

Automatic error classification with multiple error labels

Maja Popović
ADAPT Centre
Dublin City University
Ireland

maja.popovic@adaptcentre.ie

David Vilar
Amazon
Germany
dvilar@amazon.com

Abstract

Although automatic classification of machine translation errors still cannot provide the same detailed granularity as manual error classification, it is an important task which enables estimation of translation errors and better understanding of the analyzed MT system, in a short time and on a large scale. State-of-the-art methods use hard decisions to assign single error labels to each word. This work presents first results of a new error classification method, which assigns multiple error labels to each word. We assign fractional counts for each label, which can be interpreted as a confidence for the label. Our method generates sensible multi-error suggestions, and improves the correlation between manual and automatic error distributions.

1 Introduction

Translations produced by machine translation (MT) systems have been evaluated mostly in terms of overall performance scores, either by manual evaluations (ALPAC, 1966; White et al., 1994; Graham et al., 2017; Federmann, 2018) or by automatic metrics (Papineni et al., 2002; Lavie and Denkowski, 2009; Snover et al., 2006; Popović, 2015; Wang et al., 2016). All these overall scores give an indication of the general performance of a given system, but they do not provide any additional information. Translation error analysis, both manual (Vilar et al., 2006; Farrús et al., 2010; Lommel et al.,

2014b) as well as automatic (Popović and Ney, 2011; Zeman et al., 2011), as a way to identify weaknesses of the systems and define priorities for their improvement, has received a fair amount of attention in the MT community. Although automatic error classification still cannot deal with fine-grained error taxonomies, it represents a valuable tool for fast and large scale translation error analysis. With the emergence of neural MT systems, first insights about the differences between the neural approach and the then state-of-the-art statistical phrase-based approach were obtained by using automatic error classification. Bentivogli et al. (2016) analyzed four MT systems for English into German by comparing different TER (Snover et al., 2006) scores and sub-scores, and Toral and Sánchez-Cartagena (2017) applied the WER-based approach proposed by Popović and Ney (2011) for a multilingual and multi-faceted evaluation of eighteen MT systems for nine translation directions including six languages from four different families.

So far, automatic error classification is based on hard decisions about the error class for a given word. Addicter (Zeman et al., 2011) uses a first-order Markov model for aligning reference words with hypothesis words, and Popović and Ney (2011) use WER alignments; both methods assign only one single error label for each word. However, the assumption that each word can be tagged with only one error category can be somewhat restrictive. Human annotators' feedback (Popović and Burchardt, 2011; Lommel et al., 2014a; Klubička et al., 2018) have pointed out that sometimes it is not completely clear what error category should be assigned to a word (e.g. it is difficult to differentiate a lexical error from a missing or extra word, or to decide which word

reference: in some places **rents will even rise**
hypothesis: in some places **even grow rents**

Possible ambiguities:

- which words should be tagged as reordering errors, “rents” or “even”?
- “rise”/“grow” can be reordering errors too, and lexical errors at the same time
- are “will”, “rise” and “grow” lexical errors, or “will” and “rise” are missing words and “grow” is an extra word?

Figure 1: Examples of potentially ambiguous error labels both for human annotators as well as for automatic tools: the decision about lexical errors vs missing and extra words, and determining an exact span for reordering errors.

span should be tagged as a reordering issue), or it may be the case that a generated word should be assigned more than one error (e.g. a lexical and a reordering error). Examples of such cases can be seen in Figure 1.

In this work we propose to expand the automatic error classification approach by suggesting multiple error categories for each word. Additionally, with each error category we are able to assign a (fractional) count which intuitively can be interpreted as a confidence for each error category. Since, to the best of our knowledge, this represents the first attempt of multi-label automatic classification, we first explore what kind of multi-error suggestions are generated by our method. We then compare our results with manual error annotations and with the method based on a single WER alignment. As translation corpora with manual error analysis allowing multiple labels are not yet available, we evaluate our method by computing the correlation of the global distribution of errors with human assigned labels. We also try to gain insights about the behaviour of the system and find out that the system makes sensible multi-error suggestions.

