

# Very Deep Convolutional Networks for Text Classification

**Alexis Conneau**  
Facebook AI Research  
aconneau@fb.com

**Holger Schwenk**  
Facebook AI Research  
schwenk@fb.com

**Yann Le Cun**  
Facebook AI Research  
yann@fb.com

**Loïc Barrault**  
LIUM, University of Le Mans, France  
loic.barrault@univ-lemans.fr

## Abstract

The dominant approach for many NLP tasks are recurrent neural networks, in particular LSTMs, and convolutional neural networks. However, these architectures are rather shallow in comparison to the deep convolutional networks which have pushed the state-of-the-art in computer vision. We present a new architecture (VD-CNN) for text processing which operates directly at the character level and uses only small convolutions and pooling operations. We are able to show that the performance of this model increases with the depth: using up to 29 convolutional layers, we report improvements over the state-of-the-art on several public text classification tasks. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that very deep convolutional nets have been applied to text processing.

## 1 Introduction

The goal of natural language processing (NLP) is to process text with computers in order to analyze it, to extract information and eventually to represent the same information differently. We may want to associate categories to parts of the text (e.g. POS tagging or sentiment analysis), structure text differently (e.g. parsing), or convert it to some other form which preserves all or part of the content (e.g. machine translation, summarization). The level of granularity of this processing can range from individual characters to subword units (Sennrich et al., 2016) or words up to whole sentences or even paragraphs.

After a couple of pioneer works (Bengio et al. (2001), Collobert and Weston (2008), Collobert et al. (2011) among others), the use of neural networks for NLP applications is attracting huge in-

terest in the research community and they are systematically applied to all NLP tasks. However, while the use of (deep) neural networks in NLP has shown very good results for many tasks, it seems that they have not yet reached the level to outperform the state-of-the-art by a large margin, as it was observed in computer vision and speech recognition.

Convolutional neural networks, in short *ConvNets*, are very successful in computer vision. In early approaches to computer vision, handcrafted features were used, for instance “*scale-invariant feature transform (SIFT)*” (Lowe, 2004), followed by some classifier. The fundamental idea of ConvNets (LeCun et al., 1998) is to consider feature extraction and classification as one jointly trained task. This idea has been improved over the years, in particular by using many layers of convolutions and pooling to sequentially extract a *hierarchical representation* (Zeiler and Fergus, 2014) of the input. The best networks are using more than 150 layers as in (He et al., 2016a; He et al., 2016b).

Many NLP approaches consider words as basic units. An important step was the introduction of continuous representations of words (Bengio et al., 2003). These *word embeddings* are now the state-of-the-art in NLP. However, it is less clear how we should best represent a sequence of words, e.g. a whole sentence, which has complicated syntactic and semantic relations. In general, in the same sentence, we may be faced with local and long-range dependencies. Currently, the mainstream approach is to consider a sentence as a sequence of tokens (characters or words) and to process them with a recurrent neural network (RNN). Tokens are usually processed in sequential order, from left to right, and the RNN is expected to “*memorize*” the whole sequence in its internal states. The most popular and successful RNN variant are certainly LSTMs (Hochreiter and Schmid-

Dataset	Label	Sample
Yelp P.	+1	Been going to Dr. Goldberg for over 10 years. I think I was one of his 1st patients when he started at MHMG. Hes been great over the years and is really all about the big picture. [...]
Amz P.	3/(5)	I love this show, however, there are 14 episodes in the first season and this DVD only shows the first eight. [...]. I hope the BBC will release another DVD that contains all the episodes, but for now this one is still somewhat enjoyable.
Sogou	"Sports"	ju4 xi1n hua2 she4 5 yue4 3 ri4 , be3i ji1ng 2008 a4o yu4n hui4 huo3 ju4 jie1 li4 ji1ng guo4 shi4 jie4 wu3 da4 zho1u 21 ge4 che2ng shi4
Yah. A.	"Computer, Internet"	"What should I look for when buying a laptop? What is the best brand and what's reliable?"; "Weight and dimensions are important if you're planning to travel with the laptop. Get something with at least 512 mb of RAM. [...] is a good brand, and has an easy to use site where you can build a custom laptop."

