

# Statistical Natural Language Processing

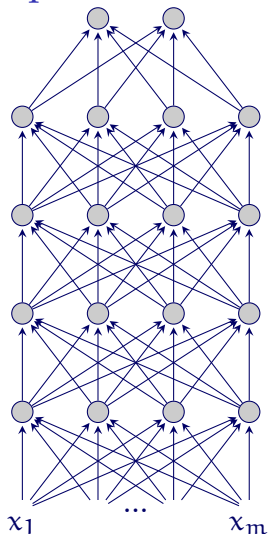
Recurrent and convolutional networks

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# Deep neural networks



- Deep neural networks (>2 hidden layers) have recently been successful in many tasks
- They often use sparse connectivity and shared weights
- We will focus on two important architectures: recurrent and convolutional networks

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- We saw that a feed-forward network with a single hidden layer is a *universal approximator*
- However, this is a theoretical result – it is not clear how many units one may need for the approximation
- Successive layers may learn different representations
- Deeper architectures have been found to be useful in many tasks

## Why now?

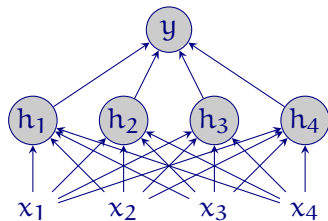
- Increased computational power, especially advances in graphical processing unit (GPU) hardware
- Availability of large amounts of data
  - mainly unlabeled data (more on this later)
  - but also labeled data through ‘crowd sourcing’ and other sources
- Some new developments in theory and applications

# Recurrent neural networks

- Feed forward networks
  - can only learn associations
  - do not have memory of earlier inputs: they cannot handle sequences
- Recurrent neural networks are ANN solution for sequence learning
- This is achieved by recursive loops in the network

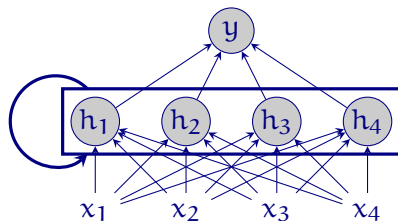


# Recurrent neural networks



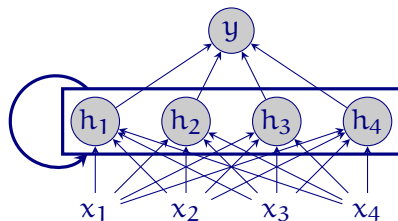
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- They include loops that use previous output (of the hidden layers) as well as the input

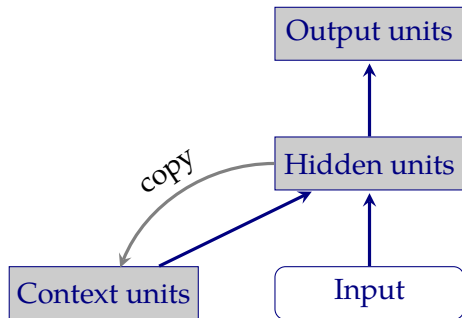
# Recurrent neural networks



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- They include loops that use previous output (of the hidden layers) as well as the input
- Forward calculation is straightforward, learning becomes somewhat tricky

# A simple version: SRNs

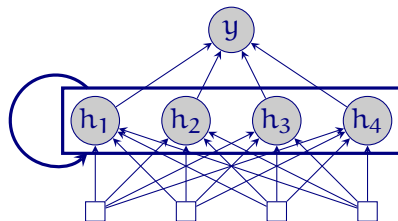
Elman (1990)



- The network keeps previous hidden states (context units)
- The rest is just like a feed-forward network
- Training is simple, but cannot learn long-distance dependencies

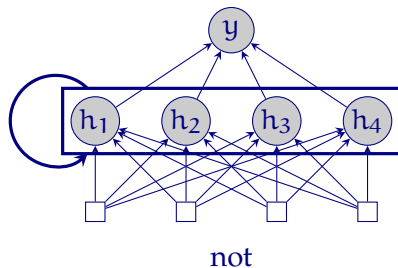
# Processing sequences with RNNs

- RNNs process sequences one unit at a time
- The earlier inputs affect the output through recurrent links



