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Neural Transfer Learning for Domain Adaptation in Natural Language Processing

Sara Meftah

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Neural Transfer Learning for Domain
Adaptation in Natural Language Processing
*Apprentissage par Transfert Neuronal pour
l'Adaptation aux Domaines en Traitement
Automatique de la Langue*

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Résumé en Français

Les méthodes d'apprentissage automatique qui reposent sur les Réseaux de Neurones (RNs) ont démontré des performances de prédiction qui s'approchent de plus en plus de la performance humaine dans plusieurs applications du Traitement Automatique des Langues (TAL) qui bénéficient de la capacité des différentes architectures des RNs à généraliser en exploitant les régularités apprises à partir d'exemples d'apprentissage. Toutefois, ces modèles sont limités par leur dépendance aux données annotées. En effet, pour être performants, ces modèles ont besoin de corpus annotés de taille importante. Par conséquent, uniquement les langues bien dotées peuvent bénéficier directement de l'avancée apportée par les RNs, comme par exemple les formes formelles des langues.

Dans le cadre de cette thèse, nous proposons des méthodes d'apprentissage par transfert neuronal pour la construction des outils de TAL pour les langues et domaines peu dotés en exploitant leurs similarités avec des langues et des domaines bien dotés. Précisément, nous expérimentons nos approches pour le transfert à partir du domaine source des textes formels vers le domaine cible des textes informels (langue utilisée dans les réseaux sociaux). Tout au long de cette thèse nous présentons différentes contributions. Tout d'abord, nous proposons deux approches pour le transfert des connaissances encodées dans les représentations neuronales d'un modèle source, pré-entraîné sur les données annotées du domaine source, vers un modèle cible, adapté par la suite sur quelques exemples annotés du domaine cible. La première méthode transfère des représentations contextuelles pré-entraînées sur le domaine source. Tandis que la deuxième méthode utilise des poids pré-entraînés pour initialiser les paramètres du modèle cible. Ensuite, nous effectuons une série d'analyses pour repérer les limites des méthodes proposées. Nous constatons que, même si l'approche d'apprentissage par transfert proposée améliore les résultats sur le domaine cible, un transfert négatif « dissimulé » peut atténuer le gain final apporté par l'apprentissage par transfert. De plus, une analyse interprétative du modèle pré-entraîné montre que les neurones pré-entraînés peuvent être biaisés par ce qu'ils ont appris du domaine source, et donc peuvent avoir des difficultés à apprendre des « patterns » spécifiques au domaine cible. Suite à cette analyse, nous proposons un nouveau schéma d'adaptation qui augmente le modèle cible avec des neurones normalisés, pondérés et initialisés aléatoirement permettant une meilleure adaptation au domaine cible tout en conservant les connaissances apprises du domaine source. Enfin, nous proposons une approche d'apprentissage par transfert qui permet de tirer profit des similarités entre différentes tâches, en plus des connaissances pré-apprises du domaine source.

Mots clés: Apprentissage par transfert, Adaptation aux domaines, réseaux de neurones, Langues et domaines peu dotés, Étiquetage de séquences

Abstract

Recent approaches based on end-to-end deep neural networks have revolutionised Natural Language Processing (NLP), achieving remarkable results in several tasks and languages. Nevertheless, these approaches are limited with their *gluttony* in terms of annotated data, since they rely on a supervised training paradigm, *i.e.* training from scratch on large amounts of annotated data. Therefore, there is a wide gap between NLP technologies capabilities for high-resource languages compared to the long tail of low-resourced languages. Moreover, NLP researchers have focused much of their effort on training NLP models on the news domain, due to the availability of training data. However, many research works have highlighted that models trained on news fail to work efficiently on out-of-domain data, due to their lack of robustness against domain shifts.

This thesis presents a study of transfer learning approaches through which we propose different methods to take benefit from the pre-learned knowledge from high-resourced domains to enhance the performance of neural NLP models in low-resourced settings. Precisely, we apply our approaches to transfer from the news domain to the social media domain. Indeed, despite the importance of its valuable content for a variety of applications (*e.g.* public security, health monitoring, or trends highlight), this domain is still lacking in terms of annotated data. We present different contributions. First, we propose two methods to transfer the knowledge encoded in the neural representations of a source model – pretrained on large labelled datasets from the source domain – to the target model, further adapted by a fine-tuning on few annotated examples from the target domain. The first transfers supervisedly-pretrained contextualised representations, while the second method transfers pretrained weights used to initialise the target model’s parameters. Second, we perform a series of analysis to spot the limits of the above-mentioned proposed methods. We find that even though transfer learning enhances the performance on social media domain, a hidden negative transfer might mitigate the final gain brought by transfer learning. Besides, an interpretive analysis of the pretrained model shows that pretrained neurons may be biased by what they have learnt from the source domain, thus struggle with learning uncommon target-specific patterns. Third, stemming from our analysis, we propose a new adaptation scheme which augments the target model with normalised, weighted and randomly initialised neurons that beget a better adaptation while maintaining the valuable source knowledge. Finally, we propose a model that, in addition to the pre-learned knowledge from the high-resource source-domain, takes advantage of various supervised NLP tasks.

Keywords: Transfer Learning, Domain Adaptation, Neural Networks, Low-resource languages and domains, Sequence labelling

Glossary

AI: Artificial Intelligence
CK: Chunking
DP: Dependency Parsing
HRLs: High-Resource Languages
LRLs: Low-Resource Languages
LM: Language Model
MST: Morpho-Syntactic Tagging
MSDs: Morpho-Syntactic Descriptions
NLP: Natural Language Processing
NMT: Neural Machine Translation
NER: Named Entity Recognition
OOV: Out-Of-Vocabulary
PTB: Penn TreeBank
POS: Part-Of-Speech tagging
SOTA: State-Of-The-Art
SM: Social Media
UGC: User-Generated-Content
WSJ: Wall Street Journal
WEs: Word-level Embeddings
CEs: Character-level Embeddings
NNs: Neural Networks
DNNs: Deep Neural Networks
RNNs: Recurrent Neural Networks
LSTM: Long Short-Term Memory
biLSTM: bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory
CNNs: Convolutional Neural Networks
FCL: Fully Connected Layer
MLP: Milti-Layer Perceptron
SGD: Stochastic Gradient Descent
SCE: Softmax Cross-Entropy

TL: Transfer Learning
MTL: Multi-Task Learning
STL: Sequential Transfer Learning
DA: Domain Adaptation
biLM: bidirectional Language Model
ELMo: Embeddings from Language Models
BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers
SFT: Standard Fine-Tuning
CEs: Character-level Embeddings
WEs: Word-level Embeddings
UD: Universal Dependencies
WRE: Word Representation Extractor
FE: Feature Extractor
MuTSPAd: **M**ulti-**T**ask **S**upervised **P**re-training and **A**daptation

Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Résumé en Français	ii
Abstract	iii
Glossary	iv
1 Introduction	1
1.1 Context	1
1.2 Problems	2
1.2.1 NLP for Low-Resource Languages	2
1.2.2 User Generated Content in Social Media: a Low-Resource Domain	5
1.3 Motivation	6
1.4 Main Contributions	7
1.5 Thesis Outline	8
2 State-of-the-art: Transfer Learning	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 Formalisation	12
2.3 Taxonomy	13
2.4 What to Transfer?	14
2.4.1 Transfer of Linguistic Annotations	14
2.4.2 Transfer of Instances	16
2.4.3 Transfer of Learned Representations	19
2.5 How to Transfer Neural Representations?	20
2.5.1 Domain-Adversarial Neural Networks	20
2.5.2 Multi-Task Learning	22
2.5.3 Sequential Transfer Learning	25
2.6 Why Transfer?	27
2.6.1 Universal Representations	27
2.6.2 Domain Adaptation	32
2.7 Discussion	33

3	State-of-the-art: Interpretability Methods for Neural NLP	35
3.1	Introduction	35
3.2	Descriptive Methods: What?	37
3.2.1	Representation-level Visualisation	37
3.2.2	Individual Units Stimulus	38
3.2.3	Probing Classifiers	39
3.2.4	Neural Representations Correlation Analysis	39
3.2.5	Features Erasure (Ablations)	40
3.3	Explicative Methods: Why?	41
3.3.1	Selective Rationalisation	41
3.3.2	Attention Explanations	43
3.3.3	Gradients-based Methods	44
3.3.4	Surrogate Models	44
3.3.5	Counterfactual explanations	45
3.3.6	Influence Functions	45
3.4	Mechanistic Methods: How?	46
3.5	Discussion	46
4	Background: NLP Tasks and Datasets	48
4.1	Introduction	48
4.2	POS tagging	49
4.3	Morpho-Syntactic Tagging	50
4.4	Chunking	50
4.5	Named Entity Recognition	51
4.6	Dependency Parsing	51
4.7	Evaluation Metrics	54
5	Sequential Transfer Learning from News to Social Media	57
5.1	Introduction	57
5.2	Standard Supervised Training for Sequence Tagging	58
5.2.1	Neural Sequence Labelling Model	58
5.2.2	Experimental Results	62
5.3	Proposed Methods	66
5.3.1	General Transfer Learning Problem Formulation	66
5.3.2	Our Approaches	67
5.4	Experimental Results	69
5.4.1	Transferring Supervisedly-Pretrained Representations	70
5.4.2	Transferring Pretrained Models	71
5.4.3	Comparing the Proposed Transfer Methods	76

5.4.4	The Impact of ELMo Contextual Representations	77
5.5	In-Depth Analysis	79
5.5.1	Extremely Low-Resource Settings	80
5.5.2	The impact of model size	81
5.5.3	The Impact of Transfer Learning on Convergence	81
5.5.4	The impact of the pretraining state	82
5.5.5	What Does Transfer Learning Improve?	83
5.6	Conclusion	85
6	Neural Domain Adaptation by Joint Learning of Pretrained and Random Units	87
6.1	Introduction	87
6.2	Analysis of the Standard Fine-tuning Scheme of Transfer Learning	89
6.2.1	Experimental Setup	90
6.2.2	Analysis of the Hidden Negative Transfer	90
6.2.3	Interpreting the Bias in Pretrained Models	95
6.2.4	Conclusion	102
6.3	The Proposed Method: PretRand	103
6.3.1	Method Description	103
6.3.2	Experimental Results	106
6.3.3	Analysis	114
6.4	Conclusion	120
7	Multi-task Pretraining and Adaptation	121
7.1	Introduction	121
7.2	Proposed Approach	122
7.2.1	Basic Models	123
7.2.2	Multi-Task Learning	125
7.2.3	MuTSPad: Multi-Task Supervised Pretraining and Adaptation	127
7.2.4	Heterogeneous Multi-Task Learning	129
7.3	Experiments	130
7.3.1	Datasets	130
7.3.2	Comparison methods	130
7.3.3	Implementation details	132
7.4	Results	133
7.4.1	Comparison to SOTA and Baselines	133
7.4.2	Impact of Datasets Unification	134
7.4.3	Low-Level Tasks Importance Analysis	135
7.5	Conclusion	136
8	Conclusions and Perspectives	138

8.1	Conclusions	138
8.2	Perspectives	140
8.2.1	Short-term Perspectives	141
8.2.2	Long-term Perspectives	143
Appendix A List of Publications		145
Appendix B Tagsets		147
B.1	TPoS Tagset	147
B.2	ArK Tagset	148
B.3	TweeBank POS Tagset	149
B.4	TChunk Chunking Tagset	150
B.5	Universal Dependencies	151
Appendix C Résumé En Français		152
Bibliographie		193

1 | Introduction

1.1 Context

Human language is fascinating; it expresses thoughts for various aims, *e.g.* information, questions, orders, etc. According to Ethnologue,¹ the online encyclopedia of language, there are 7,139 distinct languages spoken in the world. The list includes formal languages, such as English, Chinese, Arabic, etc. but also their varieties, such as Arabic dialects (*e.g.* Algerian and Egyptian) or Chinese dialects (*e.g.* Mandarin and Gan).

Natural Language Processing (NLP) is a field of Artificial Intelligence (AI) that allows human-computer communication. Precisely, NLP aims to produce tools to understand (Natural Language Understanding) and generate (Natural Language Generation) human language. Various NLP applications have been developed to facilitate humans life. For instance, machine translation (*e.g.* Google Translate [385], DeepL, etc), Dialogue Systems (*e.g.* Siri, Alexa, etc.), text summarization [322, 236, 206], fraud detection [126, 94] and information extraction from electronic health records [286, 106].

Historically, the interest in building NLP tools to imitate humans brain has passed through several milestones and dates back to the 50s. First, Alan Turing's *Thinking Machine* [361], an "imitation game that investigates whether machines can think". It consists in a real-time artificial conversational agent (chatbot) that attempts to imitate human writing sufficiently well that the human judge (interlocutor) is unable to distinguish reliably between the chatbot and the human, based solely on the conversational content. Later, Noam Chomsky's seminal work, *Syntactic Structures* [61], have revolutionised linguistics by constructing a formalised general theory to produce a deep-level linguistic structure of sentences in a format that is usable by computers.

Up to the 80s, most NLP systems were rule-based (a symbolic approach), *i.e.* founded on sets of rules that are hand-written by experts. For instance, the Brill part-of-speech tagger [43]; ELIZA, the rule-based artificial psychotherapist [376] and SHRDLU, the English natural language understanding program [382]. Such methods work extremely well but rely heavily on hand-crafted features and domain-specific resources (morphological, orthographic and lexical features as well as external resources such as gazetteers or dictionaries). However, designing such domain-specific knowledge that captures all the possible scenarios is time-consuming and a

¹ <https://www.ethnologue.com> (04-2021)

tedious labour, making NLP models limited to the domain they had been designed for and thus difficult to adapt to new tasks and domains.

Further, in the late 80s, the introduction of machine learning algorithms was the snowball which triggered an avalanche of statistical methods for NLP [250]. For instance, n-gram language modelling for speech recognition [22], part-of-speech tagging using hidden Markov models [74] and word sense disambiguation using Bayesian classifiers [393]. These methods have allowed bypassing the flexibility problem of rule-based systems by learning rules automatically from data. However, even if they do not require rules to follow, they still need some human effort for feature-engineering. Thus they constrain the flexibility of NLP models for new domains and languages.

Thereafter, throughout the past ten years, and in conjunction with the steady increase of the computational and storage power, recent approaches based on end-to-end Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have revolutionised NLP. Their success is mainly attributed to their ability to extract a multi-layered hierarchy of features, directly from data and without any need of hand-crafted features. Specifically, DNNs models found their niche in NLP in 2001 with the first neural language model, based on a feed-forward neural network [31]. Several studies [165] have shown that NNs architectures, from fully-connected networks to more complex architectures like Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [319] and its variants (Long Short-Term Memory networks - LSTMs [150] and Gated Recurrent Units - GRUs [62]), and Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [71, 173], represent a practical approach to extract morphological information (root, prefix, suffix, etc.) from words and encode it into neural representations, especially for morphologically rich languages [59, 210].

Nevertheless, DNNs models are in most cases based on a supervised learning paradigm, *i.e.* trained from scratch on large amounts of labelled examples to learn a function that maps these examples (inputs) to labels (outputs). Consequently, the great success of neural networks models for NLP ensued also from the community efforts on creating annotated datasets. For instance, CoNLL 2003 [355] for English named entity recognition, SNLI for Natural Language Inference [42] and EuroParl [174] for Machine Translation, etc. Therefore, models with high performance often require huge volumes of *manually* annotated data to produce high results and prevent over-fitting [135]. However, manual annotation is time-consuming. As a consequence, throughout the past years, research in NLP has focused on well-resourced languages, specifically standard forms of languages, like English, French, German, etc.

1.2 Problems

1.2.1 NLP for Low-Resource Languages

Low-Resource Languages (LRLs) are languages lacking sufficient linguistic resources for building statistical NLP models compared to High-Resource Languages (HRLs). Many definitions

were attributed to LRLs. According to Low Resource Languages for Emergent Incidents (LORELEI),² LRLs are “languages for which no automated human language technology capability exists”.³ According to Cieri *et al.* [63], LRLs may be classified into two categories: Endangered Languages are moribund because of “the risk of losing their native speakers through death and shift to other languages”, like indigenous languages. In comparison, critical languages are standard languages spoken in their homelands but suffer from a lack of language resources. However, these definitions are loose. According to Duong [98], there is a disparity within the same language depending on the NLP task. Specifically, he considers that a language may be low-resourced for a given task if there are no available language resources to automatically perform the said task with good performance; “A language is considered low-resourced for a given task if there is no algorithm using currently available data to do the task with adequate performance automatically”. For instance, Spanish has been considered as high-resourced for part-of-speech tagging task but low-resourced for sentiment analysis [404].⁴

Most world’s languages and varieties are low-resourced in terms of annotated datasets that are essential for building statistical NLP models. According to ELRA (European Language Resources Association), less than 2% have some Language Technologies (LT) with various levels of quality.⁵ Furthermore, most of popular NLP technologies support only a small number of languages, *e.g.* actually *Google Translate* supports 109 out of 6,909 languages with an outstanding gap between LRLs and HRLs in terms of the quality of translations [399]. Notably, an interesting recent report [380] studied the issue of LRLs long-tail in NLP applications. First, the report outlines that, mainly, long-tail languages are from low-income countries, *e.g.* only 3% of languages supported by *Dialogflow*⁶ are spoken by those living on countries with less than \$1.90 income per day, as a function of the availability of training data. This substantial gap between LRLs and HRLs in terms of language technologies deepens and exacerbates the discrimination and inequality between populations.

Recently, Joshi *et al.* [164] defined a taxonomy for languages based on data availability. As illustrated in Figure 1.1, languages that are widely spoken are suffering from a lack of available unlabelled and labelled data. For instance, Africa, with a population of 1.2 billion, has a high linguistic diversity between 1.5k and 2k languages [399], most of which have not attracted enough the attention of NLP technologies providers. This is due to two main reasons: the low commercial benefits from low-income countries and the difficulty of the informal nature of the language used by low-income populations, with code-switching and languages varieties.

