

Thesis Proposal: Efficient Methods for Natural Language Generation/Understanding Systems

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Abstract

While Large Language Models (LLMs) have shown remarkable performance in various Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks, their effectiveness seems to be heavily biased toward high-resource languages. This proposal aims to address this gap by developing efficient training strategies for low-resource languages. We propose various techniques for efficient learning in simulated low-resource settings for English. We then plan to adapt these methods for low-resource languages. We plan to experiment with both natural language generation and understanding models. We evaluate the models on similar benchmarks as the BabyLM challenge for English. For other languages, we plan to use treebanks and translation techniques to create our own silver test set to evaluate the low-resource LMs.

1 Introduction

General-purpose Large Language Models (LLMs) have shown exceptional performance in various Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks (Achiam et al., 2023; Team et al., 2023; Dubey et al., 2024; Team et al., 2024). This is made possible using an extensive amount of data and computational resources to train the model, and then further finetuning or prompt tuning on the specific task. However, many such models have huge numbers of parameters and are closed-source (FitzGerald et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024). To counter this, many open-source LLMs have been released with comparable performance. However, the performance of current LLMs has largely been restricted to high-resource languages, even more so only for English, as they are predominantly trained on English and other high-resource languages (Li et al., 2024).

The availability of an adequate pretraining dataset plays the most important role in developing any LLM. Cleaning and processing web-crawled data is a common way of getting monolingual and

parallel datasets (Conneau et al., 2020; De Gibert et al., 2024; Tiedemann, 2009). However, getting such data can be quite challenging for languages with minimal web presence, especially for a specific domain or task. Recent works alleviate the issue by creating synthetic data using zero-shot NMT systems. These works mainly involve using English as a pivot language and transferring the knowledge to the target language. Although there tends to be a performance improvement using such noisy data in contrast to a zero-shot setting, the models' applicability is still debatable (Maheshwari et al., 2024) simply due to the lack of ground truth. To counter this, various challenges have been organized (Cripwell et al., 2023). There has also been an effort to create linguistically rich datasets (Nivre et al., 2016). However, creating such corpora is too costly, which limits the amount of available data instances. Consequently, challenges such as BabyLM (Warstadt et al., 2023) focus on efficient training with the least training instances but are English-only.

Thesis objectives The performance of the current LLMs is mainly limited to high- and moderate-resource languages. The primary objective is to develop new methods for training models for low-resource languages. To achieve this, we will develop general approaches to training LLMs in a low-resource setting, which will first be tested on English for ease of evaluation. We will then work on exploring ways to transfer the data knowledge and tuning strategies to any low-resource language. The thesis will cover both theoretical and experimental aspects of the problem while keeping the solutions linguistically oriented. The secondary goal of this thesis is to release data and produce models for several languages. Using the thesis output, we can work on various NLP tasks for non-English languages. The contribution of this thesis will be three-fold: (1) we will develop efficient pretraining

strategies with limited data, (2) we will release the intermediate synthetic silver data, and (3) we will release the created models.

Thesis Structure The thesis is structured into two main halves. The first half is focused on experiments with English in a low-resource setting (Section 3.1). We propose various approaches suitable for low-resource language modeling. We will evaluate these approaches based on the evaluation metrics used by the BabyLM challenge. These approaches will then be adapted to actual low-resource languages, which constitute the other half. One major challenge is finding ways to evaluate such LMs. We use state-of-the-art NMT systems and existing dataset resources to tackle it. We discuss more about the datasets and evaluation in Section 4. We finally conclude the proposal in Section 5.

Research Questions To summarize we aim to answer our following primary research questions:

- How can we design efficient pretraining strategies that maximize performance with minimal data for low-resource languages?
- Can modular approaches be shown to work better than end-to-end training? How significant a role do the embeddings play?
- Does introducing semantics and syntax knowledge separately help with model training?
- Does delexicalized pretraining improve robustness to sparsity in named entities and rare words?
- How effective are Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) methods in aligning outputs with human preferences when training data is scarce?

2 Background

2.1 Token Representation

The efficiency of token-level representation plays a significant role in model’s performance. Since languages have different scripts, converting them to a common script can make the representation more efficient. There have been various works to study the effectiveness of transliteration in the context of low-resource languages. While transliteration

can lead to loss of phonological and morphological accuracy along with other ambiguities, romanization of languages has been shown to improve cross-lingual alignment (Amrhein and Sennrich, 2020; Purkayastha et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024), as the base models usually are primarily trained on Roman script. However, the performance of such methods is mainly dependent on the tasks, model size, and target languages (Ma et al., 2024).

