The (Un)faithful Machine Translator

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Abstract

Applying machine translation (MT) to literary texts involves the same domain shift challenges that arise for any sublanguage (e.g., medical or scientific). However, it also introduces additional challenges. One focus in the discussion of translation theory in the humanities has been on the human translator’s role in staying faithful to an original text versus adapting it to make it more familiar to readers. In contrast to other domains, one objective in literary translation is to preserve the experience of reading a text when moving to the target language. We use existing MT systems to translate samples of French literature into English. We then use qualitative analysis grounded in translation theory and real example outputs in order to address what makes literary translation particularly hard and the potential role of the machine in it.

1 Introduction

The question of how to translate, especially when the source text is valued for its perceived literary merit, has been the focus of a discussion that is nearly as old as written text itself. A key debate is whether the translator should (1) adapt the source language text as it is translated into the target language to make it familiar and understandable to the reader, or (2) stay as faithful as possible to the original. Schleiermacher (2012) calls the former a free translation and the latter faithful. The former has also been referred to as domesticating the text, or bringing the text to the reader, in contrast to foreignizing the text, or bringing the reader to the text (Venuti, 2008; Berman, 1992).

Consider the French phrase enculer les mouches. Staying as faithful to the original French as possible, the first word, enculer translates as the infinitive for the French word for anal penetration, while the second is the more banal flies. Google translate gives to fuck flies. However, idiomatically, it is, despite the strongly sexual first term, a not uncommon way to say to nitpick. This translation makes the text more understandable, at the cost of staying faithful to the meanings of the individual words of the original text. Stylistic elements such as metaphor, alliteration, metonymy, and rhyme likewise require the translator to make interpretive choices beyond the literal meaning of the original, bringing the original text to the reader of the translation even at the expense of losing some of the literal meaning of the source.

Often multiple equally faithful translations of a word or phrase exist, and the translator must choose one based on context, either local or more broad. For example, the French il neige can be translated as it snows or it is snowing. In English, it is snowing suggests the narrative present, while it snows suggests a habitual occurrence.

Like human translators, a statistical machine translation (SMT) system may produce translations that are relatively free or faithful and must constantly make translation choices in decoding. For SMT, choices are dependent on what is observed in training and language modeling data and their frequencies. When systems are trained on datasets that are similar to a test text, they are more likely to make reasonable translation choices. Additionally, if a model, either a priori or automatically, knows something about what the output should look like (e.g., poetry should rhyme or have rhythm), features could encourage free translations to take a certain form.

How much a translation sounds like an original text in its target language and how much it preserves elements of its source language, which make it sound foreign, is in part an ethical choice made by the human translator. Still, even experienced human translators have difficulty recogniz-

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1There is no present progressive tense in French.
ing when they are being faithful and when their cultural experiences have influenced a translation. Current SMT models have no awareness of this and no ability to make specific choices to balance the two tendencies in the same output. Our work shines a light on SMT from the perspective of translation theory based on a qualitative analysis of two translated samples of French literature, one prose and one poetry. We compare SMT and human translations to address the following:

- What types of translation choices does the machine make, compared with humans?
- Is there evidence for the need to encourage a machine to translate more freely?
- Can SMT translate non-ethnocentrically?

2 Background

2.1 Translation Theory

Schleiermacher (2012) raises the issue of a translation’s approximation of its source language vs. its fluency or resemblance to an original work in its target language, referring to translations “that are faithful or free.” Berman (1992), alternatively, outlined the need for an ethics and an analytics of translation. For Berman, the translator has an imperative to avoid “freedom” where it brings with it a tendency to alter the foreign text by making it resemble a work of literature created in the target language through adjustments to the original on the levels of style, idiom, and content (both lexical and explicative). His is an argument for what Venuti (2008) calls “foreignization” in translation, preserving the distance between the language of the original text and the language of the translation by creating a translation that is perceptibly different from an original work in the target language. He opposes this to domestication, which instead privileges fluency and readability.

Venuti (2008) uses a similar critique to address the relative visibility or invisibility of the translator. For Venuti, part of the domestication of the translated text comes in the form of the invisibility of its translator in the finished (marketed) product. Compare, for instance, Venuti’s example of the translator’s invisibility in the 2002 Penguin translation of the Anna Karenina, advertised with praise for the “transparency” of its translation without naming the translators, to Seamus Heaney’s 2000 translation of Beowulf, which includes both original and translated texts side-by-side and features the poet/translator’s name prominently on the cover. In the first case, the reader is asked to forget that she is not, in fact, reading Tolstoy in his own words, while, in the second, Heaney’s text is open to constant comparison with its original.

2.2 MT of Non-Standard Language

Prior work applying SMT to non-standard language focuses primarily on domain adaptation. In that task, an MT system trained on, for example, newswire, is used to translate text in a different domain, such as science. Much of this work has focused on up-weighting subsets of the training or language modeling data that are most similar to the new domain (Matsoukas et al., 2009; Foster et al., 2010; Ananthakrishnan et al., 2011; Niehues and Waibel, 2010; Foster and Kuhn, 2007; Tiedemann, 2010; Lavergne et al., 2011).