² A DARPA program that aims to advance the state of computational linguistics and human Language Technology (LT) for low-resource languages.

³ <https://www.darpa.mil/program/low-resource-languages-for-emergent-incident>s

⁴ It should be noted that there are different types of linguistic resources. *Monolingual data*, like crawled monolingual data from the web and Wikipedia; *Comparable and bilingual corpora*; *Bilingual dictionaries*; *Annotated data*, *lexicons* (expert description of the morphology and phonology of languages).

⁵ <http://www.elra.info/en/elra-events/lt4all/>

⁶ <https://dialogflow.com/>

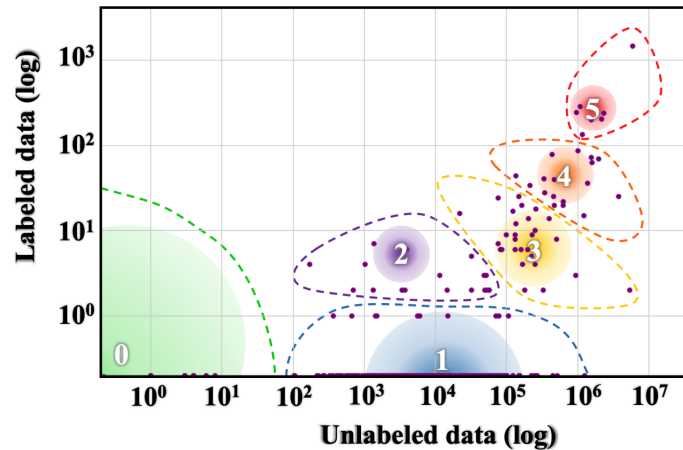


Figure 1.1 – Language resources distribution (The size of a circle represents the number of languages and speakers in each category) - Source: [164].

After years of neglect, there is a raising awareness (by researchers, companies, international organisations and governments) about the opportunities of developing NLP technologies for LRLs. This emergent interest is mainly for social-good reasons, *e.g.* emergency response to natural disasters like Haiti earthquake [244, 279], identifying outbreaks of diseases like COVID-19 [205], population mental health monitoring [46], etc. This interest has also been through new workshops dedicated for LRLs, like SLTU-CCURL; Joint Workshop of SLTU (Spoken Language Technologies for Under-resourced languages) and CCURL (Collaboration and Computing for Under-Resourced Languages) [28]. Moreover, international programs like the UNESCO international conference Language Technologies for All (LT4All),⁷ aiming to encourage linguistic diversity and multilingualism worldwide.

It should be noted that the increasing attention dedicated to LRLs is in parallel with the AI community interest on the ethical side of AI applications and its possible consequences on society. For instance, the *Montreal Declaration of Responsible AI*⁸ promotes ethical and social principles for the development of AI, *e.g.* *equity* (reducing inequalities and discrimination based on social, sexual, ethnic, cultural, or religious differences) and *inclusion* (AI must be inclusive and reflect the diversity of the individuals and groups of the society). Also, Cedric Villani’s report,⁹ which defines the AI strategy for the French government, highlights the importance of inclusion and ethics principles. Furthermore, the international cooperation PMIA (*Partenariat Mondial sur l’Intelligence Artificielle*) has been recently launched with a particular interest for responsible AI.

⁷ <https://en.unesco.org/LT4All>

⁸ <https://www.montrealdeclaration-responsibleai.com/>

⁹ <https://www.vie-publique.fr/sites/default/files/rapport/pdf/184000159.pdf>

1.2.2 User Generated Content in Social Media: a Low-Resource Domain

Low-resource NLP does not concern only languages, but also domains. There is a wide gap between NLP technologies capabilities for the news domain, *i.e.* formal language, compared to the long tail of specific domains. Indeed, NLP researchers have focused much of their effort on learning NLP models for the news domain, due to the availability of training data [24]. However, it has been highlighted in many research works that models trained on news fail to work efficiently on out-of-domain data, due to their lack of robustness against domain shifts. For instance, the accuracy of the Stanford part-of-speech tagger [358] trained on the Wall Street Journal part of Penn Treebank [215] falls from 97% on formal English news to 85% accuracy on English Tweets [122]. Likewise, Scheible *et al.* [317] observed a severe accuracy drop of the TreeTagger [318] part-of-speech tagger from 97% on German news to 69.6% on early modern German. Similarly, Derczynski *et al.* [84] found that named entity recognition model falls from 89% F1 on the news domain to 41% on the Tweets domain.

Particularly, throughout the few past years, Social Media (SM) platforms have revolutionised inter-individuals, inter-groups, and inter-communities communication [168] and thus have succeeded to attract billions of users in record time, since they were offered an active role on the internet, where they can easily interconnect and generate content in various forms of content: words, pictures, audio, and videos [242]. This rapid growth gave rise to an enormous and plentiful flow of User-Generated-Content (UGC). This content has been proven to be a valuable and reliable source of information for various NLP applications [121], *e.g.* fact-checking [36], stance detection [237], trends highlight [140], language identification [312], hate speech detection [213, 241, 129, 170], public security [12], preventing human trafficking [52, 356, 45], or health monitoring such as mental health [72, 46]. Besides, it has been shown recently that UGC in social media is an impulse for the emergence of linguistic structures [293].

More importantly, many new scopes dedicated to NLP of LRLs have been created thanks to UGC. Indeed, SM platforms are snowballing among developing countries populations, where they can express and exchange in their native languages (LRLs in most cases) [111]. These forthcoming opportunities have promoted the organisation of multiple regular NLP workshops dedicated to SM content analysis, such as LASM (Workshop on Language Analysis in Social Media) [107], SocialNLP (Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Social Media) [177] and W-NUT (Workshop on Noisy User-generated Text) [388].

As aforementioned, traditional NLP models trained on news are not efficient enough for SM texts (out-of-domain) compared to their performance on news (in-domain) [271]. This is due to the informal and conversational nature of SM texts [108] with more similarities in common with spoken language than classical formally written one [101], *e.g.* the lack of conventional orthography, the noise, linguistic, spelling and grammatical errors, the idiosyncratic style, the use of improper sentence structure and mixed languages, lack of context, inconsistent (or absent) punctuation and capitalisation (which may complicate finding sentence boundaries [307]),

acronyms: “laugh out loud”→“lol”, “as soon as possible”→“asap”, “as far as I know”→“afaik”, “rolled on the floor laughing”→“rofl”, etc., letters repetition (“heyyyyyy”, “NOOO”), slangs (*e.g.* “gobsmacked”, “knackered”), contractions (*e.g.* “I am not”→“ain’t”, “I am going to”→“imma”, “want to”→“wanna”, etc.), use of emoticons or emojis, colloquial expressions. In addition, code-switching (*i.e.* many languages and dialects are used in the same sentence [18, 116]) poses an additional hurdle [312, 13, 321].

1.3 Motivation

Notwithstanding that neural NLP models have succeeded to achieve remarkable results in several well-resourced tasks, languages, and domains such as the news domain, they are limited by their *gluttony* in terms of annotated data. In addition, given the vast diversity of languages, dialects, domains and tasks in the world, having manually-annotated datasets for each setting is laboured. Furthermore, these models are often effective only within the domain wherein they were trained, causing difficulties when attempting to generalise to new domains such as the social media domain.

It has been shown in many works in the literature [297, 397, 146] that, in second language acquisition [118] by humans when learning a second language (L2), the first language (L1) knowledge plays an important role to boost the learning process, by assimilating and subsuming new L2 knowledge into already existing cognitive structures for L1 [352]. Similarly, in artificial neural networks, languages, tasks, varieties, and domains may share some common knowledge about language (*e.g.* linguistic representations, structural and semantic similarities, etc.). Therefore, relevant knowledge previously learned in a source NLP problem can be exploited to help to solve a new target NLP problem. Hence, the main research question of the present thesis is “*How can we best improve the performance of NLP neural models for low-resource domains with small annotated datasets, by exploiting large annotated source datasets from related high-resource source domains?*”.

To respond to our research question, Transfer Learning (TL) [357] is a promising method that has been shown to be efficient for NLP and outperforms the standard supervised learning paradigm, because it takes benefit from the pre-learned knowledge. In addition, it permits to make use of as much supervision as available. The work of this thesis is based on the intuition that SM domain is an informal variety of the news domain.¹⁰ As illustrated in Figure 1.2, in the same Tweet (UGC in Twitter), one can find a part which is formal and the other which is informal. For this, we develop and study the efficiency of different TL techniques to overcome the sparse annotated-data problem in the SM domain by leveraging the huge annotated data from the news domain. Specifically, in this work, we consider the supervised domain adaptation setting, having a large amount of labelled data from a source domain and – additionally – few

¹⁰Here we use the term “domain” to denote a language variety.

labelled examples from the target domain.

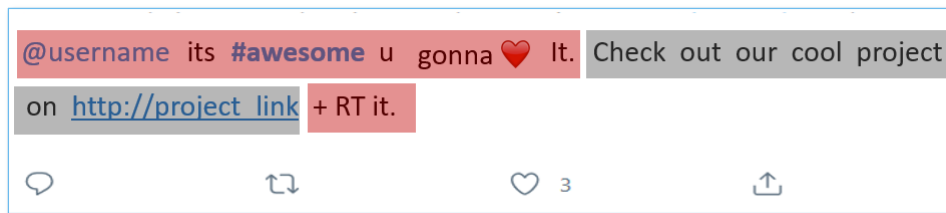


Figure 1.2 – Example of a Tweet. Grey segments show expressions similar to formal texts and red ones show social media domain’s specific expressions (informal).

1.4 Main Contributions

As major contributions of this thesis, we particularly refer to the followings:¹¹

- **The first contribution** is placed within the framework of sequential transfer learning from the source *news* domain to the target *social media* domain, which aims to induce an inductive bias to improve the performance of NLP tasks in a low-resource regime. The goal is to better exploit the learned knowledge in a source model, previously trained on the high-resourced news-domain. For this purpose, we propose two simple yet effective methods (§5.3). In the first, the pre-learned knowledge is transferred to the target model in the form of *contextual representations*. In the second method, the pre-learned knowledge is transferred in the form of *pre-trained weights* used to initialise the target model’s parameters.
- **The second contribution** is in the continuum of the precedent contribution and aims to shed light on the *hidden negative transfer* when transferring pretrained weights from the news domain to the social media domain. Indeed, it is known that when the source and target domains are dissimilar, standard transfer learning may fail and hurt the performance by conducting to a negative transfer [300]. We show through quantitative and qualitative analysis that even if sequential transfer learning, proposed in the first contribution, enhances the performance on social media domain, a *hidden negative transfer* from the news domain to the social media domain may mitigate the final gain brought by transfer learning (§6.2.2).
- **The third contribution** is with the same objective as the previous one, aiming to spot the limits of the standard sequential transfer learning method. More precisely, through a set of interpretive methods, we investigate how the internal representations (individual neurons) of models pretrained on news domain are updated during fine-tuning on the social media domain (§6.2.3). We find that although capable of adapting to new domains, some

¹¹In this thesis, we focus on the SM domain, but our methods are flexible to transfer to other domains.

pretrained neurons are biased by what they have learnt in the source dataset, thus struggle with learning unusual target-specific patterns, which may explain the observed hidden negative transfer.

- **The fourth contribution:** Stemming from our analysis, we propose an extension of the standard adaptation scheme (fine-tuning) of sequential transfer learning. To do so, we propose to *augment the pretrained model with randomly initialised layers*. Specifically, we propose a method that takes benefit from both worlds, supervised learning from scratch and transfer learning, without their drawbacks. Our approach is composed of three modules: (1) Augmenting the source-model (set of pre-trained neurons) with a random branch composed of randomly initialised neurons, and jointly learn them; (2) Normalising the outputs of both branches to balance their different behaviours. (3) Applying attention learnable weights on both branches predictors to let the network learn which of random or pre-trained one is better for every class (§6.3).
- **The fifth contribution** is an extension of our precedent contributions where we performed *mono-source mono-target* transfer learning, *i.e.* both pre-training and fine-tuning are performed on a single task. Here, we propose a *multi-source multi-target* transfer learning approach to overcome the rare annotated data problem in social media. Our approach consists in learning a multi-task transferable model which leverages diverse linguistic properties from multiple supervised NLP tasks from the news source domain, further fine-tuned on multiple tasks from the social media target domain (§7.2).

1.5 Thesis Outline

This manuscript is organised as follow. **Chapter 2** and **chapter 3** discuss the state-of-the-art with regard to our two research directions: Transfer learning and neural NLP models interpretability, respectively. For each, we propose a categorisation of the current works of the literature. **Chapter 4** provides an overview of the NLP tasks and datasets involved in this thesis as well as evaluation metrics. Then, the following chapters describe the different contributions that we have made during the course of this thesis. **Chapter 5** describes our start-up contributions to overcome the problem of the lack of annotated data in low-resource domains and languages. Precisely, two sequential transfer learning approaches are discussed: “transfer of supervisedly-pretrained contextual representations” and “transfer of pretrained models”. **Chapter 6** describes three of our contributions. First, it sheds light on the hidden negative transfer arising when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain. Second, an interpretive analysis of individual pre-trained neurons behaviours is performed in different settings, finding that pretrained neurons are biased by what they have learnt in the source-dataset. Third, we propose a new adaptation scheme, PretRand, to overcome these issues. **Chapter 7** presents a new approach, MuTSPad, a multi-source multi-target transfer learning approach to overcome the rare annotated data problem

in the social media by learning a multi-task transferable model, which leverages various linguistic properties from multiple supervised NLP tasks. **Chapter 8** finally summarises our findings and contributions and provides some perspective research directions.

2 | State-of-the-art: Transfer Learning

2.1 Introduction

In this thesis we focus on the Social Media (SM) domain. Ideally, we have at our disposal enough annotated SM texts to train NLP models dedicated for the SM domain. However, this last is actually still lacking in terms of annotated data. In the following, we present three common approaches that were adopted in the literature to deal with this issue:

- **Normalisation** is a prominent approach to deal with the informal nature of the User-Generated-Content (UGC) in SM [143, 144, 145, 363]. It consists in mapping SM (informal) texts into formal texts by reducing the noise (orthographic and syntactical anomalies). For instance, ideally, “imma” is normalised into “I’m going to”, “Lol” into “lough out loud”, “u’r” into “you are”, “gimme” into “give me”, “OMG” into “oh my god”, repetitions like “happyy”, “noooo” and “hahahaha” into “happy”, “no” and “haha”. There are many approaches in the literature to perform normalisation. We can cite rule-based approaches [9, 212, 41, 100, 23] and noisy-channel methods [73]. Also, machine translation based approaches view the task of normalisation as a translation problem from the SM language to the formal language; *e.g.* using phrase-based statistical MT [20] or using a character-level machine translation model trained on a parallel corpus [261]. However, multiple works showed that the efficacy of normalisation for SM texts is limited [84, 247]. Indeed, in addition to be a difficult and an intensive task, normalisation is not flexible over time since SM language is constantly changing [102]. Also, normalisation may conceal the meaning of the original text [364], *e.g.* non-standard character repetitions and capitalisation may have a semantic meaning, “happpyyyy” could mean “very happy”, which may hide important signals for tasks like sentiment analysis.
- **Automatic Annotation** consists of tagging unlabelled SM data using off-the-shelf models (trained on news domain). The automatically annotated examples are subsequently used to train a new model for the SM domain. Generally, a voting strategy is used to select the “best” automatically annotated examples, *i.e.* a sentence is added to the training set if all models assign the same predictions to it. Horsmann & Zesch [152] experimented this voting approach on the predictions of ClearNLP [60] and OpenNLP Part-Of-Speech (POS)

taggers. Similarly, Derczynski *et al.* [86] performed a vote constrained bootstrapping [128] on unlabelled Tweets to increase the amounts of training examples for Tweets POS tagging. Besides, crowd-sourcing [113] has also been used to obtain large manually annotated SM datasets, at low cost but with lower quality since examples are not annotated by experts but by online users. However, Horbach *et al.* [151] showed that extending the training set with automatically annotated datasets leads to small improvement of POS tagging performance on German SM texts. In contrast, a much bigger improvement of performance can be obtained by using small amounts of manually annotated from the SM domain.

- **Mixed Training** is used when small annotated data-sets from the SM domain are available. It consists in training the model on a mix of large annotated data from out-of-domain well-resourced domains with small amounts of annotated examples from the SM domain [151]. However, since out-of-domain examples are more frequent in the training phase, the effect of out-of-domain data will dominate that of SM data. In order to overcome this issue, weighting and oversampling methods are commonly used to balance the two domains and thus make the SM examples more competitive to the out-of-domain ones. For instance, Daumé III [80], Horsmann & Zesch [152] and Neunerdt *et al.* [246] experimented mixed-training with oversampling for SM POS tagging by adding annotated examples from the SM domain multiple times and using different strategies.

In this thesis, we propose to develop and study the effectiveness of different Transfer Learning techniques to overcome the sparse annotated-data problem in the social media domain by leveraging annotated datasets from the high-resource source news-domain.

