

Active Learning in Natural Data Processing

(Uncertainty Learning in Natural Data Processing)

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¹The major part of the content in this part was taken and restructured from [43].

²The major part of the content in this part was taken from the paper submitted to COLING conference [44].

Motivation

The generalized aim of Natural Language Processing (NLP) is a decision making process given the contextual understanding. Over the last decade, the field made significant progress thanks to both spotlight attention of the commercial sector and many scientists and also to the immense investment and improvements in computational power. The current list of NLP tasks includes but is not limited to such problems like: topic classification [58], machine translation [52], named entity recognition [59], language modeling [50], coreference resolution [13], etc.. Astonishingly, a vast amount of task-specific solutions show almost human-like semantic understanding [53] that brought even more attention to the field. The increased research activity resulted in a brain gain and a strong push of the boundaries in a majority of NLP problems, e.g representing language in a vector space [56]. The newer and more complex models' architecture approaches, accompanied by the motto "the more parameters, the better", made the retraining more complicated and costly. However, the innovative fine tuning approaches present efficient solutions for the problem of the full retraining paradigm [43]. The non arguable outcome of these improvements is an increase in the number of training instances i.e language models are usually trained with billions of text data [16].

Our research contribution lies in optimal models learning both from scratch or fine tuning of the pre-trained parameters. The training data collection is a highly time consuming and complicated procedure. In terms of supervised learning, the target labels acquisition is sometimes exceedingly expensive, e.g legal documents relevancy labeling [46]. The idea of the research is to generalize the optimal learning and present its functionality to one of the most complex problems - coreference resolution. We simultaneously explore various correlated sectors such as i) active learning, ii) models' uncertainty representation and iii) coreference resolution. The topics of *active learning* and *models uncertainty representation* are codependent. We propose a more granular study and extension of the human-machine communication. Among a huge quantity of unlabeled data the machine is expected to tell to an annotator (subject matter expert or so called oracle) which labels from the set of unlabeled data will bring forth the most information about the studied problem. Hence, the learning involves less data annotations and the model is trained with less effort. The following task is formulated as a supervised learning technique trained with the data obtained by the sequential labels querying from a human expert. This branch of research involves integration of enhanced models uncertainty measurement algorithms e.g deep ensembles [29], MC Dropout [18], SGLD [61] or Vadam [26] to the NLP problem for the empirical model weights distribution estimate. The additional information, given the distribution of predicted labels and the model prediction uncertainty [43], allows for faster model learning (hot and warm start methods) with a lower number of training data. The architecture agnostic generalization of the empirical model weights distribution estimate will grant us more freedom in NLP models selection while preserving the precise insight into the model processes given prediction-based uncertainty. The model uncertainty measurement and representation are done through the empirical estimate and sampling from the model weights distribution. The uncertainty representation approach provides the model with an expanded vision of both model learning and inference. The described technique has shown that such algorithms may enhance the learning process significantly [40].

The subsequent branch of the research is the active learning and model uncertainty integration into the coreference resolution problem. Coreference resolution (CR) combines detection and linking various mentions of entities within the text: linking noun phrases with their counterparts and pronouns, anaphora disambiguation, linking words with their pro-forms, etc.. Hence, CR-solving models significantly impact the quality of the text mining algorithms. The state-of-art CR models' architectures [13] are not as massive as the language models and not as trivial as different NLP tasks. Thus, our inclination towards more complex neural network structures, tremendous requirements for context understanding, vast usage potential, and personal interest make this type of model the perfect candidate for uncertainty algorithms integration and improvement. A deeper insight into the models' decision making process given the uncertainty is expected to allow for a new coreference resolution state-of-art threshold to be set.

An exemplary use case where coreference resolution can be applied is categorizing entities and their pronouns to provide one with a broader spectrum of information for future decision making. Based on the extracted data, it is possible to unify all knowledge in the form of a Knowledge Graph (KG) [57] which can be further utilized for linking concepts represented by textual spans. Dependencies and connections between the entities can enrich the feature space with highly discriminative samples for other tasks. For example, assume that we have the following two consecutive sentences: "John Smith and Amanda Brown are accountants at XYZ company. Amanda's colleague was accused of drunk driving". Based on these sentences, one would wish to classify if some of the entities from the text can be charged with a misdemeanor. For a human reader, it is evident that Amanda's colleague refers to John. However, for a machine, that is a challenging task. Therefore, proper identification of entity clusters like

John Smith, Amanda’s colleague, Amanda Brown, XYZ would significantly improve the machine’s understanding of the text. Another potential application of coreference resolution lies within the problem of opinion mining in media resources, where people frequently express their views and opinions. For example, heated discussions may emerge under political news articles. In these discussions, participants refer to subjects of the particular article with, for instance, pronouns. Therefore, proper CR may provide better traction of the audience’s attitude towards entities from the article by linking comment mentions to them.

The report covers the topic of coreference resolution overview in the first chapter. It gives a general introduction to a coreference resolution problem with a detailed breakdown of the field’s history and state-of-the-art. The coreference resolution problem is considered as an experimental ground for the uncertainty learning applications. We also define our objectives for further research in this domain.

The second chapter follows with the active learning part, which introduces a reader to a single instance and batch active learning problem study, where the content is taken from our articles ([43] best PhD student article and [44]³). This part was deeply studied with an additional contribution to the field. In the end of the second chapter we highlight what are our objectives for the further work. The concluding section is summary where we overview our achievements and a plan of the future work.

³The paper is submitted to COLING conference

Chapter 1

Coreference Resolution

Coreference resolution is the task of determining linguistic expressions that refer to the same real-world entity in natural language. In this part we introduce a coreference resolution problem and a state of art description. In addition, we formulate our CR objective and the active learning to CR vision of the further research.

The grand research from Google [40] shows that the point-wise estimate of model parameters does not usually result in an optimal approach. The models uncertainty measurement through the estimate of the empirical model weights distribution has already shown remarkable results in the active learning fields both in Computer Vision [18], and NLP in such tasks like NER [48], [34], text classification [3] and other applications.

1.1 Introduction to Coreference Resolution Problem

Modern Coreference Resolution (CR) algorithms are combinations of sophisticated vector embeddings representing context and deep neural network superstructures that perform the coreference resolution itself. The set of existing models for natural language understanding (NLU) is vast. Arguably, one of the most prominent points in the history of such models is when the continuous bag-of-words and skipgram approaches were introduced [36]. At that point, machines started to learn the context surrounding particular words. Their vector representations acquired the ability to represent this context, meaning proximity of such vectors in terms of a metric of choice (L2, cosine/angular similarity) veritably described similarity of words or contexts. Still, models of these types were far from perfect, as they provided one with constant vectors per word for a pre-set vocabulary. Context-dependent representations with flexible vocabularies became available thanks to the introduction of the Transformer architecture [56] applied to the vocabulary formed not only by words but also by character ngrams constructed as meaningful parts of words. The power of the Transformer architecture lies in its encoding and decoding capability, improved by the self-attention mechanism, which learns to put stress on parts of text sequences. This gave birth to a lot of transformer-based language models such as the Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) [12], its fine-tuned variations [31], [33] and further models [42], [9]. To this date, SpanBERT [25] has proven to be one of the most efficient architectures for coreference resolution. Its crucial difference from the standard BERT model is that it learns to predict the content of masked spans of text, taking into account their beginnings and endings, omitting the ability of the base BERT model to predict preceding sentences. In contrast, BERT learns to predict the following sentence for each preceding one and attempts to infer individual masked tokens. Another model worthy of mention is a Longformer [5], whose architecture is based on transformers capable of processing long documents up to 4096 tokens [5]. The first end-to-end coreference resolution model was introduced in [32]. Its crucial difference from its predecessors was that it did not require preprocessing in the form of syntactic parsing or rule-based mention detection since the model can learn mention dependencies on its own to a forerunner-outperforming extent. The main idea of the model is to learn to score pairs of textual spans in such a way that takes into account, firstly, if these spans are entity mentions and, secondly, whether the pair is of type antecedent-descendant in terms of coreference. The NLU model of choice provides span representations. The goal is to assign to each span an antecedent span. [25] belongs to the state-of-the-art approaches which utilize the same structure on top of SpanBERT. One of the crucial drawbacks of the scoring approach is the choice of spans: sizes of relevant spans can be different, so a constant width of the window may not always be the right choice; spans can either overlap or be disjoint; if they overlap, the value of the overlap also becomes a hyperparameter. In addition to that, the number of scoring procedures is quadratic in complexity: each span has to be scored against every its counterpart. If the length of the document is large, the memory needed to store all entity mentions may become an issue (in [62] authors propose an incremental structure for

