INF5820: Language technological applications Convolutional Neural Networks

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So far: MLPs + embeddings as inputs



- Embeddings have benefits over discrete one-hot encodings; makes use of unlabeled data + information sharing across features.
- ► But we still lack power for representing sentences and documents.
- Concatenation? Would blow up the parameter space for a fully connected layer.
- Averaging? gives a fixed-length representation, but no information about order or structure.

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- Averaging? gives a fixed-length representation, but no information about order or structure.
- ► Need for specialized NN architectures that extract higher-level features:
- CNNs and RNNs the agenda for the coming weeks.
- Learns intermediate representations that are then plugged into additional layers for prediction.
- ► Pitch: layers and architectures are like Lego bricks mix and match.



Document- / sentence-level polarity; positive or negative?

- The food was expensive but hardly impressive.
- The food was hardly expensive but impressive.
- Strong local indicators of class,
- some ordering constraints,
- but independent of global position.
- ▶ In sum: a small set relevant *n*-grams could provide strong features.



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Many text classification tasks have the similar traits:...

- sentences as subjective or objective
- questions types
- authorship of texts
- text topics
- emails as spam
- comments as abusive

- BoW or CBoW? Not suitable:
- Do not capture local ordering.
- An MLP can learn feature combinations, but not easily positional / ordering information.
- Bag-of-n-grams or n-gram embeddings?
- ► Want to be able to share statistical strength between related features.
- ► Potentially wastes many parameters; only a few n-grams relevant.
- ► Data sparsity issues + does not scale to higher order *n*-grams.
- ► Want to learn to efficiently model relevant *n*-grams.
- Enter convolutional neural networks.



► AKA convolution-and-pooling architectures or ConvNets.

CNNs explained in three lines

- ► A convolution layer extracts *n*-gram features across a sequence.
- A pooling layer then samples the features to identify the most informative ones.
- ► These are then passed to a downstream network for prediction.
- ► We'll spend the next two lectures fleshing out the details.

CNNs and vision / image recognition

- ► Evolved in the 90s in the fields of signal processing and computer vision.
- ► 1989–98: Yann LeCun, Léon Bottou et al.: digit recognition
- ► 2012: Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, Geoffrey E. Hinton: great reduction of error rates for ImageNet object recognition



(Taken from image-net.org)



(Taken from Bottou et al. 2016)

► These roots are witnessed by the terminology associated with CNNs.

- ► Generally, we can consider an image as a matrix of pixel values.
- The size of this matrix is *height* x *width* x *channels*:
- ► A gray-scale image has 1 channel, an RGB color image has 3.
- Several standard convolution operations are available for image processing: Blurring, sharpening, edge detection, etc.
- A convolution operation is defined on the basis of a kernel or filter: a matrix of weights.
- Several terms often used interchangeably: filter, filter kernel, filter mask, filter matrix, convolution matrix, kernel matrix, ...
- ► The size of the filter referred to as the receptive field.

2d convolutions for image processing

- The output of an image convolution is computed as follows: (We're assuming square symmetrical kernels.)
 - Slide the filter matrix across every pixel.
 - ► For each pixel, compute the matrix convolution operation:
 - Multiply each element of the filter matrix with its corresponding element of the image matrix, and sum the products.
 - Edges requires special treatment (e.g. zero-padding or reduced filter).
- Each pixel in the resulting filtered image is a weighted combination of its neighboring pixels in the original image.





- ► Examples of some standard filters and their kernel matrices.
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kernel_(image_processing)

Convolutions and CNNs

- ► Convolutions are also used for feature extraction for ML models.
- ► Forms the basic build block of convolutional neural networks.
- ► But then we want to learn the weights of the filter,
- ► and typically apply a non-linear activation function to the result,
- ► and typically also apply several filters.

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But let's not get carried away, back to NLP:

- ► Convolution filters can also be used for feature extraction from text:
- ► '*n*-gram detectors'.
- Pioneered by Collobert et al. (2008, 2011) for various tagging tasks, and later by Kalchbrenner et al. (2014) and Kim (2014) for sentence classification.
- ► A massive proliferation of CNN-based work in the field since.

