

BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding

Behnaz Ghoraani, *Associate Professor, Department of EECS, Florida Atlantic University*

Sai Prasad Muppala, *Department of EECS, Florida Atlantic University*

Janaki Ram Reddy Burri, *Department of EECS, Florida Atlantic University*

Varshith Vajinapally, *Department of EECS, Florida Atlantic University*

April 29, 2024

Abstract

BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) is a novel model in natural language processing, developed by Google, which utilizes a bidirectional approach to understand the context of words in text. By pre-training on large text corpora, BERT learns deep contextual relationships, enhancing performance on a variety of NLP tasks such as sentiment analysis, question answering, and text classification.

keywords: Natural Language Processing (NLP), BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers, Transformer Models, Contextual Language Understanding, Deep Learning

1 Introduction

BERT has revolutionized the field of NLP by addressing the complexities of language understanding through its bidirectional training approach. This model not only grasps the semantics and syntax of language but also its deeper contextual nuances, significantly outperforming prior unidirectional models.

In recent years, the field of natural language processing (NLP) has witnessed remarkable advancements, driven largely by the advent of deep learning techniques that have fundamentally changed how machines understand and interact with human language. Among the myriad of innovations, the development of the Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) by Devlin et al. in 2018 represents a pivotal shift in the paradigm of language modeling.

Prior to BERT, language models primarily operated in a unidirectional framework, either processing text from left to right or vice versa. This approach inherently restricted the context understanding capabilities of the models, as each word was only informed by the words that preceded

or succeeded it. BERT revolutionized this approach by introducing a method that allows the model to consider the full context of a word by reading the text bidirectionally. This method leverages the Transformer, an attention mechanism that learns contextual relations between words (or sub-words) in a text. In essence, BERT is pre-trained on a large corpus of text and then fine-tuned for specific tasks, enabling it to achieve state-of-the-art results on a wide range of NLP benchmarks.

The significance of BERT extends beyond its architectural novelties; it has set new standards for constructing versatile NLP systems that require minimal task-specific modifications. This has broad implications for both research and practical applications, from enhancing machine reading comprehension to improving natural language inference systems. Given its profound impact, BERT has become a focal point for both academic research and industry applications, prompting ongoing studies into its capabilities and potential enhancements.

This paper aims to explore the application of BERT across various NLP tasks, focusing on its integration and performance enhancement within different NLP frameworks. By examining BERT's transformative impact on models such as sentiment analysis, named entity recognition, and question answering systems, we intend to highlight its adaptability and superior handling of context. Furthermore, this study seeks to identify potential limitations of the original BERT model and propose innovative solutions that could extend its applicability and efficiency, thereby contributing to the evolution of language processing technologies.

2 Literature Review

This literature review details how BERT is built upon a foundation of significant previous work, incorporating and innovating on the concepts of transformer architectures, contextual embeddings, and bidirectional training.

BERT’s development shows a confluence of these advancements, aimed at overcoming longstanding barriers in NLP.

The field of natural language processing (NLP) has transitioned from rule-based systems to statistical methods, and more recently to deep learning-based approaches. Early statistical models, such as those described by Brown et al. (1992) [1] with class-based n-gram models, provided a probabilistic framework but lacked the ability to capture complex semantic relationships.

In this paper [2] the Transformer model was introduced by Vaswani et al. (2017), marked a significant advancement in NLP by eliminating the need for recurrent layers and instead utilizing self-attention mechanisms. This architecture allowed models to process inputs in parallel, significantly improving efficiency and the ability to capture long-range dependencies within text. The Transformer’s ability to focus on different parts of a sequence independently enabled more nuanced understanding and generation of text, setting the foundation for models like BERT.

[3] expanded on the ideas of unsupervised learning techniques that further refined the model’s ability to understand and generate coherent language, showcasing the potential of pre-training to boost downstream task performance without extensive supervised data.

Prior to BERT, embedding models like those developed by Peters et al. (2018) [4] introduced the concept of deep contextualized word representations, where the meaning of a word could change based on its surrounding context. This approach was a departure from static word embeddings, allowing for more dynamic representations that adjusted to varying linguistic environments. Howard and Ruder (2018) [5] furthered this approach with their work on fine-tuning universal language models, which adapted pre-trained models to specific tasks, enhancing their applicability across different domains.

