MULTILINGUAL NEURAL MACHINE TRANSLATION WITH SOFT DECOUPLED ENCODING

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ABSTRACT

Multilingual training of neural machine translation (NMT) systems has led to impressive accuracy improvements on low-resource languages. However, there are still significant challenges in efficiently learning word representations in the face of paucity of data. In this paper, we propose Soft Decoupled Encoding (SDE), a multilingual lexicon encoding framework specifically designed to share lexical-level information intelligently without requiring heuristic preprocessing such as pre-segmenting the data. SDE represents a word by its spelling through a character encoding, and its semantic meaning through a latent embedding space shared by all languages. Experiments on a standard dataset of four low-resource languages show consistent improvements over strong multilingual NMT baselines, with gains of up to 2 BLEU on one of the tested languages, achieving the new state-of-the-art on all four language pairs[1].

1 INTRODUCTION

Multilingual Neural Machine Translation (NMT) has shown great potential both in creating parameter-efficient MT systems for many languages (Johnson et al., 2016), and in improving translation quality of low-resource languages (Zoph et al., 2016; Gu et al., 2018; Neubig & Hu, 2018; Firat et al., 2016; Nguyen & Chiang, 2018). Despite the success of multilingual NMT, it remains a research question how to represent the words from multiple languages in a way that is both parameter efficient and conducive to cross-lingual generalization. The standard sequence-to-sequence (seq2seq) NMT model (Sutskever et al., 2014) represents each lexical unit by a vector from a look-up table, making it difficult to share across different languages with limited lexicon overlap. This problem is particularly salient when translating low-resource languages, where there is not sufficient data to fully train the word embeddings.

Several methods have been proposed to alleviate this data sparsity problem in multilingual lexical representation. The current de-facto standard method is to use subword units (Kudo, 2018; Sennrich et al., 2016), which split up longer words into shorter subwords to allow for generalization across morphological variants or compounds (e.g. "un/decide/d" or "sub/word"). These can be applied to the concatenated multilingual data, producing a shared vocabulary for different languages, resulting in sharing some but not all subwords of similarly spelled words (such as "traducción" in Spanish and "tradução" in Portuguese, which share the root "tradu-"). However, subword-based preprocessing can produce sub-optimal segmentations for multilingual data, with semantically identical and similarly spelled languages being split into different granularities (e.g. "traducción" and "tradu/ção") leading to disconnect in the resulting representations. This problem is especially salient when the high-resource language dominates the training data (see empirical results in Section 4).

In this paper, we propose Soft Decoupled Encoding (SDE), a multilingual lexicon representation framework that obviates the need for segmentation by representing words on a full-word level, but can nonetheless share parameters intelligently, aiding generalization. Specifically, SDE *softly* decouples the traditional word embedding into two interacting components: one representing how the word is spelled, and the other representing latent meaning of the word shared over all languages present at training time. We can view this representation as a decomposition of language-specific realization of the word's form (i.e. its spelling) and its language-universal semantic function. More

[1] We will open source our code upon acceptance.

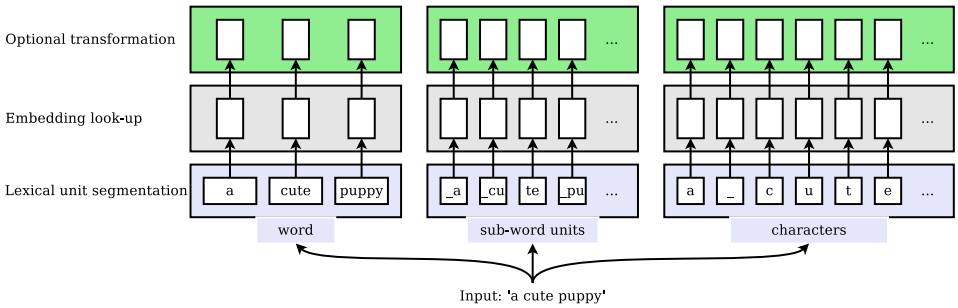

Figure 1: Three steps to compute the lexical representations for the input sequence "a cute puppy", using various lexical unit segmentations.

importantly, our decoupling is done in a *soft* manner to preserve the interaction between these two components.

