vector Machines (SVM) algorithm that can predict whether a text is produced by a human translator or an NMT system with very high accuracy. However, we are not limiting our research to just the quantitative characteristics of the MT texts but also go further and evaluate the translations in terms of the similarity between the original and the NMT output by employing cosine similarity, Principal

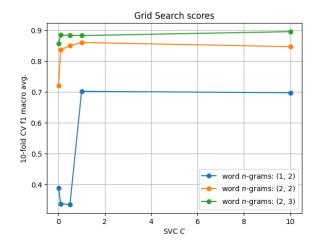


Figure 1: F1-macro scores for different word *n*-grams of the vectorisers.

	Analyser	# features
Vect 1	character bigrams	1000
Vect 2	character trigrams	1000
Vect 3	word bigrams	1000
Vect 4	word trigrams	1000

Table 1: Parameters of the four TF-IDF vectorisers.

Component Analysis (PCA), Hierarchical Clustering Analysis (HCA), and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbouring Entities (tSNE).

4.1 Supervised learning

Our supervised approach included a combination of text vectorizers, provided by the Scikit-Learn open-source Python library².

We implemented four term frequency - inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) vectorizers with 1000 features each, as shown in Table 1. We experimented with various *n*-gram ranges and did not preprocess the texts further. As shown in Figure 1, bigrams and trigrams improved the performance of the classifier's 10-fold Cross-Validation significantly. The Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier achieved .90 f1-macro score on the task of binary classifying translations as produced by a human or Google's NMT system.

4.2 Unsupervised learning

As far as the unsupervised learning is concerned, we applied a variety of dimensionality reduction algorithms to examine whether the two versions of the texts in question form separate enough clusters. In particular, we implemented PCA, HCA, and

¹Available at https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pr/date/html/index.en.html.

²Available at https://scikit-learn.org.

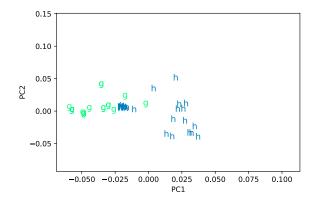


Figure 2: Clusters formed after implementing Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on the unique texts that were translated by humans (h) and Google's NMT API (q).

tSNE. The most apparent, as well as easy to depict, results were given through PCA (Figure 2). It is important to mention that, given the large number of available texts, we excluded those that are almost identical, while keeping only the first one that we came across. To achieve this, we used spaCy's cosine similarity³ among all the texts. All but the first text that achieved at least 80% similarity were excluded from the dimensionalilty reduction tasks in order to guarantee an easy-to-interpret graph. The HCA graph was also in line with the PCA, although hard to fit given the limited space here.

5 Results and Evaluation

In terms of evaluating the quality of the machine translation, we employed the BiLinugal Evaluation Understudy (BLEU). The MT scored barely under 40, which generally translates to very understandable texts, although not yet matching the quality of a human-produced translation.

5.1 SVM classifier

Our supervised approach scored a very high fl-macro (.90) in binary classification of the texts, just by employing the built-in vectoriser provided by Scikit-Learn with a combination of character and word bigrams and trigrams. That, in it of itself, is a very promising indication that MT has not yet reached human-level quality and that the use Machine Translation Post-editing (MTPE) is having an upward trend.

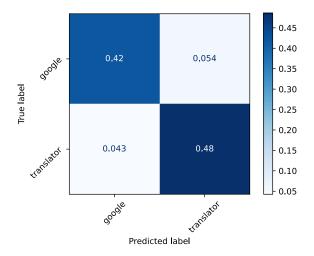


Figure 3: Confusion matrix of the SVM classifier using only the vectorisers (.90 accuracy and f1-macro score).

5.2 PCA

The unsupervised approach has proved as well that translations between human and machine-produced are easy to tell apart. However, there is a very visible cluster forming in the middle and towards the Google's side with translation that are–presumably–produced by translation professionals. The graph in Figure 2 suggests that these texts were translated by an NMT system and post-edited by professionals.

5.3 Quantitative analysis

The quantitative analysis included what stylometric indices, if any, are significantly different between the two versions of the texts. Among the numerous indices and features we calculated, only the following ones show a promising difference between human and machine-produced translations:

- Average word and sentence length: Human translations tend to be longer in terms of total words (29.4 in average) and sentences (1.06 in average).
- Mean number of polysyllabic tokens: Human translations tend to use longer words more (20.4 in average).
- Average words per sentence: Machine translations tend to have more words per sentence (2.56 in average).

The last observation is what captured our attention, mainly because it contradicts the first one, namely that human-produced translations tend to

³Read more at https://spacy.io/api/span#similarity.

be longer. According to Popovic (2020, 4), "some translators might tend to generate longer sentences in the target text than others".

5.4 Qualitative analysis

Last but not least, we set to define the qualitative aspects that differentiate translations produced by humans with those by a neural translation system. After making an extensive list of Greek function words, we found some examples that we are of the opinion that are worth mentioning. In machine translations:

- Archaic words and phrases were used whereas none is present in the human ones. For example: τω (article used in now-deprecated dative case only used in fixed phrases), εν όψει (= in view of), πέραν (= beyond, besides).
- There were tokens consisting of words not properly split with the previous or following punctuation sign or a handful of short English words that were not translated into Greek.
- Problems with fluency were observed, as defined in the DQF-MQM error typology (Lommel and Melby, 2018). A common example, that is often an indicator of MT, is the translation of *non* in front of words (e.g., non-existent) that were translated with a dash (μη-) which is not applicable to Greek.

6 Future work

This is the first time such an analysis is performed in EU texts, at least for the English-Greek language pair. Next steps could include using stylometric features to increase the classifier's f1 score as well as conducting identical experiments but in the Greek-English pair. It would be interesting to see whether the results of the latter differ from the ones above. Finally, a Deep Learning approach to leverage Transformers' efficiency could also yield better results. We hope this paper sparks the curiosity of professors and researchers dedicated to uncovering the differences between human and machine translations.

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