

Don't Rank, Combine! Combining Machine Translation Hypotheses Using Quality Estimation

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Abstract

Neural machine translation systems estimate probabilities of target sentences given source sentences, yet these estimates may not align with human preferences. This work introduces QE-fusion, a method that synthesizes translations using a quality estimation metric (QE), which correlates better with human judgments. QE-fusion leverages a pool of candidates sampled from a model, combining spans from different candidates using a QE metric such as COMETKIWI. We compare QE-fusion against beam search and recent reranking techniques, such as Minimum Bayes Risk decoding or QE-reranking. Our method consistently improves translation quality in terms of COMET and BLEURT scores when applied to large language models (LLMs) used for translation (PolyLM, XGLM, Llama2, Mistral, ALMA and Tower) and to multilingual translation models (NLLB), over five language pairs. Notably, QE-fusion exhibits larger improvements for LLMs due to their ability to generate diverse outputs. We demonstrate that our approach generates novel translations in over half of the cases and consistently outperforms other methods across varying numbers of candidates (5–200). Furthermore, we empirically establish that QE-fusion scales linearly with the number of candidates in the pool.

1 Introduction

Neural machine translation (NMT) models are probability estimators of translations given source sentences. Therefore, errors in NMT may arise either due to imperfections in this estimation, or because the exact maximization of the probability is infeasible, and thus approximations such as beam search are employed. Recent studies have questioned the alignment of probability estimates of NMT models with human preferences (Koehn and Knowles, 2017; Ott et al., 2018; Stahlberg and Byrne, 2019). In this paper, we propose QE-fusion,

a solution for finding better translations starting from a pool of translation candidates, through a novel combination algorithm that uses quality estimation (QE) metrics.

Recent improvements in metrics for MT evaluation (Mathur et al., 2020; Freitag et al., 2021, 2022b) have made them more helpful for selecting among candidates generated by NMT models. Reference-based evaluation metrics such as COMET (Rei et al., 2020) and BLEURT (Selam et al., 2020) have been employed as utility functions for Minimum Bayes Risk (MBR) decoding (Fernandes et al., 2022; Freitag et al., 2022a), to select the candidates with the highest similarity to all other ones (Kumar and Byrne, 2002, 2004). QE metrics such as COMET-QE (Rei et al., 2021), which do not need reference translations, have been used to select the translation with the highest estimated quality by reranking a pool of candidates (Fernandes et al., 2022; Farinhas et al., 2023). Such reranking approaches improve translation quality over standard beam search, particularly when measured with neural-based MT evaluation metrics.

While reranking approaches significantly enhance performance, they are challenged in situations where candidate translations exhibit complementary errors, with no candidate clearly improving over all others. Figure 1 illustrates this issue. The first candidate, *Fire in French chemical plant*, uses *in* instead of the more idiomatic *at*. The third candidate makes a better choice in this case, but renders the verb as *cleared* instead of *extinguished*, which is incorrect in this context. Making the most of this pool of candidates is not possible without combining fragments from several candidates.

To address this limitation, we propose QE-fusion, an approach that leverages the potential complementarity of the generated candidates to synthesize an improved translation, guided by a QE metric. QE-fusion starts by identifying divergent spans, i.e. spans that exhibit variations within

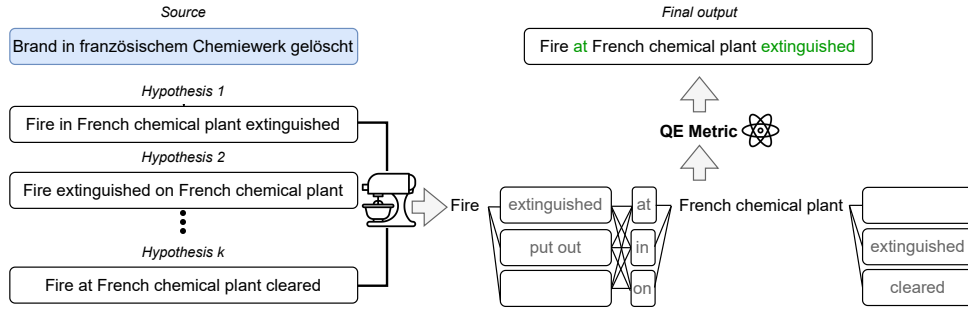


Figure 1: Illustration of the QE-fusion pipeline. The method first generates multiple hypotheses by sampling translations from the model. Then, it computes and sorts the spans that diverge among the candidates. Finally, a QE metric is used to select a span from each group and these spans are merged to form a new, refined translation.

the pool of model-generated candidates. Then, it traverses these divergent spans, selecting at each step the one that contributes to a higher score according to the QE metric. The chosen spans are integrated into the synthesized translation, which is thus a fusion of multiple candidates.

We demonstrate that QE-fusion is effective over pools of candidates obtained from high-performing multilingual NMT models such as NLLB (NLLB Team et al., 2022), as well as candidates obtained using in-context learning with large language models (LLMs), which have recently shown comparable performance to NMT models (Garcia et al., 2023; Hendy et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023). QE-fusion improves translation for several popular, open-source LLMs: PolyLM (Wei et al., 2023), XGLM (Lin et al., 2022), Llama2 (Touvron et al., 2023), Mistral (Jiang et al., 2023), ALMA (Xu et al., 2023) and TowerBase¹.

Our contributions are the following:

1. We design a novel algorithm called QE-fusion that generates improved translations from a pool of candidates using a QE metric.
2. We demonstrate the superior performance of QE-fusion compared to the recently proposed QE-reranking and MBR decoding methods, across various open-source LLMs and multilingual NMT models, for five language pairs.
3. We explain the larger improvements of QE-fusion for LLMs vs. NMT by the larger diversity of candidates from LLMs.
4. We showcase the efficiency of our algorithm by empirically demonstrating that the runtime scales linearly with the number of candidates.

¹<https://unbabel.com/announcing-tower-an-open-multilingual-llm-for-translation-related-tasks>

2 Related Work

We review in this section several approaches that aim to incorporate additional knowledge either during the decoding process or after it, in order to mitigate the misalignment between MT models and human preferences. We start with a brief reminder of MT evaluation metrics, which play a crucial role as a selection criterion.

MT evaluation metrics. Traditional overlap-based evaluation metrics for MT such as BLEU (Papineni et al., 2002) and ChrF (Popović, 2015) are known for their imperfect correlation with human judgments (Mathur et al., 2020; Kocmi et al., 2021; Freitag et al., 2021, 2022b). In response, researchers have shifted their attention towards metrics that use pretrained neural models to score translation outputs, such as BERTScore (Zhang et al., 2020), Prism (Thompson and Post, 2020), COMET (Rei et al., 2020) and BLEURT (Sellam et al., 2020). To better emulate human assessment, these metrics are often fine-tuned to predict human scores based on annotations such as those provided by the WMT metrics tasks (Freitag et al., 2022b). Automatic MT metrics can be broadly categorized into two groups: *reference-based* metrics, which have access to the reference translation, and *reference-free* or *quality estimation* metrics (Zerva et al., 2022), which solely rely on the source sentence for estimating the quality of a translation. Recent QE metrics are COMET-QE (Rei et al., 2021), TransQuest (Ranasinghe et al., 2020) and COMETKIWI (Rei et al., 2022b).

Reranking candidate translations. One of the earliest proposals for reranking the outputs of an NMT system is the adaptation of the noisy channel model (Brown et al., 1993) to NMT systems (Yee et al., 2019; Bhosale et al., 2020). This simply

combines the scores of multiple models, mainly a forward model, a backward one, and an LM, and has been shown to improve performance e.g. at WMT shared tasks (Ng et al., 2019).

