Low-Resource Text Classification via Cross-lingual Language Model Fine-tuning

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Abstract

Text classification tends to be difficult when data are inadequate considering the amount of manually labeled text corpora. For low-resource agglutinative languages including Uyghur, Kazakh, and Kyrgyz (UKK languages), in which words are manufactured via stems concatenated with several suffixes and stems are used as the representation of text content, this feature allows infinite derivatives vocabulary that leads to high uncertainty of writing forms and huge redundant features. There are major challenges of low-resource agglutinative text classification the lack of labeled data in a target domain and morphologic diversity of derivations in language structures. It is an effective solution which fine-tuning a pre-trained language model to provide meaningful and favorable-to-use feature extractors for downstream text classification tasks. To this end, we propose a low-resource agglutinative language model fine-tuning AgglutiFiT, specifically, we build a low-noise fine-tuning dataset by morphological analysis and stem extraction, then fine-tune the cross-lingual pre-training model on this dataset. Moreover, we propose an attention-based fine-tuning strategy that better selects relevant semantic and syntactic information from the pre-trained language model and uses those features on downstream text classification tasks. We evaluate our methods on nine Uyghur, Kazakh, and Kyrgyz classification datasets, where they have significantly better performance compared with several strong baselines.

1 Introduction

Text classification is the backbone of most natural language processing tasks such as sentiment analysis, classification of news topics, and intent recognition. Although deep learning models have reached the most advanced level on many Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks, these models are trained from scratch, which makes them require larger datasets. Still, many low-resource languages lack rich annotated resources that support various tasks in text classification. For UKK languages, words are derived from stem affixes, so there is a huge vocabulary. Stems represent of text content and affixes provide semantic and grammatical functions. Diversity of morphological structure leads to transcribe speech as they pronounce while writing and suffer from high uncertainty of writing forms on these languages which causes the personalized spelling of words especially less frequent words and terms Ablimit et al. (2017). Data collected from the Internet are noisy and uncertain in terms of coding and spelling Ablimit et al. (2016). The main problems in NLP tasks for UKK languages are uncertainty in terms of spelling and coding and annotated datasets inadequate poses a big challenge for classifying short and noisy text data.

Data augmentation can effectively solve the problem of insufficient marker corpus in low-resource language datasets. Şahin and Steedman (2019) present two simple text augmentation techniques using “crops” sentences by removing dependency links, and “rotates” sentences by moving the tree fragments around the root. However, this may not be sufficient for several other tasks such as cross-language text classification due to irregularities across UKK languages in these kinds of scenarios. Pre-trained language models such as BERT Devlin et al. (2018) or XLM Conneau and Lample (2019) have become...
an effective way in NLP and yields state-of-the-art results on many downstream tasks. These models require only unmarked data for training, so they are especially useful when there is very little market data. Fully exploring fine-tuning can go a long way toward solving this problem Xu et al. (2020). Sun et al. (2019) conduct an empirical study on fine-tuning, although these methods achieve better performance, they did not perform well on UKK low-resource agglutinative languages due to the morphologic diversity of derivations.

The significant challenge of using language model fine-tuning on low-resource agglutinative languages is how to capture feature information. To apprehend rich semantic patterns from plain text, Zhang et al. (2019a) incorporating knowledge graphs (KGs), which provide rich structured knowledge facts for better language understanding. Zhang et al. (2019b) propose to incorporate explicit contextual semantics from pre-trained semantic role labeling (SemBERT) which can provide rich semantics for language representation to promote natural language understanding. UKK languages are a kind of morphologically rich agglutinative languages, in which words are formed by a root (stem) followed by suffixes. These methods are difficult to capture the semantic information of UKK languages. As the stems are the notionally independent word particles with a practical meaning, and affixes provide grammatical functions in UKK languages, morpheme segmentation can enable us to separate stems and remove syntactic suffixes as stop words, and reduce noise and capture rich feature in UKK languages texts in the classification task.

