# Neural language models

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AIC-5102B Natural Language Processing

#### Outline

A refresher on feedforward networks

- Applications
  - Sentiment analysis
  - Language modeling

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A refresher on feedforward networks

- 2 Applications
  - Sentiment analysis
  - Language modeling

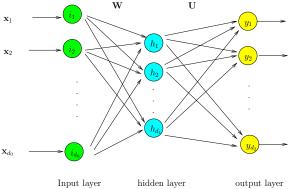
- A feedforward neural network is described by an acyclic directed graph (V, E) and a weight function  $w : E \to \mathbb{R}$  over the edges
- Nodes V correspond to neurons or neural units
- A neuron can be regarded as a differentiable function  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ , where  $\mathcal{X}$  has dimension n, and  $\mathcal{Y}$  has dimension 1.
- A neuron takes as input either data, or the output of other neurons, performs some computation on it, and produces a single output.
- Very often, f is written as

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\sum_{i} w_{i} g_{i}(\mathbf{x})) \tag{1}$$

where  $\sigma$  is called the activation function

• Common choices for  $\sigma$  are : tanh, softmax,  $\mathbf{1}$  (the step function), ReLU (rectified linear unit)

- In this chapter, we will furthermore assume that the feedforward neural network are layered, that is, neurons are partitioned into independent layers
- Here is an example of a 3-layer network:



• In this example, **input neurons** *i* don't do anything special, they just copy one component of the input data, and ignore others. More precisely, eq. (1) rewrites as

$$i_k = \mathbf{x}_k, \quad \forall k = 1, ..., d_0$$

- They may be omitted for that reason, and we may directly refer to x in the sequel.
- Hidden neurons (or hypothetical neurons) may linearly combine the i's (or x's components) before activating the output. In such a way that

$$h_k = \sigma \left( \sum_{i=1}^{d_0} \mathbf{W}_{ki} \mathbf{x}_i + b_k \right), \quad \forall k = 1, ..., d_1$$

or, more compactly

$$\mathbf{h} = \sigma \left( \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \right) \tag{2}$$

Here, **W** is a matrix of shape  $d_1 \times d_0$ 

 Output neurons y may again linearly combine the output of the hidden layer using a different matrix, say U; then activate the result of the combination through a different function, say softmax, without using any bias b. In such a way that

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathsf{softmax}(\mathbf{Uh}) \tag{3}$$

where **U** is a matrix of shape  $d_2 \times d_1$  this time

ullet Recall that for any  $oldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the softmax function is defined as

$$\operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{\sum_{j} \exp(\mathbf{u}_{j})} (\exp(\mathbf{u}_{1}), ..., \exp(\mathbf{u}_{n}))$$

Because the components of softmax sum to unity and are all > 0, they express a full probability distribution. This is one reason why softmax is often used in practice.

## Universal approximation theorem

From Maiorov and Pinkus ([4], theorem 4, p. 88):

#### Theorem

There exists an activation function  $\sigma$  which is real analytic, strictly increasing, and sigmoidal, and has the following property. For any  $f \in C[0,1]^d$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist real constants  $d_i$ ,  $c_{ij}$ ,  $\theta_{ij}$ ,  $\gamma_i$  and vectors  $\mathbf{w}^{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  for which

$$\left| f(\mathbf{x}) - \sum_{i=1}^{6d+3} d_i \sigma \left( \sum_{j=1}^{3d} cij\sigma(\mathbf{w}^{ij} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \theta_{ij}) + \gamma_i \right) \right| < \varepsilon$$

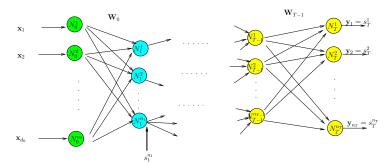
holds true for all  $x \in [0,1]^d$ .