SDE has three key components: 1) an encoding of a word using character n-grams (Wieting et al., 2016); 2) a language specific transform for the character encoding; 3) a latent word embedding constructed by using the character encoding to attend to a shared word embedding space, inspired by Gu et al. (2018). Our method can enhance lexical-level transfer through the shared latent word embedding while preserving the model's capacity to learn specific features for each language. Moreover, it eliminates unknown words without any external preprocessing step such as subword segmentation.

We test SDE on four low-resource languages from the TED corpus (Qi et al., 2018). Our method shows consistent improvements over multilingual NMT baselines for all four languages, and importantly outperforms previous methods for multilingual NMT that allow for more intelligent parameter sharing but do not use a two-step process of character-level representation and latent meaning representation (Gu et al., 2018).Our method outperforms the best baseline by about 2 BLEU for one of the low-resource languages, achieving new state-of-the-art results on all four language pairs compared to strong multi-lingually trained and adapted baselines (Neubig & Hu, 2018).

2 Lexical Representation for Multilingual NMT

In this section, we first revisit the 3-step process of computing lexical representations for multilingual NMT, which is illustrated in Figure 1. Then, we discuss various design choices for each step, as well as the desiderata of an ideal lexical representation for multilingual NMT.

2.1 Lexical Unit Segmentation

The first step to compute the neural representation for a sentence is to segment the sentence into lexical units. There are three popular options with different granularities:

- **Word-based** method splits an input sequence into words, often based on white spaces or punctuation. This is perhaps the natural choice for lexical unit segmentation. Early work in NMT all employ this method (Sutskever et al., 2014; Bahdanau et al., 2015).
- **Charcter-based** method splits an input sequence into characters (Lee et al., 2017).
- **Subword-based** method splits each word into pieces from a small vocabulary of frequently occurring patterns (Sennrich et al., 2016; Kudo, 2018).

2.2 Embedding Look-up

After a sentence is segmented into lexical units, NMT models generally look up embeddings from a dictionary to turn each lexical units into a high-dimensional vector. In the context of multilingual NMT, the lexical unit segmentation method affects this dictionary in different ways.

In **word-based** segmentation, since the number of unique words for each language is unbounded, while computer memory is not, previous work, e.g. Sutskever et al. (2014), resorts to a fixed-size vo-

cabulary of the most frequent words, while mapping out-of-vocabulary words to an ⟨unk⟩ token. For multilingual NMT settings, where multiple languages are processed, the number of words mapped to ⟨unk⟩ significantly increases. Moreover, different languages, even related languages, have very few words that have exactly the same spelling, which leads to the same concept being represented by multiple and independent parameters. This disadvantage prevents the translation model from learning the same concept in multiple languages.

Meanwhile, **character-based** segmentation can effectively reduce the vocabulary size, while maximizing the potential for parameter sharing between languages with identical or similar character sets. However, character segmentation is based on the strong assumption that the neural network is able to infer meaningful semantic boundaries and compose characters into meaningful words. This puts a large amount of pressure on the neural model, requiring larger model sizes and training data. Additionally, training character-based NMT systems are often slow, due to the longer character sequences (Cherry et al., 2018).

Subword-based segmentation can be viewed as a middle ground between word and character segmentation. However, in multilingual translation, the subword segmentation can be sub-optimal, as the subwords from high-resource languages, i.e. languages with more training data, might dominate the subword vocabulary, so that the words in low-resource language can be split into extremely small pieces.

Therefore, existing methods for lexical unit segmentation lead to difficulties in building an effect embedding look-up strategy for multilingual NMT.

2.3 Optional Encoding Transformations

Most commonly, the embedding vectors looked up from the embedding table are used as the final lexical representation. However, it is also possible to have multiple versions of embeddings for a single lexicon and combine them through operations such as attentional weighted sum (Gu et al., 2018). Thus, we assume there is always a transformation applied to the embedding vectors, and we treat models that do not use such transformation as if the models used the identity transformation.

2.4 Desiderata

To efficiently utilize parameters for multilingual NMT, the lexical representation should have two properties. First, it should be able to *accurately represent words in all of the languages under consideration* for maximal accuracy. Second, it should maximize sharing of parameters across languages for better cross-lingual learning and generalization.

