

Cross-Lingual Text Classification with Minimal Resources by Transferring a Sparse Teacher

Giannis Karamanolakis, Daniel Hsu, Luis Gravano

Columbia University, New York, NY 10027, USA

{gkaraman, djhsu, gravano}@cs.columbia.edu

Abstract

Cross-lingual text classification alleviates the need for manually labeled documents in a target language by leveraging labeled documents from other languages. Existing approaches for transferring supervision across languages require *expensive* cross-lingual resources, such as parallel corpora, while less expensive cross-lingual representation learning approaches train classifiers *without* target labeled documents. In this work, we propose a cross-lingual teacher-student method, CLTS, that generates “weak” supervision in the target language using *minimal* cross-lingual resources, in the form of a small number of word translations. Given a limited translation budget, CLTS extracts and transfers only the most important task-specific seed words across languages and initializes a teacher classifier based on the translated seed words. Then, CLTS iteratively trains a more powerful student that also exploits the context of the seed words in *unlabeled* target documents and outperforms the teacher. CLTS is simple and surprisingly effective in 18 diverse languages: by transferring just 20 seed words, even a bag-of-words logistic regression student outperforms state-of-the-art cross-lingual methods (e.g., based on multilingual BERT). Moreover, CLTS can accommodate any type of student classifier: leveraging a *monolingual* BERT student leads to further improvements and outperforms even more expensive approaches by up to 12% in accuracy. Finally, CLTS addresses emerging tasks in low-resource languages using just a small number of word translations.

1 Introduction

The main bottleneck in using supervised learning for multilingual document classification is the high cost of obtaining labeled documents for all of the target languages. To address this issue in a target language L_T , we consider a cross-lingual text clas-

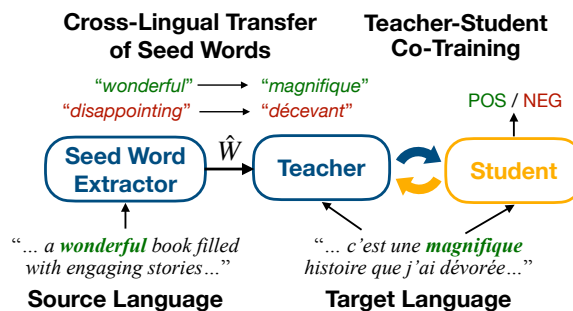


Figure 1: Our cross-lingual teacher-student (CLTS) method trains a student classifier in the target language by transferring weak supervision across languages.

sification approach that requires labeled documents only in a source language L_S and not in L_T .

Existing approaches for transferring supervision across languages rely on large parallel corpora or machine translation systems, which are expensive to obtain and are not available for many languages.¹ To scale beyond high-resource languages, multilingual systems have to reduce the cross-lingual requirements and operate under a limited budget of cross-lingual resources. Such systems typically ignore target-language supervision, and rely on feature representations that bridge languages, such as cross-lingual word embeddings (Ruder et al., 2019) or multilingual transformer models (Wu and Dredze, 2019; Pires et al., 2019). This general approach is less expensive but has a key limitation: by not considering labeled documents in L_T , it may fail to capture predictive patterns that are specific to L_T . Its performance is thus sensitive to the quality of pre-aligned features (Glavaš et al., 2019).

In this work, we show how to obtain weak supervision for training accurate classifiers in L_T without using manually labeled documents in L_T

¹Google Translate (<https://translate.google.com/>) is available for 103 out of the about 4,000 written languages (<https://www.ethnologue.com/>).

or expensive document translations. We propose a novel approach for cross-lingual text classification that transfers weak supervision from L_S to L_T using *minimal* cross-lingual resources: we only require a small number of task-specific keywords, or seed words, to be translated from L_S to L_T . Our core idea is that the most indicative seed words in L_S often translate to words that are also indicative in L_T . For instance, the word “wonderful” in English indicates positive sentiment, and so does its translation “magnifique” in French. Thus, given a limited budget for word translations (e.g., from a bilingual speaker), only the most important seed words should be prioritized to transfer task-specific information from L_S to L_T .

Having access only to limited cross-lingual resources creates important challenges, which we address with a novel cross-lingual teacher-student method, CLTS (see Figure 1).

Efficient transfer of supervision across languages: As a first contribution, we present a method for cross-lingual transfer in low-resource settings with a limited word translation budget. CLTS extracts the most important seed words using the translation budget as a sparsity-inducing regularizer when training a classifier in L_S . Then, it transfers seed words and the classifier’s weights across languages, and initializes a teacher classifier in L_T that uses the translated seed words.

Effective training of classifiers without using any labeled target documents: The teacher, as described above, predicts meaningful probabilities only for documents that contain translated seed words. Because translations can induce errors and the translation budget is limited, the translated seed words may be noisy and not comprehensive for the task at hand. As a second contribution, we extend the “weakly-supervised co-training” method of Karamanolakis et al. (2019) to our cross-lingual setting for training a stronger student classifier using the teacher and unlabeled-only target documents. The student outperforms the teacher across all languages by 59.6%.

Robust performance across languages and tasks: As a third contribution, we empirically show the benefits of generating weak supervision in 18 diverse languages and 4 document classification tasks. With as few as 20 seed-word translations and a bag-of-words logistic regression student, CLTS outperforms state-of-the-art methods

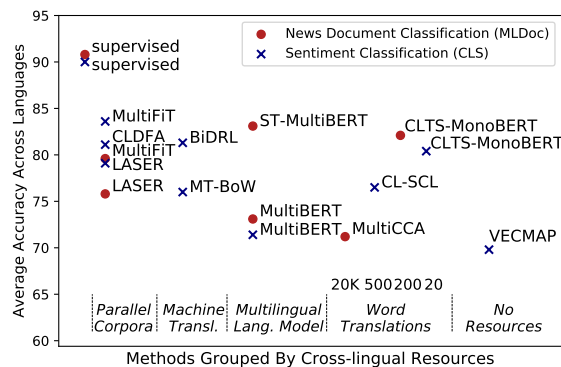


Figure 2: CLTS leverages a small number of word translations more effectively than previous methods and sometimes outperforms more expensive methods. (Refer to Sections 2 and 5 for details.)

relying on more complex multilingual models, such as multilingual BERT, across most languages. Using a monolingual BERT student leads to further improvements and outperforms even more expensive approaches (Figure 2). CLTS does not require cross-lingual resources such as parallel corpora, machine translation systems, or pre-trained multilingual language models, which makes it applicable in low-resource settings. As a preliminary exploration, we address medical emergency situation detection in Uyghur and Sinhalese with just 50 translated seed words per language, which could be easily obtained from bilingual speakers.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews related work. Section 3 defines our problem of focus. Section 4 presents our cross-lingual teacher-student approach.² Section 5 describes our experimental setup and results. Finally, Section 6 concludes and suggests future work.

2 Related Work

Relevant work spans cross-lingual text classification and knowledge distillation.

2.1 Cross-Lingual Text Classification

We focus on a cross-lingual text classification scenario with labeled data in the source language L_S and unlabeled data in the target language L_T . We review the different types of required cross-lingual resources, starting with the most expensive types.

Annotation Projection and Machine Translation. With parallel corpora (i.e., corpora where

²Our Python implementation is publicly available at <https://github.com/gkaramanolakis/clts>.

each document is written in both L_S and L_T), a classifier trained in L_S predicts labels for documents in L_S and its predictions are projected to documents in L_T to train a classifier in L_T (Mihalcea et al., 2007; Rasooli et al., 2018). Unfortunately, parallel corpora are hard to find, especially in low-resource domains and languages.

Without parallel corpora, documents can be translated using machine translation (MT) systems (Wan, 2008, 2009; Salameh et al., 2015; Mohammad et al., 2016). However, high-quality MT systems are limited to high-resource languages. Even when an MT system is available, translations may change document semantics and degrade classification accuracy (Salameh et al., 2015).

Cross-Lingual Representation Learning.

Other approaches rely on less expensive resources to align feature representations across languages, typically in a shared feature space to enable cross-lingual model transfer.