### Universal approximation theorem

- The above theorem merely states that is possible to approximate any continuously differentiable, d-dimensional function defined over [0,1]<sup>d</sup> by a 2-layer FFN
- The FFN only needs to have 3d neurons on its first layer, and 6d + 3 on its second.
- Two layers are enough to approximate any function: suffice to grow the number of neurons accordingly. The network can be wide, but not deep
- Other results tackle the problem the other way around : the network can be deep, but not wide. See Kidger and Lyons [3]

#### Let's generalize:

- A generic feedforward network consists of T independent layers  $V_1,...,V_T$ , of neurons
- Layer t has n<sub>t</sub> neurons, for all t



• Neuron number k of layer t is denoted  $N_k^t$ . It has output  $s_k^t$ . It is linked to neurons of layer t-1 by the equation

$$s_t^k = \sigma \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t-1}} w_{t-1}^{i,k} s_{t-1}^i \right)$$

where  $w_{t-1}^{i,k}$  is the (scalar) weight on the edge which binds neuron i of layer t-1 to neuron k of layer t

• For the whole layer t, this writes, in matrix form

$$\mathbf{a}_t = \mathbf{W}_{t-1} \mathbf{s}_{t-1} \tag{4}$$

$$\mathbf{s}_t = \sigma(\mathbf{a}_t) \tag{5}$$

• Bias may be introduced by adding a dummy dimension to data, and setting it to constant (say +1)

# Training feedforward neural networks

- Training a FFN is to estimate the W matrix of each layer
- Let  $D = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)\}$  be the training data, which consists of input vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and their expected output  $\mathbf{y}$ .
- For every input vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , the FFN computes an output  $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$
- If we call  $\mathbf{w}$  the set of <u>all</u> the variables contained in matrices  $\mathbf{W}_0, \dots, \mathbf{W}_{T-1}$ , then the total loss induced by the network is

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = E_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim D} \gamma(f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y})$$
 (6)

where  $\gamma$  is any loss function.

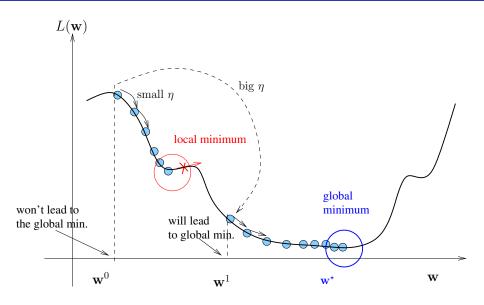
• We are looking for  $\mathbf{w}^*$  which minimizes  $L(\mathbf{w})$ , that is

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg_{\mathbf{w}} \min L(\mathbf{w}) \tag{7}$$

# Stochastic gradient descent and backpropagation

- Solving eq. (7) for NLP problems is generally intractable, and involves huge computation time :  $|\mathbf{w}|$  is typically  $\approx 30k$  in eq. (7), and eq. (6) averages over all possible samples
- In practice, two approximate algorithms are used jointly: stochastic gradient descent (SGD), and backpropagation
- SGD has already been mentioned in the chapter on word embeddings.
- ullet The novelty in the version presented alg.1 is that it is reasonable that one iteration updates ullet wholly if it is done by backpropagation
- Underlying idea remains unchanged: at each iteration, remove a small amount of the gradient to the solution.
- This amount can be a sequence  $(\eta_i)$ , i = 1, ... rather than a constant. Regularization can also be used  $(\lambda \text{ parameter})$ .

## Stochastic gradient descent for FFN



# Stochastic gradient descent for FFN

#### Algorithm 1 Stochastic gradient descent for FFN

```
function SGD((V,E), D, \eta, \lambda) returns \mathbf{w}^* Initialize \mathbf{w} randomly, but close to \mathbf{0} for i=1,...,|\eta| do Sample (\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\sim D Compute \mathbf{v}=\mathsf{backprop}((V,E),\,(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}),\,\mathbf{w}) Set \mathbf{w}=(1-\lambda\eta_i)\mathbf{w}-\eta_i\mathbf{v} end for return \mathbf{w} end function
```

• Recall that if a multivariate function  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$  can be written as  $f(\mathbf{x}) = g(h(\mathbf{x}))$  and both g and h are differentiable, then

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \tag{8}$$

- Eq. (8) is classically known as chain rule
- Beware that  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial h}$  and  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  are indeed <u>matrices</u>, also known as **Jacobians**. Another possible writing of (8) is

$$J_{\mathbf{x}}f = J_{h}g.J_{\mathbf{x}}h$$

We'll avoid it for readability issues.