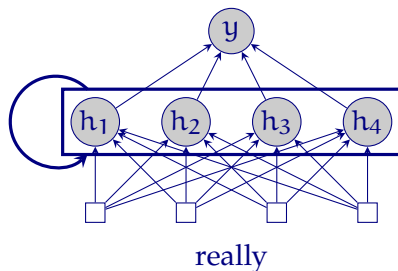
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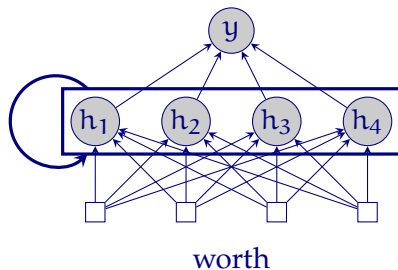
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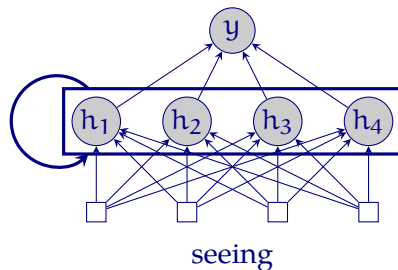
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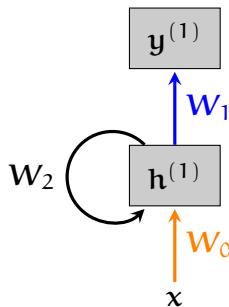


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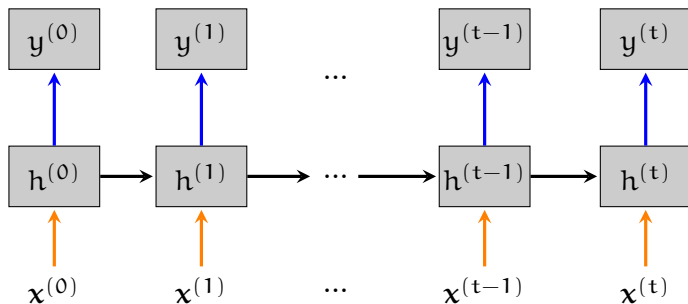
# Learning in recurrent networks



- We need to learn three sets of weights:  $w_0$ ,  $w_1$  and  $w_2$
- Backpropagation in RNNs are at first not that obvious
- The main difficulty is in propagating the error through the recurrent connections

# Unrolling a recurrent network

Back propagation through time (BPTT)



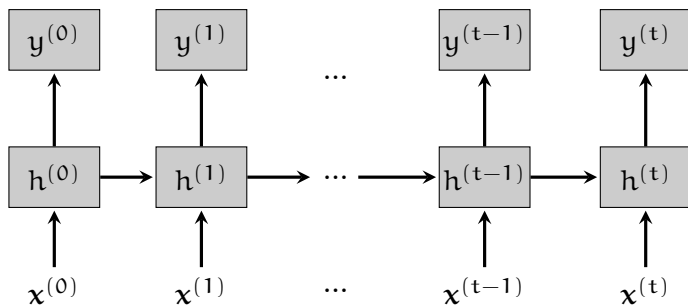
Note: the weights with the same color are shared.

# Unstable gradients

- A common problem in deep networks is *unstable gradients*
- The partial derivatives with respect to weights in the early layers calculated using the chain rule
- A long chain of multiplications may result in
  - *vanishing gradients* if the values are in range  $(-1, 1)$
  - *exploding gradients* if absolute values larger than 1
- A practical solution for exploding gradients is called *gradient clipping*
- Solution to vanishing gradients is more involved (coming soon)

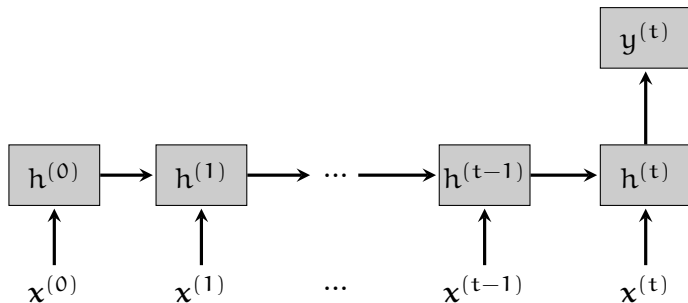
# RNN architectures

Many-to-many (e.g., POS tagging)



