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mALBERT: Is a Compact Multilingual BERT Model Still Worth It?

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Abstract

Within the current trend of Pretrained Language Models (PLM), emerge more and more criticisms about the ethical and ecological impact of such models. In this article, considering these critical remarks, we propose to focus on smaller models, such as compact models like ALBERT, which are more ecologically virtuous than these PLM. However, PLMs enable huge breakthroughs in Natural Language Processing tasks, such as Spoken and Natural Language Understanding, classification, Question–Answering tasks. PLMs also have the advantage of being multilingual, and, as far as we know, a multilingual version of compact ALBERT models does not exist. Considering these facts, we propose the free release of the first version of a multilingual compact ALBERT model, pre-trained using Wikipedia data, which complies with the ethical aspect of such a language model. We also evaluate the model against classical multilingual PLMs in classical NLP tasks. Finally, this paper proposes a rare study on the subword tokenization impact on language performances.

Keywords: Transformer, Multilingual, Compact Model, Tokenization

1. Introduction

Recent advances in the field of Natural Language Processing (NLP) are due to the development of transfer learning and the availability of Pre-trained Language Models (PLM) based on Transformer architectures (Vaswani et al., 2017), such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019). As they provide contextualized semantic representation, they contribute both to advancing the state-of-the-art on several NLP tasks and also to evolving training practices through the use of fine-tuning.

The recent trend consists of training large PLMs on ever larger corpora with an ever-increasing amount of parameters, which requires considerable computational resources that only a few companies and institutions can afford, such as GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023) or BLOOM (Scao et al., 2022). This trend raises questions about the temporal, financial, and environmental aspects of these models (Strubell et al., 2019; Moosavi et al., 2020). Therefore, one of the favored tracks is the reduction of computational resources involved while pre-training, fine-tuning, and inference of these models.

As far as we know, compact models, such as the ALBERT model (Lan et al., 2019), are a possible answer since they have been evaluated on the comprehension tasks covered by GLUE (Wang et al., 2018) and the question-answering task with the SQuAD corpus (Rajpurkar et al., 2016) with abundant data. They also have shown their effectiveness on lower-scale learning problems in poorly endowed languages but only in a monolingual context (Lan et al., 2019; Cattan et al., 2021). As far as we know, the multilingual version of such a model does not exist.

All Pre-trained Language Model uses subword unit tokenization in order to alleviate the open vocabulary problem. We take the opportunity of a new language model to conduct a short study of the impact of the subword unit vocabulary. Subword units come from studies conducted in machine translation using compression methods in order to reduce the vocabulary amount and to handle the Out-Vocabulary-Words (Chitnis and DeNero, 2015; Schuster and Nakajima, 2012; Wu et al., 2016; Senrich et al., 2016; Kudo and Richardson, 2018).

These subword unit approaches are linguistic-free and are mainly models, which are estimated on raw text. On the other side, it has been observed that these subword models do not correspond to linguistic units such as morphemes, affixes, etc. (Huck et al., 2017; Macháček et al., 2018; Ataman et al., 2017; Pinnis et al., 2017).

In order to conduct our subword comparison, we create three versions of the same ALBERT model, which are trained on the same data but with different tokenization. The goal of this subword study is to verify the impacts of subword models associated to our ALBERT models in NLP tasks. Especially in tokens class classification tasks, such as Named Entity Recognition or Spoken Language Understanding tasks.

Contributions: First, this paper presents the release of a multilingual version of ALBERT (Lan et al., 2019): mALBERT¹, trained on open-source

¹<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-32k>
<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-64k>
<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-128k>

and ethical data; second, we propose a study of the subword tokenization process focused on the vocabulary size impact. We also measure the tokenization impact, which is correlated with the subwords segmentation rate of tokens.

The paper is organized as follows: first, we present the model architecture and the pre-training details in Section 2; Section 3 details the experiments conducted using our new models and the tokenization study; Finally, the last section presents the conclusion and outcomes of this paper.

2. Model Pre-training

As far as we know, there is no multilingual compact model. We therefore propose to pre-train a new version of ALBERT from scratch: *mALBERT*.

ALBERT is based on parameter sharing/reduction techniques that enable us to reduce the computational complexity and speed up training and inference phases. Compared to previous compact models such as DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2019), Q-BERT (Shen et al., 2020) or TernaryBERT (Zhang et al., 2020), ALBERT is to the date the smallest pre-trained models with 12 million parameters and <50 megabyte model size. ALBERT models also show their ecological advantages regarding bigger models (Cattan et al., 2022).

2.1. Data

Aiming to use open-source and ethical data to pre-train the *mALBERT* model, we decided to use only Wikipedia data for each language. Figure 1 presents the language distribution of the Wikipedia corpus collected on January 2023. The corpus is roughly 21 billion words across 50 most common languages on Wikipedia, plus English and Basque.