Table 1: Examples of text samples and their labels.

huber, 1997) – there are many works which have shown the ability of LSTMs to model long-range dependencies in NLP applications, e.g. (Sundermeyer et al., 2012; Sutskever et al., 2014) to name just a few. However, we argue that LSTMs are generic learning machines for sequence processing which are lacking task-specific structure.

We propose the following analogy. It is well known that a fully connected one hidden layer neural network can in principle learn any real-valued function, but much better results can be obtained with a deep problem-specific architecture which develops hierarchical representations. By these means, the search space is heavily constrained and efficient solutions can be learned with gradient descent. ConvNets are namely adapted for computer vision because of the compositional structure of an image. **Texts have similar properties : characters combine to form n-grams, stems, words, phrase, sentences etc.**

We believe that a challenge in NLP is to develop deep architectures which are able to learn hierarchical representations of whole sentences, jointly with the task. In this paper, we propose to use deep architectures of many convolutional layers to approach this goal, using up to 29 layers. The design of our architecture is inspired by recent progress in computer vision, in particular (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015; He et al., 2016a).

This paper is structured as follows. There have been previous attempts to use ConvNets for text processing. We summarize the previous works in the next section and discuss the relations and differences. Our architecture is described in detail in section 3. We have evaluated our approach on

several sentence classification tasks, initially proposed by (Zhang et al., 2015). These tasks and our experimental results are detailed in section 4. The proposed deep convolutional network shows significantly better results than previous ConvNets approach. The paper concludes with a discussion of future research directions for very deep approach in NLP.

## 2 Related work

There is a large body of research on sentiment analysis, or more generally on sentence classification tasks. Initial approaches followed the classical two stage scheme of extraction of (hand-crafted) features, followed by a classification stage. Typical features include bag-of-words or  $n$ -grams, and their TF-IDF. These techniques have been compared with ConvNets by (Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang and LeCun, 2015). We use the same corpora for our experiments. More recently, words or characters, have been projected into a low-dimensional space, and these embeddings are combined to obtain a fixed size representation of the input sentence, which then serves as input for the classifier. The simplest combination is the element-wise mean. This usually performs badly since all notion of token order is disregarded.

Another class of approaches are recursive neural networks. The main idea is to use an external tool, namely a parser, which specifies the order in which the word embeddings are combined. At each node, the left and right context are combined using weights which are shared for all nodes (Socher et al., 2011). The state of the top node is fed to the classifier. A recurrent neural net-

work (RNN) could be considered as a special case of a recursive NN: the combination is performed sequentially, usually from left to right. The last state of the RNN is used as fixed-sized representation of the sentence, or eventually a combination of all the hidden states.

First works using convolutional neural networks for NLP appeared in (Collobert and Weston, 2008; Collobert et al., 2011). They have been subsequently applied to sentence classification (Kim, 2014; Kalchbrenner et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). We will discuss these techniques in more detail below. If not otherwise stated, all approaches operate on words which are projected into a high-dimensional space.

A rather shallow neural net was proposed in (Kim, 2014): one convolutional layer (using multiple widths and filters) followed by a max pooling layer over time. The final classifier uses one fully connected layer with drop-out. Results are reported on six data sets, in particular Stanford Sentiment Treebank (SST). A similar system was proposed in (Kalchbrenner et al., 2014), but using five convolutional layers. An important difference is also the introduction of multiple *temporal k-max pooling* layers. This allows to detect the  $k$  most important features in a sentence, independent of their specific position, preserving their relative order. The value of  $k$  depends on the length of the sentence and the position of this layer in the network. (Zhang et al., 2015) were the first to perform sentiment analysis entirely at the character level. Their systems use up to six convolutional layers, followed by three fully connected classification layers. Convolutional kernels of size 3 and 7 are used, as well as simple max-pooling layers. Another interesting aspect of this paper is the introduction of several large-scale data sets for text classification. We use the same experimental setting (see section 4.1). The use of character level information was also proposed by (Dos Santos and Gatti, 2014): all the character embeddings of one word are combined by a max operation and they are then jointly used with the word embedding information in a shallow architecture. In parallel to our work, (Yang et al., 2016) proposed a based hierarchical attention network for document classification that perform an attention first on the sentences in the document, and on the words in the sentence. Their architecture performs very well on datasets whose samples contain multiple sen-

tences.