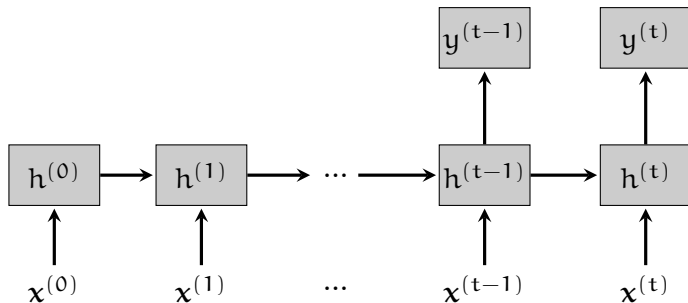
# RNN architectures

Many-to-one (e.g., document classification)

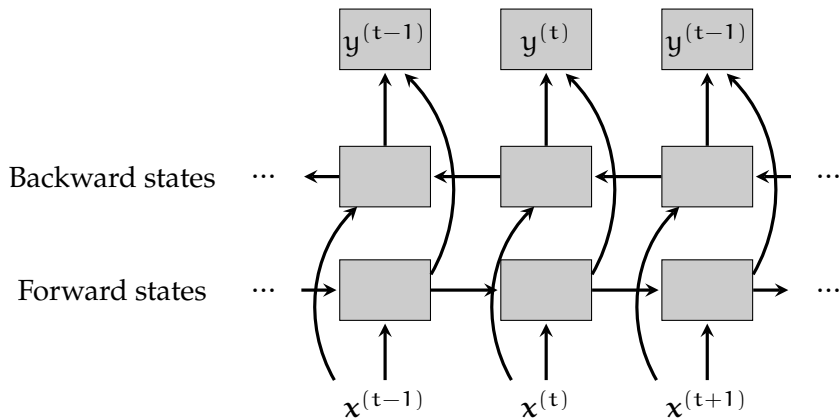


# RNN architectures

Many-to-many with a delay (e.g., machine translation)



# Bidirectional RNNs

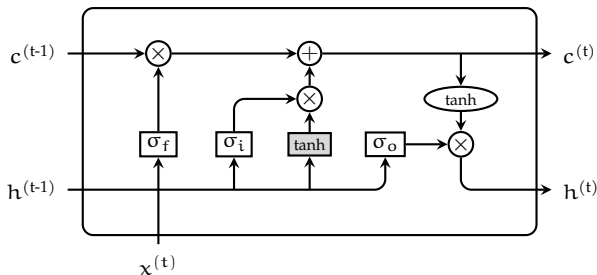




# Unstable gradients revisited

- We noted earlier that the gradients may *vanish* or *explode* during backpropagation in deep networks
- This is especially problematic for RNNs since the effective depth of the network can be extremely large
- Although RNNs can theoretically learn long-distance dependencies, this is affected by unstable gradients problem
- The most popular solution is to use *gated* recurrent networks

# Gated recurrent networks



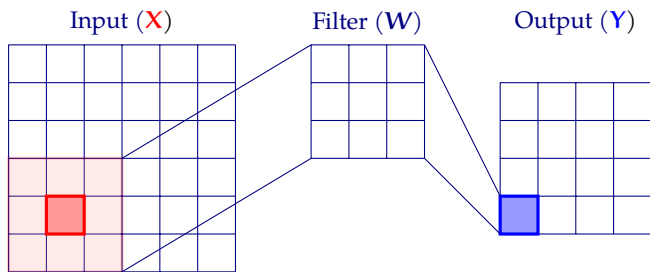
- Most modern RNN architectures are ‘gated’
- The main idea is learning a mask that controls what to remember (or forget) from previous hidden layers
- Two popular architectures are
  - Long short term memory (LSTM) networks (above)
  - Gated recurrent units (GRU)

# Convolutional networks

- Convolutional networks are particularly popular in image processing applications
- They have also been used with success some NLP tasks
- Unlike feed-forward networks we have discussed so far,
  - CNNs are not fully connected
  - The hidden layer(s) receive input from only a set of neighboring units
  - Some weights are shared
- A CNN learns features that are *location invariant*
- CNNs are also computationally less expensive compared to fully connected networks