An alternative reranking approach uses Minimum Bayes Risk (Kumar and Byrne, 2002; Goel and Byrne, 2000), which aims to select the candidate with the highest utility from a pool of candidates. The utility function employed in MBR measures the similarity between a hypothesis and a reference; however, at test time, when references are unknown, the same set of hypotheses serves both as the list of candidates and the pseudo-references. Possible utility functions include overlap-based (Eikema and Aziz, 2020) or state-of-the-art neural-based MT metrics (Eikema and Aziz, 2022; Fernandes et al., 2022; Freitag et al., 2022a). MBR has demonstrated promising results, particularly when equipped with recent automatic MT metrics. However, its time complexity scales quadratically with the size of the candidate pool and depends on the cost of computation the utility function, which is considerable for neural metrics such as COMET.

A more direct strategy is the use of reference-free metrics to rerank generated outputs, known as best-of-n or QE-reranking. Initial findings suggested that this generates inferior translations compared to beam search (Freitag et al., 2022a; Fernandes et al., 2022), in particular, due to the insensitivity of such metrics to degenerate translations (Guerreiro et al., 2023). However, with advancements in reference-free metrics, QE-reranking has outperformed beam search (Gulcehre et al., 2023; Finkelstein et al., 2023). QE-reranking can also be used during the training phase, where QE scores are employed for data filtering (Finkelstein et al., 2023), or for curriculum construction (Gulcehre et al., 2023), or for assigning quality-related tags to the outputs (Tomani et al., 2023). QE-reranking is substantially faster than MBR as its runtime scales linearly with the number of candidates. While reranking methods such as MBR decoding and QE-reranking effectively improve the performance of MT systems, they are bound by the quality of the candidates in the pool.

Constructing translation candidates. A wide variety of scores have been used for building candidates, including the model’s own future scores (Jinai et al., 2023), lookahead heuristics (Lu et al., 2022), or values predicted by a distinct model using Monte Carlo tree search (Leblond et al., 2021; Liu

et al., 2023; Chaffin et al., 2022). However, these approaches require access to the model, which is not always guaranteed, and entail substantial computational overhead due to the number of candidates stored at each time step.

3 Definition of QE-fusion

QE-fusion leverages the complementary nature of a pool of translation candidates generated by an LLM with an appropriate prompt, or an encoder-decoder NMT model, and combines fragments from them into an improved output.

3.1 Candidate Generation

There are multiple ways to generate candidates from a model. Common approaches for LLMs involve nucleus or top- p sampling (Holtzman et al., 2020), top- k , and sampling with a temperature. In our experiments, we adopt nucleus sampling with a temperature. The performance of LLMs can also be influenced by the number of samples and the prompt (Bawden and Yvon, 2023; Zhu et al., 2023). To optimize LLM performance, we follow the guidelines of Zhu et al. (2023) and use 8 examples for in-context learning in all our experiments.

For NMT models, beam search, while commonly used to return the top candidates in the beam, has been shown to lack diversity (Vijayakumar et al., 2017). Instead, for the multilingual NMT models, we employ epsilon sampling (Hewitt et al., 2022), which sets to zero the probability of tokens below a threshold, and was recently shown to generate more diverse candidates (Freitag et al., 2023).

3.2 QE-fusion Algorithm

For each sentence translated by a model, the QE-fusion algorithm (Algorithm 1) considers the top-ranked hypothesis by the QE metric as the base hypothesis, h^{base} , (line 1). The rationale behind this choice is that this is already a high-quality translation which may require the fewest modifications. QE-fusion then identifies *divergent spans* between h^{base} and other candidates generated by the model, using an off-the-shelf library² that employs edit distance to spot the additions, deletions and replacements required to transform one sequence into another (line 3).

For each span where disagreements appear between candidates, the various alternatives are listed. The algorithm substitutes the initial span of h^{base}

²<https://docs.python.org/3/library/difflib.html>

Algorithm 1 QE-fusion algorithm

Input: candidate list $\mathcal{Y}$, QE metric $\mathcal{M}$, beam size b

```
1  $h^{base} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{M}(y)$   $\triangleright$  select the top-ranked candidate
2  $hyps \leftarrow \{h^{base}\}$   $\triangleright$  initialize beam
3  $diffs \leftarrow \text{find\_diffs}(h^{base}, \mathcal{Y})$   $\triangleright$  find divergent spans
4 for  $base\_span, alter\_spans$  in  $diffs.items()$  do
5   for  $h$  in  $hyps$  do
6     for  $span$  in  $alter\_spans$  do
7        $h^{new} \leftarrow h.\text{replace}(base\_span, span)$ 
8        $\triangleright$  create new hypothesis
9       if  $h^{new}$  is not in  $hyps$  then
10         $hyps \leftarrow hyps \cup \{h^{new}\}$ 
11      end
12    end
13  end
14   $scores \leftarrow \mathcal{M}(hyps)$ 
15   $sorted\_hyps \leftarrow \text{sorted}(hyps, scores)$   $\triangleright$  sort hyps
16   $hyps \leftarrow sorted\_hyps[:b]$   $\triangleright$  keep top  $b$  hyps
17 end
Output:  $hyps[0]$ 
```

with each of the alternative spans (lines 6-11), which results in alternative hypotheses for the entire translation, $\{h_i^{new}\}_{i=1,2,\dots}$. A QE metric is used to compute scores for each h_i^{new} (line 13). The hypotheses are then sorted based on their scores, and the top b candidates are retained, forming a beam (lines 14-15). This is repeated for each span of h^{base} , resulting in a set of hypotheses within the beam. Finally, the highest-scoring hypothesis is selected.

While this is a conceptual explanation of the algorithm, certain modifications are made for efficiency purposes³, such as batching the sentences and caching computed scores (see Appendix A.2).

4 Experimental Settings

4.1 Datasets and Evaluation Metrics

We assess performance across a spectrum of diverse language pairs. The selected languages include German, which is the most represented non-English language in most models; Russian, a high-resource language written in Cyrillic alphabet; Chinese, a high-resource language with a logographic script; and Icelandic, which is considered a low-resource language. We consider the translation of English into the first two languages, and from the latter two into English. Additionally, we consider a non-English-centric pair, German to French.

As we experiment with pre-trained models, we use only test data, which we take from WMT22 (Freitag et al., 2022b), or for is $\rightarrow$ en from WMT21 (Akhbardeh et al., 2021). We draw the few-shot

³We will release our code upon acceptance of the paper.

examples for LLMs from the test sets of WMT21. Further details regarding dataset sizes and domains are presented in the Appendix A.1.

We report results in terms of two neural-based metrics: COMET-22 (Rei et al., 2022a) and BLEURT-20 (Sellam et al., 2020). Surface-based BLEU and ChrF scores are given in Appendix A.4.

4.2 Models and Parameters

We conduct an extensive evaluation using LLMs and encoder-decoder NMT models of various sizes. Specifically, we use popular LLMs such as PolyLM-1.7B (Wei et al., 2023), XGLM-2.9B (Lin et al., 2022), Mistral-7B (Jiang et al., 2023), Llama2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023). We additionally use ALMA-7B (Xu et al., 2023) and TowerBase-7B, two LLMs based on Llama2-7B that are fine-tuned for translation using both monolingual and parallel data. These LLMs have demonstrated impressive performance in MT (Xu et al., 2023), comparable to GPT-3.5 and NLLB-54B (NLLB Team et al., 2022) and represent intermediary stages between general LLMs and task-specific MT models. As for NMT systems, we use the multilingual NLLB-1.3B and 3.3B models (NLLB Team et al., 2022). Results for the 13B versions of Llama2 and ALMA are given in Appendix A.5.

