

Can Word Segmentation be Considered Harmful for Statistical Machine Translation Tasks between Japanese and Chinese?

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Abstract

Unlike most Western languages, there are no typographic boundaries between words in written Japanese and Chinese. Word segmentation is thus normally adopted as an initial step in most natural language processing tasks for these Asian languages. Although word segmentation techniques have improved greatly both theoretically and practically, there still remains some problems to be tackled. In this paper, we present an effective approach in extracting Chinese and Japanese phrases without conducting word segmentation beforehand, using a sampling-based multilingual alignment method. According to our experiments, it is also feasible to train a statistical machine translation system on a small Japanese-Chinese training corpus without performing word segmentation beforehand.

1 Introduction

Unlike most European languages, there are no explicit typographic boundaries like white spaces between words in many written Asian languages such as Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Thai, Lao and Vietnamese. Therefore, word segmentation for such languages is usually the first important step in most Natural Language Processing (NLP) applications especially in statistical machine translation. Although word segmentation techniques have improved greatly in recent years, there are still some difficulties that remain to be addressed.

Word segmentation schemes are not system-independent, application-independent nor language-independent. Different Chinese Word Segmentation

(CWS) tools applied to the same Chinese sentence may lead to different results depending on their segmentation. For instance, 学生会 (pinyin: xué shēng huì) in Chinese may be interpreted as 学生会 ‘student(s) can (do)’ or 学生会 ‘Students’ Union’ respectively.

Figure 1 gives an example of pre-segmented text and unsegmented text in both Chinese and Japanese. We applied four CWS tools: Urheen (Wang et al., 2010), ICTCLAS (Zhang et al., 2003) and Stanford Chinese word segmenter (Tseng et al., 2005) trained on CTB and PKU. This example clearly shows that word segmentation tools may do harm to cross-lingual tasks, because:

- (i) there may be inconsistencies of segmentation results across languages such as different sizes of granularity in Japanese and Chinese;
- (ii) for the same language, different word segmentation tools may produce different results;
- (iii) the same word segmentation tool trained on different corpora may produce different results.

Such inconsistencies lead to increased error rates in Statistical Machine Translation.

Significant improvements in Chinese word segmentation techniques have been obtained recently and reported accuracy rates (compared to those of human *Golden Standard*) have reached 98%. However, for cross-lingual NLP tasks, such as phrasal extraction or Machine Translation, Zhang et al. (2008) showed that even the most accurate word segmentation may not produce the best translation out-

Original Chinese sentence:	没事先约好, 白跑了回津屋崎。
Translation in Japanese:	事前予約をしなかったので、むだに津屋崎に行きました。
Meaning in English:	I went to Tsuyazaki in vain without prior appointment.
JWS (JUMAN):	事前_予約_をし_なかった_ので_、_むだに_津屋崎_に_行き_ました_。
CWS Reference:	没_事先_约好_，_白_跑了回_津屋崎_。
CWS (ICTCLAS):	没_事先_约_好_，_白_跑_了_回_津_屋_崎_。
CWS (STANDFORD-CTB):	没_事_先_约_好_，_白_跑_了_回_津_屋_崎_。
CWS (STANDFORD-PKU):	没_事_先_约_好_，_白_跑_了_回_津_屋_崎_。
CWS (URHEEN):	没_事_先_约_好_，_白_跑_了_回_津_屋_崎_。

Figure 1: An example of inconsistency in Chinese word segmentation. All segmentation in Chinese by the four different systems are different. In addition, across Japanese and Chinese, although 津屋崎 (Tsuyazaki) is one word in Japanese, it was decomposed into different units in segmented Chinese.

puts. To solve the problem, it has been proposed to drive word segmentation using predefined bilingual knowledge, such as bilingual dictionaries or bilingual lexica extracted from parallel corpora. Instead of relying on an existing bilingual lexicon, Sun et al. (1998) automatically learned rules from a corpus and group unsegmented Chinese segments into words according to their mutual information. Xu et al. (2004) developed a system which extracts a lexicon from the trained alignment corpus. They showed that it is possible to work without performing Chinese word segmentation beforehand with only a minor loss in translation quality.