In the computer vision community, the combination of recurrent and convolutional networks in one architecture has also been investigated, with the goal to “*get the best of both worlds*”, e.g. (Pinheiro and Collobert, 2014). The same idea was recently applied to sentence classification (Xiao and Cho, 2016). A convolutional network with up to five layers is used to learn high-level features which serve as input for an LSTM. The initial motivation of the authors was to obtain the same performance as (Zhang et al., 2015) with networks which have significantly fewer parameters. They report results very close to those of (Zhang et al., 2015) or even outperform ConvNets for some data sets.

In summary, we are not aware of any work that uses VGG-like or ResNet-like architecture to go deeper than than six convolutional layers (Zhang et al., 2015) for sentence classification. Deeper networks were not tried or they were reported to not improve performance. This is in sharp contrast to the current trend in computer vision where significant improvements have been reported using much deeper networks (Krizhevsky et al., 2012), namely 19 layers (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015), or even up to 152 layers (He et al., 2016a). In the remainder of this paper, we describe our very deep convolutional architecture and report results on the same corpora than (Zhang et al., 2015). We were able to show that performance improves with increased depth, using up to 29 convolutional layers.

### 3 VDCNN Architecture

The overall architecture of our network is shown in Figure 1. Our model begins with a look-up table that generates a 2D tensor of size  $(f_0, s)$  that contain the embeddings of the  $s$  characters.  $s$  is fixed to 1024, and  $f_0$  can be seen as the “RGB” dimension of the input text.

We first apply one layer of 64 convolutions of size 3, followed by a stack of temporal “convolutional blocks”. Inspired by the philosophy of VGG and ResNets we apply these two design rules: (i) **for the same output temporal resolution, the layers have the same number of feature maps**, (ii) **when the temporal resolution is halved, the number of feature maps is doubled**. This helps reduce the memory footprint of the network. The networks contains 3 pooling operations (halving the tempo-

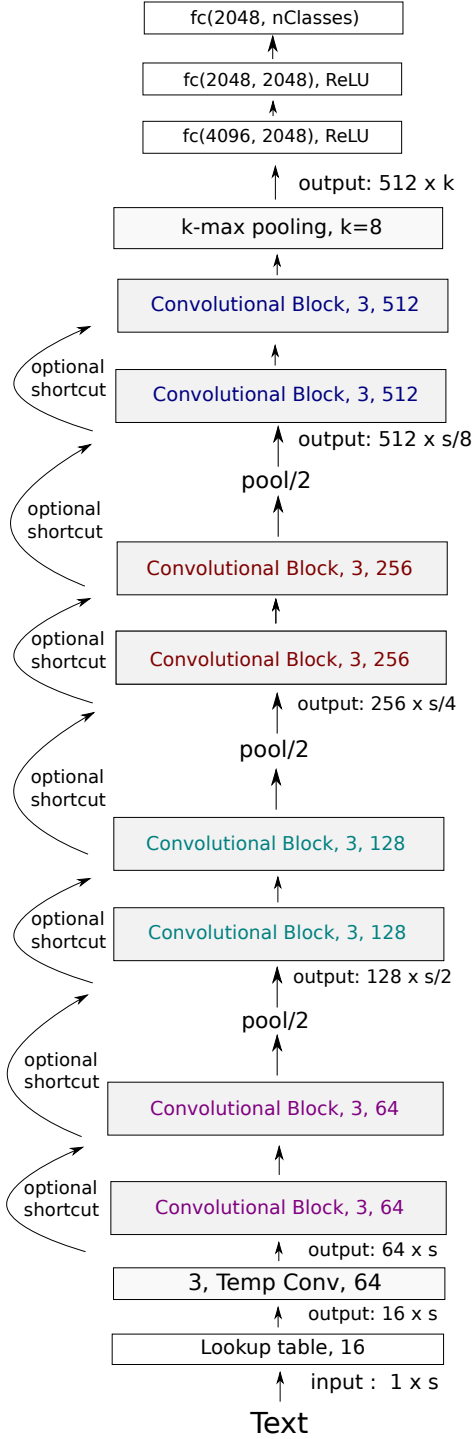


Figure 1: VDCNN architecture.