For the LLMs, we adopt the hyper-parameters used by Touvron et al. (2023). We generate candidates using nucleus sampling with $p = 0.9$ and a temperature of 0.6. As a prompt for in-context learning, we follow Zhu et al. (2023) and use the instruction template: $\langle X \rangle = \langle Y \rangle$ with 8 examples randomly sampled from the WMT21 data. For the NMT models, we follow the suggestions of Freitag et al. (2023) and use epsilon sampling (Hewitt et al., 2022) with $\epsilon = 0.02$ and a temperature of 0.5. We study the impact of temperature in Section 6.3. We generate 5 candidates both for LLM and MT models for efficiency purposes, although we demonstrate in Section 6.1 that our approach works with larger numbers of candidates too.

4.3 Comparison Terms

We compare QE-fusion with standard decoding algorithms for MT, such as greedy decoding and beam search with a width of 5. We also compare it with three sampling-based algorithms: QE-reranking (Fernandes et al., 2022) with COMETKIWI (Rei et al., 2022b) as the QE metric, which is the same used by QE-fusion; MBR decoding (Eikema and Aziz, 2020), either with

Method	PolyLM-1.7B	XGLM-2.9B	LLM			
			Llama2-7B	Mistral-7B	ALMA-7B	Tower-7B
en→de						
Greedy	70.24 / 62.37	74.51 / 66.43	79.84 / 67.08	79.75 / 70.48	81.39 / 74.21	81.50 / 73.11
Beam	70.84 / 65.31	76.74 / 69.22	79.56 / 69.83	80.99 / 72.34	81.71 / 74.78	82.49 / 74.81
Sample	71.84 / 60.71	70.73 / 58.36	78.49 / 65.71	80.73 / 69.11	83.19 / 72.90	83.81 / 72.83
MBR-BLEU	73.54 / 62.08	77.18 / 65.77	79.34 / 66.73	81.72 / 69.99	84.04 / 73.73	84.35 / 73.25
MBR-COMET	78.68 / 66.36	80.90 / 68.80	83.26 / 70.32	84.73 / 72.78	85.99 / 75.46	86.17 / 74.63
QE-reranking	78.02 / 67.21	80.75 / 70.00	82.73 / 71.04	84.30 / 73.23	85.53 / 75.53	85.86 / 75.19
QE-fusion	79.62 / 68.67	81.62 / 71.01	83.63 / 71.96	85.02 / 74.10	85.93 / 75.93	86.23 / 75.68
en→ru						
Greedy	69.47 / 59.70	75.71 / 65.75	77.42 / 66.94	80.44 / 71.13	81.36 / 72.31	82.36 / 74.24
Beam	71.30 / 63.26	77.56 / 67.58	79.84 / 69.49	82.31 / 73.13	82.45 / 74.17	83.11 / 75.07
Sample	72.99 / 57.70	71.65 / 52.45	80.18 / 64.90	83.55 / 69.17	84.84 / 70.81	86.36 / 73.23
MBR-BLEU	75.19 / 59.92	79.26 / 63.24	81.72 / 66.62	84.50 / 70.34	85.83 / 72.28	86.87 / 74.03
MBR-COMET	80.16 / 63.88	82.42 / 65.04	85.15 / 69.61	87.26 / 72.82	87.78 / 73.90	88.60 / 75.57
QE-reranking	79.59 / 64.53	83.07 / 68.07	84.62 / 70.11	86.81 / 73.25	87.33 / 74.32	88.29 / 75.90
QE-fusion	81.28 / 66.32	83.93 / 69.06	85.60 / 71.48	87.38 / 74.05	87.82 / 75.11	88.58 / 76.30
zh→en						
Greedy	65.29 / 54.76	48.71 / 28.76	74.44 / 64.13	76.63 / 66.67	76.14 / 66.20	75.97 / 65.30
Beam	65.09 / 57.71	71.62 / 58.69	76.33 / 65.89	77.60 / 67.74	76.15 / 66.46	76.98 / 65.95
Sample	67.85 / 53.32	53.77 / 33.70	76.55 / 62.69	78.91 / 65.56	78.19 / 64.70	77.73 / 64.03
MBR-BLEU	69.74 / 54.83	62.93 / 44.64	77.80 / 64.12	79.69 / 66.58	79.09 / 65.81	78.33 / 64.80
MBR-COMET	72.47 / 56.49	65.98 / 46.51	79.30 / 65.05	80.87 / 67.31	80.40 / 66.77	79.79 / 66.01
QE-reranking	73.12 / 57.86	71.48 / 54.99	79.38 / 66.21	80.79 / 67.90	80.41 / 67.61	79.86 / 66.82
QE-fusion	74.27 / 59.06	72.14 / 55.80	79.99 / 66.92	81.15 / 68.44	80.86 / 68.13	80.44 / 67.46
de→fr						
Greedy	61.16 / 41.88	71.50 / 53.40	76.39 / 60.46	78.01 / 63.16	74.08 / 57.48	79.10 / 65.86
Beam	63.14 / 50.45	74.32 / 57.37	78.57 / 63.69	79.46 / 65.50	77.08 / 60.66	80.49 / 67.52
Sample	61.27 / 38.59	67.62 / 45.94	75.24 / 57.60	77.12 / 60.60	72.81 / 53.85	79.55 / 64.50
MBR-BLEU	64.31 / 42.76	71.96 / 52.53	76.68 / 59.88	78.45 / 62.41	74.65 / 56.93	80.52 / 65.87
MBR-COMET	69.30 / 46.20	75.80 / 55.72	79.91 / 62.63	81.06 / 65.10	78.53 / 60.56	82.54 / 67.67
QE-reranking	68.74 / 48.38	75.51 / 57.31	79.44 / 63.67	80.69 / 65.53	77.96 / 61.18	82.16 / 68.07
QE-fusion	70.09 / 49.98	76.64 / 58.76	80.27 / 64.56	81.26 / 66.28	78.87 / 62.48	82.53 / 68.44
is→en						
Greedy	—	—	62.47 / 51.58	70.06 / 59.80	80.38 / 75.09	62.08 / 50.90
Beam	—	—	63.75 / 52.52	71.41 / 60.74	80.90 / 75.73	63.41 / 52.24
Sample	—	—	65.64 / 49.87	72.65 / 58.47	85.15 / 74.01	64.87 / 49.68
MBR-BLEU	—	—	66.33 / 50.96	73.24 / 59.22	85.79 / 74.81	65.74 / 50.80
MBR-COMET	—	—	69.32 / 52.36	75.57 / 60.81	86.58 / 75.46	68.77 / 52.28
QE-reranking	—	—	69.71 / 54.91	75.71 / 62.51	86.43 / 75.62	68.95 / 54.35
QE-fusion	—	—	70.63 / 56.11	76.81 / 63.43	86.76 / 76.02	69.84 / 55.51

Table 1: Translation performance in terms of COMET-22 / BLEURT-20 scores for various methods, language pairs, and sizes of LLMs. Dotted lines separate deterministic decoding from existing sampling-based methods and from our approach. The best scores for each language pair and model are in **bold**.

the surface-based metric BLEU or with the neural-based metric COMET-22 as the utility function. As COMET-22 follows the same training pipeline and has the same number of parameter as COMETKiwi, this ensures a fair comparison of the models. Finally, we consider random sampling from the pool as a lower performance bound.