Cross-lingual word embeddings, or CLWE, represent words from different languages in a joint embedding space, where words with similar meanings obtain similar vectors regardless of their language. (See Ruder et al. (2019) for a survey.) Early CLWE approaches required expensive parallel data (Klementiev et al., 2012; Täckström et al., 2012). In contrast, later approaches rely on high-coverage bilingual dictionaries (Gliozzo and Strapparava, 2006; Faruqi and Dyer, 2014; Gouws et al., 2015) or smaller “seed” dictionaries (Gouws and Søgaard, 2015; Artetxe et al., 2017). Some recent CLWE approaches require no cross-lingual resources (Lample et al., 2018; Artetxe et al., 2018; Chen and Cardie, 2018; Søgaard et al., 2018) but perform substantially worse than approaches using seed dictionaries of 500-1,000 pairs (Vulić et al., 2019). Our approach does not require CLWE and achieves competitive classification performance with substantially fewer translations of *task-specific* words.

Recently, multilingual transformer models were pre-trained in multiple languages in parallel using language modeling objectives (Devlin et al., 2019; Conneau and Lample, 2019). Multilingual BERT, a version of BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) that was trained on 104 languages in parallel without using any cross-lingual resources, has received significant attention (Karthikeyan et al., 2019; Singh et al., 2019; Rogers et al., 2020). Multilingual BERT performs well on zero-shot cross-lingual transfer (Wu and Dredze, 2019; Pires et al., 2019)

and its performance can be further improved by considering target-language documents through self-training (Dong and de Melo, 2019). In contrast, our approach does not require multilingual language models and sometimes outperforms multilingual BERT using a *monolingual* BERT student.

2.2 Knowledge Distillation

Our teacher-student approach is related to “knowledge distillation” (Buciluă et al., 2006; Ba and Caruana, 2014; Hinton et al., 2015), where a student classifier is trained using the predictions of a teacher classifier. Xu and Yang (2017) apply knowledge distillation for cross-lingual text classification but require expensive parallel corpora. MultiFiT (Eisenschlos et al., 2019) trains a classifier in L_T using the predictions of a cross-lingual model, namely, LASER (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019), that also requires large parallel corpora. Vyas and Carpuat (2019) classify the semantic relation (e.g., synonymy) between two words from different languages by transferring *all* training examples across languages. Our approach addresses a different problem, where training examples are full documents (not words), and transferring source training documents would require MT. Related to distillation is the semi-supervised approach of Shi et al. (2010) that trains a target classifier by transferring a source classifier using high-coverage dictionaries. Our approach is similar, but trains a classifier using sparsity regularization, and translates only the most important seed words.

3 Problem Definition

Consider a source language L_S , a target language L_T , and a classification task with K predefined classes of interest $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, K\}$ (e.g., sentiment categories). Labeled documents $D_S = \{(x_i^S, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ are available in L_S , where $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ and each source document x_i^S is a sequence of words from the source vocabulary V_S . Only unlabeled documents $D_T = \{x_i^T\}_{i=1}^M$ are available in L_T , where each target document x_i^T is a sequence of words from the target vocabulary V_T . We assume that there is no significant shift in the conditional distribution of labels given documents across languages. Furthermore, we assume a limited translation budget, so that up to B words can be translated from L_S to L_T .

Our goal is to use the labeled source documents D_S , the unlabeled target documents D_T , and the

translations of no more than B source words to train a classifier that, given an unseen test document x_i^T in the target language L_T , predicts the corresponding label $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$.

4 Cross-Lingual Teacher-Student

We now describe our cross-lingual teacher-student method, CLTS, for cross-lingual text classification. Given a limited budget of B translations, CLTS extracts only the B most important seed words in L_S (Section 4.1). Then, CLTS transfers the seed words and their weights from L_S to L_T , to initialize a classifier in L_T (Section 4.2). Using this classifier as a teacher, CLTS trains a student that predicts labels using both seed words and their context in target documents (Section 4.3).

4.1 Seed-Word Extraction in L_S

CLTS starts by automatically extracting a set G_k^S of indicative seed words per class k in L_S . Previous extraction approaches, such as tf-idf variants (Angelidis and Lapata, 2018), have been effective in monolingual settings with limited labeled data. In our scenario, with sufficiently many labeled *source* documents and a limited translation budget B , we propose a different approach based on a supervised classifier trained with sparsity regularization.

Specifically, CLTS extracts seed words from the weights $W \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times |V_S|}$ of a classifier trained using D_S . Given a source document x_i^S with a bag-of-words encoding $h_i^S \in \mathbb{R}^{|V_S|}$, the classifier predicts class probabilities $p_i = \langle p_i^1, \dots, p_i^K \rangle = \text{softmax}(Wh_i)$. CLTS includes the word $v_c \in V_S$ in G_k^S if the classifier considers it to increase the probability p_i^k through a positive weight W_{kc} :

$$G_k^S = \{v_c^S \mid W_{kc} > 0\}. \quad (1)$$

The set of all source seed words $G^S = G_1^S \cup \dots \cup G_K^S$ may be much larger than the translation budget B . We encourage the classifier to capture only the most important seed words *during* training through sparsity regularization:

$$\hat{W} = \arg \min_W \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(y_i, Wh_i^S) + \lambda_B \mathcal{R}_{\text{sparse}}(W) \quad (2)$$

where \mathcal{L} is the training loss function (logistic loss), $\mathcal{R}_{\text{sparse}}(\cdot)$ is a sparsity regularizer (L1 norm), and $\lambda_B \in \mathbb{R}$ is a hyperparameter controlling the relative power of $\mathcal{R}_{\text{sparse}}$. Higher λ_B values lead to sparser matrices \hat{W} and thus to fewer seed words.

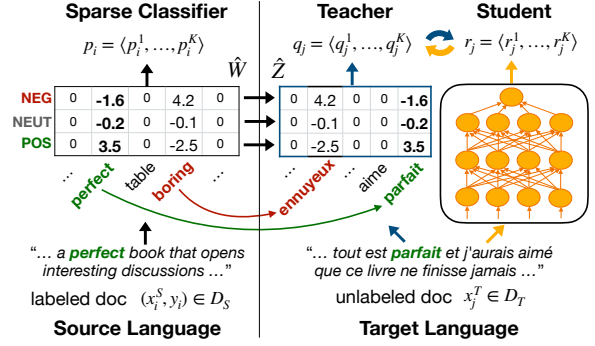


Figure 3: CLTS (1) learns a sparse weight matrix \hat{W} in L_S ; (2) transfers the columns of \hat{W} for B seed words to initialize \hat{Z} ; and (3) uses \hat{Z} as a teacher to iteratively train a student on unlabeled documents D_T .

Therefore, we tune³ λ_B to be as high as possible while at the same time leading to the extraction of at least B seed words. After training, G^S consists of the B seed words with highest weight.

4.2 Cross-Lingual Seed Weight Transfer

We now describe our cross-lingual transfer method. CLTS transfers both translated seed words and their learned weights to initialize a “weak” classifier in L_T that considers translated seed words and their relative importance for the target task.

Specifically, CLTS first translates the B seed words in G^S into a set G^T with seed words in L_T . Then, for each translation pair (v^S, v^T) , CLTS transfers the column for v^S in \hat{W} to a corresponding column for v^T in a $K \times |V_T|$ matrix \hat{Z} :

$$\hat{Z}_{k,v^S} = \hat{W}_{k,v^T} \quad \forall k \in [K] \quad (3)$$

Importantly, for each word, we transfer the weights for all classes (instead of just a single weight \hat{W}_{kc}) across languages. Therefore, *without using any labeled documents* in L_T , CLTS constructs a classifier that, given a test document x_j^T in L_T , predicts class probabilities $q_j = \langle q_j^1, \dots, q_j^K \rangle$:

$$q_j^k = \frac{\exp(\hat{z}_k^\top h_j^T)}{\sum_{k'} \exp(\hat{z}_{k'}^\top h_j^T)}, \quad (4)$$

where $h_j^T \in \mathbb{R}^{|V_T|}$ is a bag-of-words encoding for x_j^T and \hat{z}_k is the k -th row of \hat{Z} . Note that columns of \hat{Z} for non-seed words in V_T are all zeros and thus this classifier predicts meaningful probabilities only for documents with seed words in G^T .