In this paper, as depict in Figure-1, we propose a low-resource agglutinative language model fine-tuning model: AgglutiFiT that is capable of addressing these issues. First, we use XLM−R pre-train a language model on a large cross-lingual corpus. Then we build a fine-tuning dataset by stem extraction and morphological analysis as the target task dataset to fine-tune the cross-lingual pre-training model. Moreover, we introduce an attention-based fine-tuning strategy that selects relevant semantic and syntactic information from the pre-trained language model and uses discriminative fine-tuning to capture different types of information on different layers. To evaluate our model, we collect and annotate nine corpora for text classification of UKK low-resource agglutinative language, including topic classification, sentiment analysis, intention classification. The experimental results show AgglutiFiT can significantly improve the performance with a small number of labeled examples.

The contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- We collect three low-resource agglutinative languages including Uyghur, Kazakh, and Kyrgyz nine datasets, each of languages datasets contains topic classification, sentiment analysis, and intention classification three common text classification tasks.

- We propose a fine-tuning strategy on low-resource agglutinative language that builds a low-noise
finetuning dataset by stem extraction and morphological analysis to fine-tune the cross-lingual pre-training model.

- We propose an attention-based fine-tuning method that better select relevant semantic and syntactic information from the pre-trained language model and uses discriminative fine-tuning capture different types of information different layers.

2 Related work

In the field of natural language processing, low-resource text processing tasks receives increasing attention. We briefly reviewed three related directions: data augmentation, language model pre-training, and fine-tuning.

Data Augmentation  Data Augmentation is that solves the problem of insufficient data by creating composite examples that are generated from but not identical to the original document. Wei and Zou (2019) present EDA, easy data augmentation techniques to improve the performance of text classification task. For a given sentence in the training set, EDA randomly chooses and performs one of the following operations: synonym replacement, random insertion, random swap, random deletion. UKK languages have few synonyms for a certain word, so the substitution of synonyms cannot add much data. Its words are formed by a root (stem) followed by suffixes, and as the powerful suffixes can reflect semantically and syntactically, random insertion, random swap, random deletion may change the meaning of a sentence and cause the original tags to become invalid. In the text classification, training documents are translated into another language by using an external system and then converted back to the original language to generate composite training examples, this technology known as backtranslation. Shleifer (2019) work experiments with backtranslation as data augmentation strategies for text classification. The translation service quality of Uyghur is not good, and Kazakh and Kyrgyz do not have mature and robust translation service, so it is difficult to use the three languages in backtranslation. Şahin and Steedman (2019) propose an easily adaptable, multilingual text augmentation technique based on dependency trees. It augments the training sets of these low-resource languages which are known to have extensive morphological case-marking systems and relatively free word order including Uralic, Turkic, Slavic, and Baltic language families.

Cross-lingual Pre-trained Language Model  Recently, Pre-training language models such as BERT Devlin et al. (2019) and GPT-2 Radford et al. (2019) have achieved enormous success in various tasks of natural language processing such as text classification, machine translation, question answering, summarization, etc. The early work in the field of cross-language understanding has proven the effectiveness of cross-language pre-trained models on cross-language understanding. The multilingual BERT model is pre-trained on Wikipedia in 104 languages using a shared vocabulary of word blocks. LASER Artetxe and Schwenk (2019) is trained on parallel data of 93 languages and those languages share BPE vocabulary. Conneau and Lample (2019) also use parallel data to pre-train BERT. These models can achieve zero distance migration, but the effect is poor compared with the monolingual model. The XLM – R Conneau et al. (2019) uses filtered common-crawled data over 2TB to demonstrate that using a large-scale multilingual pre-training model can significantly improve the performance of cross-language migration tasks.

Fine-tuning  When we adapt the pre-training model to NLP tasks in a target domain, a proper fine-tuning strategy is desired. Howard and Ruder (2018) proposes the universal language model fine-tuning (ULMFiT) with several novel fine-tuning techniques. ULMFiT consists of three steps, namely general-domain LM pre-training, target task LM fine-tuning, and target task classifier fine-tuning. Eisenschlos et al. (2019) combines the ULMFiT with the quasi-recurrent neural network (QRNN) Bradbury et al. (2018) and subword tokenization Kudo (2018) to propose multi-lingual language model fine-tuning (MultiFiT) to enable practitioners to train and fine-tune language models efficiently. The MultiFiT language model consists of one subword embedding layer, four QRNN layers, one aggregation layer, and two linear layers. Moreover, a bootstrapping method Ruder and Plank (2018) is applied to reduce
the complexity of training. Although those approaches are general enough and have achieved state-of-the-art results on various classification datasets, the method is considered cannot solve the problem of morphologic diversity of derivations in language structures on low-resource agglutinative language. Tao et al. (2019) proposes an attention-based fine-tuning algorithm. With this algorithm, the customers can use the given language model and fine-tune the target model by their own data, but that does not capture different levels of syntactic and semantic information on different layers of a neural network. In this paper, we use a new fine-tuning strategy that provides a feature extractor to extract features and use these features for downstream text classification tasks.

