

# IST-Unbabel 2021 Submission for the Quality Estimation Shared Task

Chrysoula Zerva<sup>1,2,\*</sup> Daan van Stigt<sup>3,\*</sup> Ricardo Rei<sup>2,3,4,\*</sup> Ana C. Farinha<sup>3</sup>  
Pedro G. Ramos<sup>3</sup> José G. C. de Souza<sup>3</sup> Taisiya Glushkova<sup>1,2</sup> Miguel Vera<sup>3</sup>  
Fábio Kepler<sup>3</sup> André F. T. Martins<sup>1,2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Instituto Superior Técnico <sup>2</sup>Instituto de Telecomunicações <sup>3</sup>Unbabel <sup>4</sup>INESC-ID  
<sup>2,3,4</sup>Lisbon, Portugal

{chrysoula.zerva, ricardo.rei, taisiya.glushkova, andre.t.martins}@tecnico.ulisboa.pt

{daan.stigt, catarina.farinha, pedro.ramos, jose.souza, miguel.vera, fabio.kepler}@unbabel.com

## Abstract

We present the joint contribution of IST and Unbabel to the WMT 2021 Shared Task on Quality Estimation. Our team participated on two tasks: Direct Assessment and Post-Editing Effort, encompassing a total of 35 submissions. For all submissions, our efforts focused on training multilingual models on top of OpenKiwi predictor-estimator architecture, using pre-trained multilingual encoders combined with adapters. We further experiment with and uncertainty-related objectives and features as well as training on out-of-domain direct assessment data.

## 1 Introduction

Quality estimation (QE) is the task of evaluating a translation system’s quality without access to reference translations (Blatz et al., 2004; Specia et al., 2018). This paper describes the joint contribution of Instituto Superior Técnico (IST) and Unbabel to the WMT21 Quality Estimation shared task (Specia et al., 2021), where systems were submitted to two tasks: 1) sentence-level direct assessment; 2) word- and sentence-level post-editing effort.

This year’s submission combines several ideas built on top of the OpenKiwi framework. Motivated by the mixture of *blind* and *seen* language pairs in the test sets, we experimented with extensions that would allow us to train multilingual models that maintain good generalization ability and are robust to the presence of epistemic and aleatoric uncertainty.

For both tasks we trained and submitted an ensemble of multilingual models. All submitted models follow the predictor-estimator architecture (Kim and Lee, 2016; Kim et al., 2017) and use pre-trained models for feature extraction. Also, we fine-tune all models on the provided QE data using stacked adapter layers (Pfeiffer et al., 2020).

\* The first three authors have equal contribution.

We show that we can thus achieve comparable performance across language pairs while minimising the number of trainable parameters (see Table 1). Furthermore, we experimented with different types of uncertainty-related information to leverage its benefits, improving performance and robustness of the submitted systems (see §3.1.1). All related code extensions will be publicly available.

Our main contributions are:

- We build on our OpenKiwi architecture by exploring adapter layers (Houlsby et al., 2019; Pfeiffer et al., 2020) for quality estimation as these demonstrated to be less amenable to overfitting while presenting the same or superior quality performance than fine-tuning the whole base pre-trained model for different NLP tasks (He et al., 2021).
- We incorporate different types of uncertainty into our architectures. We make use of the glass-box features (Fomicheva et al., 2020) extracted from the NMT models, the *aleatoric* (data) uncertainty derived from the human annotations and the *epistemic* (model) uncertainty (Hora, 1996; Kiureghian and Ditlevsen, 2009; Huellermeier and Waegeman, 2021) that originates from the QE model.
- We show that training the QE models on additional out-of-domain direct assessment (DA) data gives considerable gains in performance for the new language pairs from the *blind* test sets.

## 2 Quality Estimation Tasks

In this year’s shared task edition we submitted models for the first two tasks:

1. Task 1: sentence-level direct assessment
2. Task 2: word- and sentence level post-editing effort, comprising of two subtasks: a) predicting the HTER score of the translated sentence

(hypothesis); and b) predicting OK/BAD tags for the words and gaps (both in source and translation)

We note that this year, both tasks 1 and 2 provided additional *blind* test sets with language pairs that were not included in the data made available for training/development, providing an interesting challenge and motivating multilingual and generalisable approaches.

### 3 Implemented Systems

#### 3.1 Task 1

For Task 1 our final submission consisted of an ensemble of two different multilingual models, that differ in the way they process the input source (original sentence) and hypothesis (machine translation). Both models are based on the predictor-estimator architecture, using different pre-trained models to extract features and different training approaches to optimise for the QE task.

