Title of Your Ph.D. Thesis

Your Name

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Thesis Assessment Committee

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Abstract

摘要

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Acknowledgments

Acknowledgement here.

Introduction

Introduction, motivation and big picture of your phd thesis

1.1 Contributions

The contributions of this dissertation are summarized as follows:

- Description of your first paper
- Description of your second paper

• . . .

1.2 Produced Publications

The research work of this dissertation has produced some direct and indirect publications as listed below:

• ...

1.3 Thesis Outline

Literature Review

2.1 Unsupervised Language Model Pre-training

The advent of unsupervised Language Model (LM) pre-training has led to significant performance gains on a variety of language understanding (Radford et al., 2018; Devlin et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2019b; Clark et al., 2020) and language generation (Radford et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2019) tasks. Typically, a deep Long Shot-Term Memory networks (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997; Peters et al., 2018) or Transformer (Vaswani et al., 2017) is first pretrained on large-scale corpus and then the contextualized embeddings from the pre-trained language model are provided for the downstream tasks in the manner of feature extraction or fine-tuning.

Several pre-training techniques have been developed for generating general-purpose contextualized embeddings. Peters et al. (2017, 2018) employ two unidirectional LSTM LMs, namely, a forward left-to-right LM and a backward right-to-left LM, to encode bi-directional contexts and the pre-training is conducted via auto-regressive language modeling, as shown in the left part of Figure 2.1. GPT (Radford et al., 2018) and GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) adopt the same auto-regressive pre-training objective but change to model sequential word flow with unidirectional Transformer. BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), as well as its variants (Conneau and Lample, 2019; Liu et al., 2019b; Wang et al., 2019; Joshi et al., 2020), propose to learn

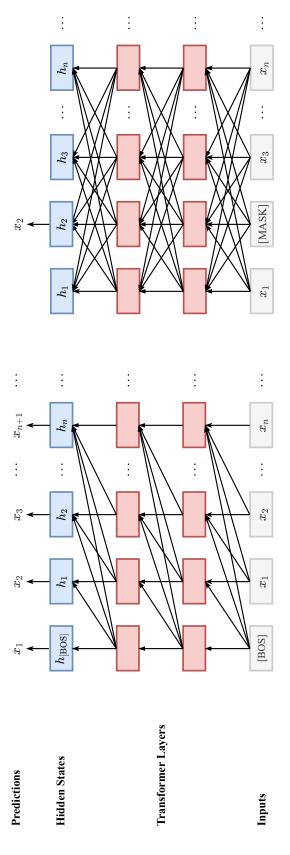


Figure 2.1: Auto-regressive language modeling (left) and masked language modeling (right).

contextualized embeddings based on masked language modeling—reconstruct the masked input with the special [MASK] token and the surrounding context (see the right part of Figure 2.1). In order to unify the auto-regressive pre-training and auto-encoding based pre-training, UniLM (Dong et al., 2019) jointly optimizes the pre-training of Transformer with auto-regressive language modeling objective and masked language modeling objective. Similarly, XLNet (Yang et al., 2019b) designs permutation language modeling objective to capture the context information from all positions while preserving the temporal dependency among the predictions. MASS (Song et al., 2019), BART (Lewis et al., 2020) and T5 (Raffel et al., 2019) are the initial attempts to pre-train sequence-to-sequence architecture and achieve promising results on machine translation and abstractive summarization.

2.2 Multilingual Language Model Pre-Training

Multilingual language model pre-training is a multilingual extension of language model pre-training, where the deep neural architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017; Peters et al., 2018) is pre-trained on large-scale multilingual corpus, e.g., a collection of wikipedia documents in different languages. The yielding multilingual pre-trained language models (mPTLMs) (Che et al., 2018; Devlin et al., 2019; Conneau and Lample, 2019; Mulcaire et al., 2019; Conneau et al., 2020) have been regarded as the gold standard for a variety of unsupervised crosslingual natural language understanding tasks (Prettenhofer and Stein, 2010; Schwenk and Li, 2018; Zeman et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019a). The most impressive features of mPTLMs is that even performing cross-lingual transfer in a zero-shot manner—only fine-tune the mPTLMs on the source-language training data—it can still significantly outperform the existing works based on cross-lingual embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013; Faruqui and Dyer, 2014; Smith et al., 2018) or machine translation (Banea et al., 2008; Duh et al., 2011), as observed in Pires et al. (2019); Wu and Dredze (2019); Keung et al. (2019); Artetxe et al. (2020). After being additionally trained on machine-translated data from source language, the cross-lingual performances of the cross-lingual models exploiting mPTLMs are further improved (Huang et al., 2019; Conneau et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2020), especially on sequence

classification (Schwenk and Li, 2018) and sequence pair classification tasks (Conneau et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019a).

Chapter 3

Chapter 4

Chapter 5

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