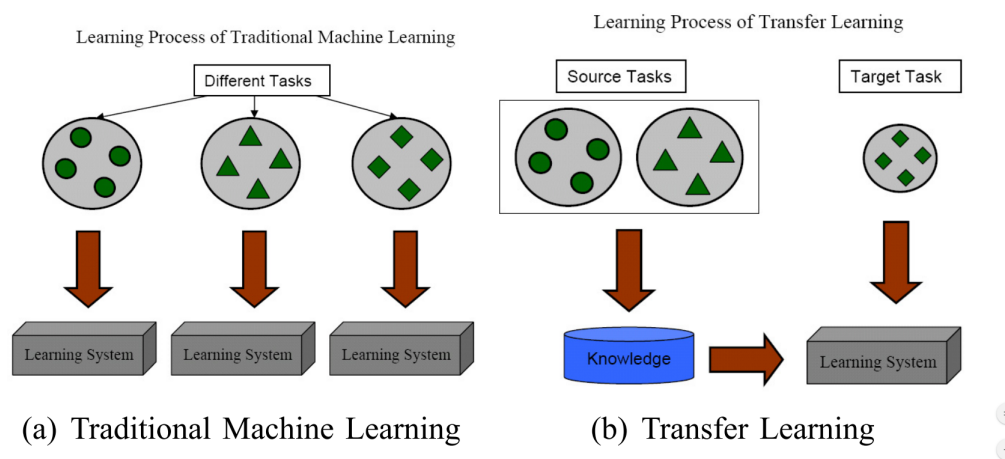


Figure 2.1 – Standard supervised training scheme vs Transfer Learning [257].

Transfer Learning (TL) is an approach that allows handling the problem of the lack of annotated data, whereby relevant knowledge previously learned in a source problem is leveraged to help in solving a new target problem [257]. TL relies on a model learned on a *source-task* with sufficient data, further adapted to the *target-task* of interest.

TL is similar to the natural process of learning, which is a sequential long-life developmental process [50]. In simple words, when humans tackle new problems, they make use of what they have learned before from past related problems. Consider the example of two people who want to learn Spanish. One person is native in the French language, and the other person is native Indian. Considering the high similarities between French and English languages, the person already speaking French will be able to learn Spanish more rapidly.

Here, we overview works and approaches related to transfer learning for NLP with a focus on neural transfer learning. Note that transfer learning is a broad topic; our survey is necessarily incomplete. We try nevertheless to cover major lines related to the contributions of this thesis. The remainder of the following sub-sections is organised as follows. We start by presenting the formalisation of the transfer learning problem (§2.2). Then, we propose a taxonomy of transfer learning approaches and techniques (§2.3) based on three criteria: What to transfer? (§2.4); How to Transfer? (§2.5); and Why transfer? (§2.6). Finally, we wrap up by summarising the proposed categorisation of TL approaches and discussing the position of our work (§2.7).

2.2 Formalisation

Let us consider a domain $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{X}, P(X)\}$ consisting of two components:¹ the feature space \mathcal{X} and the marginal probability distribution $P(X)$, where $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathcal{X}$. For instance, for a sentiment analysis task, \mathcal{X} is the space of all document representations and X is the random variable associated with the sample of documents used for training.

Let us consider a task $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{Y}, P(Y), f\}$, where \mathcal{Y} is the label space, $P(Y)$ is the prior distribution, and f is the predictive function that transforms inputs to outputs: $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$. If we resume the sentiment analysis task, \mathcal{Y} is the set of all labels, *e.g.* it can be $\mathcal{Y} = \{\text{positive}, \text{negative}\}$.

In a supervised training paradigm, f is learned from n training examples: $\{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} : i \in (1, \dots, n)\}$. Therefore, the predictive function f corresponds to the joint conditional probability $P(Y|X)$.

In a transfer learning scenario, we have a source domain $\mathcal{D}_S = \{\mathcal{X}_S, P_S(X_S)\}$, a source task $\mathcal{T}_S = \{\mathcal{Y}_S, P_S(Y_S), f_S\}$, a target domain $\mathcal{D}_T = \{\mathcal{X}_T, P_T(X_T)\}$, and a target task $\mathcal{T}_T = \{\mathcal{Y}_T, P_T(X_T), f_T\}$, where $X_S = \{x_1^S, x_2^S, \dots, x_{n^S}^S\} \in \mathcal{X}_S$, $X_T = \{x_1^T, x_2^T, \dots, x_{n^T}^T\} \in \mathcal{X}_T$ and $n^S \gg n^T$. The aim behind using transfer learning is to improve the learning of the predictive target function f_T by leveraging the knowledge gained from \mathcal{D}_S and \mathcal{T}_S . Generally, in a transfer learning scheme, labelled training examples from the source domain $D_S = \{(x_i^S, y_i^S) \in \mathcal{X}_S \times \mathcal{Y}_S : i \in (1, \dots, n^S)\}$ are abundant. Concerning target domain, either a small number of labelled target examples $D_{T,l} = \{(x_i^{T,l}, y_i^{T,l}) \in \mathcal{X}_T \times \mathcal{Y}_T : i \in (1, \dots, n^{T,l})\}$, where $n^S \gg n^{T,l}$, or a large number of unlabelled target examples $D_{T,u} = \{(x_i^{T,u}) \in \mathcal{X}_T : i \in (1, \dots, n^{T,u})\}$ are assumed to be available.

¹ In this section, we follow the definitions and notations of Pan *et al.* [257], Weiss *et al.* [375] and Ruder [303].

From the above definitions, five scenarios of dissimilarities between source and target domains arise:

1. $\mathcal{X}_S \neq \mathcal{X}_T$: The feature spaces between the source and target domains are different. For sentiment analysis, it means that the documents samples of source and target documents do not share the same vocabulary, *e.g.* different languages, dialects or language varieties like user-generated texts in social media.
2. $P(X_S) \neq P(X_T)$: The marginal distributions in the feature spaces are different between the source and the target domains. For sentiment analysis, it means that source and target documents discuss different topics (cars, movies, politics, etc.) and thus the frequency of the used words may differ.
3. $\mathcal{Y}_S \neq \mathcal{Y}_T$: A mismatch between the class spaces of target and source domains. For sentiment analysis, for instance, we can be confronted to a source label space $\mathcal{Y}_S = \{positive, negative\}$, and a more fine-grained target label space $\mathcal{Y}_T = \{positive, neutral, negative\}$.
4. $P(Y_S) \neq P(Y_T)$: The prior distributions of the source and target tasks are different, which is generally due to a class imbalance between the source and target domains. For instance, in the source domain, the class *positive* can be a majority in the source domain but a minority in the target domain.
5. $P(Y_S|X_S) \neq P(Y_T|X_T)$: The conditional probability distributions are different. For sentiment analysis, an example is when a particular word or expression yields a different sentiment classification; positive sentiment in the source domain and negative sentiment in the target domain. For instance, “the word *small* can have a positive meaning if describing a cell phone but a bad meaning if describing a hotel room” [375] and “the word *soft* may evoke positive connotations in many contexts, but calling a hockey player soft would have a negative connotation” [142].

2.3 Taxonomy

The taxonomy of transfer learning was studied in multiple research works [351, 423, 257, 375] and for different areas, *e.g.* computer vision [334], NLP [303], speech recognition [232], and multi-modal applications [110].

The survey of Pan *et al.* [257] is the most widespread since it was the first paper providing a general formal definition of transfer learning with an extensive taxonomy that includes several domains. Pan *et al.* categorise transfer learning approaches under three sub-settings; according to the availability of labelled data in the target domain: 1) Inductive transfer learning: when labelled

data are available in the target domain and $\mathcal{T}_S \neq \mathcal{T}_T$. 2) Transductive transfer learning: when labelled data are only available in the source domain and $\mathcal{T}_S = \mathcal{T}_T$. 3) Unsupervised Transfer Learning: when labelled data are not available in both source and target domain. Weiss *et al.* [375] devise transfer learning settings into two categories. 1) Heterogeneous transfer learning is the case where $\mathcal{X}_S \neq \mathcal{X}_T$, *i.e.* the feature spaces between the source and target domains are different. Alternately, 2) homogeneous transfer learning is the case where $\mathcal{X}_S = \mathcal{X}_T$. Ruder [303] provides an overview of the literature of transfer learning in general with a focus on NLP applications. The taxonomy proposed by Ruder is an adapted version of the one proposed by Pan *et al.*. Recently, Ramponi & Plank [289] classified transfer learning into data-centric methods and model-centric methods.

Based on the former categorisations, we propose a three-dimensional categorisation of transfer learning in NLP; each answers a specific question:

1. **What to transfer?** asks which type of knowledge is transferred from the source domain to the target domain.
2. **How to transfer?** discusses the algorithms and methods used to transfer each type of knowledge. Note that each type of transferred knowledge has its own methods and algorithms.
3. **Why transfer?** discusses the different research objectives behind transfer learning from source to target domains.

2.4 What to Transfer?

Here we classify transfer learning approaches according to the type of the transferred knowledge. We distinguish three categories:

1. Transfer of linguistic annotations (§2.4.1): Unlabelled data from the target domain are automatically annotated with transferred annotations from the source data. Then, the new annotated target examples are used to train a new target model.
2. Transfer of instances (§2.4.2): A training on selected annotated source examples.
3. Transfer of learned representations (§2.4.3): Transferring representations consists in the reuse and/or modification of the underlying representations learnt from a source domain to boost the performance on a target domain.

2.4.1 Transfer of Linguistic Annotations

Cross-lingual projection of linguistic annotations [394] allows an automatic generation of linguistic annotations for low-resource languages. Precisely, the direct naive projection method

consists in projecting annotations from a high-resource language to a low-resource language through bilingual alignments from parallel corpora. Then, the automatically annotated target data are used to train the target model.²

Parallel corpora are made of pairs of translated documents. In simple words, a parallel corpus between two or more languages is composed of an original text in a particular language and its translation to the remaining languages [342]. For instance, European Parliament transactions (EuroParl) [174] contain parallel corpora between 11 European languages.

Bilingual alignments are constructed from parallel corpora and consist of links that correspond to a translation relation between portions of text from a pair of documents. The most common levels of alignment are word-level alignments [368, 329, 309, 308, 310, 311], multi-word-level alignments [330, 37, 214, 39, 38, 40, 327, 323, 331] and sentence-level alignments [58, 324, 326, 325, 256]. Many automatic word alignment tools are available, *e.g.* GIZA++ [253].

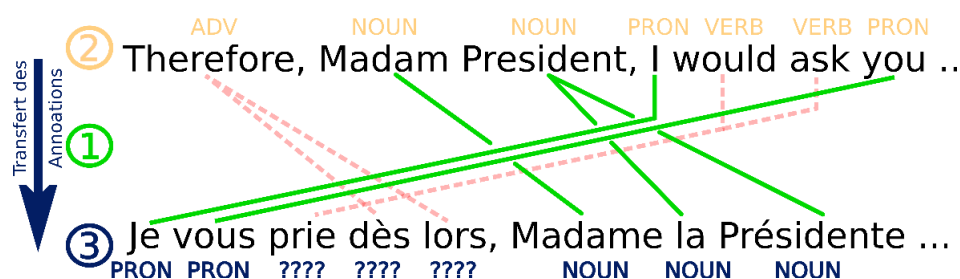


Figure 2.2 – Example of the projection of part-of-speech annotations. The source language is English and the target language is French. Source: [404].

An example of part-of-speech annotations projection from English to French is illustrated in Figure 2.2. First, a word-level alignment is performed between the two documents. Then, the source text is automatically annotated using the available tools for the source language. Finally, the annotations of English words are transferred to French words that are linked with them. For instance, the PRON (pronoun) tags from English words “I” and “you” are transferred onto the French translations “Je” and “vous”.

Annotations projection has been successfully applied on multiple NLP tasks, like part-of-speech tagging [3], syntactic chunking [394], dependency parsing [157, 179], named entity recognition [217] and semantic role labelling [8].

This method helps to get annotations cost-effectively. However, despite its popularity, the naive approach still suffers from many limitations. As illustrated in the example, this method of annotations projection does not always provide a fully annotated sentence in the target language. In addition, it may lead to false annotations due to incorrect words alignments, *e.g.* “la” is wrongly aligned with “President”, which leads to wrongly project the annotation of “President” to “la”. The drawbacks of this method have been discussed in many works in

² Multilingual projection of linguistic annotations is often considered in the literature as a weakly supervised learning technique.

the literature [256, 365, 8, 406, 405, 408, 407, 409], especially when the source and target languages are syntactically and morphologically different, and for multi-words expressions [328, 327, 323, 288, 331]. Indeed, the underlying assumption in annotations projection is a 1-to-1 correspondence of word sequences between language pairs [19], which is unrealistic even for languages from the same family. Since then, many improvements have been proposed to overcome these limitations. We can cite the work of Täckström *et al.* [346] who improved POS tags projections by adding external information sources such as dictionaries. In the same vein, Wisniewski *et al.* [383] exploited crowd-sourced constraints, and Wang & Manning [371] proposed to integrate softer constraints using expectation regularisation techniques. On another aspect, Zennaki *et al.* [409] proposed to extract a common (multilingual) and agnostic words representation from parallel or multi-parallel corpus between a resource-rich language and one or many target (potentially under-resourced) language(s).

When parallel text is available, “annotations projection is a reasonable first choice” [273]. Still, the main limitation of this method is its dependence to parallel corpora which are not available for all low-resource languages. In addition, it is limited to the cross-lingual setting of transfer learning [392] and thus not applicable to transfer between domains. It is not either applicable to transfer between tasks with different tag-sets, since this method assumes that $\mathcal{Y}_S = \mathcal{Y}_T$ or at least a 1-1 mapping between \mathcal{Y}_S and \mathcal{Y}_T is possible.

A related method to transfer annotations from a resource-rich language to a low-resource language is data translation which consists in translating labelled source data into the target language. This method has been proven to be successful in many applications. However, it suffers from translation noise, in addition to labelling mismatch and instance mismatch issues [97].

2.4.2 Transfer of Instances

Transferring instances consists in a training on a selection of annotated source examples. Two approaches are commonly used, *Instance Weighting* and *Instance Selection*.

Instance weighting consists in weighting source annotated instances with instance-dependent weights, which are then used to weight the loss function [161]. The weight assigned to an individual instance from the source domain is supposed to reflect the degree of similarity of the said instance to the target distribution.

Following the notations of Jiang [162], let $D_T = \{(x_i^T, y_i^T)\}_{i=1}^{N_T}$ be a set of training instances randomly sampled from the true underlying target joint distribution $P_T(X, Y)$ from the target domain \mathcal{D}_T . Typically, in machine learning, we aim to minimise the following objective function of some loss function $\mathcal{L}(x, y, f)$ in order to obtain the best predictive function from the hypothesis space $f_T^* \in \mathcal{H}$ with regard to $P_T(X, Y)$:

$$f_T^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(x,y) \in (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})} P_T(x, y) \mathcal{L}(x, y, f). \quad (2.1)$$

However, in reality $P_T(X, Y)$ is unknown, we thus aim to minimise the expected error in order to obtain the best predictive function from the hypothesis space $\hat{f}_T \in \mathcal{H}$ with regard to the empirical target distribution $\tilde{P}_T(X, Y)$:

$$\hat{f}_T = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(x,y) \in (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})} \tilde{P}_T(x, y) \mathcal{L}(x, y, f) = \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{i=1}^{i=N_T} \mathcal{L}(x_i^T, y_i^T, f). \quad (2.2)$$

When transferring instances, the objective is to find the optimal target model with only annotated examples from the source domain $D_S = \{(x_i^S, y_i^S)\}_{i=1}^{N_S}$, randomly sampled from the source distribution $P_S(X, Y)$. The above equation can be rewrote as such:

$$\begin{aligned} f_T^* &= \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(x,y) \in (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})} \frac{P_T(x, y)}{P_S(x, y)} P_S(x, y) \mathcal{L}(x, y, f) \\ &\approx \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{(x,y) \in (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})} \frac{P_T(x, y)}{P_S(x, y)} \tilde{P}_S(x, y) \mathcal{L}(x, y, f) \\ &= \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{i=1}^{i=N_S} \frac{P_T(x_i^S, y_i^S)}{P_S(x_i^S, y_i^S)} \mathcal{L}(x_i^S, y_i^S, f). \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

Consequently, a solution is to calculate the weight $\frac{P_T(x_i^S, y_i^S)}{P_S(x_i^S, y_i^S)}$ for each source example (x_i^S, y_i^S) . However, in practice, exact computation of $\frac{P_T(x, y)}{P_S(x, y)}$ is infeasible, mainly because labelled examples from the target domain are not available.

Expanding the last equation using the product rule brings us to the following:

$$f_T^* \approx \operatorname{argmin}_{f \in \mathcal{H}} \sum_{i=1}^{i=N_S} \frac{P_T(x_i^S)}{P_S(x_i^S)} \frac{P_T(y_i^S | x_i^S)}{P_S(y_i^S | x_i^S)} \mathcal{L}(x_i^S, y_i^S, f). \quad (2.4)$$

From the above equation, we end up with two possible differences between the source and target domains:

1. Instance mismatch ($P_T(X) \neq P_S(X)$ and $P_T(Y|X) = P_S(Y|X)$): The conditional distribution is the same in both domains, but the marginal distributions in the feature spaces are different. Here, unlabelled target domain instances can be used to bias the estimate of $P_S(X)$ toward a better approximation of $P_T(X)$.
2. Labelling mismatch ($P_T(Y|X) \neq P_S(Y|X)$): the difference between the two domains is due to the conditional distribution. State-Of-The-Art (SOTA) approaches in this category, generally, assume the availability of a limited amount of labelled data from the target domain.

There are multiple works on instances-weighting. We can cite the work of Jiang & Zhai [163] who proposed an implementation based on several adaptation heuristics, first by removing misleading source training instances (*i.e.* where $P_T(Y|X)$ highly differs from $P_S(Y|X)$), then assigning higher weights to labelled target instances than labelled source instances, and finally augmenting training instances with automatically labelled target instances. Another approach consists in training a domain classifier to discriminate between source and target instances. Then, source labelled examples are weighted with the probability (the classifier output) that a sentence comes from the target domain [341, 274].

Instance Selection consists in ignoring source examples that are potentially harmful to the target domain, *i.e.* which are likely to produce a negative transfer. It differs from instance weighting method in two points. First, instance weighting is a soft data selection, while here selection is hard, *i.e.* source examples are either attributed a weight equals to 1 or 0. Second, instance selection is performed as a pre-processing step, while in instance weighting, weights are used at the loss computation during training.

