Lecture 20: Neural Networks for NLP

Zubin Pahuja zpahuja2@illinois.edu



Today's Lecture

Feed-forward neural networks as classifiers

- simple architecture in which computation proceeds from one layer to the next
- Application to language modeling
 - assigning probabilities to word sequences and predicting upcoming words

Supervised Learning

Two kinds of prediction problems:

Regression

- predict results with *continuous* output
- e.g. price of a house from its size, number of bedrooms, zip code, etc.

Classification

- predict results in a *discrete* output
- e.g. whether user will click on an ad

What's a Neural Network?



Why is deep learning taking off?

• Unprecedented amount of data

- performance of traditional learning algorithms such as SVM, logistic regression plateaus
- Faster computation
 - GPU acceleration
 - algorithms that train faster and deeper
 - using ReLU over sigmoid activation
 - gradient descent optimizers, like Adam
- End-to-end learning
 - model directly converts input data into output prediction bypassing intermediate steps in a traditional pipeline



They are called *neural* because their origins lie in

McCulloch-Pitts Neuron



But the modern use in language processing no longer draws on these early biological inspirations

Neural Units

- Building blocks of a neural network
- Given a set of inputs x₁...x_n, a unit has a set of corresponding weights w₁...w_n and a bias b, so the weighted sum z can be represented as:

$$z = b + \sum_{i} w_i x_i$$

or, $z = w \cdot x + b$ using **dot-product**



Neural Units

• Apply non-linear function *f* (or *g*) to *z* to compute **activation** *a*:

$$y = a = f(z)$$

• since we are modeling a single unit, the activation is also the final output y



Activation Functions: Sigmoid

- Sigmoid (σ)
 - maps output into the range [0,1]
 - differentiable

$$y = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



Activation Functions: Tanh

• Tanh

- maps output into the range [-1, 1]
- better than sigmoid
- smoothly differentiable and maps outlier values towards the mean

$$y = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$$



Activation Functions: ReLU

• Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

y = max(x, 0)

 High values of z in sigmoid/ tanh result in values of y that are close to 1 which causes problems for learning



XOR Problem

• Minsky-Papert proved **perceptron** can't compute **XOR** logical operation

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b \leq 0\\ 1, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b > 0 \end{cases}$$

AND				OR			XOR		
x 1	x2	у	x1	x2	y	Х	1 x2	у	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	

XOR Problem

• Perceptron can compute the logical AND and OR functions easily



• But it's not possible to build a perceptron to compute logical **XOR**!

XOR Problem

- Perceptron is a linear classifier but XOR is not *linearly separable*
 - for a 2D input x_0 and x_1 , the perceptron equation: $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b = 0$ is the equation of a line



XOR Problem: Solution

• XOR function can be computed using two layers of **ReLU**-based units



• XOR problem demonstrates need for **multi-layer** networks

XOR Problem: Solution

• Hidden layer forms a linearly separable representation for the input



In this example, we stipulated the weights but in real applications, the weights for neural networks are learned automatically using the error **back-propagation** algorithm

Why do we need non-linear activation functions?

- Network of simple linear (perceptron) units cannot solve XOR problem
 - a network formed by many layers of purely linear units can always be reduced to a single layer of linear units

$$a^{[1]} = z^{[1]} = W^{[1]} \cdot x + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[2]} = z^{[2]} = W^{[2]} \cdot a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$= W^{[2]} \cdot (W^{[1]} \cdot x + b^{[1]}) + b^{[2]}$$

$$= (W^{[2]} \cdot W^{[1]}) \cdot x + (W^{[2]} \cdot b^{[1]} + b^{[2]})$$

$$= W' \cdot x + b'$$

... no more expressive than logistic regression!

• we've already shown that a single unit cannot solve the XOR problem

Feed-Forward Neural Networks

a.k.a. multi-layer perceptron (MLP), though it's a misnomer

- Each layer is **fully-connected**
- Represent parameters for hidden layer by combining weight vector w_i and bias b_i for each unit *i* into a single weight matrix W and a single bias vector b for the whole layer

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}x + b^{[1]}$$
$$h = a^{[1]} = \sigma(z^{[1]})$$

where $W \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_0}$ and $b, h \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$



Feed-Forward Neural Networks

• Output could be real-valued number (for regression), or a probability distribution across the output nodes (for multinomial classification)

 $z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}h + b^{[2]}$, such that $z^{[2]} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$, $W^{[2]} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times n_1}$

• We apply **softmax** function to encode $z^{[2]}$ as a probability distribution

softmax
$$(z_i) = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^d e^{z_j}} \quad 1 \le i \le d$$

• So a neural network is like *logistic regression* over induced feature *representations* from prior layers of the network rather than forming features using feature templates

Recap: 2-layer Feed-Forward Neural Network

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}a^{[0]} + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[1]} = h = g^{[1]}(z^{[1]})$$

$$z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$a^{[2]} = g^{[2]}(z^{[2]})$$

$$\hat{y} = a^{[2]}$$

We use $a^{[0]}$ to stand for input x, \hat{y} for predicted output, y for ground truth output and $g(\cdot)$ for activation function. $g^{[2]}$ might be *softmax* for multinomial classification or *sigmoid* for binary classification, while ReLU or tanh might be activation function $g(\cdot)$ at the internal layers.