5 Results: Translation Performance

5.1 QE-fusion Applied to LLMs

Table 1 presents the results obtained across various language pairs and LLMs, in terms of COMET and BLEURT scores. Results with BLEU and ChrF scores, showing similar trends, are given in Appendix A.4. As expected, the translation per-

formance of LLMs generally improves with scale, but also with recency. For instance, the more recent Mistral-7B significantly outperforms Llama2-7B, despite their similar sizes (7 billion parameters). ALMA-7B and Tower-7B emerge as the top-performing LLMs across all language pairs, confirming the merits of MT-specific fine-tuning of LLMs. Tower-7B has better performance than ALMA-7B in all pairs except is→en, where the latter dominates.⁴ We do not provide the is→en scores of smaller LLMs (PolyLM and XGLM) due to their poor capabilities in the low-resource Ice-

⁴This is because is→en data was not used in the fine-tuning stages of Tower, contrary to ALMA, leading to catastrophic forgetting, as is visible when comparing the scores of Tower with those of its parent model, Llama2.

Method	Multilingual NMT	
	NLLB-1.3B	NLLB-3.3B
en→de		
Greedy	81.56 / 74.39	82.49 / 75.43
Beam	82.76 / 75.62	83.37 / 76.44
Sample	83.57 / 73.27	84.66 / 74.48
MBR-BLEU	84.16 / 74.03	85.18 / 75.25
MBR-COMET	85.98 / 75.38	86.69 / 76.34
QE-reranking	85.92 / 75.88	86.25 / 76.60
QE-fusion	86.25 / 76.11	86.74 / 76.81
en→ru		
Greedy	81.93 / 72.81	82.49 / 73.93
Beam	82.83 / 74.10	83.36 / 75.12
Sample	84.95 / 71.49	86.07 / 73.01
MBR-BLEU	85.59 / 72.37	86.44 / 73.58
MBR-COMET	87.47 / 73.97	88.18 / 75.09
QE-reranking	87.11 / 74.27	87.96 / 75.46
QE-fusion	87.52 / 74.71	88.31 / 75.83
de→fr		
Greedy	60.87 / 41.62	67.16 / 50.21
Beam	64.43 / 44.93	69.95 / 53.42
Sample	61.96 / 39.68	66.62 / 46.15
MBR-BLEU	63.23 / 41.57	69.01 / 49.39
MBR-COMET	67.33 / 44.57	72.30 / 52.30
QE-reranking	66.89 / 46.22	72.18 / 54.06
QE-fusion	67.98 / 47.57	72.97 / 54.96
is→en		
Greedy	58.56 / 48.18	61.19 / 50.54
Beam	59.75 / 49.26	61.84 / 51.39
Sample	61.57 / 47.35	63.39 / 49.69
MBR-BLEU	62.11 / 48.46	64.15 / 50.51
MBR-COMET	65.20 / 49.77	67.30 / 52.18
QE-reranking	65.34 / 51.42	67.73 / 54.02
QE-fusion	66.38 / 52.81	68.89 / 55.11

Table 2: Translation performance in terms of COMET-22 / BLEURT-20 scores for various methods, language pairs, and multilingual NMT models.

landic language.

Regarding baselines, greedy decoding consistently lags behind beam search across all language pairs, an observation that contrasts with prior studies focused on zero-shot scenarios (Farinhas et al., 2023), emphasizing the role of in-context examples. Unsurprisingly, random selection from the candidate pool emerges as the least effective baseline.

Among the reranking approaches, QE-reranking outperforms MBR with either BLEU or COMET as the utility function, particularly in terms of BLEURT scores. Among the two utility functions for MBR, COMET is superior while the use of BLEU often fails to outperform beam search. MBR with COMET as the utility function occasionally surpasses QE-reranking in terms of COMET scores. This may be due to a form of “reward hacking” (Gulcehre et al., 2023), i.e. employing the same metric for both candidate selection and evaluation, since the BLEURT scores are in the reverse order.

Our approach, QE-fusion, consistently outper-

forms all other methods, across all language pairs and LLMs, with 5 exceptions out of 56 comparisons. Two notable ones are where beam search achieves the best BLEURT scores, though not COMET ones, for PolyLM-1.7B (de→fr) and XGLM-2.9B (zh→en). In these cases, it is likely that the candidate pool lacks high-quality translations altogether. The other three exceptions are small COMET differences (0.06, 0.02 and 0.01).

Moreover, QE-fusion also outperforms the other methods when combined with even larger LLMs, as confirmed by the results obtained with the Llama2 and ALMA models with 13 billion parameters present in Appendix A.5, Tables 6 and 7, with COMET, BLEURT, BLEU and ChrF scores.

In Appendix A.3, Figure 6, we present a graphical synthesis of these comparisons using radar charts: the shapes corresponding to QE-fusion are always the outermost ones, regardless of variations due to the underlying LLM or language pair. In particular, our approach always outperforms QE-reranking, confirming its superiority as a generalization of reranking approaches.

5.2 QE-fusion Applied to NMT Models

The COMET and BLEURT scores of our approach applied to multilingual NMT models, namely NLLB-1.3B and NLLB-3.3B, are presented in Table 2 (BLEU and ChrF scores are in Appendix A.4). Similar to the results with LLMs, our approach consistently outperforms beam search and reranking approaches. Compared to LLMs, we observe that NMT models perform better on the en→x pairs and worse on the is→en and de→fr pairs.⁵ The gap between our approach and QE-reranking is slightly smaller in the case of NMT models, which we attribute to the lower diversity of the generated candidates. We test this hypothesis in Section 6.3.

6 Analysis of Results

6.1 Role of the Size of the Candidate Pool

In the above experiments, we generated five candidate translations for efficiency reasons. We now study the influence of the number of candidates on the scores of QE-fusion vs. those of the other methods, using XGLM-2.9B for en→de translation.

⁵We do not provide results for the zh→en pair as the NLLB models produce degenerate outputs, probably due to the presence of English characters in the Chinese sentences of the WMT22 test set, a problem also mentioned by other researchers (see e.g., <https://discuss.huggingface.co/t/nllb-3-3b-poor-translations-from-chinese-to-english/27695>).

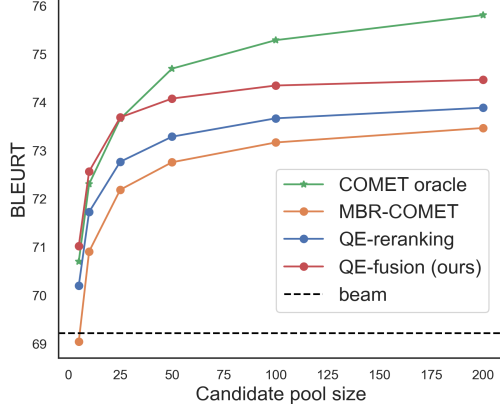


Figure 2: BLEURT scores of QE-fusion and other methods over pools of candidates of increasing sizes from the XGLM-2.9B LLM. QE-fusion outperforms reranking approaches and is comparable to the COMET-reranking *oracle* for pools of up to 25 candidates.

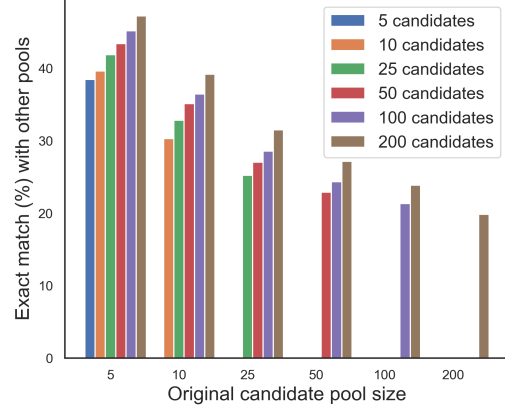


Figure 3: Frequencies at which outputs produced by QE-fusion appear in larger candidate pools sampled from XGLM-2.9B. Results show that in at least half of the cases QE-fusion synthesizes novel candidates that the LLM would not generate otherwise.