ral resolution each time by 2), resulting in 3 levels of 128, 256 and 512 feature maps (see Figure 1). The output of these convolutional blocks is a tensor of size  $512 \times s_d$ , where  $s_d = \frac{s}{2^p}$  with  $p = 3$  the number of down-sampling operations. At this level of the convolutional network, the resulting tensor can be seen as a high-level representation of the input text. Since we deal with padded input text of fixed size,  $s_d$  is constant. However, in the case of variable size input, the convolutional encoder provides a representation of the input text that depends on its initial length  $s$ . Representations of a text as a set of vectors of variable size can be valuable namely for neural machine translation, in particular when combined with an attention model. In Figure 1, temporal convolutions with kernel size 3 and  $X$  feature maps are denoted "3, Temp Conv,  $X$ ", fully connected layers which are linear projections (matrix of size  $I \times O$ ) are denoted "fc( $I$ ,  $O$ )" and "3-max pooling, stride 2" means temporal max-pooling with kernel size 3 and stride 2.

Most of the previous applications of ConvNets to NLP use an architecture which is rather shallow (up to 6 convolutional layers) and combines convolutions of different sizes, e.g. spanning 3, 5 and 7 tokens. This was motivated by the fact that convolutions extract  $n$ -gram features over tokens and that different  $n$ -gram lengths are needed to model short- and long-span relations. In this work, we propose to create instead an architecture which uses many layers of small convolutions (size 3). Stacking 4 layers of such convolutions results in a span of 9 tokens, but the network can learn by itself how to best combine these different "3-gram features" in a deep hierarchical manner. Our architecture can be in fact seen as a temporal adaptation of the VGG network (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015). We have also investigated the same kind of "ResNet shortcut" connections as in (He et al., 2016a), namely identity and  $1 \times 1$  convolutions (see Figure 1).

For the classification tasks in this work, the temporal resolution of the output of the convolution blocks is first down-sampled to a fixed dimension using  $k$ -max pooling. By these means, the network extracts the  $k$  most important features, independently of the position they appear in the sentence. The  $512 \times k$  resulting features are transformed into a single vector which is the input to a three layer fully connected classifier with ReLU hidden units and softmax outputs. The number of



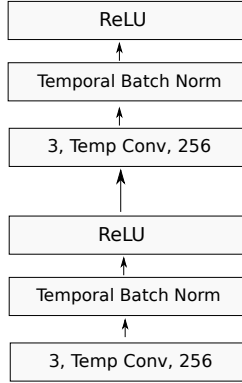


Figure 2: Convolutional block.

output neurons depends on the classification task, the number of hidden units is set to 2048, and  $k$  to 8 in all experiments. We do not use drop-out with the fully connected layers, but **only temporal batch normalization** after convolutional layers to regularize our network.

### Convolutional Block

Each convolutional block (see Figure 2) is a sequence of two convolutional layers, each one followed by a temporal BatchNorm (Ioffe and Szegedy, 2015) layer and an ReLU activation. The kernel size of all the temporal convolutions is 3, with padding such that the temporal resolution is preserved (or halved in the case of the convolutional pooling with stride 2, see below). Steadily increasing the depth of the network by adding more convolutional layers is feasible thanks to the limited number of parameters of very small convolutional filters in all layers. Different depths of the overall architecture are obtained by varying the number of convolutional blocks in between the pooling layers (see table 2). **Temporal batch normalization applies the same kind of regularization as batch normalization except that the activations in a mini-batch are jointly normalized over temporal (instead of spatial) locations.** So, for a mini-batch of size  $m$  and feature maps of temporal size  $s$ , the sum and the standard deviations related to the BatchNorm algorithm are taken over  $|\mathcal{B}| = m \cdot s$  terms.

We explore three types of down-sampling between blocks  $K_i$  and  $K_{i+1}$  (Figure 1) :

- (i) The first convolutional layer of  $K_{i+1}$  has stride 2 (ResNet-like).
- (ii)  $K_i$  is followed by a  $k$ -max pooling layer where  $k$  is such that the resolution is halved

(Kalchbrenner et al., 2014).

- (iii)  $K_i$  is followed by max-pooling with kernel size 3 and stride 2 (VGG-like).

All these types of pooling reduce the temporal resolution by a factor 2. At the final convolutional layer, the resolution is thus  $s_d$ .

