

Technical Terminology Verification for Neural MT

Anonymous EACL submission

Abstract

Translating technical acronyms is a problematic task for MT systems, with an error rate around 50% for Google Translate and around 65% for Opus-mt. Incorrect acronym translation is a fatal error. We present a turnkey solution for translating long form (LF)–short form (SFs) pairs and verifying their use by the scientific community. Since MT models perform better on LFs than SFs, our proposed method takes advantage of this observation to improve translations of SFs, by introducing a novel verification process. This process is motivated by standard practice in professional translation.

1 Introduction

While large language models are remarkably fluent, there are challenges with hallucinations (Church and Yue, 2023). With hallucinations defined as “[generated] text that is factually incorrect or nonsensical,”¹ we postulate that technical acronym translation errors are a form of hallucination. Similarly to with LLMs, priorities in the machine translation field must shift to address problems with technical acronym (and, more generally, technical term) hallucinations if we are to propose systems that perform at the level of a professional translator.

The potential sources of error a professional translator might encounter on a daily basis are not being properly evaluated by the metrics used by neural MT practitioners, namely BLEU, COMET and the computation of loss (Callison-Burch et al., 2006). Several workshops on terminology stress the importance of correctly addressing terminology issues—including correctness of technical terms—in the machine translation space (Molchanov et al., 2021; Hasler et al., 2018). The evaluation strategy for the “Machine Translation using Terminologies” workshop (Jon et al., 2021)

¹<https://towardsdatascience.com/llm-hallucinations-ec831dcd7786>

states that “it will focus on both translation accuracy and consistency.”² Additionally, current neural MT requires copious amounts of human-generated translations in order to successfully translate domain-specific terminology (Elliott et al., 2004). In this paper, we present a path forward for dealing with technical MT inaccuracies that better aligns with the stringent quality control of a human translator.

2 Towards Professional-Level Translation

Technical terminology is important to professional translators. BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) and COMET (Amrhein and Sennrich, 2022) have other priorities. Hangya et al. (2021) found that “improving the translation of a few selected words [e.g., technical terms] could lead even to a slight drop in BLEU.” Additionally, reliance on human-annotated reference translations is a major hindrance to accelerating MT improvement and generalizing it to low resource languages (Agić and Vulić, 2019).

Obviously, some errors are more serious than others. There is a considerable literature on Responsible AI (O’Neil, 2016; Bender et al., 2021; Blodgett et al., 2020). Most errors may not be that serious, but some errors can be offensive, and can lead to lawsuits³ and product cancellations.⁴

This paper will focus on the translation of acronyms, a special case of technical terminology. We will introduce a fact-checking step to verify the combination of the long form (LF) and short form (SF) in at least two published articles in the target language. More generally, we believe there is an opportunity to use search to fact-check assertions from chatbots to reduce the risk of hallucinations.

There is an asymmetry in professional transla-

²<https://www.statmt.org/wmt21/terminology-task.html>

³<https://www.zdnet.com/article/microsoft-sued-for-racist-application/>

⁴[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tay_\(chatbot\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tay_(chatbot))

tion (Pokorn, 1998). Most translators are stronger in one language than the other. They prefer to translate from their weaker language and into their stronger language. This asymmetry is rarely mentioned in the literature on machine translation, though there may be a motivation for the asymmetry under the proposed verification step. The proposed verification step is performed on the target language and not on the source language. Verification can take advantage of massive amounts of data in the target language, where available.

2.1 A New Test Set for Translating Acronyms

A new test set⁵ has been created for evaluating machine translation systems on acronyms. The test set consists of 437 LF-SF pairs obtained from a corpus of 13,500 abstracts crawled from HAL,⁶ a repository of French academic papers, many of which are from medicine and science. The examples were all hand-picked by the authors so as not to include any offensive content or personal information.

The repository provides abstracts in both French and English. These abstracts contain many technical terms. An example of an abstract is “[...] 42/194 patients (21%) did not want **cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR)** and 15/36 (41%) did not prefer intensive care unit (ICU) admission [...]” When the abstract introduces an acronym, the gold labels in the test set specify the long form (LF) and the short form (SF) in both French and English. The acronym translation task is illustrated in Table 1.

Input LF	Input SF	Gold SF
réanimation		
cardiopulmonaire	RCP	CPR

Table 1: The acronym translation task inputs LFs and SFs in French and outputs a candidate SF in English. Ideally, the candidate will agree with the gold label.