³We efficiently tune λ_B by computing the “regularization path” with the “warm-start” technique (Koh et al., 2007).

4.3 Teacher-Student Co-Training in L_T

We now describe how CLTS trains a classifier in L_T that leverages indicative features, which may not be captured by the small set of translated seed words. As illustrated in Figure 3, translated seed words (e.g., “parfait”) often co-occur with other words (e.g., “aime,” meaning “love”) that have zero weight in \hat{Z} but are also helpful for the task at hand. To exploit such words in the absence of labeled target documents, we extend the monolingual weakly-supervised co-training method of Karamanolakis et al. (2019) to our cross-lingual setting, and use our classifier based on translated seed words as a teacher to train a student, as we describe next.

First, CLTS uses our classifier from Equation 5 as a teacher to predict labels q_j for *unlabeled* documents $x_j^T \in D_T$ that contain seed words: $D'_T = \{(x_j^T, q_j)\}_{x_j^T | x_j^T \cap G^T \neq \emptyset} \subseteq D_T$. Note that our teacher with weights transferred across languages is different than that of Karamanolakis et al. (2019), which simply “counts” seed words.

Next, CLTS trains a student f^T that also exploits the context of the seed words. Given a document x_j^T in L_T , the student predicts class probabilities:

$$r_j = \langle r_j^1, \dots, r_j^K \rangle = f^T(x_j^T; \theta), \quad (5)$$

where the predictor function f^T with weight parameters θ can be of any type, such as a pre-trained transformer-based classifier that captures language-specific word composition. The student is trained via the “distillation” objective:

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{(x_j^T, q_j) \in D'_T} H(q_j, f^T(x_j^T)) + \lambda \mathcal{R}(\theta), \quad (6)$$

where $H(q, r) = -\sum_k q^k \log r^k$ is the cross entropy between student’s and teacher’s predictions, $\mathcal{R}(\cdot)$ is a regularizer (L2 norm), and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is a hyperparameter controlling the relative power of \mathcal{R} . Importantly, through extra regularization (\mathcal{R} , dropout) the student also associates non-seed words with target classes, and generalizes better than the teacher by making predictions even for documents that do not contain any seed words.

Then, CLTS uses the student in place of the teacher to annotate *all* M unlabeled examples in D_T and create $D'_T = \{(x_j^T, \hat{f}^T(x_j^T))\}_{j \in [M]}$. While in the first iteration D'_T contains only documents with seed words, in the second iteration CLTS adds in D'_T *all* unlabeled documents to create a

Algorithm 1 Cross-Lingual Teacher-Student

Input: Unlabeled documents $D_T = \{x_j^T\}_{j=1}^M$, labeled documents $D_S = \{(x_i^S, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, budget of up to B word translations (L_S to L_T)

Output: \hat{f}^T : predictor function in L_T

- 1: Learn λ_B -sparse \hat{W} using D_S , B (Eq. (2))
 - 2: Extract B seed words G^S from \hat{W} (Eq. (1))
 - 3: Translate G^S to target seed words G^T in L_T
 - 4: Transfer \hat{W} to initialize teacher \hat{Z} (Eq. (3))
 - 5: Get $D'_T = \{(x_j^T, q_j)\}_{x_j^T | x_j^T \cap G^T \neq \emptyset}$ (Eq. (4))
 - 6: **Repeat until convergence**
 - a. Learn student \hat{f}^T using D'_T (Eq. (6))
 - b. Get $D'_T = \{(x_j^T, \hat{f}^T(x_j^T))\}_{j \in [M]}$ (Eq. (5))
-

larger training set for the student. This also differs from Karamanolakis et al. (2019), which updates the weights of the initial seed words but does not provide pseudo-labels for documents with no seed words. This change is important in our cross-lingual setting with a limited translation budget, where the translated seed words G^T may only cover a very small subset D'_T of D_T .

Algorithm 1 summarizes the CLTS method for cross-lingual classification by translating B seed words. Iterative co-training converges when the disagreement between the student’s and teacher’s hard predictions on unlabeled data stops decreasing. In our experiments, just two rounds of co-training are generally sufficient for the student to outperform the teacher and achieve competitive performance even with a tight translation budget B .

5 Experiments

We now evaluate CLTS for several cross-lingual text classification tasks in various languages.

5.1 Experimental Settings

Datasets: We use English (En) as a source language, and evaluate CLTS on 18 diverse target languages: Bulgarian (Bg), German (De), Spanish (Es), Persian (Fa), French (Fr), Croatian (Hr), Hungarian (Hu), Italian (It), Japanese (Ja), Polish (Pl), Portuguese (Pt), Russian (Ru), Sinhalese (Si), Slovak (Sk), Slovenian (Sl), Swedish (Sv), Uyghur (Ug), and Chinese (Zh). We focus on four classification tasks: **T1:** 4-class classification of news documents in the MLDoc corpus (Schwenk and Li, 2018); **T2:** binary sentiment classification of prod-

uct reviews in the CLS corpus (Prettenhofer and Stein, 2010); **T3**: 3-class sentiment classification of tweets in the Twitter Sentiment corpus (TwitterSent; Mozetič et al. (2016)), Persian reviews in the SentiPers corpus (Hosseini et al., 2018), and Uyghur documents in the LDC LORELEI corpus (Strassel and Tracey, 2016); and **T4**: medical emergency situation detection in Uyghur and Sinhalese documents from the LDC LORELEI corpus. The appendix discusses additional dataset details.

Experimental Procedure: We use English as the source language, where we train a source classifier and extract B seed words using labeled documents (Section 4.1). Then, we obtain translations for $B \leq 500$ English seed words using the MUSE⁴ bilingual dictionaries (Lample et al., 2018). For Uyghur and Sinhalese, which have no entries in MUSE, we translate seed words through Google Translate.⁵ The appendix reports additional seed-word translation details. We do not use labeled documents in the target language for training (Section 3). We report both the teacher’s and student’s performance in L_T averaged over 5 different runs. We consider any test document that contains no seed words as a “mistake” for the teacher.

Model Configuration: For the student, we experiment with a bag-of-ngrams ($n = 1, 2$) logistic regression classifier (LogReg) and a linear classifier using pre-trained monolingual BERT embeddings as features (MonoBERT; Devlin et al. (2019)). The appendix lists the implementation details. We do not optimize any hyperparameters in the target language, except for B , which we vary between 6 and 500 to understand the impact of translation budget on performance. CLS does not contain validation sets, so we fix $B = 20$ and translate 10 words for each of the two sentiment classes. More generally, to cover all classes we extract and translate $\frac{B}{K}$ seed words per class. We perform two rounds of teacher-student co-training, which provided most of the improvement in Karamanolakis et al. (2019).

Model Comparison: For a robust evaluation of CLTS, we compare models with different types of cross-lingual resources. *Project*-* uses the parallel LDC or EuroParl (EP) corpora for annotation projection (Rasooli et al., 2018). *LASER* uses mil-

⁴<https://github.com/facebookresearch/MUSE#ground-truth-bilingual-dictionaries>

⁵Google Translate started supporting Uyghur on February 26, 2020, and Sinhalese at an earlier (unknown) time.

lions of parallel corpora to obtain cross-lingual sentence embeddings (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019). *MultiFiT* uses *LASER* to create pseudo-labels in L_T (Eisenschlos et al., 2019) and trains a classifier in L_T based on a pre-trained language model (Howard and Ruder, 2018). *CLWE-par* uses parallel corpora to train CLWE (Rasooli et al., 2018). *MT-BOW* uses Google Translate to translate test documents from L_T to L_S and applies a bag-of-words classifier in L_S (Prettenhofer and Stein, 2010). *BiDRL* uses Google Translate to translate documents from L_S to L_T and L_T to L_S (Zhou et al., 2016). *CLDFA* uses task-specific parallel corpora for cross-lingual distillation (Xu and Yang, 2017). *SentiWordNet* uses bilingual dictionaries with over 20K entries to transfer the SentiWordNet03 (Baccianella et al., 2010) to the target language and applies a rule-based heuristic (Rasooli et al., 2018). *CLWE-Wikt* uses bilingual dictionaries with over 20K entries extracted from Wiktionary⁶ to create CLWE for training a bi-directional LSTM classifier (Rasooli et al., 2018). *MultiCCA* uses bilingual dictionaries with around 20K entries to train CLWE (Ammar et al., 2016), trains a convolutional neural network (CNN) in L_S and applies it in L_T (Schwenk and Li, 2018). *CL-SCL* obtains 450 word translations as “pivots” for cross-lingual domain adaptation (Prettenhofer and Stein, 2010). Our CLTS approach uses B word translations not for domain adaptation but to create weak supervision in L_T through the teacher (Teacher) for training the student (Student-LogReg or Student-MonoBERT). *VECMAP* uses identical strings across languages as a weak signal to train CLWE (Artetxe et al., 2017). *MultiBERT* uses multilingual BERT to train a classifier in L_S and applies it in L_T (Wu and Dredze, 2019) without considering labeled documents in L_T (zero-shot setting). *ST-MultiBERT* further considers labeled documents in L_T for fine-tuning multilingual BERT through self-training (Dong and de Melo, 2019). The appendix discusses more comparisons.

