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Two Memory-Based Methods for Phrase Alignment

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Abstract—This document presents two bilingual phrase-based alignment methods handling syntactic constituents (sub-sentential components) of parallel sentences. The methods rely on an asymmetrical parsing of both languages: Light part-of-speech tagging for the target language, syntactic tree building for the 'source' language and the complexity of each is studied. One of their benefits is that they do not require lexical knowledge for granting alignment. Another is that they align constituents of variable length and structure, thus providing information about divergent translations. Their originality rely on the fact that parsing of the supposed source language is reused both in resource building and alignment process. The models and methods can be seen as a subclass of Example Based Machine Translation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Automatic sub-sentential alignment is one of the basic tasks preceding machine translation (MT). It is performed to enhance its efficiency, by increasing translation memories and resources with human translated data. It is seen as a cornerstone in MT. Sub-sentential alignment needs parallel bilingual corpora. It aims at automatically providing translation links between sentences *constituents*, i.e., words or multiword expressions, smaller than a sentence, within a pair of parallel sentences. Two items are particularly crucial in such a task: Alignment relevance and alignment requirements (paradigm, methods, resources). Both are related. Classical models, still representative, focus on word-to-word alignments. Late researches in alignment tend to favor a granularity bigger than the single word (e.g. [6], [8]). Detecting relevant phrases for alignment can motivate the use for syntactical information. In representative rule-based systems, rules are either applied in a pre-ordained fashion, or in a "first best-value" approach (statistically based, thus mixing statistical and symbolic methods). In different cases, rules overlapping conflicts are differently solved. Most of the time, such process relevance is less discussed than rule shapes. We will try here to discuss the role of rules shape through both problematics of tractability and linguistic relevance. We will also discuss the choices of the shapes proposed for the rules and the role they play in the alignment process. The methods described hereafter are example-based methods that use an 'alignment memory', which is a learned set of segments. These segments can be seen as bilingual phrase couples presenting internal links. The process asynchronously combines alignment constraints in order to maximize coverage (in an EBMT style) . The method is partly supervised: The present system introduces a learning feature. The information acquisition process is facilitated by a graphical human interface. One of the original features of

this method is that the process can align word segments as well as syntactic patterns. It relies on an asymmetrical effort in syntactic processing: A constituent and dependence parser is used for the source, and a POS tagger for the target. No dictionary or lexical resources are *a priori* required. The next section details related alignment methods. Section 3 presents our model, and section 4, a first experiment with some results. Conclusion will shed light on the work extensions and further developments.

II. RELATED WORKS: TREE-BASED ALIGNMENT METHODS

The literature on alignment is abundant, and some works have already been mentioned in introduction. The founding work in alignment is attributed to Brown et al. at IBM [2]. The GIZA++ system [16] which is based on these IBM models, has evolved through time from a pure lexical to a sophisticated tool relying on a complex language model to account for translation divergence. It's still widely used in alignment literature (e.g. in [11], [6]). Syntactic trees as elements of the alignment process have appeared with [21]. Since then, hybrid systems, embedding syntactical information in a statistical model emerged as well as purely symbolic approaches. The use of structural information brought by syntax is claimed to be helpful for different reasons among which we can quote :

- 1) Preventing alignments violating linguistic structural properties (e.g.,[5])
- 2) Propagating alignments according to parent-child links (e.g., [13] [17])
- 3) Predicting an alignment with a POS tag, when the lexicon does not provide information [5]
- 4) Generating structures that accelerate the rule-base building process in a data driven approach (e.g. [12]).

Another aspect of this model tries to take advantage of the syntax: it is an example-based alignment model sharing common issues with example-based MT (EBMT). EBMT tries to imitate the human translation by analogy. It is an intuitive approach consisting in storing pieces of translations already met in the past, getting the relevant ones in a new situation, then combining the pieces to obtain a solution. The first suggestion of EBMT issues is attributed to Makato Nagao in [14]. He clearly defined the three important steps of an EBMT process:(1) Matching fragments from a database,(2) filtering and (3) combining. Nagao claims that a human translation process doesn't involve a deep analysis structure but relies on analogy between generic fragments. This idea motivates the whole example-based approach. EBMT literature agrees