Other work has focused on literary texts (Reddy and Knight, 2011; Kao and Jurafsky, 2012; Roque, 2012). Most relevant is Greene et al. (2010), which presents a model for translating Italian poetry into English. That work focuses on preserving meaning as well as rhythm and is an interesting first attempt at integrating models of poetry (“how to say”) and storyline (“what to say”) generation. In many cases, it is hard to do both well at once; simultaneously maintaining the meaning and rhythm of a poem is challenging.

3 Experiments

3.1 Data and Setup

We analyze translations of two samples of French literature, one prose and one poem (Figures 1-2). The prose selection is a sample of the twentieth century novel L’Etranger by Albert Camus (Camus, 1955). We use the Camus and Ward (1989) English translation as a reference. The poetry selection is a sample of the twentieth century poem “Jardin” by Yves Bonnefoy (Bonnefoy, 1968), from the collection Début et fin de la neige, translated in Bonnefoy et al. (2012). We selected the passages because they use fairly simple language and have modern and well-known authors.

We translate the two literary selections using two SMT systems. First, we train a phrase-based MT model using the Hansard data. The corpus contains over 8 million parallel lines of text and is one of the largest freely available parallel corpora for any language pair. It contains proceedings of the Canadian parliament. Recent work has

2http://www.parl.gc.ca
shown that newswire corpora, the other common bitext domain, is not very different from the parliamentary domain. Thus, a model trained on the Hansard data reflects the status of a typical modern SMT system trained on freely available data. We use the Moses SMT framework (Koehn et al., 2007), GIZA++ automatic word alignments (Och and Ney, 2003), and the batch version of MIRA for tuning (Cherry and Foster, 2012). For comparison, we also present and analyze translations by Google translate.3

In addition to our detailed manual analysis, we automatically evaluated outputs using case-insensitive BLEU and a single reference. The Moses system achieve a slightly higher BLEU score than Google (16.62 vs. 11.25) on the Bonnefoy selection and the opposite is true for the Camus selection (26.03 vs. 30.05). However, because the selections are small, we don’t interpret these results as particularly meaningful.

3.2 Analysis

Figures 1 and 2 show the outputs. Focusing on the differences between the machine and human translations with respect to the originals reveals places where the human translators’ choices diverged from the translations considered probable by the two SMT models. Close reading of the source text and human translation suggests possible reasons for the translator’s choices. The probabilities that the SMT model assigns to the human translations relative to those assigned to the observed MT output highlights the need for probabilistic translation models that are specific to the domain of the particular texts or for literary translation more generally. While differences occurred based on a variety of factors, for the sake of brevity, we only consider lexical variation and the question of time as an aspect of translation. We take examples from Camus’ prose and Bonnefoy’s poem while keeping in mind the possibility of a definable difference in domain between the two.

Ward’s translation puts the plain language of Camus’ text into a clear and conversational English, a stylistic choice for fluency and domestication of the French. The focus in this passage is on the speaker, actively calming himself after the departure of the warden, and the “re” of “retrouvé” appears as “again.” The machine translations, looking at the words in the absence of “re,” give “found,” eliminating the “re.” Ward translates “se calmer” exactly, “to calm (down).” In contrast, the machine versions give “found (the) calm.” It is not the passive aspect of Camus’ phrase that is problematic (“finding calm” as opposed to “calming down”); rather, it is the return implied by the “re” that gives pause. Ward’s translation gives a plainer, more informal style than the translations offered by the SMT systems, choosing to preserve the repetition of “re” (in “retrouvé”) with “again” rather than the core meaning of “found” in “trouvé.”

Later in the passage (line 3), the phrase “je...
il neige.
sous les flocons la porte
ouvre enfin au jardin
de plus que le monde.
j' avance. mais se prend
mon écharpe à du fer rouillé, et se déchire
en moi l’´etoffe du songe.
il neige.
sous les flocons la porte ouvre enfin au jardin de plus que le monde.
j' avance. mais se prend mon écharpe à du fer rouillé, et se déchire en
moi l’´etoffe du songe.

Beginning and End of the Snow, Emily Grolsholz, “The Garden”

It is “sounds of the countryside” in Ward, but “the campaign noise” and “noises campaign” in Hansom and Google, respectively. Ward’s translations make two distinct choices for the indefinite article “des,” converting it to a definite article (the) in the first instance while dropping it in the second. Both examples again show Ward working the text into plain-spoken English prose by choosing the specific “the stars” over the general “stars” for “des étoiles” and the more conventional construction sounds of the countryside over countryside sounds, which would preserve the unfamiliar (as shown by the difficulty of both MT systems in translating this phrase) construction of “des bruits de campagne.” The discrepancies between the human and MT versions of Camus’ text suggest that the MT systems might, at the least, be able to identify the difficulties of translating certain stylistic elements of the French.