For evaluation purposes, we distinguish *agreement* from *verification*.

Agreement The candidate SF is an exact match with the gold SF.

Verification The candidate SF was found near the LF in at least two published papers in the target language (English).

⁵This test set will be posted in GitHub after the paper has been accepted. In the meantime, the test set can be found in the supplemental materials.

⁶<https://theses.hal.science/?lang=en>

We will use a search process to verify candidate SFs. As will be discussed later in Section 2.5, verifying acronyms can be viewed as a special case of fact-checking. Using search to fact-check assertions in ChatGPT output may also be a promising path forward for addressing hallucinations.

2.2 Google Translate

How well do commercial machine translation products work on technical terms? Table 2 shows that Google Translate⁷ is more successful on long forms than short forms. Though there is considerable room for improvement in both cases (as illustrated in Tables 3-4), this paper will focus on SFs, where there is more opportunity for improvement.

Type of Term	Agreement
Long Forms (LFs)	62.1%
Short Forms (SFs)	54.3%

Table 2: Google is better on LFs than SFs

Input French	Output English	
	Google	Gold
indice	engine	motricity
moteur	index	index
fréquence cardiaque	cardiac frequency	heart rate
roue polaire	polar wheel	claw pole

Table 3: Google errors on long forms (LFs)

Input French	Output English	
	Google	Gold
AOMI	PAAD	PAD
DE	DE	EE
ICMI	CIMI	CLI

Table 4: Google errors on short forms (SFs)

2.3 Proposal for Translating Acronyms

The proposed method decomposes translation into four steps. This decomposition takes advantage of the fact that Google Translate is more successful on long forms than short forms.

1. Use Google to translate LFs from FR to EN.

⁷<https://translate.google.com/>

2. Extract the EN LF from Google’s output.
3. Generate candidate SFs from the EN LF.
4. Use search to verify candidates.

The first two steps are self-explanatory; the last two steps will be described in Sections 2.4-2.5.

2.4 Step 3: SF Candidate Generation

We use a fine-tuning process to generate SF candidates. We start with a pre-trained model, Scibert (Beltagy et al., 2019), and fine-tune a fill-mask task with the data formatted as illustrated in Table 5⁸.

Scibert was trained on 1,800,000 term-acronym pairs with Adam as the optimizer, an initial learning rate of 2e-5, 1,000 warmup steps, and a weight decay of 0.01. The training data was obtained from arXiv papers⁹ processed by AB3P¹⁰ (Sohn et al., 2008; Church and Liu, 2021). After fine-tuning, the post-trained model can input strings of the form: “LF ([MASK])” and output n-best lists of candidates for the appropriate SF.

Input: LF ([MASK])	Gold SF
cardiopulmonary resuscitation ([MASK])	CPR
deoxyribonucleic acid ([MASK])	DNA
Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries ([MASK])	OPEC

Table 5: Training data for SF candidate generation.

Proposed method for acronym translation:

First, the LF-SF pair is translated using the Google Translate API and Opus-mt model¹¹ in the format “acide désoxyribonucléique (ADN)”. Second, the translated term pair is searched for as an exact match to see if it is used by domain experts in multiple published papers. Search is performed on output from AB3P of crawls of Pubmed and arXiv containing acronyms, their long forms, and document IDs. If insufficient evidence is provided for the use of the generated acronym translation (fewer than two document IDs where the pair was found), generate a list of candidate acronym translations from the machine translated LF using the fine tuned version of Scibert and verify each candidate translation in the list through search.

⁸The model will be posted after the paper is accepted

⁹https://info.arxiv.org/help/bulk_data/index.html

¹⁰<https://github.com/ncbi-nlp/Ab3P>

¹¹<https://huggingface.co/Helsinki-NLP/opus-mt-fr-en>

2.5 Step 4: Verification (Fact Checking)

The professional human technical term translation process involves a significant component of researching the meaning of a source language term, identifying multiple target language candidate terms, and finally, proceeding through the n-best list in order and seeking out the use of a chosen term in context in similar target language texts, written by experts in the field in question.¹² According to Bowker (2021), verification is done on the basis of observed frequency in a corpus; if enough experts use the selected term in context, it is considered to be valid. We replicate that process using search.