These two conflicting objectives are difficult to achieve through existing methods. The most common method of using lookup embeddings can only share information through lexical units that overlap between the languages. Subword segmentation strikes a middle ground, but has many potential problems for multilingual NMT, as already discussed in Section 2.2. Although Gu et al. (2018)'s method of latent encoding increases lexical level parameter sharing, it still relies on subwords as its fundamental units, and thus inherits the previously stated problems of sub-word segmentation. We also find in experiments in Section 4 that it is actually less robust than simple lookup when large monolingual data to pre-train embeddings is not available, which is the case for many low-resourced languages.

Next, in Section 3, we propose a novel lexical representation strategy that achieves both desiderata.

3 Soft Decoupled Encoding

Given the conflict between sharing lexical features and preserving language specific properties, we propose SDE, a general framework to represent lexical units for multilingual NMT. Specifically, following the linguistic concept of the "arbitrariness of the sign" (Chandler, 2007), SDE decomposes the modeling of each word into two stages: (1) modeling language-specific spelling of the word, and (2) modeling the language-agnostic semantics of the word. This decomposition is based on the need for distinguished treatments between a word's semantic and its spelling.

Semantic representation is language-agnostic. For example, the English "hello" and the French "bonjour" deliver the same greeting message, which is invariant with respect to the language. SDE shares such semantic representations among languages by querying a list of shared concepts, which are loosely related to the linguistic concept of "sememes" (Greimas, 1983). This design is implemented using an attention mechanism, where the query is the lexical unit representations, and the keys and the values come from an embedding matrix shared among all languages.

Meanwhile, the **word spellings** are more sophisticated. Here, we identify two important observations on treating word spellings. First, words in related languages can have significantly similar spellings, e.g. the English word "color" and the French word "coleur". In order to effectively share parameters among languages, a word spelling model should utilize this fact. Second, and not contradicting the first point, related languages can also exhibit consistent spelling shifts. For instance, "Christopher", a common name in English, has the spelling "Kryštof" in Czech. This necessitates a learnable rule to convert the spelling representations between such pairs of words in related languages. To account for both points, we use a language-specific transform on top of a first encoding layer based on character n-grams.

3.1 Existing Methods

Before we describe our specific architecture in detail (Section 3.2), given these desiderata discussed above, we summarize the designs of several existing methods of lexical representation and our proposed SDE framework in Table 1. Without a preprocessing step of subword segmentation, SDE can capture the lexical similarities of two related languages through the character n-gram embedding while preserving the semantic meaning of lexicons through a shared latent embedding.

Method	Lex Unit	Embedding	Encoding
Johnson et al. (2016)	Subword	joint-Lookup	Identity
(Lee et al., 2017)	Character	joint-Lookup	Identity
UniEnc (Gu et al., 2018)	Subword	pretrain-Lookup	joint-Lookup + Latent
Ataman & Federico (2018)	Word	character n-gram	Identity
SDE	Word	character n-gram	Identity + Latent

Table 1: Methods for lexical representation in multilingual NMT.

3.2 Details of Soft Decoupled Encoding

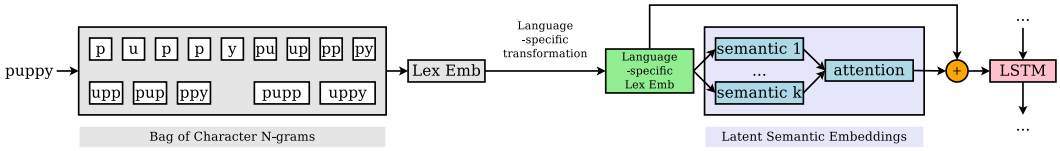

Figure 2: SDE computes the embedding for the word "puppy". Both Character n-grams embeddings and latent semantic embeddings are shared among all languages.

As demonstrated in Figure 2, given a word w in a multilingual corpus from language L_i, SDE constructs the embedding of w in three phases.