2 Error classification method

As starting point for our method we take the approach proposed by Popović and Ney (2011) which is based on a combination of WER and PER statistics on different forms of the words (surface, base forms). WER is defined as (a normalized version of) the edit distance (Levenshtein,

1966), whereas PER is Position-independent word Error Rate which does not take the word order into account. The described method identifies actual words which contribute to WER as well as to two types of PER called “Reference PER” (RPER) and “Hypothesis PER” (HPER) corresponding to recall and precision. The dynamic programming (DP) algorithm for WER enables a simple and straightforward identification of each word which contributes to the edit distance. The WER operations are called “substitutions”, “deletions” and “insertions”. The PER metric is based on reference and hypothesis word counts without distinguishing which words are deletions, which insertions, and which are substitutions. Therefore two alternative PER-based measures which correspond to the recall and precision are introduced, RPER and HPER. The RPER errors are defined as the words in the reference which do not appear in the hypothesis, and the HPER errors are the words in the hypothesis which do not appear in the reference. Once the WER, RPER and HPER errors have been identified, the base forms for each word are used in order to distinguish the following five error classes:

- inflectional error (“infl”): a word which contributes to WER and PER, but its base form does not
- reordering error (“ord”): a word which contributes to WER but not to PER
- missing word (“miss”): a WER deletion which also contributes to RPER
- extra word (“ext”): a WER insertion which also contributes to HPER
- lexical error (“lex”): a WER substitution which also contributes to RPER/HPER

The edit distance is well defined as a value, and the alignment between the two strings being compared can be obtained as a by-product. However, there are several optimal alignments (or paths in the dynamic programming trellis) that produce the same distance, e.g. often a series of “insertion” and “deletion” operations can be reordered without affecting the resulting distance, or different words can be chosen as “substitution” operations. An example can be seen in Figure 2. How to choose among all the possible alternatives is normally implementation dependent (e.g. the first op-

	let	us	see	an	example	
	<u>us</u>	<u>see</u>	see	an	example	
—	—	—	—	—	—	—
let	us	see		an	example	
—	us	see	+see+	an	example	
—	—	—	—	—	—	—
let	us		see	an	example	
—	us	+see+	see	an	example	

Figure 2: Three possible alignments with edit distance 2 between the reference “let us see an example” and the hypothesis “us see see an example”. Insertions are marked as +insertion+, deletions as — and substitutions are underlined.

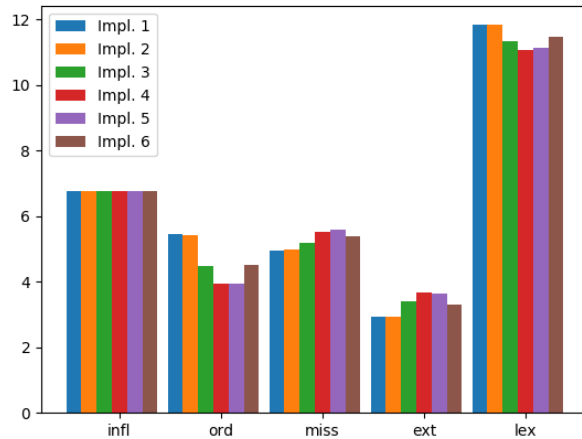


Figure 3: Distribution of error categories using different criteria for selecting the best WER alignments. The height of the bars corresponds to the percentage of each error (words classified as correct are not included), the different colors correspond to different implementations.

eration checked in the code) and does not have any linguistic motivation.

While this discussion may appear academic at first sight, it does have an important effect when these alignments are used for defining error categories. Figure 3 illustrates this effect, where we show 6 different strategies for defining WER alignments (based on different precedence of checking “insertion”, “deletion” and “substitution” operations).

On the other hand, the fact that a word can be involved in different WER operations can give additional information to be used for error classification. In this work we take into account all optimal WER alignments and collect statistics of all possible edit operations for each word. We collect the alignment statistics (the counts of each operation for each word) using dynamic programming with memoization (using a Depth-First Search strategy). Further combination with PER counts is ap-

plied in the same way as in (Popović and Ney, 2011), but instead of combining it with one single WER operation, it is combined with each possible WER operation on the given word thus providing all possible error classes for this word.

All possible paths for minimal edit distance between the reference and the hypothesis from the example from Figure 2 are presented in Table 1. Minimal edit distance is 2, and it can be reached by three paths. The standard version of the error classification method described in (Popović and Ney, 2011) takes only one path into account, therefore each word in the reference and in the hypothesis is labelled with only one edit operation and thus with one error class. The method proposed in this work collects the edit operations from all paths in the following way:

- deletions are counted only for reference words
- insertions are counted only for hypothesis words
- for each reference word, label counts are collected from each cell in its column in the DP trellis
- for each hypothesis word, label counts are collected for each cell in its row in the DP trellis

In this way, in the example in Table 1 the hypothesis word “see” at the second position has one “substitution” label (from the cell aligned with the reference word “us”) as well as one “x”¹ and one “insertion” (from the cell aligned with the reference word “see”). The reference word “see” has two labels “x” (one from the first hypothesis word “see” and one from the second one), however no “insertion” operations.