the CR model, which needs a lot less memory for the price of a slight decrease in performance). While previous models are able to achieve decent results, their memory footprint is significant. The authors of [28] bypassed the need to create span representations, relying on a combination of bilinear functions applied on endpoint token representations. In addition to that, the new model is built on top of a Longformer encoder capable of processing long documents. Another work that reaches current state-of-the-art performance [13] also avoids span based approach. Even though the author uses RoBERTa embedding [33], the performance of the model is better than the one with Longformer. Author relies on attention mechanism that encodes tokens with the additional context based information from the surrounding. Hence, this is the argument of avoiding span based representation. When the CR classification is done, an additional span detection model is applied. Described approach helps to reduce the computational complexity from $O(n^4)$ to $O(n^2)$.

For languages other than English, the state of art for the CR is arguably even farther behind. For example, coreference resolution for Czech was attempted on the PCEDT dataset [20] in [39]. However, the overall performance of the approach did not reach the mark of 0.7 in terms of F-score (whereas English models show more than 0.8 F1 score [13]). In addition to that, no transformer-based NLU model was available at the time.

We aim to utilize the knowledge of extended uncertainty algorithms (as it was shown in [44], [17], ...) throughout single/multi instances learning, hot/warm/cold start training and adapt it to the CR problem to improve the existing framework.

1.2 Objectives

Coreference resolution is a complex problem that involves both strong coding skills and a significant computational power access. Thus, the priority is to

- finalize state-of-the-art implementation that will be a basis for future uncertainty models integration.
- define the set of algorithms for uncertainty representation. In section 2.2 we showed that the uncertainty algorithms work well only in particular cases. When the parameters distribution is well-estimated the training and prediction performance reaches tremendous results.

Further part of the work will be measured on combining the active learning strategy with such a heavy model as coreference resolution. We believe that the contribution in this part will be crucial. We expect to

- add uncertainty to CR superstructure without its propagation to the embedding fine tuning. Due to the complex architecture with multiple layers Vadam [26] and Variational Dropout [17] are perfect candidates to start with
- introduce hot and warm start approaches for heavy weight models that will immensely reduce learning time and training labels acquisition process
- propagate uncertainty learning to text embedding

The output of the study will allow us to use the architecture agnostic empirical model weights distribution estimate for better noise measurement, faster learning, and label distribution prediction, specifically for different types of CR task embedding superstructure.

Chapter 2

Active Learning

In this section we show two vast comparative studies that cover not only single instance and batch active learning problems but also a newer approach on fine tuning algorithms without a full retraining. The report involves a detailed state-of-the-art algorithms study in the active learning field with the additional novelty (e.g. hot and warm starts), modification and extension of learning algorithms (e.g. optimal combination of algorithm steps). The studies were applied on easier problems with more simple architectures. We believe that results in this chapter are a good basis for the additional contribution, which will be used for CR extension.

2.1 Single Instance Active Learning¹

Supervised classification of texts relies on the availability of reliable class labels for the training data. However, the process of collecting data labels can be complex and costly. A standard procedure is to add labels sequentially by querying an annotator until reaching satisfactory performance. Active learning is a process of selecting unlabeled data records for which the knowledge of the label would bring the highest discriminability of the dataset. In this part, we provide a comparative study of various active learning strategies for different embeddings of the text on various datasets. We focus on Bayesian active learning methods that are used due to their ability to represent the uncertainty of the classification procedure. We compare three types of uncertainty representation: i) SGLD, ii) Dropout, and iii) deep ensembles. The latter two methods in cold- and warm-start versions. The texts were embedded using Fast Text, LASER, and RoBERTa encoding techniques. The methods are tested on two types of datasets, text categorization (Kaggle News Category and Twitter Sentiment140 dataset) and fake news detection (Kaggle Fake News and Fake News Detection datasets). We show that the conventional dropout Monte Carlo approach provides good results for the majority of the tasks. The ensemble methods provide more accurate representation of uncertainty that allows to keep the pace of learning of a complicated problem for the growing number of requests, outperforming the dropout in the long run. However, for the majority of the datasets the active strategy using Dropout MC and Deep Ensembles achieved almost perfect performance even for a very low number of requests. The best results were obtained for the most recent embeddings RoBERTa

2.1.1 Introduction

The development of a text classifier on a new problem requires the availability of the training data and their labels. Labeling involves human annotators and a common practice is to label as many text documents as possible, train a classifier and search for new data and labels if the performance is unsatisfactory. Random choice of the documents for the data set extension can be costly because the new documents may not bring new information for the classification. Active learning strategy aims to select among available unlabeled documents those that the classifier is most uncertain about and queries an annotator for their labels. Therefore, it has the potential to greatly reduce the effort needed for the development of a new system. While it was introduced almost two decades ago, recent improvements in deep learning motivate our attempt to revisit the topic. For example, SVM-based active learning approaches for text classification date back to 2001 [54], where the superiority of active learning over random sampling was demonstrated. Since deep recurrent and convolutional neural networks achieve better classification results, Bayesian active learning methods for deep networks gained popularity especially in image classification [18], [34].

¹The major part of the content in this part was taken and restructured from [43].

The Bayesian approach is concerned with querying labels for data for which the classifier predicts the greatest uncertainty. The uncertainty is quantified using the so-called acquisition function, such as predictive variance or predictive entropy [47]. While different acquisition functions often provide similar results, different representations of predictive distribution yield much more diverse results. The most popular approach using Dropout MC [18] has been tested on text classification [3] and named entity recognition [48], [34], however other techniques such as Langevin dynamics [61] and deep ensembles [30] are available. Deep ensembles often achieve better performance [6], [51] but require higher computational cost since they train an ensemble of networks after each extension of the data set. One potential solution of this problem has been recently proposed in [55], where the ensemble is not trained from a fresh random initialization after each query but initialized randomly around the position of the ensembles from the previous iteration. In this contribution, we test this approach and compare it with the dropout MC and Langevin dynamics representations. We also provide sensitivity study for the choice of the hyperparameters. Active learning for fake news detection was considered in [7] using uncertainty based on probability of classification. It was later extended to a context aware approach [8]. An entropy based approach has been presented in [21] using an ensemble of three different kinds of networks.