- The basic underlying idea of backpropagation (BP) is very simple: when deriving the gradient of a complicated expression, use the chain rule as much as possible. Factorization avoids repeated calculations, and is your friend!
- We will first illustrate BP through an example. Generic algorithm and proof of correctness will be presented after.

• Example :

$$f(x, y, z) = (x - 2y)ReLU(y + z) - x^2$$

where ReLU(u) = max(0, u)

- We put  $a = x^2$ , b = x 2y, c = ReLU(y + z), and d = b.c.
- Then,

$$f(x,y,z)=d-a$$

and

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial b} \frac{\partial b}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} \frac{\partial a}{\partial x}$$
(9)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} \left[ \frac{\partial d}{\partial b} \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial d}{\partial c} \frac{\partial c}{\partial y} \right]$$
(10)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial c} \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} \tag{11}$$

Moreover

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = -1, \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial d} = 1$$
 (12)

$$\frac{\partial a}{\partial x} = 2x \tag{13}$$

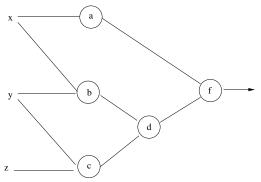
$$\frac{\partial b}{\partial x} = 1, \qquad \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} = -2$$
 (14)

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial y} = \mathbf{1}\{y + z > 0\}, \qquad \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} = \mathbf{1}\{y + z > 0\}$$
 (15)

$$\frac{\partial d}{\partial b} = c, \qquad \frac{\partial d}{\partial c} = b \tag{16}$$

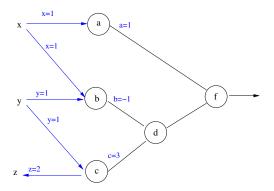
• And all other partial derivatives are zero.

Graphically, we have the following:

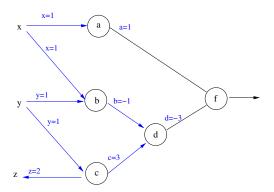


- Say that x = 1, y = 1, and z = 2.
- The **forward pass** of BP is to evaluate *f* for some fixed values of its variables using the above graph like we did.

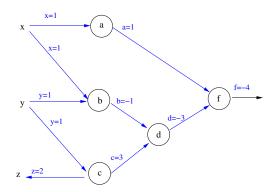
• Forward pass, step 1:



• Forward pass, step 2:

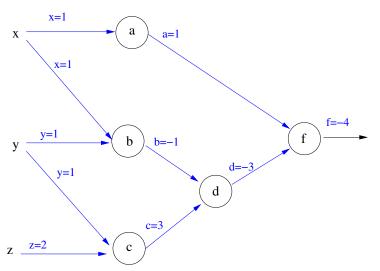


• Forward pass, step 3:

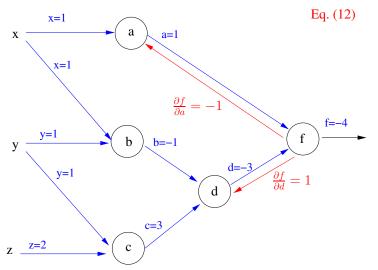


- Forward propagation spans the network from left to right (or bottom to top) and evaluates variables
- Backpropagation spans the network from right to left (or top to bottom) and evaluates gradients :
  - Partial derivatives are analytically all known from equations (12) to (16)
  - Variables have all been evaluated from the forward pass, so gradients are numerically all known – this is relevant for eq. (13), (15), and (16)
- In other words, backpropagation "climbs down" the network, assembling elementary gradients together to evaluate more complicated ones, until it is able to completely evaluate those given by eq. (12) to (16)