2.2 Multilingual LLMs

Multilingual LLMs (MLLMs) are trained on almost all available data in various languages with the hypothesis that a deprived language would benefit from the cross-lingual transfer with the higher-resourced ones (Lin et al., 2024; Üstün et al., 2024). However, Wang et al. (2020) show a negative interference for both high and low-resource languages because of the presence of language-specific parameters. The sub-par performance of lower-resourced languages can mainly be attributed to the huge training data imbalance and inefficient vocabulary and tokenization. Consequently, monolingual models, or models trained on better-sampled data, often capture richer linguistic features, especially for lower-resourced languages (Feijo and Moreira, 2020; Xue et al., 2021; Armengol-Estapé et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2023). Furthermore, multilingual models may lack cultural awareness for the under-represented languages (Hämmerl et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024).

2.3 Vocabulary Extension

Another way to extrapolate the performance of higher-resourced languages is through vocabulary extension and further pretraining on specific languages. Zhao et al. (2024) show that further pretraining, or pre-finetuning, on merely 1% of the pretraining data for non-English significantly improves the performance. However, tuning the model parameters entirely on new data often leads to catastrophic forgetting (Luo et al., 2023). To alleviate the issue, Marchisio et al. (2023) considered extending the vocabulary and proposed data mixing strategies. Kim et al. (2024) shows that expanding vocabulary along with several steps of training strategies to tune the model parameters can efficiently improve the model performance on non-English languages. However, the improvement is often limited to closely related languages. As most of the current works on low-resource languages focus on cross-lingual transfer instead of efficient

training strategies, we try to bridge this gap with our work by focusing more on the latter.

2.4 Instruction Tuning and RLHF

There have been numerous works that include instruction tuning and training on human feedback to generate outputs better aligned with human preference (Ouyang et al., 2022; Achiam et al., 2023; Touvron et al., 2023), the current multilingual setups are typically not instruction-tuned due to data scarcity, which limits their performance. Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) (Rafailov et al., 2024) is among the recent frameworks that optimize directly on user preference data without the need for a separate reward model. It has proved to be effective for high-resource languages, but its applicability to low-resource ones is still unknown.

3 Proposed Approaches

Following state-of-the-art approaches for LLM training, we will use the standard transformer architecture for our experiments while focusing primarily on data and training improvements. Specifically, we try to use the data more efficiently by leveraging linguistic annotation. We design our experiments in two steps: (1) we will first benchmark several methods on English, (2) we will transfer those strategies to low-resource languages. Additionally, we will also experiment with several other methods.

3.1 Experiments in English

For simpler evaluation, we will begin with working with the English language in a simulated low-resource setting. The primary goal is to optimize the amount of pretraining tokens used. Specifically, we will experiment with the following strategies for efficient training of English LMs:

1. **Curriculum Learning:** We will use various linguistic features to measure the complexity of the training instances and consequently feed the model simpler instances first, then gradually increase complexity (i.e. build the curriculum). This approach has widely been used in the submitted works at the BabyLM challenge (Chobey et al., 2023; Nguyen et al., 2024; Salhan et al., 2024; Saha et al., 2024). However, the majority of them only categorize the complexity on the dataset-level, due to which potential outliers can get overlooked, whereas in the thesis proposal, we plan to step

up to a more fine-grained instance-level curriculum. Specifically, we calculate the complexity for each training instance on various linguistic levels, e.g., height/number of edges of the dependency tree, etc.

2. **Lexical learning using WordNet:** WordNet provides a hierarchical, lexically rich database of words and synonyms, enabling embedding training focused on word relationships. To boost the initial training stage of our models without using large-scale plain text data, we will first initialize the subword embeddings of the model using the WordNet embeddings as ground truth (Saedi et al., 2018). We then employ different strategies using the WordNet dataset to tune the embeddings further. For example, given a sentence, we replace one of the words using WordNet and further train the model to predict if the two sentences are similar or not.
3. **Syntactic learning using UD treebanks:** We plan to train the encoder on syntactic tasks like Parts-Of-Speech (POS) tagging, using a dataset like the UD treebanks (de Marneffe et al., 2021), which supports syntactically rich and structured text. We will explore syntactically relevant pretraining objectives, such as part-of-speech tagging or masked prediction. Two such examples are given below:
 - Predict POS tags from text, building a foundation in syntactic structure.
 - Predict masked POS tags (sequence-to-sequence of POS tags), focusing on syntactic dependencies.
4. **Delexicalized Pretraining:** Named entities in the training data can lead to sparsity problems in the input data. Consequently, lower-resource language models often struggle with named entities and numbers. To mitigate this issue, we delexicalise the named entities by replacing them with placeholders, focusing instead on the syntactic structure and grammatical relationships.