Domain similarity metrics are often used to perform instance selection, *e.g.* proxy \mathcal{A} [33], Jensen Shannon divergence for sentiment analysis task [295] and parsing [276]. Søgaard [339] proposed to select sentences from the source domain that have the lowest word-level perplexity in a language model trained on unlabelled target data. van der Wees *et al.* [366] investigated a dynamic data selection for Neural Machine Translation (NMT) and proposed to vary the selected data between training epochs. Ruder & Plank [304] used a Bayesian optimisation method to select instances for parsing task. Recently, Aharoni & Goldberg [4] investigated instance selection for NMT using cosine similarity in embedding space, using the representations generated by a pretrained Transformer-based model (DistilBERT) [313]. Another approach to perform instance selection is transfer self-training. We can cite the work of cross-lingual opinion classification by Xu *et al.* [387], who proposed to start the training of the classifier on the available training data from the target language. Then, the classifier is iteratively trained by appending new selected translated examples from the source language. However, the computation cost of this method is high since the model needs to be trained repeatedly [191].

Both approaches for transferring instances require the same tag-set for both the source domain and the target domain, or at least a mapping between the two tag-sets is possible. For instance, Søgaard [339] performed a mapping of part-of-speech tags into a common tag-set before performing domain adaptation using instances-weighting. In addition, transferring instances is only efficient when transferring between similar domains; when a broad set of target words are out of source-vocabulary, transferring instances is not very useful and importance weighting cannot help [272].

2.4.3 Transfer of Learned Representations

Transferring representations consists in the reuse and modification of the underlying representations learned from a source domain to boost the performance on a target domain. Weiss *et al.* [375] categorised these approaches into two categories. First, *asymmetric approaches* aim to transform the source model representations to be as similar as possible to the marginal distribution of the target domain. Second, *symmetric approaches* aim to reduce the dissimilarities between the marginal distributions between the source domain and the target domain by finding a common representation.

Notably, research on transfer learning of neural representations has received an increasing attention over the last three years. Indeed, when annotated datasets are available, neural networks achieve excellent results in an end-to-end manner, with a unified architecture and without task-specific feature engineering. Moreover, the hierarchical nature of neural networks makes that the learned knowledge (in the form of learned weights) in their latent representations transit from general information at the lower-layers to task-specific at the higher layers [243, 396]. Hence, the lower-layers tend to encode knowledge that is, generally, transferable across tasks and domains.

Four main methods are used in the literature to transfer neural representations. First, **Autoencoders** [369] are neural networks that are unsupervisedly trained on raw data to learn to reconstruct the input. In domain adaptation, autoencoders are used to learn latent representations that are invariant to domain shift. We can cite the pioneering work of Glorot *et al.* [125] who proposed denoising autoencoders for domain adaptation for sentiment analysis task. First, a denoising autoencoder is trained on raw data from different source and target domains to reconstruct the input text, in an unsupervised fashion. Then, a Support Vector Machine (SVM) sentiment classifier, built on top of the latent representations generated by the denoising autoencoder, is trained on annotated examples from the source domain. Second, **Domain-Adversarial training**, initiated by Ganin *et al.* [115], aims to generate domain-invariant latent representations, from which an algorithm cannot learn to distinguish the domain of origin of the input features. Third, **Multi-Task Learning (MTL)** [50] consists of a joint training of related tasks and thus leverages training signals generated by each one. Fourth, **Sequential Transfer Learning**, where training is performed in two stages, sequentially: pretraining on the source task, followed by adaptation on the downstream target tasks.

As discussed in the introduction, we aim in this thesis to transfer the learned knowledge in neural NLP models from the high-resourced news domain to the low-resourced social media domain. Hence, we discuss these methods in more details in the following section (§2.5).

2.5 How to Transfer Neural Representations?

2.5.1 Domain-Adversarial Neural Networks

Domain-Adversarial training has been initiated by Ganin *et al.* [115], following the theoretical motivation of domain adaptation [30], which aims to generate domain-invariant latent representations from which an algorithm cannot learn to distinguish the domain of origin of the input features. Adversarial training requires two kinds of training data: (i) annotated source examples and (ii) unlabelled examples from the target domain. In addition, in some cases, some labelled instances from the target domain can be used to boost the performance.

In the approach proposed in [115], illustrated in Figure 2.3, a domain classifier (domain discriminator) is jointly trained with the task classifier. Specifically, the model is composed of three components, the feature extractor (green) that encodes the inputs into hidden features, which are fed into two branches: (1) the task classifier (blue) generates the task’s predictions and (2) the domain discriminator (red), which is trained to distinguish between the instances of source and target domains. When performing adversarial training using this model, we expect that the hidden features generated by the feature extractor are as domain-invariant as possible and thus will succeed to confuse the domain discriminator. For this, the domain classifier’s gradients are reversed through the gradient reversal layer.

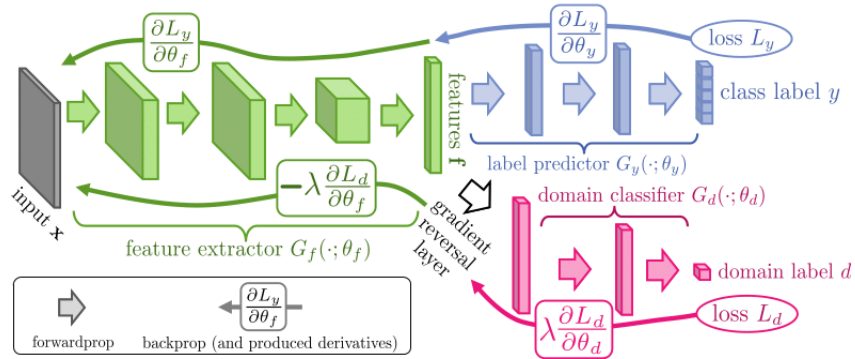


Figure 2.3 – Adversarial training neural architecture. Source: [115]

More formally,³ let us suppose that our model is a hierarchical neural network with a set of parameters θ , trained to perform a classification task with L classes. The model is composed of three components:

1. The feature extractor G_f learns a D -dimensional hidden representation $\mathbf{f}_i \in \mathbb{R}^D$ for each m -dimensional input $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$. G_f is parameterised by the set of parameters θ_f :

$$\mathbf{f}_i = G_f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta_f). \quad (2.5)$$

³ Following the notations and descriptions of Ganin *et al.* [115].

2. The task classifier G_y is fed with the output of G_f and predicts the label \hat{y}_i for each input \mathbf{x}_i . G_y is parameterised by the set of parameters θ_y :

$$\hat{y}_i = G_y(G_f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta_f); \theta_y) . \quad (2.6)$$

3. The domain discriminator G_d learns a classifier $G_d : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow [0, 1]$, which predicts the domain of each input \mathbf{x}_i . G_d is parameterised by the set of parameters θ_d :

$$\hat{d}_i = G_d(G_f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta_f); \theta_d) . \quad (2.7)$$

Given a source labelled example (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) , the task classifier cross entropy loss is defined such as:

$$\mathcal{L}_y^i(\theta_f, \theta_y) = \mathcal{L}_y(G_y(G_f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta_f); \theta_y), y_i) = y_i \times \log(\hat{y}_i) . \quad (2.8)$$

Thus during training the task classifier on n_s annotated source examples, the task classifier loss is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_y(\theta_f, \theta_y) = -\frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} \mathcal{L}_y^i(\theta_f, \theta_y) . \quad (2.9)$$

Given an example (\mathbf{x}_i, d_i) from source or target domain where d_i is the ground truth domain label for the instance \mathbf{x}_i , the domain discriminator loss is defined such as:

$$\mathcal{L}_d^i(\theta_f, \theta_d) = \mathcal{L}_d(G_d(G_f(\mathbf{x}_i; \theta_f); \theta_d), y_i) = d_i \log(\hat{d}_i) + (1 - d_i) \log(1 - \hat{d}_i) . \quad (2.10)$$

Thus, during training the domain discriminator on n_s source examples and n_t unlabelled target examples, the domain discriminator loss is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_d(\theta_f, \theta_d) = -\left(\frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} \mathcal{L}_d^i(\theta_f, \theta_d) + \frac{1}{n_t} \sum_{i=n_s+1}^{n_s+n_t} \mathcal{L}_d^i(\theta_f, \theta_d) \right) . \quad (2.11)$$

Training the adversarial neural network consists in optimising the error $E(\theta_f, \theta_y, \theta_d)$, by finding a saddle point $(\hat{\theta}_f, \hat{\theta}_y, \hat{\theta}_d)$:

$$(\hat{\theta}_f, \hat{\theta}_y) = \underset{\theta_f, \theta_y}{\operatorname{argmin}} E(\theta_f, \theta_y, \hat{\theta}_d) , \quad (2.12)$$

$$\hat{\theta}_d = \underset{\theta_d}{\operatorname{argmax}} E(\hat{\theta}_f, \hat{\theta}_y, \theta_d) , \quad (2.13)$$

with $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is the domain discriminator loss weight. Hence, the domain discriminator is optimised through maximising the loss over θ_f and minimising the loss over θ_d . This “minmax” optimisation allows the feature extractor to learn features that help to improve the performance

of the classification task, but are indistinguishable whether they are from the source or the target domain.

The saddle point is obtained by updating the model’s gradients as follows:

$$\theta_f \leftarrow \theta_f - \mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_y}{\partial \theta_f} - \lambda \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_d}{\partial \theta_f} \right), \quad (2.14)$$

$$\theta_d \leftarrow \theta_d - \mu \lambda \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_d}{\partial \theta_d}, \quad (2.15)$$

$$\theta_y \leftarrow \theta_y - \mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_y}{\partial \theta_y}, \quad (2.16)$$

with μ being the learning rate.

The gradient reversal layer (GRL) in Figure 2.3 allows performing this optimisation problem in a simple way. The GRL is added between the feature extractor G_f and the domain discriminator G_d . It does not impact the forward propagation. But during backward propagation, it negates the gradients.

Another approach to perform adversarial training consists in minimising the divergence between the source distribution P_S and the target distribution P_T . For instance, Arjovsky *et al.* [15] used the Jensen-Shannon divergence and Shah *et al.* [333] used the Wasserstein distance to compute the divergence loss.

2.5.2 Multi-Task Learning

Multi-Task Learning (MTL) [50] consists in a joint learning of related tasks and thus leverages training signals generated by each one. MTL is based on the intuition that, if tasks are related, features trained for one task can be useful for the other tasks. For instance, detecting proper nouns in the POS tagging task would hopefully help to better identify named entities in Named Entity Recognition (NER) task. As discussed in [50] and [302], when tasks are related, the efficiency of MTL is significant for many evidences. First, MTL allows augmenting training data, implicitly, which begets a better regularisation and thus avoids over-fitting. Second, MTL allows an “*eavesdropping*” process, which means that when two tasks “A” and “B” are jointly trained, in some cases, a set of features that are important for task “A” can be easier to learn by task “B”. Third, MTL introduces an inductive bias that begets a better generalisation for new tasks and domains.

Performing MTL requires conceptual and architectural choices with regards to the *parameters sharing scheme*, the *tasks scheduling procedure* and the *loss calculation*. The three depend on the nature of the problem and the relatedness between tasks.

- **Parameters sharing schemes:** One can separate MTL approaches according to the parameters sharing scheme. MTL is typically done with either *hard* or *soft* parameters sharing of the hidden layers, as illustrated in Figure 2.4.

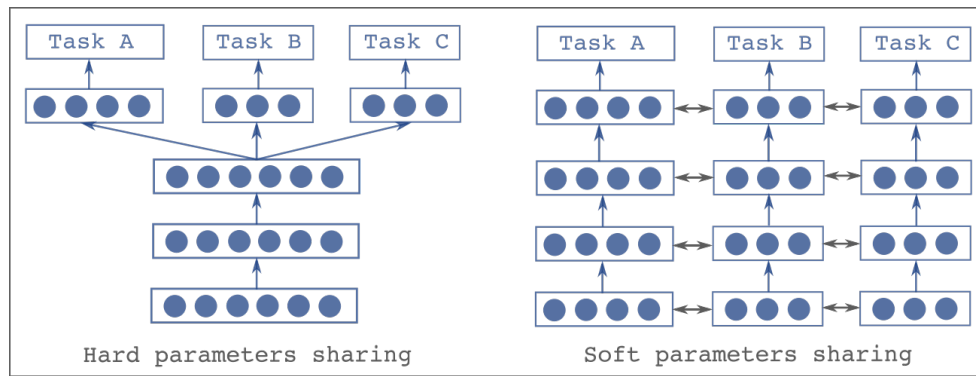


Figure 2.4 – Multi-task learning Parameters Sharing Schemes.

Hard parameters sharing is the most used in the literature. It consists in sharing some hidden layers between all tasks while keeping several task-specific layers. Task-specific parameters are updated according to the error signal that is propagated only from the corresponding task, while the shared parameters are updated according to the error propagated from all tasks. The shared parameters will encode robust, task-independent, and thus transferable representations.

Contrariwise, in a soft sharing scheme there are no shared parameters; each task has its own parameters and layers. The distance between the parameters of the two models is then regularised in order to foster these parameters to be as similar as possible. For instance, Duong *et al.* [99] proposed a soft MTL architecture using l_2 regularisation to improve parsing performance for a low-resourced target language using the knowledge learned in a source high-resource language’s parser.

- **Tasks scheduling:** One can separate MTL according to the nature of the available training examples. We define two types, *homogeneous MTL* where a common dataset annotated with all tasks of interest is available, which is rarely possible. In contrast, in a *heterogeneous MTL*, the model has to be trained on a mixture of labelled datasets; one dataset per task. A major issue when performing heterogeneous MTL is that training all datasets in the same way is not efficient. Thus, defining a *tasks scheduling strategy*, *i.e.* the processing (training) order of examples from different tasks (datasets), is essential when dealing with heterogeneous MTL.

In a heterogeneous MTL, each task has its own training dataset. Therefore, choosing a strategy for ordering and sampling training examples coming from different datasets becomes requisite. A naive approach is to proceed with tasks uniformly or in proportion to each task’s dataset size. For instance, Dong *et al.* [93] trained a multi-task machine translation model between several language-pairs uniformly, *i.e.* with equal training ratios, by alternating the tasks in a fixed order. Thus each task (language-pair) is optimised for a fixed number of iterations before passing to the next task. Søgaard & Goldberg

[340] trained a hierarchical multi-task model using a uniform training over tasks, where the selection of the next task to train is done in random. Similarly, Subramanian *et al.* [345] trained a multi-task model to learn universal sentence representations using uniform training ratios for each task. Likewise, Zaremoondi *et al.* [403] performed a uniform multi-task training, where at each iteration of the training process, the task to train is selected randomly.

However, the naive uniform approach is not always efficient, typically when some datasets are over-sampled compared to the other datasets. In this case, the model will likely focus on the richest tasks. Luong *et al.* [209] proposed to train tasks periodically while using different training ratios per task based on their respective training-sets size. Similarly, Sanh *et al.* [314] compared uniform sampling to proportional sampling of training examples from different tasks and found that proportional sampling is outperforming in terms of performance and speed of convergence.

Nevertheless, the above approaches are *maladaptive*, *i.e.* are not adapted during training, which can be an issue when easy tasks are trained with more challenging tasks; in the course of training, the more straightforward tasks are likely to be over-trained. Adaptive scheduling was used by Kiperwasser & Ballesteros [171], who studied multiple adaptive schedules that increasingly favour the principal task over training iterations. The objective of the work of Kiperwasser & Ballesteros [171] is to improve NMT with the help of POS and Dependency Parsing (DP) tasks by scheduling tasks during training, starting with multi-tasking of the principal task with auxiliary lower-level tasks (POS and DP) and as the training graduates, the model trains only to the main task. Further, Jean *et al.* [160] proposed an adaptive scheduling method that varies during training according to the validation performance of each task. Precisely, when the performance of the model is low on one task compared to the baseline (mono-task training performance), the sampling-weight assigned to this task is increased.

It is noteworthy that all the above-mentioned scheduling methods are explicit, *i.e.* they consist in only controlling the sampling of each task during training. In contrast, there are some works on implicit methods, which act on learning rates, model gradients or loss calculation [160].

- **Loss Calculation:** In MTL, we aim to optimise the model with respect to multiple objectives. Thus, we generally minimise a weighted sum of the loss over all tasks:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T \alpha_i \mathcal{L}_i, \quad (2.17)$$

where T is the number of the jointly trained tasks, \mathcal{L}_i is the loss of the task i , and α_i is the weight attributed to the task i . A naive setting consists in using equal weights for all tasks

$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_T$. However, when tasks training sets have different sizes or some tasks are easier to learn than the other tasks, weights may differ from one task to another or adapted during training.

In the literature, MTL is used in two situations. The first is interested in building a joint model which produces predictions for multiple tasks. Thus, the model is optimised to improve the performance of all tasks. As shown by Caruana [50], many real-world problems are, in reality, multi-task problems by nature. For instance, in autonomous driving, the model needs to be able to perform multiple tasks simultaneously, *e.g.* recognition of pedestrians, traffic lights, cars, etc. In the second scenario, a main task of interest is trained with a set of auxiliary tasks. The advantage of using MTL over independent task learning has been shown in some NLP tasks and applications [195]. For instance, POS tagging task has been shown to be beneficial for other tasks in [67, 339, 412, 221, 171, 208, 340]. The same for NER in [314], CK [67, 148] and DP [171, 416].

2.5.3 Sequential Transfer Learning

In contrast to MTL, which is a parallel training process where tasks often benefit each other mutually, in Sequential Transfer Learning (STL) training is performed serially and thus only target tasks benefit from source ones. The term STL was firstly used by Caruana [50], but the idea was explored much earlier [277, 353]. In STL, training is performed in two stages sequentially: *pretraining* on the source tasks, followed by *adaptation* on downstream target tasks. In the following, we discuss the methods used to perform each stage.

