Effect of data filtering techniques on neural machine translation performance for English-Polish biomedical domain

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Abstract

This paper investigates the impact of data filtering techniques on the efficiency and performance of Neural Machine Translation (NMT) models, focusing on English-Polish translations in the biomedical domain. With the rapid expansion of Large Language Models (LLMs) and the consequent increase in training times, our study emphasizes the need for high-quality training data. We propose selective data filtering as a method to enhance training efficiency without compromising the model's performance. We explore if applying filtering techniques to NMT LLMs can significantly reduce training dataset size while maintaining or even improving translation quality. We use LASER, MUSE, LaBSE, and BERT for filtering the UFAL Medical Corpus to create varying dataset sizes to fine-tune mBART50 model. We focus on filtering out low-quality data and its impact on training time and model performance, assessed using the SacreBLEU metric. We show that certain filtering methods, notably LASER and MUSE, demonstrate a capacity to reduce dataset size significantly while either maintaining or improving the translation quality.

1 Introduction

Recent advancements in LLMs have resulted in a notable increase in the size of model architectures. State-of-the-art models that are publicly accessible, such as mBart-50, reach parameter sizes upwards of 600 million (Ushio et al., 2023). This escalation in parameter size has consequentially led to increased training times for these models, necessitating the use of the most advanced GPUs available for their training. A common approach in training LLMs involves utilizing the entirety of the data present in the prepared training dataset. However, it is often the case that these datasets are not entirely cleansed of low-quality entries. Given that training datasets frequently comprise over 1 million samples, often scraped from the web, it is impractical to manually inspect and purify the entire dataset of such substandard samples. Consequently, it is typical that only a minimal fraction of the dataset is of high quality, with the majority being of poor quality.

Past research has established, that the inclusion of such low-quality data in the training process contributes minimally to the overall quality and performance of LLMs (Koehn et al., 2018). Considering the recent developments in model parameter sizes and the associated increased training times, we propose that it is imperative to carefully inspect the training data. By limiting the training dataset to only high-quality data, we anticipate a substantial reduction in training time without detrimentally impacting model performance. To achieve this, we propose the implementation of filtering techniques designed to selectively retain only the highest quality data within the training dataset.

In this study, we hypothesize that when fine-tuning NMT LLMs for a specific domain and language pair, the application of filtering techniques can significantly reduce the size of the training dataset, without adversely affecting the resulting model's performance. we introduce the following research questions related to our task: *RQ1: "Can we use data filtering to obtain a reduced dataset size with better quality obtaining similar or better performance"*, *RQ2: "Can we use data filtering to reduce the performance drop of using a significantly reduced dataset when compared to random sampling"*. To empirically test this, we focus on biomedical translation of sentences from English to Polish using mBART50. We fine-tune the model on filtered subsets — using different methods — of our original biomedical corpus and compare performance to that of using whole corpus or randomly sampled equally sized subsets.[1]

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[1]Our results, implemented methods, and other code can be found in the project's GitHub repository: jorgedelpozo-lerida/KDS_AdvancedNLP_FinalProject

3 DATA

2   Related Work

Neural Machine Translation models require data of large quantity and high quality in order to be adapted to new domains (Koehn et al., 2018). Large datasets translated or inspected by humans are not available nor are they feasible to develop given the plethora of languages and domains. As a result, the NMT field largely depends on large web-crawled corpuses offering varying sentence quality. To increase the quality of these large corpuses, automated filtering methods have been studied by the NMT field. Approaches include methods such as outlier detection (Taghipour et al., 2011), discriminator models trained on synthetically noisy translations (Xu and Koehn, 2017) graph-based unsupervised models (Cui et al., 2013), and more recently LLM based classifiers or scorers (Açarçiçek et al., 2020). With the advent of LLMs, encoders specifically designed to create language-agnostic embeddings such as, LASER / LaBSE / MUSE and more, allowed researchers to directly score bi-lingual sentence similarity for dataset filtering. Recent research indicates this approach can be competitive with more complex classifier-based models (Chaudhary et al., 2019).