3 Methodology

In this section, we will explain our methodology, which is also shown in Figure-1. Our training consists of four stages. We first pre-train a language model on a large scale cross-lingual text corpus. Then the pre-trained model is fine-tuned by the fine-tuning dataset on unsupervised language modeling tasks. The fine-tuning dataset is constructed by means of stem extraction and morpheme analysis on the downstream classification datasets. Moreover, we use an attention-based fine-tuning to build our classification model and uses discriminative fine-tuning to capture different types of information on different layers. Finally, train the classifier using target task datasets.

3.1 LM fine-tuning based on UKK characteristics

When we apply the pre-training model to text classification tasks in a target domain, a proper fine-tuning strategy is desired. In this paper, we employ two fine-tuning methods as below.

3.1.1 Fine-tuning datasets based on morphemic analysis

UKK languages are agglutinative languages, meaning that words are formed by a stem augmented by an unlimited number of suffixes. The stem is an independent semantic unit while the suffixes are auxiliary functional units. Both stems and suffixes are called morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest functional units in agglutinative languages. Because of this agglutinative nature, the number of words of these languages can be almost infinite, and most of the words appear very rarely in the text corpus. Modeling based on a smaller unit like morpheme can provide stronger statistics hence robust models. The total number of suffixes in each of UKK languages is around 120. New suffixes may be created, but this is the typical case.

As shown in Figure-2, we use a semi-supervised morpheme segmenter based on the suffix set Ablimit et al. (2017). For a candidate word, this tool designs an iterative searching algorithm to produce all possible segmentation results by matching the stem-set and the suffix set. The phonemes on the boundaries
change their surface forms according to the phonetic harmony rules when the morphemes are merged into a word. Morphemes will harmonize each other, and appeal to the pronunciation of each other. When the pronunciation is precisely represented, the phonetic harmony can be clearly observed in the text. An independent statistical model can be adopted to pick the best result from N-best results in the UKK text classification task.

We adopt this tool to train a statistical model using word-morpheme parallel training corpus, extraction and greatly improved the UKK text classification task. which included 10,000 Uyghur sentences, 5000 Kazakh sentences, and 5000 Kyrgyz sentences. We selected 80% of them as the training corpus. The remainder is used as the testing corpus to execute morpheme segmentation and stem extraction experiments. We can collect necessary terms compose a less noise fine-tuning datasets by extracting stems in the UKK languages classification task. Then fine-tuning with XLM-R on this fine-tuning datasets for better performance. For example in Table-1, a stem can grasp the features of other words, and the feature will be greatly reduced.

| Stem | Words | Affixes |
|------|-------|---------|
| نش | worker | جي |
| work | نش+جي | نش+خانا |
| office | نش+خانا | نش+تات |
| position | نش+تات | نش+تات |
| نوقوش | go to school | ش |
| student | نوقوش+ش = نوقوش | غچي |
| teach | نوقوش+غچي = نوقوش | ت |

Table 1: Examples of Uyghur word variants.

3.1.2 Discriminative Fine-tuning

Different layers of a neural network can capture different levels of syntactic and semantic information Yosinski et al. (2014; Howard and Ruder (2018). Naturally, the lower layers of the $XLM-R$ model may contain more general information. Therefore, we can fine-tune them with assorted learning rates. Following Howard and Ruder (2018), we use the discriminative fine-tuning method. We separate the parameters $\theta$ into $\{\theta^1, ..., \theta^L\}$, where $\theta^l$ contains the parameters of the $l$-th layer. Then the parameters are updated as follows:

$$
\theta^l_t = \theta^l_{t-1} - \eta^l \cdot \nabla_{\theta^l} J(\theta),
$$

where $\eta^l$ represents the learning rate of the $l$-th layer and $t$ denotes the update step. Following Sun et al. (2019), we set the base learning rate to $\eta_L$ and use $\eta^{l-1} = \xi \cdot \eta_L$, where $\xi$ is a decay factor and less than or equal to 1. When $\xi < 1$, the lower layer has a slower learning rate than the higher layer. When $\xi = 1$, all layers have the same learning rate, which is equivalent to the regular stochastic gradient descent (SGD).