Bilingual resources are unavailable for many language pairs that do not involve English, like Japanese-Chinese or Japanese-Vietnamese. Although many researchers and several institutions have been working on constructing bilingual resources between Asian languages, rarely are these resources made freely available.

In this paper, we show how to use a small Japanese-Chinese bilingual corpus to perform phrase table extraction so as to build a statistical machine translation system and conduct translation experiments between Chinese and Japanese without conducting word segmentation on either the Japanese nor Chinese sides beforehand. The purpose of this paper is to determine:

- Whether it is possible to produce phrase tables and extract sub-sentential alignments from un-

segmented texts in Chinese and Japanese.

- Whether it is possible to perform statistical machine translation with reasonable quality without conducting word segmentation beforehand.

Section 2 introduces our proposed method which consists in using the sampling-based sub-sentential aligner, Anymalign, to extract Japanese-Chinese sub-sentential fragments (phrase translation tables) from an unsegmented bi-corpus. Section 3 describes the machine translation experiment that uses the phrase tables produced by our method and gives an evaluation of the translation quality when translating using the character as the basic unit. Section 4 discusses the experiment results and Section 5 gives the conclusion.

2 Producing Phrase Tables from Unsegmented Japanese and Chinese Corpus

2.1 Text Corpus Used

We start with an in-house corpus of 9,500 aligned Japanese-Chinese sentence pairs collected from the Internet as training data. They include bilingual Web-blogs, movie subtitles, fable stories and conversations.

To compare the performance of phrasal extraction from both the pre-segmented corpus and the unsegmented corpus, we also conduct word segmentation on the same data set. Juman (Masuoka and Kabuto,

1989; Knuth, 2012) and Urheen (Wang et al., 2010) are used to perform Japanese and Chinese word segmentation.

The average length for the unsegmented Japanese sentences are 17 (std. dev. ± 9.95) characters and 11 (std. dev. ± 7.40) for Chinese. For pre-segmented text corpus, the average length is 10 (std. dev. ± 5.93) words for Japanese and 8 (std. dev. ± 4.99) for Chinese.

Sentence length distributions in both pre-segmented and unsegmented corpora are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 respectively,

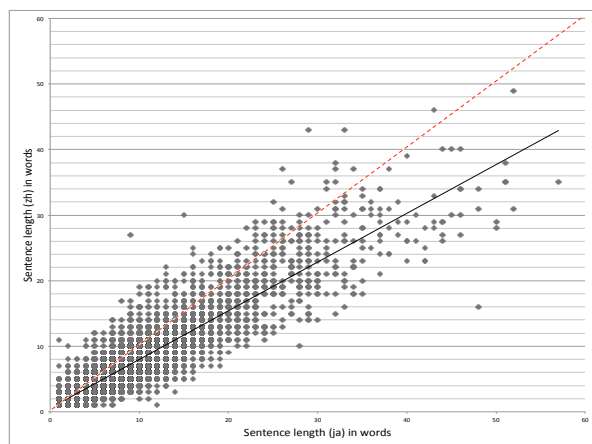


Figure 2: Sentence length distribution in our **pre-segmented** corpus. The dashed line shows the average, the solid line is linear regression.

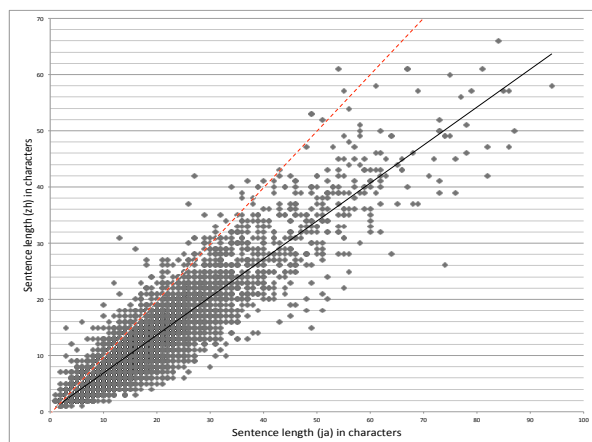


Figure 3: Sentence length distribution in our **unsegmented** corpus. The dashed line shows the average, the solid line is linear regression.