For each word, each edit operation together with associated PER counts defines an error category as described above. Fractional counts for each error class are obtained by dividing the count of the given error class with the total count of all encountered classes for this word. In our example, the first hypothesis word “see” has three error labels “x” (no edit operations, correct word), “sub” (substitution) and “ins” (insertion) and each of them is seen once. Thus, the total count for this word is 3, and probability for each class is $\frac{1}{3} = 0.33$.

¹We denote with “x” the “match” operation, i.e. when the hypothesis and reference words are the same.

hyp↓	let	us	ref→ see	an	example
us	1 sub ↘ 2,3 del →	2, 3 x ↘			
see		1 sub ↘	2 x ↘ 3 ins ↓		
see			1,3 x ↘	2 ins ↓	
an				1,2,3 x ↘	
example					1, 2,3 x ↘

Table 1: Three possible paths in the dynamic programming trellis for minimal edit distance for the Example from Figure 2: path1 = "sub sub x x x", path2 = "del x x ins x x" and path3 = "del x ins x x x". Standard WER takes only one path (e.g. path1 in bold) into account.

When collecting statistics over a segment or a full corpus, in order to compute the error distributions these fractional counts are summed over all words. Thus, the total amount of errors can be a fractional number as well. Note that we can still normalise it by the total number of words in the segment/document to obtain a normalized error rate, as the fractional counts for each word sum up to 1.

Table 2 presents single and multiple error labels for the potentially ambiguous error categories from Figure 1. It can be seen that the multi-label method assigns multiple error cases to the words which can be ambiguous even for a human annotator.

3 Evaluation setup

We applied the new method as well as the single WER path method described in (Popović and Ney, 2011) to the publicly available test sets from the TERRA corpus (Fishel et al., 2012) and PE2RR corpus (Popović and Arčan, 2016) designed for evaluating automatic error classification. In addition to translation hypotheses and post-edits (PE2RR) or references (TERRA), manual error annotations are also available. The statistics of the test corpora are shown in Table 3.

The main differences between the two data sets are (i) post-edited MT hypotheses are available in PE2RR (and standard reference translations in TERRA), (ii) manual error annotation in PE2RR is based on correcting automatically assigned labels whereas in TERRA it is performed from scratch. All results are reported separately for each of the data sets.

4 Distribution of error labels

Our first experiment aims to explore the nature and frequency of the error label suggestions generated by the new method. The distributions of error labels in the form of relative frequencies are shown in Table 4 for both test sets.

Apart from some small variations, the main tendencies are the same for the two test sets. The majority of multiple labels are double labels, the most frequent ones being "lex+miss", "lex+ext" and "x+reord". They involve the single labels which are, as mentioned in the introduction, reported to be difficult to disambiguate, even for human annotators. Other types of double labels can make sense in certain circumstances but are significantly less frequent. Two types of triple labels are found, too, "x+lex+ext" and "x+lex+miss", but their frequency is also low.

Further analysis of the three most frequent double labels is shown in Table 5. The majority of "lex+miss" labels has the same fractional counts, namely 0.5. For the "lex+ext" label the equal counts are the most frequent in the PE2RR corpus, whereas in the TERRA corpus the majority of instances has higher fractional count for the "lex" category. For both multiple labels and in both corpora, there are much more higher fractional counts for the "lex" category than for "miss" or "ext". As for the "x+reord" label, almost two thirds have a higher count for reordering, one third has equal counts, whereas instances with higher counts for correct word are very rare.

reference	rents	will	even	rise
single labels	reord	lex	reord	lex
multiple labels	reord	lex+miss	x+reord	lex+miss
frac. counts	1.00	0.50+0.50	0.25+0.75	0.67+0.33
hypothesis	even	grow	rents	
single labels	reord	lex	reord	
multiple labels	x+reord	lex+ext	reord	
frac. counts	0.33+0.67	0.75+0.25	1.00	

Table 2: Example from Figure 1 with single error labels and with multiple error labels together with their fractional counts.

corpus	hyps	sents	words	langs
PE2RR	11	2896	40138	8
TERRA	7	436	6293	2

Table 3: Statistics of the used error annotated corpora: number of different translation hypotheses, number of sentences in all hypotheses, number of running words in all hypotheses, and number of different language pairs.