Pretraining

In the pretraining stage, a crucial key to the success of transfer is the ruling about the pretrained task and domain. For *universal representations*, the pretrained task is expected to encode useful features for a vast number of target tasks and domains. In contrast, for *domain adaptation*, the pretrained task is expected to be most suitable for the target task in mind.⁴ We classify pretraining methods into four main categories: unsupervised, supervised, multi-task and adversarial pretraining:

- **Unsupervised pretraining** uses raw unlabelled data for pretraining. Particularly, it has been successfully used in a wide range of seminal works to learn universal representations. Language modelling task has been particularly used thanks to its ability to capture general-purpose features of language.⁵ For instance, TagLM [263] is a pretrained model based on

⁴ The difference between universal representations and domain adaptation will be discussed in the following section 2.6.

⁵ Note that language modelling is also considered as a self-supervised task since, in fact, labels are automatically generated from raw data.

a bidirectional language model (biLM), also used to generate ELMo (Embeddings from Language Models) representations [265]. In addition, with the recent emergence of the “Transformers” architectures [367], many works propose pretrained models based on these architectures [87, 391, 283]. Unsupervised Pretraining has also been used to improve sequence to sequence learning. We can cite the work of Ramachandran *et al.* [287] who proposed to improve the performance of an encoder-decoder NMT model by initialising both encoder and decoder parameters with pretrained weights from two language models.

- **Supervised pretraining** has been particularly used for cross-lingual transfer (*e.g.* machine translation [424]); cross-task transfer from POS tagging to words segmentation task [390]; and cross-domain transfer for biomedical question answering by Wiese *et al.* [378] and NER to biomedical texts by Giorgi & Bader [123]. Cross-domain transfer has also been used to transfer from news to SM for POS tagging [227, 222, 216] and sentiment analysis [414]. Supervised pretraining has been also used effectively for universal representations learning, *e.g.* neural machine translation [218], language inference [69] and discourse relations [248].
- **Multi-task pretraining** has been successfully applied to learn general universal sentence representations by a simultaneous pretraining on a set of supervised and unsupervised tasks [345, 51]. Subramanian *et al.* [345], for instance, proposed to learn universal sentences representations by a joint pretraining on skip-thoughts, machine translation, constituency parsing and natural language inference. In [223], we proposed multi-task pretraining for supervised domain adaptation from news domain to the social media domain.
- **Adversarial pretraining** is particularly used for domain adaptation when some annotated examples from the target domain are available. Adversarial training – as previously described – is used as a pretraining step followed by an adaptation step on the target dataset. Adversarial pretraining demonstrated its effectiveness in several NLP tasks, *e.g.* cross-lingual sentiment analysis [55]. Also, it has been used to learn cross-lingual words embeddings [182].

Adaptation

During the adaptation stage one or more layers from the pretrained model are transferred to the downstream task, and one or more randomly initialised layers are added on top of pretrained ones. Three main adaptation schemes are used in sequential transfer learning: *Feature Extraction*, *Fine-Tuning* and the recent *Residual Adapters*.

In a *Feature Extraction* scheme, the pretrained layers’ weights are frozen (not updated) during adaptation, while in *Fine-Tuning* scheme weights are fine-tuned. Accordingly, the former is computationally inexpensive while the last allows better adaptation to target domains peculiarities. In general, fine-tuning pretrained models begets better results, except in cases wherein the target

domain’s annotations are sparse or noisy [90, 243]. Moreover, Peters *et al.* [264] found that, for contextualised representations, both adaptation schemes are competitive, but the appropriate adaptation scheme to pick depends on the similarity between the source and target problems. Recently, *Residual Adapters* were proposed by Hounsby *et al.* [154] to adapt pretrained models based on Transformers architecture, which aim to keep *Fine-Tuning* scheme’s advantages while reducing the number of parameters to update during the adaptation stage. This is achieved by adding adapters (intermediate layers with a small number of parameters) on top of each pretrained layer. Thus, pretrained layers are frozen, and only adapters are updated during training. Therefore, *Residual Adapters* performance is near to *Fine-tuning* while being computationally cheaper [267, 266, 268].

2.6 Why Transfer?

There are some terminology inconsistencies throughout the literature of transfer learning. Mainly, transfer learning and domain adaptation are sometimes used to refer to the same process [420, 191, 257, 176]. Many other papers use the two expressions to mean different things. For instance, Wilson & Cook [381] and Ruder [303] consider that domain adaptation is a particular case of transfer learning, where source and target tasks are the same ($\mathcal{T}_S = \mathcal{T}_T$), while the source and target domains differ ($\mathcal{D}_S \neq \mathcal{D}_T$).

In this thesis, we consider that the purpose behind using transfer learning approaches for NLP can be divided into two main research areas, *universal representations* and *domain adaptation*. *Universal representations* aim to learn representations, *e.g.* words embeddings, sentence embeddings and pretrained models, that are transferable and beneficial to a wide range of downstream NLP tasks and domains. *Domain adaptation* seeks to learn representations that are beneficial for a particular target domain rather than being useful in general. In comparison, *domain adaptation* aims to harness the knowledge represented in features learned on a source domain (high-resourced in most cases) to improve the performance on a specific target domain (low-resourced in most cases). The source and the target domains may differ on the task, the language or the domain. In the following, we present some notable works from each category: universal representations (§2.6.1) and domain adaptation (§2.6.2).

2.6.1 Universal Representations

Transfer learning in the form of universal representations is not a recent phenomenon in NLP; their usage as extra word features for supervised tasks was common long before the outburst of neural models. According to Turian *et al.* [360], three categories of algorithms have been used to induce unsupervised word representations that are expected to encode general language knowledge and beneficial to a wide range of NLP tasks.

1. Clustering-based representations: are one-hot representations induced from a clustering

over words. Hence, the dimension of the induced representations equals to the number of clusters. Particularly, Brown Clustering [44], which builds unsupervised hierarchical word clusters, was commonly used in NLP. For instance, it was successfully used for POS tagging of English Tweets [255], English news NER [290] and cross-lingual NER [217].

2. **Distributional representations:** are mainly based on word-word co-occurrence matrices factorisation. However, due to their size and scarcity, using these matrices directly as words representations is impractical. Thus, dimensionality reduction methods are often used to obtain dense representations. For instance, canonical correlation analysis was used by Dhillon *et al.* [89] and latent semantic analysis by Levy *et al.* [188] to generate words representations.
3. **Distributed representations:** are low-dimensional and dense representations, typically learned using language models. The probabilistic language model proposed by Bengio *et al.* [31] and improved in [67] & [68] was the genesis of what we call words embedding in NLP, while Word2Vec [233, 234] was its outbreak and a starting point for a surge of works on learning distributional words embeddings, *e.g.* FastText [35] enriches Word2Vec with subword information. One of the strengths of word embeddings is that they encode the semantics of words taking into account their contexts of use while keeping a low dimensionality.

Traditional Words Representations:⁶

Let us consider a text sentence S with a set of N tokens, $S = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N)$. Traditional word embeddings approaches assign a dense vector w_i for each token t_i , on a function of t_i solely; without taking into account its context. When training a neural model on a raw corpus, an embedding matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^V \times d$ is learned for the corpus vocabulary, where d is the embedding size and V is the vocabulary size. In the following, we provide a brief description of the pioneering frameworks that learn traditional words representations: *Word2Vec*, *FastText* and *GloVe*.

Word2Vec [233] is based on a shallow fully connected neural network, composed of an input layer, one hidden layer and an output layer. Two architectures were proposed: the first is Continuous Bag Of Words (CBOW) and the second is Continuous Skip-Gram. CBOW predicts the actual word from its surrounding context words. In the Skip-Gram model, on the other hand, the reverse operation is performed; the surrounding context words are predicted from the current word.

The objective of the CBOW model is to predict the probability of the target word given its context (a window of C surrounding words). As illustrated in the left scheme of Figure 2.5, the model takes the one-hot encoding of the C context words as inputs, and it outputs the probability

⁶ Here we discuss only word-level representations, since in this thesis we focus on sequence labelling tasks. However, there are many successful universal representations at the sentence-level.

of each word in the vocabulary being the actual word. Generally, the learned weights matrix $\mathbf{W}^2 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times V}$ between the hidden layer and the output layer is the embedding matrix, where d is the hidden layer size (d =embedding dimension), and V is the vocabulary size. Each line j of \mathbf{W}^{2T} corresponds to the global embedding of the word type j in the vocabulary.

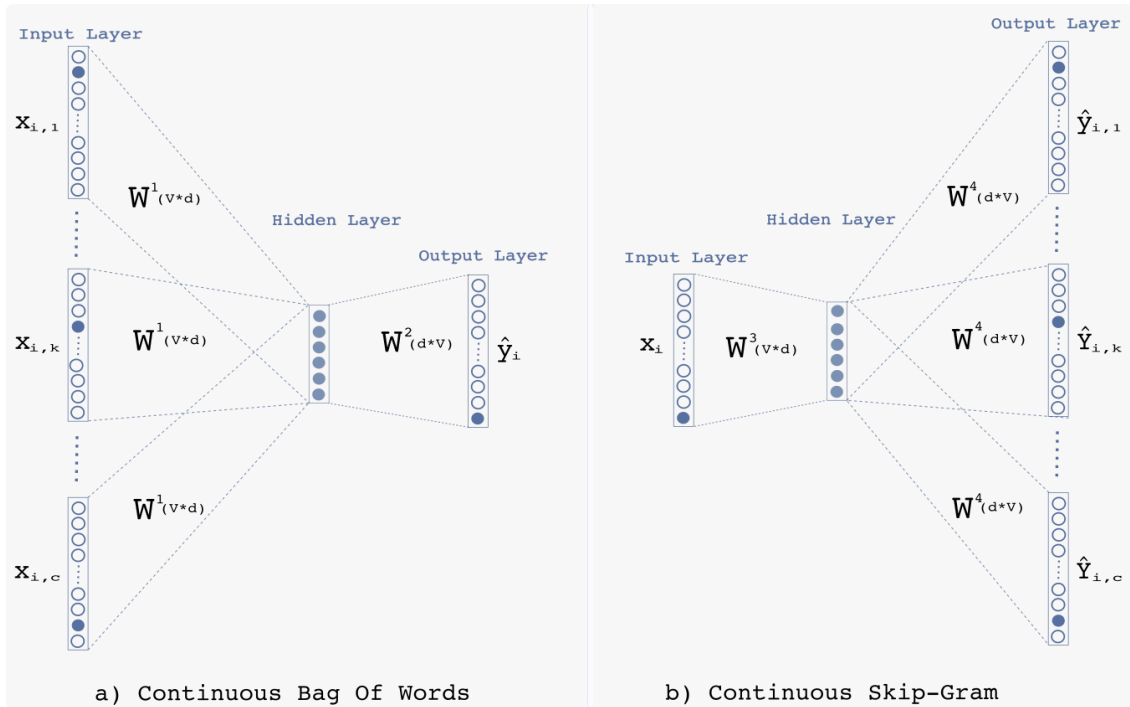


Figure 2.5 – Illustrative schemes of CBOW and Skip-gram neural architectures.

In the Skip-Gram model, the reverse operation is performed. The aim is to predict the C surrounding words given the target word. As illustrated in the right scheme of Figure 2.5, the model takes the one-hot encoding of the target word as input, and it outputs the probability of each word in the vocabulary being a surrounding word. Generally, the learned weights matrix $\mathbf{W}^3 \in \mathbb{R}^V \times d$ between the input layer and the hidden layer is the embedding matrix, where d is the hidden layer size (=embedding dimension), and V is the vocabulary size. Each line j of \mathbf{W}^3 corresponds to the global embedding of the word type j in the vocabulary.

FastText [35] is an extension of Word2Vec algorithm, which represents each word as a bag of n-grams characters, in addition to the word itself. Hence, FastText generates embedding for the words that do not appear in the training raw corpus, which allows for a better management of rare words.

GloVe (Global Vectors for Word Representation) is an algorithm developed by Stanford university [262] to learn distributed dense representations of words by referring to their contexts in large corpora of texts. While Word2Vec is a predictive model, GloVe is based on co-occurrences matrix from large corpora. First, a co-occurrence matrix C is created, where an element c_{ij} from

the matrix represents the number of times the word type i appeared in the context of the word type j . However, the vectors generated in this co-occurrences matrix are sparse and with high dimensions (vocabulary size). GloVe algorithm allows a factorisation of this co-occurrences matrix. Precisely, two randomly initialised vectors, $\mathbf{x}_i, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, are assigned for each word w_i in the corpora, where d is the embedding dimension. The first as its column instance and the second for its row instance. Then, the difference between the dot product of the embedding of the target word \mathbf{x}_i with the embedding of its context word $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_j$ and the logarithm of their number of co-occurrences c_{ij} is minimised:

$$\mathcal{L}_{GloVe} = \sum_{i,j=1}^V f(c_{ij}) (\mathbf{x}_i^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_j + b_i + \tilde{b}_j - \log(c_{ij}))^2, \quad (2.18)$$

where \mathbf{x}_i and b_i represent, respectively, the embedding and the bias for the word i . $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i$ and \tilde{b}_i represent, respectively, the embedding and the bias for the context word j . $f(\cdot)$ is a weighting function that assigns low weights to rare words and higher weights for more frequent words to avoid learning only on very frequent words.

Contextual Embeddings

Recently, universal representations re-emerged with contextualised representations, handling a major drawback of traditional words embedding. Indeed, these last learn a single context-independent representation for each word thus ignoring words polysemy. Therefore, contextualised words representations aim to learn context-dependent word embeddings, *i.e.* considering the entire sequence as input to produce each word's embedding. Multiple training objectives were used to generate contextualised representations. For instance, CoVe [218] use a neural machine translation encoder. TagLM [263] use an unsupervised bidirectional language model (biLM), also used to generate ELMo (Embeddings from Language Models) representations [265]. In contrast to CoVe and TagLM, ELMo representations are a function of all of the internal layers of the biLM.

Formally, methods that learn contextual embeddings associate each token t_i from a sequence of tokens $S = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N)$ with an embedding vector that is a function of the whole sentence. Hence, if a word type appears in different contexts, the attributed contextual vector will be different. In the following, we provide a short description of the ELMo model.

ELMo (Embeddings from Language Models) [265] is a bidirectional language model based on two LSTM-based language models. The first language model (LM) is a forward L-layer LSTM that encodes the left context of words, and the second LM is a backward L-layer LSTM that encodes the right context of words. The forward LM calculates the probability of a sequence of tokens $S = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N)$ such as:

$$p(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N) = \prod_{k=1}^N p(t_k | t_1, \dots, t_{k-1}). \quad (2.19)$$

Similarly, the backward LM calculates the probability of the sequence of tokens S such as:

$$p(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N) = \prod_{k=1}^N p(t_k | t_{k+1}, \dots, t_N). \quad (2.20)$$

Each LSTM layer $j = 1, \dots, L$ from the forward LM produces a context-dependent representation $\vec{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j}$ for each token k . Note that, the output of the top LSTM layer, $\vec{\mathbf{h}}_{k,L}$, is used to predict the next token t_{k+1} through a fully connected Softmax layer. Likewise, each LSTM layer $j = 1, \dots, L$ from the backward LM produces a context dependent representation $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j}$ for each token k . The top layer LSTM output $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{k,L}$ is used to predict the previous token t_{k-1} through a fully connected Softmax layer. The two models are combined by jointly maximising the log likelihood on both directions:

$$\sum_{k=1}^N (\log p(t_k | t_1, \dots, t_{k-1}; \theta_x, \vec{\theta}_{LSTM}, \theta_s) + (\log p(t_k | t_{k+1}, \dots, t_N; \theta_x, \overleftarrow{\theta}_{LSTM}, \theta_s)), \quad (2.21)$$

where θ_x are the parameters of the input layer; a CNN-based character-level embedding layer that generates a context-independent representation \mathbf{x}_k for each token t_k . θ_s are the parameters of the softmax output layer. θ_x and θ_s are shared between the two models. $\vec{\theta}_{LSTM}$ and $\overleftarrow{\theta}_{LSTM}$ correspond, respectively, to the parameters of the LSTM layers of the forward LM and the backward LM.

Therefore, the ELMo biLM model produces R_k ; a set of $2L + 1$ representations for each token t_k . $2L$ representations are the L-LSTM layers outputs from the forward LM and the backward LM, plus the embedding input representation \mathbf{x}_k :

$$R_k = \{\mathbf{x}_k, \vec{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j}, \overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j} | j = 1, \dots, L\} = \{\mathbf{h}_{k,j} | j = 0, \dots, L\}, \quad (2.22)$$

where $\mathbf{h}_{k,0} = \mathbf{x}_k$ and $\mathbf{h}_{k,j} = [\vec{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j}, \overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{k,j}]$.

Generally, to use the set of the L ELMo representations in the downstream tasks, a weighted sum of these representations is injected as an input representation to the target task model.

Universal Pretrained Language Models

So far, universal representations were exploited only at the input-level of the target model, *i.e.* the input embedding layer is initialised with pretrained representations, but the remaining layers are randomly initialised, thus need to be trained from scratch. Hence, the pretrained knowledge is not fully harnessed. Conscious of the usefulness of transferring the pretrained knowledge to different levels of the target models, the NLP research community has recently devoted a

particular interest on learning deep pretrained language models that could be transferred to initialise the parameters of target models for multiple tasks.

