# Introduction to Deep Learning in NLP Deep Learning and the Nature of Linguistic Representation

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#### Outline

Machine Learning as a Source of Cognitive Insights

Basic Elements of Deep Learning

Types of Deep Neural Networks

An Example Application of Deep Learning to NLP

Conclusions

- Class 1: July 13, 11:00-12:20
   Introduction to Deep Learning in NLP
- Class 2: July 14, 11:00-12:20
   Learning Syntactic Properties with Deep Neural Networks
- Class 3: July 15, 11:00-12:20
   Machine Learning and the Sentence Acceptability Task
- Class 4: July 16, 11:00-12:20
   Predicting Human Acceptability Judgments in Context
- Class 5: July 17, 11:00-12:20
   Cognitively Viable Computational Models of Linguistic Knowledge



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- These include, among others, image classification, face recognition, medical diagnostics, game playing, and autonomous robots.
- DL has been particularly influential in NLP, where it has yielded substantial progress in applications like machine translation, speech recognition, question-answering, dialogue management, paraphrase identification, and NL inference.
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## From Engineering to Cognitive Science

- The success of DL as an engineering method raises important cognitive issues.
- Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) constitute domain general learning devices, which apply the same basic approach to learning, data processing, and representation in all domains
- If they are able to approximate or surpass human performance in a task, what conclusions, if any, can we draw concerning the nature of human learning and representation for that task?

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- Few people working in DL today make this strong claim.
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- In this course we are not focussing on grammar induction, but the more general issues of language learning and the nature of linguistic representation.
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- DNNs learn an approximation of a function f(x) = y which maps input data x to an output value y (category assignment, probability distribution, etc.).
- Deep Feed Forward Networks consist of (1) an input layer where data is entered, (2) one or more hidden layers, in which units (neurons) compute the weights for components of the data, and (3) an output layer that generates a value for the function.
- DNNs can, in principle, approximate any function, and, in particular, non-linear functions.
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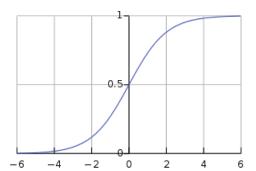
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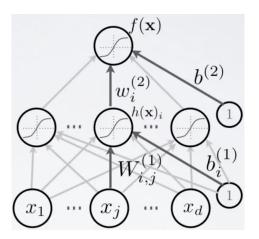
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#### Example of a Sigmoid Function: Logistic Sigmoid

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



## **Deep Feed Forward Networks**



From Tushar Gupta, "Deep Learning: Feedforward Neural Network", *Towards Data Science*, Jan 5, 2017



# Training a DNN

- Training a DNN involves comparing its predicted function value to the ground truth of training data.
- Its error rate is reduced in cycles (epochs) through back propagation.
- This process involves computing the gradient of a loss (error) function, and proceeding down the slope, by specified increments, to an estimated optimal level, determined by stochastic gradient descent.

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- Cross Entropy is a function that measures the difference between two probability distributions P and Q:
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- It is widely used as a loss function for gradient descent in training DNNs.
- At each epoch in the training process cross entropy is computed, and the values of the weights assigned to the hidden units are adjusted to reduce error along the slope identified by gradient descent.
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- In many cases the hidden layers of a DNN will produce a set of non-normalised probability scores for the different states of a random variable corresponding to a category judgment, or the likelihood of an event.
- The softmax function maps the vector of these scores into a normalised probability distribution whose values sum to 1.
- $softmax(z)_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_j e^{z_j}}$
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- Words are represented in a DNN by vectors of real numbers.
- Each element of the vector expresses a distributional feature of the word.
- These features are the dimensions of the vectors, and they encode its co-occurrence patterns with other words in a training corpus.
- Word embeddings are generally compressed into low dimensional vectors (200-300 dimensions) that express similarity and proximity relations among the words in the vocabulary of a DNN model.
- These models frequently use large pre-trained word embeddings, like word2vec (Mikolov et al., 2013) and GloVe (Pennington et al., 2014), compiled from millions of words of text.



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- For example, if the DNN is learning to identify the objects that appear in graphic images, then its training data may consist of large numbers of labelled images of the objects that it is intended to recognise in photographs.
- In unsupervised learning the training data is not labelled.
- A generative neural language model may be trained on large quantities of raw text.
- It will generate the most likely word in a sequence, given the previous words, on the basis of the probability distribution over words, and sequences of words, that it estimates from the unlabelled training corpus.