3.1.3 Attention-based Fine-tuning

For classification tasks, we adopt an attention-based encoder-decoder structure. As the encoder, our pre-trained model learns the contextualized features from inputs of the dataset. Then the hidden states over time steps, denoted as $H = h_1, h_2, ..., h_T$, can be viewed as the representation of the data to be classified, which are also the input of the attention layer. Since we do not have any additional information from the decoder, we use the self-attention to extract the relevant aspects from the input states. Specifically, the alignment is computed as

$$
u_t = \tanh(W_u h_t + bu)
$$
for \( t = 1, 2, ..., T \), where \( W_u \) and \( b_u \) are the weight matrix and bias term to be learned. Then the alignment scores are given by the following soft-max function:

\[
\alpha_t = \frac{\exp(W_u u_t)}{\sum_{i=1}^{T} \exp(W_u u_i)}
\]

(3)

The final context vector, which is also the input of the classifier, is computed by

\[
c = \sum_{i=1}^{T} \alpha_t u_t
\]

(4)

### 3.2 Text Classifier

For the classifier, we add two linear blocks with batch normalization and dropout, and ReLU activations for the intermediate layer and a Softmax activation for the output layer that calculates a probability distribution over target classes. Consider the output of the last linear block is \( S_o \). Further, denote by \( C = c_1, c_2, ..., c_M = X \times Y \) the target classification data, where \( c_i = (x_i, y_i) \), \( x_i \) is the input sequence of tokens and \( y_i \) is the corresponding label. The classification loss we use to train the model can be computed by:

\[
L_2(C) = \sum_{(x, y) \in C} \log p(y|x)
\]

(5)

where

\[
p(y|x) = p(y|x_1, x_2, ..., x_m) := \text{softmax}(W_s o)
\]

(6)

### 4 Datasets

#### 4.1 Data Collection

We construct nine low-resource agglutinative language datasets including Uyghur, Kazakh, and Kyrgyz, these datasets cover common text classification tasks: topic classification, sentiment analysis, and intention classification. We use the web crawler technology to collect our text data, and download from the Uyghur, Kazakh and Kyrgyz’s official websites as well as other main websites.1

#### 4.2 Corpus Statistics

In this section, we introduce the detailed information of the corpus. We divided them into morpheme sequences and used morpheme segmentation tools to extract word stems. The method of subword extraction based on stem affix has achieved a good performance on the reduction of feature space. As a result, the vocabulary of morpheme is greatly reduced to about 30%, as shown in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4. In addition, when the types and numbers of corpora increase, the accumulation of morphemes is only one-third of the accumulation of words.

**Topic Classification** The corpus for the Uyghur language cover 9 topics: law, finance, sports, culture, health, tourism, education, science, and entertainment. Each category has 1,200 texts, resulting in a total of 10,800 texts. We name this corpus as *ug-topic*. The corpus for the Kazakh language cover 8 topics: law, finance, sports, culture, tourism, education, science, and entertainment. Each category contains 1,200 texts, so there are 9,600 texts totally. We name this corpus as *kz-topic*. The corpus for the Kyrgyz language cover 7 topics: law, finance, sports, culture, tourism, education. Each category contains 1,200 texts (totally 8,400 texts). We name this corpus as *ky-topics*. The details are shown in Table-2.

**Sentiment Analysis** We constructed 3 sentiment analysis datasets for three-category classification, namely positive, negative, and neutral. Each language is related to 900 texts and each category contains 300 texts. We name these datasets as *ug-sen*, *kz-sen* and *ky-sen* as shown in Table-3.