2.2 Aligners and Configurations Used

In our experiments, we use the open source implementation of the sampling-based approach, Anymalign (Lardilleux and Lepage, 2009)¹, to perform sub-sentential extraction from the above-described bi-corpus. Anymalign was run for three hours in its basic version (Anym b.) and with the option *-i* (Anym *-i*), where parameter *i* ranged from 1 to 10. The use of this option allows to extract longer phrases by enforcing n-grams to be considered as tokens. For pre-segmented texts, option *-i* allows to group words into phrases more easily. For unsegmented texts, as a token is a single character, the use of option *-i* allows to group characters into words, and then, into phrases, more easily.

In order to compare the performance of our phrase extraction method and statistical machine translation with unsegmented text corpus, we also applied GIZA++ (Och and Ney, 2003), the most commonly used tool for word and phrase alignment.

2.3 Numbers of Phrase Pairs Produced

Different values of parameter *i* lead to different numbers of phrase pairs entries in the phrase translation tables produced (see Table 1). The highest number of entries is obtained for *i* equal to 2, i.e., when each two connect characters in a sentence are possibly considered as one unit.

Index <i>i</i>	Output Entries
1	782,465
2	967,173
3	852,932
4	782,585
5	715,182
6	668,134
7	599,316
8	586,992
9	581,131
10	577,040
<i>i</i> -merged	1,628,241

Table 1: Numbers of entries in phrase translation tables obtained with Anymalign option *-i*.

¹Anymalign: <http://perso.limsi.fr/Individu/alardill/anymalign/>

Aligner	Segmentation	Phrase-Table Entries	Intersection	Avg. P_{EDR}	Avg. P_{table}	Score
GIZA++	Pre-seg	36,888	1,086	0.6237	0.8269	1,575.323
	Unseg	56,002	1,954	0.6128	0.7804	2,709.9344
Anym b.	Pre-seg	326,748	2,190	0.5872	0.5841	2,565.0188
	Unseg	784,004	3,294	0.5141	0.2975	2,673.4151
<i>i</i> -merge	Pre-seg	553,156	2,265	0.5863	0.5850	2,652.968
	Unseg	1,628,241	3,643	0.5122	0.3909	3,290.2923

Table 2: Size of the intersection of phrase translation tables with the EDR Chinese-Japanese lexicon.

Figure 4 shows that when i reaches 7, the decrease in the number of entries in the phrase translation table reaches its asymptote. We also merged the 10 phrase translation tables for each value of parameter i into one phrase translation table that we name *i*-merge.

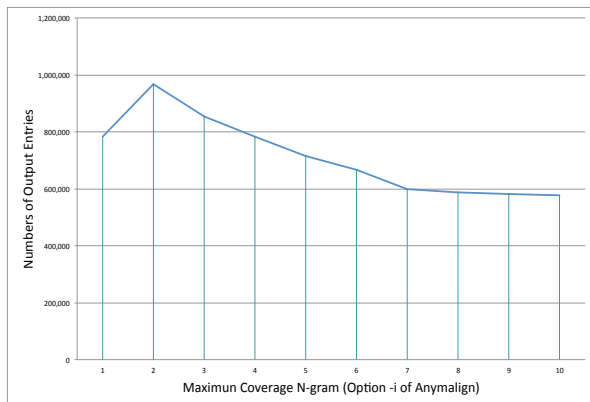


Figure 4: Number of entries in phrase translation tables for different values of parameter i between 1 and 10. This graph plots the figures given in Table 1.

Table 2 (See: Column 3 for *Phrase-Tables Entries*), shows that the use of an unsegmented corpus leads to larger phrase translation tables than the use of a pre-segmented corpus: twice the size for the basic version of Anymalign and 5 times for the merge of the all results of Anymalign run with option *-i*.

2.4 N-Grams \times M-Grams Distribution

We investigated the $N \times M$ -gram distribution in the phrase translation tables generated from both unsegmented and pre-segmented text corpora with Anymalign and GIZA++.