Lexical Embedding. We maintain an embedding matrix $\mathbf{W}_c \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times D}$, where D is the embedding dimension and C is the number of n-grams in our vocabulary. Out-of-vocab n-grams are mapped to a designated token $\langle \text{unk} \rangle$. $\mathbf{W}_c$ is shared among all languages. Following Wieting et al. (2016), for each word w, we first compute the bag of character n-grams of w, denoted by $\text{BoN}(w)$, which is a sparse vector whose coordinates are the appearance counts of each character n-gram in w. For instance, the characters n-grams with $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$ of the word "puppy" are shown in Figure 2. We then look up and add the rows of $\mathbf{W}_c$ according to their corresponding counts, and apply a $\tanh$ activation function on the result

$$c(w) = \tanh(\text{BoN}(w) \cdot \mathbf{W}_c) \tag{1}$$

Language-specific Transformation. To account for spelling shifts between languages (c.f. Section 3), we apply an language-specific transformation to normalize away these differences. We use

a simple fully-connected layer for this transformation. In particular, for language L_i, we have

$$c_i(w) = \tanh(c(w) \cdot \mathbf{W}_{L_i}), \tag{2}$$

where $\mathbf{W}_{L_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ is the transformation matrix specific to language L_i.

Latent Semantic Embedding. Finally, to model model the shared semantics of words among languages, we employ an embedding matrix $\mathbf{W}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{S \times D}$, where S is the number of core semantic concepts we assume a language can express. Similar to the lexical embedding matrix $\mathbf{W}_c$, the semantic embedding matrix $\mathbf{W}_s$ is also shared among all languages.

For each word w, its language-specific embedding $c_i(w)$ is passed as a query for an attention mechanism (Luong et al., 2015) to compute a weighted sum over the latent embeddings

$$e_{\text{latent}}(w) = \text{Softmax}(c_i(w) \cdot \mathbf{W}_s^\top) \cdot \mathbf{W}_s \tag{3}$$

Finally, to ease the optimization of our model, we follow Vaswani et al. (2017) and add the residual connection from $c_i(w)$ into $e_{\text{latent}}(w)$, forming the Soft Decoupled Encoding embedding of w

$$e_{\text{SDE}}(w) = e_{\text{latent}}(w) + c_i(w) \tag{4}$$

4 Experiment

We build upon a standard seq2seq NMT model for all experiments. Except for the experiments in Section 4.6, we run each experiment with 3 different random seeds, and conduct significance tests for the results using the paired bootstrap (Clark et al., 2011).

4.1 Datasets

We use the 58-language-to-English TED corpus for experiments. Following the settings of prior works on multilingual NMT (Neubig & Hu, 2018; Qi et al., 2018), we use three low-resource language datasets: Azerbaijani (aze), Belarusian (bel), Galician (glg) to English, and a slightly higher-resource dataset, namely Slovak (slk) to English. Each low-resource language is paired with a related high-resource language: Turkish (tur), Russian (rus), Portuguese (por), and Czech (ces) respectively. Table 2 shows the statistics of each dataset.

LRL	Train	Dev	Test	HRL	Train
aze	5.94k	671	903	tur	182k
bel	4.51k	248	664	rus	208k
glg	10.0k	682	1007	por	185k
slk	61.5k	2271	2445	ces	103k

Table 2: Statistics of our datasets. LRL and HRL mean Low-Resource Language and High-Resource Language.

4.2 Baselines

For the baseline, we use the standard lookup embeddings for three granularities of lexical units: 1) word: with a fixed word vocabulary size of 64,000 for the concatenated bilingual data; 2) sub-joint: with BPE of 64,000 merge operations on the concatenated bilingual data; 3) sub-sep: with BPE separately on both languages, each with 32,000 merge operations, effectively creating a vocabulary of size 64,000. We also implement the latent embedding method of Gu et al. (2018).[2] We use 32,000 character n-gram with $n = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ from each language and a latent embedding size of 10,000.