Depth:	9	17	29	49
conv block 512	2	4	4	6
conv block 256	2	4	4	10
conv block 128	2	4	10	16
conv block 64	2	4	10	16
First conv. layer	1	1	1	1
#params [in M]	2.2	4.3	4.6	7.8

Table 2: Number of conv. layers per depth.

In this work, we have explored four depths for our networks: 9, 17, 29 and 49, which we define as being the number of convolutional layers. The depth of a network is obtained by summing the number of blocks with 64, 128, 256 and 512 filters, with each block containing two convolutional layers. In Figure 1, the network has 2 blocks of each type, resulting in a depth of  $2 \times (2 + 2 + 2 + 2) = 16$ . Adding the very first convolutional layer, this sums to a depth of 17 convolutional layers. The depth can thus be increased or decreased by adding or removing convolutional blocks with a certain number of filters. The best configurations we observed for depths 9, 17, 29 and 49 are described in Table 2. We also give the number of parameters of all convolutional layers.

## 4 Experimental evaluation

### 4.1 Tasks and data

In the computer vision community, the availability of large data sets for object detection and image classification has fueled the development of new architectures. In particular, this made it possible to compare many different architectures and to show the benefit of very deep convolutional networks. We present our results on eight freely available large-scale data sets introduced by (Zhang et al., 2015) which cover several classification tasks such as sentiment analysis, topic classification or news categorization (see Table 3). The number of training examples varies from 120k up to 3.6M, and the number of classes is comprised between 2 and 14. This is considerably lower than in computer vision (e.g. 1 000 classes for ImageNet).

Data set	#Train	#Test	#Classes	Classification Task
AG’s news	120k	7.6k	4	English news categorization
Sogou news	450k	60k	5	Chinese news categorization
DBPedia	560k	70k	14	Ontology classification
Yelp Review Polarity	560k	38k	2	Sentiment analysis
Yelp Review Full	650k	50k	5	Sentiment analysis
Yahoo! Answers	1 400k	60k	10	Topic classification
Amazon Review Full	3 000k	650k	5	Sentiment analysis
Amazon Review Polarity	3 600k	400k	2	Sentiment analysis

Table 3: Large-scale text classification data sets used in our experiments. See (Zhang et al., 2015) for a detailed description.

This has the consequence that each example induces less gradient information which may make it harder to train large architectures. It should be also noted that some of the tasks are very ambiguous, in particular sentiment analysis for which it is difficult to clearly associate fine grained labels. There are equal numbers of examples in each class for both training and test sets. The reader is referred to (Zhang et al., 2015) for more details on the construction of the data sets. Table 4 summarizes the best published results on these corpora we are aware of. We do not use “Thesaurus data augmentation” or any other preprocessing, except lower-casing. Nevertheless, we still outperform the best convolutional neural networks of (Zhang et al., 2015) for all data sets. The main goal of our work is to show that it is possible and beneficial to train very deep convolutional networks as text encoders. Data augmentation may improve our results even further. We will investigate this in future research.

## 4.2 Common model settings

The following settings have been used in all our experiments. They were found to be best in initial experiments. Following (Zhang et al., 2015), all processing is done at the character level which is the atomic representation of a sentence, same as pixels for images. The dictionary consists of the following characters “abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz0123456789- , ; . ! ? : ‘ ” / | \_ # \$ % ^ & \* ~ ` + = < > ( ) [ ] { }” plus a special padding, space and unknown token which add up to a total of 69 tokens. The input text is padded to a fixed size of 1014, larger text are truncated. The character embedding is of size 16. Training is performed with SGD, using a mini-batch of size 128, an initial learning

rate of 0.01 and momentum of 0.9. We follow the same training procedure as in (Zhang et al., 2015). We initialize our convolutional layers following (He et al., 2015). One epoch took from 24 minutes to 2h45 for depth 9, and from 50 minutes to 7h (on the largest datasets) for depth 29. It took between 10 to 15 epoches to converge. The implementation is done using Torch 7. All experiments are performed on a single NVidia K40 GPU. Unlike previous research on the use of ConvNets for text processing, we use temporal batch norm without dropout.