5.2 Experimental Results

Figure 4 shows results for each classification task and language. The rightmost column of each table reports the average performance across all languages (and domains for CLS). For brevity, we report the average performance across the three review domains (Books, DVD, Music) for each lan-

⁶<https://www.wiktionary.org/>

Method	De	Es	Fr	It	Ru	Zh	Ja	AVG
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora (MultiFiT requires LASER)</i>								
LASER	87.7	79.3	84.0	71.2	67.3	76.7	64.6	75.8
MultiFiT	91.6	79.1	89.4	76.0	67.8	82.5	69.6	79.4
<i>Methods below use pre-trained multi-lingual language models</i>								
MultiBERT	79.8	72.1	73.5	63.7	73.7	76.0	72.8	73.1
ST-MultiBERT	90.0	85.3	88.4	75.2	79.3	87.0	76.8	83.1
<i>Methods below use bilingual dictionaries (Student requires Teacher)</i>								
MultiCCA ($B=20K$)	81.2	72.5	72.4	69.4	60.8	74.7	67.6	71.2
Teacher ($B=160$)	72.7	73.5	77.6	62.5	46.9	53.3	31.9	59.8
Student-LogReg	87.4	86.0	89.1	70.5	71.9	82.4	68.8	79.4
Student-MonoBERT	90.4	86.3	91.2	74.7	75.6	84.0	72.6	82.1

(a) Accuracy results on MLDoc.

Model	De	Fr	Ja	AVG
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora or MT</i>				
MT-BOW	78.3	78.5	71.2	76.0
BiDRL	84.3	83.5	76.2	81.3
CLDFA	82.0	83.1	78.1	81.1
LASER	80.4	82.7	75.3	79.5
MultiFiT	85.3	85.6	79.9	83.6
<i>Methods below use multi-lingual language models</i>				
MultiBERT	72.0	75.4	66.9	71.4
<i>Methods below use dictionaries or no resources</i>				
VECMAP	75.3	78.2	55.9	69.8
CL-SCL ($B=450$)	78.1	78.4	73.1	76.5
Teacher ($B=20$)	38.1	48.6	22.7	36.5
Student-LogReg	78.7	79.6	78.6	79.0
Student-MonoBERT	80.1	83.4	77.6	80.4

(b) Accuracy results on CLS.

Method	Ar	Bg	De	Es	Fa	Hr	Hu	Pl	Pt	Ru	Sk	Sl	Sv	Ug	AVG
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora</i>															
Project-LDC	37.2	-	-	42.7	33.1	-	47.0	-	-	48.0	-	-	-	38.6	(41.1)
Project-EP	-	38.7	47.3	41.8	-	-	38.1	38.8	39.3	-	30.0	44.6	44.6	-	(40.4)
CLWE-Par	37.3	33.0	43.5	42.6	40.1	30.8	41.1	41.7	38.6	44.8	22.6	32.2	39.1	30.0	37.0
<i>Methods below use comparable corpora or bilingual dictionaries</i>															
CLWE-CP	21.1	28.6	37.7	27.7	20.7	13.9	22.4	30.2	22.2	25.3	24.6	25.3	31.1	25.7	25.5
SentiWordNet ($B>20K$)	25.6	30.6	32.0	25.3	25.3	19.8	29.2	26.0	22.9	29.5	19.2	28.1	22.7	36.7	26.6
CLWE-Wikt ($B>20K$)	31.0	45.3	51.0	37.7	31.7	-	40.8	32.9	35.4	43.8	36.6	32.1	40.4	28.0	(37.4)
Teacher ($B=500$)	22.7	42.8	45.5	42.7	30.9	36.4	39.4	40.7	34.4	29.8	40.4	29.5	38.7	20.3	35.3
Student-LogReg	39.0	46.3	52.5	44.9	45.7	39.4	45.2	45.4	38.7	43.2	43.3	42.1	50.4	41.2	44.1

(c) Macro-averaged F1 results on TwitterSent, SentiPers, and LORELEI.

Figure 4: Classification results, with methods grouped according to the type of cross-lingual resources required. For some methods, average performance (rightmost column) is in parentheses because it is computed on a subset of languages. Across all datasets, CLTS outperforms other methods that require similar types of cross-lingual resources; in many cases (red) CLTS outperforms even *more expensive* state-of-the-art approaches.

gauge in the CLS corpus. The appendix discusses detailed results and ablation experiments.

Student outperforms Teacher. Teacher considers the noisy translated seed words for classification. Even the simple Student-LogReg technique leverages the context of the seed words and substantially outperforms Teacher. Leveraging pre-trained representations in Student-MonoBERT leads to further improvement. On average, across all languages and datasets, Student outperforms Teacher by 59.6%: CLTS effectively improves performance in L_T without using labeled documents.

Student outperforms previous approaches. Student-MonoBERT outperforms *MultiBERT* by 12.5% on average across all languages and domains in MLDoc and CLS: CLTS effectively generates weak supervision in L_T for fine-tuning monolingual BERT. Importantly, CLTS is effective under minimal resources: with the translation of just $\frac{B}{K}$ seed words per class, Student-LogReg outperforms other approaches that rely on much larger dictionaries (*MultiCCA*, *CL-SCL*, *SentiWordNet*, *CLWE-Wiktionary*). Surprisingly, in several

languages CLTS outperforms even more expensive approaches that rely on parallel corpora or machine translation systems (*LASER*, *MultiFiT*, *MT-BOW*, *BiDRL*, *CLDFA*, *CLWE-BW*, *Project-LDC*).

CLTS is effective under a minimal translation budget. Figure 5 shows CLTS’s performance as a function of the number of seed words per class ($\frac{B}{K}$). Even with just 3 seed words per class, Student-MonoBERT performs remarkably well. Student’s and Teacher’s performance significantly increases with $\frac{B}{K}$ and most performance gains are obtained for lower values of $\frac{B}{K}$. This is explained by the fact that CLTS prioritizes the most indicative seed words for translation. Therefore, as $\frac{B}{K}$ increases, the additional seed words that are translated are less indicative than the already-translated seed words and as a result have lower chances of translating to important seed words in the target language. The gap between the Teacher and Student performance has a maximum value of 40 absolute accuracy points and decreases as Teacher considers more seed words but does not get lower than 10, highlighting that Student learns predictive patterns in

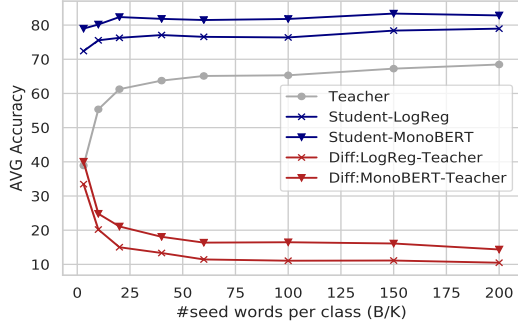


Figure 5: Validation accuracy across all MLDoc languages as a function of the translation budget $\frac{B}{K}$.