4.3 Results

Table 3 shows the results of the baselines and our proposed method. For the three baselines using lookup, sub-sep achieves the best performance for three of the four languages. sub-joint is worse

[2]To ensure the fairness of comparison with other tested methods, we only train the monolingual embedding from the parallel training data, while Gu et al. (2018) used extra monolingual data from the Wikipedia dump.

than sub-sep although it allows complete sharing of lexical units between languages, probably because sub-joint leads to over-segmentation for the low-resource language. The universal encoder method proposed by Gu et al. (2018) does not perform well, probably because the monolingual embedding is not trained on enough data. On the other hand, SDE outperforms the best baselines for all four languages, without using subword units or extra monolingual data.

Lex Unit	Model	aze	bel	glg	slk
Word	Lookup	7.66	13.03	28.65	25.24
Sub-joint	Lookup	9.40	11.72	22.67	24.97
Sub-sep	Lookup (ours)	10.72	16.87	27.43	27.71
Sub-sep	Lookup (Neubig & Hu, 2018)	10.90	15.80	27.30	25.50
Sub-sep	UniEnc (Gu et al., 2018)	4.80	8.13	14.58	12.09
Word	SDE	11.82*	18.71*	30.30*	28.77*

Table 3: BLEU scores on four language pairs. Statistical significance is indicated with $*$ ($p < 0.0001$), compared with the best baseline.

4.4 Ablation Studies

We next ablate various features of SDE by removing each of the three key components, and show the results in Table 4. Removing the latent word embedding and character embedding consistently harms the performance of the model. The effect of the language specific transform is smaller and is language dependant. Removing the language specific transform does not lead to significant difference for glg. However, it leads to a 0.8 gain for aze, a 0.3 gain for slk, but about a 0.6 decrease for bel. A further inspection of the four language pairs shows that the language specific transform is more helpful for training on languages with fewer words of the same spelling. To quantify this, we extract bilingual dictionaries of the low-resource languages and their paired high-resource languages, and measure the edit distance between the character strings of the aligned words. We use FastAlign (Dyer et al., 2013) to extract aligned words between the source language and English from the parallel training data, then match the English side of two related languages to get their dictionary. Figure 3 shows the percentage of the word pairs grouped by their edit distance. Among the four languages, bel has the lowest percentage of words that are exactly the same with their corresponding words in the high-resource language (0 edit distance), indicating that the language specific transform is most important for highly divergent languages.

Model	aze	bel	glg	slk
SDE	11.82	18.71	30.30	28.77
-Language Specific Transform	12.89*	18.13†	30.07	29.16†
-Latent Word Embedding	7.77*	15.66*	29.25*	28.15*
-Character Embedding	4.57*	8.03*	13.77*	7.08*

Table 4: BLEU scores after removing each component from SDE-com. Statistical significance is indicated with $*$ ($p < 0.0001$) and † ($p < 0.005$), compared with the full model in the first row.

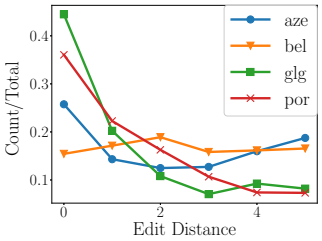

Figure 3: Percentage of words by the edit distance from the matching words in the high-resource language.

4.5 Effect of Subwords

Although using subwords in NMT can eliminate unknown words and control the vocabulary size, it might not be optimal for languages with rich morphology (Ataman & Federico, 2018). We also show in Table 3 that certain choices when using subwords on multilingual data, e.g. whether to train the segmentation on the concatenated multilingual data or separately, have large effect on the performance of the model. SDE achieves superior performance

without using subwords, so it can avoid the risk of sub-optimal segmentation. Still, we test SDE with subwords to study its effect on our framework. The results are shown in Table 5.

Lex Unit	Model	aze	bel	glg	slk
Word	SDE	11.82	18.71	30.30	28.77
Sub-sep	SDE	$12.37^{\dagger}$	16.29^{*}	28.94^{*}	$28.35^{\dagger}$
Word	SDE-sub	12.03	$18.16^{\dagger}$	31.16^{*}	28.86

Table 5: BLEU scores on four language pairs. Statistical significance is indicated with $*$ ($p < 0.0001$) and $\dagger$ ($p < 0.005$), compared with the setting in row 1.