2.1.2 Methods

Throughout the paper, we will use three different embedding algorithms such as Fast Text [37], LASER [4] and RoBERTa [33]. RoBERTa is a modified BERT transformer model [12] based on multi-head attention layers [56]. Transformer models provide state of the art results in context understanding and it is advantageous to compare behavior of active learning algorithms with respect to different embedding techniques. Representation of the i -th text document \mathbf{x}_i is calculated as the mean value from sentence embeddings of all sentences in the text

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \frac{1}{|D_i|} \sum_{j \in D_i} f_{\text{sentence embed}}(C^{(j)})$$

where D_i is the set of vectors where each vector represents a sentence in the i -th document, $|D_i|$ is a cardinality of D_i , $C^{(j)}$ is a matrix of j -th sentence where words are encoded with one hot or byte pair encoding [49] technique and $f_{\text{sentence embed}}$ is a function that creates sentence embeddings with respect to the given one-hot or byte pair encoded words. Fast Text encoding is made with respect to one-hot encoded words. LASER and transformer based models take byte-per encoded words as an input. Sentence embeddings for LASER and RoBERTa are output of deep neural network models. Sentence embedding for the Fast Text model is calculated as a mean value of all embeddings of words in the sentence. For supervised classification, each document embedding \mathbf{x}_i has to have an associated label \mathbf{y}_i . We are concerned with binary classification for simplicity, however, an extension to multiclass is straightforward. We assume that for the full corpus of text documents $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$, only an initial set of $l_0 \ll n$ labels is available, $\mathbf{Y}^{(0)} = [\mathbf{y}_0, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{l_0}]$, splitting the full set \mathbf{X} to the labeled, $\mathbf{X}^{(0)} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{l_0}]$, and unlabeled parts, $\mathbf{X} \setminus \mathbf{X}^{(0)}$. Active learning is defined as a sequential extension of the training data set. In each iteration, $l = 1, \dots, L$, the algorithm computes entropy of the predictive probability distribution for each document in the unlabeled dataset and selects the index of the document with the highest entropy (entropy acquisition function), formally:

$$k_l = \arg \max_{k \in K} \mathbb{E}_{p(\theta|\mathbf{X}^{(l-1)}, \mathbf{Y}^{(l-1)})} (H(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta)) \quad (2.1)$$

$$H(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta, \mathbf{x}_k)} (-\log p(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta, \mathbf{x}_k)) \quad (2.2)$$

where K is the set of indexes of all unlabeled documents, \mathbb{E} is the expectation operator over the posterior probability of the classifier parameters θ trained on all labeled data $p(\theta|\mathbf{X}^{(l-1)}, \mathbf{Y}^{(l-1)})$ and $H(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta)$ is conditional entropy of the predicted class for \mathbf{x}_k . The document of the selected index is sent to the human annotator with a request for labeling. When the selected text is annotated, the text is added with its label to the labeled data set $\mathbf{X}^{(l)} = [\mathbf{X}^{(l-1)}, \mathbf{x}_{k_l}]$, $\mathbf{Y}^{(l)} = [\mathbf{Y}^{(l-1)}, \mathbf{y}_{k_l}]$. The procedure is repeated L times. The active learning process is visualized in Figure 2.1.

The key component of the method is a representation of the posterior distribution of the parameter θ . Due to the complexity of the neural networks it is always represented by samples, with a different method of their generation. We will compare the following methods: i) SGLD: Stochastic Gradient with Langevin dynamics [61], which adds additional noise to the gradient in stochastic gradient descent, ii) Dropout MC: is an extension of the ordinary dropout that samples binary mask multiplying output of a layer, hence stopping propagation through all neurons where zeros is sampled through the network. The extension applies the sampled mask even for predictions generating samples from the predictive distribution [18], iii) Deep ensembles: consist of N networks trained in parallel from different initial conditions [30], and iv) Softmax uncertainty: is the most simple approach

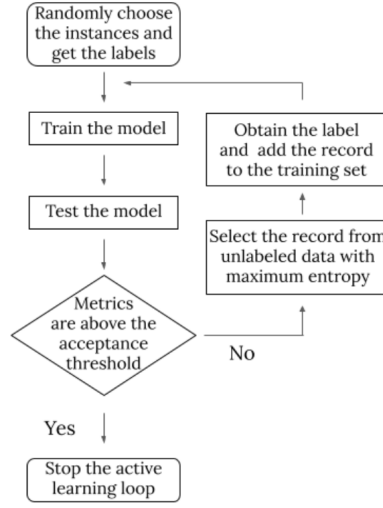


Figure 2.1: Flowchart of the active learning algorithm

that uses only one network to estimate a single value θ and maximizing entropy $H(\mathbf{y}_k|\theta)$ instead of the expectation 2.1 [7]. Ensembles based approach is the current state-of-the-art in active learning [6]. While many of these have been tested in active learning, the majority of authors assumed that after each step of active learning, the network training starts from the initial conditions. This is clearly suboptimal, since the information from the previous training is lost. A simple solution was presented in [55], where it was argued that estimated results from the previous step can be used as centroids around which the new initial point is sampled. Since this is a form of a warm-start, we also test warm-start strategies for Dropout. The methods for representation of parametric uncertainty are:

Deep Ensemble Filter (DEnFi):

is a deep ensemble method with 10 neural networks in the ensembles and warm-start training strategy [30] using weights of the ensemble members in the previous iteration as initial conditions for the new ensemble. Each weight is perturbed by an additive Gaussian noise of variance q which is a hyperparameter. In our experiments, the ensemble is trained with parameters `initialization_epochs = 2000` on the initial data and with additional `warm_start_epochs = 700` epochs after each extension of the learning data set. DEnFi algorithms are displayed in Algorithms 2.1.

Algorithm 2.1 DEnFi active learning training algorithm

Initialize: ensemble classifier structure $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}, \theta_1^{(0)}, \dots, \theta_N^{(0)})$, where $\theta_j^{(0)}, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ are different initializations of classifier parameters. Initial data $\mathbf{Y}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}^{(0)}$. Noise perturbation variance is q . Set iteration counter $i = 0$

Iterate until a stopping condition:

1. For each parameters' set $\theta_j^{(i)}, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ provide
 - (a) noise perturbation as $\theta_j^{(i)} = \theta_j^{(i-1)} + \gamma_j^{(i)}, \gamma_j^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, q\mathbf{I})$
 - (b) Train a classifier for $\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{Y}^{(i)}$ and initial number of epochs \gg warm start epochs if $i = 0$, else warm start epochs
 2. Sample a new instance from Equation 2.1 and update $\mathbf{X}^{(i+1)} = [\mathbf{X}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_{k_{i+1}}], \mathbf{Y}^{(i+1)} = [\mathbf{Y}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}_{k_{i+1}}], i = i + 1$
-

Dropout MC:

is the standard algorithm [18] that trains only a single network with sampled dropout indices and uses the sampling even in the prediction step. Generation of the Monte Carlo prediction is obtained by sampling different values of the dropout binary variable and one forward pass of the network for each sample. We study three versions of the algorithm: i) cold-start with 3000 epochs after each request, ii) warm-start with weights from the previous iteration perturbed by an additive noise of variance q with 700 epochs and iii) hot-start, with 50 epochs after each request without perturbation (hot start is a warm-start method with $q = 0$). Dropout rate is 0.5.

SGLD:

variance of the noise added to the gradient descent:

$$\hat{\theta}_{n+1} = \hat{\theta}_n - \frac{|\mathbf{X}^{(l)}|}{|\mathbf{X}^{(l)}|_{\text{minibatch}}} \frac{\eta_n}{2} \left(\nabla L(\mathbf{X}^{(l)}, \mathbf{Y}^{(l)}, \hat{\theta}_n) \right) + \epsilon_n, \quad \epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \eta_n \mathbf{I})$$

where L is a loss function and ϵ_n is noise with covariate matrix $\eta_n \mathbf{I}$ where η_n is the learning rate of the SGD algorithm. We choose initial value of η_1 to be 0.01 and update rule $\eta_{n+1} = \frac{\eta_n}{b-3000} + 0.05$. The noise ϵ_n is added to the gradient only after 3000 of initial training epochs. Then we draw 50 samples with 100 epochs between consecutive samples to avoid correlation.

Softmax uncertainty:

The simplest approach to uncertainty representation is a single neural network with a softmax output layer that considers uncertainty as the output of the softmax score. We add it to comparison since it has been applied to active learning in [7]. The model is trained to run 2000 epochs on the initial data with additional 200 epochs after each extension of the learning data set.

