

Cross-Lingual Word Embeddings for Low-Resource Language Modeling

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Abstract

Most languages have no formal writing system and at best a limited written record. However, textual data is critical to natural language processing and particularly important for the training of language models that would facilitate speech recognition of such languages. Bilingual phonetic dictionaries are often available in some form, since lexicon creation is a fundamental task of documentary linguistics. We investigate the use of such dictionaries to improve language models when textual training data is limited to as few as 1k sentences. The method involves learning cross-lingual word embeddings as a pre-training step in the training of monolingual language models. Results across a number of languages show that language models are improved by such pre-training.

1 Introduction

Most languages have no standard orthography and are not actively written, limiting the availability of textual data to the phonemic transcriptions made by a trained linguist. Since phonemic transcription is a time-consuming process, such data is scarce. This makes language modeling, which is a key tool for facilitating speech recognition of these languages, a very difficult challenge. One of the touted advantages of neural network language models (NNLMs) is their ability to model sparse data (Bengio et al., 2003; Gandhe et al., 2014). However, despite the success of NNLMs on large datasets (Mikolov et al., 2010; Sutskever et al., 2011; Graves, 2013), it remains unclear whether their advantages transfer to scenarios with extremely limited amounts of data.

Appropriate initialization of parameters in neural network frameworks has been shown to be beneficial across a wide variety of domains, including speech recognition, where unsupervised pre-training of deep belief networks was instrumental in attaining breakthrough performance (Hinton et al., 2012). Neural network approaches to a range of NLP problems have also been aided by initialization with word embeddings trained on large amounts of unannotated text (Frome et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014; Lau and Baldwin, 2016). However, in the case of extremely low-resource languages, we don't even have the luxury of this annotated text.

As a remedy to this problem, we focus on cross-lingual word embeddings (CLWEs), which learn word embeddings by utilizing information in multiple languages. Recent advances in CLWEs have shown that high quality embeddings can be learnt even in the absence of bilingual corpora by harnessing bilingual lexicons (Gouws and Sogaard, 2015; Duong et al., 2016). This is useful as some threatened and endangered languages have been subject to significant linguistic investigation, leading to the creation of high-quality lexicons, despite the dearth of transcribed data. For example, the training of a quality speech recognition system for Yongning Na, a Sino-Tibetan language spoken by approximately 40k people, is hindered by this lack of data (Do et al., 2014), despite significant linguistic investigation of the language (Michaud, 2008; Michaud, 2015).

In this paper we address two research questions. Firstly, is the good performance of CLWEs dependent on having large amounts of data in multiple languages, or can large amounts of data in one *source* language inform embeddings trained with very little *target* language data? Secondly, can such CLWEs improve language modeling in low-resource contexts by initializing the parameters of

an NNLM?

To answer these questions, we scale down the available monolingual data of the target language to as few as 1k sentences, while maintaining a large source language dataset. We assess intrinsic embedding quality by considering correlation with human judgment on the WordSim353 test set (Finkelstein et al., 2001). We perform language modeling experiments where we initialize the parameters of a long short-term memory (LSTM) language model for low-resource language model training across a variety of language pairs.

Simulated results indicate that CLWEs remain resilient when target language training data is drastically reduced, and that initializing the embedding layer of an NNLM with these CLWEs consistently leads to better performance of the language model. In light of these results, we explore the method’s application to Na, an actual low-resource language with realistic manually created lexicons and transcribed data, and discuss results, challenges, and future opportunities.

2 Related Work

This paper draws on work in three general areas, which we briefly describe in this section.

Neural network language models and word embeddings Bengio et al. (2003) and Goodman (2001) introduce word embeddings in the context of an investigation of neural language modeling. One argued advantage of such language models is the ability to cope with sparse data by sharing information among words with similar characteristics. Neural language modeling has since become an active area of research, which has demonstrated powerful capabilities at the word level (Mikolov et al., 2010) and character level (Sutskever et al., 2011). Notably, the use of LSTM models of Hochreiter and Schmidhuber (1997) to model long-ranging statistical influences has been shown to be effective (Graves, 2013; Zaremba et al., 2014).

