

AraDIC: Arabic Document Classification using Image-Based Character Embeddings and Class-Balanced Loss

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Abstract

Classical and some deep learning techniques for Arabic text classification often depend on complex morphological analysis, word segmentation, and hand-crafted feature engineering. These could be eliminated by using character-level features. We propose a novel end-to-end Arabic document classification framework, Arabic document image-based classifier (AraDIC), inspired by the work on image-based character embeddings. AraDIC consists of an image-based character encoder and a classifier. They are trained in an end-to-end fashion using the class balanced loss to deal with the long-tailed data distribution problem. To evaluate the effectiveness of AraDIC, we created and published two datasets, the Arabic Wikipedia title (AWT) dataset and the Arabic poetry (AraP) dataset. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first image-based character embedding framework addressing the problem of Arabic text classification. We also present the first deep learning-based text classifier widely evaluated on modern standard Arabic, colloquial Arabic and classical Arabic. AraDIC shows performance improvement over classical and deep learning baselines by 12.29% and 23.05% for the micro and macro F-score, respectively.

1 Introduction

Arabic is one of the six official languages of the United Nations and the official language of 26 states. It is spoken by as many as 420 million people making it the fifth most popular language worldwide. According to the Internet World Statistics, as of 2017, Arab users represent 4.8% of internet users¹.

Arabic can be classified into three different types each having its own purpose and morphology. The modern standard Arabic, the colloquial or dialectal

Arabic and the classical or old Arabic. The modern standard Arabic is the official language used in media, government, news papers and is taught in schools. Colloquial Arabic varies between countries and regions. Old or classical Arabic survives nowadays in religious scriptures and old poetry.

Arabic has 28 basic letters all are consonants except three, which are long vowels. Arabic is written from right to left. Most Arabic letters have more than one written form depending on their position in the word. For example, “س”, “س”, “س”, and “س” are all different forms of the letter “س”(sīn). In addition, diacritical marks/short vowels that contribute to the phonology of Arabic, greatly alter the character shape. Example, “ب”, “ب”, “ب”, “ب”, “ب”, “ب”, and “ب” are combination of the letter “ب”(bā’) with different diacritics. This visual nature of the Arabic letters is the main motivation for us to use image based embeddings.

The importance of text classification has increased due to the increase of textual data on the internet as a result of social networks and news sites. Common examples of text classification are sentiment analysis (Ibrahim et al., 2015), spam detection (El-Halees, 2009) and news categorization (Shehab et al., 2016). Arabic text classification is particularly challenging because of its complex morphological analysis.

Most research on Arabic text classification has used classical techniques for feature extraction (Salloum et al., 2018), which require complex morphological analysis, such as negation handling (Al-Twairesh et al., 2016), part of speech tagging (Khoja, 2001), stemming (Al-Kabi et al., 2015), and segmentation (Abdelali et al., 2016). Arabic segmentation is especially complex because Arabic words are not always separated by white spaces. It also includes some hand-crafted features

¹Arabic Speaking Internet Users and Population Statistics. <https://www.internet-worldstats.com/stats19.html> Accessed: 16-Dec-2018,

like document term matrix with term frequency inverse document frequency (TF-IDF) scores or word count.

Arabic text classification have been often done using classical algorithms like support vector machines (SVMs) or Naive Bayes (Salloum et al., 2018). Despite advances of text classification using deep learning techniques, little work has been done on Arabic. Soliman et al. (2017) introduced AraVec, which is a pretrained distributed word embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013). They trained their model using the skip-gram and continuous bag of words techniques. They used data from different sources like Wikipedia and Twitter. More recently, Sagheer and Sukkar (2018) used AraVec’s pretrained word embeddings with sentence convolutional neural network (CNN) originally proposed by Kim (2014) for Arabic document classification. This method still did not mitigate the problem of Arabic word segmentation.

Those combinations left two major issues unaddressed. First, performance highly depends on morphological analysis and word segmentation, which is difficult for Arabic. The same problem has been addressed for languages such as Japanese and Chinese (Peng et al., 2003). Second, obtaining appropriate embedding (i.e. building hand-crafted features) is difficult.

To solve these problems, character-based approaches utilizing deep learning methods mainly used in image processing have been proposed (Zhang et al., 2015; Shimada et al., 2016; Kitada et al., 2018).

Zhang et al. (2015) introduced a character-level CNN (CLCNN) that treats text as a raw signal at character level. The CNN then learns the language morphology and extracts appropriate features for text classification. Their method mitigated the issue of complex morphological analysis.

After that, Shimada et al. (2016) proposed image-based character embeddings for Japanese and Chinese text classification. Their model was composed of a convolutional auto-encoder (CAE) (Masci et al., 2011) and a CLCNN. They were the first to handle a character as an image and obtained character-embedding with their CAE. They also introduced wild card training as a data augmentation technique, which is dropout (Srivastava et al., 2014) on the embedding space.