The key idea explored with our first model (denoted by M1 variations in the experiments), revolved around pursuing highly generalisable multilingual models, robust to overfitting. To this end, we train a cross-lingual transformer (XLM-RoBERTa (Conneau et al., 2020)) on large, multilingual data with direct assessments and then use adapters (Houlsby et al., 2019; Pfeiffer et al., 2020) to adapt to the domain specific data of the QE task with minimal training effort. In line with our efforts for good generalisation, we use only task-specific adapters and refrain from using specific adapters for each language pair. For these experiments we build on the OpenKiwi architecture (Kepler et al., 2019), using a pre-trained xlm-roberta-large encoder as a feature predictor. The source and hypothesis sentences are jointly encoded with hypothesis first. Then, source and hypothesis features are generated using average pooling over the hypothesis embeddings and forwarded to the estimator module which corresponds to a feed-forward layer. Figure 1 provides the general architecture<sup>1</sup>

The model was first trained on the direct assessment data provided in the Metrics shared tasks (Mathur et al., 2020), as described in §3.1.2. Upon training, the XML-R encoder is frozen and the the model is fine-tuned on sentence regression with

<sup>1</sup>Note that glass-box features are integrated but not used in this submission as they did not significantly improve performance.

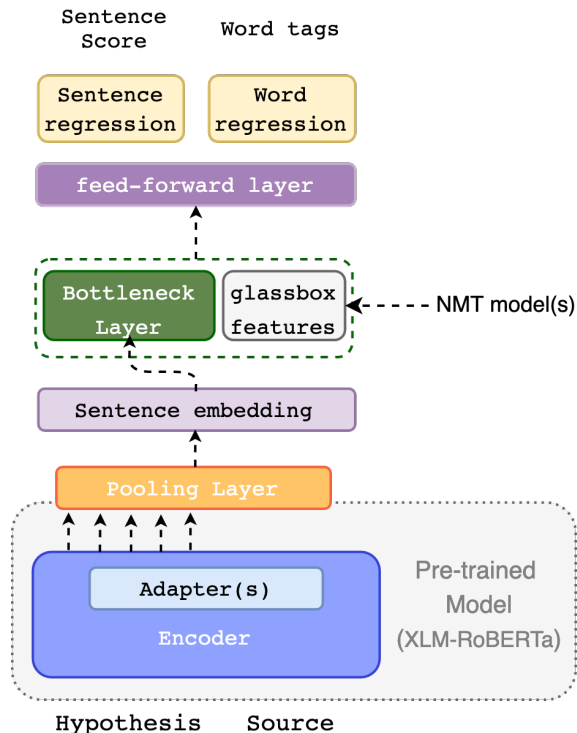


Figure 1: General architecture of M1 model variations. Word tag prediction is used only for Task 2.

the task-specific data, using stacked adapters. We hence manage to maintain a low number of trainable parameters during fine-tuning and minimize training time while learning to predict task-specific sentence scores.

For the second model (denoted by M2-KL-G-MCD) we aimed to explore the potential of a large pre-trained multilingual model (trained with MT objectives). We use the mBART (Liu et al., 2020) encoder-decoder architecture to encode the source and force-decode the hypothesis. We specifically use the mBART50 model (Tang et al., 2020) which is trained with multilingual finetuning on 50 languages, including all languages of interest for the QE 2021 task. We obtain the features by averaging the decoder embeddings and concatenating with the  $\langle \text{eos} \rangle$  token of the sequence. The estimator part of the model consists of a *bottleneck* feed-forward layer that reduces the dimensionality of the decoder output, and is concatenated with a vector with additional glass-box features from the NMT models (see §3.1.1). The combined vector is then forwarded to a feed-forward estimator and the full model is fine-tuned on the task specific QE data. Apart from the glass-box features we experimented further with methods that allow the model to be

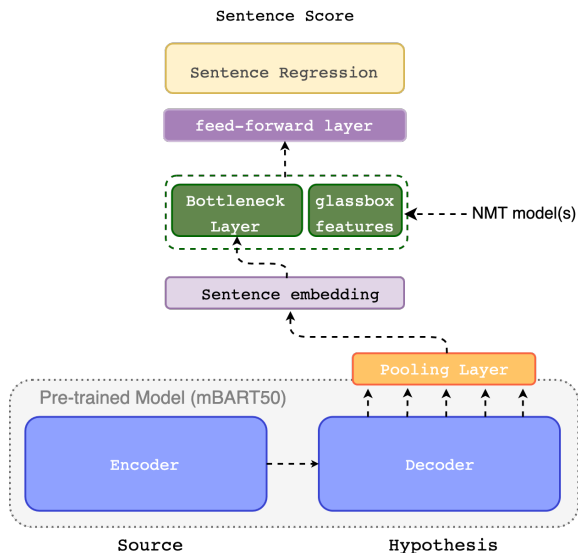


Figure 2: General architecture of M2 model variations.

more robust towards the underlying uncertainty of its predictions. We elaborate that in the next section. Figure 2 provides a general architecture of the M2 model variations.