3.2 Experiments in low-resource languages

We adapt the tuning strategies from English to the low-resource languages. We also propose additional methods to train the models more efficiently. We plan to experiment with the following strategies:

1. **Shuffling:** We plan to experiment with more sophisticated sentence-level shuffling as our pretraining technique. We will propose a self-supervised method that focuses on reconstructing a shuffled input without altering the subject-verb-object order, akin to BART’s objective (Lewis et al., 2019) but adapted for linguistic nuances. Additionally, we experiment with instruction-tuning as well.
2. **Transliteration:** Romanized transliteration has shown better transfer between related languages (Amrhein and Sennrich, 2020). However, it might lead to a loss of information on the morphological level. (Micallef et al., 2023) demonstrated that transliterating to the original script might improve the performance for that language. Thus, we will also experiment on the effect of transliteration for the selected low-resource languages.
3. **Lexical and Syntactic Learning:** If WordNet-enhanced embeddings and syntactic learning prove effective in English, we plan to extend the approach to other languages. Training data for syntactic learning (UD treebank) already exists for the considered languages. For lexical learning, we plan to use NMT systems to generate the candidates for each lexicon in the training data.
4. **Using encoder as assistant for efficient finetuning:** The current LLMs perform significantly well on English language. Using this to our advantage, we plan to use a multi-encoder for faster finetuning on a downstream task. Specifically, we use an additional English encoder to assist the model in finetuning on downstream tasks. We use NMT system for generating the input for the English encoder. Additionally, during the tuning process, we plan to gradually decrease the dependence on the assistant encoder.
5. **Multilingual LMs with language-specific word embeddings:** We also plan to train the embeddings agnostic of other model parameters and vice versa. We aim to get language-specific embeddings while the model parameters serving as a universal grammatical representation. To check the effectiveness, we plan to experiment with different number and combinations of languages, e.g., languages from

the same family. Previous works have shown that the embeddings generated from similar techniques are isomorphic across languages (Vulić et al., 2020). Consequently, we plan to swap embeddings along with further small finetuning to build a low-resource LM.

6. **Direct Preference Optimization (DPO):** DPO has emerged as an alternative to RLHF. It aims to align the outputs to the human-preferred generations. This method can be applied to various sequence-to-sequence tasks, such as summarization, question answering, paraphrasing, and machine translation. We will create substandard samples using back-translation with English as the pivot language. We plan to apply this method for finetuning and instruction-tuning on downstream tasks. We investigate its applicability by integrating it with previously discussed methods.
7. **Curriculum Learning and Delexicalised Pretraining:** We will adopt similar strategies from the English language for the other low-resource languages.

We will consider Aya (Üstün et al., 2024) and mT5 (Xue et al., 2021) as our baseline models, both of which contain the considered languages in their pretraining data. Aya, with 13B parameters, serves as a strong baseline performing well on a wide range of language understanding and generation tasks. We will also train a vanilla language model for each considered language using BART-inspired self-supervised pretraining techniques.

4 Training Dataset, Evaluation and Early Experiments

We will work with English in a limited data setting and 5 other diverse low-resource languages. We consider 2 European languages Irish (ga) and Scottish Gaelic (gd), a Semitic language, Maltese (mt), an Indic language, Urdu (ur), and an African language, Swahili (sw), for our experiments. The choice of languages is motivated by the existence of appropriate evaluation datasets. We will use CC-100¹ (Wenzek et al., 2020) corpus for getting the monolingual data. To get parallel data for our experiments using English as the pivot language, we will be using the OPUS² corpus. Additionally,

¹<https://data.statmt.org/cc-100/>

²<https://opus.nlpl.eu/>

		BERT				mBERT			
Training →		full		non-emb		full		non-emb	
emb ↓	vocab →	model	custom	model	custom	model	custom	model	custom
	model	0.1520	0.3642	0.2180	0.5220	0.2446	0.4392	0.3160	0.5454
	fasttext	-	0.4356	-	0.5288	-	0.3570	-	0.5588
	random	0.1976	0.4000	0.2094	0.5004	0.2011	0.3430	0.2047	0.5341

Table 1: Evaluation results of BERT and mBERT trained for the Scottish Gaelic language with different training settings (Training), embedding initializations (emb.) and vocabularies (vocab.).

we will use the *UD treebanks* (available for all the considered languages) (Nivre et al., 2020) and *WordNet* (Miller, 1995) for English.

4.1 Evaluation

We plan to test our English models on the BLiMP benchmark to evaluate grammatical competence, especially in minimal token usage, which stresses the model’s syntactic and semantic efficiency.