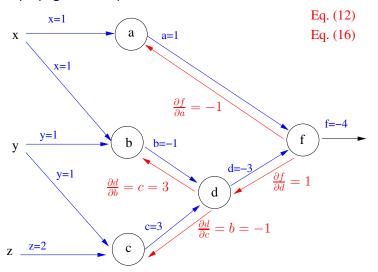
• Backpropagation, step 0



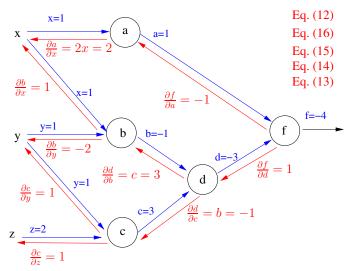
• Backpropagation, step 1



• Backpropagation, step 2

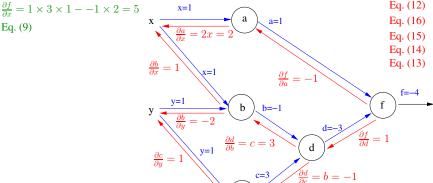


#### Backpropagation, step 3



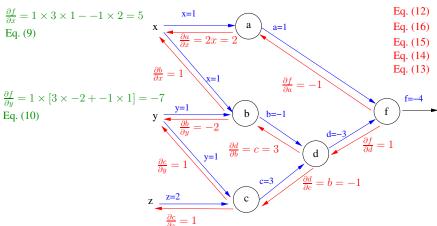
• Final gradients:  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ 

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 1 \times 3 \times 1 - -1 \times 2 = 5$$



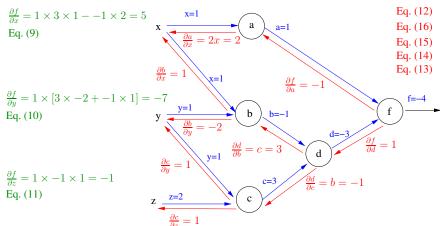
 $\frac{\partial c}{\partial z} = 1$ 

• Final gradients:  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ 





• Final gradients:  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ ,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$ 



#### What does this say ?

- When the path which binds f to any other variable is unique, then the corresponding gradient is just the product of all "local" gradients
- When the path which binds f to any other variable meets a fork (and is not unique) then :
  - the "local" gradient is a common factor, which must be "distributed" to all incoming nodes: all backward partial path must be <u>multiplied</u> by this gradient
  - the sought gradient is the <u>sum</u> of all outgoing gradients  $\square$  This is the case for  $f \to y$ , which writes (with high abuse of notation)

$$f \to y = f \to d \times d \to b \times b \to y + f \to d \times d \to c \times c \to y$$
$$= f \to d \times (d \to b \times b \to y + d \to c \times c \to y)$$

• This is for a generic graph. In case we work with a layered FFN, this leads to Alg. 2 shown hereafter.

#### Algorithm 2 Backpropagation for FFN

```
function backprop((V, E), (x, y), w) returns v
V is partitioned into T+1 layers V_0, ..., V_T
Layer V_t has n_t neurons
Forward pass:
Set \mathbf{s}_0 = \mathbf{x}
for t=1,...,T do
   for i=1,...,n_t do
      Set \mathbf{a}_{t}^{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{t}-1} \mathbf{W}_{t}^{i,j} \mathbf{s}_{t-1}^{j}
       Set \mathbf{s}_t^i = \sigma(\mathbf{a}_t^i)
   end for
end for
```

# Backward pass: Set $\delta_T = \mathbf{s}_T - \mathbf{y}$ for t = T - 1, ..., 1 do for $i = 1, ..., n_t$ do Set $\delta_t^i = \sum_{j=1}^{n_t-1} \mathbf{W}_t^{j,i} \delta_{t+1}^j \sigma'(\mathbf{a}_{t+1}^j)$ end for end for for $(N_{t-1}^j, N_t^i) \in E$ do Set $\mathbf{v}^{i,j} = \delta_t^i \sigma'(\mathbf{a}_t^i) \mathbf{s}_{t-1}^j$

end for return v

Exercise: prove that the equations

$$\delta_t^j = \sum_{j=1}^{n_t-1} \mathbf{W}_t^{j,i} \delta_{t+1}^j \sigma'(\mathbf{a}_{t+1}^j)$$
$$\mathbf{v}^{i,j} = \delta_t^j \sigma'(\mathbf{a}_t^i) \mathbf{s}_{t-1}^j$$

in the backward pass of Alg. 2 are correct, and that the solution computed is the gradient w.r.t all  $\mathbf{w}$ 's of the loss function