We implemented a Boolean retrieval system containing acronyms extracted from AB3P output on a crawl of arXiv and Pubmed along with the long forms they map to and source paper ID. If a sufficient number of sources have been found to employ the desired term-acronym pair (in the form *cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR)*), term validation is deemed to be successful and the term pair is returned to the user alongside the list of sources for verification. This re-appropriates the term verification method employed by professional translation agencies in the field (and facilitates verification by a reviewer, who may need to fact check term sources at a later stage).

3 Evaluation

3.1 Baselines

Baseline	Input	Output
Identity	ADN	ADN
Reverse	ADN	NDA
Google/Opus	acide désoxyribonucléique (ADN)	DNA

Table 6: Examples of three baseline methods

Table 7 compares outputs from the proposed method with the three baselines (in Table 6).

Identity: The candidate SF (EN) = input SF (FR).

Reverse: Same as above, but reverse input SFs.

Google/Opus: Use the given system to translate the SF in context. That is, we provide the model/API with both the LF and the SF (in French), with the SF in parentheses. Then we

¹²<https://www.technitrad.com/how-to-perform-terminology-research/>

extract an SF from the generated translation (in English) and use that as the candidate SF.

Due to the high technicity of many terms, our retrieval system was unable to verify a number of term pairs, including many of the gold labels. In several cases, translating the term through Google allowed us to obtain the correct SF via a more common concurrent LF than the gold label, which resulted in the proposed method beating the gold verified percentage.

Method	Agreement	Verified
Identity Baseline	21.5%	0.06%
Reverse Baseline	28.5%	14.6%
Opus Baseline	34%	14.9%
Google Baseline	54.3%	29.2%
Gold Labels	100%	42%
Proposed (Opus)	43.9%	32.7%
Proposed (Google)	62.6%	42.8%

Table 7: Proposed method outperforms all baselines

3.2 Results

Table 7 shows the proposed method is well above the three baselines when verification succeeded in finding evidence for one of the candidates in at least two published papers. In Table 8, we report precision as the portion of agreed terms which were verified and recall as the portion of verified terms.

Method	Precision	Recall
Identity Baseline	0.28	0.06
Reverse Baseline	0.51	0.15
Opus Baseline	0.43	0.15
Google Baseline	0.54	0.29
Gold Labels	0.42	0.42
Proposed (Opus)	0.75	0.33
Proposed (Google)	0.68	0.43

Table 8: Precision and Recall

4 Related Work

Anastasopoulos et al. (2021) stress the importance of taking terminology into account in neural MT and propose metrics to measure MT output consistency with regard to domain constraints. Dagan and Church (1994) propose a system to identify technical terms in a source text as well as their translations. The system uses part-of-speech tagging

and word alignment techniques to assist translators during the translation process. Smadja et al. (1996) address the issue of translating collocations in a variety of domains.

Grefenstette (1999) offers an example-based method for dealing with terminology problems in translation as well as other NLP tasks. The method proposed uses search to find the most statistically likely translation of an entire noun phrase. Lee and Kim (2002) provide a knowledge-based approach to translation that includes using word-sense disambiguation to semantically derive the meaning of a word before seeking a target translation corresponding to that meaning.

Skadiņš et al. (2013) demonstrate the use of a cloud-based terminology search system that fully integrates with statistical methods to address the need for domain-specific terms and their integration into neural MT systems. Meanwhile, Bosca et al. (2014) stress the importance of term verification and consistency in the translation process and propose using external terminological databases to assist in fact checking and correcting domain-specific terminology.

5 Conclusion

A technical translator’s job is more akin to that of a terminologist than to that of a bilingual copywriter (Cabré, 2010). Target text quality depends not on producing more fluent texts, but rather on translating and verifying technical terminology correctly and according to domain-specific standards (GHENȚULESCU, 2015). This is a problem not easily solved with parallel corpora, as acquiring such data is an expensive and laborious process.

Neither translators nor neural MT practitioners are benefiting from the current situation. As NLP systems take on increasingly challenging tasks, the need for guidance by domain experts becomes all the more important (Van den Broek et al., 2021). Moreover, the dismissal of professional translation concerns in favor of higher BLEU/COMET scores and lower loss by NLP and AI experts only discourages the type of collaboration we call for here. Terminology verification is a major cause for concern in technical translation, one for which we have outlined a path forward through search. Other issues of a stylistic nature are beyond the scope of this paper but may be addressed in future work.