Later, Liu et al. (2017) used image-based character embeddings learned through a character en-

coder (CE) to train a gated recurrent unit (GRU) for Japanese, Chinese, and Korean text classification.

Kitada et al. (2018) proposed CE-CLCNN that concatenated Liu et al. (2017)’s CE with CLCNN as an end-to-end system and introduced random erasing on image domain as a data augmentation method. These models using character-level features learn language morphology eliminating the need for complex morphological analysis and word segmentation.

Another problem is that large text classification datasets usually suffer from long tailed data distribution problem. This means that few classes make up majority of data. This problem often reduces the model’s accuracy on the minority classes making more biased towards majority classes.

This problem can be addressed by either re-sampling (Chawla et al., 2002; Shen et al., 2016; Geifman and El-Yaniv, 2017; Buda et al., 2018; Zou et al., 2018) or re-weighting the cost function (Ting, 2000; Zhou and Liu, 2005; Huang et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2017; Cui et al., 2019).

Cui et al. (2019) noticed that re-weighting the cost function by inverse class frequency as used in vanilla schemes (Huang et al., 2016, 2019; Wang et al., 2017) could lead to poor performance on majority classes. They proposed class-balanced (CB) loss based on the effective number of classes which re-weights the loss by the inverse of the effective number of classes.

Our contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We propose AraDIC which is a framework for Arabic text classification. AraDIC is an end-to-end model of a character encoder and a classifier trained using CB loss.
- CB loss was originally intended for object detection tasks. We show that it can solve class-imbalance problems for text classification tasks.
- We introduce two datasets in the hope of becoming bench marking datasets for Arabic text classification tasks as well. The Arabic Wikipedia title (AWT) dataset and the the Arabic poetry (AraP) dataset. These two datasets contain the three types of Arabic language.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time an image-based character embedding model is used for Arabic text classification. Also, the first time a deep-learning based model is tested

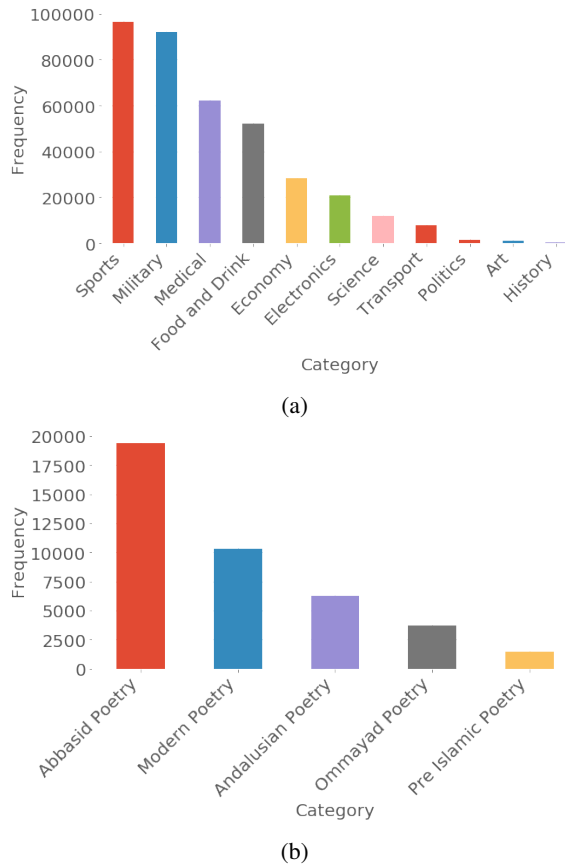


Figure 1: The category distribution for the (a) AWT and (b) AraP datasets.

on datasets containing the three types of Arabic. This shows that our method could be used to overcome Arabic’s complicated morphological analysis and word segmentation for all types of Arabic. The code and datasets are released at <https://github.com/mahmouddaif/AraDIC>

2 Datasets

Arabic text classification lacks bench marking datasets. This is because it is expensive and time consuming to annotate a large dataset to be used for text classification using deep learning algorithms. We created two large datasets that do not require manual annotation and can be used as benchmarks for Arabic text classification. The AWT and the AraP datasets. Sections 2.1 and 2.2 describe how we constructed these datasets.

2.1 Arabic Wikipedia Title Dataset (AWT)

Liu et al. (2017) introduced the Wikipedia title dataset for Japanese, Chinese and Korean by making use of Wikipedia’s recursive hierarchical structure to crawl 12 different Wikipedia categories and

using the category as a label to all article titles under this category, and its subcategories. He assumed that an article only exists in one category. If an article existed in more that one category, it was randomly assigned to only one of them. This created some noisy annotations, however, categories were chosen as distinctive in nature as possible to reduce this problem. We crawl 11 different categories from the Arabic Wikipedia using the same method. A total of 444,911 different titles with a total of 4,196,127 different words were crawled. This dataset contains mostly modern standard Arabic. The dataset category distribution can be found in Figure 1a.