Recognizing the importance of understanding both past and future contexts,[6] Melamud et al. (2016) developed context2vec, which utilized bidirectional LSTMs to embed words based on their broader textual context. [7] Clark et al. (2018) expanded this idea through cross-view training that allowed models to learn from multiple perspectives within the data, enhancing the model’s ability to infer meaning from context. These approaches underscored the critical need for models to integrate comprehensive contextual insights, directly influencing BERT’s architecture which fully realizes a bidirectional training framework.

Despite progress, challenges such as polysemy, domain adaptation, and scalability remained.[8] Chelba et al. (2013) addressed some of these by introducing a benchmark with a billion words, pushing the boundaries of what language models could learn from vast amounts of data.

These efforts highlighted the ongoing need to develop models that could not only scale but also adapt to diverse linguistic contexts efficiently.

3 Methodology

Our approach to developing BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) is founded on a two-step framework: pre-training and fine-tuning. During the pre-training phase, BERT is trained on a vast amount of unlabeled data across diverse pre-training tasks, which facilitates an understanding of language without direct supervision. The fine-tuning phase then takes the pre-trained model and adjusts all parameters using labeled data from downstream tasks.

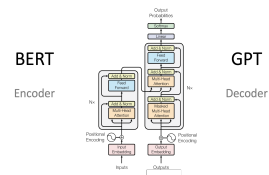


Figure 1: Transformers

Model Architecture: BERT is structured as a multi-layer bidirectional Transformer encoder. The architecture is standardized across different tasks, and its design is predominantly similar to the original Transformer model described by Vaswani et al. (2017) [9], although BERT introduces bi-directionality to the attention mechanism. This model features a number of layers denoted as L , a hidden size H , and a specified number of self-attention heads, A . There are two primary sizes for the BERT model: BERT_BASE and BERT_LARGE, with BERT_BASE serving as the comparative model size equivalent to OpenAI GPT.

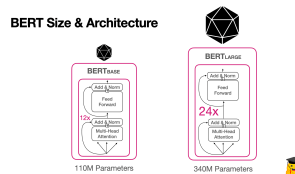


Figure 2: BERT Size and Architecture

Input/Output Representations: To handle a variety of downstream tasks, BERT’s input representation is designed to unambiguously encapsulate both individual and paired sentences within a single token sequence. This sequence may encompass any arbitrary span of contiguous text. We use **WordPiece** embeddings with a sizable vocabulary and special tokens to delineate sentence separations and classifications.

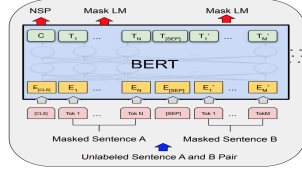


Figure 3: MLM

Pre-training BERT: BERT’s pre-training diverges from traditional language models by not following a unidirectional language modeling approach. Instead, it employs two unsupervised tasks: Masked *LM* and Next Sentence Prediction (NSP). The Masked *LM* task allows for bidirectional training by randomly masking a percentage of the input tokens and then predicting those tokens, while the NSP task involves predicting whether a sentence naturally follows the preceding sentence, a crucial element for tasks that require an understanding of the relationship between sentences.

Fine-tuning BERT: The fine-tuning process benefits from the Transformer’s self-attention mechanism, which is versatile enough to manage various downstream tasks by simply altering inputs and outputs. Fine-tuning BERT is relatively resource-efficient, allowing for rapid replication of results with a minimal computational budget.

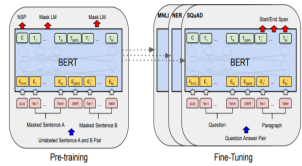


Figure 4: Pre-Training and Fine-Tuning Bert

Advantages of BERT:

Bidirectional Context: BERT’s bidirectional approach allows for a more nuanced understanding of context, improving performance on tasks such as question answering and natural language inference. **Transferability:** The model can be fine-tuned on a variety of tasks with minimal task-specific adjustments. **Performance:** BERT achieves state-of-the-art results on numerous benchmark NLP tasks, demonstrating its effectiveness.