Bane and Zaretskaya (2021), explored the use of filtering based on the quality of sentence-pairs in English-Japanese and English-German. The models used for filtering included a pre-trained Marian-scorer, and LASER, MUSE, and XLM-R embedding models. The authors found that all models, which limited the dataset size to 54%-73% of the original size, achieved comparable translation BLEU scores. However, the majority of filtering methods couldn't outperform a random dataset downsizing. Only the Marian-based filtering consistently achieved higher BLEU scores than random. Another finding was the wide variance of performance between the two language pairs for the MUSE approach, which performed best for German while significantly reducing model performance for the Japanese translation. The findings of Bane and Zaretskaya (2021), motivated our study design, while indicating that results are likely to be nontransferable to different language pairs or topic domains.

Bane et al. (2022) conducted further experimentation on the strengths and weaknesses of specific filtering methods. The authors, collected and generated a dataset of translation pairs with 10 different types of noise or errors (artificially induced

where needed). The authors found a custom trained Marian-Scorer achieved highest cleaning performance, while embedding-based methods such as XLM-R, MUSE, and LASER performing worse but still at a good level. The embedding-based methods were specifically good at finding sentence pairs with number mismatches and missing segments, while also catching a large share of spelling and word order permutations in texts. Research of Bane et al. (2022), indicates that embedding based methods successfully tackle noise in translated segments without the need for additional costly calibration such as the Marian-Scorer.

3   Data

The medical language model was trained on the UFAL Medical Corpus (ufa). Given the focus of our research question, only the Polish-English sentence pairs were used for the project, resulting in a significantly smaller dataset. The dataset comprised of 1,116,773 sentence-pairs in English and Polish. The sentences come from the documents of the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (2.3k sentences), documents of the European Medicines Agency (1,111.6k sentences), and subtitles (3.0k). While the medical corpus had undergone preprocessing to remove duplicates, further refinements were made to enhance overall quality.

To emulate a realistic training environment, we implemented basic data cleaning: excluding untranslated sentences (identical Polish and English counterparts), removing sentence pairs shorter than 15 or longer than 200 characters in either language, and eliminating sentences with unique characters from Russian, French, Greek, Bulgarian, and Romanian alphabets. The inclusion of these cleaning measures allows us to test the effect of filtering on noise that cannot be easily pick-up by such basic rules. These adjustments yielded a final training dataset of 711,720, from which 700k were randomly sampled.

To tokenize the text, the MBart50Tokenizer (MBa) class from the Hugging Face transformers library was employed, using pre-trained from "facebook/mbart-large-50-one-to-many-mmt" with source and target language codes "en_XX" and "pl_PL" respectively.

For the test corpus, a dataset from Khresmoi (Dušek et al., 2017) was employed. This publicly available dataset consists of 1,500 high-quality

Polish-English sentence pairs in the medical domain, and the quality was found to be satisfactory, thus it did not require any specific data cleaning procedures. This validation dataset was chosen as it is unrelated to the training data while being a clean in-domain dataset that allows us to test in an unbiased manner.

4   Methodology

We employed four widely used multilingual embedding models — LASER, MUSE, LaBSE and BERT — to filter and subset the medical-domain corpus. Each subset was used to separately fine-tune a pre-trained mBART50 model, and the evaluation was conducted on an independent dataset.

4.1   Experimental setup

The sentence pairs of the in-domain training data, were scored by the four methods using cosine similarity. That is, for each sentence an embedding was generated for its English and Polish language versions as an average of the token embeddings in either sentence. Next, cosine similarity was calculated between these. The cosine similarity metric is bounded between 0 and 1, where 1 represents full similarity. Based on these scores we kept 20% (∼150k pairs) and 60% (∼ 420k pairs) of the best scoring sentences for each method. These eight (two sizes per method) filtered datasets were used to create fine-tuned mBART50 models.

To allow us to compare the effect the effect of filtering, a baseline model was trained on the full unfiltered dataset (*Base-all*)[2] and further models were trained on three randomly selected 20% and 60% subsets of the data (*Base-20%* and *Base-60%*), that is, three models trained for every sample size whose evaluation performance is averaged.

As presented in Table 1, in total we tested 16 models, out of which 15 were fine-tuned by various cuts of our in-domain data. As well as, the untouched pre-trained model, which was our absolute non fine-tuned baseline (*Base-none*). Regardless of the size of the subset, a stratified split of 80% and 20% was made, preserving original proportions for different sources of data in the corpus.