As presented in Appendix, Table 7 and 8 show the distribution for the pre-segmented corpus, where Tables 9, 10 and 11 are for the unsegmented cor-

pus. Figures 5 - 9 provide a visualization of $N \times M$ -Grams distributions in these phrase tables (see also Appendix.). They show that the phrase translation tables generated by GIZA++ exhibit a smoother decrease against the length of phrases, i.e. when N and M increase. Phrase translation tables output by Anymalign have significantly more entries when N and M are equal to or smaller than 2.

2.5 Comparison with an Existing Japanese-Chinese Bilingual Lexicon: EDR

The number of entries in the phrase translation tables does not give clues on the linguistic correctness of the entries. We thus compare the phrase translation tables against an existing Japanese-Chinese bilingual lexicon to check the correct word coverage rate.

The EDR Japanese-Chinese Bilingual Dictionary² contains 323,871 unique entries with an average length of words of 3.56 characters for Japanese and 3.46 for Chinese. Phrase translation tables generated with our method are not limited to words, but also contain phrases, fragments and short sentences that may not be included in the EDR bilingual lexicon. Therefore, we filtered the EDR lexicon to produce a filtered lexicon that contains only those entries which can actually be extracted from the training corpus. Using our corpus, the EDR lexicon has been filtered to 13,062 entries (96% reduced).

We then inspect the intersections between the filtered EDR lexicon and the phrase translation tables generated from both unsegmented and pre-segmented corpora output by Anymalign, basic version or *i*-merge, and GIZA++.

²The EDR Electronic Dictionary: National Institute of Information and Communication Technology (NiCT). URL: <http://www2.nict.go.jp/out-promotion/techtransfer/EDR/index.html>

As shown in Table 2, the phrase translation table extracted from the unsegmented corpus with Anymalign *i*-merge has 3,643 entries in common with the filtered EDR lexicon.

We would also like to take the translation probabilities $P(t|s)$ in the generated phrase translation tables into consideration in our comparison. When there are m common entries of two phrase tables tt_1 and tt_2 , we can compute the Intersection Score using metrics where $P(t|s)$ stands for the translation probability appearing in phrase translation tables.

$$\text{Score}(tt_1, tt_2) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m P_{tt_1}(t|s) + \sum_{k=1}^m P_{tt_2}(t|s)}{2}$$

The intersection scores obtained are reported in the last column in Table 2. These results show that the phrase translation table extracted from unsegmented corpus with Anymalign *i*-merge has the highest overlap with the filtered EDR lexicon.

2.6 Monolingual Recall

In order to know how effective the method can correctly extract phrases, we inspected the coverage rate of phrases by comparing with existing Japanese and Chinese word lists respectively.

We merged the Chinese resources listed below to build a Chinese word list (numbers are in unique entries):

- LDC Wordlist³ (Chinese part): 128,341
- Baidu Baike⁴: 823,333
- Sogou Chinese Word List⁵: 35,650
- EDR (Chinese part): 151,651

For Japanese, the resources are listed below.

- LDC Wordlist (Japanese part): 187,267
- CTS Japanese Frequency List⁶: 15,000
- EDR (Japanese part): 229,392

³<http://projects.ldc.upenn.edu/Chinese/>

⁴<http://baike.baidu.com/>

⁵<http://www.sogou.com/>

⁶<http://corpus.leeds.ac.uk/list.html>

In total, we obtained a Chinese monolingual word list of 1,032,919 unique entries and a Japanese monolingual word list of 330,610 unique entries. We then filtered the two monolingual word lists to restrict them to the items found in our training corpora. This resulted in two filtered monolingual word lists of 19,037 entries in Chinese and 14,166 in Japanese. Table 3 shows the Recall Rate of monolingual phrases extracted in the phrase translation tables against the filtered monolingual Japanese and Chinese word lists.