We test two methods of using subwords: 1) we use sub-sep as lexical units, and encode its lexical representation using the character n-grams of the subwords; 2) we use words as lexical units, but use its subword pieces instead of the character n-grams to construct its lexical representation. We use SDE-sub to indicate the second way of using subwords. When using SDE with sub-sep as lexical units, the performance slightly increases for aze, but decreases for the other three language. Therefore, it is generally better to directly use words as lexical units for SDE. When we use words as lexical units but replace character n-gram with subwords, the performance on two of the languages doesn't show significant changes, while the performance decreases for bel and increases for glg.

We also examine the performance of SDE and the best baseline sub-sep with different vocabulary size and found that SDE is also competitive with a small character n-gram vocabulary of size 8K. Details can be found in Appendix A.2.

4.6 Training on All Languages

To further compare SDE's ability of generalizing from different languages, we train both SDE and sub-sep on the low-resource languages paired with all four high-resource languages. The results are listed in Table 6. For bel, SDE trained on all languages is able to improve over just training with bilingual data by around 0.6 BLEU. This is the best result on bel, with around 3 BLEU over the best baseline. The performance of sub-sep, on the other hand, decreases by around 1.5 BLEU when training on all languages for bel. The performance of both methods decreases for aze when using all languages. SDE only slightly loses 0.1 BLEU while sub-sep loses over 3 BLEU.

Lex Unit	Model	aze		bel	
		bi	all	bi	all
Sub-sep	Lookup	11.25	8.10	16.53	15.16
Word	SDE	12.25	12.09	19.08	19.69

Table 6: BLEU scores for training with all four high-resource languages.

4.7 Why does SDE work better?

The SDE framework outperforms the strong sub-sep baseline because it avoids sub-optimal segmentation of the multilingual data. We further inspect the improvements by calculating the word F-measure of the translated target words based on two properties of their corresponding source words: 1) the number of subwords they were split into; 2) the edit distance between their corresponding words in the related high-resource language. From Figure 4 *left*, we can see that SDE is better at predicting words that were segmented into a large number of subwords. Figure 4 *right* shows that the gain peaks on the second bucket for 3 languages and the first bucket for bel only, which implies that SDE shows more improvements for words with small but non-zero edit distance from the high-resource language. This is intuitive: words similar in spelling but with a few different characters can be split into very different subword segments, while SDE can leverage the lexical similarities of word pairs with slightly different spelling.

4.8 Qualitative Analysis

Table 7 lists a few translations for both sub-sep and SDE. We can see that SDE is better at capturing functional words like "if" and "would". Moreover, it translates "climatologist" to a related

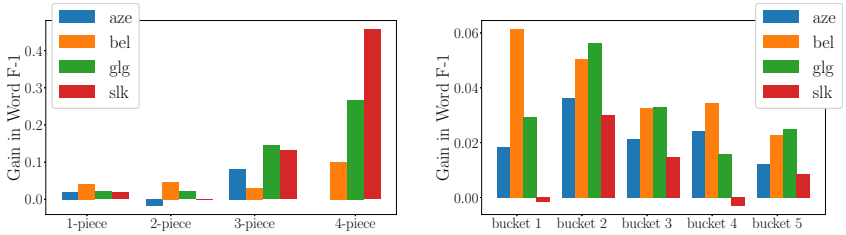

Figure 4: Gain in word F-measure of SDE over sub-sep. *Left*: the target words are bucketed by the number of subword pieces that their corresponding source words are segmented into. *Right*: the target words are bucketed by the edit distance between their source words and the corresponding words in the high resource language.

word "weather", probably from the prefix "climat" in glg, while sub-sep gives the totally unrelated translation of "college friend". Some examples of bilingual lexicons that can be better captured by SDE can be found in Appendix A.3.

glg	**eng**	**sub-sep**	**SDE**
Pero non temos a tecnoloxía para resolver iso, temos?	But we don't have a technology to solve that, right?	But we don't have the technology to solve that , we have?	But we don't have the technology to solve that, do we?
Se queres saber sobre o clima, preguntas a un climatólogo.	If you want to know about climate, you ask a climatologist.	If you want to know about climate, you're asking a college friend.	If you want to know about climate, they ask for a weather.
Non é dicir que si tivesemos todo o diñeiro do mundo, non o quereríamos facer.	It's not to say that if we had all the money in the world, we wouldn't want to do it .	It's not to say that we had all the money in the world, we didn't want to do it .	It's not to say that if we had all the money in the world, we wouldn't want to do it.