### 3.1.1 Learning from uncertainty

Multiple neural models are involved in the process of obtaining and scoring machine translations, which naturally leads to several sources of uncertainty. These sources can be very informative and useful for MT evaluation. In this work we try to consider three types of uncertainty: (1) uncertainty of the NMT models used to obtain the *hypotheses*, (2) data (aleatoric) uncertainty for which we use the inter-annotator disagreement as a proxy, and (3) uncertainty of the MT evaluation model itself.

**NMT model uncertainty** The idea of extracting uncertainty-related features from the MT systems in order to estimate the quality of their predictions, was originally introduced by Fomicheva et al. (2020). This glass-box approach to QE is mostly focusing on capturing epistemic uncertainty, and the proposed features are extracted either using Monte Carlo (MC) dropout on the NMT or using the output probability distributions obtained from a standard deterministic MT system. In our last year’s submission (Moura et al., 2020) the integration of such features proved to be effective, thus we decided to incorporate it into our new model as well. We list the extracted features below:

- TP sentence average of word translation probability

- Softmax-Ent sentence average of softmax output distribution entropy
- Sent-Std sentence standard deviation of word probabilities
- D-TP average TP across  $N(N = 30)$  stochastic forward-passes
- D-Var variance of TP across  $N$  stochastic forward-passes
- D-Combo combination of D-TP and D-Var defined by  $1 - D - TP/D - Var$
- D-Lex-Sim lexical similarity - measured by METEOR score (Lavie and Denkowski, 2009) - of MT output generated in different stochastic passes.

**Aleatoric uncertainty** The noise and complexity of the training data is a source of predictive uncertainty in itself, referred to as data or aleatoric uncertainty (Kiureghian and Ditlevsen, 2009). This uncertainty is often reflected in the disagreement between human annotations for the same *source-hypothesis* segment (Cohn and Specia, 2013; Fornaciari et al., 2021). We hypothesize that the direct assessments can be better modelled as normally distributed scores rather than a single score, and that a model trained to predict this distribution (mean and standard deviation) could provide better quality estimates<sup>2</sup>. We formalise this as a KL divergence objective, using the closed form solution to estimate the KL divergence between the target distribution  $p(x) = N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$  and the predicted distribution  $q(x) = N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$ , as shown in Eq. 1.

$$KL(p||q) = \log \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} + \frac{\sigma_1^2 + (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2} - \frac{1}{2} \quad (1)$$

where we take the mean and standard deviation (std) of the direct assessment  $z\_scores$  as the target (ground truth proxy) values  $p$ . This way, we account for the annotator disagreement (reflected in the std value) during learning.

**QE epistemic uncertainty** We use MC dropout (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016) to account for the uncertainty of the QE model. Specifically, we enable dropout during inference and run multiple forward runs over each test instance. Thus we obtain a distribution of quality predictions for each instance

<sup>2</sup>Note that for this task’s data we only had access to 3 scores per segment so the mean and std values are calculated over these numbers.

instead of a single point estimate. We use the estimated mean of the distribution as our predicted quality estimate. MC dropout has been shown to improve predictive accuracy and perform on par or even better compared to deep ensembles for MT evaluation tasks (Glushkova et al., 2021). It thus allows us to simulate ensembling in a cheap and effective way, without the need to train multiple checkpoints.

### 3.1.2 Out-of-domain direct assessment data

The QE data is relatively limited, making it harder to train multilingual models with a large number of parameters without over-fitting. Thus, as explained in §3.1 we aimed to investigate whether we could obtain models that generalise better and are more robust to noise and out-of-distribution data by training the XLM-RoBERTa model first on a larger –yet noisier and out-of-domain dataset. To that end we leverage the data provided for the past Metrics shared tasks, which covers the language pairs used in this year’s QE task, including the blind tests for which we had no in-domain data available. Altogether, it encompasses 30 language pairs from the news domain (versus 7 in the QE dataset). We provide more detailed statistics for each language pair of the Metrics data in Appendix C. We refer to experiments using the model initially trained on the Metrics data as M1M-. We also show that using the trained XLM-RoBERTa encoder from the M1M model can prove beneficial for the predictions on post-edited data of Task 2 (see Table 3).