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{s}_{T}||^{2}$$

#### Outline

A refresher on feedforward networks

- 2 Applications
  - Sentiment analysis
  - Language modeling

#### Application to sentiment analysis

- Application to sentiment analysis is to label a given text with one or more subjective labels: joyful/sad, positive/negative, optimistic/pessimistic, interesting/boring, etc.
- The simplest possible analysis consists in classifying in two or three classes:
  - Two mandatory classes are positive and negative
  - Optionally, a third class may be neutral in case the text has no sentiment
- When the output of an FFN is a softmax function, it represents a probability distribution
- We can apply such a network to sentiment analysis to assess the probability that a given text has a positive, negative, or neutral sentiment, and perform naive Bayes classification

- We need to answer a few questions :
  - What is the input data?
  - What should be the shape of U and W (and possibly bias b), and what would it mean?
  - 4 How many neurons on each layer ?

#### Answers:

## On data

- We should at very least include the number of times each word has been seen in a document (the "bag-of-words" model) with whole data for a corpus involves at least the DT matrix of the corpus
- But such statistics are often not sufficient, and may even be misleading. For instance:
  - "Not" might appear 200 times in a document, and "good" 10 times. But this does not say if "not good" appeared, and 10 times "not good" + 190 times "not" is not the the same than 200 times "not" + times "good"
  - "Barely good" is similar to bad.
  - "Queen" and "Elizabeth" is not the same than "Queen Elizabeth"
- Bigrams could also be considered, but a vocabulary of N words involves  $N^2$  bigrams, most of which being seen 0 times
- ullet For trigrams, the situation will be worse, with  $N^3$  possible trigrams.

### Statistics from the Brown corpus:

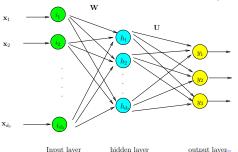
number of	max	seen	ratio
1-grams (words)	56057	1161192	20.71
2-grams	3.14E+09	455266	1.45E-04
3-grams	1.76E+14	907493	5.16E-09
4-grams	9.87E+18	1096986	1.11E-13

### Consequences:

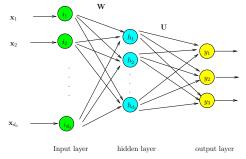
- It is pointless to consider anything more than words and bigrams
- Training bigrams are created by concatenating consecutive words, and added to the vocabulary ("Queen\_Elizabeth", "NOT\_good", etc.).
- Unseen test bigrams are simply discarded (they can't be used anyway)
- A drawback of this method is that even though incremental algorithms for LSA [2] or SVD [1] do exist, most of new bigrams will still be useless.

### On W, U, and b

- W plays a role similar to word embedding in the network, just as it did for LSA or word2vec; except that we include bigrams in addition to words
- It can be initialized and dimensioned from LSA. Hence,  $d_0$  and  $d_1$  are defined, and **W** has shape  $d_1 \times d_0$ .
- **U** must have shape  $3 \times d_1$
- A bias b may be used along with U. It indirectly controls the a priori
  probability that that a document has a positive (or negative) sentiment



- **3** On the number of neurons  $(d_1)$ :
  - Since **W** has shape  $d_1 \times d_0$ , we must have  $d_0$  and  $d_1$  neurons on layers 0 and 1, respectively
  - The output layer has 3 neurons, as we wish to classify on 3 classes only



- **3** On the number of neurons  $(d_1)$ :
  - Since **W** has shape  $d_1 \times d_0$ , we must have  $d_0$  and  $d_1$  neurons on layers 0 and 1, respectively
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### How to train the network?