To test the performance of the fine-tuned models we evaluated their performance on a independent validation dataset - the Khresmoi Summary Translation dataset (Dušek et al., 2017). In line with

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[2]Note that it is fine-tuned on the pre-processed medical dataset (see Sec. 3), with no embedding-based filtering applied.
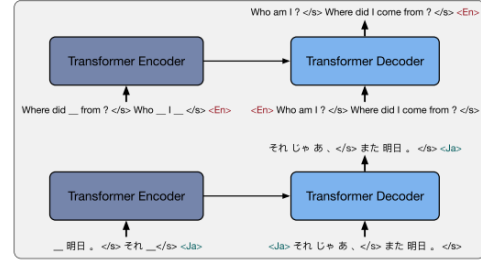

Figure 1: Multilingual Denoising Pre-training (mBART)

relevant literature (see Sec. 2), we used the BLEU metric (Papineni et al., 2002) implemented via the SacreBLEU method (Post, 2018). The evaluation is conducted in the following steps - (1) one of the tested mBART50 models is used to translate the English sentences into Polish, (2) the BLEU score is calculated between the predicted Polish sentences and the ground truth. Finally, we also report the training time, to indicate the reduced computational intensity of the fine-tuning on reduced dataset sizes.

All computations were done in LUMI supercomputer, which uses Slurm as job scheduler. More specifically, we used the *standard-g* partition with AMD MI250x GPUs. Each model took different time to train due to varying train set sizes, and combined with evaluation computing time, we utilized a total of 646 GPU hours. For training, we used a 16-bit precision, a batch size of 15 for training and 20 for evaluation, a linear learning rate scheduler using first 100 steps and AdamW optimizer. All models were trained for 3 epochs with consistently declining training and evaluation loss, hence the last checkpoint of each model was used.

4.2   NMT model - mBART50

For machine translation, mBART50, developed by Facebook AI, was used (Tang et al., 2020). The model was chosen because it is one of the state-of-the-art models that can be employed for various tasks and a wide variety of languages, which makes it ideal for comparability and reproducibility of our results. The model is a multilingual Sequence-to-Sequence model pre-trained using the Multilingual Denoising Pretraining (Figure 1). During this pre-training, the source documents are noised in two ways. Firstly, it masks 35% of the words in each instance by randomly sampling a span length according to a Poisson distribution ($\lambda = 3.5$). Secondly, it uses sentence permutation to change the original sentences' order. After that, the model has

Dataset	Size	Training time	Baseline	LaBSE	MUSE	LASER	BERT
Base-none	n/a	n/a	✓				
Base-all	700k	17H:20M	✓				
Base-60%	420k	10H:30M	3 seeds				
Filtered-60%	426k	11H:00M		✓	✓	✓	✓
Base-20%	140k	03H:10M	3 seeds				
Filtered-20%	142k	03H:20M		✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 1: Dataset specifications and average training times. *Base-none* is the raw pre-trained model without any fine-tuning. *Base-all*, *Base-20%*, *Base-60%* are models fine-tuned on all, randomly selected 20%, and randomly selected 60% of the training data respectively. Equivalently the filtered models were fine-tuned on subsets of the data selected as the highest scored sentence pairs for each filtering method. The reported training times are based on 3 epochs of training on the LUMI supercomputer. Their values are indicative based on representative training runs.

to reconstruct the original text. The decoder input is the original text shifted by one position. It uses an initial token called the language id (<LID>) to predict the sentence.

For our fine-tuning, the previously introduced UFAL Medical Corpus (ufa) was used, including its Polish and English translations. The corpus was tokenized using MBart50Tokenizer (MBa).

4.3 Evaluation metric

In the training process, English sentences were translated into Polish sentences, and the evaluation was based on SacreBLEU. SacreBLEU is a metric used to evaluate the quality of translated text. In SacreBLEU, the transition quality is measured on a scale from 0 to 100. Higher scores mean better transitions. It calculates the number of overlapping n-grams between the generated translation and the source translations. SacreBLEU, compared to BLEU, ensures consistent reporting and enables the comparison of scores across research works (Post, 2018).