Word embeddings have become even more popular through the application of shallow neural network architectures that allow for training on large quantities of data (Mnih et al., 2009; Bengio et al., 2009; Collobert and Weston, 2008; Mikolov et al., 2013a), spurring much investigation (Chen et al., 2013; Pennington et al., 2014; Shazeer et al., 2016; Bhatia et al., 2016). A key application of word embeddings has been in the initializing of

neural network architectures for a wide variety of NLP tasks with limited annotated data (Frome et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014; Zoph et al., 2016; Lau and Baldwin, 2016).

Low-resource language modeling and language model adaptation Bellegarda (2004) review language model adaptation, and argue that small amounts of in-domain data are often more valuable than large amounts of out-of-domain data, but that adapting background models using in-domain data can be even better. Kurimo et al. (2016) present more recent work on improving large vocabulary continuous speech recognition using language model adaptation for low-resourced Finno-Ugric languages.

Cross-lingual language modeling has also been explored with work on interpolation of a sparse language model with one trained on a large amount of translated data (Jensson et al., 2008), and integrated speech recognition and translation (Jensson et al., 2009; Xu and Fung, 2013).

Gandhe et al. (2014) investigate NNLMs for low-resource languages, comparing NNLMs with count-based language models, and find that NNLMs interpolated with count-based methods outperform standard n-gram models even with small quantities of training data. In contrast, our contribution is an investigation into harnessing CLWEs learnt using bilingual dictionaries in order to improve language modeling in a similar low-resource setting.

Cross-lingual word embeddings Cross-lingual word embeddings have also been the subject of significant investigation. Many methods require parallel corpora or comparable corpora to connect the languages (Klementiev et al., 2012; Zou et al., 2013; Hermann and Blunsom, 2013; Chandar A P et al., 2014; Kociský et al., 2014; Coulmance et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016), while others use bilingual dictionaries (Mikolov et al., 2013b; Xiao and Guo, 2014; Faruqui and Dyer, 2014; Gouws and Sogaard, 2015; Duong et al., 2016; Ammar et al., 2016), or neither (Valerio and Barone, 2016).

In particular, we build on the work of Duong et al. (2016). Their method harnesses monolingual corpora in two languages along with a bilingual lexicon to connect the languages and represent the words in a common vector space. The model builds on the continuous bag-of-words (CBOW) model (Mikolov et al., 2013a) which learns em-

beddings by predicting words given their contexts. The key difference is that the word to be predicted is a target language translation of the a source language word centered in a source language context.

Since dictionaries tend to include a number of translations for words, the model uses an iterative expectation-maximization style training algorithm in order to best select translations given the context. This process thus allows for polysemy to be addressed which is desirable given the polysemous nature of bilingual dictionaries.

3 Resilience of Cross-Lingual Word Embeddings

Previous work using CLWEs typically assumes a similar amount of training data of each available language, often in the form of parallel corpora. Recent work has shown that monolingual corpora of two different languages can be tied together with bilingual dictionaries in order to learn embeddings for words in both languages in a common vector space (Gouw and Sogaard, 2015; Duong et al., 2016). In this section we relax the assumption of the availability of large monolingual corpora on the source and target sides, and report an experiment on the resilience of such CLWEs when data is scarce in the target language, but plentiful in a source language.

3.1 Experimental Setup

Word embedding quality is commonly assessed by evaluating the correlation of the cosine similarity of the embeddings with human judgements of word similarity. Here we follow the same evaluation procedure, except where we simulate a low-resource language by reducing the availability of target English monolingual text but preserve a large quantity of source language text from other languages. This allows us to evaluate the CLWEs intrinsically using the WordSim353 task (Finkelstein et al., 2001) before progressing to downstream language modeling, where we additionally consider other target languages.

We trained a variety of embeddings on English Wikipedia data of between 1k and 128k sentences of training data from (Al-Rfou et al., 2013). In terms of transcribed speech data, this roughly equates to between 1 and 128 hours of speech. For the training data, we randomly chose sentences that include words in the WordSim353 task proportionally to their frequency in the set. As mono-

lingual baselines, we use the *skip-gram* (SG) and CBOW) methods of Mikolov et al. (2013a) as implemented in the *Gensim* package (Řehůřek and Sojka, 2010). We additionally used off-the-shelf CBOW Google News Corpus (GNC) embeddings with 300 dimensions, trained on 100 billion words.