that fragments size must be at the sub-sentential level for 'genericness' reasons [7] (Identical sentences occur only rarely), but raises in turn the issue of recombining fragments in a way that preserves language structure and meaning [18]. Furthermore, it is known that linguistically motivated patterns are of a benefits [11]. For these reasons we thought it was necessary to resort to deep syntactic informations to tackle the segmentation part. Then, when recombining fragments from examples, one must choose a good matching measure. In [15], the author observes that "the simplest metric is a complete match" and proposes a heuristic: "Quality of a match is proportional to a measure of contiguity of matching". This classical argument in EBMT can also be found in SMT phrase-based methods like in deNero [8]. Our method sticks to this approach, although the recombining effort in an alignment method is quite different from an EBMT as we'll see in the next section. Finally, the shape the patterns should take in EBMT, is also motivated by a correct reuse. Efforts must be done to make the fragments as generic as possible without losing consistency during the recombining process. The pattern generalization of Brown's method [3], which uses syntactic analysis to replace some words with their classes or categories, generalizes them to a much wider set of applications. This approach emphasizes the gain of generalization by showing an accelerating efficiency in the treatment. The methods detailed hereafter make an extensive use of the generalization with POS tags information.

The aim of this work is to try to evaluate the viability of an original aligner close to EBMT paradigms, deterministic and asynchronous. As an early experiment, we reduced the use of lexical information to a strict minimum, then allowing to handle non-compositional translations and accelerating fragment acquisition. It is certain that, in some future work, a word to word alignment based on lexical information will be considered since the model is meant to be embedded in some larger process. Thus, a crucial perspective of this work is to enrich a translation memory as a sort of 'super' lexicon of equivalent expressions, involving stylistic idiosyncrasies of both languages.

III. MODEL AND METHOD

The pair of considered languages are respectively French and English (available parsing resources). The parsing of the French source sentence is carried out by SYGFRAN [4] which provides a deep syntactic tree. TreeTagger [19] is used for English POS tagging task. TreeTagger has not been used for French since it does not offer enough syntactic information (no deep tree structure). Therefore the method is asymmetrical.

A. Elements of the model

The model relies on a set of fragments, which are divided into two parts:

- (1) The condition part: A condition on a word is a formula without negation involving POS-tags values.
- (2) The application part: A set of alignment actions based on the condition checking.

Tags belonging to SYGFRAN:
<i>CAT</i> : POS category
<i>N</i> : Noun
<i>SOUSN</i> : Nominal subcategory
<i>NCOM</i> : Common noun
<i>NPRO</i> : Proper noun
<i>DETERM</i> : Determinant
<i>SOUSD</i> : Subcategories of the Determinant type
<i>ARTD</i> : Determinate article (e.g. 'the' in English)
<i>ARTI</i> : Indeterminate article (e.g. 'a' in English)
<i>ADJOINT</i> : Adjoint type (adjectives, adverbs)
<i>SOUASA</i> : Subcategories of the adjoint type
<i>ADNOM</i> : Adjectives qualifying a noun
<i>PREP</i> : Preposition
<i>CATPREPSIMPLE</i> : Simple Preposition
Tags belonging to TreeTagger:
<i>JJ</i> : Adjective
<i>NN</i> : Common Noun, singular
<i>IN</i> : Preposition
<i>NP</i> : Proper Noun, singular

Fig. 1. Sets of tags

1) *Admissible conditions*: Let $(K_n)_{0 \leq n \leq N_K}$ be a finite set of categories for source language and an other one for the target $(K'_m)_{0 \leq m \leq N'_K}$. They can be instantiated by values from the two sets: $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(v'_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

A **condition** (recognized by the model) on a source term will be :

$$(K_{k_1} = v_{k_1,1} \vee \dots \vee v_{k_1,m_1}) \wedge \dots \wedge (K_{k_p} = v_{k_p,1} \vee \dots \vee v_{k_p,n_p})$$

A condition on a target term with the set K' and its values v' is defined in the same way.

Example:

The condition below represents a word which analysis could not determine whether it is a common or a proper name (fig. 1 gives explanation for the tag sets used) :

$$(CAT = N) \wedge (SOUSN = NCOM \vee NPRO)$$

The admissible conditions recognized by the model deal with both the source and target sentences. A **well-formed condition** is when both source and target conditions are met in the **bi-sentence** on contiguous terms. Let $\Gamma S_1, \dots, \Gamma S_n$ be a list of **conditions** for source terms and $\Gamma T_1, \dots, \Gamma T_m$ for target terms. An **admissible condition** will be noted as follow :

$$\begin{cases} 1 : \Gamma S_1; \dots; n : \Gamma S_n \\ 1 : \Gamma T_1; \dots; m : \Gamma T_m \end{cases}$$

This condition will be **matched** in a bi-sentence if a contiguous list of terms from the source sentence respect each condition ΓS_i in the right order **and** if a list of contiguous terms from the target sentence respect each condition ΓC_j , also in the right order.