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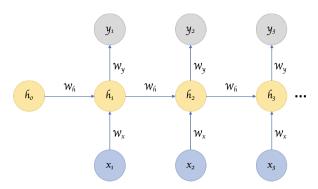
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#### Structure of an RNN



From Mahendran Venkatachalam, "Recurrent Neural Networks: Remembering What's Important", *Towards Data Science*, March 1, 2019



- Simple RNNs preserve information from previous states, but they do not effectively control this information.
- They have difficulties representing long distance dependencies between elements of a sequence.
- An LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) is a type of RNN whose units contain three types of information gates, composed of sigmoid and tanh functions.
- (i) The forgetting gate determines which part of the information received from preceding units is discarded; (ii) the input gate updates the retained information with the features of a new element of the input sequence; and (iii) the output gate defines the vector which is passed to the next unit in the network



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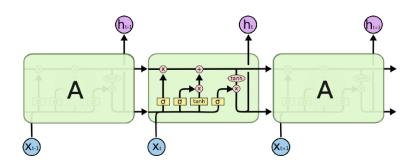
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#### LSTM Architecture



From Christopher Olah's blog *Understanding LSTM Networks*, August 27, 2015



- In a convolutional neural network (CNN) input is fed to a convolutional layer, which extracts a feature map from this data.
- A pooling layer compresses the map by reducing its dimensions, and rendering it invariant to small changes in input (noise filtering).
- Successive convolutional + pooling layers construct progressively higher level representations from the feature maps received from preceding levels of the network.
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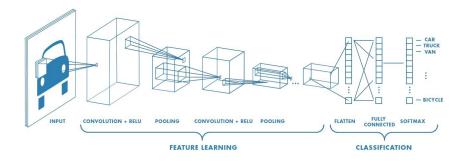
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## Example of a CNN



From Sumit Saha "A Comprehensive Guide to Convolutional Neural Networks— the ELI5 Way", *Towards Data Science*, December 15, 2018



#### **Attention**

- Attention was developed to solve a problem in seq2seq neural machine translation, which uses an encoder-decoder architecture.
- In earlier versions of this architecture an RNN (or LSTM) encoded an input sequence as a single context vector, which a decoder RNN (LSTM) mapped to a target language sequence.
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#### Attention and Self-Attention

- Bahdanau et al. (2015) introduce an attention layer that computes relative weights for each of the words in the input sequence, and these are combined with the context vector.
- The attention mechanism significantly improves the accuracy of seq2seq word alignment.
- It learns the relative importance of elements in the input in determining correspondences to elements in the output sequence.
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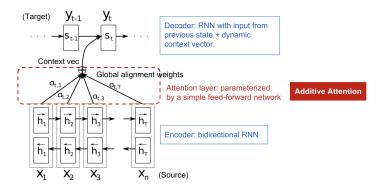
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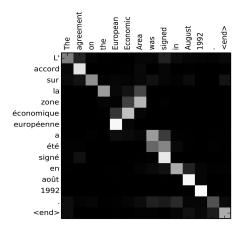
#### **Attention In Neural Machine Translation**



From Dzmitry Bahdanau et al. (2015), "Neural Machine Translation by Jointly Learning to Align and Translate", *ICLR 2015* 



# Word Alignment with Attention Weights



From Dzmitry Bahdanau et al. (2015), "Neural Machine Translation by Jointly Learning to Align and Translate", *ICLR 2015* 



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- Instead they construct both encoders and decoders out of stacks of layers that consist of multi-head attention units which provide input to a feed forward network.
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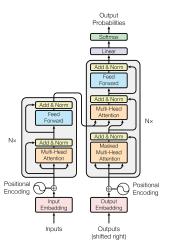
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### Architecture of a Transformer