The CLWEs were trained using the method of Duong et al. (2016) since their method addresses polysemy, which is rampant in dictionaries. The same 1k-128k sentence English Wikipedia data was used, but with an additional 5 million sentences of Wikipedia data in a source language. The source languages include Japanese, German, Russian, Finnish, and Spanish, which represent languages of varying similarity with English, some with great morphological and syntactic differences. To relate the languages, we used the *Panlex* dictionary (Kamholz et al., 2014). We used the default window size of 48 as used by Duong et al. (2016), so that the whole sentences context is almost always taken into account. This is to mitigate the effect of word re-ordering between languages. We trained with an embedding dimension of 200 for all data sizes as that large dimension was helpful in capturing information of the source side.¹

3.2 Results

Figure 1 shows correlations with human judgment in the WordSim353 task. The x-axis represents the number of English training sentences. Coloured lines represent CLWEs trained on different languages: Japanese, German, Spanish, Russian and Finnish.²

With around 128k sentences of training data, most methods perform quite well, with German being the best performing. Interestingly the CLWE methods all outperform GNC which was trained on a far larger corpus of 100 billion words. With only 1k sentences of target training data, all the CLWEs have a correlation around .5 with the exception of Finnish. Interestingly, no consistent benefit was gained by using source languages for which translation with English is simpler. For example, Spanish often underperformed Russian and Japanese as a source language, as well as the very morphologically rich Finnish.

¹Hyperparameters for both mono and cross-lingual word embeddings: `iters=15`, `negative=25`, `size=200`, `window=48`, otherwise default. Smaller window sizes led to similar results for monolingual methods.

²We also tried Italian, Dutch, German and Serbian, yielding similar results but omitted for presentation.

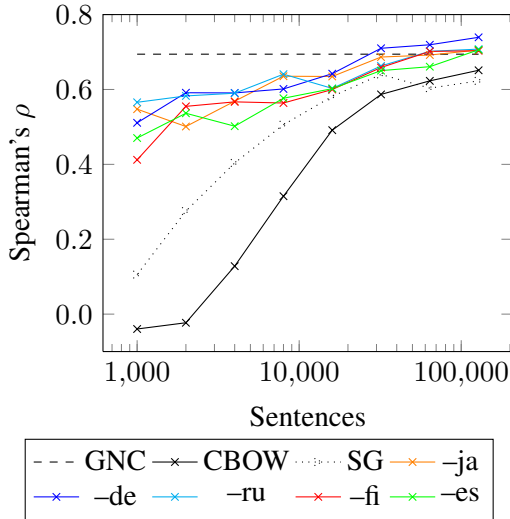


Figure 1: Performance of different embeddings on the WordSim353 task with different amounts of training data. *GNC* is the Google News Corpus embeddings, which are constant. *CBOW* and *SG* are the monolingual word2vec embeddings. The other, coloured, lines are all cross-lingual word embeddings harnessing the information of 5m sentences of various source languages.

Notably, all the CLWEs perform far better than their monolingual counterparts on small amounts of data. This resilience of the target English word embeddings suggests that CLWEs can serve as a method of transferring semantic information from resource-rich languages to the resource-poor, even when the languages are quite different. However, the WordSim353 task is a constrained environment, and so in the next section we turn to language modeling, a natural language processing task of much practical importance for resource-poor languages.

4 Pre-training Language Models

Language models are an important tool with particular application to machine translation and speech recognition. For resource-poor languages and unwritten languages, language models are also a significant bottleneck for such technologies as they rely on large quantities of data. In this section, we assess the performance of language models on varying quantities of data, across a number of different source–target language pairs. In particular, we use CLWEs to initialize the first layer in an LSTM recurrent neural network language model and assess how this affects language model performance. This is an interesting task not only