As for many other multilingual models, English prevails the whole corpus with French, German, and Spanish. These four languages represent nearly 50% of the corpus.

2.2. Subword unit

The subword unit tokenization model chosen for our multilingual ALBERT model is based on a unigram language model approach (Kudo and Richardson, 2018). This subword unit approach was chosen because it enables us to fix the final amount of vocabulary.

Three subword unit models were trained on a subpart of the corpus selected randomly, in order to study the impact of the tokenization process on the final ALBERT model performances. The tokenization models differ only with the amounts of the final vocabulary generated: 32k, 64k, and 128k.

2.3. Training parameters

Models are trained for roughly 9000 hours on the ANONYMIZED CALCULATOR NAME, using the UER-py toolkit (Zhao et al., 2019) jointly with DeepSpeed (Rasley et al., 2020), and use multiple training objectives (masked language modeling and next sentence or sentence order prediction). We use the same learning configuration as the original model with a batch size of 128 and an initial learning rate set to 3.125×10^{-4} .

Finally, we pre-train three models based on the same amount of corpus, with the same amount of parameters, but they differ only by the amount of input vocabulary. We noted our final models as follows: *mALBERT-128k*, *mALBERT-64k*, and *mALBERT-32k*, which respectively use an amount of 128k, 64k, and 32k tokens.

3. Experiments

Our three new models are benchmarked on two kinds of classical NLP tasks: the slot-filling and classification tasks. These tasks use standard fine-tuning approaches, in which fine-tuning and evaluation scripts are provided by HuggingFace (Wolf et al., 2019). For each experiment, we do not seek to have the best score, but a point of comparison for our models.

We compare our new multilingual ALBERT model to the large multilingual model *mBERT* (Devlin et al., 2019) as well as on the compact multilingual models with a distilled version of *mBERT*: *distil-mBERT* (Sanh et al., 2019). Our comparison includes also some monolingual versions of ALBERT for English (noted *EnALBERT* in CoNLL2003 and MultiCoNER tasks) and French (in MEDIA), noted *FrALBERT* (Cattan et al., 2021).

Finally, we do not compare our models with bigger LLM such as GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2023), LLaMA (Touvron et al., 2023) or BLOOM (Scao et al., 2022), for resources and ecological considerations.

3.1. Slot-filling benchmark

Six slot-filling tasks are used to benchmark our new *mALBERT* models: two multilingual understanding tasks, Massively Multilingual NLU 2022 (MMNLU) (FitzGerald et al., 2022) and MultiATIS++ (Xu et al., 2020); two Named Entity Recognition monolingual tasks: CoNLL2003 (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) and MultiCoNER (Malmasi et al., 2022); and two monolingual language understanding tasks: SNIPS (Coucke et al., 2018) and MEDIA (Bonneau-Maynard et al., 2009).

Table 1 presents the results obtained on the slot-filling tasks according to the F1-measure. For every task and model, we perform 10 runs with a different

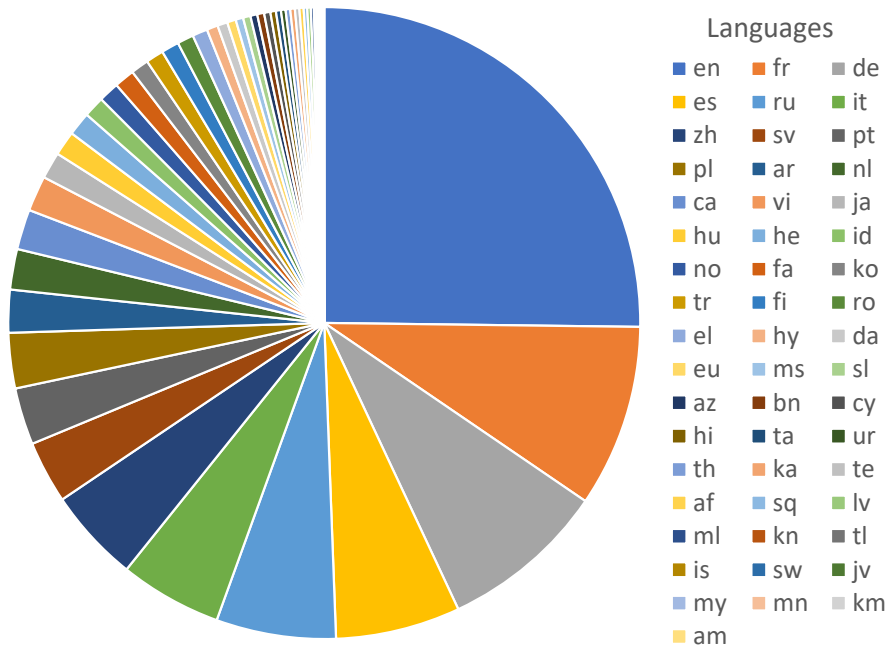


Figure 1: Language distribution (52 languages) over the training corpus. In the legend, languages are presented according to their representativity: from left to right and from up and down. The most representative language is English (*en*) and the least one is Amharic (*am*)