## 4.3 Experimental results

In this section, we evaluate several configurations of our model, namely three different depths and three different pooling types (see Section 3). Our main contribution is a thorough evaluation of networks of increasing depth using an architecture with small temporal convolution filters with different types of pooling, which shows that a significant improvement on the state-of-the-art configurations can be achieved on text classification tasks by pushing the depth to 29 convolutional layers.

### **Our deep architecture works well on big data sets in particular, even for small depths.**

Table 5 shows the test errors for depths 9, 17 and 29 and for each type of pooling : convolution with stride 2,  $k$ -max pooling and temporal max-pooling. For the smallest depth we use (9 convolutional layers), we see that our model already performs better than Zhang’s convolutional baselines (which includes 6 convolutional layers and has a different architecture) on the biggest data sets : Yelp Full, Yahoo Answers and Amazon Full and Polarity. The most important decrease in classification error can be observed on the largest data set Amazon Full which has more than 3 Million training samples.

Corpus:	AG	Sogou	DBP.	Yelp P.	Yelp F.	Yah. A.	Amz. F.	Amz. P.
Method	n-TFIDF	n-TFIDF	n-TFIDF	ngrams	Conv	Conv+RNN	Conv	Conv
Author	[Zhang]	[Zhang]	[Zhang]	[Zhang]	[Zhang]	[Xiao]	[Zhang]	[Zhang]
Error	7.64	2.81	1.31	4.36	37.95*	28.26	40.43*	4.93*
[Yang]	-	-	-	-	-	24.2	36.4	-

Table 4: Best published results from previous work. Zhang et al. (2015) best results use a Thesaurus data augmentation technique (marked with an \*). Yang et al. (2016)’s hierarchical methods is particularly adapted to datasets whose samples contain multiple sentences.

Depth	Pooling	AG	Sogou	DBP.	Yelp P.	Yelp F.	Yah. A.	Amz. F.	Amz. P.
9	Convolution	10.17	4.22	1.64	5.01	37.63	28.10	38.52	4.94
9	KMaxPooling	9.83	3.58	1.56	5.27	38.04	28.24	39.19	5.69
9	MaxPooling	9.17	3.70	1.35	4.88	36.73	27.60	37.95	4.70
17	Convolution	9.29	3.94	1.42	4.96	36.10	27.35	37.50	4.53
17	KMaxPooling	9.39	3.51	1.61	5.05	37.41	28.25	38.81	5.43
17	MaxPooling	8.88	3.54	1.40	4.50	36.07	27.51	37.39	4.41
29	Convolution	9.36	3.61	1.36	4.35	<b>35.28</b>	27.17	37.58	<b>4.28</b>
29	KMaxPooling	<b>8.67</b>	<b>3.18</b>	1.41	4.63	37.00	27.16	38.39	4.94
29	MaxPooling	8.73	3.36	<b>1.29</b>	<b>4.28</b>	35.74	<b>26.57</b>	<b>37.00</b>	4.31

Table 5: Testing error of our models on the 8 data sets. No data preprocessing or augmentation is used.

We also observe that for a small depth, temporal max-pooling works best on all data sets.

**Depth improves performance.** As we increase the network depth to 17 and 29, the test errors decrease on all data sets, for all types of pooling (with 2 exceptions for 48 comparisons). Going from depth 9 to 17 and 29 for Amazon Full reduces the error rate by 1% absolute. Since the test is composed of 650K samples, 6.5K more test samples have been classified correctly. These improvements, especially on large data sets, are significant and show that increasing the depth is useful for text processing. Overall, compared to previous state-of-the-art, our best architecture with depth 29 and max-pooling has a test error of 37.0 compared to 40.43%. This represents a gain of 3.43% absolute accuracy. The significant improvements which we obtain on all data sets compared to Zhang’s convolutional models do not include any data augmentation technique.

**Max-pooling performs better than other pooling types.** In terms of pooling, we can also see that max-pooling performs best overall, very close to convolutions with stride 2, but both are significantly superior to  $k$ -max pooling.

Both pooling mechanisms perform a max operation which is local and limited to three consecutive tokens, while  $k$ -max pooling considers the whole sentence at once. According to our exper-

iments, it seems to hurt performance to perform this type of max operation at intermediate layers (with the exception of the smallest data sets).