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1www.uyghur.people.com.cn, uy.ts.cn, Kazakhh.ts.cn, www.hawar.cn, Sina Weibo, Baidu Tieba and WeChat.
**Intention Classification**  We construct 3 datasets of five-class user intent identification: news, life, travel, entertainment, and sports. Each language contains 200 texts. We name these datasets as ug-intent, kz-intent and ky-intent as shown in Table-4.

| Corpus     | of Class | Average text length | Word Vocabulary | Morpheme Vocabulary | Morpheme-Word Vocabulary Ratio (%) |
|------------|----------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| ug-topic   | 9        | 148.3               | 79,126          | 23,364              | 29.5%                              |
| kz-topic   | 8        | 130.9               | 68,334          | 20,600              | 30.1%                              |
| ky-topic   | 7        | 145.7               | 58,137          | 18,487              | 31.7%                              |

Table 2: Statistics of the topic classification dataset.

| Corpus     | of Class | Average text length | Word Vocabulary | Morpheme Vocabulary | Morpheme-Word Vocabulary Ratio (%) |
|------------|----------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| ug-sen     | 3        | 23.6                | 8,791           | 2,794               | 31.1%                              |
| kz-sen     | 3        | 20.7                | 7,933           | 2,403               | 30.3%                              |
| ky-sen     | 3        | 21.3                | 7,385           | 2,274               | 30.8%                              |

Table 3: Statistics of the sentiment analysis datasets.

| Corpus     | of Class | Average text length | Word Vocabulary | Morpheme Vocabulary | Morpheme-Word Vocabulary Ratio (%) |
|------------|----------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| ug-intent  | 5        | 18.9                | 12,651          | 3,997               | 31.6%                              |
| kz-intent  | 5        | 16.0                | 10,368          | 3,182               | 30.7%                              |
| ky-intent  | 5        | 15.4                | 11,343          | 3,720               | 32.8%                              |

Table 4: Statistics of the intention classification datasets.

### 4.3 Corpus Examples

In this section, we present some examples of various language categorization tasks. Different from Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan, in China, the Kazakh language used by the Kazakh people and the Kyrgyz language borrowed from the Arabic alphabet. The red keywords indicate the words that have the same meaning. The blue keywords represent their meaning in English.

### 5 Experiment

#### 5.1 Datasets and Tasks

We evaluate our method on nine agglutinative language datasets which we construct of three common text classification tasks: topic classification, sentiment analysis, and intention classification. We use 75% of the data as the training set, 10% as the validation set, and 15% as the test set.

#### 5.2 Baselines

We compare our method with the cross-lingual classification model *ULMFiT* Howard and Ruder (2018), which introduces key techniques for fine-tuning language models, and *SemBERT* Zhang et al. (2019b), which is capable of explicitly absorbing contextual semantics over a BERT backbone. Moreover, we compare against the cross-lingual embedding model, namely *LASER* Artetxe and Schwenk (2019), which uses a large parallel corpus. We also compare against *BWEs* Hangya et al. (2018), a cross-lingual domain adaptation method for classification text. For cross-lingual pre-training language models, the $XLM-R$ model used in this paper is loaded from the torch.Hub. $XLM-R$ shows the possibility of training one model for many languages while not sacrificing per-language performance. It is trained on 2.5TB of CommonCrawl data, in 100 languages and uses a large vocabulary size of
250K. For the ULMFiT and BWEs model, we use English as the source language. XLM – R and ULMFiT are fine-tuned on target task datasets rather than the fine-tuning datasets that we built.

5.3 Hyperparameters

In our experiment, we use the XLM – RBase model, which uses a BERTBase architecture Vaswani et al. (2017) with a hidden size of 768, 12 Transformer blocks and 12 self-attention heads. We fine-tune the XLM – RBase model on 4 Tesla K80 GPUs and set the batch size to 24 to ensure that the GPU memory is fully utilized. The dropout probability is always 0.1. We use Adam with $\beta_1 = 0.9$ and $\beta_2 = 0.999$. Following Sun et al. (2019), we use the discriminative fine-tuning method Howard and Ruder (2018), where the base learning rate is $2e^{-5}$, and the warm-up proportion is 0.1. We empirically set the max number of the epoch to 20 and save the best model on the validation set for testing.