## Convolution in image processing

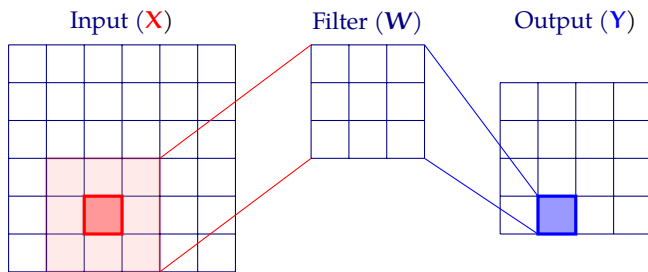
- Convolution is a common operation in image processing for effects like edge detection, blurring, sharpening, ...
- The idea is to transform each pixel with a function of the local neighborhood



$$y = \sum_i w_i x_i$$

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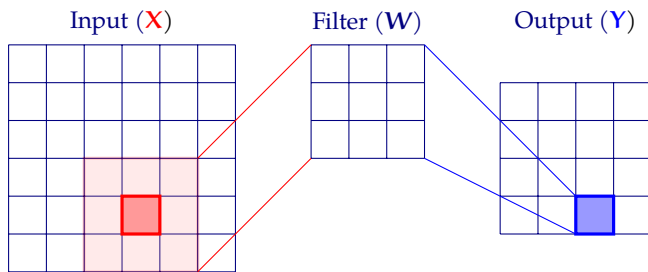
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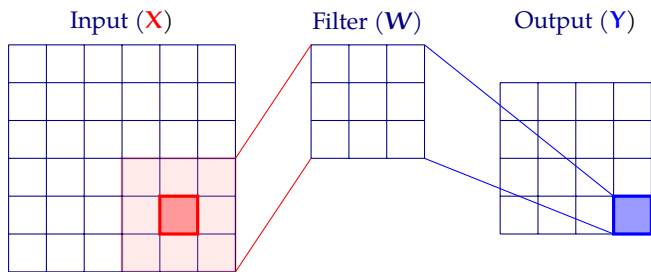
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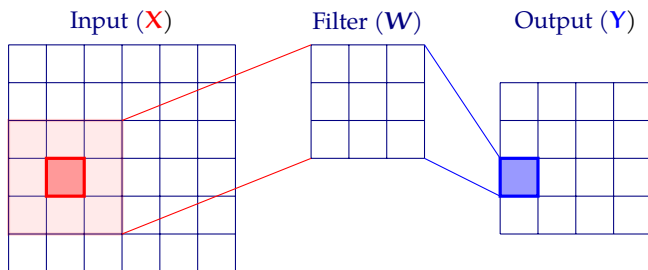
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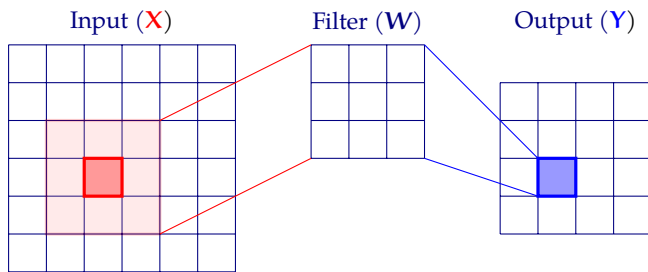


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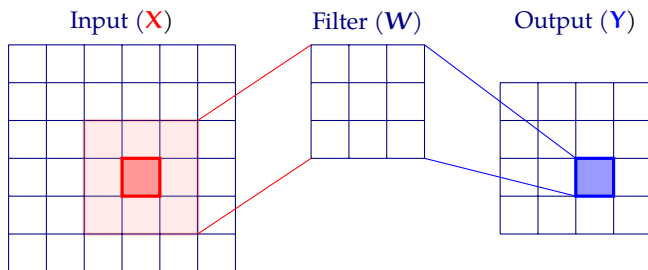
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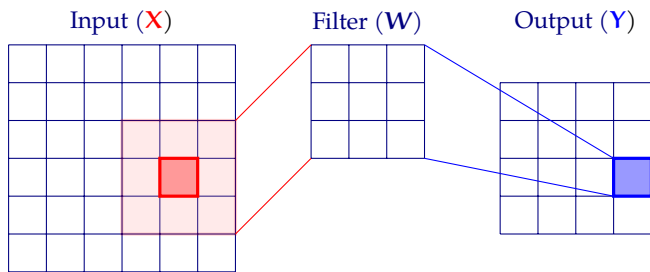
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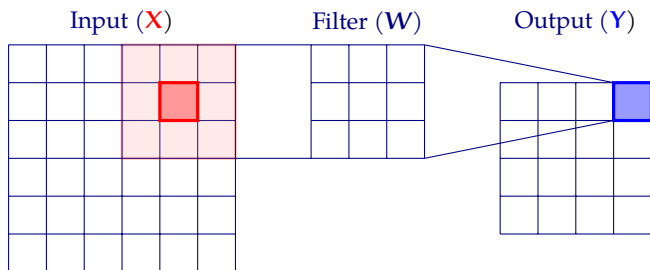
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# Example convolutions