Example: The condition below would be matched on the pair "un ciel bleu" - "blue sky", with the following definitions for the used POS tags.

$$\begin{cases} 1 : (CAT = DETERM) \wedge (SOUSD = ARTD \vee ARTI); \\ 2 : (CAT = N) \wedge (SOUSN = NCOM); \\ 3 : (CAT = ADJOINT) \wedge (SOUASA = ADNOM) \\ a : (CATAng = JJ); b : (CATAng = NN) \end{cases}$$

The **contiguity** hypothesis plays an important role in our method. The previous condition won't be matched on the pair "un ciel très bleu"->"a very blue sky", that will be implemented in a larger pattern. So, the phrases concerned by the patterns:

- (1) have an arbitrary length
- (2) contains only contiguous words

2) *Application of a rule*: If a condition part is matched on a contiguous part of the bi-sentence, the application part provides a way of linking each term concerned by the condition. A rule can be applied if it doesn't violate a link already present in the bi-sentence. An edge is provided if a mapping is possible between an upper and a lower node, or a set of lower nodes. So, a correct alignment must result as the union of non-intersecting 'bicliques', that we assume to be a rather natural definition beyond which the notion of alignment would be meaningless.

Example:

An admissible rule to be applied on the pair: "à la Cour", "at Court" could be written as such:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1: (CAT = PREP) \wedge (CATPREPSIMPLE = A); \\ 2: (CAT = DETERM) \wedge (SOUSD = ARTD); \\ 3: (CAT = N) \wedge (SOUSN = NCOM \vee NPRO); \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow a(1); b(2,3); c(2,3)$$

B. Saving the rules

Rules are learned from hand-aligned or semi-automatically aligned data. Moreover, a tool preventing the user from creating 'degenerated' alignments is used. The syntactic structure of the parsed source sentence allows one to cut out the total alignment into several relevant aligned bi-phrases producing valid rules. For instance, Figures 2 and 3 show a constituent tree for a source sentence, its leaves being source words, and how the target sentence words could be aligned according to a subtree division of the basic syntactic tree. The segment obtained from the first GN in figure 2 chunk is:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1: (CAT = DETERM) \wedge (SOUSD = DEM); \\ 2: (CAT = N) \wedge (SOUSN = NCOM); \\ 3: (CAT = ADJOINT) \wedge (SOUSA = ADNOM) \end{array} \right.$$

$$\Rightarrow a(1); b(2); c(3)$$

The rules consider only POS tags: Lexical resources are never used. This approach tends to rapidly create general rules applicable in many cases. One could object that the contiguity hypothesis weakens the rules generality, making it difficult to represent phenomena such as the French negation "ne...pas", but the rules shape has a precise algorithmic purpose and non-contiguous linguistic entities can be covered not by one, but by many rules. For instance, to be fully taken into account, "ne...pas" should be handled by segments such as : "ne [Verb] pas", "ne [Verb] [Adverb] pas", and so on. A fragment can include several phrases when divergence is too high. In the

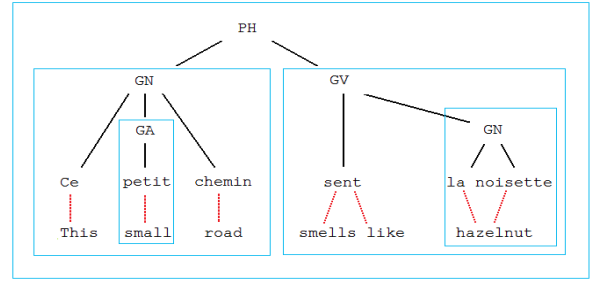


Fig. 2. Selecting Sub-sentential Rules

Ce	: CAT=DETERM;SOUSR=DEM;
petit	: CAT=ADJOINT; SOUSA=ADNOM;
chemin	: CAT=N; SOUSN=NCOM;
sent	: CAT=V;
la	: CAT=DETERM; SOUSD=ARTD;
noisette	: CAT=N; SOUSN=NCOM;
This	: CATAng=DT;
small	: CATAng=JJ;
road	: CATAng=NN;
smells	: CATAng=VBS;
like	: CATAng=VB;
hazelnut	: CATAng=NN;

Fig. 3. Labels From French and English Trees Leaves: Note That the tagging for 'like' is wrong!!

next part, we comment two different segmentation paradigms we used, with different recombining treatments.