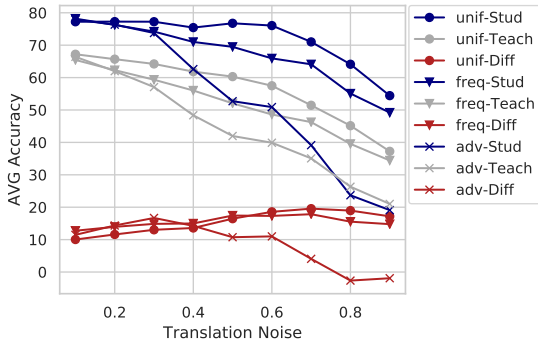


Figure 6: Average validation accuracy in MLDoc for Teacher (Teach), Student-LogReg (Stud), and their absolute difference in accuracy (Diff) under different scales of noise applied to the translated seed words: “unif” replaces a seed word with a different word sampled uniformly at random from V_T , “freq” replaces a seed word with a word randomly sampled from V_T with probability proportional to its frequency in D_T , “adv” assigns a seed word to a different random class $k' \neq k$ by swapping its class weights in \hat{Z} .

L_T that may never be considered by Teacher.

CLTS is robust to noisy translated seed words. In practice, an indicative seed word in L_S may not translate to an indicative word in L_T . Our results above show that Student in CLTS performs well even when seed words are automatically translated across languages. To further understand our method’s behavior with noisy translated seed words, we introduce additional simulated noise of different types and severities. According to Figure 6, “unif” and “freq” noise, which replace translated seed words with random words, affect CLTS less than “adv” noise, which introduces many erroneous teacher-labels. Student is less sensitive than Teacher to noisy seed words: their performance gap (*-Diff) increases with the magnitude of translation

MEDICAL EMERGENCY (Uyghur, Sinhalese)		
English	-> Uyghur	Sinhalese
1. injured	-> يارىلانغان	භූවාල ලැබුවා
2. attacks	-> ھۇجۇملار	ප්‍රහාර
3. medical	-> medical	වෛද්‍ය
4. crisis	-> كرىزىس	අර්බුදය
5. disease	-> كېسەل	රෝගය
6. malaria	-> بە زگەك كېسىلى	මැලේරියාව
7. health	-> ساغلاملىق	සෞඛ්‍යය
8. injuring	-> يارىلىنىش	භූවාල වීම
9. yemen	-> يەمەن	ශ්‍රී ලංකාව
10. hospitals	-> دوختۇرخانىلار	රෝහල

Figure 7: Top 10 extracted seed words for the “medical emergency” class and their translations to Uyghur and Sinhalese. Google Translate erroneously returns “medical” as a Uyghur translation of the word “medical.”

noise (up to 0.7) for both “unif” and “freq” noise. Student’s accuracy is relatively high for noise rates up to 0.3, even with “adv” noise: CLTS is effective even when 30% of the translated seed words are assumed indicative for the wrong class.

5.3 Addressing Emerging Classification Tasks in Low-Resource Languages

We now show a preliminary exploration of CLTS for detecting medical emergency situations in the low-resource Uyghur and Sinhalese languages by just translating $B=50$ English seed words across languages. Figure 7 shows the top 10 seed words transferred by CLTS for the medical emergency class. We train Student-LogReg because BERT is not available for Uyghur or Sinhalese. End-to-end training and evaluation of CLTS takes just 160 seconds for Uyghur and 174 seconds for Sinhalese. The accuracy in Uyghur is 23.9% for the teacher and 66.8% for the student. The accuracy in Sinhalese is 30.4% for the teacher and 73.2% for the student. The appendix has more details. These preliminary results indicate that CLTS could be easily applied for emerging tasks in low-resource languages, for example by asking a bilingual speaker to translate a small number of seed words. We expect such correct translations to lead to further improvements over automatic translations.

6 Conclusions and Future Work

We presented a cross-lingual text classification method, CLTS, that efficiently transfers weak supervision across languages using minimal cross-lingual resources. CLTS extracts and transfers just a small number of task-specific seed words, and creates a teacher that provides weak supervision

for training a more powerful student in the target language. We present extensive experiments on 4 classification tasks and 18 diverse languages, including low-resource languages. Our results show that even a simple student outperforms the teacher and previous state-of-the-art approaches with more complex models and more expensive resources, highlighting the promise of generating weak supervision in the target language. In future work, we plan to extend CLTS for handling cross-domain distribution shift (Ziser and Reichart, 2018) and multiple source languages (Chen et al., 2019). It would also be interesting to combine CLTS with available cross-lingual models, and extend CLTS for more tasks, such as cross-lingual named entity recognition (Xie et al., 2018), by considering teacher architectures beyond bag-of-seed-words.

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A Appendix

For reproducibility, we provide details of our implementation (Section A.1), datasets (Section A.2), and experimental results (Section A.3). We will also open-source our Python code to help researchers replicate our experiments.

A.1 Implementation Details

We now describe implementation details for each component in CLTS: seed word extraction in L_S , seed word transfer, and teacher-student co-training in L_T .

Source Seed Word Extraction: The inputs to the classifier in L_S are tf-idf weighted unigram vectors⁷. For the classifier, we use scikit-learn’s logistic regression⁸ with the following parameters: `penalty="l1"`, `C= λ_B` , `solver="liblinear"`, `multi_class="ovr"`. In other words, we address multi-class classification by training K binary “one-vs.-rest” logistic regression classifiers to minimize the L_1 -regularized logistic loss (LASSO). (We use scikit-learn version 0.22.1, which does not support a “multinomial” loss with L1-penalized classifiers.) We tune λ_B by computing the “regularization path” between 0.1 and 10^7 , evenly spaced on a log scale into 50 steps. To efficiently⁹ compute the regularization path, we use the “warm-start” technique (Koh et al., 2007), where the solution of the previous optimization step is used to initialize the solution for the next one. This is supported in scikit-learn by setting the `warm_start` parameter of logistic regression to `True`.

Seed Word Transfer: We obtain seed-word translations using the MUSE¹⁰ bilingual dictionaries (Lample et al., 2018), which contain up to 100,000 dictionary entries per language pair. Importantly, we use only the translations for $B \leq 500$ English seed words. To understand the impact of translation budget in performance, we experiment with the following values for $\frac{B}{K}$: [2, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 150, 200]. We leave for future work the non-uniform distribution of seed words

⁷https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.feature_extraction.text.TfidfVectorizer.html

⁸https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.linear_model.LogisticRegression.html

⁹Using a 16-core CPU machine, we compute λ_B and train the source classifier in less than one minute (see Section A.3).

¹⁰<https://github.com/facebookresearch/MUSE#ground-truth-bilingual-dictionaries>

across classes, which might improve efficiency as “easier” classes may be modeled with fewer seed words. For Uyghur and Sinhalese, which have no entries in MUSE, we use Google Translate. For reproducibility, we cached the translations obtained from Google Translate and will share them with the code of the paper. If a source word has multiple translations in MUSE,¹¹ we use all translations as noisy target seed words with the same weight, while if a seed word has no translation in the target language, then we directly use it as a target seed word (this may be useful for named entities, emojis, etc.). Translations provided by a human annotator would possibly lead to better target seed words but, as we show here, even noisy automatic translations can be effectively used in CLTS.

Teacher-Student Co-Training: For the logistic regression (LogReg) student in L_T , we use scikit-learn’s logistic regression with default parameters (including `penalty="l2"`, `C=1`). The inputs to LogReg are tf-idf weighted n-gram ($n=1,2$) vectors. For our monolingual BERT (MonoBERT) student, we use the following pre-trained models from huggingface¹²:

- English: [bert-base-cased](#)
- Spanish: [dccuchile/bert-base-spanish-wwm-cased](#)
- French: [camembert-base](#)
- German: [bert-base-german-cased](#)
- Italian: [dbmdz/bert-base-italian-xxl-cased](#)
- Russian: [DeepPavlov/rubert-base-cased](#)
- Chinese: [bert-base-chinese](#)
- Japanese: [bert-base-japanese](#)

We use the default hyperparameters in the “Transformers” library (Wolf et al., 2019) and do not re-train (with the language modeling objective) MonoBERT in the target domain. To avoid label distribution shift because of iterative co-training, we balance teacher-labeled documents in D'_T by keeping the same number of documents across classes before training the student. We perform

¹¹Various translations for a word in MUSE may correspond to different senses of the word. For example, the seed word “shares” for the “Corporate” topic translates to both “comparte” (share) and “acciones” (stocks) in Spanish.