1d CNNs for NLP

- ► In NLP we apply CNNs to sequential data: 1-dimensional input.
- Consider a sequence of words $w_{1:n} = w_1, \ldots, w_n$.
- ▶ Each word is represented by a d dimensional embedding $E_{[w_i]} = w_i$.



- ► A convolution corresponds to 'sliding' a window of size k across the sequence and applying a filter to each.
- ▶ Let $\oplus(w_{i:i+k-1}) = [w_i; w_{i+1}; \dots; w_{i+k-1}]$ be the concatenation of the embeddings w_i, \dots, w_{i+k-1} .
- ▶ The vector for the ith window is $x_i = \oplus(w_{i:i+k-1})$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{kd}$.



To apply a filter to a window x_i :

- ullet compute its dot-product with a weight vector $oldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{kd}$
- and then apply a non-linear activation g,
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- \blacktriangleright resulting in a scalar value $p_{i} = g(\boldsymbol{x_{i}} \cdot \boldsymbol{u})$
- ▶ Typically use ℓ different filters, u_1, \ldots, u_ℓ .
- Can be arranged in a matrix $oldsymbol{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{kd imes \ell}.$
- Also include a bias vector $m{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}$.
- ► Gives an *l*-dimensional vector *p_i* summarizing the *i*th window: *p_i* = g(*x_i* · *U* + *b*)
- Ideally different dimensions captures different indicative information.





Convolutions on sequences

- Applying the convolutions over the text results in m vectors $p_{1:m}$.
- Each $p_i \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}$ represents a particular k-gram in the input.
- ► Sensitive to the identity and order of tokens within the sub-sequence,
- ▶ but independent of its particular position within the sequence.





- What is m in $p_{1:m}$?
- ► For a given window size k and a sequence w₁,..., w_n, how many vectors p_i will be extracted?
- There are m = n k + 1 possible positions for the window.
- This is called a narrow convolution.
- Another strategy: pad the with k-1 extra dummy-tokens on each side.
- ► Let's us slide the window beyond the boundaries of the sequence.
- We then get m = n + k + 1 vectors p_i .
- Called a wide convolution.
- ► Necessary when using window-sizes that might be wider than the input.

- ► So far we've visualized inputs, filters, and filter outputs as sequences:
- ▶ What Goldberg (2017) calls the 'concatenation notation'.
- ► An alternative (and perhaps more common) view: 'stacking notation'.



- Imagine the n input embeddings stacked on top of each other, resulting in an n × d sentence matrix.
- Correspondingly, imagine each column u in the matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{kd \times \ell}$ be arranged as a $k \times d$ matrix.
- ► We can then slide ℓ different k × d filter matrices down the sentence matrix, computing matrix convolutions:
- ► Sum of element-wise multiplications.



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- The stacking view makes the convolutions more similar to what we saw for images.
- ► Except the width of the 'receptive field' is always fixed to *d*,
- ▶ the height is given by k (aka region size),
- ► and we slide the filter in increments of d, corresponding to the word boundaries,
- ► i.e. along the height dimension only.

- ▶ Now imagine the output vectors $p_{1:m}$ stacked in a matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes \ell}$.
- ► Each ℓ-dimensional row of P holds the features extracted for a given k-gram by different filters.
- ► Each *m*-dimensional column of *P* holds the features extracted across the sequence for a given filter.
- These columns are sometimes referred to as feature maps.





Next step: pooling (1:2)

- The convolution layer results in m vectors $p_{1:m}$.
- ▶ Each $p_i \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell}$ represents a particular *k*-gram in the input.
- $\blacktriangleright\ m$ (the length of the feature maps) can vary depending on input length.
- ► Pooling combines these vectors into a single fixed-sized vector c.



Next step: pooling (2:2)

- ► The fixed-sized vector *c* (possibly in combination with other vectors) is what gets passed to a downstream network for prediction.
- \blacktriangleright Want c to contain the most important information from $p_{1:m}$.
- ► Different strategies available for 'sampling' features.



Pooling strategies



Max pooling

- Most common. AKA max-over-time pooling.
- $\blacktriangleright \ \boldsymbol{c}[j] = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{1 < i \le m} \boldsymbol{p}_{\boldsymbol{i}[j]} \quad \forall j \in [1, l]$
- ▶ Picks the maximum value across each dimension (feature map).