The translations of Bonnefoy’s poem reveal slightly different concerns. The translations of “´etoffe” exemplify a lexical choice problem. Grolsholz’s choice of “fabric” has a lower translation probability in the SMT models than “stuff” (Google translation). Both meanings are possible, but while “stuff” is more common, the source text suggests an association between “écharpe” (scarf) and “´etoffe” (stuff/fabric) that comes to the fore in Grolsholz’s translation. Taken with similar choices (“gate” for “door”, also “snowflakes” for “flocos,” earlier in the poem), Grolsholz’s translation reveals a preference for specificity over probability that goes beyond rhythmic consistency to effect the translated poem’s recreation of the images present in the original.

Temporality also appears as a difference between Grolsholz’s and the machine translations. Specifically, Grolsholz translates “il neige” (line 1) as “it is snowing.” Neither SMT model selected the present progressive. Their translation, “it snows” has a distinctly high probability in the Hansom model, as the parliamentary proceedings deal most often with general conditions when discussing weather (i.e. “it snows in the prairies”). While this is an adequate translation of the French phrase, Grolsholz’s choice of the progressive anchors the poem in a narrative present that is absent in the general expression “it snows.” This moment is key to understanding the poem in the context of the larger collection, as it gives the poet a defined position in time that anchors the poem’s imagery.

Figure 2: The Garden by Yves Bonnefoy

me suis réveillé avec des étoiles sur le visage” is translated as “I woke up with the stars in my face” in Ward’s translation, whereas the Hansom and Google translations drop the indefinite article and assume a second person in the scene, giving “i woke up with stars on {your, her} face.” Later, the phrase “des bruits de campagne” (line 4) also provides a source of linguistic confusion.
The fact that neither MT system made this choice suggests a difference between literary and nonliterary texts in terms of how each treats time and the experience of duration. Temporality functions in subtly different ways in French and English. It is important to narrative and literary text and is particularly difficult for the MT system.

4 Discussion

Defining the type and degree of domestication that a literary translation should take is difficult to express, even to a human. We can say that Ward’s translation, with its conversational style and choice of sense and style over language play, is more domestic than Grolsholz’s, which tries to reflect the syntax of the original. Indeed, if we look back to Venuti’s complaint about the translation of Anna Karenina, Grolsholz is certainly the more visible of the two translators, each of her translations being accompanied by its original on the facing page. From a technical standpoint, we may want a translation to take into consideration the narrative of a text in order to describe events in the narrative present (e.g. choosing “it is snowing” over “it snows”). However, defining the scope of the relevant narrative context is difficult and may vary substantially from text to text.

From the ethical perspective of the foreign/domestic debate, deciding how much the narrative context needs to be explicated or altered to be understandable in the translation is dependent on variables including the translator’s stance on this issue, the author’s wishes (if the author is living) and the publisher’s requirements. Even once they have been determined, specifying such preferences precisely enough for a computational model to follow is even harder. For example, we could model a general preference for specific translations of nouns over more probable translations (e.g. ‘snowflakes’ instead of ‘flakes’), but translation rules are typically very noisy and an SMT system would likely be tempted by garbage translation rules (e.g. in the Hansard system, ‘flacks’ translates as ‘cornflakes’ with higher probability than ‘snow’, ‘flakes’, or ‘snowflakes’). In short, part of the human translator’s job is knowing when to make exceptions to convention for the sake of the reader’s experience of the translated text, and the question of the exception is difficult for the machine to account for.

Even if the type and degree to which a text should be domesticated could be accurately modeled, some types of free/fluent/flexible translations will be easier for a machine to produce than others. For example, idioms may be easy to integrate; if they are observed in training data, then a machine can easily produce them. This, however, requires in-domain training data, and domain is somewhat of a moving target in literature due to extremely high variability. In contrast to the ease of memorizing static idioms, computationally choosing correct, relevant, and appropriately specific translations of individual nouns (e.g. ‘porte’ as ‘gate’ instead of ‘door’) is difficult.

We end our discussion on a note about visibility. Introducing an SMT system into debates surrounding literary translation by human translators would seem to cause the translator to disappear entirely. Indeed, according to Cronin (2012), “machine translation services would appear to render invisible the labour of translation...” However, for Venuti, visibility is crucial to the ethics of balancing domestication and foreignization to create non-ethnocentric translations in that it reminds the reader to be attentive to the translation and to the translator as creative labourer. As a level of domestication is to be expected in fluent translations, Venuti’s argument for visibility is also an argument for a disruption to the reader’s experience that reinserts the distance of the foreignizing translation in a different way, suggesting that fluency, which hides the act of translation, might be ethical under conditions of visibility. Difficulties encountered by an SMT system can constitute a kind of visibility, because they expose problems in the translation, which often come in the form of disfluencies. However, these systems cannot consider translation in terms of domestication and foreignization; the SMT objective is to use patterns observed in training data example translations to produce something that has the same meaning as the source text and looks like the target language. There is a constant tradeoff between fluency and faithfulness. Although SMT can deal with fluency, it cannot handle ideas of domestic and foreign. Therefore, if we accept that domesticating and foreignization is key to distinguishing visibility, then the relationship between visibility and invisibility for the human translator and the machine translator must be different. And this divergence, in turn, means that current approaches to SMT could not ensure non-ethnocentric translations.
References