276 Limitations

277 The results of applying our method may not transfer
278 to languages that are very different from English
279 in orthography (e.g., Chinese, Japanese) and/or
280 morphology. Our solution also may not scale to
281 longer texts; the method is based on working with
282 acronym pairs and working on a full text would re-
283 quire a preprocessing step to identify term pairs as
284 well as inference time for each acronym. Training
285 a model for this task also requires access to GPU
286 resources. Additional information about model pa-
287 rameters, hardware used, and number of training
288 examples is available in the supplemental materi-
289 als.

290 Ethics Statement

291 In line with the concept of professional transla-
292 tor ethics presented by Lambert (2020), it is of
293 paramount importance to guard against translations
294 that “represent their source texts in unfair ways.”
295 This refers to unfaithful translations that do not
296 correctly transfer the true meaning in the source
297 language, a prime example being incorrect or un-
298 verifiable terminology. Our system upholds this
299 doctrine of translation ethics and adheres to ethics
300 policies outlined by the translation community.

301 References

302 Željko Agić and Ivan Vulić. 2019. Jw300: A wide-
303 coverage parallel corpus for low-resource languages.
304 In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the As-
305 sociation for Computational Linguistics*, pages 3204–
306 3210.

307 Chantal Amrhein and Rico Sennrich. 2022. Identifying
308 weaknesses in machine translation metrics through
309 minimum bayes risk decoding: A case study for
310 comet. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.05148*.

311 Antonios Anastasopoulos, Laurent Besacier, James
312 Cross, Matthias Gallé, Philipp Koehn, Vassilina
313 Nikoulina, et al. 2021. On the evaluation of ma-
314 chine translation for terminology consistency. *arXiv
315 preprint arXiv:2106.11891*.

316 Iz Beltagy, Kyle Lo, and Arman Cohan. 2019. SciB-
317 ERT: A pretrained language model for scientific text.
318 In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical
319 Methods in Natural Language Processing and the
320 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Lan-
321 guage Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP)*, pages 3615–
322 3620, Hong Kong, China. Association for Computa-
323 tional Linguistics.

324 Emily M. Bender, Timnit Gebru, Angelina McMillan-
325 Major, and Shmargaret Shmitchell. 2021. On the

dangers of stochastic parrots: Can language mod-
els be too big? In *Proceedings of the 2021 ACM
Conference on Fairness, Accountability, and Trans-
parency, FAccT '21*, page 610–623, New York, NY,
USA. Association for Computing Machinery. 326
327
328
329
330

Su Lin Blodgett, Solon Barocas, Hal Daumé III, and
Hanna Wallach. 2020. Language (technology) is
power: A critical survey of “bias” in NLP. In *Pro-
ceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Asso-
ciation for Computational Linguistics*, pages 5454–
5476, Online. Association for Computational Lin-
guistics. 331
332
333
334
335
336
337

Alessio Bosca, Vassilina Nikoulina, and Marc Dymet-
man. 2014. A lightweight terminology verification
service for external machine translation engines. In
*Proceedings of the Demonstrations at the 14th Con-
ference of the European Chapter of the Association
for Computational Linguistics*, pages 49–52. 338
339
340
341
342
343

Lynne Bowker. 2021. Machine translation literacy in-
struction for non-translators: A comparison of five de-
livery formats. In *Proceedings of the Translation and
Interpreting Technology Online Conference*, pages
25–36, Held Online. INCOMA Ltd. 344
345
346
347
348

M Teresa Cabré. 2010. Terminology and translation.
Handbook of translation studies, 1:356–365. 349
350

Chris Callison-Burch, Miles Osborne, and Philipp
Koehn. 2006. Re-evaluating the role of BLEU in
machine translation research. In *11th conference of
the european chapter of the association for computa-
tional linguistics*, pages 249–256. 351
352
353
354
355

Kenneth Church and Boxiang Liu. 2021. Acronyms and
opportunities for improving deep nets. *Frontiers in
Artificial Intelligence*, 4:732381. 356
357
358

Kenneth Ward Church and Richard Yue. 2023. Emerg-
ing trends: Smooth-talking machines. *Natural Lan-
guage Engineering*, 29(5):1402–1410. 359
360
361

Ido Dagan and Kenneth Church. 1994. Termight: Identi-
fying and translating technical terminology. In
*Fourth Conference on Applied Natural Language Pro-
cessing*, pages 34–40. 362
363
364
365