## 3.2 Task 2

For Task 2 we submitted an ensemble of two variations of the first model (M1-ADAPT and M1M-ADAPT) presented for Task 1 (see §3.1). In both cases, we use multi-task training and a feed-forward for each output types: hypothesis word tags, hypothesis gap tags, source word tags, and sentence regression (on HTER scores). Both variations use a pre-trained XLM-RoBERTa (large) encoder to extract features as described for Task 1, but differ in the training of the encoder. In the first case we use the pre-trained model<sup>3</sup> and fine-tune on the QE data using stacked adapters. In the second variation we swap the original pre-trained model with the XLM-RoBERTa model that has been trained on the Metrics data as described in

<sup>3</sup>[https://huggingface.co/transformers/model\\_doc/xlmroberta.html](https://huggingface.co/transformers/model_doc/xlmroberta.html)

§3.1.2. We note that the two variations favor different language pairs, hence we combine multiple checkpoints from each variation (ranging training steps). We use the `test-20` split of the data to optimise the hyper-parameters and following this approach we use the estimated top-3 checkpoints from each variation using the combined dataset<sup>4</sup> and the top checkpoint for the non-augmented model trained exclusively on the train set, resulting in total 7 checkpoints in our final ensemble.

## 4 Experimental Results

We present the performance of the implemented models on the `test-20` dataset.

### 4.1 Task 1

The results can be seen in Tables 1 and 2. In line with the shared task guidelines we treat Pearson  $r$  as the primary performance metric and select the submitted models accordingly. We can observe, that while on average the M1 model and its variations outperform the M2 model, their performance is comparable, and M2-KL-G-MCD can even outperform M1M-ADAPT for specific language pairs, hence it made sense to combine them in the final ensemble. We can also see that fine-tuning the M1 model on the Metrics data, results in performance gains for the majority of the language pairs. Specifically, even applying the M1M directly, without further fine-tuning on QE data, achieves competitive performance for most pairs, which further improves upon fine-tuning. It helps in increasing the performance on the *blind* sets (denoted as *zero-shot* in the Appendix B). The performance gains concern mostly the correlation performance indicators (Pearson and Spearman correlations), since especially for M1 the error-based indicators (MAE and RMSE) seem to favor the versions of the model that have not seen the Metrics data. One possible explanation for this discrepancy could lie in the differences between the range and distribution of DA scores for the two datasets. Indicatively, the range of scores on the `train-dev-test-20` concatenation of the QE data is  $[-7.542, 3.178]$  and for the Metrics data  $[-8.624, 4.332]$ . The target DA scores in both datasets are calculated via standardizing (taking the  $z$  score) the direct assessments for each annotator and then averaging all standardized

<sup>4</sup>The combined dataset in this case refers to the concatenation of the `train/dev/test20` annotated data splits provided for the shared task

		Pears $\uparrow$	Spear $\uparrow$	MAE $\downarrow$	RMSE $\downarrow$
EN-DE	M1 BASE	0.4534	0.4532	0.4482	0.6371
	M1-ADAPT	0.5092	0.4825	0.4868	0.6288
	M1M	0.5288	0.4872	0.4485	0.6327
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.5695</u>	<u>0.5131</u>	<u>0.4127</u>	<u>0.6095</u>
EN-ZH	M1 BASE	0.4429	0.4362	0.5364	0.6867
	M1-ADAPT	0.4723	0.4755	0.5228	0.6714
	M1M	0.4447	0.4400	<u>0.4772</u>	<u>0.6110</u>
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.4815</u>	<u>0.4872</u>	0.5502	0.7017
ET-EN	M1 BASE	0.7939	0.8076	0.5388	0.6928
	M1-ADAPT	0.7948	0.8061	<u>0.4518</u>	<u>0.5810</u>
	M1M	0.7580	0.7611	0.5820	0.7134
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.7956</u>	<u>0.8110</u>	0.5358	0.6921
NE-EN	M1 BASE	0.7805	<u>0.7592</u>	0.4278	0.5461
	M1-ADAPT	0.7609	<u>0.7475</u>	<u>0.4075</u>	0.5393
	M1M	0.7477	0.7324	0.4499	0.6161
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.7888</u>	0.7556	0.4192	<u>0.5332</u>
RO-EN	M1 BASE	0.8718	0.8360	0.3598	0.4878
	M1-ADAPT	<u>0.8923</u>	<u>0.8533</u>	0.3068	<u>0.4201</u>
	M1M	0.8345	0.8132	0.4585	0.5863
	M1M-ADAPT	0.8889	0.8488	<u>0.3142</u>	0.4437
RU-EN	M1 BASE	0.7587	0.6919	0.4885	0.6949
	M1-ADAPT	<u>0.7736</u>	0.7142	<u>0.4138</u>	<u>0.6082</u>
	M1M	0.6703	0.6535	0.5606	0.7583
	M1M-ADAPT	0.7425	<u>0.7159</u>	0.4989	0.7250
SI-EN	M1 BASE	0.6456	0.6112	0.5060	0.6481
	M1-ADAPT	0.6613	0.6172	<u>0.4742</u>	0.5939
	M1M	0.6308	<u>0.6535</u>	<u>0.4742</u>	<u>0.5786</u>
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.6649</u>	0.6225	0.4863	0.6064
ML	M1 BASE	0.6781	0.6565	0.4722	0.6276
	M1-ADAPT	0.6949	0.6709	0.4377	<u>0.5775</u>
	M1M	0.6593	0.5131	<u>0.4127</u>	0.6095
	M1M-ADAPT	<b>0.7045</b>	<b>0.6791</b>	<b>0.4596</b>	<b>0.6160</b>

