Hinglish to English Machine Translation using Multilingual Transformers

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Abstract

Code-Mixed language plays a very important role in communication in multilingual societies and with the recent increase in internet users especially in multilingual societies, the usage of such mixed language has also increased. However, the cross translation between the Hinglish Code-Mixed and English and vice-versa has not been explored very extensively. With the recent success of large pretrained language models, we explore the possibility of using multilingual pretrained transformers like mBART and mT5 for exploring one such task of code-mixed Hinglish to English machine translation. Further, we compare our approach with the only baseline over the PHINC dataset and report a significant jump from 15.3 to 29.5 in BLEU scores, a 92.8% improvement over the same dataset.

1 Introduction

Code-Mixing is the interleaving of tokens from different languages but in the same conversation. Code-Mixing is a common phenomenon in multilingual societies like India, China, Mexico, and in the last decade itself, there has been a massive surge of internet users and specifically from multilingual societies due to the popularity of various social media and messaging platforms. This has lead to a massive surge in mixed language data in the form of comments, conversations, etc. Unfortunately due to the informal nature of the code-mixed, it is hard to set a uniformly defined structure. However, linguists have formulated various hypotheses (Belazi et al., 1994; Pfaff, 1979; Poplack, 1981) and constraints (Sankoff and Poplack, 1981; Sciullo et al., 1986; Joshi, 1982) that can define a general rule for code-mixing.

Recent advances in attention-based mechanisms (Bahdanau et al., 2015) and transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) have again shown significant performance improvement and shifted the communities' approach and interest in training larger neural models with deeper architecture. With the rise in large pretrained language models like (Devlin et al., 2019; Radford et al., 2019), there's been a lot of improvement in natural language processing problems. Prior work done in code-mixing like that of (Khanuja et al., 2020; Gupta et al., 2020) show the effectiveness of large multilingual pretrained language models like mBERT (Devlin et al., 2019) and XLM (Conneau and Lample, 2019) on code-mixed data. While GLUECoS attempts to set GLUE benchmark using finetuned mBERT, Gupta et al. (2020) shows the effectiveness of machine translation from a parallel corpus of English and Hindi to code-mixed sentence using XLM and Pointer-Generator model. Srivastava and Singh (2020); Dhar et al. (2018) proposes new task of Hinglish code-mixed to English translation and Srivastava and Singh (2020) collects a new social media code-mixed dataset called PHINC consisting of Hinglish code-mixed and parallel English sentences.

Our work attempts to utilize large seq2seq pretrained multilingual transformer based models like mT5 and mBART for the Hinglish to English machine translation task. We propose a dual curriculum learning method where first the models are trained for an English to code-mixed translation task and then finetuned again for a code-mixed to English task. There has been very little prior work involving this task and most of the work dealt with the English to code-mixed translation task for synthetic data generation. Our translation from codemixed to English shows a significant improvement over the PHINC dataset and even beats the baseline presented by the PHINC dataset by a margin of 92.8%.

The rest of the paper is as follows - Section 2 talks about the prior work done in code-mixed machine translation and large multilingual pretrained transformers. Section 3 discusses our model and the dataset used for the Hinglish to English translation. Section 4 addresses our experiments and our qualitative results for our approach. Finally, Section 5 addresses the conclusive remarks for this paper and presents a direction for future work.

2 Related Work

Code-Mixing refers to the interleaving of words belonging to different languages. This happens predominately in multilingual societies and is increasing rapidly with the increase in internet users on social media and messaging platforms. This has lead to a rapid increase in research interest in recent years and several tasks have been conducted as part of Code-Switching workshops (Diab et al., 2014, 2016). Most of the work in these workshops was single NLP problem-specific which were solved using specifically tailored models like Language Identification (Solorio et al., 2014; Molina et al., 2016), Named Entity Recognition (Rao and Devi, 2016; Aguilar et al., 2018), Question Answering (Chandu et al., 2018), Parts-of-Speech tagging (Jamatia et al., 2018), and Information Retrieval (banerjee et al., 2016). This was changed by Khanuja et al. (2020) which introduced a common benchmark for all the tasks using a single finetuned mBERT (Devlin et al., 2019) model downstreamed for all the benchmark tasks.

