deepQuest-py: Large and Distilled Models for Quality Estimation

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Abstract

We introduce deepQuest-py, a framework for training and evaluation of large and lightweight models for Quality Estimation (QE). deepQuest-py provides access to (1) state-ofthe-art models based on pre-trained Transformers for sentence-level and word-level QE; (2) light-weight and efficient sentence-level models implemented via knowledge distillation; and (3) a web interface for testing models and visualising their predictions. deepQuestpy is available at https://github.com/ sheffieldnlp/deepQuest-py under a CC BY-NC-SA licence.

1 Introduction

Quality Estimation (QE) for Machine Translation (MT) aims to predict how good automatic translations are without comparing them to gold-standard references (Specia et al., 2009). This is useful in real-world scenarios (e.g. computer-aided translation or online translation of social media content), where users would benefit from knowing how confident they should be of the generated translations. QE has received increased attention in the MT community, with Shared Tasks being organised yearly since 2012 as part of WMT, the main conference in MT research (Callison-Burch et al., 2012; Bojar et al., 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017; Specia et al., 2018a; Fonseca et al., 2019; Specia et al., 2020).

Given an original-translation sentence pair, QE scores can be computed in different granularities (Specia et al., 2018b). At the **word-level**, each word in the original and/or translation sentence receives a tag indicating whether it was correctly translated or not (e.g. OK or BAD). Gaps in the translation could also receive labels to indicate when a word is missing. At the **sentence-level**, a single continuous score is predicted for each original-translation pair. For example, 0-100 for direct assessments (DA, Graham et al., 2017), or 0-1

for human-targeted translation error rate (HTER, Snover et al., 2006).

Few open-source software is available for implementing QE models. QuEst (Specia et al., 2013) and QuEst++ (Specia et al., 2015) were the first ones, and included methods that relied on extracting linguistically-motivated features to train traditional machine learning models (e.g. support vector machines). With the advent of neuralbased approaches, deepQuest (Ive et al., 2018) provided a TensorFlow-based framework for RNNbased sentence-level and document-level OE models, inspired by the Predictor-Estimator approach (Kim et al., 2017). OpenKiwi (Kepler et al., 2019) implements a common API for experimenting with several feature-based and neural-based QE models. More recently, TransQuest (Ranasinghe et al., 2020b) released state-of-the-art models for sentence-level QE based on pre-trained Transformer architectures.

As shown in the latest WMT20 QE Shared Task (Specia et al., 2020), systems are increasingly relying on large pre-trained models to achieve impressive results in the different proposed tasks. However, their considerable size could prevent their application in scenarios where fast inference is required and small disk space is available. To overcome this limitation, Gajbhiye et al. (2021) propose to use Knowledge Distillation (KD, Hinton et al., 2015) to transfer knowledge from a large topperforming *teacher* model into a smaller (in terms of memory print, computational power and prediction latency) yet well-performing student model. The authors applied this framework to QE, and effectively trained light-weight QE models with similar performance to SoTA architectures trained on distilled yet large pre-trained representations.

In this paper, we introduce deepQuest-py, a new version of deepQuest that covers both large and light-weight neural QE models, with a particular emphasis on knowledge distillation. The main fea-

tures of deepQuest-py are:

- Implementation of state-of-the-art models for sentence-level (Ranasinghe et al., 2020a) and word-level (Lee, 2020) QE;
- The first implementation of light-weight sentence-level QE models using knowledge distillation (Gajbhiye et al., 2021);
- Easy-to-use command-line interface and API to train and test QE models in custom datasets, as well as those from several WMT QE Shared Tasks thanks to its integration with Hugging-Face Datasets (Lhoest et al., 2021); and
- An online tool to try out trained models, evaluate them and visualise their predictions.

Different from existing open-source toolkits in the area, our aim is to provide access to neural QE models for both researchers (via a command-line interface and python library) and end-users (via a web-based tool). Additionally, this is the only tool to provide implementation of knowledge distillation for QE. In the following sections, we detail the main functionalities offered by deepQuest-py: implementation of state-of-the-art sentence-level and word-level models (Sec. 2); implementation of light-weight sentence-level models through knowledge distillation (Sec. 3); and evaluation and visualisation of models' predictions via a web interface (Sec. 4). We expect that deepQuest-py facilitates the implementation of QE models, allows useful analysis of their capabilities, and promotes their adoption by end-users.