| Models \ Tasks | MMNLU | MultiATIS++ | CoNLL2003 | MultiCoNER | SNIPS | MEDIA |
|----------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| mBERT | 73.46* (0.11) | 92.22 (0.11) | 95.59* (0.10) | 66.36* (0.18) | 96.09 (0.31) | 87.90* (0.09) |
| Distil-mBERT | 72.44* (0.08) | 91.69 (0.09) | 94.59* (0.13) | 61.26* (0.13) | 94.95 (0.22) | 86.83* (0.21) |
| EnALBERT | N/A | N/A | 89.67* (0.34) | 42.36* (0.22) | 95.95 (0.13) | N/A |
| FrALBERT | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 81.76 (0.59) |
| mALBERT-128k | 65.81* (0.11) | 89.14 (0.15) | 88.27* (0.24) | 46.01* (0.18) | 91.60 (0.31) | 83.15* (0.38) |
| mALBERT-64k | 65.29* (0.14) | 88.88 (0.14) | 86.44* (0.37) | 44.70* (0.27) | 90.84 (0.47) | 82.30 (0.19) |
| mALBERT-32k | 64.83* (0.22) | 88.60 (0.27) | 84.96* (0.41) | 44.13* (0.39) | 89.89 (0.68) | 82.04 (0.28) |

Table 1: Results on several slot-filling tasks regarding the F1-measure score. The results are the mean of 10 different runs, and the standard deviation is noted between parenthesis. *: p-value < 0.05.

seed each time. Over all tasks, *mBERT* and *Distil-mBERT* obtain the best results. On the one hand, monolingual ALBERT models perform better on CoNLL2003 and SNIPS tasks. On the other hand, one can observe that *mALBERT* models perform better than *FrALBERT* and *EnALBERT* models on MultiCoNER and MEDIA tasks, respectively. This ensure us that *mALBERT* is comparable with other monolingual ALBERT models.

In all slot-filling tasks, the 128k version of the mALBERT model performed better than the two other variants. Moreover, we observe a hierarchy in the mALBERT model versions according to their vocabulary size: the one with the smaller vocabulary is the worst and the 64k mALBERT variant is second.

3.2. Classification benchmark

For the classification benchmark, we evaluate our models against four tasks. First, two multilingual tasks: Massively Multilingual NLU 2022 (MMNLU)

(FitzGerald et al., 2022) and MultiATIS++ (Xu et al., 2020) ; second, two monolingual tasks: SNIPS (Coucke et al., 2018) and Stanford Sentiment Treebank v2 (SST2) (Socher et al., 2013).

Like in the slot-filling task, bigger models obtained the best results over all tasks. Focusing on the mALBERT models, they obtained results with a *p-value* lower than 0.05 only in the MMNLU task. On other tasks (MultiATIS++, SNIPS, and SST2), the significance of results between our new models are not reached. Considering MMNLU results, this leads us to the same observation we have with the slot-filling task: the mALBERT model performances are ranked according to their vocabulary size.

3.3. Tokenization Impact

The starting point of this study is to measure the impact of the tokenization of subword unit models. We compare our three tokenization models: 32k, 64k, and 128k codes (which, in our case, corresponds

| Models \ Tasks | MMNLU | MultiATIS++ | SNIPS | SST2 |
|----------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| mBERT | 80.32* (0.09) | 96.14* (0.17) | 97.31 (0.31) | 46.49* (0.76) |
| Distil-mBERT | 78.23* (0.08) | 92.79* (0.35) | 97.69 (0.25) | 43.59 (0.31) |
| EnALBERT | N/A | N/A | 97.60 (0.11) | 43.66 (1.88) |
| mALBERT-128k | 72.35* (0.09) | 90.58 (0.98) | 96.84 (0.49) | 34.66 (1.46) |
| mALBERT-64k | 71.26* (0.11) | 90.97 (0.70) | 96.53 (0.44) | 34.64 (1.02) |
| mALBERT-32k | 70.76* (0.11) | 90.55 (0.98) | 96.49 (0.45) | 34.18 (1.64) |