¹²<https://huggingface.co>

two rounds of teacher-student co-training, which has been shown to gain most of the improvement in [Karamanolakis et al. \(2019\)](#). Table 11 reports the model parameters for each dataset and language. We do not tune any model hyperparameters and use default values instead.

A.2 Dataset Details

Document Classification in MLDoc: The Multilingual Document Classification Corpus (MLDoc¹³; [Schwenk and Li \(2018\)](#)) contains Reuters news documents in English, German, Spanish, French, Italian, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese. Each document is labeled with one of the four categories:

- CCAT (Corporate/Industrial)
- ECAT (Economics)
- GCAT (Government/Social)
- MCAT (Markets)

MLDoc was pre-processed and split by [Schwenk and Li \(2018\)](#) into 1,000 training, 1,000 validation, and 4,000 test documents for each language (Table 1). We use labeled training documents only in English for training the source classifier. We treat training documents in German, Spanish, French, Italian, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese as unlabeled in CLTS by ignoring the labels.

Review Sentiment Classification in CLS: The Cross-Lingual Sentiment corpus (CLS¹⁴; [Prettenhofer and Stein \(2010\)](#)) contains Amazon product reviews in English, German, French, and Japanese. Each language includes product reviews from three domains: books, dvd, and music. Each labeled document includes a binary (positive, negative) sentiment label. Table 2 reports dataset statistics. Validation sets are not available for CLS. We use labeled training documents only in English for training the source classifier. We ignore training documents in German, French, and Japanese, and use unlabeled documents in CLTS.

Sentiment Classification in TwitterSent, Sentipers, and LORELEI: The Twitter Sentiment corpus (TwitterSent; [Mozetič et al. \(2016\)](#)) contains Twitter posts in Bulgarian (Bg), German (De),

¹³<https://github.com/facebookresearch/MLDoc>

¹⁴<https://webis.de/data/webis-cls-10.html>

Language	Train	Dev	Test
English (En)	1,000	1,000	4,000
German (De)	1,000	1,000	4,000
Spanish (Es)	1,000	1,000	4,000
French (Fr)	1,000	1,000	4,000
Italian (It)	1,000	1,000	4,000
Russian (Ru)	1,000	1,000	4,000
Chinese (Zh)	1,000	1,000	4,000
Japanese (Ja)	1,000	1,000	4,000

Table 1: MLDoc corpus statistics.

Language	Domain	Train	Unlabeled	Test
English	books	2,000	10,000	2,000
	dvd	2,000	10,000	2,000
	music	2,000	10,000	2,000
German	books	2,000	30,000	2,000
	dvd	2,000	30,000	2,000
	music	2,000	30,000	2,000
French	books	2,000	30,000	2,000
	dvd	2,000	16,000	2,000
	music	2,000	30,000	2,000
Japanese	books	2,000	30,000	2,000
	dvd	2,000	9,000	2,000
	music	2,000	30,000	2,000

Table 2: CLS corpus statistics.

English (En), Spanish (Es), Croatian (Hr), Hungarian (Hu), Polish (Pl), Portuguese (Pt), Slovak (Sk), Slovenian (Sl), and Swedish (Sv). We use the pre-processed and tokenized data provided by ([Rasooli et al., 2018](#)). In addition to these tweets, [Rasooli et al. \(2018\)](#) also use pre-processed and tokenized Persian (Fa) product reviews from the SentiPers corpus ([Hosseini et al., 2018](#)) and manually labeled Uyghur (Ug) documents from the LDC LORELEI corpus. On the above datasets, each document is labeled with a sentiment label: positive, neutral, or negative. Table 3 reports dataset statistics. We use labeled training documents only in English for training the source classifier. We treat training documents in the rest of the languages as unlabeled.

Medical Emergency Situation Classification in LORELEI: The Low Resource Languages for Emergent Incidents (LORELEI) corpus ([Strassel and Tracey, 2016](#)) contains (among others) documents in Uyghur (Ug)¹⁵ and Sinhalese (Si)¹⁶. Each document is labeled with an emergency need. Similar to [Yuan et al. \(2020\)](#), we consider binary classi-

¹⁵LDC2016E57_LORELEI_Uyghur

¹⁶LDC2018E57_LORELEI_Sinhalese

Language	Train	Dev	Test
Arabic	-	671	6100
Bulgarian	23985	2999	2958
German	63748	7970	7961
English	46645	5832	5828
Spanish	137205	17152	17133
Persian	15000	1000	3027
Croatian	56368	7047	7025
Hungarian	36224	4528	4520
Polish	116241	14531	14517
Portuguese	63082	7886	7872
Russian	44780	5598	5594
Slovak	40476	5060	5058
Slovenian	74268	9285	9277
Swedish	32601	4076	4074
Uyghur	-	136	346

Table 3: Twittersent, SentiPers, and LORELEI corpus statistics.

fication to medical versus non-medical emergency need. Unfortunately, our number of labeled documents for each language is different than that reported in Yuan et al. (2020). In English, we use 806 labeled documents for training the source classifier. In Uyghur, we use 5,000 unlabeled documents for training the student and 226 labeled documents for evaluation. In Sinhalese, we use 5,000 unlabeled documents for training the student and 36 labeled documents for evaluation. Given the limited number of labeled documents, we do not consider validation sets for our experiments.

A.3 Experimental Result Details

We now discuss detailed results on each dataset. In addition to baselines reported in the main paper, we also report supervised classifiers (*-sup) that were trained on each language separately using the labeled training data, to get an estimate for the maximum achievable performance. We run CLTS 5 times using the following random seeds: [7, 20, 42, 127, 1993] and report the average performance results and the standard deviation across different runs. (The standard deviation for our LogReg student is negligible across all datasets so we do not report it.) We report the results for the configuration of B that achieves the best validation performance (accuracy for MLDoc, macro-average F1 for TwitterSent) and also report the validation performance, when a validation set is available.

Table 6 reports results on MLDoc. Eisensch-

los et al. (2019) report two different results for LASER (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019): LASER-paper are the results reported in (Artetxe and Schwenk, 2019), while LASER-code are different results using the most recent LASER code. Here, we report both. (In Table 4a, we have reported the LASER configuration that achieves the best performance for each language.) As expected, the performance of supervised models that consider in-language training datasets is higher than cross-lingual models.

Table 7 reports results on CLS per domain. (In Table 4b, we reported the average performance across domains for each language.) Note that MultiFiT-sup has substantially higher accuracy than MonoBERT-sup and LogReg-sup. This indicates that MultiFiT is probably a better model for this task. It would be interesting to evaluate in the future whether using MultiFiT as student outperforms Student-MonoBERT.

Table 8 reports results on TwitterSent, SentiPers, and LORELEI. We have reported the best performing approaches in Rasooli et al. (2018) that use En as a source language. We noticed that CLTS achieves best validation performance using more seed words in the Twitter corpora compared to the MLDoc and CLS corpora. We hypothesize that because Twitter posts are shorter than news documents or reviews, the context of seed words is less rich in indicative words and so the student requires larger teacher-labeled datasets to be effective. Note, however, that even with a tighter budget of $B=60$, CLTS-Student has an average accuracy of 40.5% and outperforms previous approaches relying on dictionaries or comparable corpora.

Examples of Extracted Seed Words: Table 4 reports the 10 most important seed words extracted for each of the four news document classes in CLS. Table 5 reports the 10 most important seed words extracted for each binary class and domain in CLS. Figure 8 reports the 20 most important seed words extracted for each of the 3 sentiment classes in TwitterSent, SentiPers and LORELEI. Figure 9 reports the 20 most important seed words extracted for the medical situation class in LORELEI and their translations to Uyghur and Sinhalese.