2.1.3 Experiments

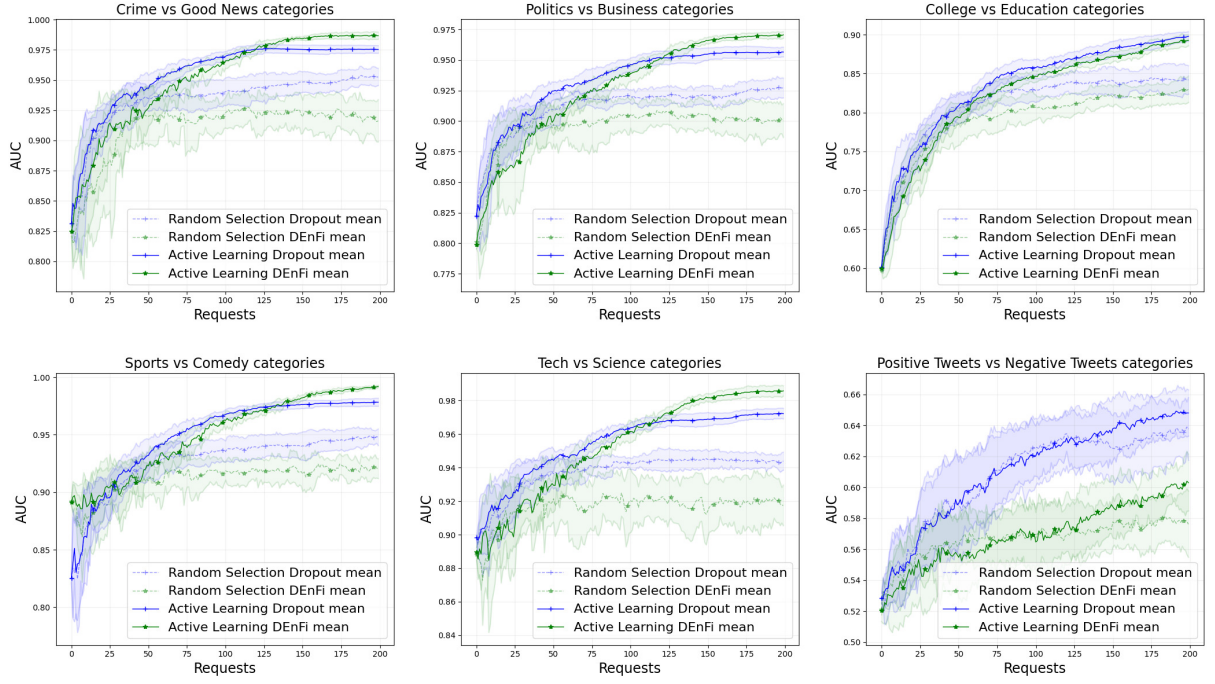
The methods were compared on the positive/negative tweets from the Tweets Dataset [19], 5 pairs of categories from the News Category Dataset [38] and two types of the news datasets for fake news detection [1], [2]. Documents from the News Category dataset were downloaded using links provided in the dataset. The names of the tested categories are shown in table 2.3, Figure 2.2a and in Figure 2.2b.

Specifically, we compared active learning and random sampling strategies for different settings of document embeddings and different representations of uncertainty. Each experiment was initiated by random choice of the initial training set of $l_0 = 10$ samples from 1000 text documents (500 text documents per category), which were the initial 1000 documents of the datasets. For each experiment $L = 200$ requests for annotation are simulated. The document selection follows the ϵ -greedy approach [60], i.e. the sample with maximum acquisition function 2.1 is accepted with probability $\epsilon = \frac{\exp(l-40)}{\exp(l-40)+1}$. A random document is selected for labeling if not accepted. After each request, the classification performance is evaluated on the remaining part of the selected dataset (i.e. on the 990 text documents in the first evaluation) using the area under the ROC curve (AUC) metrics [15]. In order to make the results statistically valid, we repeat the described simulation loop 10 times for Twitter and News Category datasets and 5 times for Fake News and Fake News Detection datasets.

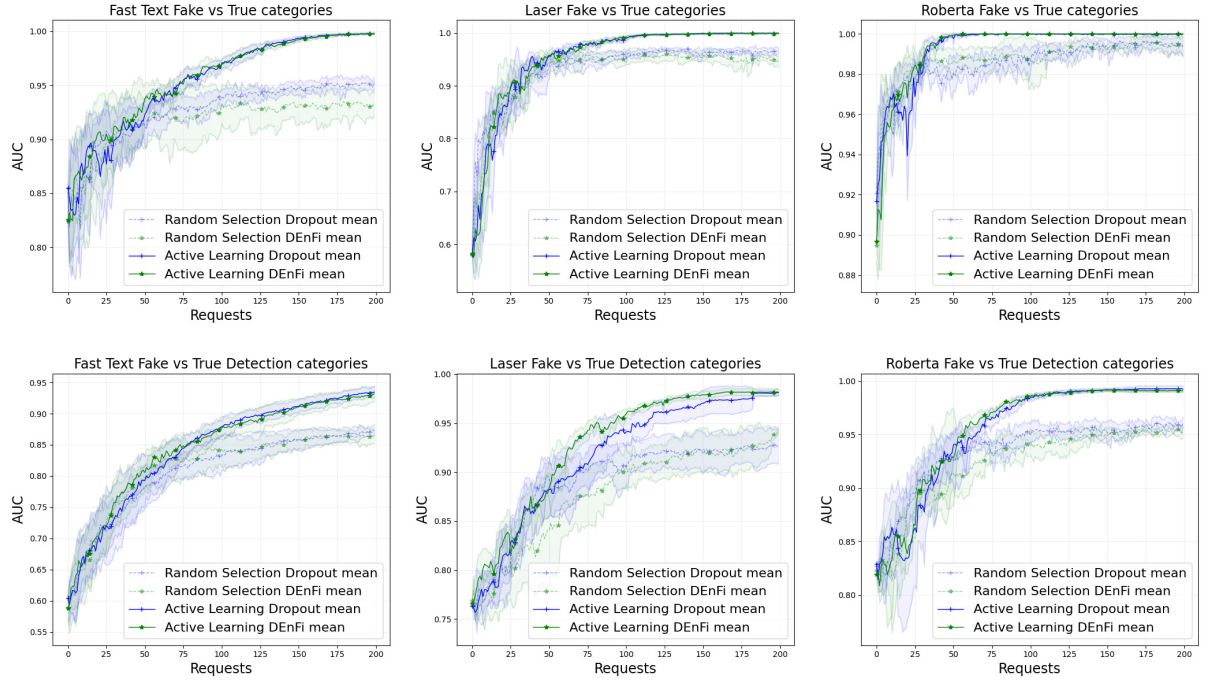
2.1.3.1 Hyperparameter Tuning

The classification network was designed as a feed-forward NN with one dense layer of 100 neurons with sigmoid activation functions, and softmax output layer. Warm start versions of both Dropout MC and DEnFi have hyperparameter q that governs the perturbation of the previous result before training on the extended dataset. Tuning of this hyperparameter was performed by a grid search for both the Fast Text and RoBERTa text encoding techniques. Since the main focus of the paper is on the effect of the warm-start strategy, the results of the effect of the noise variance q for DEnFi and Dropout MC is displayed in Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 for active learning strategy on the Tech vs Science task and Fake News Detection dataset, respectively.