Debbie Elliott, Anthony Hartley, and Eric Atwell. 2004.
A fluency error categorization scheme to guide auto-
mated machine translation evaluation. In *Machine
Translation: From Real Users to Research: 6th Con-
ference of the Association for Machine Translation
in the Americas, AMTA 2004, Washington, DC, USA,
September 28-October 2, 2004. Proceedings 6*, pages
64–73. Springer. 366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373

Lect Raluca GHENȚULESCU. 2015. The importance
of terminology for translation studies. In *The Begin-
ning Was the Word”. On the Linguistic Matter of
Which the World Is Built. București: Ars Docendi*,
pages 54–61. 374
375
376
377
378

Gregory Grefenstette. 1999. The world wide web as a
resource for example-based machine translation tasks.
In *Proceedings of Translating and the Computer 21*. 379
380
381

382	Viktor Hangya, Qianchu Liu, Dario Stojanovski,	Elmira Van den Broek, Anastasia Sergeeva, and Marleen	434
383	Alexander Fraser, and Anna Korhonen. 2021. Im-	Huysman. 2021. When the machine meets the expert:	435
384	proving machine translation of rare and unseen word	An ethnography of developing ai for hiring. <i>MIS</i>	436
385	senses. In <i>Proceedings of the Sixth Conference on</i>	<i>quarterly</i> , 45(3).	437
386	<i>Machine Translation</i> , pages 614–624.		
387	Eva Hasler, Adrià De Gispert, Gonzalo Iglesias, and		
388	Bill Byrne. 2018. Neural machine translation de-		
389	coding with terminology constraints. <i>arXiv preprint</i>		
390	<i>arXiv:1805.03750</i> .		
391	Josef Jon, Michal Novák, João Paulo Aires, Dušan Variš,		
392	and Ondřej Bojar. 2021. Cuni systems for wmt21:		
393	Terminology translation shared task. <i>arXiv preprint</i>		
394	<i>arXiv:2109.09350</i> .		
395	Joseph Lambert. 2020. Professional translator ethics.		
396	<i>The Routledge Handbook of Translation and Ethics</i>		
397	<i>Routledge</i> , pages 165–179.		
398	Hyun Ah Lee and Gil Chang Kim. 2002. Translation		
399	selection through source word sense disambiguation		
400	and target word selection. In <i>COLING 2002: The</i>		
401	<i>19th International Conference on Computational Lin-</i>		
402	<i>guistics</i> .		
403	Alexander Molchanov, Vladislav Kovalenko, and Fedor		
404	Bykov. 2021. Prompt systems for wmt21 terminology		
405	translation task. In <i>Proceedings of the Sixth Confer-</i>		
406	<i>ence on Machine Translation</i> , pages 835–841.		
407	Cathy O’Neil. 2016. <i>Weapons of math destruction:</i>		
408	<i>How big data increases inequality and threatens</i>		
409	<i>democracy</i> . Broadway Books.		
410	Kishore Papineni, Salim Roukos, Todd Ward, and Wei-		
411	Jing Zhu. 2002. Bleu: a method for automatic evalu-		
412	ation of machine translation . In <i>Proceedings of the</i>		
413	<i>40th Annual Meeting of the Association for Compu-</i>		
414	<i>tational Linguistics</i> , pages 311–318, Philadelphia,		
415	Pennsylvania, USA. Association for Computational		
416	Linguistics.		
417	Nike Kocijancic Pokorn. 1998. Translation into a non-		
418	mother tongue in translation theory: Deconstruction.		
419	In <i>Translation in context: selected contributions from</i>		
420	<i>the EST Congress, Granada</i> , pages 61–72.		
421	Raivis Skadiņš, Mārcis Pinnis, Tatiana Gornostay, and		
422	Andrejs Vasiljevs. 2013. Application of online ter-		
423	minology services in statistical machine translation.		
424	In <i>Proceedings of Machine Translation Summit XIV:</i>		
425	<i>Posters</i> .		
426	Frank Smadja, Kathleen R. McKeown, and Vasileios		
427	Hatzivassiloglou. 1996. Translating collocations for		
428	bilingual lexicons: A statistical approach . <i>Computa-</i>		
429	<i>tional Linguistics</i> , 22(1):1–38.		
430	Sunghwan Sohn, Donald C Comeau, Won Kim, and		
431	W John Wilbur. 2008. Abbreviation definition iden-		
432	tification based on automatic precision estimates.		
433	<i>BMC bioinformatics</i> , 9(1):1–10.		