# Statistical Natural Language Processing Artificial Neural networks: an introduction

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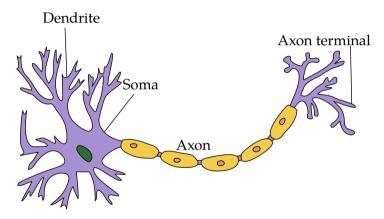
Summer Semester 2020

#### Artificial neural networks

- Artificial neural networks (ANNs) are machine learning models inspired by biological neural networks
- ANNs are powerful non-linear models
- Power comes with a price: there are no guarantees of finding the global minimum of the error function
- ANNs have been used in ML, AI, Cognitive science since 1950's with some ups and downs
- Currently they are the driving force behind the popular 'deep learning' methods

### The biological neuron

(showing a picture of a real neuron is mandatory in every ANN lecture)



<sup>\*</sup>Image source: Wikipedia

# Artificial and biological neural networks

- ANNs are inspired by biological neural networks
- Similar to biological networks, ANNs are made of many simple processing units
- Despite the similarities, there are many differences: ANNs do not mimic biological networks
- ANNs are practical statistical machine learning methods

# Recap: the perceptron

$$y = f\left(\sum_{j}^{m} w_{j} x_{j}\right)$$

where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } wx > 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In ANN-speak  $f(\cdot)$  is called an *activation function*.

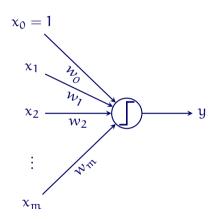
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# Recap: logistic regression

$$P(y) = f\left(\sum_{j}^{m} w_{j} x_{j}\right)$$

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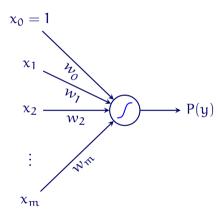
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-wx}}$$

# Recap: logistic regression

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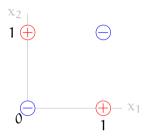
where

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-wx}}$$



# Linear separability

- A classification problem is said to be linearly separable if one can find a linear discriminator
- A well-known counter example is the logical XOR problem



There is no line that can separate positive and negative classes.

# Can a linear classifier learn the XOR problem?

# Can a linear classifier learn the XOR problem?

We can use non-linear basis functions

$$w_0 + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3\phi(x_1, x_2)$$

is still linear in  $\boldsymbol{w}$  for any choice of  $\phi(\cdot)$ 

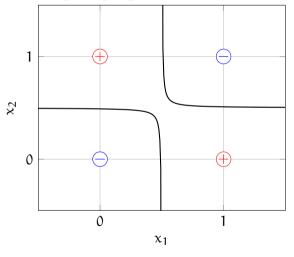
• For example, adding the product  $x_1x_2$  as an additional feature would allow a solution like:  $x_1 + x_2 - 2x_1x_2$ 

| $x_1$ | $\chi_2$ | $x_1 + x_2 - 2x_1x_2$ |
|-------|----------|-----------------------|
| 0     | 0        | 0                     |
| 0     | 1        | 1                     |
| 1     | 0        | 1                     |
| 1     | 1        | 0                     |
|       |          |                       |

• Choosing proper basis functions like  $x_1x_2$  is called *feature engineering* 

#### Non-linear basis functions

#### solution in the original input space



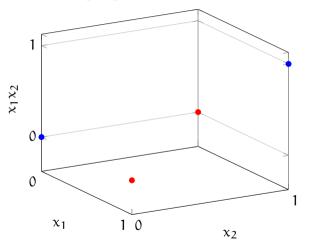
The solution to

$$x_1 + x_2 - 2x_1x_2 - 0.5 = 0$$

is a (non-linear) discriminant that solves the problem

#### Non-linear basis functions

#### solution in the 3D input space

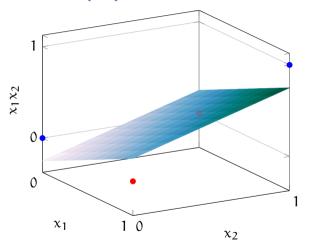


- The additional basis function maps the problem into 3D
- In the new, mapped space, the points are linearly separable

9 / 34

#### Non-linear basis functions

#### solution in the 3D input space



- The additional basis function maps the problem into 3D
- In the new, mapped space, the points are linearly separable

#### Where do non-linearities come from?

non-linearities are abundant in nature, it is not only the XOR problem

In a linear model,  $y = w_0 + w_1x_1 + \ldots + w_kx_k$ 

- The outcome is *linearly-related* to the predictors
- The effects of the inputs are additive

This is not always the case:

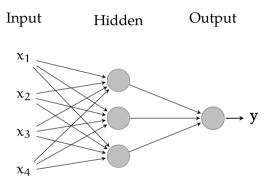
- Some predictors affect the outcome in a non-linear way
  - The effect may be strong or positive only in a certain range of the variable (e.g., reaction time change by age)
  - Some effects are periodic (e.g., many measures of time)
- Some predictors interact 'not bad' is not 'not' + 'bad' (e.g., for sentiment analysis)

# Multi-layer perceptron

- The simplest modern ANN architecture is called multi-layer perceptron (MLP)
- The MLP is a *fully connected, feed-forward* network consisting of perceptron-like units
- Unlike perceptron, the units in an MLP use a continuous activation function
- The MLP can be trained using gradient-based methods
- The MLP can represent many interesting machine learning problems
  - It can be used for both regression and classification

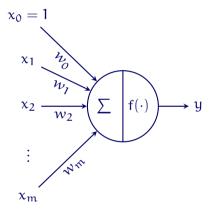
# Multi-layer perceptron

the picture



Each unit takes a weighted sum of their input, and applies a (non-linear) activation function.

#### Artificial neurons



The unit calculates a weighted sum of the inputs

$$\sum_{j}^{m} w_{j} x_{j} = w x_{j}$$

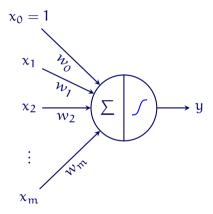
- Result is a linear transformation
- Then the unit applies a non-linear activation function  $f(\cdot)$
- Output of the unit is

$$y = f(wx)$$

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#### Artificial neurons

#### an example



• A common activation function is the *logistic sigmoid* function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

The output of the network becomes

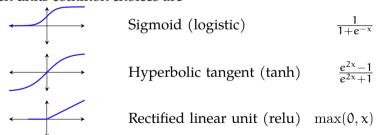
$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-wx}}$$

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#### Activation functions in ANNs

#### hidden units

- The activation functions in MLP are typically continuous (differentiable) functions
- For hidden units common choices are



#### Activation functions in ANNs

#### output units

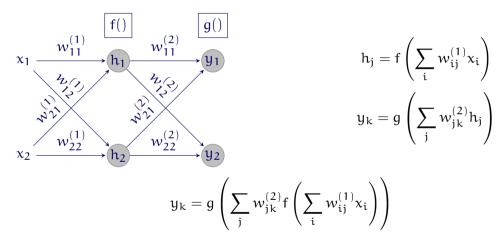
- The activation functions of the output units depends on the task. Common choices are
  - For regression, the identity function (y = x)
  - For binary classification, logistic sigmoid

$$P(y = 1 \mid x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-wx}} = \frac{e^{wx}}{1 + e^{wx}}$$

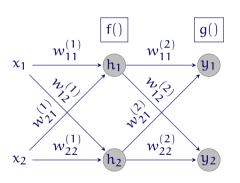
- For multi-class classification, softmax

$$P(y = k \mid x) = \frac{e^{w_k x}}{\sum_j e^{w_j x}}$$

# MLP: a simple example



# MLP: a simple example



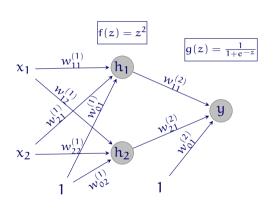
 Alternatively, we can write the computations in matrix form

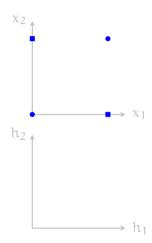
$$\mathbf{h} = f(W^{(1)}\mathbf{x})$$

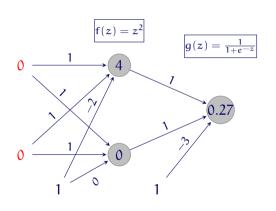
$$\mathbf{y} = g(W^{(2)}\mathbf{h})$$

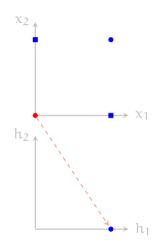
$$= g\left(W^{(2)}f(W^{(1)}\mathbf{x})\right)$$

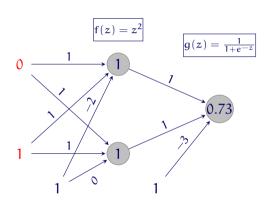
 This corresponds to a series of transformations followed by elementwise (non-linear) function applications

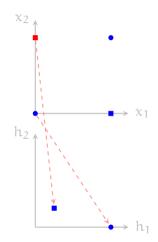


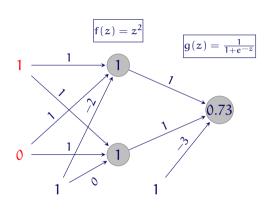


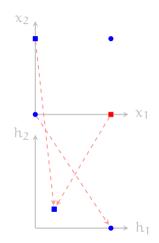


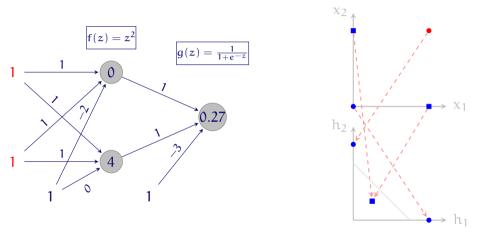








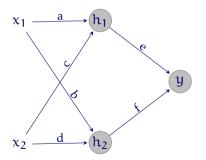




Is this different from non-linear basis functions?