2 Large State-of-the-Art Models

In the WMT20 QE Shared Task (Specia et al., 2020), the top performing models were based on fine-tuning pre-trained Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017), such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) or XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020). deepQuest-py provides access to this type of approaches by building on the HuggingFace Transformers (Wolf et al., 2020)¹ library. We provide implementations for sentence-level and word-level QE.

Sentence-Level. deepQuest-py implements the MonoTransQuest architecture from TransQuest (Ranasinghe et al., 2020a,b), the overall winner in Task 1 (sentence-level direct assessment) of the WMT20 QE Shared Task. In this approach, the original sentence and its translation are concatenated using the [SEP] token, and passed through XLM-R to obtain a joint representation via the [CLS] token. This serves as input to a softmax layer that is used to predict translation quality. In order to boost performance, the authors incorporate two strategies: (1) to use an ensemble of two models: one that fine-tunes XLM-R-base and one that fine-tunes XLM-R-large; and (2) to augment the training data of the QE models with (subsets of) the training data of the NMT models, considering their quality scores as perfect. These extensions are not currently available in deepQuest-py, but the API is flexible-enough to incorporate them in the future.

Word-Level. deepQuest-py implements the model proposed by BeringLab (Lee, 2020), the winner of Task 2 Word-level QE for En-De in the WMT20 QE Shared Task. Similar to the sentence-level models described before, the original sentence and its translation are fed to XLM-R to get contextualised word embeddings. In this approach, both token-level (hidden states) and instance-level ([CLS] token) representations are used as input to dedicated linear layers that predict word-level and sentence-level quality estimates, respectively. The model is trained jointly in these two tasks. In order to boost performance, this approach creates artificial data in a similar fashion to Negri et al. (2018). Given a dataset of parallel source-target sentences, an NMT model is trained using 90% of the data. Then, the NMT model translates source sentences in the remaining 10% of the data. After that, HTER word labels are generated for this 10% of the data, leveraging their manual references as if they were post-edits of the translations generated by the NMT model.deepQuest-py includes scripts and examples for executing this training pipeline, provided that the user has access to automatic translations. For obtaining word-level tags, in particular, deepQuest-py leverages publicly-available scripts.²

3 Light-Weight Distilled Models

The most distinctive contribution in deepQuest-py is the **ability to train light-weight and efficient QE models through knowledge distillation**. We

¹https://github.com/huggingface/ transformers

²https://github.com/deep-spin/ ge-corpus-builder

Name	Training data	Et-En	Ro-En	Si-En	Ne-En	En-Zh
TQ _{TEACHER}	MLQE-gold	0.77	0.88	0.60	0.75	0.44
BiRNN _{STUDENT}	MLQE-dist	0.45	0.62	0.44	0.46	0.18 0.17
BiRNN _{STUDENT+AUG}	Wiki-dist	0.50	0.69	0.45	0.54	
BiRNN	MLQE-gold	0.37	0.60	0.40	0.42	0.15
Predictor-Estimator	MLQE-gold	0.48	0.69	0.37	0.39	0.19
TQ _{DistilBERT}	MLQE-gold	0.62	0.78	0.51	0.61	0.36

Table 1: Pearson correlation with human judgments on the MLQE test set. MLQE-gold: training partition of MLQE dataset; MLQE-dist: distilled version of the MLQE training set with teacher predictions used as labels; Wiki-dist: the Wikipedia dataset produced by data augmentation. Boldface results indicate our best student models.

implement the approach proposed by Gajbhiye et al. (2021) to directly distil **sentence-level** QE models, where the student architecture can be completely different from that of the teacher. Namely, they distill large and powerful QE models based on XLM-R into small bidirectional RNN-based models.

3.1 BiRNN-based Architecture

deepQuest-py implements sentence-level models following the architecture proposed by Ive et al. (2018). In this approach, the original sentence and its translation are encoded independently using dedicated BiRNNs. To obtain predictions, these two representations are concatenated as the weighted sum of their word vectors, generated by an attention mechanism. Then, this joint representation is passed through a dense layer with sigmoid activation to generate the quality estimates. deepQuestpy uses AllenNLP (Gardner et al., 2018)³ as its backbone for the BiRNN model.