Monolingual Recall for Japanese

Aligner	Pre-seg		Unseg	
	Retrieved	Recall	Retrieved	Recall
GIZA++	3,358	23.70%	5,228	36.91%
Anym b.	6,953	49.08%	9,479	66.91%
Anym - <i>i</i>	7,110	50.19%	10,520	74.26%

Monolingual Recall for Chinese

Aligner	Pre-seg		Unseg	
	Retrieved	Recall	Retrieved	Recall
GIZA++	4,909	25.79%	7,450	39.13%
Anym b.	9,666	50.77%	14,186	74.52%
Anym - <i>i</i>	9,967	52.36%	15,031	78.96%

Table 3: Monolingual Recall in phrase tables for Japanese and Chinese

3 Machine Translation Experiment

In this section, we use the phrase translation tables extracted in the previous sections in statistical machine translation experiments.

3.1 Data

We keep using our in-house Japanese-Chinese bilingual parallel corpus to test the feasibility of utilizing a training corpus of such a limited size. Table 4 shows the statistics of the training, tuning and testing corpora in their sizes and average lengths of sentences (numbers of characters or words per sentence) in their unsegmented corpus and pre-segmented forms.

3.2 Evaluation Metrics and Results

We use the state-of-the-art phrase-based machine translation system Moses (Koehn et al., 2007) to

		Japanese	Chinese
Train	Sentences	9,500	9,500
	Avg. len(w)	10 (± 5.93)	8 (± 4.99)
	Avg. len(c)	17 (± 9.95)	11 (± 7.40)
Tune	Sentences	500	500
	Avg. len(w)	10 (± 5.96)	8 (± 5.10)
	Avg. len(c)	17 (± 9.98)	11 (± 7.55)
Test	Sentences	500	500
	Avg. len(w)	10 (± 5.88)	8 (± 5.19)
	Avg. len(c)	17 (± 9.85)	11 (± 7.94)

Table 4: Statistics of the training, tuning and testing corpora. Avg. len(w) stands for the average number of words in each sentence. Avg. len(c) stands for the average number of characters in each sentence.

perform our machine translation experiments. As for the evaluation, we use the standard metrics WER (Nießen et al., 2000), BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002), NIST (Doddington et al., 2000) and TER (Snover et al., 2006).

Being a fast, automated and open source tool, the BLEU metric has been adopted as the main measure of fluency and adequacy (Akiba et al., 2004) in the domain of machine translation. It basically evaluates the precision of N-grams according to a reference translation.

However, word-level BLEU metric has been challenged in recent years. Denoual and Lepage (2005) studied the equivalence of applying BLEU metrics in characters and suggested that the use of BLEU at the character level could eliminate the word segmentation problem. Li et al.,(2011) stated that character-level metrics correlate better with human assessment. Chinese word segmentation is not needed for auto-evaluation. Besides, the campaigns like IWSLT '08 and NIST '08 both adopted character-level evaluation metrics.

Table 5 shows the evaluation results obtained when using Anymalign *i-merge* and Table 6 when using GIZA++. $BLEU_{cN}$ stands for the measure in characters for a given order N.

In both tables, so as to ensure consistency, the quality of Chinese translation outputs has been measured in characters. The results show that the phrase translation table generated from the unsegmented corpus outperforms the phrase translation tables generated from the pre-segmented corpus. From this,

Eval. Metric	Anymalign <i>i-merge</i>	
	Pre-seg	Unseg
$BLEU_{c4}$	0.1586	0.1900
$BLEU_{c5}$	0.1162	0.1436
$BLEU_{c6}$	0.0868	0.1099
$BLEU_{c7}$	0.0660	0.0850
$BLEU_{c8}$	0.0509	0.0673
WER	0.7595	0.7121
NIST	4.6215	5.2904
TER	0.7744	0.7144

Table 5: Evaluation of Chinese translation output. Aligner used: **Anymalign *i-merge***.

Eval. Metric	GIZA++	
	Pre-seg	Unseg
$BLEU_{c4}$	0.1472	0.1938
$BLEU_{c5}$	0.1117	0.1517
$BLEU_{c6}$	0.0873	0.1210
$BLEU_{c7}$	0.0696	0.0979
$BLEU_{c8}$	0.0565	0.0806
WER	0.8373	0.7214
NIST	4.2198	5.1438
TER	0.8337	0.7290

Table 6: Evaluation of Chinese translation output. Aligner used: **GIZA++**

it can be concluded that word segmentation is not a necessary step for statistical machine translation experiments between Japanese and Chinese language.