Evaluating low-resource LMs gets tricky due to the nonavailability of appropriate evaluation sets. We use zero-shot NMT systems to address this challenge. For most of our evaluation in low-resource, we use English as our pivot language to generate test sets from the available monolingual corpora. Previous work (Kumar et al., 2023) has shown that generating via English has better performance than direct generation. Thus, to evaluate the applicability of our general-purpose LMs in low-resource languages, we will perform evaluation on three types of tasks:

Generation tasks We choose *paraphrasing* and *summarization* tasks to evaluate the models on their language generation capability. Since there is no gold data available, we plan to create silver test data using the NMT system and the available monolingual corpora. Specifically, for each data instance in the monolingual corpus, we will create its corresponding synthetic input using NMT systems and state-of-the-art English LLMs, depending on the downstream task. Specifically, for a given data instance y_l in language l , we first translate y_l to English y_{en} . We use current English-centric LLMs to generate corresponding synthetic input (for summarization - longer sentence) in English (x_{en}). We translate it back to the target language l (x_l) to get a silver parallel data, while preserving the naturalness of the task outputs. Additionally, we will test our methods on the WebNLG dataset for *data-to-text* generation for the Irish language.

Single-input Understanding Tasks We will use UD treebanks for training and testing on the *POS tagging* task for all the languages. We will also create silver test data for *NER*. We follow a similar approach as the previous paragraph. We translate the sentences into English, classify the named entities, and transfer the labels back to the target language using cross-attention scores.

Input-pair tasks We will use *XNLI* to evaluate Swahili and Urdu models. For the other three languages, we evaluate them again on the synthetic test data using English as a pivot language.

4.2 Early Experiments and Results

To start off, we hypothesize that full model tuning is often unnecessary and propose a more modular approach. Specifically, our method involves first training a language-specific tokenizer and creating corresponding embeddings, followed by tuning only the non-embedding parameters. We perform a comprehensive analysis across multiple scenarios, including multilingual-to-monolingual transfer and adaptation from high-resource to low-resource monolingual models. When applied to multilingual models, our method significantly reduces the number of tunable parameters and the overall training time. We further evaluate the natural language understanding (NLU) models on the mask-filling task. We present the accuracy scores in Table 1. Training only the non-embedding parameters consistently yields better results, while using a custom tokenizer provides a significant performance boost. Additionally, mBERT performs slightly better than BERT, and FastText embeddings offer only minimal improvement.

We also experiment with parameter-efficient training methods through artificial language-based pretraining strategies. Prior studies (Papadimitriou and Jurafsky, 2020; Chiang and yi Lee, 2022) demonstrate that models pretrained on non-

linguistic data can achieve performance comparable to those trained on English sentences. We adapt the best performing approach followed by a parameter-efficient *pretraining* for language acquisition from limited data. Our method initializes the model using token embeddings trained with a shallow model, followed by tuning only the non-embedding parameters on non-linguistic data to introduce structural biases. Subsequently, the model is frozen and further pretrained on the 10M-token BabyLM corpus using LoRA adapters. Experiments on small-scale dataset show that this approach leads to performance comparable to classic full-model pretraining.

5 Conclusion

The thesis proposal outlines various approaches to tune the models efficiently. We discuss related literature and current challenges specific to language modeling for low-resource languages.

We propose several techniques for efficient tuning in a simulated low-resource setting for English. Specifically, we plan to use curriculum learning at both the instance and dataset levels. We also plan to evaluate the role of grammar-rich datasets in model training. Furthermore, we also propose a delexicalised pretraining method to address the challenge of data sparsity in low-resource scenarios. We plan to train and evaluate the models for both generation and understanding tasks.

We further extend these approaches to actual low-resource languages. Additionally, we also try modular approaches to train the model separately on different linguistic levels. We also propose an encoder-assisted finetuning method for faster convergence and better knowledge transfer from higher-resource languages. We also plan to use DPO for generating better-aligned outputs to humans for low-resource languages. We evaluate our proposed approaches on various tasks, depending on the availability of test sets. We also plan to generate silver test sets using NMT systems on evaluation sets from higher-resource languages.

Challenges

We identify the following challenges and possible alternatives for the proposed approaches:

- Failing to adapt WordNet dataset for low-resource languages: Since this method depends on the chosen NMT system (NLLB, in this case), the quality of the generated data

can be inadequate. We mitigate this issue by checking with several other NMT systems (Üstün et al., 2024; Fan et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020); if nothing works, we plan to use the Wiki dataset for lexical training.

- Curriculum learning on data instance level could prove ineffective: While this is a low-level risk, curriculum learning has proven to be effective on the dataset level for English (Mi, 2023). Thus, we can alleviate the issue by applying similar techniques to non-English languages.
- Delexicalised Pretraining may prove ineffective: In case this doesn't work out, we plan to delexicalise only during the inference, as this has been proven beneficial for end-to-end task-oriented dialogue systems (Kulhánek et al., 2021).
- Failure of language-specific embeddings for multilingual LMs: We permanently integrate the additional encoder into the model instead of relying on its assistance only during fine-tuning.

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A Example Appendix

This is an appendix.