2.1 Code-Mixed Machine Translation

Machine Translation on code-mixed language is a relatively less explored area. There are only a few studies on English-Hinglish code-mixed language including the work of Dhar et al. (2018); Gupta et al. (2020); Srivastava and Singh (2020) despite a large populous of code-mixed speakers in South Asian countries. Dhar et al. (2018) collects a dataset of 6,096 Hinglish-English bitexts and propose a pipeline where they identify the languages involved in the code-mixed sentence, compute the matrix language and then translate the resulting sentence into the target language. Srivastava and Singh (2020) collects a large parallel corpus called PHINC, consisting of 13,738 Hinglish-English bitexts that they claimed was better than those of Dhar et al. (2018) in terms of diversity, quality, and generality. They propose a pipeline where they selectively identify token languages and then translate Hindi phrases to English using a monolingual translation system while keeping the

rest of the phrases intact. This is the only work that addresses a Hinglish to English machine translation task. Gupta et al. (2020) propose a code-mixed text generator built upon the encoder-decoder framework, where the linguistic features obtained from a transformer based language model are encoded using the encoder. They proposed using features from a pretrained cross-lingual transformer based model XLM (Conneau and Lample, 2019) along with Pointer-Generator (See et al., 2017) model as its decoder for the code-mixed text generation.

2.2 Multilingual Pretrained Models

Transformer-based neural models have increasingly become a go-to solution for any NLP problem using models trained with a self-supervised objective like BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), BART (Lewis et al., 2020), and T5 (Raffel et al., 2020). In crosslingual or multilingual domains, there has been a rapid increase in the number of models built upon BERT, BART, or T5 architecture or they use a similar architecture. Works like mBERT, mBART (Liu et al., 2020), mT5 (Xue et al., 2021), XLM (Conneau and Lample, 2019) and XLM-R (Conneau et al., 2020) are a few examples of such models. While mBERT and XLM-R are encoder only architectures that could be used for downstream classification tasks, XLM is a seq2seq encoder-decoder task-specific model, built mostly for translation tasks. Models like mBART and mT5 are seq2seq encoder-decoder architecture that can solve multiple downstream tasks like summarization, translation, or any other language generational task without any additional modeling head. These models are trained on multiple languages at once with a self-supervised objective like span corruption, permutation, etc. While mBART is pretrained on 25 languages on the same BART objective, mT5 is pretrained on 101 languages on the T5 model's objective. None of these multilingual models are trained on any code-mixed language or at least are not aware of their pretraining data consisting of code-mixed data. Therefore, it becomes an important question to verify and validate these model performances on code-mixed languages.

3 System Overview

In this Section, we propose our mBART and mT5 based machine translation model and the dataset used for finetuning the same.

Hinglish Code-Mixed to English Translation		
Mujhe lagta hai wo captured humanoid amphibian creature play karta hai	\rightarrow	I think he plays a captured humanoid amphibian creature.
main character ek orphan hai jo ek river mein paya gaya	\rightarrow	The main character is an orphan who is found in a river.
kya aapko lagtha hein ki ache movie ko high- profile actors hi chahiye?	\rightarrow	Do you think a good movie should have high- profile actors?
Main suprised hu ye itna low hai	\rightarrow	I'm suprised how low it is.

Table 1: Samples from the Hinglish to English translation task. Red tokens refer to the Hindi tokens in the Roman script.