2.2 Arabic Poetry Dataset (AraP)

The AraP dataset was crawled from the Adab Website² It contains Arabic poetry from the 6th to 21st centuries and consists of 41,264 poems from five eras. This dataset contains mostly colloquial and old Arabic. AraP’s Category distribution details can be found in Figure 1b.

3 Methodology

AraDIC is an end-to-end framework of a character encoder (CE) and a classifier. We choose two classifiers for our framework. A character CNN (CLCNN) similar to Kitada et al. (2018), but tuned to Arabic language, and a bidirectional gated recurrent unit (BiGRU) (Chung et al., 2014) based classifier. The outline of our framework is shown in Figure 2. We use wildcard training introduced by (Shimada et al., 2016) for data augmentation. Wildcard training is dropout on the embedding space so that the data changes a little every training iteration. In that sense it acts as a data augmentation technique. We use CB softmax loss to deal with class imbalance problem.

3.1 Character Encoder

The CE is a CNN where convolution is performed in a depth-wise manner. It learns to encode each input character image of size 36×36 pixels into a 128-dimension vector. The architectural configuration is shown in Table 1a.

3.2 Classifier

For classification we use two classifiers. The first one is a CLCNN, and the second is a BiGRU. Input

²Adab website for Arabic poetry from 6th to 21st centuries. <http://www.adab.com/>.

Layer	Configuration
Conv2D	(c= 1, k = 3x3, f=32) + ReLU
Max-Pool2D	(k=2x2)
Conv2D	(c=32, k = 3x3, f=32) + ReLU
Max-Pool2D	(k=2x2)
Conv2D	(c=32, k = 3x3, f=32) + ReLU
FC	(800,128) + ReLU
FC	(128,128) + ReLU

(a) Character encoder architecture.

Layer	Configuration
Conv1D	(c= 128, k = 3, f=512) + ReLU
Max-Pool1D	(k=3)
Conv1D	(c=512, k=3, f=512) + ReLU
Max-Pool1D	(k=3)
Conv1D	(c=512, k = 3, f=512) + ReLU
Conv1D	(c=512, k = 3, f=512) + ReLU
FC	(1024,1024) + ReLU
FC	(1024,nc) + ReLU

(b) CLCNN architecture.

Layer	Configuration
BiGRU	(input = 128, hidden = 128, layer = 3) + BN
FC	(256,nc)

(c) BiGRU architecture.

Table 1: AraDIC’s architectural configuration, **c** is input channels, **k** is kernel size, **f** is feature maps, **nc** is number of classes and **BN** is Batch Normalization (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015).

text is represented as an array of character images each encoded into a 128 dimension vector using the CE. Those character embeddings are the input features for both the CLCNN and the BiGRU.

The CLCNN is a character-level CNN whose architectural details can be found in Table 1b.

The BiGRU takes those characters embeddings and computes a sentence level embedding. The sentence embedding is the average of all the hidden layers outputs of the BiGRU. These sentence level features are then passed to a fully connected layer followed by a softmax for class prediction. Detailed architecture of the BiGRU can be found in Table 1c.

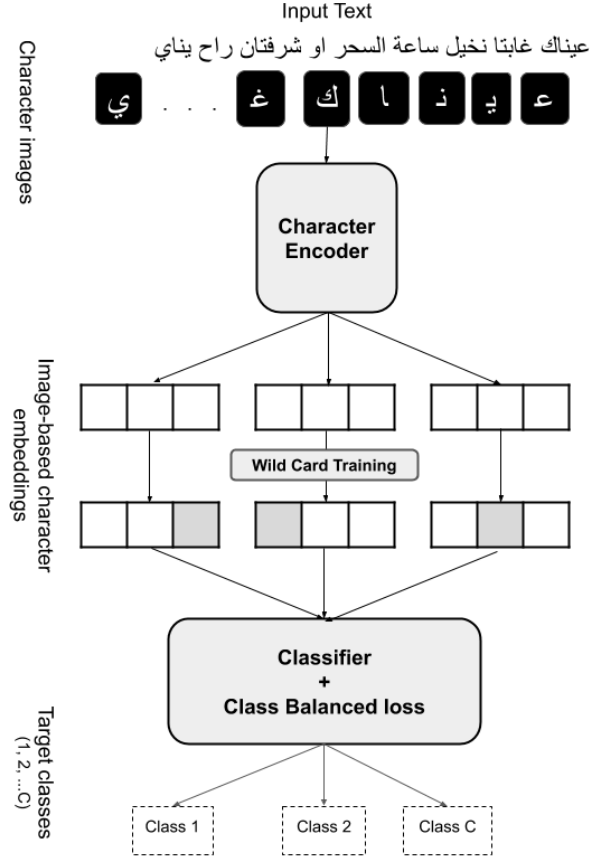


Figure 2: AraDIC’s architecture outline.