Table 1: Results for Task 1 with the M1 predictor-estimator (XLM-RoBERTa) and different training/fine-tuning approaches. M1M is the M1 model trained on the Metrics dataset and M#-ADAPT signifies a model fine-tuned on the QE data with adapters. ML stands for MULTILINGUAL, showing the performance averaged over all language pairs. Underlined numbers indicate the best result for each language pair and evaluation metric. **Bold** systems were selected for the final ensemble.

assessments for each segment. Thus, the difference in target score range and distribution could affect the magnitude of predicted scores and the distance to the ground truth values, which is reflected in the MAE and RMSE metrics. These findings, further supported by the results on Task 2, is a first step in exploring the underlying connection and bridging the gap between the Metrics and Quality Estimation shared tasks.

## 4.2 Task 2

The results can be seen in Table 3. Similarly to Task 1, the primary evaluation metric for the sentence level sub-task of Task 2 is the Pearson r coefficient,

		Pears $\uparrow$	Spear $\uparrow$	MAE $\downarrow$	RMSE $\downarrow$
EN-DE	M2 BASE	0.4889	0.4645	0.4608	0.6180
	M2-KL	0.4971	<u>0.4769</u>	0.4549	0.6191
	M2-KL-G	<u>0.5110</u>	0.4738	<u>0.4396</u>	0.6133
	M2-KL-G-MCD	0.5093	0.4754	0.4495	<u>0.6128</u>
EN-ZH	M2 BASE	0.4484	0.4355	0.4940	0.6374
	M2-KL	0.4574	0.4471	0.5042	0.6485
	M2-KL-G	0.4566	0.4543	0.5278	0.6751
	M2-KL-G-MCD	<u>0.4628</u>	<u>0.4584</u>	0.4973	0.6390
ET-EN	M2 BASE	0.7792	0.7842	0.4581	<u>0.5624</u>
	M2-KL	0.7833	0.7896	0.4684	0.5824
	M2-KL-G	0.7847	<u>0.7962</u>	0.4643	0.5924
	M2-KL-G-MCD	<u>0.7868</u>	0.7951	<u>0.4539</u>	0.5674
NE-EN	M2 BASE	0.7333	0.7154	0.4347	0.5531
	M2-KL	<u>0.7638</u>	<u>0.7393</u>	<u>0.4040</u>	<u>0.5247</u>
	M2-KL-G	0.7529	0.7228	0.4194	0.5353
	M2-KL-G-MCD	0.7596	0.7269	0.4125	0.5313
RO-EN	M2 BASE	0.8780	0.8407	0.3403	0.4514
	M2-KL	<u>0.8826</u>	0.8406	<u>0.3199</u>	<u>0.4305</u>
	M2-KL-G	0.8728	0.8397	0.3314	0.4635
	M2-KL-G-MCD	0.8777	<u>0.8429</u>	0.3209	0.4426
RU-EN	M2 BASE	0.7406	0.6874	0.4696	0.6381
	M2-KL	<u>0.7532</u>	0.7123	0.4558	<u>0.6299</u>
	M2-KL-G	0.7485	0.7191	0.4630	0.6612
	M2-KL-G-MCD	0.7509	<u>0.7204</u>	<u>0.4492</u>	0.6358
SI-EN	M2 BASE	0.6243	0.5899	0.4709	0.5939
	M2-KL	0.6373	0.6000	0.4572	0.5726
	M2-KL-G	0.6506	0.6168	0.4586	0.5796
	M2-KL-G-MCD	<u>0.6545</u>	<u>0.6199</u>	<u>0.4495</u>	<u>0.5697</u>
ML	M2 BASE	0.6704	0.6454	0.4469	0.5792
	M2-KL	0.6821	0.6580	0.4378	0.5725
	M2-KL-G	0.6825	0.6604	0.4434	0.5886
	M2-KL-G-MCD	<b>0.6859</b>	<b>0.6627</b>	<b>0.4333</b>	<b>0.5712</b>