We progressively sample larger candidate pools, from 5 to 200 candidates, and present in Figure 2 the BLEURT scores of our approach compared to QE-reranking using COMETKIWI and to MBR using COMET as the utility function. Additionally, we compare with an *oracle* reranking approach that has access to the reference translation, using COMET as the selection criterion. QE-fusion consistently outperforms reranking approaches across all sizes of candidate pools. Moreover, QE-fusion even matches the performance of the oracle method for pool sizes of 5, 10 and 25 candidates.

6.2 Novelty of Outputs from QE-fusion

As the previous experiment may suggest that QE-fusion has a similar effect as the use of larger candidate pools with reranking methods, we examine here the novelty of the synthesized candidates, by counting how many times the output of QE-fusion can be found in a larger pool. For a pool of p candidates given to QE-fusion, we measure how frequently an exact match of the output of QE-fusion can be found in larger pools of size $q \geq p$, where p and q are in $\{5, 10, 25, 50, 100, 200\}$.

The results, presented in Figure 3, reveal that even with a small pool of 5 candidates, more than 50% of the outputs of QE-fusion would not have been generated by the LLM, even when sampling 200 candidates (rightmost bar of the leftmost group). The percentage of identical (or non-novel) candidates decreases as the pool grows, due to more varied candidates present in larger pools.

When candidates generated by QE-fusion are

present in the original pool, our method has the same effect as QE-reranking. The frequency of these cases is given by the leftmost bar of each group (pool size) in Figure 3. We observe that our approach defaults to QE-reranking less than 40% of the time for a pool of size 5 (leftmost bar) and this value drops to 20% for a pool of size 200.

6.3 Impact of Candidate Diversity on Quality

By construction, QE-fusion benefits from the diversity of candidates, as this allows for an increased number of divergent spans. We explore now the effect of diversity on both QE-fusion and QE-reranking, for LLMs and NMT models.

To increase the diversity of the pool of candidate translations, we adjust the temperature parameter during decoding but keep constant all other generation parameters. A higher temperature results in token probability distributions that are more uniform, thus increasing the stochasticity of sampling and consequently the diversity of the candidate pool. Here, we measure this diversity by the number of unique 4-grams present in the candidate pool, averaged over all test sentences. Figure 4 displays in its lower part the diversity of the pool as a function of temperature for XGLM-2.9B and NLLB-1.3B on en→de translation, and in its upper part the BLEURT quality scores of these models with either QE-reranking or QE-fusion. Additional results with COMET scores and other diversity measures are given in Appendix A.6 and show similar trends.

Increasing the temperature leads to an expected rise in diversity. The rise is higher for XGLM-2.9B

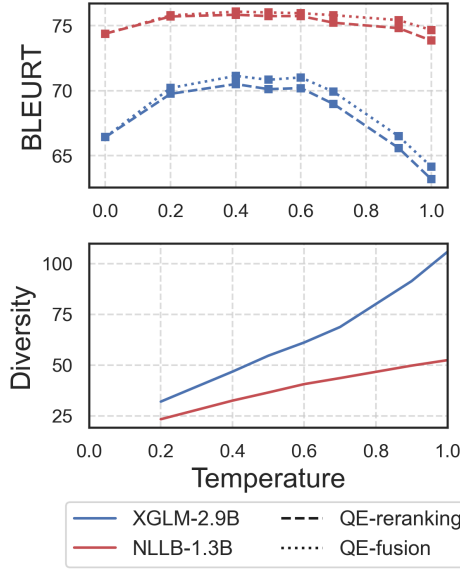


Figure 4: Effect of temperature on the diversity of the pool (below) and on translation performance (above) using an LLM and an NMT model for en→de translation, with QE-fusion vs. QE-reranking.

than for NLLB-1.3B, illustrating the fact that LLMs generate more diverse outputs, likely due to their general-domain language pretraining compared to the task-specific training of NMT models. Nevertheless, generating too diverse candidates due to high temperatures results in a noticeable drop in performance (right side of the upper graph). The gap between QE-fusion and QE-reranking slightly widens as diversity increases, indicating the ability of our approach to leverage alternative spans. The optimal performance is achieved using a temperature in the [0.4, 0.6] interval.

6.4 Computation Time

In Section 6.1 we presented the scaling laws of QE-fusion vs. reranking in terms of performance when the size of the candidate pool varies. However, computation time is a crucial factor as the candidate pool grows. QE-reranking has the advantage of linear scaling with the number N of candidates, while MBR methods require $N(N-1)$ model calls for each sentence. In contrast, QE-fusion has variable complexity, depending on the diversity of the pool and the presence of alternative spans.

To compare empirically the complexity of QE-fusion with reranking methods, we measured their runtime for the en→de WMT22 test data with 2,037 sentences. All experiments were executed on a single Nvidia A40 GPU with 40 GB memory,

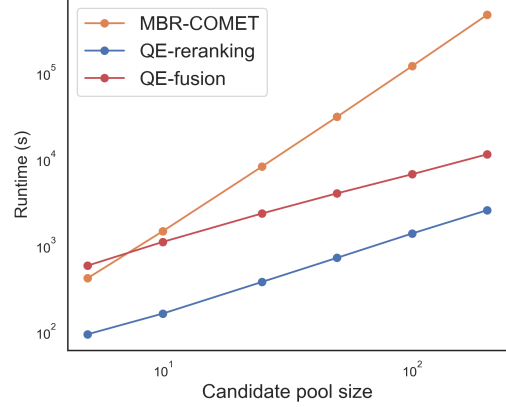


Figure 5: Runtimes (in seconds) for different pool sizes for the en→de WMT22 test set.

using a batch size of 400 samples. Using a logarithmic scale, Figure 5 confirms that QE-reranking scales linearly with the candidate pool size, while MBR scales quadratically. Interestingly, QE-fusion also exhibits linear scaling with the number of candidates but with a constant factor of $\times 5$ compared to QE-reranking. For 5 and 10 candidates, QE-fusion has similar runtimes to MBR.

We have implemented specific optimizations, including score caching and input batching, to reduce runtime (see Appendix A.2). These modifications were uniformly applied to all methods to ensure a fair comparison. We leave further optimizations such as pruning (Cheng and Vlachos, 2023) for future work.

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we introduce QE-fusion, a novel approach that leverages the complementary nature of generated candidates to synthesize improved translations based on quality estimation metrics. We evaluated our approach on five language pairs using both LLMs and NMT models. The results of our experiments demonstrate the consistent superiority of QE-fusion over traditional methods such as beam search, as well as established reranking approaches like Minimum Bayes Risk and QE-reranking.

Our analysis reveals that QE-fusion is particularly beneficial to LLMs, capitalizing on their enhanced capability to generate diverse outputs. Notably, QE-fusion maintains its superiority when the number of candidates increases, highlighting its scalability. Additionally, the empirical study of the time complexity of QE-fusion shows a linear relationship with the number of candidates.

8 Limitations

Human evaluation. While our work employs state-of-the-art MT evaluation metrics, we acknowledge the inherent limitations of automatic metrics. Human evaluation could offer more reliable and comprehensive insights. However, due to the extensive scope of our study involving numerous models and language pairs, conducting human evaluation was not feasible within the constraints of this research.