C. Combining fragments

Two ways of combining fragments are here presented: Each of them depends on a different choice in segmentation. The complexity of proposed resolutions is also an asset. From a new bi-sentence to be aligned at the sub-sentential level, one has to collect compatible candidates in the partial rules database (the saving memory). *Combining them to obtain an optimum alignment consists in selecting a maximum covering set of compatible rules.* Many maximum-independent-set issues are known to be NP-hard (such as many alignment problems [8]). As an example, if we were to extend our set of rules to only complete sets of connected nodes, which is the most general possible shape, the combining process would lead to the NP-hard biclique decomposition problem [10].

1) *Contiguous fragments* : The fragments contiguous shape results from a need to use a lighter recombining process in a graph approach: Each rule is a weighted node, which weight is the coverage of the rule. There is an edge between two nodes if the associated rules are compatible. *Building an optimal alignment is seen as finding a maximum-weight clique in the compatibility graph.* Actually, even in this "simplified" framework, we encounter algorithmic difficulties which we shall detail here.

Two independent rules could be either "crossing" or "following" (cf fig.4). Looking for a maximal independent set of rules which are pairwise either crossing or following is still an NP-hard issue known as the "maximum weighted independent set of axis parallel rectangles" [1]. The rules

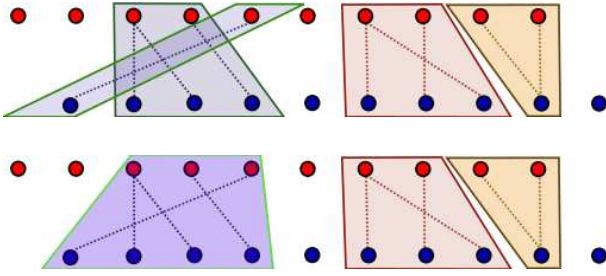


Fig. 5. Rules including a crossing configuration

shape used in this approach can lead to different issues: Apart their linguistic justification, their impact on the recombination effort is substantial. As a first experiment, we wanted to evaluate a heuristic recombining process over this approach (with the contiguous rules described before). A maximum covering set of *following patterns* (fig 4) could be built in a polynomial time [20]. Doing so, the solution proposed by the system will not present any crossing link. It means that every needed crossing configuration in the final alignment would lead, with this method, to a choice between links, thus generating holes, and then errors. An alternative consists in a pre-treatment among the set of compatible fragments to deal with crossing links. When two fragments present crossing links and form a larger contiguous pattern, as in figure 4, they are seen as a whole new rule and added to the database. This pre-treatment, when the number of contiguous-crossing configurations is reasonable, can lead to an exact recombining procedure, but most of the time, the combinatorial effort of dealing with crossing configurations is too heavy and one has to use a threshold or at least a filter. In this last case, the most common one on long sentences, the method is an approximation.

2) *Contiguous fragments capturing crossing configurations:*

As an alternative and a second experiment, we proposed another segmentation process, extending the first one and leading to a tractable compatibility resolution algorithm: We decided to capture the crossing configuration during the segmentation process to avoid the combinatorial cost of dealing with them. Indeed, compatible fragments will be in *following configuration*. One can observe the new segment shape in figure 5. Of course, segments will provide us with less generic features (especially with great divergence). Recombining alignment among patterns thus formed is known as the maximum independent set problem for trapezoid graphs. Light combinatorial algorithms exist to solve this problem ($O(n \log n)$ where n is the number of fragments in [9]). Unless divergent behavior is pre-treated with, for example, a word-to-word alignment, this method will tend to favor a left to right alignment which appears to give good results for the French-English pair.

IV. A FIRST EVALUATION

A first set of 67,941 pairs of sentences has been extracted from a journalistic corpus. French sentences present an average length of 27 words and English ones 23. In this section, we call "*contiguous fragments*", patterns obtained from the first segmentation described in figure 4. "*crossing fragments*"