4 Discussion

The results of the experiments we conducted with an unsegmented corpus outperformed the results of the same experiments conducted with the same pre-segmented corpus. This applies for both phrasal extraction and statistical machine translation between Chinese and Japanese. We explain below the reasons that may explain this fact.

Firstly, the unsegmented corpus gives more chances to match with correct alignment in Chinese and Japanese corpus. For example, 学生会 (Students' Union) can be segmented into either 学生_会 or 学生会. Its translation in Japanese is 学友会 which is segmented into 学友_会 by Juman. As such, the chance for Chinese 学生会 to match with Japanese 学友会 in the pre-segmented

corpus is either zero or fifty percent. By opposition, for character-based text, their match rate is 66.67%. This shows that Chinese and Japanese word segmentation may vary in terms of refinement. Word segmentation performed on the output text and the reference text in the same language may not be consistent either.

Many Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji are common to both languages. When applying phrase extraction, such linguistic feature may become very helpful in phrasal extraction and statistical machine translation. Goh et al. (2005) studied the accuracy of possible conversion between Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji. Their study shows that around two thirds of the nouns and verbal nouns in Japanese are Kanji words and more than one third of them can be transposed into Chinese directly.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we used a small-size Japanese-Chinese parallel corpus to conduct experiments in phrasal extraction and statistical machine translation. Our corpus was used under two forms: in a pre-segmented form obtained using Japanese and Chinese word segmentation tools, and in an unsegmented form, i.e., under this form, the processing unit was the character. Our experiment results show that the unsegmented form lead to better results than the pre-segmented form in both tasks. We believe that unsegmented forms of Chinese and Japanese corpora have the potential of improving translations between Japanese and Chinese. In summary, our experiments have shown that word segmentation may not be necessary for some NLP tasks between Japanese and Chinese.

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Appendix:
 $N \times M$ -Grams Distribution in Phrase Translation Tables for Pre-segmented and Unsegmented Corpus with Different Aligners and Their Visualisation Graphs.

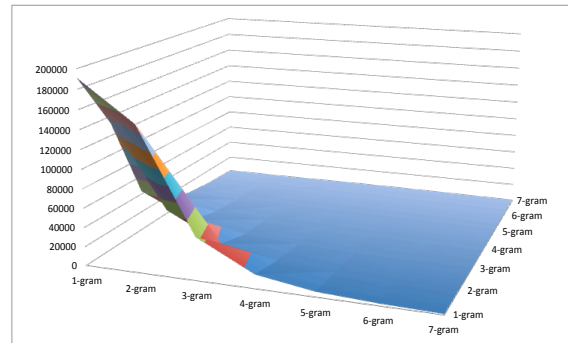


Figure 5: A visualization of $N \times M$ -grams distribution in phrase translation tables obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using the basic version of Anymalign.

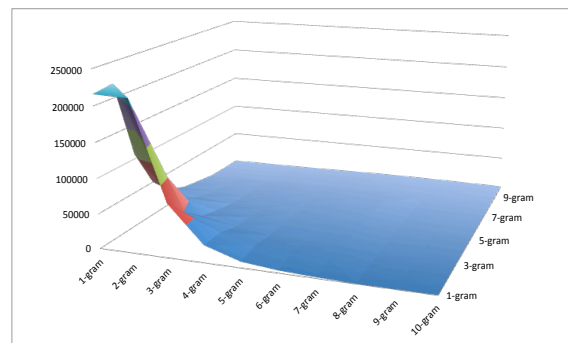


Figure 6: A visualization of $N \times M$ -grams distribution in phrase translation tables obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using Anymalign *i-merge*.