Testing CLTS in Non-English Source Languages: To evaluate whether our results generalize to non-English source languages, we run additional experiments using De, Es, and Fr as source

languages in CLS. For those experiments, we also consider En as a target language. Table 9 reports the evaluation results. Across all configurations, there is no clear winner between MultiCCA and MultiBERT, but our Student-LogReg consistently outperforms both approaches, indicating that CLTS is also effective with non-English source languages.

Ablation Study: Table 10 reports results on MLDoc by changing parts of CLTS. The first row reports Student-Logreg without any changes. **Change (a):** using the clarity-scoring (similar to tf-idf weighting) method of (Angelidis and Lapata, 2018) leads to 3% lower accuracy than extracting seed words from the weights of a classifier trained through sparsity regularization. **Change (b):** obtaining translations through Google Translate leads to 0.8% lower accuracy than using bilingual MUSE dictionary. We observed that Google Translate sometimes translates words to wrong translations without extra context, while MUSE dictionaries provide more accurate translations. **Change (c):** updating Teacher similar to Karamanolakis et al. (2019), where the Teacher updates seed word qualities but does not consider documents without seed words during training, leads to 1.3% lower accuracy than our approach, which replaces the teacher by the student and thus considers even documents without seed words. **Change (d):** removing seed words from Student’s input leads to 2.8% lower accuracy than letting Student consider both seed words and non-seed words. This shows that even without using seed words, Student still performs accurately (77.2% accuracy across languages), indicating that Student successfully exploits indicative features in the context of the seed words.

Runtime: Table 12 reports the end-to-end runtime for each experiment (i.e., the total time needed to run the script), which includes: loading data, training, and evaluating CLTS. The runtime does not include dataset pre-processing, which was performed only once. We ran all experiments on a server with the following specifications: 16 CPUs, RAM: 188G, main disk: SSD 1T, storage disk: SDD 3T, GPU: Titan RTX 24G.

CCAT	company, inc, ltd, corp, group, profit, executive, newsroom, rating, shares
ECAT	bonds, economic, deficit, inflation, growth, tax, economy, percent, foreign, budget
GCAT	president, police, stories, party, sunday, people, opposition, beat, win, team
MCAT	traders, futures, dealers, market, bids, points, trading, day, copper, prices

Table 4: MLDoc: Top 10 English seed words extracted per class (Section 4.1).

DVD-POS	best, great, excellent, love, highly, enjoy, wonderful, life, good, favorite
BOOK-POS	excellent, great, lives, wonderful, life, fascinating, fun, easy, love, best
MUSIC-POS	amazing, highly, great, favorites, best, favorite, awesome, classic, excellent, love
DVD-NEG	waste, boring, worst, bad, disappointing, disappointed, awful, poor, horrible, terrible
BOOKS-NEG	money, disappointed, disappointing, boring, disappointment, worst, waste, bad, finish, terrible
MUSIC-NEG	boring, worst, disappointment, poor, sorry, garbage, money, disappointing, bad, horrible

Table 5: CLS: Top 10 English seed words extracted per class and domain (Section 4.1).

POSITIVE

love, happy, thank, amazing, 😍, great, cute, beautiful, excited, best, good, !, proud, thanks, nice, awesome, ❤️, perfect, 😊, birthday

NEUTRAL

follow, http, 0, new, via, what's, \$, followed, co, pm, check,], please, app, ..., posted, #gameinsight, vote, https, free

NEGATIVE (sanitized)

hate, f**k, s**t, 😞, b***h, 😞, sad, worst, f*****g, stupid, tired, 🤢, 😞, sucks, wtf, sick, wrong, can't, annoying, people

Figure 8: TwitterSent: Top 20 seed words extracted per class (Section 4.1). Interestingly, some of the seed words are actually not words but emojis used by Twitter users to indicate the corresponding sentiment class.

MEDICAL EMERGENCY (Uyghur, Sinhalese)		
English	-> Uyghur	Sinhalese
1. injured	-> يارىلانغان	තුඩාල ලැබුවා
2. attacks	-> ھۇجۇملار	ප්‍රහාර
3. medical	-> medical	වෛද්‍ය
4. crisis	-> كرىزىس	අර්බුදය
5. disease	-> كېسەل	රෝගය
6. malaria	-> بەزگەك كېسىلى	මැලේරියාව
7. health	-> ساغلاملىق	සෞඛ්‍යය
8. injuring	-> يارىلىنىش	තුඩාල වීම
9. yemen	-> يەمەن	යේමනය
10. hospitals	-> دوختۇرخانىلار	රෝහල්
11. others	-> باشقىلار	අන් අය
12. violence	-> زوراۋانلىق	ප්‍රචණ්ඩත්වය
13. tortured	-> قىيىن-قىستاققا ئېلىنغان	වධ නිසා කළා
14. imprisoned	-> تۇرمىگە تاشلاندى	සිරගත කළා
15. casualties	-> تالاپەتكە ئۇچرىغان	ජීවිත හානි
16. aid	-> ياردەم	ආධාර
17. outbreak	-> تارقىلىش	පැතිරීම
18. terrible	-> قورقۇنچلۇق	හයානකයි
19. hospital	-> دوختۇرخانا	රෝහල
20. victims	-> زىيانكەشلىككە ئۇچرىغۇچىلار	වින්දිතයින්

Figure 9: LORELEI: Top 20 seed words for the “medical emergency” class and their translations obtained through Google Translate. The incorrect translation for the important “medical” seed word from English to Uyghur is “medical.”

Method	Cross-Lingual Resource	Language							AVG Acc
		De	Es	Fr	It	Ru	Zh	Ja	
<i>Methods below use labeled target documents (supervised)</i>									
LogReg-sup	-	93.7	93.8	91.6	85.2	83.7	87.6	88.4	89.1
MultiBERT-sup	-	93.3	95.7	93.4	88.0	87.5	89.3	88.4	90.8
MultiFiT-sup	-	95.9	96.1	94.8	90.3	87.7	92.6	90.0	92.5
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora</i>									
LASER, paper	parallel corpora	86.3	79.3	78.3	70.2	67.3	71.0	61.0	71.2
LASER, code	parallel corpora	87.7	75.5	84.0	71.2	66.6	76.7	64.6	75.2
MultiFiT	LASER	91.6	79.1	89.4	76.0	67.8	82.5	69.6	79.4
<i>Methods below use pre-trained multi-lingual language models</i>									
MultiBERT	-	79.8	72.1	73.5	63.7	73.7	76.0	72.8	73.1
ST-MultiBERT	MultiBERT	90.0	85.3	88.4	75.2	79.3	87.0	76.8	83.1
<i>Methods below use bilingual dictionaries (Student requires Teacher)</i>									
MultiCCA	$B = 20K$	81.2	72.5	72.4	69.4	60.8	74.7	67.6	71.2
Teacher	MUSE ($B = 160$)	72.7	73.5	77.6	62.5	46.9	53.3	31.9	59.8
Student-LogReg	Teacher	87.4	86.0	89.1	70.5	71.9	82.4	68.8	79.4
Student-MonoBERT	Teacher	90.4	86.3	91.2	74.7	75.6	84.0	72.6	82.1
<i>Below we report the standard deviation of test accuracies across 5 runs</i>									
Student-MonoBERT		0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.6	
<i>Below we report validation accuracies</i>									
Teacher	MUSE ($B = 160$)	72.9	74.1	79.5	59.5	54.8	65.7	49.0	
Student-LogReg	Teacher	86.5	88.4	88.5	70.9	73.2	82.3	67.7	
Student-MonoBERT	Teacher	89.8	88.2	91.6	75.2	76.9	84.2	71.1	

Table 6: Accuracy results on MLDoc.