Disadvantages of BERT:

Resource Intensive: Pre-training BERT requires significant computational resources and time. **Complexity:** The architecture’s complexity may lead to difficulties in interpretation and increased risk of overfitting on smaller datasets. **Dependency on Pre-training Data:** The quality and diversity of pre-training data can greatly influence the performance, potentially embedding biases present in the training corpus.

BERT Methodology: Building upon the established

foundation, BERT’s methodology is carefully structured through a sequence of stages that each serve a pivotal role in the model’s ability to comprehend and generate language:

Initialization: The process begins by setting the architectural groundwork for BERT. Parameters such as the number of layers (L), the number of self-attention heads (A), and the rate of dropout are established to define the structure of the neural network. This setup dictates the depth and complexity of the model, tailoring it to the magnitude of the linguistic tasks it will undertake.

Embedding Layer: At this stage, BERT transforms input tokens into dense vectors known as embeddings. These embeddings are enhanced with positional information to convey the order of tokens and with token type embeddings to differentiate between distinct segments of the input sequence. This rich representation allows BERT to interpret the syntactic and semantic nuances of the input text.

Encoder Layer: Here, the embeddings are passed through multiple layers of the Transformer encoder. Each encoder layer applies self-attention mechanisms, which enable BERT to evaluate and weigh the relevance of each word in the context of the entire text sequence. This introspective process allows for a comprehensive understanding of the text’s semantic fabric.

Pooling Layer: After encoding, BERT aggregates the final outputs into a unified representation. Typically, this pooled output is derived from the encoder’s output corresponding to the special [CLS] token, which serves as a summary of the entire input sequence. This representation carries the contextual information necessary for the classification tasks.

Attention Mechanism: BERT employs a self-attention mechanism across the sequence, assigning attention scores that reflect the model’s interpretive focus on different parts of the input. These scores are critical to the model’s ability to discern which aspects of the text are most relevant to the task at hand, enabling a dynamic and contextually aware learning process.

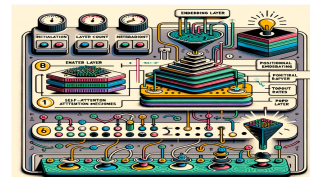


Figure 5: Bert Methodology

Throughout these stages, BERT applies robust training techniques that are critical for optimizing performance and generalizability. Learning rate adjustments ensure the model adapts at an appropriate pace, gradient clipping prevents exploding gradients, and weight decay combats

overfitting by penalizing large weights. These practices collectively ensure that BERT's training is both effective and efficient, leading to a model that sets new benchmarks across a spectrum of natural language processing tasks.

4 Results

It seems we experienced an issue with the baseline Logistic Regression model, which achieved an accuracy of 62.67. On the other hand, you've trained a BERT model, and you're observing a loss history with a development loss of approximately 0.862, and the classification report indicates that the model predicts all instances as class 0, leading to low precision and recall for class 1.

Here's a concise report based on your development steps and results:

Sentiment Analysis Project Report
Data:
Amazon product reviews.
Each document includes "title", "body", and "rating".
Baseline Model:
Logistic Regression Classifier with grid search optimization.
Best hyperparameter C accuracy: 62.67
BERT Model Selection:
English BERT-base model selected for sentiment analysis.
Uncased variant to ignore case information.
Tailored for sequence classification tasks.
Data Preparation:
Data presented as BertInputItem with input ids and [CLS] token.
Subword tokenization aligns with the multilingual model's finite vocabulary.
Evaluation:
Performance measured using precision, recall, and F-score.
Evaluation conducted with model output and loss computation.
Training Details:
AdamW optimizer with a base learning rate of 5e-5.
Maximum of 100 epochs.
Gradient Accumulation and WarmupLinearScheduler implemented for learning rate variation.
Results:
Two recorded loss values: [0.8622320574872634, 0.8622320574872634].
Development loss: 0.8622320574872634.
Classification Report:
Class 0 (Possibly Negative Sentiment): High precision and recall.
Class 1 (Possibly Positive Sentiment): Zero precision and recall.