3.3 Class-Balanced Loss

Both of our datasets suffer from the long tailed distribution problem as shown in Figure 1a and 1b. To deal with this problem, we use state-of-the-art method, the class balanced loss (Cui et al., 2019). The class-balanced loss could be applied by re-weighting the loss function by the inverse effective number of classes. We apply it to softmax cross entropy loss as follows:

$$-\frac{1-\beta}{1-\beta^{n_y}} \log \left(\frac{\exp(Z_y)}{\sum_{j=1}^C \exp(Z_j)} \right), \quad (1)$$

where $\frac{1-\beta}{1-\beta^{n_y}}$ is the inverse effective number of classes. Z_j is the model output ($j = 1, 2, \dots, C$), y is class label for the input sample, n_y is number of samples per class y and β is a training hyper parameter. This will assign adaptive weights to the cost function for classes with higher samples and classes with lower samples, effectively re-weighting the cost function based on effective number of classes. This method was originally intended for object detection, we show that it can be applied to text classification as well.

Model			F-score			
			Arabic Wikipedia Title		Arabic Poetry	
	Embedding	Classifier	Micro [%]	Macro [%]	Micro [%]	Macro [%]
		Majority Class	21.67	2.97	47.06	5.33
Word level	Unigram	SVM	45.47	26.60	52.80	34.83
	AraVec	CNN	45.02	25.05	69.28	41.95
Character level	One-hot AraDIC	CLCNN	42.76	18.71	68.24	37.72
		CLCNN (– CB loss)	47.47	26.85	74.86	45.61
		CLCNN (+ CB loss)	49.49	30.55	74.03	48.65
		BiGRU (– CB loss)	55.71	39.04	78.93	59.88
		BiGRU (+ CB loss)	57.76	44.54	79.53	65.00

Table 2: Classification results of our model and other baselines. **Majority Class**: Due to high class-imbalance in both of our datasets, we examine the performance of majority class classifier. **CNN + AraVec**: Sentence classifier CNN (Sagheer and Sukkar, 2018; Kim, 2014) using AraVec’s word embeddings (Soliman et al., 2017). **SVM**: an SVM with unigrams, stemming, and document term matrix with TF-IDF scores as features. **CLCNN**: character level CNN with one hot encoding as inputs (Zhang et al., 2015). **AraDIC**: our proposed end-to-end framework of character encoder, CLCNN and BiGRU classifiers, trained with and without class-balanced softmax loss (**CB loss**). We report two evaluation metrics, the macro and micro F-scores.

4 Experiments

To train our classifier both datasets are divided into 80% training data and 20% testing data³.

4.1 AraDIC

The maximum character length of each document is set to 60 characters for the AWT dataset and 128 characters for the AraP dataset. That’s for using the CLCNN classifiers. As for the BiGRU classifier we don’t set a maximum character length, instead the whole text is used. Each character was encoded into a 128 dimension vector using the CE. Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2014) with a batch size of 64 and a learning rate of 0.001 was chosen as the optimization method. As for the CB loss we set β to 0.99 for both datasets. Wildcard training ratio is set to 10%. The training loss converged after approximately 150 epochs for AraP dataset and 500 epochs for AWT dataset.

4.2 Baselines

We use several word-based and character-based baselines to evaluate our method. They include both classical and deep learning baselines as follows:

- Due to high class imbalance in both our datasets, a majority class classifier is chosen as our first baseline.
- A classical Support Vector Machine (SVM) with a document-term matrix (DTM) of TF-IDF scores for unigrams as input was used as word-based baseline. Terms occurring only once and terms appearing in more than 90% of documents were omitted from the DTM. We performed preprocessing in the form of stop words, non-Arabic characters, diacritics removal. Then, text is stemmed using Khoja stemmer (Khoja, 2001). Farasa segmenter (Abdelali et al., 2016) was used for word segmentation.
- We also used Sagheer and Sukkar (2018)’s method of using AraVec’s word embeddings as input features and sentence CNN originally introduced by Kim (2014) for classification. This is another word-based baseline.
- Another baseline is a character-level CNN (CLCNN) introduced by Zhang et al. (2015). In this baseline, input characters were one-hot encoded.

³Hyperparameters were tuned with a validation set split from the training set, and reported the predicted results of the evaluation set.

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