First, Howard & Ruder [155] proposed Universal Language Model Fine-tuning (ULMFiT), an LSTM-based bidirectional language model (similar to [265]). ULMFiT is an approach consisting of three steps. First, pretraining the LM on general unlabelled large corpora. Second, fine-tuning the LM on the downstream target dataset. Finally, 3) fine-tuning on the target task by adding a randomly initialised classifier layer on top of the pretrained layers. Furthermore, Transformer architectures [367] have been used in many works to learn universal pretrained models. Two unsupervised pretraining tasks are generally used to learn universal models. 1) Language models (LMs), predicting the next word given the previous context, like GPT [282]. 2) Masked language models, predicting the identities of a set of words that have been masked out of the sentence, like BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) [87], XLNET [391], RoBERTa (Robustly optimised BERT pretraining Approach) [202] and DistilBERT [313], a distilled version of BERT. Otherwise, other innovative pretraining tasks have been proposed in the literature, such as ELECTRA [65], which performs pretraining on replaced token detection task. Furthermore, specialised pretrained models were proposed recently, like BioBERT [184], a pre-trained biomedical language model for biomedical text mining.

2.6.2 Domain Adaptation

While universal representations seek to be propitious for any downstream task, domain adaptation is designed for particular target tasks. Precisely, it consists in adapting NLP models designed for one source setting (language, language variety, domain, task, etc.) to work in a target setting. Domain adaptation englobes two settings. First, *unsupervised domain adaptation* assumes that labelled examples in the source domain are sufficiently available. However, for the target domain, only unlabelled examples are available. Second, in *supervised domain adaptation* setting, a small number of labelled target examples are assumed to be available. In recent years, several works have investigated how to adapt NLP models between languages, tasks or domains using transfer learning techniques:

- **Cross-lingual adaptation** ($\mathcal{X}_S \neq \mathcal{X}_T$) from high-resource languages to low-resourced ones was explored in the literature for multiple NLP tasks. Zoph *et al.* [425] performed sequential transfer learning for supervised domain adaptation by pretraining an NMT model on a high-resource source language pair and then transferring the learned weights to a target language pair for a further fine-tuning, and Dabre *et al.* [75] proposed to perform a multi-stage fine-tuning to improve NMT performance on low-resourced settings by using out-of-domain data from other languages. Chen *et al.* [55] performed adversarial training for cross-lingual sentiment analysis. They experimented their approach on unsupervised domain adaptation from English to Arabic and Chinese. Similarly, Yi *et al.* [395] explored sequential transfer learning using a language-adversarial pretraining for cross-lingual

speech recognition. Transfer Learning was also used to transfer between Arabic dialects. We can cite the work of Zalmout & Habash [401], who explored multitask learning and adversarial training for supervised domain adaptation from the resource-rich Modern Standard Arabic to the Egyptian Arabic.

- **Cross-task adaptation** ($Y_S \neq Y_T$) was explored in [243] to investigate different settings of sequential transfer learning from sentiment analysis task to question classification task. Yang *et al.* [390] proposed to transfer a model pretrained on POS tagging to word segmentation using sequential transfer learning. Niehues & Cho [249] exploited multi-task learning to transfer the encoded knowledge from POS and NER tasks to neural machine translation task, by first training the model on all tasks and then continued training only on the target task. Kiperwasser & Ballesteros [171] proposed to improve neural machine translation with the help of POS and DP tasks by starting with multi-tasking of the principal task with auxiliary lower-level tasks (POS and DP). As the training progresses, the model trains progressively more on the main task dataset compared to auxiliary tasks datasets.
- **Cross-domain adaptation** ($P(X_S) \neq P(X_T)$ or $P(Y_S|X_S) \neq P(Y_T|X_T)$): Sequential transfer learning with supervised pretraining was used by Lee *et al.* [185] and Giorgi & Bader [123] for supervised domain adaptation between different biomedical datasets for NER task. It was also applied for supervised adaptation from news to social media by März *et al.* [216] for POS tagging, by Zhao *et al.* [414] for Sentiment Analysis and by Lin & Lu [193] for NER task. Adversarial training was used in many research works for cross-domain adaptation. We can cite: [333] for unsupervised domain adaptation between different forums (Stack Exchange, Sprint FAQ and Quora) for duplicate question detection task; [138] for supervised domain adaptation from news domain to social media domain for POS task; [245] for unsupervised domain adaptation between English literature texts and English news for event trigger identification task. Multi-task learning on multiple tasks from the source domain has also been used by Peng & Dredze [260] for unsupervised domain adaptation.

2.7 Discussion

Summary

In this chapter, we have discussed transfer learning approaches and methods used in NLP. To recapitulate, first, we discern the aim behind using transfer learning (“*Why transfer?*”) into two lines of research: universal representations and domain adaptation. The former aims to produce universal words embeddings, sentence embeddings and pretrained models, which are transferable and beneficial to a wide range of downstream tasks and domains. In comparison, the latter seeks to learn representations that are beneficial for a particular target domain rather than being useful in general. Second, we categorise transfer learning approaches according to the type of the

transferred knowledge (“*What to transfer?*”) into three categories: (1) transfer of annotations, (2) transfer of instances, and (3) transfer of models. The first and the second categories are – by design – only convenient for domain adaptation, whereas the third is applicable whether for universal representations and domain adaptation. Third, for each category, we have provided some existing methods to perform the transfer (“*How to transfer?*”).

Table 2.1 summarises the categorisation presented in this sub-chapter, by showing the cases where different transfer approaches are used for each research area. First, the two main columns for “*Why transfer?*” categorisation: domain adaptation (divided into unsupervised DA and supervised DA) and universal representations. Second, the three main rows for “*What to transfer?*” categorisation: transfer of annotations, instances and models. Note that, by design, universal representations could only be produced using sequential transfer learning. Unsupervised domain adaptation could not be performed using sequential transfer learning since this last assumes a fine-tuning step on the target annotated dataset. Likewise, unsupervised domain adaptation could not be performed using multi-task learning.

Why Transfer?		Domain Adaptation		Universal Representations
		Unsupervised DA	Supervised DA	
What to Transfer?				
Transfer of annotations		✓	✓	✗
Transfer of instances		✓	✓	✗
Transfer of learned representations	Adversarial Training	✓	✓	✗
	Multi-task learning	✗	✓	✗
	Sequential Transfer Learning	✗	✓	✓

Table 2.1 – Different transfer learning approaches used for different research objectives.

Positioning of our work

Our work falls under *supervised domain adaptation* research area. Specifically, cross-domain adaptation from the news domain to social media domain.⁷ For this purpose, we propose throughout this thesis a set of approaches based on sequential transfer learning and multi-task learning. Note that, universal representations research area is orthogonal to our work, and thus could be incorporated with our approaches to boost the performance further. In chapters 5 and 6, we investigate the impact of ELMo contextualised words representations when used, simultaneously, with our cross-domain adaptation scheme.

⁷ Note that social media texts may be considered as a language variety of the formal language, since new words and expressions are not used in the formal language.

3 | State-of-the-art: Interpretability Methods for Neural NLP

3.1 Introduction

Approaches based on end-to-end Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) have been successfully applied to a variety of Natural Language Processing (NLP) tasks and applications. However, DNNs receive much criticism for their lack of interpretability. This is due to the opacity of their internal representations, thence referred to as *black-box* models. Nevertheless, understanding AI models, including NLP models, is particularly essential for critical and life-threatening applications such as medicine, aviation, security, autonomous cars, etc. where the reliability, transparency, privacy, accountability and confidentiality must be guaranteed before use. This is one of the reasons for the low use of DNNs based models in areas where interpretability is requisite. In the last few years, there is a rising awareness of the critical need for AI models interpretability. Consequently, research in NLP neural models interpretability is flourishing. Besides, the “right to explanation” article [130] in the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) of the European Union has undoubtedly spurred widespread and sped-up research in the field.

In this thesis we exploit interpretive techniques to better understand the functioning of our proposed transfer learning methods. Thus, we present in this chapter the most related works in the field of NLP neural models interpretability.

There is little consensus about the definition or desideratum for explanations or interpretations and about what are the differences between “interpretability” and “explainability” with non-overlapping definitions. In most cases, “interpretability” and “explainability” are used interchangeably. However, distinctions between the two terms are discussed in many research works. Montavon *et al.* [238] define an interpretation as “the mapping of an abstract concept (*e.g.* a predicted class) into a domain that the human can make sense of”. For instance, extracting the linguistic knowledge encoded in words embeddings is considered as an understandable interpretation. In comparison, they define an explanation as “the collection of features from the interpretable domain that have contributed to produce the decision for a given example”. In simple words, explanations are interpretable justifications for the model’s predictions. Lipton [198] considers that interpretability methods fall into two distinct categories: transparency (*i.e.*

how a component of a model, such as neurons and layers, corresponds to a human-understandable meaning?) and post-hoc explanations.¹ Rudin [306] considers that post-hoc explanations are merely plausible but are not necessarily faithful and thus believes that attempting to explain black-box models in a post-hoc manner can be misleading.² The author invites the research community to instead focus on building self-explainable models. Like Montavon *et al.* [238], we believe that an interpretation stands for a human-understandable description of the internal representations and behaviours of the model. In contrast, an explanation is an interpretable justification for the model decision or behaviour. However, for simplicity, in this paper, we use the terms interpretability and explainability interchangeably to mean the ensemble of methods and approaches that aim to understand NLP neural models.

Different categorisations of explainability methods were proposed in the literature. We can cite two common ones. The first distinguishes self-explainable models *vs* post-hoc explanations. Self-explainable models are intrinsically interpretable, that means explanations are backed into the model itself. A challenge is to achieve a trade-off between the explainability and the predictive performance of the model. In contrast, post-hoc explanations are extracted from already learned models, and thus will not impact the predictive performance. Also, post-hoc methods are not dependent on neural model architecture. The second categorisation distinguishes local *vs* global explanations. A local explanation gives a justification for a specific prediction, whilst a global explanation gives an overview of how the model works.

Our goal in this survey is to propose an intuitive categorisation of recent methods on NLP neural models interpretability according to the objective behind the method. We distinguish three families of methods, illustrated in Figure 3.1, each addresses a question:

1. **Descriptive methods** answer the question “**What** are neural models learning in their internal representations?”
2. **Explicative methods** answer the question “**Why** are neural models providing a particular decision?”
3. **Mechanistic methods** answer the question “**How** are neural models producing decisions?”

This categorisation is inspired by a basic classification of computational neuroscience methods. According to Dayan & Abbott [81], “descriptive methods characterise what neurons and neural circuits do. Mechanistic methods determine how nervous systems operate. Such models often form a bridge between descriptive models couched at different levels. Finally, interpretive methods aim to understand why nervous system operate as they do”.

To the best of our knowledge, there are two research papers in the literature that survey the explainability and interpretability of neural models in NLP. Belinkov & Glass [29] provide

¹ Post-hoc explanations will be defined later.

² The plausibility measures whether the interpretation is convincing to humans. Faithful explanations are explanations that reflect the model’s output [301].

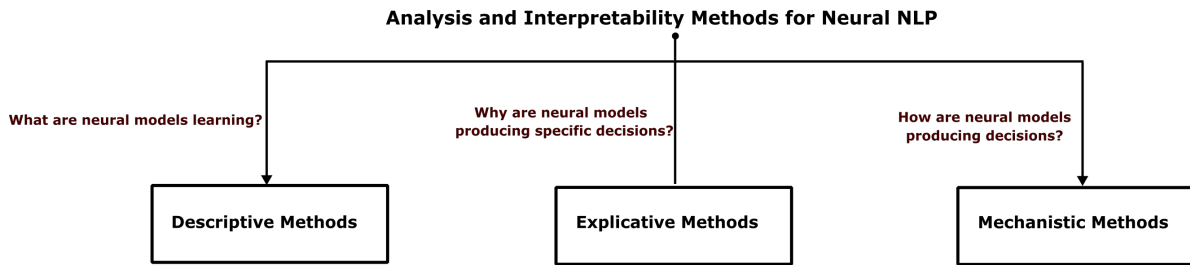


Figure 3.1 – Classification of analysis and interpretability methods for neural NLP models.

an extensive review of some analysis and visualisation methods for NLP models and discuss the challenges that should be addressed in the field. More recently, Danilevsky *et al.* [79] present state-of-the-art works according to two of the aforementioned classifications: ad-hoc explanations *vs* post-hoc explanations and local explanations *vs* global explanations. In addition, they present some of the techniques that are actually used to generate and visualise explanations in the NLP field. However, the study of Danilevsky *et al.* [79] includes only explainability methods that aim to justify the model’s predictions, which correspond to explicative methods in our proposed categorisation.

In the following sections, we present some techniques from each category from our proposed categorisation. This survey is not exhaustive, we only focus on some promising techniques and point to some representative papers for each technique. Considering that in this thesis we exploit descriptive methods to analyse our proposed transfer learning approaches, the section related to descriptive methods is the most expanded.

3.2 Descriptive Methods: What?

Descriptive methods aim to investigate the knowledge encoded in the internal representations of neural models. We present 5 widely used approaches: representation-level visualisation (§3.2.1), individual units stimulus (§3.2.2), probing classifiers (§3.2.3), similarity analysis (§3.2.4), and features erasure (§3.2.5). It is noteworthy that although descriptive methods allow an analysis of the information captured by the model, they do not give insights into whether this information is actually used by the model to produce the final decision.

3.2.1 Representation-level Visualisation

Representation-level visualisation methods aim to project high-dimensional vectors, such as word or sentence embeddings or model’s internal representations, into two-dimensional or three-dimensional spaces to facilitate their visualisation in a scatterplot, while preserving as much as possible of the significant structure of the high-dimensional data. Thus, similar data points are likely to appear close together in the scatterplot. t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) [211] is the most popular tool to visualise embeddings. In the same vein, Escolano *et al.*

[105] proposed a tool that visualises the internal representations both at the sentence and token levels. Kahng *et al.* [167] proposed ActiVis, an interactive visualisation and exploration tool of large-scale deep learning models. Similarly, Strobel *et al.* [344] proposed LSTMVis, a tool that visualises the dynamics of the hidden states of RNNs in the course of treating the sentence sequentially.

3.2.2 Individual Units Stimulus

Inspired by works on receptive fields of biological neurons [156], which investigate what stimulus-features do single neurons represent, several works have been devoted to interpret and visualise artificial neural networks individual hidden units stimulus-features. Initially, in computer vision [66, 124, 418] and more recently in NLP, wherein units³ activations are visualised in heatmaps. Karpathy *et al.* [169] visualised character-level LSTM cells learned in language modelling. They found, for instance, multiple interpretable units that track long-distance dependencies, such as line lengths and quotes. Bau *et al.* [27] visualised neurons specialised on tense, gender, number, etc. in NMT models. Radford *et al.* [281] visualised the activations of a neuron that seems to perform sentiment analysis in an RNNs-based LM. Figure 3.2 shows character-by-character activations of the sentiment neuron. Clearly, words like “best” and “good” trigger big jumps in the neuron’s activation.

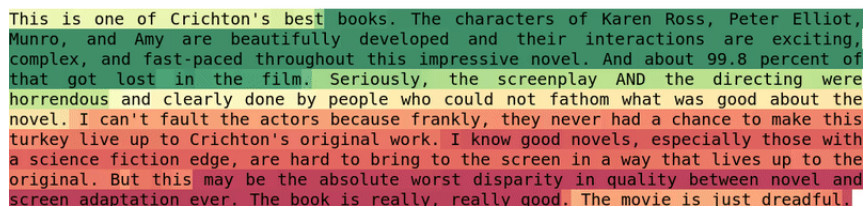


Figure 3.2 – Character-by-character activations of the sentiment neuron discovered in RNNs-based language model [281]. Bright red displays high negative activation values and the bright green displays high positive activation values.

Kádár *et al.* [166] proposed *top-k-contexts* approach to identify sentences, and thus linguistic patterns, sparking the highest activation values of each unit in RNNs. Kahng *et al.* [167] proposed ActiVis, an interactive visualisation and exploration tool of large-scale deep learning models including neuron-level activations. The main limitation of this method is that it measures the degree of alignment between individual neurons activations and a linguistic knowledge. However, as we know, neurons work in synergy, so individual units stimulus will not identify a group of neurons that might be jointly specialised on one linguistic phenomenon [343].

³ We use neuron and unit interchangeably.

3.2.3 Probing Classifiers

Probing classifiers⁴ is the most commonly used approach to investigate what are the linguistic properties learned in the latent representations of neural models [335]. Concretely, given a neural model M trained on a particular NLP task, whether it is unsupervised (*e.g.* LM) or supervised (*e.g.* NMT), a shallow classifier is trained on top of the frozen M on a corpus annotated with the linguistic properties of interest. The aim is to examine whether M 's hidden representations encode the property of interest.

Shi *et al.* [335] found that NMT encoder's layers learn different levels of syntactic information. Adi *et al.* [2] investigated what information (between sentence length, words order and word-content) is captured by different sentence embedding learning methods. Linzen *et al.* [197] investigated whether LSTM, when trained on different training objectives, can capture long-term dependencies like number agreement in English subject-verb dependencies. Conneau *et al.* [70] proposed ten probing tasks annotated with fine-grained linguistic properties and compared different approaches for sentence embeddings. Zhu *et al.* [422] inspected which semantic properties (*e.g.* negation, synonymy, etc.) are encoded by different sentence embeddings approaches. For more examples about syntactic linguistics encoded by neural NLP models, the recent report of Linzen & Baroni [196] surveys the majority of works in this field.

While this approach exhibits useful insights, it suffers yet from two main flaws. Firstly, probing tasks examine properties captured by the model at a coarse-grained level, *i.e.* layers representations and, thereby, will not identify features captured by individual neurons. Secondly, probing tasks will not identify linguistic concepts that do not appear in the annotated probing datasets [417]. In addition, recently Ravichander *et al.* [292] investigated whether probing classifiers accuracy is correlated with task performance and found that in some cases, the linguistic properties encoded by models are not required at all to solve the task. To handle this issue, Elazar *et al.* [104] proposed a method called *amnesic probing*, which performs probing when some linguistic knowledge is removed from the encoded representation, and then investigate the influence of the removal of this specific knowledge on the ability of the model to solve the task.