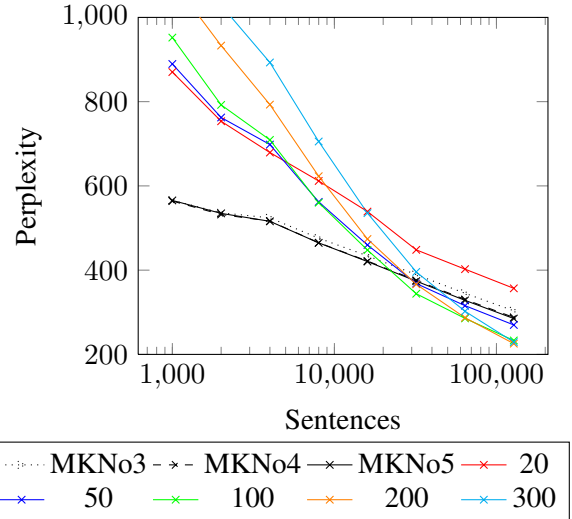


Figure 2: Perplexity of language models on the validation set. Numbers in the legend indicate long short-term memory language models with different hidden layer sizes, as opposed to Modified Kneser-Ney language models of order 3, 4 and 5.

for the practical advantage of having better language models for low-resource languages. Language modeling is a very syntax-oriented task, yet syntax varies greatly between the languages we train the CLWEs on. This experiment thus yields some additional information about how effectively bilingual information can be used for the task of language modeling.

4.1 Experimental Setup

We experiment with a similar data setup as in Section 3. However, target training sentences are not constrained to include words observed in the WordSim353 set, and are random sentences from the aforementioned 5 million sentence corpus. For each language, the validation and test sets consist of 3k randomly selected sentences. The large vocabulary of Wikipedia and the small amounts of training data used make this a particularly challenging language modeling task.

For our NNLMs, we use the LSTM language model of Zaremba et al. (2014). As a count-based baseline, we use Modified Kneser-Ney (MKN) (Kneser and Ney, 1995; Chen and Goodman, 1999) as implemented in KenLM (Heafield, 2011). Figure 2 presents some results of tuning the dimensions of the hidden layer in the LSTM with respect to perplexity on the validation set,³

³We used 1 hidden layer but otherwise the same as the

as well as tuning the order of n-grams used by the MKN language model. A dimension of 100 yielded a good compromise between the smaller and larger training data sizes, while an order 5 MKN model performed slightly better than its lower-order brethren.⁴

Interestingly, MKN strongly outperforms the LSTM on low quantities of data, with the LSTM language model not reaching parity until between 16k and 32k sentences of data. This is consistent with the results of Chen et al. (2015) and Neubig and Dyer (2016) that show that n-gram models are typically better for rare words, and here our vocabulary is large but training data small since the data are random Wikipedia sentences. However these findings are inconsistent with the belief that NNLMs have the ability to cope well with sparse data conditions because of the smooth distributions that arise from using dense vector representations of words (Bengio et al., 2003). Traditional smoothing stands strong.

4.2 English Results

With the parameters tuned on the English validation set as above, we then evaluated the LSTM language model when the embedding layer is initialized with various monolingual and cross-lingual word embeddings. Figure 3 compares the performance of a number of language models on the test set. In every case except for that of no pre-training (*LSTM*) the embedding layer was held fixed during training, though we observed similar results when allowing them deviate from their initial state. For the CLWEs, the same language set was used as in Section 3. The curves for the shown source languages (Dutch, Greek, Finnish, and Japanese) are remarkably similar, as were those for the languages omitted from the figure (German, Russian, Serbian, Italian, and Spanish), which suggests that the English target embeddings are gleaned similar information from each of the languages: likely less syntactic and more semantic since the languages have very different syntax.

We compare these language models pre-trained with CLWEs with pre-training using other embeddings. Pre-training with the Google News Corpus embeddings of the method of Mikolov et al. (2013c) unsurprisingly performs the best due to

SmallConfig of models/rnn/ptb/ptb_word_lm.py available in Tensorflow.

⁴Note that all perplexities in this paper include out-of-vocabulary words, of which there are many.