5 Comparison with manual error annotations

5.1 Pearson correlations

An automatic error classification method can be used to detect weak and strong points of individual translation systems, as well as to compare different translation systems. In order to estimate and compare the reliability of the error classification methods we compute the Pearson correlation with human annotations in two different ways:

- **interClass**
For each translated segment, correlation with the manual annotation is calculated over all error classes.
- **interHyp**
For each error class, correlation with manual annotation is calculated over all translation segments.

We compare two methods: single error labels (*single*) and our proposed multi-label method (*frac*). For each of the methods, the extracted error counts are compared with the error counts obtained by manual annotation. For computing error counts on the segment level, we just sum the (fractional) counts.

The correlation coefficients are presented in Table 6. The interClass correlation coefficients are very high for both methods on both corpora, with our proposed *frac* method having better correlation on the TERRA corpus. For the interHyp corre-

lations, there is no difference for inflectional errors between both test sets. Reordering (reord) and lexical (lex) errors as well as correct words (x) have similar correlations on PE2RR and improved correlations on TERRA, whereas the correlation for missing words is improved on both corpora. Correlation for extra words, however, increased on PE2RR data but decreased on TERRA data. Previous work (Popović and Burchardt, 2011) defined this error class as not reliable enough, so further and deeper analysis focused on this class would be a possible direction for future work.

It can be noted that the majority of improvements are achieved on TERRA data, where only standard reference translations are available, and no post-edited MT hypotheses. This scenario represents a more difficult task for automatic classification (as mentioned in Section 3), and it also represents a more realistic scenario – one reference translation can be used for large-scale evaluations involving many different MT systems, whereas producing a post-edited version for each MT system would be very time- and resource-consuming.

5.2 Analysis of differences

The most intuitive method for further analysis of differences between the *single* and *frac* approaches would be to calculate precision and recall for each error label. However standard precision and recall are not convenient metrics for evaluating our method since the manual annotations consist of only one label, so that adding multiple labels would be penalised by this metric (specifically by the precision term).

Thus, in order to better understand the differences between the *single* and *frac* methods, we conducted an ad-hoc analysis. For each word that was assigned more than one error category, we distinguish two cases:

Adding correct information The *single* label

	PE2RR		TERRA	
	label(s)	rel.freq.	label(s)	rel.freq.
single labels	x	71.2	x	43.5
	lex	7.7	lex	17.5
	infl	7.3	reord	7.4
	reord	3.1	infl	5.7
	miss	1.2	miss	1.5
	ext	0.6	ext	0.6
double labels	lex + miss	3.6	lex + miss	11.8
	lex + ext	2.9	lex + ext	6.5
	x + reord	2.1	x + reord	3.9
	x + lex	0.1	x + lex	0.8
	x + infl	0.03	x + miss	0.08
	x + miss	0.02	x + ext	0.08
	x + ext	0.01		
triple labels	x + lex + ext	0.06	x + lex + miss	0.4
	x + lex + miss	0.04	x + lex + ext	0.3

Table 4: Relative frequencies of multiple error labels for PE2RR and TERRA.

	<i>frac</i> counts	PE2RR	TERRA
		%	%
lex + miss	<i>0.50 + 0.50</i>	62.4	52.3
	lex > miss	28.8	40.4
	lex < miss	8.8	7.3
lex + ext	<i>0.50 + 0.50</i>	59.9	42.7
	lex > ext	34.5	53.1
	lex < ext	5.6	4.2
x + reord	<i>0.50 + 0.50</i>	38.1	31.6
	x > reord	0.3	0.8
	x < reord	61.6	67.6

Table 5: Most frequent multiple error labels and the relation between their fractional counts.

was incorrect and the expanded method is able to add the correct label.

Adding noise The *single* label was already correct, therefore the additional labels generated by our method do not improve the system.

Statistics about these two categories are shown in Table 7. Improvements are dependent of the correct error category so no global conclusion can be drawn. The single label method tends to incorrectly label missing and extra words as lexical errors. In this case the additional error labels are helpful, whereas for the true “lex” category they are adding noise. In addition to that, the new method helps identifying correct words which the single method tags as reordering errors.