4.4 Filtering methods

4.4.1 BERT

The BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) model is a popular model used for a wide variety of tasks. It was developed by Google and was published in the paper "BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding" (Devlin et al., 2019). As it employs bidirectional training, it achieves a deeper understanding of language context compared to single-direction language models. For the filtering tasks, we use the bert-base-multilingual-cased version provided by Hugging Face (ber). The model was pre-trained on 104 languages (Devlin et al., 2019).

We included this model in our study to provide a comparison between the performance of filtering based the raw multilingual-embedding approach of BERT versus the language-agnostic approach of the other models.

4.4.2 LaBSE

LaBSE - Language-agnostic BERT Sentence Embeddings, is method developed by a Google research team for creating BERT based cross-lingual sentence embeddings for over 109 languages (Feng et al., 2022). We implemented the version of the model from HugginFace (LaB). This model was created to address the short-comings of the original BERT model's multilingual embeddings, which are not inherently language-agnostic. The model was trained as a dual-encoder, which used a pre-trained BERT model to generate embeddings for two translations of the same sentence. The model's training loss was set as the difference between the two embeddings, leading towards the convergence of the embedding models to create a cross-lingual embeddings space.

The model's authors use a variety of methods state-of-the-art training methods including masked language modeling, translation language modeling, dual encoder translation ranking, and the use of the additive margin softmax (Feng et al., 2022).

This model was included in our research due to the promising results indicated in its paper, as well as the fact that it has not been studied in previous data filtering literature.

4.4.3 LASER

The LASER (Language-Agnostic SEntence Representations) model (Schwenk and Douze, 2017) (LAS), developed by Facebook AI Research, is an advanced method for generating language-

Model	Filter	Avg. BLEU	Min	Max	△ Base-all	△ Base 60&20
Base-none	-	14.936	-	-	-2.466	-
Base-all	-	17.402	-	-	-	-
Base-60%	-	17.234	17.174	17.296	-0.168	-
Filtered-60%	LASER	**17.411**	-	-	**0.009**	**0.177**
Filtered-60%	MUSE	17.239	-	-	-0.163	0.005
Filtered-60%	LaBSE	17.151	-	-	-0.251	-0.083
Base-20%	-	16.801	16.516	17.041	-0.601	-
Filtered-20%	LASER	**17.114**	-	-	**-0.288**	**0.313**
Filtered-20%	MUSE	17.071	-	-	-0.331	0.270
Filtered-20%	LaBSE	16.376	-	-	-1.026	-0.425
Filtered-20%	BERT	16.273	-	-	-1.129	-0.528

Table 2: Experimental Results. Average scores are reported for the Base-60% and Base-20% models which were run three times with different random seeds

independent sentence embeddings. The core of the LASER model is a BiLSTM (Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory) neural network architecture, which is trained on a large-scale, multilingual corpus. This BiLSTM encoder reads input sentences in any language and encodes them into a fixed-size vector, capturing the deep semantic content of the sentence.

A key feature of LASER is its language-agnostic design. LASER is trained to handle input from over 90 languages. This is achieved by training the model on parallel corpora, where the same sentence in multiple languages is used to teach the model to generate similar embeddings for semantically equivalent sentences, regardless of the language. Furthermore, the model includes a Byte Pair Encoding (BPE) based tokenizer, allowing the model to handle diverse languages, including those with complex morphology or lacking word boundaries like Chinese. The BPE tokenizer also aids in generalizing across languages by breaking down words into common subword units shared across different languages.

This model was chosen for our analysis given its proven performance in data filtering in literature from other domains and languages (Chaudhary et al., 2019).

4.4.4 MUSE

MUSE - Multilingual Unsupervised and Supervised Embeddings facilitates the fast and easy development and evaluation of cross-lingual word embeddings (met, 2023). It was developed by Facebook and it was published in Word Translation without Parallel Data paper (Conneau et al., 2017). The model incorporates unsupervised alignment

of monolingual word embeddings involves three steps: adversarial training to create a linear mapping from the source to the target embedding space, extracting a synthetic dictionary from the shared space, and refining the alignment using the Procrustes solution. This enables alignment without the need for cross-lingual annotated data or parallel corpora (Conneau et al., 2017).