3.2 Knowledge Distillation

For cases where large size SotA QE models are not deployable, Gajbhiye et al. (2021) propose to use a KD approach to train more efficient and wellperforming models for sentence-level QE. The approach (illustrated in Figure 1) consists of three steps described below.

Teacher-Student Training. A large SotA QE model generates predictions on a gold training dataset, and these are directly used to train a light-weight model. Gajbhiye et al. (2021) employs pre-trained Transformer models (such as those from Sec. 2) as teachers, and BiRNN models (such as those from Sec. 3.1) as students. Table 2 shows the number of parameters, memory and disk space requirements, as well as inference speed for the teacher model ($TQ_{XLM-R-Large}$),



Figure 1: Knowledge distillation with data augmentation and noise filtering based on teacher uncertainty (Gajbhiye et al., 2021).

		Infe	erence	
Name	#params	Speed (secs.)	RAM (MiB)	Disk (M)
$\begin{array}{c} TQ_{\rm XLM-R-Large} \\ TQ_{\rm DistilBERT} \\ BiRNN \end{array}$	561M 135M 18M	0.82 1.09 0.39	9,263.5 1,979.2 155.6	2140 517 132

Table 2: Efficiency. Inference speed and RAM for prediction are for 1 sentence on CPU (Intel Xeon Silver 4114 CPU @ 2.20GHz).

student model (BiRNN) and a MonoTransQuest model built on DistilBERT (TQ_{DistilBERT}), using data in the MLQE Et-En dataset.

Data Augmentation. Teacher predictions on the gold training dataset may prove insufficient to train the student. Therefore, Gajbhiye et al. (2021) collect additional monolingual data and: (1) translate it with the same MT models used for the gold data, and (2) generate QE scores with the teacher model.

Noise Filtering. Teacher predictions can be noisy and degrade student performance. To overcome this, Gajbhiye et al. (2021) propose a filtering approach based on uncertainty quantification over predictions from an ensemble of teacher models. Concretely, they propose to: (1) train several teacher models on the same dataset with different random initialisations; (2) generate several teacher

³https://allennlp.org/



Figure 2: Submission form for the web tool.

predictions for each instance in the student training data; and (3) filter out instances for which the predictions show high variance (i.e. the variance is more than one standard deviation away from its mean).

On experiments performed using the MLQE dataset (Fomicheva et al., 2020), Gajbhiye et al. (2021) show that their approach results in QE models that are 4x smaller in disk space with 8x fewer parameters, and 3x faster in inference speed than large SotA Transformer-based models. In particular, as shown in Table 1, distilled models with augmented data achieved comparable performances to training a large model on DistilBERT (TQ_{DistilBERT}), but with a lighter BiRNN-based architecture. In addition, this approach allows for substantial improvements over shallow models trained on gold data (BiRNN and Predictor-Estimator) for all of the language pairs. For further details, we refer the reader to (Gajbhiye et al., 2021).

deepQuest-py provides command-line functionalities for all steps in the KD pipeline.

4 Web Tool for Analysis and Visualisation

deepQuest-py offers a demo web-service with visualization for sentence-level and word-level QE models. The user fills in a simple submission form (Figure 2) indicating: the languages of the original sentences and their translations, the sentences to analyse (either typing them directly or through a .tsv file), the type of model to use for prediction (e.g. Transformer or BiRNN), and the level of granularity for the scores (sentence-level or word-level). After pressing the *score* button, the user is presented with varied results for their analysis:

Scores per Instance. For sentence-level predictions, each submitted original-translation pair is shown alongside its estimated quality score (Figure 3). The value for this score and its interpretation depends on the data that the QE model was trained on. For example, models trained on HTER scores will output values between 0 and 1, with lower scores indicating better quality. On the other hand, models trained on normalised DA scores will output negative and positive values - the higher the better.⁴ Two additional metrics are included: the proportion of repeated n-grams in the source/target (named source/target n-grams), and the proportion of words in the target sentence that are copies of words in the source (i.e. untranslated words). The user can navigate through the analysed sentences

⁴While raw DA scores have a 0-100 value range, their normalised values will depend on the actual minimum and maximum scores in the training data.