### Non-linear activation functions are necessary

Without non-linear activation functions, an ANN with any number of layers is equivalent to a linear model.



$$h_1 = ax_1 + cx_2$$

$$h_2 = bx_1 + dx_2$$

$$y = eh_1 + fh_2$$

$$= (ea + fb)x_1 + (ec + fd)x_2$$

y is still a linear function of  $x_i$ 

#### Gradient descent: a refresher

 The general idea is to approach a minimum of the error function in small (or not so small) steps

$$\boldsymbol{w} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w} - \eta \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w})$$

- $\nabla J$  is the gradient of the loss function, it points to the direction of the maximum increase
- η is the learning rate
- The updates can be performed

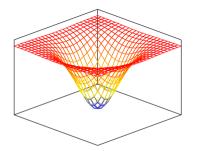
batch for the complete training set

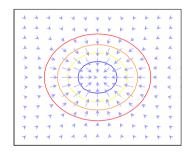
on-line after every training instance

- this is known as stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

mini-batch after small fixed-sized batches

### Gradient descent: the picture

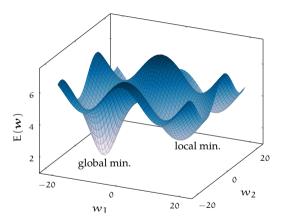




$$\nabla f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right)$$

A function is *convex* if there is only one (global) minimum.

#### Global and local minima



# Error functions in ANN training

#### depend on the task

• For regression, a natural choice is minimizing the sum of squared error

$$E(w) = \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

• For binary classification, we use cross entropy

$$E(w) = -\sum_{i} y_{i} \log \hat{y}_{i} + (1 - y_{i}) \log(1 - \hat{y}_{i})$$

• Similarly, for multi-class classification, also cross entropy

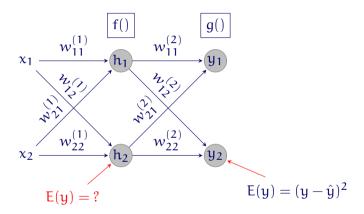
$$E(w) = -\sum_{i} \sum_{k} y_{i,k} \log \hat{y}_{k}$$

In practice, the ANN loss functions will not be convex.

# Learning in ANNs

- ANNs implement complex functions: we need to use optimization methods (e.g., gradient descent) to train them
- Typically error functions for ANNs are not convex, gradient descent will find a local minimum
- Optimization requires updating multiple layers of weights
- Assigning credit (or blame) to each weight during learning is not trivial
- An effective solution to the last problem is the backpropagation algorithm

# Learning in multi-layer networks: the problem

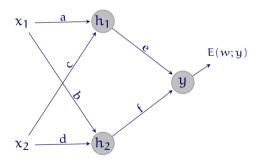


We want a way to update non-final weights based on final error.

26 / 34

### Calculating gradient on a neural network

(with some simplification)



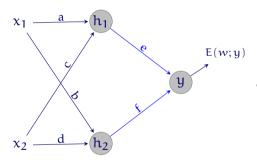
• We need to calculate the gradient:

$$\nabla E = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial a}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial b}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial c}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial d}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial e}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial f}\right)$$

we can use gradient descent directly

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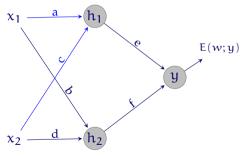
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•  $\frac{\partial E}{\partial e}$  and  $\frac{\partial E}{\partial f}$  is easy, they do not depend on other variables

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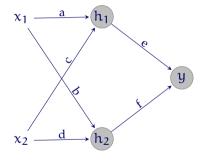
$$\nabla E = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial \alpha}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial b}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial c}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial d}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial e}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial f}\right)$$

we can use gradient descent directly

- $\frac{\partial E}{\partial e}$  and  $\frac{\partial E}{\partial f}$  is easy, they do not depend on other variables
- We factor others using chain rule

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial h1}{\partial a} \frac{\partial E}{\partial h1}$$
 and  $\frac{\partial E}{\partial c} = \frac{\partial h1}{\partial c} \frac{\partial E}{\partial h1}$ 