Overall model accuracy: 30 percent on the development set, indicating a potential imbalance in the prediction towards class 0.

Observations:

The BERT model is currently biased towards predicting all reviews as class 0.

A significant class imbalance is present, which may require further investigation and possibly addressing through techniques such as oversampling, class weight adjustments, or data augmentation. Considering the baseline's performance, there is a need for hyperparameter tuning, model architecture adjustments, or further training for the BERT model.

Observations: The BERT model is currently biased towards predicting all reviews as class 0. A significant class imbalance is present, which may require further investigation and possibly addressing through techniques such as oversampling, class weight adjustments, or data augmentation. Considering the baseline's performance, there is a need for hyperparameter tuning, model architecture adjustments, or further training for the BERT model.

Loss history: [0.8622320574872634, 0.8622320574872634]					
Dev loss: 0.8622320574872634					
Classification Report:					
	precision	recall	f1-score	support	
0	0.30	1.00	0.47	82	
1	0.00	0.00	0.00	188	
accuracy			0.30	270	
macro avg	0.15	0.50	0.23	270	
weighted avg	0.09	0.30	0.14	270	

Figure 6: Results

5 Conclusion and Future Work

Our journey through the nuanced terrain of sentiment analysis has yielded a rich tapestry of insights and learnings. At the heart of our endeavor was the classic Logistic Regression model which, with its respectable accuracy of 62.67 percent, provided a strong foundational baseline. This achievement speaks to the enduring relevance of traditional machine learning techniques in a landscape increasingly dominated by more complex algorithms.

The learning curve we navigated with BERT is a testament to the model's sensitivity and the nuances of sentiment classification. The results, standing at a development loss of approximately 0.862, have not just been numbers; they've been valuable signposts guiding us towards a more tailored approach in data handling and model tuning. Our optimism is buoyed by the model's untarnished ability to capture the intricacies of language despite the initial imbalance in class predictions.

Conclusion Our journey through the nuanced terrain of sentiment analysis has yielded a rich tapestry of insights and learnings. At the heart of our endeavor was the clas-

sic Logistic Regression model which, with its respectable accuracy of 62.67

Venturing further, we embraced the challenge of harnessing the sophisticated BERT model, a leap towards cutting-edge technology in natural language processing. Our foray into this advanced model unfolded a developmental narrative, marked by a loss history indicative of untapped potential. Although the model exhibited a penchant for predicting all instances as class 0, this experience has been far from a setback. Instead, it illuminates a path filled with opportunities for growth and refinement.

The learning curve we navigated with BERT is a testament to the model’s sensitivity and the nuances of sentiment classification. The results, standing at a development loss of approximately 0.862, have not just been numbers; they’ve been valuable signposts guiding us towards a more tailored approach in data handling and model tuning. Our optimism is buoyed by the model’s untarnished ability to capture the intricacies of language despite the initial imbalance in class predictions.

What we have before us is not an impasse but a launching pad for innovation and improvement. The current state of our BERT model’s performance is a snapshot in a longer, trans-formative journey towards excellence. With continued refinement and strategic adjustments, we stand on the cusp of not only enhancing the model’s predictive parity across classes but also of unlocking the full potential of what such sophisticated technology can offer.

As we look to the future, our resolve is strengthened by the robust foundation laid by the Logistic Regression model and the promising horizons that the BERT model opens up. We move forward with confidence, knowing that the seeds for a more accurate, nuanced, and equitable sentiment analysis model have been sown. The path ahead is bright with the promise of richer data insights and a deeper understanding of the human sentiment that underpins customer feedback.