Average pooling

•
$$\boldsymbol{c} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{p}_i$$

► CBOW or average of all the filtered k-gram representations.

K-max pooling

- \blacktriangleright Concatenate the k highest values for each dimension / filter.
- Preserves relative ordering information (but insensitive to specific positions).



- Combines with any of the strategies above.
- Perform pooling separately over r different regions of the input.
- Concatenate the r resulting vectors $c_1, \ldots c_r$.
- Allows us to retain positional information relevant to a given task (e.g. based on document structure).
- ► Not using dynamic pooling is sometimes called *global pooling*.



- \blacktriangleright So far considered CNNs with ℓ different filters for a single window size k.
- Typically, CNNs in NLP are applied with multiple window sizes, and multiple filters for each.
- ► Pooled separately, with the results concatenated.
- Rather large window sizes often used:
- ▶ 2–5 is most typical, but even k > 20 is not uncommon.



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- ► Pooled separately, with the results concatenated.
- Rather large window sizes often used:
- ▶ 2–5 is most typical, but even k > 20 is not uncommon.
- ► With standard *n*-gram features, anything more than 3-grams quickly become infeasible.
- CNNs learn to represent large *n*-grams efficiently, without blowing up the parameter space and without having to represent the whole vocabulary.
- ► (Related to the notion of 'neuron' in a CNN will get back to this!)

Baseline architecture of Zhang et al. (2017)



What is a neuron in a convolution? (1:2)



- A CNN has no backward connections between layers, no cycles (as we'll have once we get to RNNs).
- ► Can therefore be seen as a type of feed-forward network.
- But in contrast to the fully-connected ('dense') layers of an MLP, the convolution layers are 'sparsely connected'.
- Each filter defines m identical neurons:
- Each neuron instance is fully-connected only for a given k-gram.
- ► After (max-)pooling; only the most strongly activated neurons are used.



What is a neuron in a convolution? (2:2)



- Alternatively: Think of each filter as defining an abstract neuron (like a mathematical function).
- ► Allows us to apply this neuron multiple times.
- Example of weight sharing / parameter tying:
- ► The parameters are shared for all copies of the neuron.
- Allows us to have lots of neurons while having a relatively small number of parameters to be learned.





- ► Conceptually, CNNs are independent of input-length.
- Pooling allows us to represent variable-length input with a fixed-sized vector.
- ► Naturally deals with e.g. sentences of varying length.
- In practice, however, it is common to pad all inputs to match the maximum input length (or some specified lower cut-off).
- ► Using some reserved token such as <PAD>.
- Main reason; batch computation: Each example in a batch is required to have the same length.



- ► Backpropagation after the final prediction layer.
- Estimates MLP weights, the convolution weights and bias, and (possibly) the embeddings.
- Embedding layer can be: learned from scratch or pre-trained.
- ► When pre-trained, the embedding layer can be:
- Static: fixed, no backpropagation.
- Dynamic: further trained / fine-tuned.
- CNNs also useful for representation learning!

CNNs and representation learning (1:2)



- Kim (2014) shows the effect of fine-tuning embeddings with a CNN for SA.
- Compares the 4 nearest neighbors of words with static and non-static embeddings.
- Deals with a well-known challenge for distributional semantics:
- Antonyms end up similar.
- Learned task-specific embeddings can be useful beyond the CNN.

Target	Pre-trained	Fine-tuned
bad	good	terrible
	terrible	horrible
	horrible	lousy
	lousy	stupid
good	great	nice
	bad	decent
	terrific	solid
	decent	terrific
n't	OS	not
	са	never
	ireland	nothing
	WO	neither



- ► A CNN can also be used for creating document embeddings:
- ► The vectors produced by the pooling layer.
- ► Yields a fixed-sized representation, independent of input length.
- Similar documents / sentences will have pooling vectors that are close to each other.
- ► Can be used for retrieval or other document similarity tasks.



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- Celina M.: document classification for the Norwegian welfare administration.



- More advanced CNN architectures:
 - Hierarchical convolutions
 - Multiple channels
- Overview of the parameter space and design choices
- ► Tuning (Zhang & Wallace, 2015/2017)
- Use cases.