Table 2: Results for Task 1 with the M2 predictor-estimator (mBART) and different uncertainty handling additions. “KL” signifies the incorporation of KL loss, “G” the incorporation of glass-box features and MCD the addition of MC dropout. ML stands for MULTILINGUAL, showing the performance averaged over all language pairs. Underlined numbers indicate the best result for each language pair and evaluation metric. **Bold** systems were selected for the final ensemble.

while the word level sub-task is evaluated using the Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC, (Matthews, 1975)) as the primary performance indicator.

We can see that while HTER scores do not always correlate highly with DAs (see Table 4), the use of the M1M model encoder that was trained on large data with direct assessments can still prove useful. Indeed, when fine-tuning on the Task2 data, the model using the M1M encoder (M1M-ADAPT in the table 3) provides a performance boost for the Pearson correlation in most language pairs, and competitive performance for the rest. Based on these results, we deem it worthwhile to include checkpoints trained with this configuration in the ensemble estimating that they will contribute in higher performance, especially on the blind test sets. This can be further confirmed when

		Pearson $\uparrow$	SRC-MCC $\uparrow$	TGT-MCC $\uparrow$
EN-DE	M1 BASE	0.5256	0.3331	0.4092
	M1-ADAPT	<u>0.5573</u>	<u>0.4211</u>	0.36454
	M1M-ADAPT	0.5499	0.3647	<u>0.4239</u>
EN-ZH	M1 BASE	<u>0.3786</u>	0.3253	0.3589
	M1-ADAPT	0.3711	<u>0.4346</u>	0.3288
	M1M-ADAPT	0.3721	0.4255	<u>0.3643</u>
ET-EN	M1 BASE	0.7319	0.4537	0.5110
	M1-ADAPT	0.7360	<u>0.5545</u>	0.4978
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.7498</u>	0.4929	<u>0.5513</u>
NE-EN	M1 BASE	0.5898	0.5198	0.4386
	M1-ADAPT	0.5987	<u>0.6884</u>	<u>0.5426</u>
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.6252</u>	0.4244	0.4682
RO-EN	M1 BASE	0.8531	0.5727	<u>0.6190</u>
	M1-ADAPT	0.8282	<u>0.5984</u>	<u>0.5653</u>
	M1M-ADAPT	0.8280	0.5682	0.5813
RU-EN	M1 BASE	0.4899	0.2766	0.3213
	M1-ADAPT	0.4811	<u>0.341</u>	0.3071
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.5060</u>	0.2927	<u>0.3421</u>
SI-EN	M1 BASE	0.6659	0.4653	0.4776
	M1-ADAPT	0.6698	<u>0.6776</u>	<u>0.5057</u>
	M1M-ADAPT	<u>0.6935</u>	0.3872	0.4937
ML	M1 BASE	0.6050	0.4209	0.4479
	<b>M1-ADAPT</b>	<b>0.6061</b>	<b>0.5323</b>	<b>0.4445</b>
	<b>M1M ADAPT</b>	<b>0.6178</b>	<b>0.4222</b>	<b>0.4607</b>

Table 3: Results for Task 2 with the M1 predictor-estimator (XLM-RoBERTa) and different training/fine-tuning approaches. M1M is the M1 model trained on the Metrics dataset and M#-ADAPT signifies a model fine-tuned on the QE data with adapters. ML stands for MULTILINGUAL, showing the performance averaged over all language pairs. Underlined numbers indicate the best result for each language pair and evaluation metric. **Bold** systems were selected for the final ensemble.

inspecting the results for the blind sets (en-es, en-ja, km-en and ps-en) in the official results on test-21 as shown in Appendix B.

lp	TRAIN	DEV	TEST-20
EN-DE	-0.1654	-0.4032	-0.3850
EN-ZH	-0.2947	-0.1895	-0.1932
ET-EN	-0.5464	-0.5850	-0.5995
NE-EN	-0.4527	-0.5004	-0.4558
RO-EN	-0.5887	-0.7932	-0.7880
RU-EN	-0.5358	-0.5055	-0.5152
SI-EN	-0.3916	-0.4384	-0.4125

Table 4: Pearson correlation between the z\_mean of the direct assessments for the QE Task 1 data and the HTER score for the post edits in QE Task 2 data.