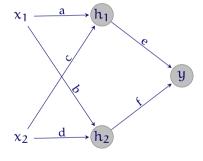
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• So far, it is just math

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28 / 34

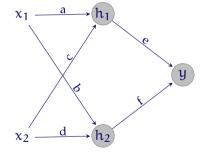


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• But a naive implementation does many repeated calculations

28 / 34

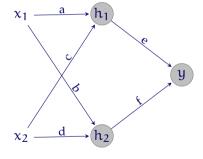


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- But a naive implementation does many repeated calculations
- Backpropagation is an efficient (dynamic programming) algorithm that avoids repeated calculations

28 / 34



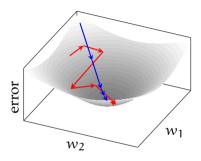
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- But a naive implementation does many repeated calculations
- Backpropagation is an efficient (dynamic programming) algorithm that avoids repeated calculations
- Backpropagation works for any *computation graph* without cycles

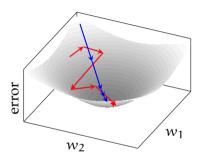
#### Stochastic gradient descent

- Standard (batch) gradient descent is computationally expensive: it updates weight at every *epoch*
- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) updates weights for every training instance
- SGD may take more steps, but converges to the same solution



# Stochastic gradient descent

- Standard (batch) gradient descent is computationally expensive: it updates weight at every *epoch*
- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) updates weights for every training instance
- SGD may take more steps, but converges to the same solution
  - In practice a *mini-batch* is more common
  - Correct *batch size* is not only about efficiency, it also affects accuracy



# Preventing overfitting in neural networks

 As in linear models, we can use L1 and L2 regularization by adding a regularization term to the error function (known as weight decay). For example,

$$J(w) = E(w) + ||\boldsymbol{W}||$$

- There are other ways to fight overfitting
  - With *early stopping*, one stops the training before it reaches to the smallest training error
  - With *dropout*, random units (with all of their connections) are dropped during training
  - Injecting noise at the output, as a way to (implicitly) model the noise in the target classes/values

# Adapting learning rate

- The choice of learning rate  $\eta$  is important
- too small slow convergence
  too big overshooting may fluctuate around the minimum,
  or even jump away
  - The idea is to adapt the learning rate during learning
  - A common trick is adding a momentum:
     if we move in the same direction a long time accelerate

$$\Delta w_{ij}(t) = \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} + \alpha \Delta w_{ij}(t-1)$$

• There are many adaptive optimization algorithms: Adagrad, Adadelta, RMSprop, Adam, ...

# How many layers, units

- A network with single hidden layer is said to be *a universal approximator*: it can approximate any continuous function with arbitrary precision
- However, in practice multiple interconnected layers are useful and commonly used in modern ANN models
- The choice of layers, in general the architecture of the system, depends on the application

# A bit of history

- 1950-60 ANNs (perceptron) became popular: lots of excitement in AI, cognitive science
  - 1970s Not much interest
    - criticism on perceptron: linear separability
  - 1980s ANNs became popular again
    - backpropagation algorithm
    - multi-layer networks
  - 1990s ANNs had again fallen 'out of fashion'
    - Engineering: other algorithms (such as SVMs) performed generally better
    - From the cognitive science perspective: ANNs are difficult to interpret
- present ANNs (again) enjoy a renewed popularity with the name 'deep learning'

#### Summary

- ANNs are powerful non-linear learners
  - based on some inspiration from biological NNs
  - using many simple processing units
  - built on linear models (logistic regression)
- For non-linear problems we need non-linear activation functions, and at least one hidden layer
- ANNs can be used for both regression and classification
- In general, ANN loss functions are not convex, what we find is a local minimum
- They (typically) are trained with backpropagation algorithm

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#### Next:

Mon/Wed Unsupervised learning

# Additional reading, references, credits

- Third edition (draft) of Jurafsky and Martin, has a new chapter on neural networks
- Hastie, Tibshirani, and Friedman (2009, ch.11) also includes an accessible introduction
- For a reivew of use of ANNs in NLP, including more advanced topics, see Goldberg 2016

#### Additional reading, references, credits (cont.)



Goldberg, Yoav (2016). "A primer on neural network models for natural language processing". In: Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research 57, pp. 345–420.



Hastie, Trevor, Robert Tibshirani, and Jerome Friedman (2009). The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction. Second. Springer series in statistics. Springer-Verlag New York. ISBN: 9780387848587. URL: http://web.stanford.edu/-hastie/ElemStatLearn/.



Jurafsky, Daniel and James H. Martin (2009). Speech and Language Processing: An Introduction to Natural Language Processing, Computational Linguistics, and Speech Recognition. second. Pearson Prentice Hall. ISBN: 978-0-13-504196-3.