3.1 Machine Translation model

We use mBART and mT5 models finetuned on Hinglish code-mixed to English data as described in Section 3.2. mBART is a multilingual seq2seq denoising bidirectional auto-encoder pretrained using the same BART (Lewis et al., 2020) objective but on large-scale monolingual corpora of 25 languages. It is based on the same transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) architecture and consists of 12 encoder and decoder layers each with 16 attention heads and model dimensions being 1024 resulting in roughly 680 million parameters. mT5 is the multilingual variant of the T5 model pretrained on 101 languages. It has a similar transformer architecture with 2 encoder and decoder layers each, model dimensions being 1024 and 12 attention heads resulting in approximately 770 million parameters.

3.2 Dataset

We use the following datasets to finetune and test our models for Hinglish code-mixed to English translation task:

- CMU Hinglish is an extended code-mixed form of the Document Grounded Conversation (Zhou et al., 2018) dataset. It consists of roughly 10,000 English and Hinglish codemixed sentences.
- **PHINC** (Srivastava and Singh, 2020) consists of Hinglish code-mixed to English translation pairs. It contains roughly 13,000 parallel pairs.

For both of the datasets, we transliterate the Hindi Devanagari script into its Roman script form using CSNLI (Bhat et al., 2017, 2018) and Microsoft Translator.

4 Experiments & Results

In this section, we describe our experimental setup and our finetuning results for our models described in Section 3.

4.1 Experimental Setup

Our proposed approach is written in Pytorch (Paszke et al., 2019) and all the transformer based models and their associated weights are from the HuggingFace's Transformer (Wolf et al., 2020) package. We use *mbart-cc-25* model weights for mBART and *mt5-base* model weight for mT5 in all our modeling. Both the mBART and mT5 models were trained using the AdamW optimizer with weight decay. We used all the default hyperparameters except the number of training epochs, mBART was trained for 5 epochs while the mT5 took larger epochs (50) to converge the training.

We train both of our models in a dual curriculum learning method where we first finetune it on a English to code-mixed data so that model identifies what code-mixed language looks like and then we finetune it again on the Hinglish code-mixed gold dataset for our final task. We show some of the example translations of our best performing model in Table 1. We show the performance of both mT5 and mBART models on the datasets described in Section 3.2 in Table 2. For the BLEU evaluation, we use the *sacrebleu* metric from HuggingFace's Dataset package.

Baseline: Our only comparative baseline is defined by Srivastava and Singh (2020) where they collect a code-mixed dataset from social media and conversations called PHINC and propose a machine translation pipeline built on top of Google Translate with a BLEU score of 15.3.

Datasets	BLEU score
Original Baseline	
PHINC	15.3
mBART model (ours)	
CMU Hinglish \rightarrow Reverse CMU Hinglish	24.0
$\mathbf{CMU} \ \mathbf{Hinglish} \to \mathbf{PHINC}$	25.3
mT5 model (ours)	
CMU Hinglish \rightarrow Reverse CMU Hinglish	28.6
CMU Hinglish \rightarrow PHINC	29.5

Table 2: BLEU score for code-mixed Hinglish to English Translation

4.2 Results

As shown in Table 2, we first finetune our mBART and mT5 models on the CMU Hinglish dataset. These finetuned models have a BLEU score of 11.53 and 11.23 respectively. These are then further finetuned for our final task of Hinglish to English translation. We perform and analyse the second finetune on both the flipped CMU Hinglish dataset and the PHINC dataset.

All four variations of our dual finetuned mBART and mT5 models outperform the original baseline. While the best performing mBART model improves over the baseline by 65.3%, mT5 model beats the PHINC baseline by a margin of 92.8%. This shows the prowess of the large pretrained multilingual transformers in code-mixed translation tasks.

5 Conclusion

Our work proposes using large multilingual transformers (mBART and mT5) and demonstrates how finetuning them in a dual curriculum learning method improves the performance of codemixed Hinglish to English machine translation tasks. We show a very significant improvement over the PHINC baseline by a margin of 92.8% over the BLEU scores.

As part of the future work, we would like to further improve our machine translation model by using a large amount of synthetic code-mixed data to improve our English to code-mixed translation model, which would further improve our performance on the code-mixed to English translation task. We would also like to extend this work to other low resource and code-mixed languages.

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