From Ashish Vaswani et al. (2017), "Attention is All you Need", NIPS 2017



- Transformers are pre-trained on large amounts of text for extensive lexical embeddings.
- Many, like OpenAl GPT (Radford et al., 2018) have unidirectional architecture.
- They predict the next element of a sequence given its predecessors, and they do not have access to its successors.
- BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) is a bidirectional transformer trained to predict a masked token from both its left and right contexts (effectively it predicts the word in a blank between two contexts).
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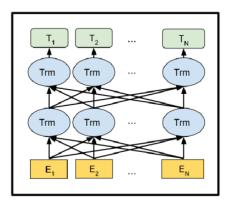
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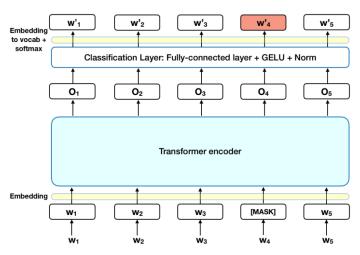
### BERT's Design



From Jacob Devlin et al. (2019), "BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding", *NAACLT-HLT 2019* 



### **Training BERT**



From Rani Horev (2018), "BERT Explained: State of the art language model for NLP", *Towards Data Science*, November 10, 2018



- Bizzoni and Lappin (2017) (BL) construct a composite neural network to classify sets of sentences for paraphrase proximity.
- They construct a corpus of 250 sets of five sentences, where each set contains a reference sentence and four paraphrase candidates.
- They rate each of the four candidates on a five point scale for paraphrase proximity to the reference sentence.
- BL train their classifier DNN for both binary and gradient classification of pairs of sentences for paraphrase.
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# The Design of BL's Paraphrase Classifier

#### The paraphrase classifier consists of three main components:

- Two encoders, one for each of the sentences in a reference sentence-candidate pair, that consist of a CNN, a max pooling layer, and an LSTM,
- A merge layer that concatenates the sentence vectors which the encoders produce into a single vector, and
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- The CNN of the encoder identifies relevant features of an input sentence for the classification task.
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- The LSTM uses the sequential structure of the sentence vector to highlight features needed for the task, and to further reduce the dimensionality of the input vector.
- The LSTM produces a vector that is passed to two fully connected layers, the first one with a .5 dropout rate (output from half the neurons, randomly selected, of this layer is discarded in training, to avoid overfitting).



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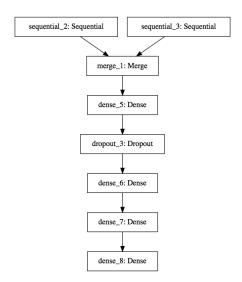
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### **BL** Paraphrase Encoder

atrousconvolution1d_input_1: InputLayer				input:		(None, 25, 300)		
auousconvoiduon1d_input_1: inputLayer					output:		(None, 25, 300)	
			<b>\</b>					
atrousconvolution1d 1; AtrousConvolution1				`	ir	iput:	(None, 25	, 300)
auousconvoluuon1d_1: AtrousConvoluti			ILIOIIID		οι	ıtput:	(None, 25, 25)	
			<b>\</b>					
mayn	maxpooling1d_1: MaxPooling1			inp		(Nor	ne, 25, 25)	
тахр				out	put:	(Nor	ne, 12, 25)	
	lstm_1: LSTM	-	put:	(None, 12, 25)		4		
		ou	output:		(None, 20)			
<b>↓</b>								
	dense 1: Dense		input:		(None, 20)			
	delise_1. Delise		output:		(None, 15)			
•								
	dropout 1: Dropo	out	input:		(N	one, 15	)	
	dropout_1: Dropout		output:		(None, 15)		)	
<u> </u>								
	dense_2: Dense		input:		(None, 15)		]	
			output:		(Non	e, 10)	1	

### **BL** Paraphrase Classifier



- BL assess the accuracy of both types of classification on the basis of their annotation of the test set sentence pairs on a five point scale.
- The binary classifier takes a softmax prediction of a score above a threshold of 2 as an instance of paraphrase.
- The gradient classifier predicts a paraphrase score from the scale, through the softmax probability distribution over this relation.
- They use the Pearson coefficient to evaluate the correlation between the classifier's scores and the ground truth annotations.
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### Binary Accuracy and Gradient Correlation

Ten Fold Cross Validation

Accuracy		
70.10		
67.01		
79.38		
73.20		
67.01		
72.92		
66.67		
75.79		
64.21		
73.68		
71		

k	Pearson
1	0.51
2	0.63
3	0.59
4	0.62
5	0.61
6	0.72
7	0.59
8	0.67
9	0.54
10	0.67
Average	0.61

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