The original model was no longer available; however, we applied its pre-made embeddings dictionary. The model was included in our study as it has performed well in other language pairs and domains in previous data filtering literature (Bane and Zaretskaya, 2021).

5 Results

As expected based on related research (see Sec. 2), our results in Table 2 indicate that fine-tuning on in-domain data improves performance when testing on an unrelated in-domain dataset. The pre-trained and not fine-tuned *Base-none* shows BLEU score of 14.936, worse than any of the fine-tuned models. The opposite is represented by *Base-all*, which has been trained on the whole corpus and shows a BLEU of 17.402, an increase of 2.466 with respect to *Base-none*. When training or random subsets of the data, *Base-20%* and *Base-60%* show average performance increases of 1.931 and 2.298 respectively, showing less performance increase than when using whole corpus, as would be expected.

With these baseline results for different training sizes in hand, we can compare to our results using filtered versions of dataset with equal sizes — whose random variations have been suppressed by the triple run. The benefit of the filtering is espe-

cially visible in *LASER-60%*, where performance is higher than *Base-60%* (increase of 0.177) and even than *Base-all* (increase of 0.009), meaning that removing 40% of the "worst quality data" yielded marginally increased performance. The case of *MUSE-60%* is also positive, since it only meant a decrease of 0.163 with respect to *Base-all*, and performance was higher than *Base-60%* by 0.005, which does not seem very significant. The case of *LaBSE-60%* is different, since it actually decreased the performance by 0.083 with respect to *Base-60%*, indicating its use was not beneficial[3].

When comparing the smaller sizes of subsets of 20% of the data, none of the filtering methods helped obtain a model that was better than *Base-all*. However, we still see LASER and MUSE methods showing beneficial results when compared to *Base-20%*, specifically showing 0.246 and 0.203 increase respectively. Again, LaBSE does not seem to help, but rather do the opposite. The same holds for BERT method.

6 Discussion

Altogether, the relation seems to hold that **LASER_n > MUSE_n > Baseline_n > LaBSE_n > BERT_n** for n being the size of the subset. **LASER is the best performing filtering method**, since its subset of 60% shows even better performance than using the whole corpus. The latter is very significant, since by reducing your corpus by 40%, you can obtain even better performance and reduce your computing time by almost a half. Additionally, while further halving training time, models trained on data filtered down by 80% using LASER and MUSE achieved only slightly lower validation BLEU scores (0.288 and 0.331 respectively) compared to *Base-all* indicating their power in resource-limited scenarios.

Results for LaBSE and BERT methods are underwhelming as they result in lower validation scores than worst performing randomly selected dataset. This indicates that the filtering methods give high scores to sentence pairs with low training value. BERT's low performance was expected due it being a model with language-specific embeddings, i.e., its embeddings were not explicitly trained to be similar across languages. The result for LaBSE is surprising, as we expected all language-agnostic methods to outperform or be equally good as the

random sampling. The weakness of LaBSE may be particularly rooted in its application to Polish or biomedical terminology.

One possible line for future work to improve our analysis would be to manually evaluate the performance. For instance, we could select top k predictions of the models fine-tuned on filtered dataset and from the model fine-tuned on unfiltered dataset and randomly shuffle them. Then, a Polish speaker could evaluate the quality being blinded on the prediction model origin. Also, significance testing could improve further the interpretability of our results.

It must be noted that filtering was done using only cosine similarity. A possible next step would be to include more advanced distance metrics to compare the embeddings vectors and see if some is more beneficial than others. Also, filtering methods not solely based on comparing embeddings could be included. An even more interesting approach could be to use some filtering methods that do not only rely on quality, but also on how much in-domain the sentences are. We observed in our corpus that some sentences were not so specific to the medical domain, containing just a few medical terms and the rest being pretty general language. If we were able to filter based on how specific to the domain the language is, probably the performances would be even higher when testing on a very specific test set as ours.