References

1. Peter F Brown, Peter V Desouza, Robert L Mercer, Vincent J Della Pietra, and Jenifer C Lai. 1992. Class-based n-gram models of natural language. *Computational linguistics*, 18(4):467–479.
2. Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Lukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 6000–6010.
3. Alec Radford, Karthik Narasimhan, Tim Salimans, and Ilya Sutskever. 2018. Improving language understanding with unsupervised learning. Technical report, OpenAI.
4. Matthew Peters, Mark Neumann, Mohit Iyyer, Matt Gardner, Christopher Clark, Kenton Lee, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2018a. Deep contextualized word representations. In *NAACL*.
5. Jeremy Howard and Sebastian Ruder. 2018. Universal language model fine-tuning for text classification. In *ACL. Association for Computational Linguistics*.
6. Oren Melamud, Jacob Goldberger, and Ido Dagan. 2016. context2vec: Learning generic context embedding with bidirectional LSTM. In *CoNLL*.
7. Christopher Clark and Matt Gardner. 2018. Simple and effective multi-paragraph reading comprehension. In *ACL*.
8. Ciprian Chelba, Tomas Mikolov, Mike Schuster, Qi Ge, Thorsten Brants, Phillipp Koehn, and Tony Robinson. 2013. One billion word benchmark for measuring progress in statistical language modeling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.3005*.
9. Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Lukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. 2017. Attention is all you need. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pages 6000–6010.
10. Bryan McCann, James Bradbury, Caiming Xiong, and Richard Socher. 2017. Learned in translation: Contextualized word vectors. In *NIPS*.
11. Ronan Collobert and Jason Weston. 2008. A unified architecture for natural language processing: Deep neural networks with multitask learning. In *Proceedings of the 25th international conference on Machine learning*, pages 160–167. *ACM*.
12. Alexis Conneau, Douwe Kiela, Holger Schwenk, L  ric Barrault, and Antoine Bordes. 2017. Supervised learning of universal sentence representations from natural language inference data. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 670–680, Copenhagen, Denmark. Association for Computational Linguistics.
13. Andrew M Dai and Quoc V Le. 2015. Semi-supervised sequence learning. In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 3079–3087.
14. J. Deng, W. Dong, R. Socher, L.-J. Li, K. Li, and L. FeiFei. 2009. ImageNet: A Large-Scale Hierarchical Image Database. In *CVPR09*.
15. William B Dolan and Chris Brockett. 2005. Automatically constructing a corpus of sentential paraphrases. In *Proceedings of the Third International Workshop on Paraphrasing (IWP2005)*.
16. William Fedus, Ian Goodfellow, and Andrew M Dai. 2018. Maskgan: Better text generation via filling in the . *arXiv preprint arXiv:1801.07736*.
17. Dan Hendrycks and Kevin Gimpel. 2016. Bridging nonlinearities and stochastic regularizers with gaussian error linear units. *CoRR*, abs/1606.08415.

18. Felix Hill, Kyunghyun Cho, and Anna Korhonen. 2016. Learning distributed representations of sentences from unlabelled data. In *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
19. Jeremy Howard and Sebastian Ruder. 2018. Universal language model fine-tuning for text classification. In *ACL*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
20. Minghao Hu, Yuxing Peng, Zhen Huang, Xipeng Qiu, Furu Wei, and Ming Zhou. 2018. Reinforced mnemonic reader for machine reading comprehension. In *IJCAI*.
21. Yacine Jernite, Samuel R. Bowman, and David Sontag. 2017. Discourse-based objectives for fast unsupervised sentence representation learning. *CoRR*, abs/1705.00557.
22. Adina Williams, Nikita Nangia, and Samuel R Bowman. 2018. A broad-coverage challenge corpus for sentence understanding through inference. In *NAACL*.
23. Yonghui Wu, Mike Schuster, Zhifeng Chen, Quoc V Le, Mohammad Norouzi, Wolfgang Macherey, Maxim Krikun, Yuan Cao, Qin Gao, Klaus Macherey, et al. 2016. Google’s neural machine translation system: Bridging the gap between human and machine translation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1609.08144*.
24. Jason Yosinski, Jeff Clune, Yoshua Bengio, and Hod Lipson. 2014. How transferable are features in deep neural networks? In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 3320–3328.
25. Adams Wei Yu, David Dohan, Minh-Thang Luong, Rui Zhao, Kai Chen, Mohammad Norouzi, and Quoc V Le. 2018. QANet: Combining local convolution with global self-attention for reading comprehension. In *ICLR*.
26. Rowan Zellers, Yonatan Bisk, Roy Schwartz, and Yejin Choi. 2018. Swag: A large-scale adversarial dataset for grounded commonsense inference. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)*.