3.2.4 Neural Representations Correlation Analysis

Cross-network and cross-layers correlation is an effective approach to gain insights on how the internal neural representations may vary across networks, network-depth and training time. Suitable approaches are based on Correlation Canonical Analysis (CCA) [153, 362], such as Singular Vector Canonical Correlation Analysis (SVCCA) [284] and Projected Weighted Canonical Correlation Analysis (PWCCA) [239]. These methods permit to study the similarity between high-dimensional neural representations learnt across different models and layers.

⁴ Also known as auxiliary prediction and diagnostic classifiers

Formally, let us consider a set of n examples $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. We aim to compute the similarity between the representations encoded over the set of examples X by two layers (whether from the same model or different models): l_1 with a dimension that equals to d_1 and l_2 with a dimension that equals to d_2 . Let $\mathbf{L}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_1}$ and $\mathbf{L}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_2}$ be the activations matrices of the layers l_1 and l_2 , respectively, over the set X . SVCCA is calculated in two steps. First, singular value decomposition is calculated between \mathbf{L}_1 and \mathbf{L}_2 in order to remove dimensions that are likely unimportant, to get subspaces: $\mathbf{L}'_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d'_1}$ and $\mathbf{L}'_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d'_2}$. Second, CCA is used to linearly transform \mathbf{L}'_1 to $\tilde{\mathbf{L}}'_1 = \mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{L}'_1$ and \mathbf{L}'_2 to $\tilde{\mathbf{L}}'_2 = \mathbf{W}_2 \mathbf{L}'_2$, to be as aligned as possible by maximising the correlations $\rho = \{\rho_1, \dots, \rho_{\min(d'_1, d'_2)}\}$ between the new sub-spaces. In SVCCA, the correlation between \mathbf{L}_1 and \mathbf{L}_2 is simply the mean of ρ , whereas in PWCCA, it is a weighted mean of ρ . Morcos *et al.* [239] have shown that the weighted mean leads to a more robust similarity. Intuitively, the correlation is between $[0, 1]$ and a high correlation means a high similarity between the information encoded by the two layers.

This method has been successfully applied to analyse NLP neural models. For instance, it was used by Bau *et al.* [27] to calculate cross-networks correlation for ranking important neurons in NMT and LM. Saphra & Lopez [316] applied it to probe the evolution of syntactic, semantic, and topic representations cross-time and cross-layers. Raghu *et al.* [285] compared the internal representations of models trained from scratch *vs* models initialised with pretrained weights in CNNs-based models. Kudugunta *et al.* [178] used SVCCA to analyse the multilingual representations obtained by multilingual neural machine translation models.

CCA based methods aim to calculate the similarity between neural representations at the coarse-grained level. In contrast, correlation analysis at the fine-grained level, *i.e.* between individual neurons, has also been explored in the literature. Initially, Li *et al.* [192] used Pearson’s correlation to examine to what extent each individual unit is correlated to another unit, either within the same network or between different networks. The same correlation metric was used by Bau *et al.* [27] to identify important neurons in NMT and LM tasks. Recently, Wu *et al.* [384] performed a similarity analysis to compare the representations learned by different pretrained models. To do this, they measure the inter- and intra-similarity of their internal representations and attention layers, at the representation-level and the neuron-level. They found that different architectures often encode similar representation-level information, but differ at individual-level one.

3.2.5 Features Erasure (Ablations)

Feature erasure methods⁵ consist in observing the effect of masking or erasing a part of the model, *e.g.* word embedding, individual neurons, etc. We can cite the work of Arras *et al.* [17] who studied how relevant are individual tokens to the overall performance and thus choose words as a unit of feature removal, by masking their associated word2vec vector. Li *et al.* [190] and Dalvi

⁵ Also called ablations or pruning methods.

et al. [76] performed an analysis of the effect of erasing individual neurons and then investigated the ensued drop in performance of different NLP tasks. Figure 3.3 reports an experiment realised by Li *et al.* [190], showing the drop in POS tagging accuracy when ablating individual neurons from different layers of the model. We can observe that the useful information in higher layers is more distributed compared to lower layers.

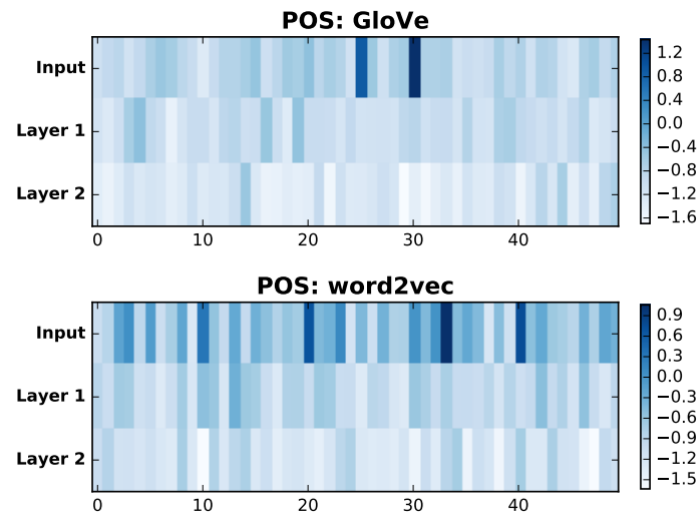


Figure 3.3 – Heatmap of individual neurons importance (drop in accuracy after the neuron ablation) of each layer for the POS task [190].

3.3 Explicative Methods: Why?

The goal of explicative methods is to justify a certain action or behaviour of the model, particularly the output of the model (prediction), which is often considered as the “desideratum” of interpretability work [198]. We present 6 commonly used approaches: selective rationalisation (§3.3.1), attention explanations (§3.3.2), gradients-based Methods (§3.3.3), surrogate models (§3.3.4), counterfactual examples (§3.3.5) and influence functions (§3.3.6).

3.3.1 Selective Rationalisation

Interpretable justifications (reasons) behind the outputs (predictions) are often called rationales in the literature [186]. A rationale is a piece of text from the input, which must be concise and sufficient for the prediction [139]. Some examples of rationales from different tasks are illustrated in Figure 3.4 (from the ERASER dataset [88]). For instance, for sentiment analysis of movie reviews, the text pieces “The acting is great!” and “but the action more than makes up for it” are selected as rationales for the model’s prediction (positive).

Selective rationalisation consists in training intrinsically interpretable models (ad-hoc) that learn to select the rationales jointly with each prediction. One research direction is to use

Movie Reviews

In this movie, ... Plots to take over the world. The acting is great! The soundtrack is run-of-the-mill, but the action more than makes up for it

(a) Positive (b) Negative

e-SNLI

H A man in an orange vest leans over a pickup truck
P A man is touching a truck

(a) Entailment (b) Contradiction (c) Neutral

Commonsense Explanations (CoS-E)

Where do you find the most amount of leaves?

(a) Compost pile (b) Flowers (c) Forest (d) Field (e) Ground

Evidence Inference

Article Patients for this trial were recruited ... Compared with 0.9% saline, 120 mg of inhaled nebulized furosemide had no effect on breathlessness during exercise.

Prompt With respect to *breathlessness*, what is the reported difference between patients receiving *placebo* and those receiving *furosemide*?

(a) Sig. decreased (b) No sig. difference (c) Sig. increased

Figure 3.4 – Examples of rationales annotations from the ERASER dataset [88].

human-annotated rationales as supervised attention to improve the prediction; when annotating examples with the target task annotations, the annotator is asked to highlight the piece of texts (evidence) that support his annotations. For instance, Zaidan *et al.* [400] used human-annotated rationales as additional supervision to learn a Support Vector Machine (SVM) sentiment analysis classifier on movie reviews. The model is trained on rationales, thus it is encouraged to put more attention on the most relevant features in the input text and to ignore the noise. Similarly, Zhang *et al.* [411] proposed to train supervisedly a CNNs-based text classifier to generate rationales jointly with the principal predictor.

In contrast to the above research direction which makes use of human-annotated rationales, Lei *et al.* [187] proposed a framework to justify the predictions of a sentiment analysis classifier by extracting rationales from the input text without manual annotations, *i.e.* unsupervisedly. Precisely, the neural model proposed by Lei *et al.* [187] is composed of two components: the generator selects candidate rationales from the input document and the encoder learns to predict the target task from the selected rationales. The two components are jointly trained via the REINFORCE style optimisation [379]; an optimisation objective that fosters short and concise rationales while ensuring that the rationales alone are sufficient for accurate prediction. In the same vein, Jain *et al.* [159] proposed a three-step method to perform rationales-based training. First, a black-box model is trained on the original training data. Second, rationales are extracted using a post-hoc interpretability method - LIME (see §3.3.4). Third, a new model is trained only on rationales.

3.3.2 Attention Explanations

The attention mechanism [21] is widely adopted in neural NLP models since it allows to boost the predictive performance. Interestingly, the attention mechanism is interpretable by design since it assigns an attention weight to each token from the input. Thus, one can consider highly weighted tokens as explanations [190]. Figure 3.5 shows attention weights in an encoder-decoder NMT model when translating from a French sentence to an English sentence. For instance, we can see that the model puts a high value of attention on the source words “signé” and “été” to produce the target word “signed”.

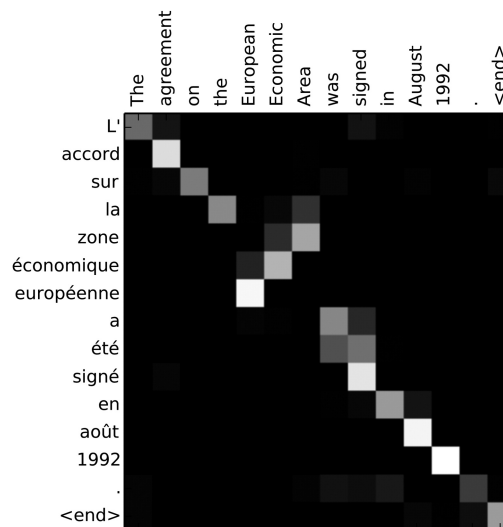


Figure 3.5 – Learned attention weights in a NMT model French - English [21]. Brighter colour implies a higher attention weight.

However, it has been shown that attention weights do not provide, in fact, faithful explanations for predictions. Jain & Wallace [158] investigated whether attention weights provide faithful explanations across different NLP tasks by comparing attention weights to feature importance measures (gradient-based and feature erasure approaches). They found that they do not, *i.e.* highly weighted tokens are not the most influential on the model’s output, likely due to complex encoders which may entangle inputs. Similarly, Serrano & Smith [332] found that attention weights fail to explain the model’s decisions.

Later, Wiegrefe & Pinter [377] challenged the assumptions of the former work finding that, in certain conditions, attention can be considered as a plausible explanation. Indeed, they highlight that claiming that attention is an explanation or not depends on one’s definition of explanation. For instance, under the definitions of Lipton [198], attention scores should be considered as a way to improve the transparency of the model. In comparison, under the definition of Rudin [306] who defines explainability as providing a plausible but not necessarily faithful justifications for the model’s decision, attentions scores should be considered as explanations.

3.3.3 Gradients-based Methods

Gradient-based explanations [338, 336] are obtained by measuring how perturbing inputs locally affects the model’s loss, which allows spotting input’s pieces that, if changed, would most influence the output. Thus, highlighting inputs pieces that contribute the most to the final decision. Concretely, let us consider a sentence example S from the training set, composed of n tokens $S = [t_1, \dots, t_n]$. The embedding layer embeds each token t_i to its embedding vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, where d is the embedding size. Let $\mathcal{L}_{\hat{y}}$ be the loss with respect to the prediction \hat{y} that the model made for the sentence S . In gradient-based approaches, the saliency score attributed to each token t_i is based on $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_i} \mathcal{L}_{\hat{y}}$; the derivative of the loss with respect to the embedding \mathbf{x}_i that measures how a small change in \mathbf{x}_i will influence the prediction \hat{y} .

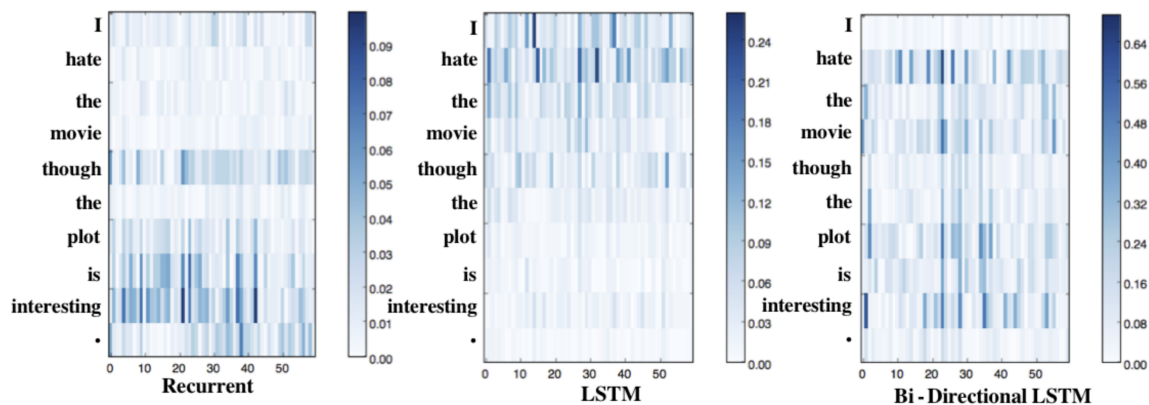


Figure 3.6 – Saliency heatmaps for the sentence “I hate the movie though the plot is interesting.” Source [189]

Saliency scores are generally represented in saliency maps (also called sensitivity maps). For instance, Li *et al.* [189] used gradients-based methods to visualise the importance of each token in a sentence for the prediction of the sentiment classifier. An example of sensitivity maps is illustrated in Figure 3.6. Each row corresponds to the saliency score for the corresponding word embedding for each word in the sentence “I hate the movie though the plot is interesting.” and each column represents each embedding dimension (neuron).

3.3.4 Surrogate Models

A widely used post-hoc approach to explain a black box model’s predictions consists in training a simple surrogate model to approximate the behaviour of the black-box model in order to facilitate the extraction of explanations. Global surrogate methods are used to imitate the behaviour of the black-box model in its entirety (global explanations), whereas local surrogate models are trained to mimic the behaviour of the black-box model locally for a specific prediction (local explanations). Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations (LIME) [296] is the most

popular tool in this category. It consists in approximating the original black-box classifier (*i.e.* approximate the local decision boundaries for a specific instance) with a shallow interpretable classifier (surrogate model); usually a simple linear model whose weights explain the relevance of an input feature to a prediction. The surrogate model is trained on perturbations of the original instance and aims to explain the prediction provided by the black-box classifier for the instance of interest. For NLP, perturbations could be done by masking words or characters from the original text. In the same vein as LIME, Alvarez-Melis & Jaakkola [11] proposed a causal framework to approximate the local behaviour of black-box models for sequence-to-sequence NLP tasks.

3.3.5 Counterfactual explanations

Counterfactual explanations are inspired by causal inference works, which investigate the impact of a treatment (medical treatment, advertisement campaign, etc.) on a population. Causal-based explainability approaches aim to assess the importance of a feature for a given prediction by measuring the effect of a causal intervention which modify the feature of interest from the input representation. We can cite the work of Goyal *et al.* [132] who introduced the causal concept effect in a computer vision application and proposed to change the pixels of an image to those of another image classified differently by the classifier, in order to compute the effect of those pixels. Alvarez-Melis & Jaakkola [11] proposed a causal framework for sequence-to-sequence NLP tasks to discover word-level input-output associations by perturbing the input texts. Recently, Feder *et al.* [109] proposed CausalLM, a model for explaining NNs predictions formulated as a causal inference problem. In CausalLM, an adversarial pre-training of pretrained language models, such as BERT, is performed to learn a counterfactual representation for a given concept of interest, which is then used to estimate the real causal effect of the concept on the model’s performance. Elazar *et al.* [104] proposed to enhance probing methods to investigate what information is being used for prediction. As discussed above, probing methods help to get insights about what information is encoded in the inner representations of the model. However, they do not allow knowing whether this information is actually used by the model to get decisions. Precisely, Elazar *et al.* [104] proposed a method called *amnesic probing*, which performs probing when some linguistic knowledge is removed from the encoded representation, and then investigate the influence of the removal of this specific knowledge on the ability of the model to solve the task. For this, they use the algorithm *Iterative Nullspace Projection (INLP)* [291] (as an alternative to adversarial training) which allows to neutralise the possibility of predicting a certain concept from a representation with a linear function.

3.3.6 Influence Functions

In contrast to the above-mentioned explicative methods that construct the importance scores over each token from the input sentence on the final prediction of this sentence, “influence functions” [175] is a post-hoc explainability method which approximates the change on the

model’s parameters when the instance is up-weighted in the empirical risk by an infinitesimal amount. Thus, it allows measuring the influence of each training instance on the model’s prediction for a test example. In NLP, we can cite the work of Han *et al.* [147] who investigated whether influence functions can be reliably used to interpret decisions of deep transformer-based models such as BERT [87] and compared their results to leave-one-out training as well as the consistency with gradient-based saliency scores. In addition, they found that influence functions help to reveal artifacts in training data. However, as showed by Basu *et al.* [26], first-order influence functions are principally accurate only in the case of machine learning algorithms with a convex loss functions like SVM. Hence, in the case of DNNs with non-convex loss functions, influence functions are brittle and their efficiency depends on the the network architecture and regularisation parameters.

3.4 Mechanistic Methods: How?

Descriptive methods aim to shed light on the model’s black-box internal representations and explicative methods aim to extract input pieces that explain (justify) the model’s prediction. However, both categories are not necessarily interested in elucidating the inner workings of the model. In comparison, we discern mechanistic methods which seek to go further by providing a functional understanding of the model, *i.e.* how a neural model goes about accomplishing a particular function. For instance, mechanistic methods can help to check if the explanations provided by the explicative methods genuinely reflect the real mechanism that generated the predictions. Also, how the linguistic knowledge encoded by the model is processed and propagated between the model’s layers. Given its intricacy, works in this category are scarce. Notwithstanding, we have identified two lines of works that provide somehow a functional understanding of the model. One line of research focuses on the theoretical understanding of how recurrent networks process information [374, 259, 57, 207] and how information is accumulated towards a prediction [141]. Another line of research proposes self-explainable models offering the ability to retrace a complete reasoning path of the model’s decision [1, 421].