5.4 Results and Analysis

In this section, we demonstrate the effectiveness of our low-resource agglutinative language fine-tuning model. Our approach significantly outperforms the previous work on cross-lingual classification. Separately, the best results in the metric are bold, respectively.

As given in Table-6, Table-7, and Table-8, We show results for topic classification, sentiment analysis, and intention classification. Our AgglutiFiT outperform their cross-lingual and domain adaptation method. Pre-training is most beneficial for tasks with low-resource datasets and enables generalization even with 100 labeled examples when fine-tuning with fine-tuning dataset, our approach has a greater performance boost.

Compared with ULMFiT, we perform better on all three tasks, although ULMFiT introduces techniques that are key for fine-tuning a language model including discriminative fine-tuning and target task classifier fine-tuning. The reason can be partly explained as we adopt a less noisy datasets in the fine-
tuning phase and attention-based fine-tuning which makes it possible to obtain a closer distribution of
data in the general domain to the target domain. LASER obtain strong results in multilingual similarity
search for low-resource languages, but we work better than LASER contribute to we use attention-based
fine-tuning and different learning rates at a different layer, which allows us to capture more syntactic and
semantic information at each layer, moreover, LASER has no learn joint multilingual sentence represen-
tations for UKK languages. Experimental results on methods SemBERT are lower than AgglutiFiT on
account of lack of the necessary semantic role labels to embedding in the parallel lead to does not
capture more accurate semantic information. BWEs is significantly lower than other models, we con-
jecture is that the source language of method BWEs is English, which is quite different from the UKK
languages in data distribution, more importantly, the datasets of UKK languages are too inadequacy to
create good BWEs. Our three task experiments also show that using more high-quality datasets to
fine-tune the results would be better.

5.5 Ablation Study

To evaluate the contributions of key factors in our method, we perform an ablation study as shown
in Figure-3. We run experiments on nine corpora that are representative of different tasks, genres, and
sizes.
### Table 8: Results on intention classification accuracy.

| Model       | ug-intent | kz-intent | ky-intent |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| ULMFiT      | 90.97%    | 91.23%    | 91.13%    |
| LASER       | 77.21%    | 77.89%    | 77.33%    |
| SemBERT     | 89.79%    | 87.28%    | 89.13%    |
| BWEs        | 57.50%    | 57.48%    | 57.39%    |
| AgglutiFiT  | 93.47%    | 93.81%    | 93.28%    |

The effect of morphemic Analysis In order to gauge the impact of fine-tuning datasets quality, we compare the fine-tuning on the constructed fine-tuning datasets with the target task datasets without stem-word extraction. The experimental results show that the performance of all tasks is greatly improved by using our fine-tuning datasets. Stem is a practical unit of vocabulary. Stem extraction enables us to capture effective and meaningful features and greatly reduce the repetition rate of features.

The effect of attention-based fine-tuning As given in Figure-3, we can observe that by adding an attention fine-tuning, our model advances accuracies. Attention-based fine-tuning relies on a semantic between words that would influence the overall model performance. In order to see the effectiveness of the attention-based fine-tuning more clearly, we visualize the attention scores with respect to the input texts on Uyghur. The randomly chosen examples of visualization with respect to different classes are given in Figure-4, where darker color means higher attention scores.

The effect of discriminative fine-tuning We compare with and without discriminative fine-tuning on the model. Discriminative fine-tuning improve performance across all three tasks, however, the role of improvement is limited, we still need a better optimization method to explore how discriminative fine-tuning can be better applied in the model.

6 Conclusion

We propose AgglutiFiT, an effective language model fine-tuning method that can be applied to a low-resource agglutinative language classification tasks. This novel fine-tuning technique that via stem extraction and morphological analysis builds a low-noise fine-tuning dataset as the target task dataset to fine-tune the cross-lingual pre-training model. Moreover, we propose an attention-based fine-tuning strategy that better selects relevant semantic and syntactic information from the pre-trained language model to provide meaningful and favorable-to-use feature for downstream text classification tasks. We also use discriminative fine-tuning to capture different types of information on different layers. Our method significantly outperformed existing strong baselines on nine low-resource agglutinative language datasets of three representative low-resource agglutinative text classification tasks. We hope that our results will catalyze new developments in low-resource agglutinative languages task for NLP.

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