- Blurring

$$\frac{1}{16} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

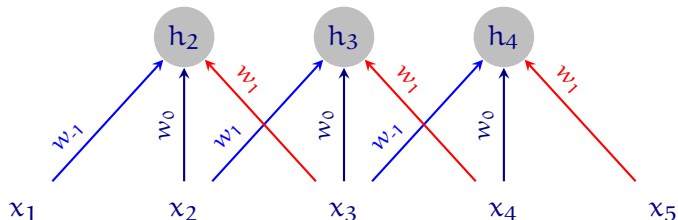
- Edge detection

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Learning convolutions

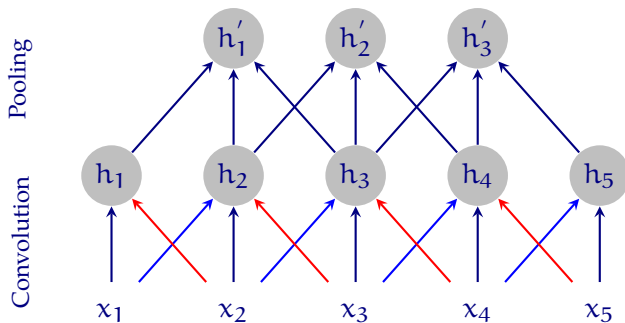
- Some filters produce features that are useful for classification (e.g., of images, or sentences)
- In machine learning we want to *learn* the convolutions
- Typically, we learn multiple convolutions, each resulting in a different feature map
- Repeated application of convolutions allow learning higher level features
- The last layer is typically a standard fully-connected classifier

# Convolution in neural networks



- Each hidden layer corresponds to a local window in the input
- Weights are shared: each convolution detects the same type of features

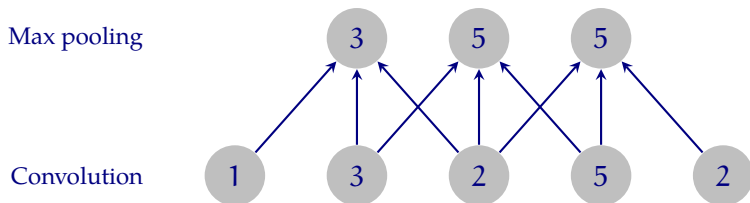
# Pooling



- Convolution is combined with *pooling*
- Pooling 'layer' simply calculates a statistic (e.g., max) over the convolution layer
- Location invariance comes from pooling

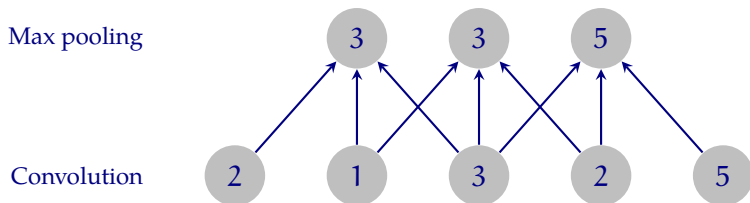


# Pooling and location invariance



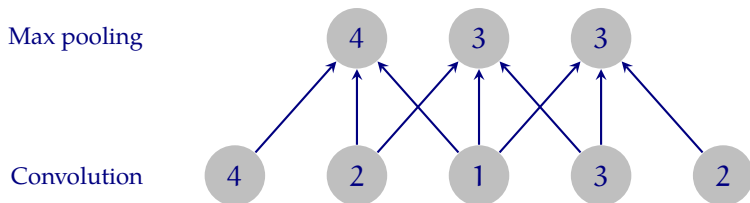
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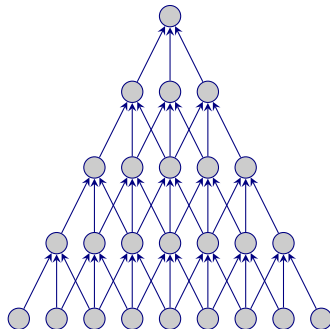
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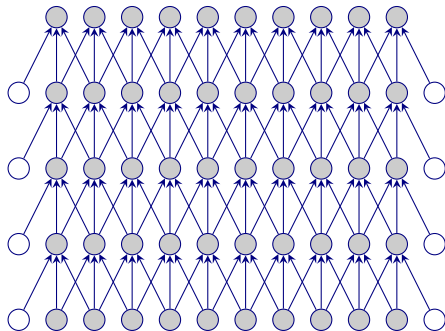
# Padding in CNNs