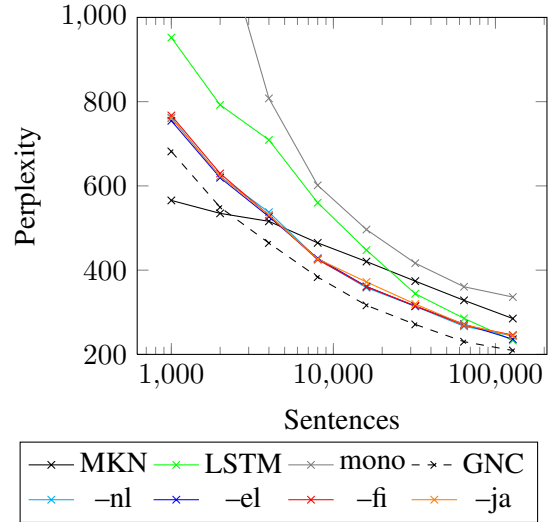


Figure 3: Perplexity of LSTMs when pre-trained with cross-lingual word embeddings trained on the same data. *MKN* is an order 5 Modified Kneser-Ney baseline. *LSTM* is a neural network language model with no pretrained embeddings. *mono* is pretrained with monolingual word2vec embeddings. *GNC* is pretrained with Google News Corpus embeddings of dimension 300. The rest are pretrained with CLWEs using information transfer from different source languages.

the large amount of English data not available to the other methods, making it a sort of oracle. Monolingual pre-training of word embeddings on the same English data (*mono*) used by the CLWEs yields poorer performance.

The language models initialized with pre-trained CLWEs are significantly better than their un-pre-trained counterpart on small amounts of data, reaching par performance with *MKN* at somewhere just past 4k sentences of training data. In contrast, it takes more than 16k sentences of training data before the plain LSTM language model began to outperform *MKN*.

4.3 Other Target Languages

In Table 1 we present results of language model experiments run with other languages used as the low-resource target. In this table English is used in each case as the large source language with which to help train the CLWEs. The observation that the CLWE-pre-trained language model tended to perform best relative to alternatives at around 8k or 16k sentences in the English case prompted us to choose these slices of data when assessing other languages as targets.

Lang	8k sentences			16k sentences		
	MKN	LSTM	CLWE	MKN	LSTM	CLWE
Greek	827.3	920.3	780.4	749.8	687.9	634.4
Serbian	492.8	586.3	521.3	468.8	485.3	447.8
Russian	1656.8	2054.5	1920.4	1609.5	1757.3	1648.3
Italian	777.0	794.9	688.3	686.2	627.7	559.7
German	997.4	1026.0	1000.9	980.0	908.8	874.1
Finnish	1896.4	2438.8	2165.5	1963.3	2233.2	2109.9
Dutch	492.1	491.3	456.2	447.9	412.8	378.0
Japanese	1902.8	2662.4	2475.6	1816.8	2462.8	2279.6
Spanish	496.3	481.8	445.6	445.9	412.9	369.6

Table 1: Perplexity of language models trained on 8k and 16k sentences for different languages. *MKN* is an order 5 Modified Kneser-Ney language model. *LSTM* is a long short-term memory neural network language model with no pre-training. *CLWE* is an LSTM language model pre-trained with cross-lingual word embeddings, using English as the source language.

For each language, the pre-trained LSTM language model outperforms its non-pre-trained counterpart, making it a competition between *MKN* and the *CLWE*-pre-trained language models. The languages for which *MKN* tends to do better are typically those further from English or those with rich morphology, making cross-lingual transfer of information more challenging. Interestingly, there seems to be a degree of asymmetry here: while all languages helped English language modeling similarly, English helps the other languages to varying degrees.

Neural language modeling sparse data can be improved by initializing parameters with cross-lingual word embeddings. But if modified Kneser-Ney is still often better than both, what is the point? Firstly, there is promise in getting the best of both worlds by perhaps using a hybrid count-based language model (*MKN*) and *LSTM* language model with interpolation (Gandhe et al., 2014) or the framework of Neubig and Dyer (2016). Secondly, the consistent performance improvements gained by an *LSTM* using *CLWE*-initialization is a promising sign for *CLWE*-initialization of neural networks for other tasks given limited target language data.

5 First Steps in a Real Under-Resourced Language

Having demonstrated the effectiveness of *CLWE*-pre-training of language models using simulation in a variety of well-resourced written languages, we proceed to a preliminary investigation of this method to a very low-resource unwritten language, Na.

Yongning Na is a Sino-Tibetan language spoken by approximately 40k people in an area in Yunnan, China, near the border with Sichuan. It has no orthography, and is tonal with a rich morphophonology. Given the small quantity of manually transcribed phonemic data available in the language, Na provides an ideal test bed for investigating the potential and difficulties this method faces in a realistic setting. In this section we report results in Na language modeling and discuss hurdles to be overcome.