Based on Table 2.1 it is clearly seen that the variance of the perturbation noise related to the best result is increasing with the number of requests. We conjecture that the variance has the role of a selector of the



(a) Results for six pairs of categories



(b) Results for two datasets: Fake News (top row) and Fake News Detection (bottom row), and three embeddings: Fats Text (left column), Laser (middle column) and RoBERTa (right column)

Figure 2.2: Evolution of the mean AUC with growing number of requests for DENFi and Dropout MC warm-start algorithms. The uncertainty bounds are illustrated as one standard deviation from the mean value with respect to 10 runs for top figure and 5 runs for bottom figure. Both DENFi and Dropout MC were initially trained on 10 labeled text documents before sequential learning strategies were initialized

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.945*	0.968*	0.974	0.976
0.2	0.932	0.964	0.976	0.978
0.3	0.930	0.961	0.982*	0.986
0.4	0.909	0.948	0.976	0.990*
0.6	0.874	0.921	0.952	0.979
1	0.805	0.871	0.906	0.941

(a) Fast Text DEnFi

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.936	0.966*	0.972	0.976
0.2	0.938*	0.966*	0.981*	0.983
0.3	0.920	0.956	0.982	0.989*
0.4	0.917	0.955	0.976	0.988
0.6	0.894	0.948	0.972	0.986
1	0.859	0.914	0.941	0.970

(b) Fast Text Dropout

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.935	0.970*	0.982	0.988
0.2	0.940*	0.954	0.983*	0.990*
0.3	0.903	0.930	0.967	0.987
0.4	0.883	0.911	0.945	0.976
0.6	0.799	0.853	0.885	0.945
1	0.661	0.750	0.818	0.875

(c) RoBERTa DEnFi

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.930*	0.970	0.982	0.986
0.2	0.923	0.971*	0.986*	0.990*
0.3	0.917	0.959	0.982	0.990*
0.4	0.878	0.949	0.974	0.990*
0.6	0.822	0.908	0.952	0.980
1	0.643	0.741	0.862	0.921

(d) RoBERTa Dropout

Table 2.1: **Fast Text** and **RoBERTa** encoding based AUC of text classification after selected number of requests of the active learning using DEnFi and Dropout MC warm-start for various selection of the perturbation noise q . Average over 10 runs in the Tech vs Science categories. The best result is denoted by a star, results within one standard deviation of the winner are displayed in bold font.

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.794	0.886*	0.910	0.942*
0.2	0.806*	0.877	0.911*	0.932
0.3	0.806*	0.866	0.901	0.911

(a) Fast Text DEnFi

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.806	0.879*	0.916*	0.949*
0.2	0.804	0.884*	0.914	0.939
0.3	0.809*	0.878	0.912	0.944

(b) Fast Text Dropout

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.929*	0.986*	0.992	0.991
0.2	0.923	0.975	0.990	0.998*
0.3	0.891	0.935	0.955	0.975

(c) RoBERTa DEnFi

Noise Variance	AUC after # of iterations			
	50	100	150	200
0.1	0.941*	0.984*	0.992*	0.993
0.2	0.917	0.974	0.992*	0.995*
0.3	0.917	0.959	0.982	0.990

(d) RoBERTa Dropout

Table 2.2: **Fast Text** and **RoBERTa** encoding based AUC of text classification after selected number of requests of the active learning using DEnFi and Dropout warm-start for various selection of the perturbation noise q . Average over 5 runs on the Fake and True news categories (Fake News Detection dataset). The best result is denoted by a star, results within one standard deviation of the winner are displayed in bold font.

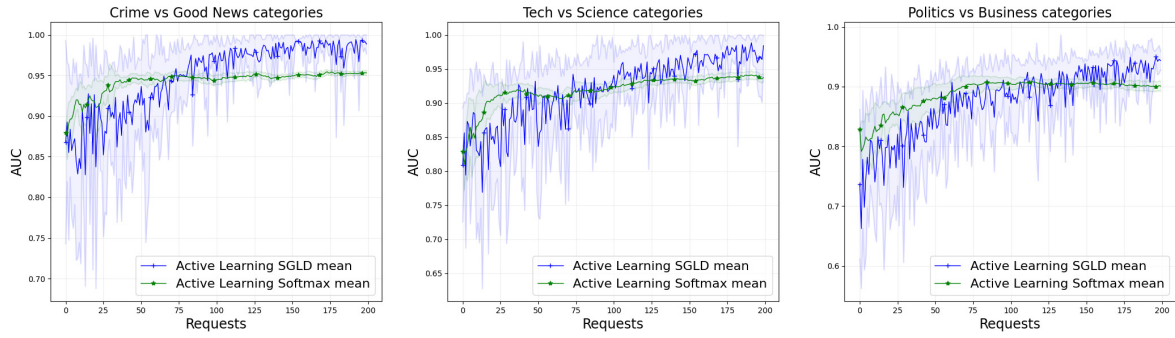


Figure 2.3: Evolution of the mean AUC with growing number of requests for SGLD, Softmax Uncertainty algorithms, and three pairs of categories. The uncertainty bounds are illustrated as one standard deviation from the mean value with respect to 10 runs. Both SGLD and Softmax Uncertainty were initially trained on 10 labeled text documents before sequential learning strategies were initialized

Method	Crime/ Good News	Sports/ Comedy	Politics/ Business	Tech/ Science	Education/ College	Pos./Neg. Tweets
SGLD	0.989*	0.968	0.944	0.984	0.881	0.621
DENFi, $q = 0.3$	0.987	0.992*	0.971*	0.986	0.893	0.603
MC Dropout cold-start	0.975	0.978	0.957	0.972	0.898*	0.648
MC Dropout warm-start, $q = 0.3$	0.978	0.979	0.954	0.973	0.877	0.657*
MC Dropout warm-start, $q = 0$	0.978	0.951	0.944	0.989*	0.824	0.561
Softmax Uncertainty	0.953	0.939	0.901	0.938	0.800	0.609

Table 2.3: Average AUC over 10 runs for five different algorithms after 200 iterations of active learning and six different datasets. The best result is denoted by a star, results within one standard deviation of the winner are displayed in bold font.

exploration/exploitation tradeoff. Low variance favors exploitation and improves quickly, higher variance implies less accurate guesses in the initial iterations but better performance in the long run. The results from Table 2.1 indicate that higher values of q are not performing well thus the range of q was reduced for tuning of the hyperparameter for the fake news datasets. The increase of the optimum value of the noise variance with the number of requests is also visible in Table 2.2, especially for the RoBERTa encoded data. Since calibration of the variance for all methods and all datasets would be too computationally expensive, we ran all remaining experiments with $q = 0.3$ for Fast Text encoding and $q = 0.1$ for RoBERTa and LASER encodings. However, tuning of this hyperparameter for an application scenario or an adaptive tuning strategy offers clearly a potential for further improvement.

2.1.3.2 Text Category Classification

A comparison of AUC of the active learning strategy after 200 requests for all tested algorithms and Fast Text encoding with respect to Tweets and News Category datasets is reported in Table 2.3. This experiment was designed for comparison of various uncertainty representations. While all methods except for the Softmax Uncertainty achieved best results on some datasets, the most consistent results were delivered by the DENFi and Dropout MC methods. The SGLD performance results exhibited the highest variance within the 10 runs of the method. The results for three pair categories and an active learning strategy are visualized in figure 4. Since it is the least reliable method, we will not study it any further. It is clear from Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3 that the simple Softmax Uncertainty provides the worst results. Since Dropout MC has comparable computational complexity, the use of simple Softmax Uncertainty is always suboptimal.

Detailed analysis of the DENFi and Dropout MC strategies is provided in Figure 2.2a for Tweets and News Category datasets. For better insight, we also display the performance of the random sampling learning strategy where training data are extended using randomly sampled documents. Note that for random sampling, Dropout MC outperforms consistently DENFi on all tasks. We conjecture that this is due to the robustness of the dropout regularization. However, the power of DENFi becomes apparent with the increasing number of requests. It is improving slower than Dropout MC at the beginning, but improves faster, thus outperforming Dropout MC in the

long run. We conjecture that this is due to better exploration capability of the DEnFi while Dropout MC excels at exploitation. The speed of improvement depends on the complexity of the learning task. For simpler tasks (such as crime vs. Good News), AUC over 0.98 is achieved quickly. However, for more complex tasks, such as Positive vs Negative Tweets, the number of data needed for improvement is much higher. The active learning is on par with the random sampling up to 125 requests and even after 200 requests, the AUC is below 0.7 indicating poor performance. Note that the active learning strategy of DEnFi starts improving over the random sampling sooner than Dropout MC with a sharper slope which indicates a high probability of obtaining the same profile as the other datasets in the long run.