Choice of metrics. The QE metric used by QE-fusion, COMETKIWI, shares some similarities with the COMET metric used for evaluation, as they originate from the same family of models. Consequently, using COMETKIWI as our criterion for merging spans might be considered as the reason why we get improvements in COMET scores. To address this concern, we confirm our findings with scores using three other metrics: BLEURT, BLEU and ChrF. Even with these alternate metrics, our approach consistently outperforms all other reranking techniques, demonstrating its robustness and effectiveness.

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A Appendix

A.1 Datasets

Table 3 presents information about the datasets used in our study, in terms of size and domain. More information is available in the synthesis articles from WMT22 (Freitag et al., 2022b) and WMT21 (Akhbardeh et al., 2021).

Lang. Pair	Source	Sentences	Domain
en→de	WMT22	2,037	News Conversational e-Commerce Social
en→ru	WMT22	2,037	News Conversational e-Commerce Social
zh→en	WMT22	1,875	News Conversational e-Commerce Social
de→fr	WMT22	1,984	News Conversational e-Commerce Social
is→en	WMT21	1,000	News

Table 3: Test datasets used for evaluation.

A.2 Implementation Optimizations

While Algorithm 1 outlines the concept of fusing candidates, we introduce specific modifications to enhance efficiency. Firstly, to mitigate the computationally expensive calls to the QE model, we parallelize the exploration of all sentences in the test set, resembling a batched beam search. By doing so, we reduce the overall number of calls to the model (which depends on the number of divergent spans) by utilizing a larger batch. Additionally, we implement a hash table to track previously generated candidates, ensuring that we do not compute scores for the same sentence twice. Lastly, we incorporate an early exit mechanism, removing sentences for which no pending pseudo-generation step exists. These optimizations significantly impact the time complexity of our algorithm, which we empirically demonstrate to scale linearly with the number of candidates in Section 6.4.

A.3 Graphical Comparison of Main Scores

The BLEURT scores of various methods, LLMs and language pairs from Table 1 are represented as radar charts in Figure 6. The shapes corresponding to our proposal, QE-fusion, always extend outside the others (only beam search, MBR with COMET

and QE-reranking are plotted, for simplicity), for any of the four LLMs represented: Llama2-7B, Mistral-7B, ALMA-7B, and TowerBase-7B. The latter two models, though fine-tuned for MT, have large differences for is→en and de→fr.

Figure 6 also shows the BLEURT scores of various methods for the two NMT models, over the same language pairs as above, excluding zh→en, based on scores from Table 2. Again, QE-fusion extends outside the other shapes for both NMT models.

A.4 Results with Surface-based Metrics

We provide the results of surface-based metrics, like BLEU and ChrF, for LLMs in Table 4. The overall performance trends align with those of neural-based metrics, indicating that larger models consistently achieve higher scores. Once again, QE-fusion consistently surpasses reranking approaches. However, regarding surface-based metrics, beam search or greedy decoding frequently emerge as the top-performing methods, with our approach securing the second position.

The outputs of beam search often exhibit predictability, while sampling introduces a layer of creativity to translations. Unfortunately, surface-based metrics struggle to account for nuances like synonyms or significant restructuring, leading to potential penalties for such translations. This limitation has contributed to a decline in the popularity of surface-based metrics within the MT community. Nevertheless, even among traditional MT metrics, our approach outperforms all other sampling-based methods.

Table 5 presents BLEU and ChrF scores for the NMT models (two sizes of NLLB). Firstly, we observe that the NMT models perform significantly better than the LLMs in terms of surface-based metrics. This results is consistent with similar findings in the literature (Chowdhery et al., 2023; Hendy et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2023). The trend differs slightly compared to LLMs, as methods like QE-reranking and MBR score higher in terms of surface-based metrics, particularly for the high-resource pairs en→de and en→ru. This divergence can be attributed, once again, to the limited diversity in translations generated by MT models, while our approach facilitates more creative translations, potentially penalized by these metrics. Nevertheless, for pairs where MT models perform worse, such as is→en and de→fr, QE-fusion consistently outperforms reranking approaches and occasion-

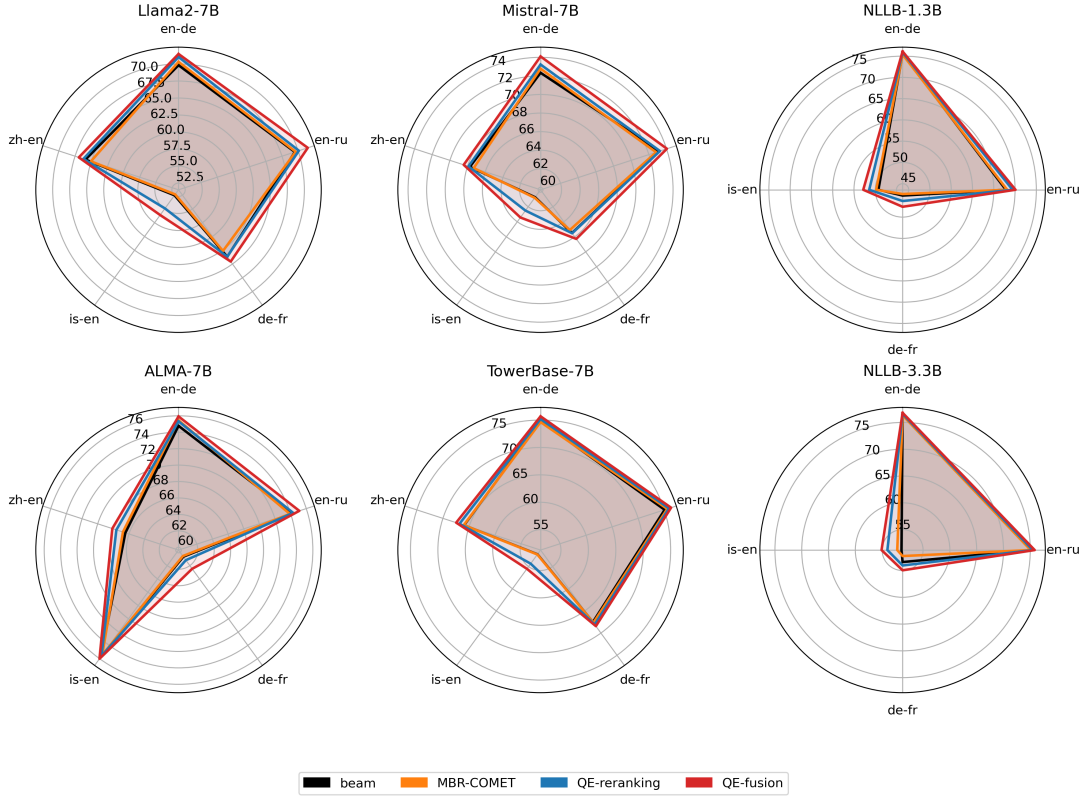


Figure 6: BLEURT scores for four methods combined with four LLMs and two NMT models, on five and four language pairs respectively.

ally beam search.

A.5 Results using LLMs with 13B Parameters

Tables 6 and 7 present the translation results for the larger, 13B versions of Llama2 and ALMA. The overall trend aligns with other LLMs: QE-fusion significantly outperforms reranking methods.

A.6 Temperature and Diversity

In Figure 7, we present additional results regarding the impact of temperature on translation performance and pool diversity. Specifically, we evaluate translation quality in terms of COMET, demonstrating similar results to those in Section 6.3 with BLEURT. Higher temperatures enhance the results of both QE-reranking and QE-fusion but excessively high temperature values lead to a drop in performance.