Method	Cross-Lingual Resource	De			Fr			Ja			AVG Acc
		Books	DVD	Music	Books	DVD	Music	Books	DVD	Music	
<i>Methods below use labeled target documents (supervised)</i>											
LogReg-sup	-	84.5	82.8	84.1	84.7	86.0	88.0	80.9	83.0	83.0	84.1
MultiBERT-sup	-	86.1	84.1	82.0	86.2	86.9	86.7	80.9	82.8	80.0	84.0
MonoBERT-sup	-	82.4	80.0	81.7	88.4	86.2	86.3	86.3	85.7	86.2	84.8
MultiFiT-sup	-	93.2	90.5	93.0	91.3	89.6	93.4	86.3	85.8	86.6	90.0
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora or MT systems</i>											
MT-BOW	GoogleTransl.	79.7	77.9	77.2	80.8	78.8	75.8	70.2	71.3	72.0	76.0
BiDRL	Google Transl.	84.4	84.1	84.7	84.4	83.6	82.5	73.2	76.8	78.8	81.3
CLDFA	parallel corpora	84.0	83.1	79.0	83.4	82.6	83.3	77.4	80.5	76.5	81.1
LASER, code	parallel corpora	84.2	78.0	79.2	83.9	83.4	80.8	75.0	75.6	76.3	79.5
MultiFiT	LASER	89.6	81.8	84.4	87.8	83.5	85.6	80.5	77.7	81.5	83.6
<i>Methods below use bilingual dictionaries or no cross-lingual systems</i>											
VECMAP	-	76.0	76.3	73.5	77.8	78.6	78.1	55.9	57.6	54.4	69.8
MultiBERT	-	72.2	70.1	73.8	75.5	74.7	76.1	65.4	64.9	70.3	71.4
CL-SCL	$B = 450$ pivots	79.5	76.9	77.8	78.5	78.8	77.9	73.1	71.1	75.1	76.5
Teacher	MUSE ($B = 20$)	42.1	36.0	36.3	47.9	51.6	46.2	17.9	23.9	26.2	36.5
Student-LogReg	Teacher	76.0	77.8	82.2	78.8	80.0	80.1	77.2	79.8	78.9	79.0
Student-MonoBERT	Teacher	77.9	79.9	82.5	84.3	83.9	82.0	76.4	77.7	78.8	80.4
<i>Below we report the standard deviation of test accuracies across 5 runs</i>											
Student-MonoBERT	Teacher	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	

Table 7: Accuracy results on CLS. Validation accuracy is not reported as there is no validation set.

Method	CL Resource	Ar	Bg	De	Es	Fa	Hr	Hu	Pl	Pt	Ru	Sk	Sl	Sv	Ug	AVG
<i>Methods below labeled target documents (supervised)</i>																
LogReg-sup	-	-	54.4	54.4	43.8	65.9	56.0	51.4	56.4	49.9	56.6	66.0	57.0	60.6	-	-(56.0)
LSTM-sup	-	-	54.5	59.9	45.4	67.8	61.6	60.4	64.5	51.1	69.2	70.1	58.6	62.5	-	-(60.5)
<i>Methods below use parallel corpora</i>																
CLWE-BQ	parallel corpora	37.3	33.0	43.5	42.6	40.1	30.8	41.1	41.7	38.6	44.8	22.6	32.2	39.1	30.0	37.0
Project-LDC	parallel corpora	37.2	-	-	42.7	33.1	-	47.0	-	-	48.0	-	-	-	38.6	-(41.1)
Project-EP	parallel corpora	-	38.7	47.3	41.8	-	-	38.1	38.8	39.3	-	30.0	44.6	44.6	-	(40.4)
<i>Methods below use comparable corpora or dictionaries</i>																
SentiWordNet	SentiWordNet (>20K)	25.6	30.6	32.0	25.3	25.3	19.8	29.2	26.0	22.9	29.5	19.2	28.1	22.7	36.7	26.6
CLWE-Wikt	Wiktionary (>20K)	31.0	45.3	51.0	37.7	31.7	-	40.8	32.9	35.4	43.8	36.6	32.1	40.4	28.0	-(37.4)
CLWE-CP	comparable corpora	21.1	28.6	37.7	27.7	20.7	13.9	22.4	30.2	22.2	25.3	24.6	25.3	31.1	25.7	25.5
Teacher	$B = 500$	22.7	42.8	45.5	42.7	30.9	36.4	39.4	40.7	34.4	29.8	40.4	29.5	38.7	20.3	35.3
Student-LogReg	Teacher	39.0	46.3	52.5	44.9	45.7	39.4	45.2	45.4	38.7	43.2	43.3	42.1	50.4	41.2	44.1
<i>Below we report validation accuracies</i>																
Teacher	$B = 500$	31.3	43.8	45.7	43.2	32.3	34.3	39.4	41.1	35.0	27.2	40.5	29.7	40.5	22.8	
Student-LogReg	Teacher	47.2	48.7	52.1	45.4	46.5	39.0	46.9	45.3	40.1	41.7	43.2	42.5	50.0	38.3	

Table 8: Macro-averaged F1 results on TwitterSent, SentiPers, and LDC LORELEI.

Source Language	Target Acc (MultiCCA / MultiBERT / Student-LogReg)			
	En	De	Es	Fr
En	-	81.2/80.2/ 87.4	72.5/76.9/ 86.0	72.4/72.6/ 89.1
De	56.0/59.7/ 82.8	-	73.2/54.0/ 81.3	71.6/60.0/ 84.9
Es	74.0/74.2/ 80.8	55.8/57.6/ 83.3	-	65.6/71.8/ 89.0
Fr	64.8/76.1/ 84.1	53.7/51.8/ 84.5	65.4/72.1/ 85.5	-

Table 9: MultiCCA (left) vs. MultiBERT (center) vs. Student-LogReg (right) for various train (rows) and test (columns) configurations on MLDoc. Student-LogReg substantially outperforms MultiCCA and MultiBERT across all train and test configurations: CLTS effectively transfers weak supervision also from non-English source languages.

Change	AVG Acc
- (Original Student-LogReg)	79.4
(a) Extract seed words as in Angelidis and Lapata (2018)	77.0 (↓ 3.0%)
(b) Replace MUSE translations by Google Translate	78.8 (↓ 0.8%)
(c) Update Teacher as in Karamanolakis et al. (2019)	78.4 (↓ 1.3%)
(d) Remove seed words from Student’s input	77.2 (↓ 2.8%)

Table 10: Ablation experiments on MLDoc.

Dataset	Lang	LogReg	MonoBERT
MLdoc	De	14104	109M
	Es	15080	110M
	Fr	17632	111M
	It	11676	111M
	Ru	26804	178M
	Zh	15248	102M
	Ja	24676	111M
CLS-books	De	37560	109M
	Fr	33462	111M
	Ja	67195	111M
CLS-dvd	De	49832	109M
	Fr	12448	111M
	Ja	61897	111M
CLS-music	De	49899	109M
	Fr	27194	111M
	Ja	60554	111M
TwitterSent	Ar	5502	-
	Bg	44565	-
	De	105993	-
	Es	245778	-
	Fa	44811	-
	Hr	108030	-
	Hu	50532	-
	Pl	184266	-
	Pt	83685	-
	Ru	58416	-
	Sk	76776	-
	Sl	140226	-
Sv	70902	-	
Ug	978	-	
LORELEI	Ug	1353	-
	Si	4654	-

Table 11: Number of model parameters for our LogReg and MonoBERT student in each dataset and language.

Dataset	Lang	LogReg	MonoBERT
MLdoc	De	61s	176s
	Es	33s	165s
	Fr	43s	139s
	It	29s	157s
	Ru	54s	195s
	Zh	70s	173s
	Ja	51s	170s
	AVG	49s	168s
CLS-books	De	247s	699s
	Fr	301s	837s
	Ja	256s	785s
CLS-dvd	De	158s	641s
	Fr	71s	277s
	Ja	125s	317s
CLS-music	De	272s	925s
	Fr	290s	884s
	Ja	238s	800s
	AVG	218s	685s
TwitterSent	Ar	32s	-
	Bg	82s	-
	De	367s	-
	Es	2176s	-
	Fa	60s	-
	Hr	282s	-
	Hu	120s	-
	Pl	1445s	-
	Pt	361s	-
	Ru	164s	-
	Sk	181s	-
	Sl	654s	-
Sv	145s	-	
Ug	20s	-	
	AVG	434s	-
LORELEI	Ug	160s	-
	Si	174s	-
	AVG	167s	-

Table 12: Runtimes for our LogReg and MonoBERT student in each dataset and language.