N-layer Feed-Forward Neural Network

for *i* in 1..n: $z^{[i]} = W^{[i]}a^{[i-1]} + b^{[i]}$ $a^{[i]} = g^{[i]}(z^{[i]})$ $\hat{y} = a^{[n]}$



Training Neural Nets: Loss Function

- Models the distance between the system output and the gold output
- Same as logistic regression, the cross-entropy loss
 - for binary classification

$$L_{CE}(\hat{y}, y) = -\log p(y|x) = -[y\log \hat{y} + (1-y)\log(1-\hat{y})]$$

• for multinomial classification

$$L_{CE}(\hat{y}, y) = -\sum_{i=1}^{C} y_i \log \hat{y}_i$$

Training Neural Nets: Gradient Descent

- To find parameters that minimize loss function, we use **gradient descent**
- But it's much harder to see how to compute the partial derivative of some weight in layer 1 when the loss is attached to some much later layer
 - we use **error back-propagation** to partial out loss over intermediate layers
 - builds on notion of **computation graphs**



Training Neural Nets: Computation Graphs

Computation is broken down into separate operations, each of which is modeled as a node in a graph

Consider
$$L(a, b, c) = c(a + 2b)$$

 $d = 2 * b$
 $e = a + d$
 $L = c * e$



Training Neural Nets: Backward Differentiation

• Uses chain rule from calculus

For
$$f(x) = u(v(x))$$
, we have $\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}$

• For our function L = c(a + 2b), we need the derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial c} = e \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial a} \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial d} \frac{\partial d}{\partial b}$$

• Requires the intermediate derivatives:

$$L = ce : \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} = c, \frac{\partial L}{\partial c} = e$$
$$e = a + d : \frac{\partial e}{\partial a} = 1, \frac{\partial e}{\partial d} = 1$$
$$d = 2b : \frac{\partial d}{\partial b} = 2$$

Training Neural Nets: Backward Pass

- Compute from *right* to *left*
- For each node:
 - compute local partial derivative with respect to the parent
 - 2. multiply it by the partial that is passed down from the parent
 - 3. then pass it to the child
- Also requires derivatives of activation functions

$$\frac{d\sigma(z)}{dz} = \sigma(z)(1-z)$$

$$\frac{d\tanh(z)}{dz} = 1 - \tanh^2(z)$$



Training Neural Nets: Best Practices

- Non-convex optimization problem
 - 1. initialize weights with small random numbers, preferably gaussians
 - 2. regularize to prevent over-fitting, e.g. **dropout**
- Optimization techniques for gradient descent
 - momentum, RMSProp, Adam, etc.

Parameters vs Hyperparameters

- Parameters are learned by gradient descent
 - e.g. weights matrix *W* and biases *b*
- Hyperparameters are set prior to learning
 - e.g. learning rate, mini-batch size, model architecture (number of layers, number of hidden units per layer, choice of activation functions), regularization technique
 - require to be tuned

Neural Language Models

Predicting upcoming words from prior word context

Neural Language Models

- Feed-forward neural LM is a standard feedforward network that takes as input at time *t* a representation of some number of previous words $(w_{t-1}, w_{t-2}...)$ and outputs probability distribution over possible next words
- Advantages
 - don't need smoothing
 - can handle much longer histories
 - generalize over context of similar words
 - higher predictive accuracy
- Uses include machine translation, dialog, language generation

Embeddings

- Mapping from words in vocabulary V to vectors of real numbers e
- Each word may be represented as **one hot-vector** of length |V|

- Concatenate each of N context vectors for preceding words
- Long, sparse, hard to generalize. Can we learn a concise representation?

Embeddings

• Allow neural n-gram LM to generalize to unseen data better

"I have to make sure when I get home to feed the cat."

If we've never seen the word "dog" after "feed the", n-gram LM will predict "cat" given the prefix. But neural LM makes use of similarity of embeddings to assign a reasonably high probability to both *dog* and *cat*

Embeddings

Moving window at time twith **pre-trained** embedding vector, say using *word2vec* for each of three previous words w_{t-1} , w_{t-2} , and w_{t-3} , concatenated to produce input



Learning Embeddings for Neural n-gram LM

- Task may place strong constraints on what makes a good *representation*
- To learn embeddings, add an extra layer to the network and propagate errors all the way back to the embedding vectors
- Represent each of N previous words as one hot-vector of length |V|, and learn an embedding matrix $E \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times V}$ such that for one-hot column vector x_i for word V_i , the **projection layer** is $Ex_i = e_i$

Learning Embeddings: Forward Pass

$$a^{[0]} = e = (Ex_1, Ex_2, ..., Ex_n)$$

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}a^{[0]} + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[1]} = g^{[1]}(z^{[1]})$$

$$z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$\hat{y} = a^{[2]} = g^{[2]}(z^{[2]})$$

 $P(w_{t}_{t} | w_{t-1}, w_{t-2}, w_{t-3})$



Training the Neural Language Model

- To set all the parameters θ = E,W,U,b, we do gradient descent using error back propagation on the computation graph to compute gradient
- Loss Function: cross-entropy (negative log likelihood)

$$L = -\log p(w_{t_i} | w_{t-1}, w_{t-2}, w_{t-n+1})$$

Training the parameters to minimize loss will result both in an algorithm for language modeling (a word predictor) but also a new set of embeddings E

Summary

- Neural networks are built out of **neural units**, which take weighted sum of inputs and apply a non-linear **activation function** such as sigmoid, tanh, ReLU
- In a fully-connected **feed-forward network**, each unit in layer *i* is connected to each unit in layer *i* + 1, and there are no cycles
- Power of neural networks comes from the ability of early layers to learn representations that can be utilized by later layers in the network
- Neural networks are trained by optimization algorithms like gradient descent using error back-propagation on a computation graph
- Neural language models use a neural network as a probabilistic classifier, to compute the probability of the next word given the previous *n* words
- Neural language models can use pretrained embeddings, or can learn embeddings from scratch in the process of language modeling