To measure diversity, we consider here two additional metrics: the average number of unique candidates in the pool and the semantic diversity, as defined by Farinhas et al. (2023), where $u(x, y)$ is the utility function, in this case COMET, and y_j, y_i represent two different candidates from the pool:

$$1 - \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{\substack{i,j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N u(y_j, y_i) \quad (1)$$

These diversity metrics exhibit similar trends to our lexical diversity findings, with diversity increasing as the temperature rises. These results confirm that LLMs tend to produce more diverse outputs, a fact that contributes to explaining why QE-fusion is more effective on LLM outputs than on NT ones.

Method	PolyLM-1.7B	XGLM-2.9B	LLM			
			Llama2-7B	Mistral-7B	ALMA-7B	Tower-7B
en→de						
Greedy	17.62 / 46.83	17.95 / 46.86	22.83 / 51.84	24.87 / 53.53	26.74 / 55.95	30.21 / 58.89
Beam	12.74 / 46.06	21.16 / 49.04	22.99 / 53.57	24.98 / 54.79	28.82 / 57.23	29.75 / 59.80
Sample	16.52 / 45.73	13.10 / 40.64	20.07 / 49.92	22.30 / 51.35	23.52 / 53.62	28.47 / 57.42
MBR-BLEU	19.11 / 47.85	18.40 / 46.88	22.26 / 51.26	23.78 / 52.84	25.97 / 55.21	30.35 / 58.77
MBR-COMET	18.94 / 48.22	17.65 / 46.84	22.37 / 51.95	24.18 / 53.40	25.91 / 55.64	30.51 / 59.03
QE-reranking	19.45 / 49.07	18.55 / 47.95	22.38 / 52.12	23.90 / 53.32	25.73 / 55.63	29.77 / 58.81
QE-fusion	20.40 / 50.27	19.39 / 49.11	23.17 / 52.95	24.26 / 54.17	25.94 / 56.02	29.64 / 58.95
en→ru						
Greedy	16.36 / 41.81	16.68 / 42.29	19.64 / 46.11	22.64 / 49.04	23.14 / 49.75	28.94 / 54.76
Beam	12.63 / 41.46	19.99 / 44.68	20.52 / 48.43	23.14 / 51.26	25.48 / 51.54	27.81 / 55.87
Sample	14.32 / 39.80	11.18 / 34.09	17.51 / 43.97	20.14 / 46.25	20.33 / 47.35	26.45 / 52.81
MBR-BLEU	17.42 / 42.31	16.38 / 41.20	19.51 / 45.85	22.27 / 48.24	22.77 / 49.25	28.76 / 54.41
MBR-COMET	16.84 / 42.77	15.31 / 40.92	19.12 / 46.09	21.81 / 48.55	22.07 / 49.52	28.29 / 54.52
QE-reranking	17.46 / 43.54	17.06 / 43.08	19.38 / 46.44	21.45 / 48.51	22.02 / 49.54	27.76 / 54.30
QE-fusion	18.32 / 44.89	17.34 / 43.95	20.04 / 47.32	22.06 / 49.44	22.43 / 50.30	27.94 / 54.75
zh→en						
Greedy	11.22 / 52.34	4.44 / 21.40	20.37 / 49.25	22.92 / 51.68	21.61 / 51.14	22.16 / 50.20
Beam	8.74 / 34.81	13.56 / 38.59	22.37 / 51.30	24.14 / 53.69	22.72 / 51.68	23.72 / 51.19
Sample	9.70 / 34.07	5.60 / 24.80	17.89 / 46.73	20.53 / 49.64	19.03 / 49.03	20.09 / 48.54
MBR-BLEU	11.20 / 36.60	8.93 / 31.87	19.98 / 49.01	22.39 / 51.70	20.87 / 50.79	21.90 / 50.26
MBR-COMET	10.85 / 36.23	8.73 / 32.24	19.17 / 48.67	21.76 / 51.43	20.35 / 50.73	21.56 / 50.12
QE-reranking	11.38 / 37.68	11.09 / 36.81	19.96 / 49.81	22.01 / 52.03	20.62 / 51.24	21.49 / 50.41
QE-fusion	12.46 / 39.36	11.58 / 37.64	20.44 / 50.72	22.31 / 52.63	20.93 / 51.92	22.06 / 51.33
de→fr						
Greedy	11.60 / 33.07	17.28 / 40.98	23.63 / 48.84	26.57 / 52.02	20.79 / 46.09	33.69 / 56.59
Beam	7.79 / 33.73	18.92 / 42.80	23.72 / 51.25	25.17 / 53.16	21.12 / 45.88	32.77 / 58.07
Sample	9.66 / 31.24	13.61 / 36.76	20.86 / 46.23	23.29 / 49.17	18.14 / 43.80	31.02 / 54.71
MBR-BLEU	12.15 / 34.57	16.45 / 40.93	23.14 / 48.45	25.54 / 51.05	20.37 / 45.83	32.90 / 56.36
MBR-COMET	11.82 / 34.52	16.08 / 41.08	22.81 / 48.62	25.31 / 51.46	19.92 / 45.81	32.92 / 56.62
QE-reranking	12.62 / 35.40	17.10 / 42.15	22.91 / 49.08	25.21 / 51.72	19.65 / 45.62	32.45 / 56.58
QE-fusion	13.18 / 36.31	18.10 / 43.24	23.55 / 50.01	25.36 / 52.26	20.76 / 46.90	31.97 / 56.77
is→en						
Greedy	—	—	14.68 / 36.57	22.60 / 44.73	35.72 / 58.20	14.84 / 36.76
Beam	—	—	15.47 / 37.03	22.49 / 45.64	37.34 / 59.26	14.48 / 37.02
Sample	—	—	13.70 / 35.03	20.14 / 43.08	32.20 / 55.48	13.54 / 35.61
MBR-BLEU	—	—	14.76 / 36.43	21.71 / 43.98	34.61 / 57.36	14.97 / 36.45
MBR-COMET	—	—	14.12 / 36.22	21.29 / 44.15	34.59 / 57.71	14.38 / 36.75
QE-reranking	—	—	15.00 / 37.36	21.95 / 45.31	34.37 / 57.69	15.25 / 37.56
QE-fusion	—	—	15.80 / 38.44	22.62 / 46.13	35.00 / 58.40	15.67 / 38.32

Table 4: Translation performance in terms of BLEU / ChrF scores for various methods, language pairs, and sizes of LLMs. Dotted lines separate deterministic decoding from existing sampling-based methods and from our approach.

Multilingual NMT		
Method	NLLB-1.3B	NLLB-3.3B
en→de		
Greedy	32.04 / 59.16	33.31 / 60.49
Beam	33.69 / 60.92	34.07 / 61.82
Sample	29.80 / 57.71	30.42 / 58.51
MBR-BLEU	31.49 / 58.48	32.19 / 59.81
MBR-COMET	31.19 / 59.00	32.11 / 60.18
QE-reranking	31.01 / 59.26	31.68 / 60.10
QE-fusion	30.90 / 59.41	31.59 / 60.32
en→ru		
Greedy	27.58 / 53.37	29.12 / 54.71
Beam	29.14 / 54.86	30.12 / 55.96
Sample	25.86 / 52.14	27.22 / 53.16
MBR-BLEU	27.34 / 53.19	28.62 / 54.36
MBR-COMET	27.42 / 53.51	28.55 / 54.50
QE-reranking	27.18 / 53.55	28.20 / 54.46
QE-fusion	26.98 / 53.60	28.18 / 54.74
de→fr		
Greedy	19.24 / 42.82	23.79 / 47.23
Beam	20.73 / 44.39	25.83 / 49.66
Sample	16.93 / 40.60	19.92 / 43.49
MBR-BLEU	19.23 / 43.00	23.10 / 46.76
MBR-COMET	18.79 / 42.81	22.93 / 46.91
QE-reranking	19.17 / 43.28	23.69 / 47.72
QE-fusion	19.54 / 43.80	24.10 / 48.35
is→en		
Greedy	14.61 / 37.02	17.10 / 40.19
Beam	15.63 / 37.77	17.15 / 40.07
Sample	13.47 / 35.99	15.73 / 39.33
MBR-BLEU	14.37 / 36.84	17.17 / 40.18
MBR-COMET	14.43 / 36.96	17.05 / 40.33
QE-reranking	14.55 / 37.43	17.38 / 40.92
QE-fusion	15.75 / 38.64	17.97 / 41.53

Table 5: Translation performance in terms of BLEU / ChrF scores for various methods, language pairs, and multilingual NMT models.