2.1.3.3 Fake News Classification

The fake news data experiment is made under the same initial conditions as in Section 2.1.3.2 but for a wider choice of the document encoding techniques. Based on results from Section 2.1.3.2 we show comparison of only the DEnFi and Dropout warm-start for three different types of encodings (Fast Text, LASER, RoBERTa) on the two fake news datasets in Figure 2.2b. The results for fake news datasets are similar to those for the Twitter and News Category datasets. Advantage of the DEnFi approach is significant only for the Fake News Detection dataset with Laser embeddings. For other cases the difference is negligible. Under the exploration/exploitation hypothesis, this means that the data sets are well separable and more sophisticated exploration capabilities of DEnFi are not needed.

The best performance of the active learning strategy was achieved for the RoBERTa embedding. Note that the embedding has much greater influence on the speed of learning than uncertainty representation.

2.1.4 Conclusion

We have studied the suitability of various uncertainty representations for the task of active text classification. The established Dropout MC methodology was compared against deep ensembles, SGLD and simple softmax strategy. To reduce the computational cost, we studied warm-start strategies for both ensembles (called DEnFi) and Dropout MC, that resulted in significant reduction of training epochs per the active learning iteration. The resulting methods exhibit a different tradeoff between exploration and exploitation. While Dropout MC has been found to be more reliable in random sampling strategy and improving faster at the beginning of active learning, the DEnFi was found to prefer exploration sacrificing performance at the beginning but outperforming Dropout MC in the longer run of active learning. The highest deviation of the random strategies between DEnFi and Dropout MC resulted in 0.04 AUC in favor of Dropout MC. However, for the active learning strategy both Dropout MC and DEnFi converged to the same numbers.

Sensitivity of the active learning to the choice of embedding was evaluated on the fake news datasets. It was observed that the most recent embedding method (RoBERTa) facilitated the fastest learning and that the choice of embedding was more important than the uncertainty representation. However, methods of active learning achieved significantly faster learning than the random sampling approach (the difference between the random and the active learning strategies differs from 0.015 AUC up to 0.080 AUC) on all tested datasets of various complexity.

2.2 Batch Active Learning ²

Batch active learning is a generalization of a single instance active learning by selecting a batch of documents for labeling. This task is much more demanding because plenty of different factors come into consideration (i. e. batch size, batch evaluation, etc.). In this part, we provide a large scale study by decomposing the existing algorithms into building blocks and systematically comparing meaningful combinations of these blocks with a subsequent evaluation on different text datasets. While each block is known (warm start weights initialization, Dropout MC, entropy sampling, etc.), many of their combinations like Bayesian strategies with agglomerative clustering are first proposed in our paper with excellent performance. Particularly, our extension of the warm start method to batch active learning is among the top performing strategies on all datasets. We studied the effect of this proposal comparing the outcomes of varying distinct factors of an active learning algorithm. Some of these factors include initialization of the algorithm, uncertainty representation, acquisition function, and batch selection strategy. Further, various combinations of these are tested on selected NLP problems with documents encoded using RoBERTa embeddings. Datasets cover context integrity (Gibberish Wackerow), fake news detection (Kaggle Fake News Detection), categorization of short texts by emotional context (Twitter Sentiment140), and sentiment

²The major part of the content in this part was taken from the paper submitted to COLING conference [44].

classification (Amazon Reviews). Ultimately, we show that each of the active learning factors has advantages for certain datasets or experimental settings.

2.2.1 Introduction

Supervised learning of classifiers relies on the availability of class labels which often involves a human annotator for a majority of NLP tasks. This can be costly for large datasets. Active learning is a strategy designed to minimize this cost by automatic selection of those unlabeled documents that are expected to bring useful information for the classifier. Advantages of this approach have been demonstrated even for classical methods such as SVM [54]. The most conventional active learning strategies select only one unlabeled document after each training round to query due to the simplicity of its selection. The next query document is selected only after the first one is labeled and the model retrained, which means that the annotator has to wait for retraining. This impractical strategy can be avoided if the active learning algorithm selects a batch of documents. Novel methods for batch active learning appear frequently, each demonstrating advantages on their benchmark data.

Various comparative studies have been performed recently with various focus and results. Batch active learning was studied in [14] for only one size of the batch (50 documents per query). Large sensitivity to the type of dataset was reported in [41], where different methods won for different data. Large variability of the results was also observed in [24]. In [45], the min-margin strategy was shown to be competitive with the prediction entropy-based method on a range of embeddings. The comparative studies shared similar properties, such as a fixed network for embeddings (improvement with retraining can be expected [35] but may be too costly). All studies also assume a cold start, i.e. completely new initialization of the classifier after each round of querying. This is motivated by the fear of overfitting, which was demonstrated in [23] for hot start, i.e. continuation of training of the classifier. A compromise in the form of warm-start, i.e. adding noise to the weights of the previous classifier, was proposed in [43].

In this contribution, we take a different approach to benchmarking of the batch active learning algorithms. Specifically, we decompose the algorithms into their building blocks: i) the size of the minibatch, ii) acquisition function, iii) representation of uncertainty of the classifier, and iii) initialization of the network. This approach allows us to quantify contribution of each of the building-block and combine them in previously untested versions. This allows us to demonstrate the following contribution:

1. We present an extension of the Hierarchical Agglomerative Clustering (HAC) approach [10] to the Bayesian setting by replacing the min-margin with a Bayesian acquisition function, such as BALD [22]. This is a novel combination that has not been tested before.
2. We show that performance of various methods is clustered based on particular building blocks of the method. Thus indicating that active learning methods may be tailored for each target application. A good example of Bayesian methods lies in estimating the distribution of neural networks which performed the best on Fake news but showed the same results on other datasets.
3. In a large scale study we demonstrate that warm start is often beneficial and even simple methods (such as single neural network with entropy acquisition) provide results competitive to, or better than, complex active learning schemes. We also show that cold start approaches reach the same or even worse results than the aforementioned warm start techniques. This is encouraging for practitioners that are interested in the methodology.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2.2.2, we briefly review all tested factors of batch active learning. The experimental setup of the sensitivity study is described in Section 2.2.3 and the results are reported in Section 2.2.4.

2.2.2 Batch Active Learning Methods

Throughout the paper, we will use the RoBERTa embedding [33] to represent documents in the feature space. RoBERTa is a modified BERT transformer model [12] that achieved comparable performance to BERT in [45] and outperformed all other embeddings in [43]. Representation of the k -th text document \mathbf{x}_k is calculated as the mean value from sentence embeddings of all sentences in the text.

The aim of document classification is to find a classifier $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y}(\theta, \mathbf{x})$ predicting the class label for each document representation \mathbf{x} . In a supervised setting, the classifier parameters are found on a training set $\{\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{y}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ by matching the prediction $\mathbf{y}(\theta, \mathbf{x}_k)$ with the provided label \mathbf{y}_k for each document. We are concerned with binary classification for simplicity, however, an extension to multiclass is straightforward.

We assume that for the full corpus of text documents \mathbf{X} , only a small initial set of labels $\mathbf{Y}^{(0)}$, is available. The full set \mathbf{X} is thus split into the labeled, $\mathbf{X}^{(0)}$, and unlabeled parts, $\mathbf{X}_u^{(0)} = \mathbf{X} \setminus \mathbf{X}^{(0)}$, the training set in the first round is then $\mathbf{X}^{(0)}, \mathbf{Y}^{(0)}$. Active learning is defined as a sequential extension of the training data set following a simple iterative strategy in Algorithm 2.2.2.