- With successive layers of convolution and pooling, the later layers shrink



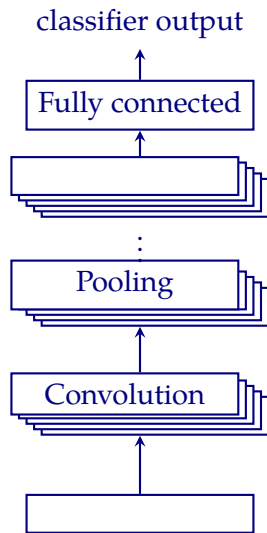
# Padding in CNNs

- With successive layers of convolution and pooling, the later layers shrink
- One way to avoid this is *padding* the input and hidden layers with enough number of zeros

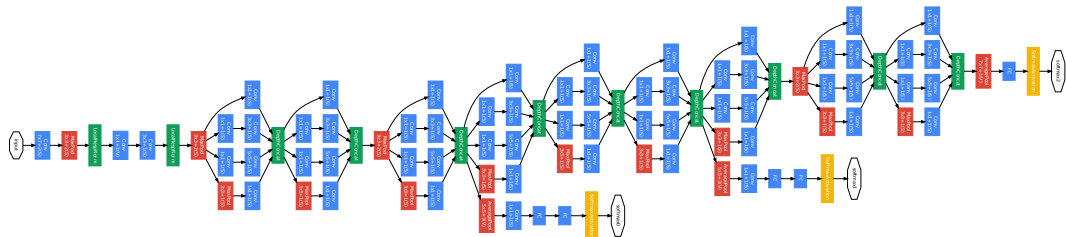


# CNNs: the bigger picture

- At each convolution/pooling step, we often want to learn multiple feature maps
- After a (long) chain of hierarchical feature maps, the final layer is typically a fully-connected layer (e.g., softmax for classification)



# Real-world examples are complex



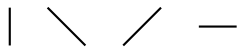
The real-world ANNs tend to be complex

- Many layers (sometimes with repetition)
- Large amount of branching

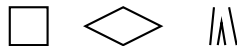
\* Diagram describes an image classification network, GoogLeNet (Szegedy et al. 2014).

# CNNs in natural language processing

- The use of CNNs in image applications is rather intuitive
  - the first convolutional layer learns local features, e.g., edges



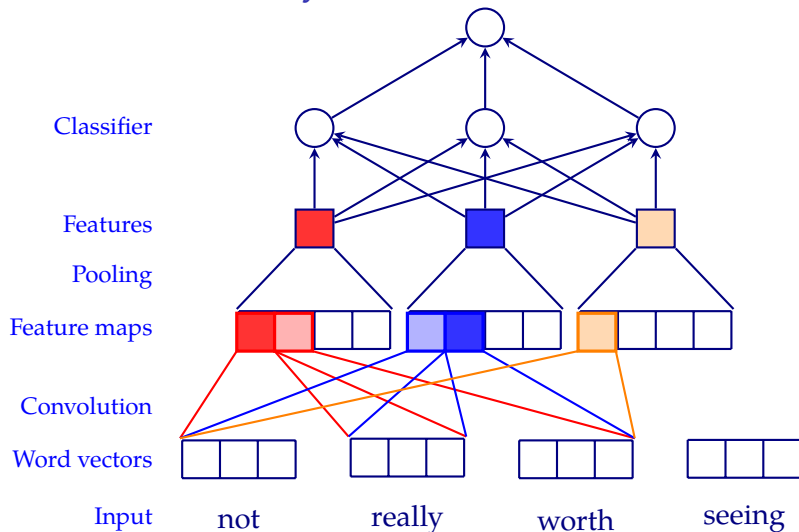
- successive layers learn more complex features that are combinations of these features



- In NLP, it is a bit less straight-forward
  - CNNs are typically used in combination with word vectors
  - The convolutions of different sizes correspond to (word) n-grams of different sizes
  - Pooling picks important 'n-grams' as features for classification



# An example: sentiment analysis



# Summary

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- Common (deep) ANN architectures include:
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Next:

- N-gram language models