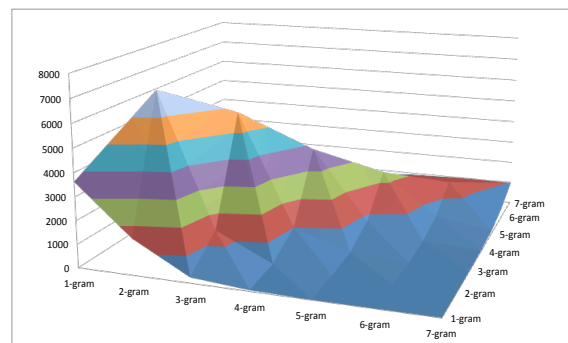


Figure 7: A visualization of $N \times M$ -grams distribution in phrase translation tables obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using GIZA++.

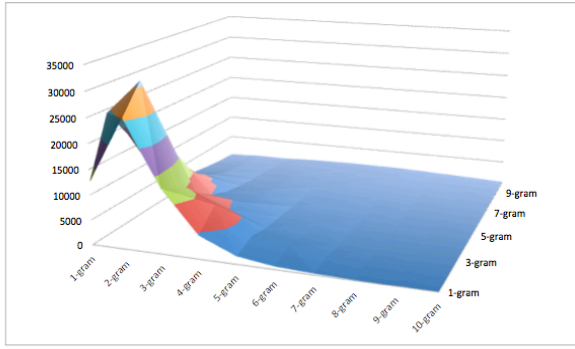


Figure 8: A visualization of $N \times M$ -grams distribution in phrase translation tables obtained from **pre-segmented** corpus using the basic version of Anymalign.

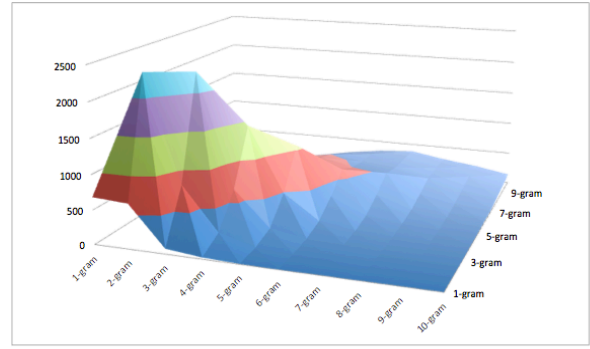


Figure 9: A visualization of $N \times M$ grams distribution in phrase translation tables obtained from the **pre-segmented** corpus using GIZA++.

		Target											total
		1-char	2-char	3-char	4-char	5-char	6-char	7-char	8-char	9-char	10-char	...	
Source	1-char	12,501	25,559	12,876	4,612	1,569	604	264	102	53	19	...	58,163
	2-char	24,272	31,111	11,640	8,216	2,830	1,857	762	356	167	54	...	81,307
	3-char	18,375	18,554	7,550	4,875	2,025	1,135	497	235	113	34	...	53,420
	4-char	10,958	11,264	4,950	4,063	1,855	1,319	577	321	149	71	...	35,577
	5-char	6,008	6,576	3,378	2,894	1,759	1,115	611	280	142	45	...	22,838
	6-char	3,479	4,282	2,562	2,481	1,622	1,184	635	375	175	58	...	16,898
	7-char	1,956	2,642	1,883	1,960	1,635	1,228	821	439	249	77	...	12,937
	8-char	1,266	1,810	1,484	1,690	1,521	1,320	959	571	320	138	...	11,154
	9-char	736	1,118	1,047	1,286	1,322	1,260	1,080	714	439	224	...	9,354
	10-char	455	727	727	1,028	1,135	1,143	1,066	802	553	267	...	8,083

total	80,576	104,654	492,008	34,555	19,164	14,462	9,677	6,459	4,195	2,160	...	326,748	

Table 7: $N \times M$ -grams (characters) distribution in the phrase translation table obtained from the **pre-segmented** corpus using the basic version of Anymalign.