The table below shows the estimated que the stimated que the strength of the s	uality	score for each t	ranslation, along with various statistics.		Sear	ch:	
Source	t↓	Source N-Grams 健 ↑↓	Target ↑↓	Targo N- Gran 🕜		Copies ∂ ↑↓	Score ^{↑↓}
"Allen first appeared as the superhero Impulse, a teenage sidekick of the superhero the Flash, before he becam the second hero known as Kid Flash."		0.0%	"Allen erschien zuerst als Superheld Impulse, ein Teenager-Anhänger des Superhelden Flash, bevor er der zweite Held wurde, der als Kid Flash bekannt ist."	0.0%	5	24.1%	0.687
"American Maury Tripp attended the Jamboree from Saratoga, California."		0.0%	"Der Amerikaner Maury Tripp besuchte das Jamboree aus Saratoga, Kalifornien."	0.0%	5	50.0%	0.794
"Good or bad, the theories of educato such as Rousseau's near contemporar Pestalozzi, Mme."		5.9%	"Gut oder schlecht, die Theorien der Pädagogen wie Rousseaus nahe Zeitgenossen Pestalozzi, Mme."	0.0%	5	23.5%	0.42
"However, Berke remained neutral militarily, and after the defeat of Ariq Böke, freely acceded to Kublai's enthronement."		0.0%	Berke blieb jedoch militärisch neutral und trat nach der Niederlage von Ariq Böke Kublais Inthronisierung frei bei.	0.0%	5	27.8%	0.489
"Meanwhile, Poivre had finally obtained seedlings of nutmeg and clove, and 10,000 nutmeg seeds."	d	0.0%	Inzwischen hatte Poivre schließlich Sämlinge von Muskatnuss und Nelke und 10.000 Muskatensamen erhalten.	0.0%	5	14.3%	0.467



Summary		
he table below shows the overall	statistics for the entire translated text.	
Metric	Description	Value
Mean score	Average of row-level scores	0.63
Mean word count (source)	Average number of words in the source text	17.6
Mean word count (target)	Average number of words in the target text	16.84
Mean word count (source and target)	Average number of words in all sentences	17.22
Mean length ratio	The number of words in the source sentence divided by number of words in the target sentence, averaged across all text pairs.	1.052
Source type-token ratio	The number of unique words divided by the total number of words in all source text.	0.59
Target type-token ratio	The number of unique words divided by the total number of words in all target text.	0.65
ggregated statistics for the entire	input text (source and target).	

Figure 4: Statistics summarising the scores for all submitted sentences.



Figure 5: Histogram with the distribution of predicted scores in the dataset.



Figure 6: Visualisation of tokens in original (source) and translation (target) sentences. For the translation side, tokens in green are predicted to have an 'OK' label, while tokens in grey, a 'BAD' label. In this example, the model did not produce word-level predictions for the original sentences.

using the form shown (including searching for instances with specific words), or download all the information to a .csv file.

Scores Summary. A table summarises the scores for all the submitted sentences providing some simple statistics. See Figure 4 for the names and descriptions of the metrics considered.

Scores Distribution. The web tool also shows a histogram with the distribution of the sentencelevel scores over all submitted instances (Figure 5). The user can hover over the bars in the plot to see examples of original-translation pairs whose scores correspond to the selected range.

Token Annotations. The web tool shows the tokenisation of each original-translation pair (Figure 6). For word-level predictions, in particular, the predicted quality label for each token is shown in different colours: green for 'OK' and grey for 'BAD'. The user can also search within the instances looking for sentences with specific words.

The demo web tool includes Transformer-based sentence-level models for all language pairs in the MLQE dataset: English-German, English-Chinese, Romanian-English, Estonian-English, Nepalese-English, Sinhala-English, and Russian-English. There is also the option to use a multilingual model. For Transformer-based word-level predictions, only an English-German model is available. BiRNN-based (distilled) models for sentence-level QE are available for a subset of languages. We note that our purpose with this paper is not to provide prediction models for multiple languages, but rather to demonstrate the functionalities of the backand front-end in deepQuest-py.

The demo showcasing all the functionalities offered by deepQuest-py is available at https://github.com/sheffieldnlp/ deepQuest-py/tree/main/demo.

5 Conclusions

We have presented deepQuest-py, a new framework for implementation and evaluation of QE models. On top of large state-of-art models based on pretrained Transformer architectures, deepQuest-py targets the development of light-weight and efficient models around the teacher-student framework for knowledge distillation. In addition, deepQuestpy encourages end-user adoption of QE technologies by providing a web application to obtain quality predictions and analyse model performance.

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