Table 2: Results on several classification tasks regarding the Accuracy score. The results are the mean of 10 different runs, and the standard deviation is noted between parenthesis. *: p-value < 0.05.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|--------------|-----|-----------|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------------|---|--------|
| Plain text | acquisition | of | Daniels | Pharmaceuticals | Inc | of | St. | Petersburg | , | Fla. |
| Reference | O | O | B-ORG | I-ORG | I-ORG | O | B-LOC | I-LOC | O | B-LOC |
| Tok-32k | _acquisition | _of | _Daniel_s | _Pharmac_e_u_tical_s | _Inc | _of | _St_. | _Petersburg | _ | _Fla_. |
| mALBERT-32k | O | O | B-ORG | I-ORG | B-ORG | I-ORG | I-ORG | I-ORG | O | B-ORG |
| Tok-64k | _acquisition | _of | _Daniel_s | _Pharmac_e_u_tical_s | _Inc | _of | _St_. | _Petersburg | _ | _Fla_. |
| mALBERT-64k | O | O | B-PER | I-PER | B-ORG | O | B-ORG | I-ORG | O | B-PER |
| Tok-128k | _acquisition | _of | _Daniel_s | _Pharmaceutical_s | _Inc | _of | _St_. | _Petersburg | _ | _Fla_. |
| mALBERT-128k | O | O | B-ORG | I-ORG | I-ORG | O | B-LOC | I-LOC | O | B-LOC |

Table 3: Example of segmentation / tokenization for each model and the label detected by the model for the CoNLL2003 task (NER). In this table the original input text is noted *Plain text*, with its gold labelization (*Reference*). Then each next row corresponds to a tokenization model (*Tok-32k*, *Tok-64k*, *Tok-128k*) and the output of the associated model (*mALBERT-32k*, *mALBERT-64k*, *mALBERT-128k*). The token segmentation in subwords is indicated with a special character as separator (`␣`).

| Subword vocab. size | Tok-32k | Tok-64k | Tok-128k |
|---------------------|----------|---------|----------|
| NE | 120.59 % | 85.28 % | 62.69 % |
| Not NE | 57.64 % | 36.04 % | 25.37 % |

Table 4: Impact of the tokenization on word type (i.e.: belong to a Named Entity or not.) in the CoNLL2003 task. We reported the percentage of additional segmentation observed.

to the final amount of vocabulary). This study focuses on a Named Entity task, the CoNLL2003 task, which is a slot-filling task based on a token classification method. This means the segmentation of the token in subwords could increase the sentence context, which may impact the final labelization result.

In order to measure the possible impact of the subword tokenization, we estimate the amount of additional segmentation according to Name Entity (NE) labels (table 4). We can observe a significant impact on the token segmentation associated with NE: the 128k subword model segmentation of tokens produces 62% more subwords, meanwhile, the 32k subword model produces 120% of additional subwords.

We push deeper into the analysis and estimate the Pearson correlation score between the segmentation of the word in subwords and the non-detection of the associated label of the original token. The correlation score is 0.44, which implies a moderate correlation of the tokenization impact on the labelization process. This means the more the entity is segmented, the less accurate the model is to identify the right entity.

Table 3 presents an example of the segmentation

and labelization of the sequence “acquisition of Daniels Pharmaceuticals Inc of St. Petersburg, Fla.”. In this example, we can observe that the most split word is “Pharmaceuticals”. This sequence of subwords illustrates the impact, especially on the label of next word ‘Inc’. The impact can directly be observed on the label of words “Pharmaceuticals” and “Fla.”. The right labelization is obtained once the whole segment is the less splitted in subwords.

The subword tokenization seems to interfere with the labelization of these tokens made by the model. Finally, these remarks on subword tokenization seem obvious. Still, as far as we know, we have not found any study on the impact of tokenization on pre-trained language models. This first study shall be pushed further to precisely measure the impact of subword tokenization models on other tasks and domains.

4. Conclusion

This paper presents the first multilingual ALBERT model (mALBERT), pre-trained on Wikipedia dump in 52 languages. The model comes with three vocabulary size variants: 32k, 64k, and 128k. All variants were pre-trained on data extracted from 91 Go of Wikipedia dumps, which represents more than 21 billion words.

So, is a multilingual compact still worth it? Evaluations in classical NLP tasks (slot-filling and classification tasks) show the multilingual version of ALBERT has comparable results to the monolingual versions used in this paper. From an ecological and resource aspect, one model pre-training on GPU time took 9k hours, which is far from the million

hours for the BLOOM LLM.

The tokenization study, focused on vocabulary size, gives some feedback about the importance of the impact of subword tokenization. The moderate correlation observed on a classical Named Entity task enables us to say the more you split tokens into subwords, the less the Entity is well detected.

In the next steps, the extension of the subword tokenization model study will investigate which kind of segmentation could be the best for Pre-trained Language Models on more NLP tasks.

The three versions of the model are freely available on [huggingFace](https://huggingface.co)²

5. Acknowledgements

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²<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-32k>
<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-64k>
<https://huggingface.co/cservan/malbert-base-cased-128k>

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