### Our models outperform state-of-the-art ConvNets.

We obtain state-of-the-art results for all data sets, except AG’s news and Sogou news which are the smallest ones. However, with our very deep architecture, we get closer to the state-of-the-art which are ngrams TF-IDF for these data sets and significantly surpass convolutional models presented in (Zhang et al., 2015). As observed in previous work, differences in accuracy between shallow (TF-IDF) and deep (convolutional) models are more significant on large data sets, but we still perform well on small data sets while getting closer to the non convolutional state-of-the-art results on small data sets. The very deep models even perform as well as ngrams and ngrams-TF-IDF respectively on the sentiment analysis task of Yelp Review Polarity and the ontology classification task of the DBpedia data set. Results of Yang et al. (only on Yahoo Answers and Amazon Full) outperform our model on the Yahoo Answers dataset, which is probably linked to the fact that their model is task-specific to datasets whose samples that contain multiple sentences like (question, answer). They use a hierarchical attention mechanism that apply very well to documents (with multiple sentences).

**Going even deeper degrades accuracy. Shortcut connections help reduce the degradation.**

As described in (He et al., 2016a), the gain in accuracy due to the increase of the depth is limited when using standard ConvNets. When the depth increases too much, the accuracy of the model gets saturated and starts degrading rapidly. This *degradation* problem was attributed to the fact that very deep models are harder to optimize. The gradients which are backpropagated through the very deep networks vanish and SGD with momentum is not able to converge to a correct minimum of the loss function. To overcome this degradation of the model, the *ResNet model* introduced shortcut connections between convolutional blocks that allow the gradients to flow more easily in the network (He et al., 2016a).

We evaluate the impact of shortcut connections by increasing the number of convolutions to 49 layers. We present an adaptation of the ResNet model to the case of temporal convolutions for text (see Figure 1). Table 6 shows the evolution of the test errors on the Yelp Review Full data set with or without shortcut connections. When looking at the column “without shortcut”, we observe the same degradation problem as in the original ResNet article: when going from 29 to 49 layers, the test error rate increases from 35.28 to 37.41 (while the training error goes up from 29.57 to 35.54). When using shortcut connections, we observe improved results when the network has 49 layers: both the training and test errors go down and the network is less prone to underfitting than it was without shortcut connections.

While shortcut connections give better results when the network is very deep (49 layers), we were not able to reach state-of-the-art results with them. We plan to further explore adaptations of residual networks to temporal convolutions as we think this a milestone for going deeper in NLP. Residual units (He et al., 2016a) better adapted to the text processing task may help for training even deeper models for text processing, and is left for future research.

**Exploring these models on text classification tasks with more classes sounds promising.**

Note that one of the most important difference between the classification tasks discussed in this work and ImageNet is that the latter deals with 1000 classes and thus much more information is back-propagated to the network through the gra-

depth	without shortcut	with shortcut
9	37.63	40.27
17	36.10	39.18
29	35.28	36.01
49	37.41	36.15

Table 6: Test error on the Yelp Full data set for all depths, with or without residual connections.

dients. Exploring the impact of the depth of temporal convolutional models on categorization tasks with hundreds or thousands of classes would be an interesting challenge and is left for future research.

## 5 Conclusion

We have presented a new architecture for NLP which follows two design principles: 1) operate at the lowest atomic representation of text, i.e. characters, and 2) use a deep stack of local operations, i.e. convolutions and max-pooling of size 3, to learn a high-level hierarchical representation of a sentence. This architecture has been evaluated on eight freely available large-scale data sets and we were able to show that increasing the depth up to 29 convolutional layers steadily improves performance. Our models are much deeper than previously published convolutional neural networks and they outperform those approaches on all data sets. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that the “*benefit of depths*” was shown for convolutional neural networks in NLP.

Eventhough text follows human-defined rules and images can be seen as raw signals of our environment, images and small texts have similar properties. Texts are also compositional for many languages. Characters combine to form n-grams, stems, words, phrase, sentences etc. These similar properties make the comparison between computer vision and natural language processing very profitable and we believe future research should invest into making text processing models deeper. Our work is a first attempt towards this goal.

In this paper, we focus on the use of very deep convolutional neural networks for sentence classification tasks. Applying similar ideas to other sequence processing tasks, in particular neural machine translation is left for future research. It needs to be investigated whether these also benefit from having deeper convolutional encoders.