5.1 Experimental Setup

The phonemically transcribed corpus⁵ consists of 3,039 phonemically transcribed sentences which are a subset of a larger spoken corpus. These sentences are segmented at the level of the word, morpheme and phonological process, and have been translated into French, with smaller amounts translated into Chinese and English. The corpus also includes word-level glosses in French and English. The dictionary of Michaud (2015) contains example sentences for entries, as well as translations into French, English and Chinese.

The dictionary consists of around 2k Na entries, with example sentences and translations into English, French and Chinese. To choose an appropriate segmentation of the corpus, we used a hierarchical segmentation method where words were queried in the dictionary. If a given word was present then it was kept as a token, otherwise the word was split into its constituent morphemes.

We took 2,039 sentences to be used as train-

⁵Available as part of the Pangloss collection at <http://lacito.vjf.cnrs.fr/pangloss>.

	Types	Tokens
Tones	2,045	45,044
No tones	1,192	45,989

Table 2: Counts of types and tokens across the whole Na corpus, given our segmentation method.

	Tones	No tones
MKN	59.4	38.0
LSTM	74.8	46.0
CLWE	76.6	46.2
Lem	76.8	44.7
En-split	76.4	47.0

Table 3: Perplexities on the Na test set using English as the source language. *MKN* is an order 5 Modified Kneser-Ney language model. *LSTM* is a neural network language model without pretraining. *CLWE* is the same LM with pre-trained Na–English CLWEs. *Lem* is the same as CLWE except with English lemmatization. *En-split* extends this by preprocessing the dictionary such that entries with multiple English words are converted to multiple entries of one English word.

ing data, with the remaining 1k sentences split equally between validation and test sets. The phonemic transcriptions include tones, so we created two preprocessed versions of the corpus: with and without tones. Table 2 exhibits type and token counts for these two variations. In addition to the CLWE approach used in Sections 3 and 4, we additionally tried lemmatizing the English Wikipedia corpus so that it each token was more likely to be present in the Na–English dictionary.

5.2 Results and Discussion

Table 3 shows the Na language modeling results. Pre-trained CLWEs do not significantly outperform that of the non-pre-trained, and *MKN* outperforms both. Given the size of the training data, and the results of Section 4, it is no surprise that *MKN* outperforms the NNLM approaches. But the lack of benefit in CLWE-pre-training the NNLMs requires some reflection. We now proceed to discuss the challenges of this data to explore why the positive results of language model pre-training that were seen in Section 4 were not seen in this experiment.

Tones A key challenge arises because of Na’s tonal system. Na has rich tonal morphology. Syntactic relationships between words influence the

surface form the tone a syllable takes. Thus, semantically identical words may take different surface tones than is present in the relevant dictionary entry, resulting in mismatches with the dictionary.

If tones are left present, the percentage of Na tokens present in the dictionary is 62%. Removing tones yields a higher dictionary hit rate of 88% and allows tone mismatches between surface forms and dictionary entries to be overcome. This benefit is gained in exchange for higher polysemy, with an average of 4.1 English translations per Na entry when tones are removed, as opposed to 1.9 when tones are present. Though this situation of polysemy is what the method of Duong et al. (2016) is designed to address, it means the language model fails to model tones and doesn’t significantly help CLWE-pre-training in any case. Future work should investigate morphophonological processing for Na, since there is regularity behind these tonal changes (Michaud, 2008) which could mitigate these issues if addressed.

Polysemy We considered the polysemy of the tokens of other languages’ corpora in the Panlex dictionaries. Interestingly they were higher than the Na dictionary with tones removed, ranging from 2.7 for Greek–English to 19.5 for German–English. It seems the more important factor is the amount of tokens in the English corpus that were present in the dictionary. For the Na–English dictionary, this was only 18% and 20% when lemmatized and unlemmatized, respectively. However it was 67% for the Panlex dictionary. Low dictionary hit rates of both the Na and English corpora must damage the CLWEs modeling capacity.

Dictionary word forms Not all the forms of many English word groups are represented. For example, only the infinitive ‘*to_run*’ is present, while ‘*running*’, ‘*ran*’ and ‘*runs*’ are not. The limited scope of this lexicon motivates lemmatization on the English side as a normalization step, which may be of some benefit (see Table 3). Furthermore, such lemmatization can be expected to reduce the syntactic information present in embeddings which does not transfer between languages as effectively as semantics.