7 Concluding remarks

In our project, we analyzed four multilingual NLP models for data filtering, on English to Polish translations in the biomedical domain. After fine-tuning mBART50 on differently sized filtered subsets of a bigger medical corpus, we observed that LASER and MUSE filtering methods can yield similar or better performances with significantly reduced training times as compared to using whole corpus. Furthermore, these methods allowed to reduce the performance drop cause when using even smaller subsets. Thus for LASER and MUSE we have confirmed our initial hypothesis *H1* and *H2*. However, LaBSE and BERT showed weaker performance compared to a randomly decreased dataset. Overall, we indicate the benefits of data filtering for this specific language-pair and domain and recommend using LASER or MUSE methods.

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[3]Due to a technical error we were unable to run the 60% version of the dataset filtered by BERT.

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A Appendix

A.1 Group contributions

The work was fairly distributed among team members with no significant imbalance in workload. All team members contributed to writing the report.

- Kamil Kojs: LASER, data cleaning

- Janos Mate: MUSE, BERT, data cleaning

- Mikołaj Baranski: LaBSE, data cleaning

- Jorge del Pozo Lerida: mBart50 training, LUMI setup

A.2 Evalutation translations

Type	Sentence
English	Meningococcal Disease is a serious bacterial infection that can cause swelling of the brain and spinal cord, and infection of the blood and other organs.
Ground Truth	Infekcja meningokokowa jest poważną chorobą bakteryjną, która może spowodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia, infekcję krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction LaBSE-60	Meningooka jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction LASER-60	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction MUSE-60	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-60_1	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-60_2	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-60_3	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction LaBSE-20	Meningokoczka jest poważnym zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction LASER-20	Choroba meningokokowa jest poważnym zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction MUSE-20	Choroba gruczołu krokowego jest poważnym zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction BERT-20	Meningookoka jest poważnym zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-20_1	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-20_2	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-20_3	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-all	Choroba meningokokowa jest ciężkim zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego oraz zakażenie krwi i innych narządów.
Prediction Base-none	Chorób gruczołu krokowego jest poważnym zakażeniem bakteryjnym, które może powodować obrzęk mózgu i rdzenia kręgowego, i zakażenie krwi i innych organów.

Table 3: Example of evaluation translations. In this specific set of translations we can see models filtered by LaBSE, BERT, and not fine-tuned Base-none, all fail to capture the correct medical term for the disease. Additionally, MUSE-80 also acts in the same way as the un-fine-tuned model. It appears the models attempt to hallucinate the correct medical term.

Type	Sentence
English	The chest tube has drained 300 ml.
Ground Truth	Przez dren klatki piersiowej odprowadzono 300 ml.
Prediction LaBSE-60	Tuba klatki piersiowej wysuszyła 300 ml.
Prediction LASER-60	Tuba klatki piersiowej wyciekła 300 ml.
Prediction MUSE-60	Tuba klatki piersiowej odwodniła 300 ml.
Prediction Base-60_1	Tuba do klatki piersiowej zawiera 300 ml odtworzonego płynu.
Prediction Base-60_2	Tuba do klatki piersiowej zawiera 300 ml odkażonego płynu.
Prediction Base-60_3	Wypłukany wkład w klatce piersiowej wynosi 300 ml.
Prediction LaBSE-20	Tuby piersiowe wysuszyły 300 ml.
Prediction LASER-20	Tuba piersiowa wysuszyła 300 ml.
Prediction MUSE-20	Tłok w klatce piersiowej odwodnił 300 ml.
Prediction BERT-20	Strumień w klatce piersiowej nasączył 300 ml płynu.
Prediction Base-20_1	Tuba w klatce piersiowej wyodrębniła 300 ml.
Prediction Base-20_2	Tuba w klatce piersiowej wysiękła 300 ml.
Prediction Base-20_3	Tuba w klatce piersiowej pokryta jest odwodnieniem w ilości 300 ml.
Prediction Base-all	Tuba klatki piersiowej posiada 300 ml odprowadzanego płynu.
Prediction Base-none	Trubka piersiowa wyparła 300 ml.

Table 4: Example of evaluation translations. This is an example of a specifically difficult translation for the systems. Interestingly, all translations have at least some level of grammatical or meaning inconsistency. The Base-all model achieves the closest translation in terms of used vocabulary; however, its sentence changes the meaning of the English phrase. As in the table above, MUSE-20 has severly reduce