Table 7: Examples of glg to eng translations.

5 Related Works

In multilingual NMT, several approaches have been proposed to enhance parameter sharing of lexical representations. Zoph et al. (2016) randomly assigns embedding of a pretrained NMT model to the vocabulary of the language to adapt, which shows improvements over retraining the new embeddings from scratch. Nguyen & Chiang (2018) propose to match the embedding of the word piece that overlaps with the vocabulary of the new language. When training directly on concatenated data, it is also common to have a shared vocabulary of multilingual data (Neubig & Hu, 2018; Qi et al., 2018). Gu et al. (2018) propose to enhance parameter sharing in lexical representation by a latent embedding space shared by all languages.

Several prior works have utilized character level embeddings for machine translation (Cherry et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017; Ataman & Federico, 2018), language modeling (Kim et al., 2016; Józefowicz et al., 2016), and semantic parsing (Yih et al., 2014). Specifically for NMT, fully character-level NMT can effectively reduce the vocabulary size while showing improvements for mulitlingual NMT (Lee et al., 2017), but it often requires much longer to train (Cherry et al., 2018). Ataman & Federico (2018) shows that character n-gram encoding of words can improve over BPE for morphologically rich languages.

6 Conclusion

Existing methods of lexical representation for multilingual NMT hinder parameter sharing between words that share similar surface forms and/or semantic meanings. We show that SDE can intelligently leverage the word similarities between two related languages by softly decoupling the lexical and semantic representations of the words. Our method, used without any subword segmentation, shows significant improvements over the strong multilingual NMT baseline on all languages tested.

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A APPENDIX

A.1 TRAINING DETAILS

- We use 1 layer long-short-term-memory (LSTM) network with 512 hidden dimension for both the encoder and the decoder.
- The word embedding dimension is kept as 128, and all other default layer dimension is 512.
- We use the dropout rate of 0.3 for the word embedding and the output tensor before the decoder softmax layer.
- The batch size is set to be 1500 words. We evaluate by development set BLEU score for every 2500 training batches.
- For training, we use Adam optimizer with learning rate of 0.001. We use learning rate decay of 0.8, and stop training if the model performance on development set doesn't improve for 5 evaluation steps.

A.2 EFFECT OF VOCABULARY SIZE

We examine the performance of SDE and the best baseline sub-sep with the vocabulary size of 8K, 16K, and 32K. We use character n-gram of $n = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ for 8K and 16K vocabularies, and $n = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ for the 32K vocabulary. Figure 5 shows that for all four languages, SDE outperforms sub-sep with all three vocabulary sizes. This shows that SDE is also competitive with a relatively small character n-gram vocabulary.

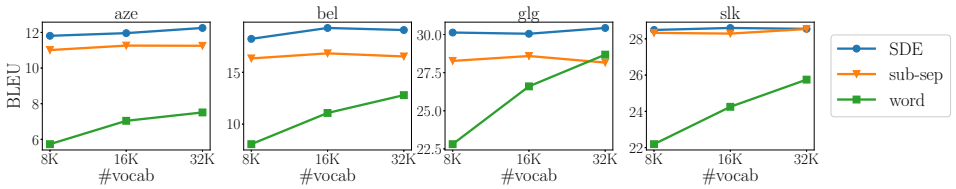

Figure 5: Performance on three different vocabulary size (results of a single random seed).

A.3 EXAMPLE BILINGUAL WORDS

Table 8 lists some words and their subwords from bel and its related language rus. We can see that subword pieces fail to capture all the lexical similarities between these words, and sometimes the word pairs are segmented into different number of pieces.

bel		**rus**		**eng**
word	subword	word	subword	
фінансавыя	фінансавы я	финансовых	финансовы х	financial
стадыён	стады ён	стадион	стадион	stadium
розных	розны х	разных	разны х	different
паказаць	паказа ць	показать	показать	show

Table 8: Bilingual word pairs and their subword pieces.