Some common words, such as ‘*reading*’ are not present in the dictionary, but ‘*to_read.aloud*’ is. Additionally, there are frequently entries such as ‘*way_over_there*’ and ‘*masculine_given_name*’ that are challenging to process. As an attempt

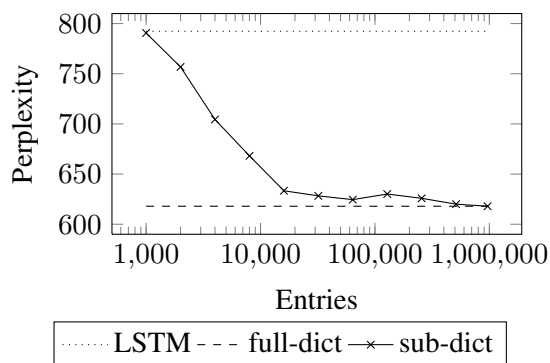


Figure 4: Perplexities of an English–German CLWE-pretrained language model trained on 2k English sentences as the dictionary size available in CLWE training increases to its full size (*sub-dict*). As points of comparison, *LSTM* is a long short-term memory language model with no pre-training and *full-dict* is a CLWE-pretrained language model with the full dictionary available.

to mitigate this issue, we segmented such English entries, creating multiple Na–English entries for each. However, results in Table 3 show that this failed to show improvements. More sophisticated processing of the dictionary is required.

Dictionary size There are about 2,115 Na entries in the dictionary and 2,947 Na–English entries. Which makes the dictionary very small in comparison to the Panlex dictionary used in the previous experiments. Duong et al. (2016) report large reductions in performance of CLWEs on some tasks when dictionary size is scaled down to 10k.

To better understand how limited dictionary size could be affecting language model performance, we performed an ablation experiment where random entries in the Panlex English–German dictionary were removed in order to restrict its size. Figure 4 shows the performance of English language modeling when training data is restricted to 2k sentences (to emulate the Na case) and the size of the dictionary afforded to the CLWE training is adjusted. This can only serve as a rough comparison, since Panlex is very large and so a 1k entry subset may contain many obscure terms and few useful ones. Nevertheless, results suggest that a critical point occurs somewhere in the order of 10k entries. But since improvements are demonstrated even with smaller dictionaries, this is further evidence that more sophisticated preprocessing of the Na dictionary is required.

Domain Another difference that may contribute to the results is that the domain of the text is very different. The Na corpus is a collection of spoken narratives transcribed, while the Wikipedia articles are encyclopaedic entries, which makes the registers very different.

5.3 Future Work on Na Language Modeling

Though the technique doesn’t work out of the box, this sets a difficult and compelling challenge of harnessing the available Na data more effectively.

The dictionary is a rich source of other information, including part-of-speech tags, example sentences and multilingual translations. In addition to better preprocessing of the dictionary information we have already used, harnessing this additional information is an important next step to improving Na language modeling. The corpus includes translations into French, Chinese and English, as well as glosses. Some CLWE methods can additionally utilize such parallel data (Coulmance et al., 2015; Ammar et al., 2016) and we leave to future work incorporation of this information as well.

The tonal system is well described (Michaud, 2008), and so further Na-specific work should allow differences between surface form tones and tones in the dictionary to be bridged.

Our work corroborates the observation that MKN performs well on rare words (Chen et al., 2015). Though we MKN performs the best with such sparse training data, there is promise that hybrid count-based and NNLMs (Gandhe et al., 2014; Neubig and Dyer, 2016) can achieve the best of both worlds for language modeling of Na and other low-resource languages.

6 Conclusion

In this paper we have demonstrated that CLWEs can remain resilient, even when training data in the target language is scaled down drastically. Such CLWEs continue to perform well on the WordSim353 task, as well as demonstrating downstream efficacy across a number of languages through initialization of NNLMs. This work supports CLWEs as a method of transfer of information to resource-poor languages by harnessing distributional information in a large source language. We can expect parameter initialization with CLWEs trained on such asymmetric data conditions to aid in other NLP tasks too, though this should be empirically assessed.

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