For both “lex+miss” and “lex+ext”, about 15-40% instances are adding information, however

even more instances are adding noise (25-60%). The most frequent case is when both manual and single label are “lex” (in which case no additional suggestions are needed), followed by the manual “ext” or “miss” tagged as “lex” (where additional “miss” or “ext” label can be helpful). The third frequent case is when the correct label is “miss” or “ext”, and the least frequent case is helping to identify “lex” when it is labelled as “ext” or “miss”.

The “x+reord” label mainly helps for correct words labelled as reordering error, especially for TERRA, where a number of superfluous errors are assigned by the automatic system. For PE2RR, this effect is much smaller, whereas introducing multiple label for already correctly labelled reordering errors is dominant.

corpus	method	interClass correlations	interHyp correlations					
			infl	reord	ext	lex	miss	x
PE2RR	<i>single</i>	.869	.772	.856	.664	.782	.809	.982
	<i>frac</i>	.869	.772	.852	.676	.781	.813	.982
TERRA	<i>single</i>	.891	.820	.586	.533	.502	.537	.537
	<i>frac</i>	.936	.820	.602	.520	.521	.610	.544

Table 6: Pearson correlations comparison between error classes (interClass) and between translation hypotheses (interHyp)

multiple labels	<i>single</i>	<i>man</i>	<i>frac</i> is adding	PE2RR %	TERRA %
lex+miss	miss	lex	inform.	11.4	7.5
	lex	miss	inform.	26.0	12.3
	lex	lex	noise	28.6	21.1
	miss	miss	noise	25.3	9.8
lex+ext	ext	lex	inform.	12.6	4.7
	lex	ext	inform.	19.6	8.1
	lex	lex	noise	39.2	21.1
	ext	ext	noise	18.2	4.7
x+order	reord	x	inform.	24.2	59.4
	x	reord	inform.	1.5	2.3
	x	x	noise	7.9	16.8
	reord	reord	noise	66.1	19.9

Table 7: Percentage of multiple labels which adds information (if *single* label is incorrect but one in the double label is) and those which do not.

6 Summary

In this paper we proposed an automatic error classification method for machine translation based on edit distance which assigns multiple error labels to each word and enables calculating error label probabilities. The main findings of our experiments are:

- The most frequent multiple error labels are “lex+miss” and “lex+ext”, followed by “x+reord”. These error categories have been reported by human annotators to be difficult to differentiate, thus our method seems to generate sensible multi-error suggestions and to model this effect correctly.
- The use of fractional counts increases the correlation of error distribution with human judgements, especially for the more difficult and more realistic TERRA test set. We explain this as a useful confidence-like measure for the labels, which correlates with the uncertainty on human labels.

The described work offers several possibilities for future work taking better advantage of the frac-

tional counts. One issue we encountered when evaluating our method is that the available data sets for the evaluation of error classification methods have single labels. We tried to evaluate our approach assigning to each word the label with the highest fractional count, but this did not lead to an increase in accuracy (despite the better correlation with error distribution judgements). Given the fact that human annotators’ feedback indicates a potential for assigning multiple labels, one interesting direction would be to generate new data sets supporting this labelling scheme and compute standard measures like precision and recall on this data.

Despite of not having ideal evaluation conditions, preliminary manual inspection of the assigned labels gives us confidence that the method will be useful and interesting for further research.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the ADAPT Centre for Digital Content Technology at Dublin City University, funded under the Science Foundation Ireland Research Centres Programme (Grant

13/RC/2106) and co-funded under the European Regional Development Fund.