will refer to the second ones from the extended segmentation including crossing configurations (figure 5). We hand-aligned 100 bi-sentences as a first training. The system fragmented each memorized pair into generalized patterns. We ran several experiments. First, we tested our recombining process by trying to align those same 100 bi-sentences: The total alignment was memorized, but we inhibited large patterns during the database mining phase, susceptible to align in one shot, in order to test the recombination among short patterns (knowing every needed pattern was effectively in the base). The idea was to evaluate the recombining process over the two segmentation stages. In the table summarizing results, R_{100} stands for the recombining process over the *contiguous fragments* and RX_{100} over the *crossing fragments*. We consolidated this alignment by using a pre-treatment cognates detection: Short patterns can lead to syntactical ambiguities sometimes quite frustrating when aligning a proper noun with an omitted uppercase first letter, with a common noun. Cognates detection was based on a Levenshtein measure and we noted an average number of 4 cognate pairs per bi-sentence (e.g.: "*musharraf*"-"*moucharraf*", "*judges*"-"*juges*", "*unpopularity*"-"*impopularité*",...). R_{100}^{Cog} and RX_{100}^{Cog} are the same experiments using cognates alignment as reinforcement. Then results are much better when cognates are used as anchor. No mistakes were found in the cognate detecting process. Results have shown that recombining experiments are quite successful with the *crossing fragments*, since the process has been tailored for their needs. Capturing crossing links during segmentation, has engulfed the main liability of the alignment process, thus leaving to recombination a minimal effort. It amounts to searching a database of already saved patterns and looking for following configurations.

Then, we tried to align 100 fresh bi-sentences which were not from the training set. This time, alignment was performed with cognates reinforcement. Al_{100} and AlX_{100} designate the aligning experiment on the 101-nd to 200-nd bi-sentences based on the training over the first 100, respectively for the contiguous and the crossing fragments. Of course, the amount of data is insufficient to draw strong conclusion or to give predictions for the future evolution of the system, but we observe that the lack of generic features we feared for the *crossing fragments*, does not impede the recombining process to reach results which quality is equivalent to the experiment with the *contiguous fragments*. The two methods lead to an identical F-score, but the second method seems to have a lesser recall, thus corrupting its performance. This can be explained by the fact that the recombining process maximizes the bi-sentence coverage with following positions fragments. This tends to create holes when two followings are not adjacent. The first method, a heuristic, tried to maximize coverage among the fragments in following or crossing configurations. When adding crossing fragments in the process, the second method reduces recall.

In order to measure the alignment quality, we had then to hand-align this 100 bi-sentences which provided us with

an enriched database, so we ran over the first experiment consisting in evaluating the recombining process over the 200 bi-sentences already aligned with and without cognates thus trying to observe improvement or, on the contrary, a degradation. There were no significant differences. These experiments are referred to as R_{200} and RX_{200} , $R_{200}^{Cog.}$ and $RX_{200}^{Cog.}$ in the results table. As a comparison, we gave Giza++ model results (from French to English) on the same pieces of the corpus (trained on the 67,941 bi-sentences with the IBM model 4) although the two systems are definitely different: The sizes of needed training corpora, information used, and theories are hard to compare. No additional heuristic was used, the results are here as a baseline reference. In the table below, "P" stands for "precision", "R" stands for "recall", and "F" for the classically used F-measure. Let us note the very high values of the F-measure for the "X" based experiments, except "Al", which is invariant.

	R_{100}	$R_{100}^{Cog.}$	R_{200}	$R_{200}^{Cog.}$	Al_{100}	Giza
P.	84%	92%	85%	91%	77%	75%
R.	82%	86%	83%	88%	52%	60%
F.	0.83	0.89	0.84	0.89	0.62	0.67

	RX_{100}	$RX_{100}^{Cog.}$	RX_{200}	$RX_{200}^{Cog.}$	ALX_{100}
P.	98.7%	99.5%	97.9%	98.9%	82.3%
R.	97.2%	97.7%	97.1%	97.8%	49.9%
F.	0.98	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.62

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have described two example-based aligning methods that almost exclusively uses syntactic information during the different steps of the process (the use of cognates is the only recourse to lexical information). Deep syntactic analysis was used to separate and collect fragments from examples provided by users. Then again, these fragments from bi-sentences were generalized using POS-tags. Alignment was performed between fragments recognized from a database filled with syntactic correspondences. Two databases were built, suitable for two different process using different segmentations: The first, producing *contiguous fragments* was followed by a heuristic recombining process, while the second, providing (*crossing fragments*), led to an exact solution. The constrained form of the two segmentation processes we used, played an important role in the recombining effort based on coverage maximization. The shape of the memorized fragments seems to play an important role in the recombining process. In such an approach, a trade-off should be found between the fragments genericness and their combinatorial weight: The exact process using "crossing patterns" showed an almost perfect recombination of information. It pointed out the difficulty of crossing configurations in the alignment process, which should be carefully studied as a future work. Also, different heuristic resolutions should be tested on the contiguous fragments memory. This first evaluation showed promising results, while quite a good precision was reached after a light training on only a hundred bi-sentences. With

sufficient amount of data, the evolution of quality matching in the database size could be measured, and a more precise difference between the two approaches would then be better observed.

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