Algorithm 2.2 General batch active learning

Initialize: set classifier structure $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$, iteration counter $i = 0$, initial data $\mathbf{Y}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}^{(0)}, \mathbf{X}_u^{(0)}$

Iterate until a stopping condition:

1. Train a classifier parameter $\theta^{(i)}$ on $\mathbf{Y}^{(i)}, \mathbf{X}^{(i)}$, starting from $\theta_{\text{init}}^{(i)}$
 2. Compute the value of a label for all documents in the unlabeled dataset, $a_l = A(\mathbf{x}_l, \theta^{(i)}), \forall \mathbf{x}_l \in \mathbf{X}_u^{(i)}$
 3. Select a batch of documents, $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \subset \mathbf{X}$, for labeling using a_l
 4. Query labels $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$ for $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ and extend the training set $\mathbf{X}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{X}^{(i)} \cup \tilde{\mathbf{X}}, \mathbf{y}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{y}^{(i)} \cup \tilde{\mathbf{y}}, i = i + 1$.
-

The general algorithm can be specialized to many variants depending on various factors as specified next. We will introduce several choices labeled by the step in which they appear in Algorithm 2.2.2.

1a. Uncertainty representation:

The uncertainty can be represented by a maximum likelihood estimate, represented by a single network, or a Bayesian probabilistic estimate, represented typically by an ensemble of networks. We will consider the following options: **Single network** with a softmax output layer predicting the normalized probability of each class in one hot encoding. This probability is conditioned on the parameter, and thus captures only aleatoric uncertainty. Uncertainty in parameters is not represented. **Ensemble of networks**, represent uncertainty in parameters by different parameter value in each ensemble thus capturing both aleatoric and epistemic uncertainty. We consider two methods for generating the ensemble members: i) *MC dropout* [18], where ensemble members are generated by random draws of the dropout layers, and ii) *deep ensembles* [30] where ensembles are trained independently. Note that MC dropout is computationally much cheaper.

1b. Initialization of the training:

Each training in step 1 is a new task. However, the data set typically overlaps with the one from the previous iteration, which motivates the following strategies of reusing results from the previous iteration. The **Cold start** strategy is not reusing any information, the networks are initialized by random numbers, $\theta_{\text{init}}^{(i)} = \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$, where σ is given by the standard network init strategy, used most often [14, 10, 45]. The **Hot start** strategy reuses all information, setting the estimate from the previous iteration as a starting point, $\theta_{\text{init}}^{(i)} = \theta^{(i-1)}$, criticized in [23]. The **Warm start** strategy a combination of the above, $\theta_{\text{init}}^{(i)} = \theta^{(i-1)} + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$, where σ is a hyper-parameter [43].

2. Acquisition function:

Is a measure of the expected utility of the knowledge label, \mathbf{y}_l , for each document, \mathbf{x}_l , in the unlabeled data set. Different running index l is used to indicate that we operate on the unlabeled set. While many different utilities are proposed, we will study only the most popular ones. **Entropy** exists in two forms, entropy of the prediction $a_l = \mathbb{H}(y|\mathbf{x}_l, \theta)$ for a single network, or expected entropy $a_l = \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{H}(y|\mathbf{x}_l, \theta)$ for ensembles. **BALD** is a mutual information metric, $a_l = \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{H}(y|\mathbf{x}_l, \theta) - \mathbb{H}(y|\mathbf{x}_l)$ that is meaningful only for the ensembles. **Min-margin** is a minimum difference between class predictions $a_l = -\min_{c,d \in [1,C]} (y_c - y_d)$, where C is the number of classes. Note carefully that the extreme of this criteria is equivalent to maximum entropy for binary classification with a single network.

3. Batch selection strategy:

When only one sample is to be selected, it is optimal to choose the one with maximum utility given by the acquisition function. However, the complexity of the maximum utility grows exponentially when the strategy has to select a batch of b documents for off-line labeling. Strategies that try to approximate this selection using greedy search [27] are still too computationally expensive for large batches. Therefore, we select two batch selection strategies that scale well with b . **Top** selects top b samples from sorted values of a_l . This approach may select samples close to each other, thus being redundant. **HAC** is a strategy based on the hierarchical clustering of a_l proposed in [10], and selecting top b samples from different clusters.

Tested algorithm variants:

From the range of all possibilities, we will study the combinations that exist in the literature: HAC min-margin using cold start [10], MC dropout with Entropy and BALD criteria using warm start [18], warm start ensemble learning with Entropy and BALD called DENFi [43], and conventional single-network with prediction Entropy a with warm start. If HAC is not in the name, the Top strategy is used.

Since HAC strategy is an orthogonal factor to the remaining ones, we propose its combination with other approaches, giving rise to: HAC Entropy for the single neural network and both ensemble methods (MC dropout and DENFi) and HAC BALD for the ensembles.

2.2.3 Experiment Setup

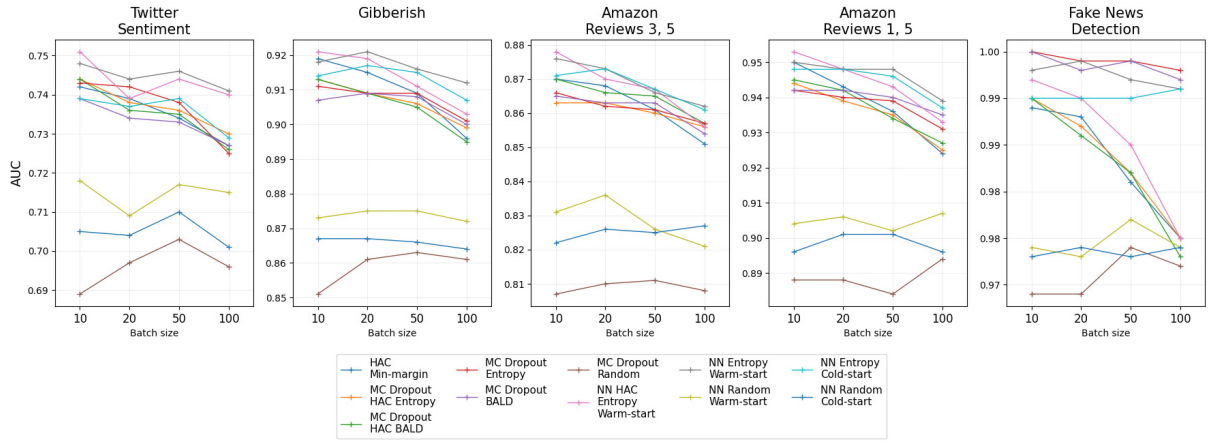


Figure 2.4: AUC metrics for seven active learning and two random strategies after 1000 acquired samples given datasets and batch size. Prediction of the MC dropout classifiers is an average over ensemble members.