LLM		
Method	Llama2-13B	ALMA-13B
en→de		
Greedy	80.53 / 71.62	81.56 / 74.08
Beam	81.66 / 73.29	82.61 / 75.40
Sample	81.48 / 70.20	83.83 / 73.11
MBR-BLEU	82.36 / 71.03	84.37 / 73.77
MBR-COMET	85.08 / 73.41	86.04 / 75.40
QE-reranking	84.61 / 73.96	86.03 / 75.75
QE-fusion	85.17 / 74.41	86.32 / 76.09
en→ru		
Greedy	80.36 / 70.68	82.41 / 73.67
Beam	82.16 / 72.71	83.52 / 75.51
Sample	83.42 / 68.83	85.97 / 72.48
MBR-BLEU	84.19 / 69.94	86.80 / 73.42
MBR-COMET	87.01 / 72.44	88.54 / 75.12
QE-reranking	86.60 / 72.96	88.17 / 75.42
QE-fusion	87.20 / 73.60	88.53 / 76.03
zh→en		
Greedy	76.56 / 66.27	76.95 / 67.18
Beam	77.55 / 67.30	77.63 / 68.15
Sample	78.53 / 65.19	79.28 / 66.05
MBR-BLEU	79.28 / 66.08	79.83 / 66.83
MBR-COMET	80.60 / 66.97	81.20 / 67.76
QE-reranking	80.54 / 67.60	81.13 / 68.44
QE-fusion	80.94 / 68.04	81.58 / 68.96
de→fr		
Greedy	78.13 / 63.88	77.83 / 60.69
Beam	79.68 / 65.86	79.75 / 61.70
Sample	77.88 / 61.84	75.53 / 57.78
MBR-BLEU	78.88 / 63.42	77.01 / 59.62
MBR-COMET	81.35 / 65.73	79.88 / 62.39
QE-reranking	80.99 / 66.43	79.24 / 62.52
QE-fusion	81.63 / 67.11	79.73 / 63.36
is→en		
Greedy	67.28 / 56.63	80.40 / 75.18
Beam	68.77 / 58.14	80.69 / 75.47
Sample	70.63 / 56.02	85.21 / 74.16
MBR-BLEU	71.18 / 56.71	85.96 / 75.04
MBR-COMET	73.72 / 58.12	86.67 / 75.65
QE-reranking	74.00 / 59.93	86.65 / 76.04
QE-fusion	74.90 / 61.17	86.82 / 76.21

Table 6: Translation performance in terms of COMET / BLEURT scores of LLMs (13 billion parameters) for various methods and language pairs.

Method	LLM	
	Llama2-13B	ALMA-13B
en→de		
Greedy	26.40 / 54.83	28.56 / 57.35
Beam	26.43 / 56.22	30.27 / 59.04
Sample	23.96 / 52.94	26.46 / 55.68
MBR-BLEU	25.39 / 54.04	28.53 / 56.88
MBR-COMET	25.27 / 54.45	28.26 / 57.10
QE-reranking	25.57 / 54.81	28.33 / 57.52
QE-fusion	26.08 / 55.49	28.10 / 57.66
en→ru		
Greedy	23.30 / 49.84	26.56 / 52.12
Beam	23.72 / 51.17	27.86 / 54.04
Sample	21.10 / 47.81	23.55 / 49.80
MBR-BLEU	22.76 / 49.14	25.49 / 51.38
MBR-COMET	22.67 / 49.59	25.13 / 51.54
QE-reranking	22.56 / 49.51	24.75 / 51.44
QE-fusion	22.90 / 50.24	24.92 / 52.05
zh→en		
Greedy	22.48 / 51.63	24.27 / 53.92
Beam	24.48 / 53.73	26.58 / 55.13
Sample	19.70 / 49.36	21.73 / 51.81
MBR-BLEU	21.98 / 51.41	23.46 / 53.52
MBR-COMET	21.42 / 51.34	23.05 / 53.59
QE-reranking	21.51 / 51.63	23.37 / 53.93
QE-fusion	21.70 / 52.02	23.32 / 54.36
de→fr		
Greedy	26.67 / 51.87	23.11 / 47.54
Beam	25.49 / 53.13	21.69 / 45.03
Sample	24.33 / 49.44	20.46 / 44.98
MBR-BLEU	26.19 / 51.31	22.56 / 46.83
MBR-COMET	25.97 / 51.68	22.55 / 47.04
QE-reranking	26.62 / 52.18	21.82 / 46.54
QE-fusion	26.71 / 52.70	22.39 / 47.35
is→en		
Greedy	19.82 / 41.59	34.75 / 57.55
Beam	19.92 / 42.40	35.72 / 58.00
Sample	17.48 / 39.97	31.05 / 54.90
MBR-BLEU	19.50 / 41.43	33.52 / 56.70
MBR-COMET	18.99 / 41.32	33.33 / 56.62
QE-reranking	19.53 / 42.12	34.27 / 57.74
QE-fusion	20.40 / 43.14	34.48 / 58.12

Table 7: Translation performance of LLMs (13 billion parameters) in terms of BLEU / ChrF scores for various methods and language pairs.

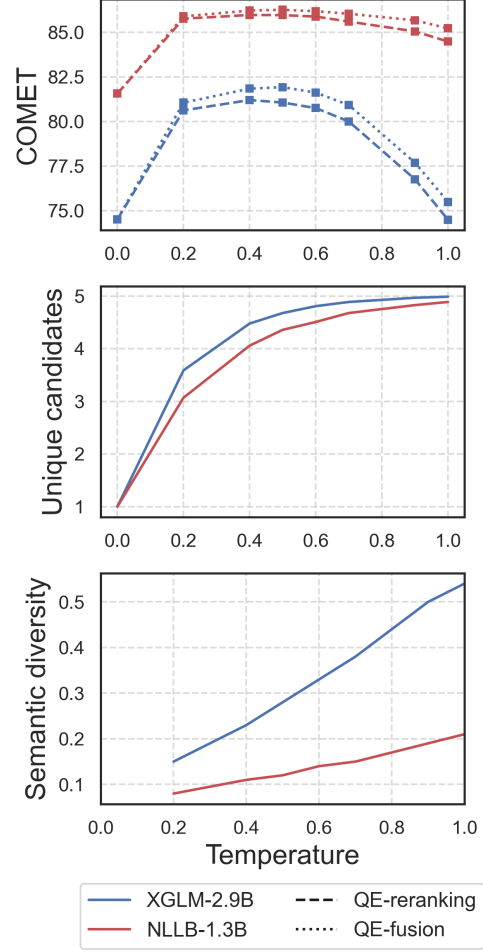


Figure 7: Effect of temperature on the diversity of the pool (below) and its resulting impact on translation performance (above) using LLMs and NMT models for en→de translation.