## 5 Conclusions

We presented a joint contribution of IST and Unbabel to the WMT 2021 QE shared task. Our

submissions are ensembles of multilingual checkpoints extending the OpenKiwi framework. We found adapter-tuning to be suitable for fine-tuning OpenKiwi on the QE tasks data and less prone to overfitting. We showed that pre-training on large, out-of-domain annotated data can prove beneficial both for the direct assessment and the post-editing QE tasks. We also demonstrated that handling uncertainty-related sources of information improves the performance when integrated into the QE system. For Task 2 we do multi-task training based on the models from the previous task and use multiple checkpoints to create the submitted ensemble.

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## A Hyperparameters

### A.1 M1

In Table 5 is an excerpt of the training configuration used for training OpenKiwi for our M1 models. Note that the configurations follow the configuration file format of OpenKiwi and any additional configurations are identical to the ones proposed in the sample configuration file of the `github` repository<sup>5</sup>.

System	
batch_size	2
Encoder	
hidden_size	1024
Decoder	
bottleneck_size	1024
dropout	0.05
hidden_size	1024
Optimizer	
class_name	adam
encoder_learning_rate	0.0001
learning_rate_decay	1.0
learning_rate_decay_start	0
learning_rate	0.0001
Trainer	
training_steps	2180
early_stop_patience	10
validation_steps	0.5
gradient_accumulation_steps	4
gradient_max_norm	1.0

Table 5: Hyperparameters for M1 models

### A.2 M2

In Table 6 is an excerpt of the training configuration used for training the M2 models using the mBART encoder-decoder:

System	
bottleneck_size	256
dropout	0.1
hidden_size	2048
nr_frozen_epochs	0.333
Optimizer	
optimizer	adam
encoder_learning_rate	6.0e-06
learning_rate	1.0e-05
Trainer	
training_steps	5512
early_stopping_patience	2
save_top_k	3
batch_size	4
gradient_accumulation_steps	4

Table 6: Hyperparameters for M2 models

### B.1 Task 1: Direct Assessments prediction at sentence-level

The results for Task1 on TEST-21 are presented in Table 7.

### B.2 Task 2: HTER prediction at sentence-level

The results for Task2 on TEST-21 are presented in Table 8, showing the performance for the sentence level, HTER score predictions.

### B.3 Task 2: Word-level prediction

The results for Task2 on TEST-21 are presented in Table 9, showing the performance for the word tag predictions.

## C Statistics on the Metrics data

We present below (Tables 10 and 11) the statistics on the Metrics data used to train the M1M model on direct assessments.

## B Evaluation on test set of WMT21

We present the performance of the submitted ensembles on the TEST-21 dataset as calculated in the official QE results<sup>6</sup> for each task and sub-task. We also provide the comparison with the organisers' baseline.

<sup>5</sup><https://github.com/Unbabel/OpenKiwi/blob/master/config/xlmroberta.yaml>

<sup>6</sup>[https://www.statmt.org/wmt21/quality-estimation-task\\_results.html](https://www.statmt.org/wmt21/quality-estimation-task_results.html)

METHOD	PEARSON R $\uparrow$	MAE $\downarrow$	RMSE $\downarrow$
<b>MULTILINGUAL</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.665	0.627	0.482
BASELINE	0.541	0.729	0.562
<b>EN-DE</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.579	0.567	0.393
BASELINE	0.403	0.629	0.433
<b>EN-ZH</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.586	0.631	0.499
BASELINE	0.525	0.683	0.534
<b>RO-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.899	0.393	0.289
BASELINE	0.818	0.556	0.408
<b>ET-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.796	0.519	0.404
BASELINE	0.660	0.700	0.543
<b>NE-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.856	0.515	0.401
BASELINE	0.738	0.657	0.524
<b>SI-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.605	0.742	0.583
BASELINE	0.513	0.797	0.626
<b>RU-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.792	0.583	0.412
BASELINE	0.677	0.702	0.492
<b>ZERO-SHOT LANGUAGE PAIRS</b>			
<b>EN-CZ</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.577	0.751	0.583
BASELINE	0.352	0.845	0.686
<b>EN-JA</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.355	0.764	0.566
BASELINE	0.230	0.816	0.617
<b>PS-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.628	0.780	0.658
BASELINE	0.476	0.852	0.711
<b>KM-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.650	0.721	0.568
BASELINE	0.562	0.788	0.614

Table 7: Results for Task 1 on the held-out evaluation set of WMT 2021.