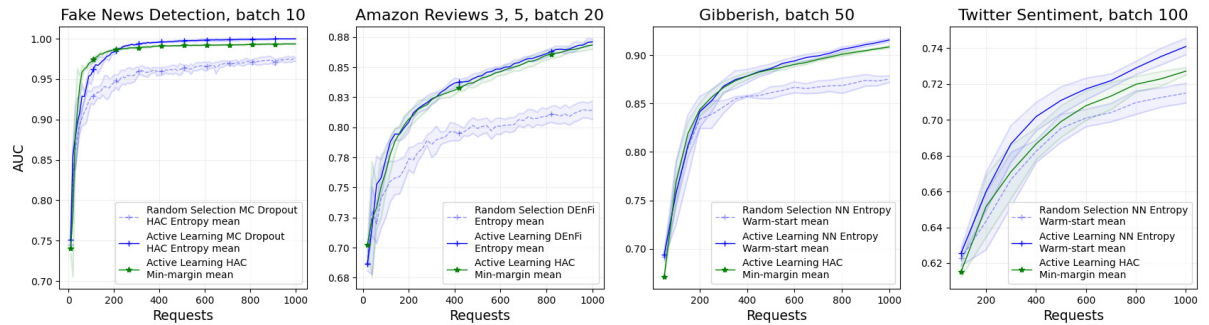


Figure 2.5: Evolution of the mean AUC with a growing number of requests for the best algorithms representative vs HAC Min-margin given the batch size and dataset. The uncertainty bounds are illustrated as one standard deviation from the mean value with respect to 5 runs. All algorithms were initially trained on 10 labeled text documents before sequential learning strategies were initialized

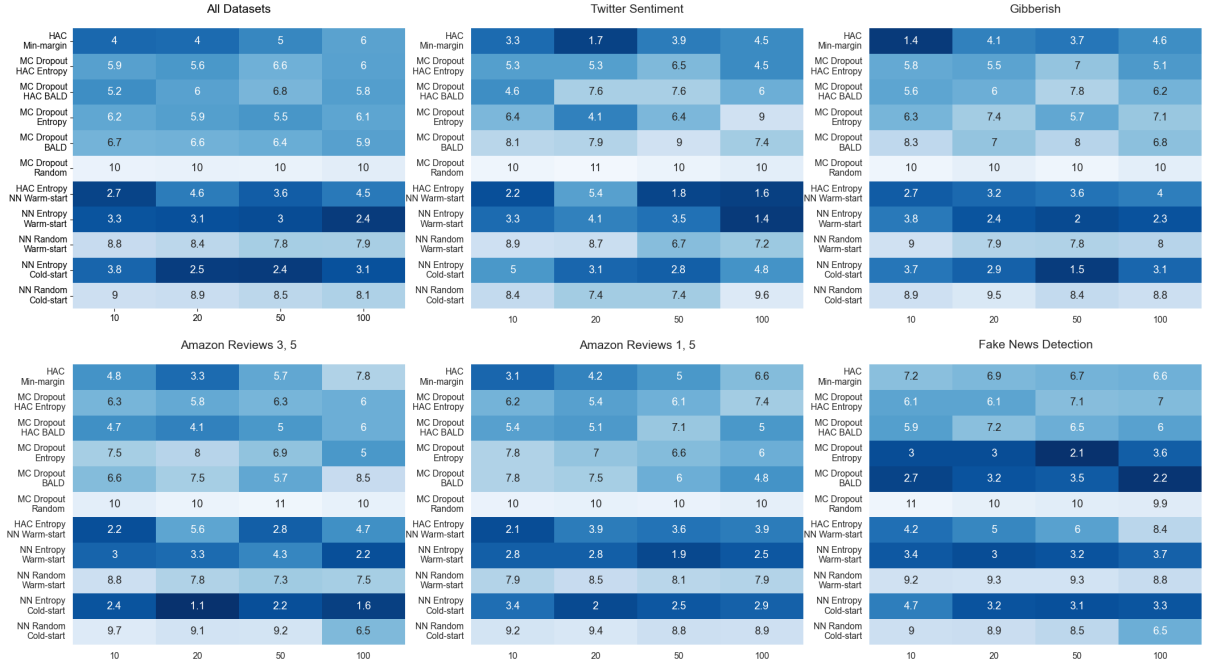


Figure 2.7: Aggregated rank for 7 active learning algorithms and two random strategies averaged over datasets as a function of different batch sizes.

and HAC batch selection strategy has a negative effect (probably due to preference of large clusters).

Acquisition functions: Due to binary classification, the min-margin and entropy approaches coincide for a single network function. The difference between our generalization of Entropy and BALD methods for the ensemble techniques seems insignificant, Figure 2.7. HAC methods perform well for some cases, but a simple entropy approach shows more stable results for the majority of problems, batch sizes, and initializations.

Initialization of the training: The proposed modification on warm start strategies (HAC Entropy, NN Entropy, and NN Random warm start) are better or comparable in performance to the cold start (HAC Min-margin, NN Entropy, NN Random); this is achieved at a fraction of the training cost. This indicates that the additive noise is sufficient to avoid overfitting of the hot start [23].

Batch selection strategy: The HAC batch selection has a clear advantage for smaller batch sizes (10 and 20). This is consistent when comparing HAC and Top variants of all methods except Fake News Detection. Smaller batch sizes and the proposed generalization to warm start HAC outperforms the cold start approach in most of cases. The batch advantage diminishes for sizes of 50 and 100 where the top selection strategy achieves comparable (ensembles) or better (single NN) results. We project that the most informative samples in our datasets are clustered in small groups, hence the selection of a batch with a large enough size contains all important samples.

The contribution of this paper lies in a comparative study where we decomposed different algorithms into building blocks and generalized various approaches. For a better understanding of the methodology, we selected some approaches for demonstration. In Figure 2.5 a comparison of various active learning sequences is displayed. More specifically, the methods proposed by us to well studied HAC min-margin approach.

2.2.5 Conclusion

We have studied the influence of various factors (i. e. acquisition functions, batch sizes, neural networks initialization) of active learning algorithms and their performance on cover context integrity, fake news detection, and sentiment classification tasks. While complex algorithms such as deep ensembles (DnFi and Dropout MC) sometimes achieve good performance (Fake News detection), the winner, on average, is the classical prediction entropy of a single neural network with a few proposed modifications like warm start. Although the performance of the warm start method can sometimes be the same assume the cold start, the undeniable benefit is a lower computational cost. The selection of the batch size for annotation is also important. The agglomerative clustering improves performance for smaller batch sizes and may show better results than a more general method like entropy sampling.

2.3 Objectives

Despite the fact that we were able to push the limits of both single and batch active learning problems, there are still plenty of nuances that must be solved. The studied techniques work well on rather simpler neural networks. Hence, clear further research objectives are

- algorithms' generalization to more complex neural networks. The larger the network is, the harder it is to perform a training/fine-tuning sequence, an additional training data selection and the uncertainty representations
- extensions of the studied algorithms e.g. Variational Dropout [17] is a better extension of MC Dropout [18] for more complex architectures and smarter uncertainty enrichment
- more sophisticated and architecture agnostic warm start neural network training

Summary

The research purposes and objectives are clear to us and lie in the final goal of the generalization of active learning and uncertainty methodologies towards the coreference resolution problem. We underline that the choice of coreference resolution aims on more complex neural network structures, tremendous requirements for context understanding, vast usage potential, and personal interest. All these criteria make this type of model the perfect candidate for uncertainty algorithms integration and improvement. A deeper insight into the models' decision making process given the uncertainty is expected to allow for a new coreference resolution state-of-art threshold to be set. We believe that when the result of our work shows good model uncertainty representation for CR, the extension to other problems will be straightforward. We are also convinced that the old fashioned cold-start approach (retraining from scratch) became obsolete. Since our results of fine tuning the model with new labels showed incredible performance, the research in warm and hot start branches will be continued.

In this doctoral minimal thesis we showed a significant and strong progress in a study of uncertainty methods representations for active learning strategies. We were able to outperform state-of-art methods for different problems both for single instance and batch active learning. Moreover, we have successfully introduced text classification active learning approach with warm start methodology that speeds up massively model's training. We also explored the field of latest CR techniques and are aware of current top performing solutions. The described results and contributions let us operate with a sufficient amount of knowledge for the extension of CR problem by enriching it with uncertainty algorithms. Interestingly, the problem has no ultimate solution. It can be infinitely generalized (e.g choice of embedding, choice of CR superstructures, language independency, etc.).

We have submitted the application for GACR project. If the project application evaluation is successful, the research will be extended specifically to Czech language coreference resolution and another coreference resolution dataset that will be collected with newly studied active learning approaches.

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