References

- ALPAC. 1966. Language and machines. Computers in translation and linguistics.
- Bentivogli, Luisa, Arianna Bisazza, Mauro Cettolo, and Marcello Federico. 2016. Neural versus Phrase-Based Machine Translation Quality: a Case Study. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP 2016)*, pages 257–267, Austin, Texas, November.
- Farrús, Mireia, Marta Ruiz Costa-Jussà, José Bernardo Mariño, and José Adrián Rodríguez Fonollosa. 2010. Linguistic-based Evaluation Criteria to Identify Statistical Machine Translation Errors. In *Proceedings of the 14th Annual Conference of the European Association for Machine Translation (EAMT 2010)*, pages 167–173, Saint-Raphael, France, May.
- Federmann, Christian. 2018. Appraise evaluation framework for machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Computational Linguistics (COLING 2018): System Demonstrations*, pages 86–88, Santa Fe, New Mexico, August.
- Fishel, Mark, Ondřej Bojar, and Maja Popović. 2012. Terra: a Collection of Translation Error-Annotated Corpora. In *Proceedings of the Eighth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2012)*, pages 7–14, Istanbul, Turkey, May.
- Graham, Yvette, Timothy Baldwin, Alistair Moffat, and Justin Zobel. 2017. Can machine translation systems be evaluated by the crowd alone. *Natural Language Engineering*, 23(1):3–30.
- Klubička, Filip, Antonio Toral, and Víctor M. Sánchez-Cartagena. 2018. Quantitative fine-grained human evaluation of machine translation systems: a case study on English to Croatian. *Machine Translation*, 32(3):195–215.
- Lavie, Alon and Michael J. Denkowski. 2009. The METEOR Metric for Automatic Evaluation of Machine Translation. *Machine Translation*, 23(2-3):105–115, September.
- Levenshtein, Vladimir Iosifovich. 1966. Binary Codes Capable of Correcting Deletions, Insertions and Reversals. *Soviet Physics Doklady*, 10:707–710, February.
- Lommel, Arle, Maja Popović, and Aljoscha Burchardt. 2014a. Assessing inter-annotator agreement for translation error annotation. In *Proceedings of the LREC Workshop on Automatic and Manual Metrics for Operational Translation Evaluation*, Reykjavik, Iceland, May.
- Lommel, Arle Richard, Aljoscha Burchardt, and Hans Uszkoreit. 2014b. Multidimensional quality metrics (mqm): A framework for declaring and describing translation quality metrics. *Tradumàtica: tecnologies de la traducció*, pages 455–463, 12.
- Papineni, Kishore, Salim Roukos, Todd Ward, and Wie-Jing Zhu. 2002. BLEU: a Method for Automatic Evaluation of Machine Translation. In *Proceedings of the 40th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL 2002)*, pages 311–318, Philadelphia, PA, July.
- Popović, Maja and Mihael Arčan. 2016. PE2rr Corpus: Manual Error Annotation of Automatically Pre-annotated MT Post-edits. In *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2016)*, Portorož, Slovenia, May.
- Popović, Maja and Aljoscha Burchardt. 2011. From human to automatic error classification for machine translation output. In *Proceedings of the 15th International Conference of the European Association for Machine Translation (EAMT 2011)*, Leuven, Belgium, May.
- Popović, Maja and Hermann Ney. 2011. Towards automatic error analysis of machine translation output. *Computational Linguistics*, 37(4), December.
- Popović, Maja. 2015. chrF: character n-gram F-score for automatic MT evaluation. In *Proceedings of the Tenth Workshop on Statistical Machine Translation (WMT 2015)*, pages 392–395, Lisbon, Portugal, September.
- Snoover, Matthew, Bonnie J. Dorr, Richard M. Schwartz, and Linnea Micciulla. 2006. A study of translation edit rate with targeted human annotation. In *Proceedings of the 7th Conference of Association for Machine Translation in the Americas (AMTA 2006)*, pages 223–231, Cambridge, MA, August.
- Toral, Antonio and Víctor Manuel Sánchez-Cartagena. 2017. A Multifaceted Evaluation of Neural versus Statistical Machine Translation for 9 Language Directions. In *Proceedings of the 15th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL 2017)*, Valencia, Spain, April.
- Vilar, David, Jia Xu, Luis Fernando D’haro, and Hermann Ney. 2006. Error analysis of statistical machine translation output. In *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2006)*, Genoa, Italy, May.
- Wang, Weiyue, Jan-Thorsten Peter, Hendrik Rosendahl, and Hermann Ney. 2016. Character: Translation edit rate on character level. In *Proceedings of the 1st Conference on Machine Translation (WMT 2016)*, pages 505–510, Berlin, Germany, August. Association for Computational Linguistics.

White, John, Theresa OConnell, and Francis OMara. 1994. The ARPA MT evaluation methodologies: evolution, lessons, and future approaches. In *Proceedings of the 1994 Conference of Association for Machine Translation in the Americas (AMTA 1994)*, pages 193–205.

Zeman, Daniel, Mark Fishel, Jan Berka, and Ondrej Bojar. 2011. Addicter: What is wrong with my translations? *The Prague Bulletin of Mathematical Linguistics*, 96:79–88.