## References

- Yoshua Bengio, Rejean Ducharme, and Pascal Vincent. 2001. A neural probabilistic language model. In *NIPS*, volume 13, pages 932–938, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.
- Yoshua Bengio, Réjean Ducharme, Pascal Vincent, and Christian Jauvin. 2003. A neural probabilistic language model. *Journal of machine learning research*, 3(Feb):1137–1155.
- Ronan Collobert and Jason Weston. 2008. A unified architecture for natural language processing: deep neural networks with multitask learning. In *ICML*, pages 160–167, Helsinki, Finland.
- Ronan Collobert, Jason Weston, Léon Bottou, M. Karlen, K. Kavukcuoglu, and P. Kuksa. 2011. Natural language processing (almost) from scratch. *JMLR*, pages 2493–2537.
- Cícero Nogueira Dos Santos and Maira Gatti. 2014. Deep convolutional neural networks for sentiment analysis of short texts. In *COLING*, pages 69–78, Dublin, Ireland.
- Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. 2015. Delving deep into rectifiers: Surpassing human-level performance on imagenet classification. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 1026–1034, Santiago, Chile.
- Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. 2016a. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 770–778, Las Vegas, Nevada, USA.
- Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. 2016b. Identity mappings in deep residual networks. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 630–645, Amsterdam, Netherlands. Springer.
- Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. 1997. Long short-term memory. *Neural computation*, 9(8):1735–1780.
- Sergey Ioffe and Christian Szegedy. 2015. Batch normalization: Accelerating deep network training by reducing internal covariate shift. In *ICML*, pages 448–456, Lille, France.
- Nal Kalchbrenner, Edward Grefenstette, and Phil Blunsom. 2014. A convolutional neural network for modelling sentences. In *Proceedings of the 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pages 655–665, Baltimore, Maryland, USA.
- Yoon Kim. 2014. Convolutional neural networks for sentence classification. In *Proceedings of the 2014 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*, pages 1746–1751, Doha, Qatar. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E Hinton. 2012. Imagenet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 1097–1105, Lake Tahoe, California, USA.
- Yann LeCun, Léon Bottou, Yoshua Bengio, and Patrick Haffner. 1998. Gradient-based learning applied to document recognition. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 86(11):2278–2324.
- David G Lowe. 2004. Distinctive image features from scale-invariant keypoints. *International journal of computer vision*, 60(2):91–110.
- Pedro HO Pinheiro and Ronan Collobert. 2014. Recurrent convolutional neural networks for scene labeling. In *ICML*, pages 82–90, Beijing, China.
- Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. 2016. Neural machine translation of rare words with subword units. pages 1715–1725.
- Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. 2015. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. In *ICLR*, San Diego, California, USA.
- Richard Socher, Jeffrey Pennington, Eric H Huang, Andrew Y Ng, and Christopher D Manning. 2011. Semi-supervised recursive autoencoders for predicting sentiment distributions. In *Proceedings of the conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*, pages 151–161, Edinburgh, UK. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Martin Sundermeyer, Ralf Schlüter, and Hermann Ney. 2012. Lstm neural networks for language modeling. In *Interspeech*, pages 194–197, Portland, Oregon, USA.
- Ilya Sutskever, Oriol Vinyals, and Quoc V. Le. 2014. Sequence to sequence learning with neural networks. In *NIPS*, pages 3104–3112, Montreal, Canada.
- Yijun Xiao and Kyunghyun Cho. 2016. Efficient character-level document classification by combining convolution and recurrent layers.
- Zichao Yang, Diyi Yang, Chris Dyer, Xiaodong He, Alex Smola, and Eduard Hovy. 2016. Hierarchical attention networks for document classification. In *Proceedings of NAACL-HLT*, pages 1480–1489, San Diego, California, USA.
- Matthew D Zeiler and Rob Fergus. 2014. Visualizing and understanding convolutional networks. In *European conference on computer vision*, pages 818–833, Zurich, Switzerland. Springer.
- Xiang Zhang and Yann LeCun. 2015. Text understanding from scratch. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1502.01710*.

Xiang Zhang, Junbo Zhao, and Yann LeCun. 2015. Character-level convolutional networks for text classification. In *NIPS*, pages 649–657, Montreal, Canada.