METHOD	PEARSON R $\uparrow$	MAE $\downarrow$	RMSE $\downarrow$
<b>MULTILINGUAL</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.597	0.219	0.171
BASELINE	0.502	0.235	0.188
<b>EN-DE</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.617	0.172	0.116
BASELINE	0.529	0.183	0.129
<b>EN-ZH</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.290	0.266	0.220
BASELINE	0.282	0.287	0.246
<b>RO-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.879	0.122	0.098
BASELINE	0.831	0.142	0.115
<b>ET-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.811	0.153	0.112
BASELINE	0.714	0.195	0.149
<b>NE-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.718	0.161	0.126
BASELINE	0.626	0.205	0.160
<b>SI-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.710	0.178	0.136
BASELINE	0.607	0.204	0.159
<b>RU-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.539	0.224	0.165
BASELINE	0.448	0.255	0.188
<b>ZERO-SHOT LANGUAGE PAIRS</b>			
<b>EN-CZ</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.529	0.271	0.200
BASELINE	0.306	0.262	0.206
<b>EN-JA</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.275	0.279	0.224
BASELINE	0.098	0.279	0.232
<b>PS-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.555	0.328	0.284
BASELINE	0.503	0.333	0.290
<b>KM-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.655	0.243	0.199
BASELINE	0.576	0.241	0.196

Table 8: Results for Task 2 sentence-level system on the held-out evaluation set of WMT 2021.

METHOD	SRC-MCC $\uparrow$	TGT-MCC-WORDS $\uparrow$	TGT-MCC-GAPS $\uparrow$
<b>EN-DE</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.404	0.466	0.183
BASELINE	0.322	0.370	0.116
<b>EN-ZH</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.286	0.310	0.068
BASELINE	0.241	0.247	0.065
<b>RO-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.603	0.649	0.357
BASELINE	0.511	0.536	0.205
<b>ET-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.522	0.570	0.254
BASELINE	0.405	0.461	0.136
<b>NE-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.445	0.508	0.268
BASELINE	0.390	0.440	0.215
<b>SI-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.406	0.528	0.258
BASELINE	0.335	0.425	0.208
<b>RU-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.351	0.332	0.165
BASELINE	0.251	0.256	0.073
<b>ZERO-SHOT LANGUAGE PAIRS</b>			
<b>EN-CZ</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.294	0.376	0.125
BASELINE	0.224	0.273	0.039
<b>EN-JA</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.175	0.169	0.025
BASELINE	0.175	0.131	0.036
<b>PS-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.294	0.370	0.177
BASELINE	0.249	0.313	0.134
<b>KM-EN</b>			
IST-UNBABEL	0.345	0.448	0.259
BASELINE	0.279	0.351	0.175

Table 9: Results for Task 2 word-level system on the held-out evaluation set of WMT 2021.

	Cs-EN	DE-EN	FI-EN	RU-EN	RO-EN	TR-EN	ZH-EN	ET-EN
	Lt-EN	GU-EN	KK-EN	JA-EN	KM-EN	PL-EN	PS-EN	TA-EN
<b>Total tuples</b>	28887 10315	91584 9063	47205 6789	61505 8917	560 4722	30746 11666	71941 4611	20496 7562
<b>Avg. tokens (reference)</b>	31.43 26.84	24.61 17.73	20.48 20.65	23.31 28.64	24.35 19.49	23.32 21.93	31.70 19.87	23.93 19.91
<b>Avg. tokens (source)</b>	25.65 20.61	22.93 15.13	14.49 16.47	19.77 3.27	24.99 29.91	19.01 18.55	6.05 21.87	18.61 15.31
<b>Avg. tokens (MT)</b>	29.99 25.44	24.19 17.15	19.95 20.00	23.51 27.41	24.42 19.59	22.97 21.64	30.60 19.37	24.06 20.14

Table 10: Statistics for the WMT 15 to 20 Direct Assessments corpus into-English language pairs.

	EN-RU	EN-Cs	EN-DE	EN-FI	EN-LV	EN-TR	EN-ZH
	EN-ET	EN-LT	EN-GU	EN-KK	EN-JA	EN-PL	EN-TA
<b>Total tuples</b>	63771 13376	60905 8959	55352 6924	30924 8219	5810 9573	5171 10506	66830 7886
<b>Avg. tokens (reference)</b>	22.48 18.83	23.48 20.61	23.96 22.07	17.7 19.21	20.45 1.4	19.74 24.54	7.26 19.84
<b>Avg. tokens (source)</b>	24.5 24.23	25.82 24.09	24 24.3	23.21 24.13	24.99 25.2	24.2 25.33	28.81 25.15
<b>Avg. tokens (MT)</b>	22.14 18.96	23 20.62	23.84 22.39	17.81 19.71	21.18 2.29	19.24 23.19	7.53 19.18

Table 11: Statistics for the WMT 15 to 20 Direct Assessments corpus from-English language pairs.