		Target											total
		1-char	2-char	3-char	4-char	5-char	6-char	7-char	8-char	9-char	10-char	...	
Source	1-char	681	650	77	24	6	1	4	1	0	0	...	1,444
	2-char	741	2,341	816	189	42	17	14	1	1	0	...	4,162
	3-char	478	1,707	2,285	649	136	48	32	11	5	2	...	5,353
	4-char	220	887	1,326	1,438	489	133	48	22	10	9	...	4,583
	5-char	92	549	786	980	1,057	340	110	46	17	8	...	3,986
	6-char	38	338	560	786	766	604	263	85	36	17	...	3,499
	7-char	14	167	329	549	591	493	450	173	75	18	...	2,876
	8-char	10	84	194	380	502	442	390	269	134	53	...	2,483
	9-char	3	63	110	231	369	428	386	291	199	86	...	2,212
	10-char	0	14	66	164	264	341	382	296	230	140	...	1,976

total	2,281	6,828	6,629	5,579	4,611	3,433	2,838	1,954	1,331	808	...	36,888	

Table 8: $N \times M$ -grams (characters) distribution in the phrase translation table obtained from the **pre-segmented** corpus using GIZA++

		Target							total
		1-char	2-char	3-char	4-char	5-char	6-char	7-char	
Source	1-char	3,625	1,549	242	50	5	4	1	5,476
	2-char	2,683	7,046	1,384	248	51	12	6	11,430
	3-char	995	3,731	5,788	1,008	208	37	18	11,785
	4-char	462	1,539	2,928	3,806	794	173	34	9,736
	5-char	199	849	1,401	2,106	2,352	555	123	7,585
	6-char	79	434	749	1,185	1,450	1,449	426	5,772
	7-char	44	173	423	700	917	984	977	4,218
total	8,087	15,321	12,915	9,103	5,777	3,214	1,585	56,002	

Table 9: $N \times M$ -grams (characters) distribution in the phrase translation table obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using GIZA++.

		Target							total
		1-char	2-char	3-char	4-char	5-char	6-char	7-char	
Source	1-char	190,967	150,445	44,562	14,522	5,436	2,438	959	409,329
	2-char	132,744	46,374	17,632	7,671	3,403	1,650	743	210,217
	3-char	42,967	16,959	8,012	4,246	2,126	1,125	491	75,926
	4-char	16,673	8,244	5,185	3,401	2,000	1,121	561	37,185
	5-char	7,350	4,612	3,590	2,819	1,934	1,177	639	22,121
	6-char	3,974	2,919	2,765	2,489	1,939	1,285	780	16,151
	7-char	2,362	1,922	2,074	2,210	1,988	1,491	1,028	13,075
total	397,037	231,475	83,820	37,358	18,826	10,287	5,201	784,004	

Table 10: $N \times M$ -grams (characters) distribution in the phrase translation table obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using the basic version of Anymalign.

		Target										total
		1-char	2-char	3-char	4-char	5-char	6-char	7-char	8-char	9-char	10-char	
Source	1-char	215,840	214,475	76,268	24,808	8,818	3,806	1,545	158	54	12	545,784
	2-char	220,226	121,635	47,728	24,868	13,562	9,403	6,250	2,207	1,154	462	447,495
	3-char	107,143	55,351	25,963	15,659	9,596	6,978	4,787	1,785	910	369	228,541
	4-char	50,381	31,074	17,561	12,999	9,215	7,311	5,279	2,049	1,125	463	137,457
	5-char	23,597	16,812	11,495	9,932	8,053	6,725	5,126	2,067	1,140	457	85,404
	6-char	12,372	10,233	8,304	8,232	7,475	6,762	5,483	2,468	1,499	673	63,501
	7-char	7,040	6,509	6,111	6,886	6,780	6,662	5,696	2,799	1,804	857	51,144
	8-char	1,946	1,992	2,424	3,302	3,898	4,304	3,918	3,059	2,192	1,140	28,175
	9-char	974	1,014	1,431	2,257	3,065	3,768	3,690	3,100	2,566	1,462	23,327
	10-char	401	440	678	1,291	1,952	2,745	2,975	2,785	2,354	1,792	17,413
total	639,920	459,535	197,963	110,234	72,414	58,464	44,749	22,477	14,798	7,687	1,628,241	

Table 11: $N \times M$ -grams (characters) distribution in the phrase translation table obtained from the **unsegmented** corpus using Anymalign *i*-merge.