- ullet To train the network, we need a loss function to penalize discrepancies between predicted  $\hat{y}$  and observed y probabilities
- It is convenient to use cross-entropy for that purpose, as it considerably simplifies the problem
- Recall that the cross-entropy of two discrete distributions p and q defined over the same support X is defined as

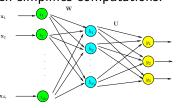
$$H(p,q) = -\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log q(x)$$
(17)

- In our case, we are doing crisp classification, meaning that any sample text can belong to only one class (positive, negative, or neutral) excluding the others
- So for a given  $\mathbf{x}$ , only one component of  $\mathbf{y}$ , say  $\mathbf{y}_t$ , must be one, and the other two must be 0. Hence, (17) boils down to

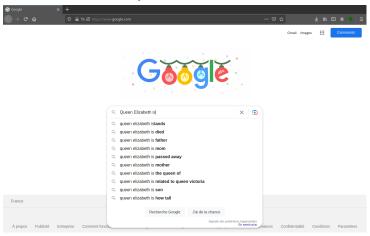
$$L(\mathbf{x}) = -\log \mathbf{y}_t(\mathbf{x}) \tag{18}$$

where t is the number of the "true" class which sample  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to.

- ullet We have renamed the cross-entropy to L as it is also a loss function
- Hence, the gradient of this loss function only involves one component of the output, which simplifies computations.



One task we do almost daily resembles this :



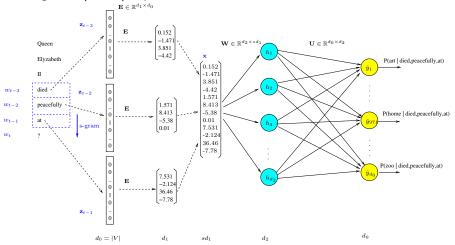
- This amounts to predicting the most probable words seen after s trailing words.
- In other words, we need to learn

$$P(w_t|w_{t-1},...,w_{t-s})$$

the probability to obtain word  $w_t$  after the s-gram  $(w_{t-1}, ..., w_{t-s})$  has been seen.

- By learning this conditional probability, we implicitly define a language model, which is the s-gram model
- This highly resembles what we did for word2vec, except that :
  - all context words come from the past
  - the embedded representation of words is assumed to be known as the output of word2vec U matrix, for instance, which we will remain as E to avoid confusion

For trigrams (s = 3) a possible architecture could be as follows :



### Explanations

- Input data consist of s-grams (s=3 on the figure) : given words  $w_{t-s}$  to  $s_{t-1}$ , we want to predict  $w_t$
- The embedded representation of word i is obtained by multiplicating its 1-hot vector representation  $\mathbf{z}_i$  by  $\mathbf{E}$ . As a result, we get 3 vectors of dimension  $d_1$  ( $d_1 = 4$  on the figure).
- These s vectors are stacked to obtain a single x vector, the dimension of which is  $sd_1$  ( = 3 × 4 = 12 on the figure)

$$\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{E}\mathbf{z}_{t-s}, \mathbf{E}\mathbf{z}_{t-s+1}, ..., \mathbf{E}\mathbf{z}_{t-1}]$$
 (19)

• x is forwarded to the hidden layer as before:

$$\mathbf{h} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}) \tag{20}$$

 The output layer estimates the conditional probabilities to get the next word given the s-gram:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{Uh})$$
 (21)

## Training the network

- Training the network first requires to extract all possible *s*-grams from the corpus
- This is achieved by sliding a window within each sentence of the corpus.
- But a question arises: suppose we have an extract s-gram at hand, what should we do of it? There are two options:
  - We consider that this sample tells us that  $w_t$  is the one, and only one possible word we should accept given  $w_{t-3}$ ,  $w_{t-2}$ ,  $w_{t-1}$ . This implies:
    - $\mathbf{y}_{w_t} = 1$ , and all other components of  $\mathbf{y}$  are zero
    - We can reuse eq. (18) in such a case, and train the network the same way we did for sentiment analysis
  - ② Or we consider this only says one more occurrence of  $w_t$  should be considered given  $w_{t-3}, w_{t-2}, w_{t-1}$ , but it does not imply that the probability of seeing words other that  $w_t$  given  $w_{t-3}, w_{t-2}, w_{t-1}$  is zero.

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- Strictly speaking, only option 2 is acceptable, as option 1 feeds the network with wrong data
- However, it requires the preparation of all possible s-grams extracted from a corpus, and this number can become quickly large (see slide 39)
- Results with both options will be compared during the forthcoming lab.



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