3.5 Discussion

In this chapter, we have presented the main research directions of neural NLP models interpretability and explainability. We proposed a new taxonomy that segregates the SOTA works on three categories. First, descriptive methods aim to investigate the knowledge learned by neural models in their internal representations. Second, explicative methods aim to justify the predictions of the model. Finally, mechanistic methods seek to provide a functional understanding of the model.

In addition to the necessity of justifying predictions and decisions for critical applications, a

better understanding can allow to spot the weaknesses of NLP models and improve them. For instance, influence functions were used by Han *et al.* [147] to reveal artifacts (*i.e.* Human-made statistical correlations in the text, making the task easier [370]) in training data that might be exploited by models. Further, using counterfactual examples can help to identify models that are vulnerable to adversarial attacks and thus posing security risks [175]. Otherwise, interpreting black box models can help to identify and neutralise these models from social biases [34], like gender bias [25, 415, 119, 112, 92].

Within the framework of transfer learning, a large body of analysis and interpretability works attempts to investigate the linguistic knowledge encoded in pretrained universal representations. Particularly, probing classifiers are broadly used [199, 64, 47]. Moreover, some recent works attempt to investigate the impact of fine-tuning on these representations. We can cite the work of Talmor *et al.* [347] who investigated whether the performance on a downstream task is attributed to the knowledge encoded in pretrained representations or to the knowledge encoded during fine-tuning. Pruksachatkun *et al.* [278] studied the accuracy of probing classifiers after fine-tuning on different target tasks. Merchant *et al.* [231] investigated how fine-tuning leads to changes in the representations of the BERT pre-trained model, showing that fine-tuning is a “conservative process”. Mosbach *et al.* [240] investigated the effect of fine-tuning in three Transformer models (BERT, RoBERTa and ALBERT) through sentence-level probing classifiers. They found that fine-tuning can lead to substantial changes in probing accuracy. However, these changes vary greatly depending on the encoder model as well as fine-tuning and probing tasks combination. In a different line of research, Dalvi *et al.* [77] proposed to detect general and task-specific redundancy at both the layer-level and neuron-level. The analysis is conducted on BERT and XLNet pretrained models. The results on eight sequence labelling and sequence classification tasks show that a large portion of the neurons in these models are redundant. Then, they proposed a set of pruning methods to reduce the pretrained model’s parameters while preserving most of the model’s performance on downstream tasks.

In this thesis, we employ descriptive methods for two objectives. First, in chapter 6, we propose to use *individual units stimulus* and *neural representations correlation analysis* to highlight the bias effect in the standard fine-tuning scheme of transfer learning in NLP. Second, in chapter 7, we make use of *individual neurons ablation* to highlight the impact of individual neurons from low-level tasks on high-level tasks in a hierarchical multi-task model. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to harness those interpretive methods to analyse individual units behaviour in Transfer Learning for domain adaptation.

4 | Background: NLP Tasks and Datasets

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we provide some background knowledge about the NLP tasks that will be tackled in this thesis. Given the sequential nature of the spoken and written text, labelling sequences of words is needed in many NLP applications. We focus in this thesis on sequence labelling tasks. Formally, given an input sentence of n successive tokens $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$, the goal of a sequence labelling model is to predict the label $c_i \in \mathcal{C}$ of every w_i , with \mathcal{C} being the tag-set.

We start by describing each task and the datasets experimented in this work. Namely, Part-Of-Speech tagging (**POS**) (§4.2), Morpho-Syntactic Tagging (**MST**) (§4.3), Chunking (**CK**) (§4.4), Named Entity Recognition (**NER**) (§4.5) and Dependency Parsing (**DP**) (§4.6). Then, we present the metrics we will use to evaluate and compare our models (§4.7). Table 4.1 summarises the statistics of the datasets used in this thesis. Given that user-generated-content in social media may contain personal data and thus privacy-sensitive information, we use simple rules to anonymise usernames and URLs in datasets that are not already anonymised by the publisher.

Task	Data-set	# Classes	# Tokens splits (train - val - test)
POS Tagging	WSJ	36	912,344 - 131,768 - 129,654
	TPoS	40	10,500 - 2,300 - 2,900
	ArK	25	26,500 - / - 7,700
	TweeBank	17	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
CK: Chunking	CONLL2000	22	211,727 - n/a - 47,377
	TChunk	18	10,652 - 2,242 - 2,291
NER: Named Entity Recognition	CONLL-03	4	203,621 - 51,362 - 46,435
	WNUT-17	6	62,729 - 15,734 - 23,394
DP: Dependency Parsing	UD-English-EWT	51	204,585 - 25,148 - 25,096
	TweeBank	51	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
MST: Morpho-syntactic Tagging	Slovene-news	1304	439k - 58k - 88k
	Slovene-sm	1102	37,756 - 7,056 - 19,296
	Croatian-news	772	379k - 50k - 75k
	Croatian-sm	654	45,609 - 8,886 - 21,412

Table 4.1 – Statistics of the used datasets. Grey rows: news-domain datasets. White rows: social media domain datasets.

		@ ! L P ^ , O V R E
ArK		@Username OMG ur from PA ? i am too (:
POS		PRP VBZ DT DT NN UH
TPoS		It workz al d time :-D
		intj pron verb aux adp noun
Tweebank		sorryyz i got caught for textinnngg
		b-np b-advp b-vp i-vp i-vp i-vp b-np b-np O
CK	Tchunk	they just do n't wanna talk to u !!!!!
		b-creative-work b-group i-group
NER	Wnut	Mcchoke but the warriors blew a 3-1 lead
		Pd-nsn Va-r3s-y Pz-fsn Ncfsn
MST	Slovene	To ni nobena novost

Table 4.2 – Illustrative examples of annotated sentences from each social media dataset.

4.2 POS tagging

Part-Of-Speech (POS) tagging assigns an adequate and unique grammatical category (POS tag) to each word in a text. It indicates how the word is used in a sentence, *e.g.* noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction, etc. The main difficulty of the POS tagging task is related to the ambiguity, as many words can have multiple parts of speech [32]. Note that tag-sets may differ from one data-set to another. The most common tag-sets are:

1. The Treebank’s tag-sets, where POS tags vary between languages due to cross-lingual differences. For example the English Penn TreeBank (PTB) [215] comprises 36 tags¹ and the French TreeBank (FTB) comprises 34 tags².
2. The Universal Dependencies (UD) 2.0 [251] POS tag-set³ contains a tag-set of 17 POS tags that are common between all languages.

Datasets

In this thesis, we perform experiments on transfer learning from the news source domain to the social media target domain. Hence, we use a set of datasets from each domain. For the *source dataset*, we use the Wall Street Journal (**WSJ**) part of the Penn TreeBank, a large English dataset (formal texts) from the news domain, annotated with the PTB tag-set. Regarding the *target datasets*, we use three English social media datasets:

¹ https://www.ling.upenn.edu/courses/Fall_2003/ling001/penn_treebank_pos.html

² <http://ftb.linguist.univ-paris-diderot.fr/treebank.php>

³ <https://universaldependencies.org/u/pos/>

- **TPoS** [298]: 787 hand-annotated English Tweets, which uses the same tag-set as PTB’s plus four Twitter unique tags: “URL” for web addresses, “HT” for hashtags, “USR” for username mentions and “RT” for *Retweet* signifier (40 tags in total). For our experiments on TPoS, we use the same data splits used by Derczynski *et al.* [86]; 70:15:15 into training, validation and test sets. The tag-set list of TPoS dataset is provided in Table B.1.
- **ARK** [255]: published in two parts, Oct27 and Daily547, using a novel and coarse grained tag-set comprising 25 tags⁴. For example, its “V” tag corresponds to any verb, conflating PTB’s “VB”, “VBD”, “VBG”, “VBN”, “VBP”, “VBZ”, and “MD” tags or ARK’s tag “L” corresponding to nominal + verbal (e.g. *ur (you are)*) and verbal + nominal (e.g. *let’s (let us)*). Since data splits portions are not mentioned in original paper, we split the Oct27 dataset into training-set and validation-set (90:10) and use Daily547 as a test-set. The tag-set list of ArK dataset is provided in Table B.2.
- **TweeBank** [203]: is a collection of Tweets annotated with the UD 2.0 POS tag-set, which includes 17 tags. A primary difference of the annotation scheme of TweeBank compared the two previous datasets concerns the abbreviations, where the tag of the syntactic head of the expression is attributed to the abbreviation. The tag-set list of TweeBank dataset is provided in Table B.3.

4.3 Morpho-Syntactic Tagging

When POS tags are enriched with Morpho-Syntactic Descriptions (MSDs), such as gender, case, tense, etc.⁵, the task is called Morphosyntactic Tagging (MST). For instance, in the example of the morphologically-tagged Slovene sentence in Table 4.2: *To ni nobena novost* (“This is not a novelty” in English), the word “*novost*” is annotated as *Ncfcn*, that stands for *POS=Noun, Type=common, Gender=feminine, Number=singular* and *Case=nominative*.

Datasets

We performed experiments on three South-Slavic languages: Slovene, Serbian and Croatian. We used **Vardial18** datasets provided in the Morphosyntactic Tagging of Tweets (MTT) shared-task [402] containing two types of datasets for each language: Twitter (informal texts) and news (formal texts).

4.4 Chunking

Chunking (CK), also called shallow parsing, is “an intermediate step from POS tagging towards dependency parsing”⁶, which aims to extract high-order syntactic spans (chunks) from texts.

⁴ http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~ark/TweetNLP/annot_guidelines.pdf

⁵ <http://nl.ijs.si/ME/V5/msd/html/msd-sl.html>

⁶ <https://www.clips.uantwerpen.be/conll2000/chunking/>

For instance in the provided example in Table 1.2, “they” is a noun phrase and “do n’t wanna talk” is a verbal phrase. CK datasets generally use the BIO (Begin, Inside, Outside) annotation scheme that categorises tokens as either being outside the syntactic span (O), the beginning of the syntactic span (B_X) or inside the syntactic span (I_X). Here X refers to one of the 11 syntactic chunk types like NP: Nominal Phrase, VP: Verbal Phrase, PP: Prepositional Phrase, ADJP: Adjectival Phrase, ADVP: Adverbial Phrase, etc.

Datasets

For the *source dataset*, we used the **CONLL2000** shared task’s English data-set [354] that uses sections 15-18 from the WSJ corpus for training and section 20 for testing. Regarding the *target dataset*, we used **TChunk** Tweets data-set [298] (the same corpus as TPoS). Both datasets use the BIO format annotation scheme. For instance, in the provided example in Table 4.2: “!!!!” is outside the syntactic span, “do” is the beginning of a verbal-phrase span, while “do n’t wanna talk” are inside the verbal-phrase span. The Chunking tag-set used in both datasets is provided in Table B.4.

4.5 Named Entity Recognition

Compared to the above tasks that act mostly in the syntactic level, NER extracts semantic information from textual documents and could be considered as a semantic task. It consists on classifying named entities that are present in a text into pre-defined categories like names of persons, organisations or locations [32].

Datasets

Regarding the source domain, we make use of the English news dataset **CONLL-03** from the CONLL 2003 shared task [355], tagged with four different entity types (Persons, Locations, Organisations and MISC). For the target domain, we conducted our experiments on the Emerging Entity Detection shared task of **WNUT-17** [85], which includes six entity types, three of which are common with CONLL-03’s types: *Persons*, *Organisations* and *Locations*, while three are emergent: *Products*, *Groups* (e.g. *the warriors*) and *Creative Works* (e.g. *Mcchoke (Machoke)*). The training-set of WNUT-17 is made-up of 1,000 annotated Tweets, validation-set from Youtube comments and test-set from a mix of different sources of noisy texts: Twitter, Reddit and StackExchange. Similarly to CK datasets, both NER datasets use the BIO format annotation scheme that categorises tokens as either being outside the entity type (O), the beginning of the entity type (B_X) or inside the entity type (I_X), here X refers to one of the entity types.

4.6 Dependency Parsing

Given an input sentence $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$ of n successive tokens, the goal of DP is two folds [32]:

1. Identifying, for each w_i , its head $w_j \in S$. The couple of tokens w_i and w_j are called the dependant and the head⁷, respectively.
2. Predicting the dependency syntactic relation's class $r_j^i \in \mathcal{R}_{dp}$ relating each dependant-head pair, where \mathcal{R}_{dp} is the dependency-relations set.

Simply, the goal of DP is to predict for each token w_i its unique in-going labelled arc (w_i, w_j, r_j^i) . Thus, constructing a syntactic tree structure of the sentence, where words are treated as nodes in a graph, connected by labelled directed arcs.

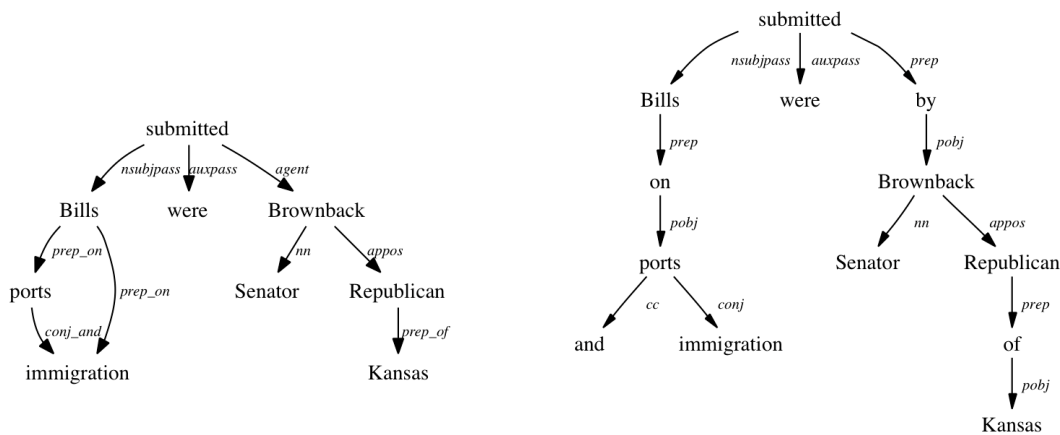


Figure 4.1 – Stanford Dependencies for the sentence “Bills on ports and immigration were submitted by Senator Brownback, Republican of Kansas”. Left: Standard Stanford Dependencies (SSD). Right: Basic Stanford Dependencies (BSD) - Source [83].

Two common dependency schemes are used in the literature, Stanford Dependencies (SD) and Universal Dependencies (UD):

Stanford Dependencies (SD) were developed by De Marneffe & Manning [83], providing a set of grammatical relationships that allow an easy syntactic description of sentences. Two graphical representations are used in SD; “the Standard Stanford Dependencies (SSD) (collapsed and propagated) and the Basic Stanford Dependencies (BSD), in which each word in the sentence (except the head of the sentence) is the dependant of exactly one other word (no collapsing, no propagation)”⁸. Thus, unlike the SSD, the BSD generates a syntactic tree. The English SSD contains 50 grammatical relations.

Figure 4.1 illustrates SSD and BSD dependency trees for the sentence “Bills on ports and immigration were submitted by Senator Brownback, Republican of Kansas”. The verb “submitted” is the root, as it is the only word of the sentence that is not dependent on any

⁷ Also called governor or regent.

⁸ <https://nlp.stanford.edu/software/stanford-dependencies.shtml>

head-word. We can observe that SSD and BSD are slightly different. The following SSD relations are connecting words of the sentence:

- **nsubjpass(submitted, Bills)** (passive nominal subject): “Bills” is the passive nominal subject of the verb “submitted” in the passive clause.
- **auxpass(submitted, were)** (passive auxiliary): “were” is the non-main verb of the passive clause.
- **agent(submitted, Brownback)**: “Brownback” is the complement of the passive verb “submitted”, introduced by the preposition “by”. This relation only appears in the collapsed dependencies (SSD); it does not appear in basic dependencies (BSD). Where two relations replace it: *prep(submitted, by)* for *prepositional modifier* and *pobj(by, Brownback)* for *object of a preposition*.
- **nn(Brownback, Senator)** (noun compound modifier): In the nominal phrase (NP), “Senator Brownback”, “Senator” is a noun modifier of the head noun “Brownback”.
- **appos(Brownback, Republican)** (appositional modifier): “Republican of Kansas” is an NP that serves to define the preceding NP, “Senator Brownback”. Thus, “Republican” is an appositional modifier of “Brownback”.
- **prep_of(Republican, Kansas)** (prepositional modifier): “Kansas” is a prepositional modifier of “Republican”, introduced by the preposition “of”. This relation only appears in the collapsed dependencies; it does not appear in basic dependencies. It is replaced by two relations: *prep(Republican, of)* and *pobj(of, Kansas)*.
- **prep_on(Bills, ports)** and **prep_on(Bills, immigration)**: Both “immigration” and “ports” are prepositional modifier of “Bills”, introduced by the preposition “on”.
- **conj_and(ports, immigration)** (conjunction): “ports” and “immigration” are connected by the coordinating conjunction “and”.

Universal Dependencies (UD) appeared initially in [82] intending to extend the SD to other languages to be generally applicable cross-linguistically. Further, the UD have been developed for 60+ languages with a cross-linguistically consistent annotation [251]. Specifically, English TreeBank contains 51 relations, including the 37 multi-lingual relations, which are provided in Table B.5.

Datasets

For the source domain, we use *UD_English-EWT*, the English corpus of gold standard Universal Dependencies, built over the English Web Treebank⁹. The corpus comprises 254,830 words

⁹ <https://catalog.ldc.upenn.edu/LDC2012T13>

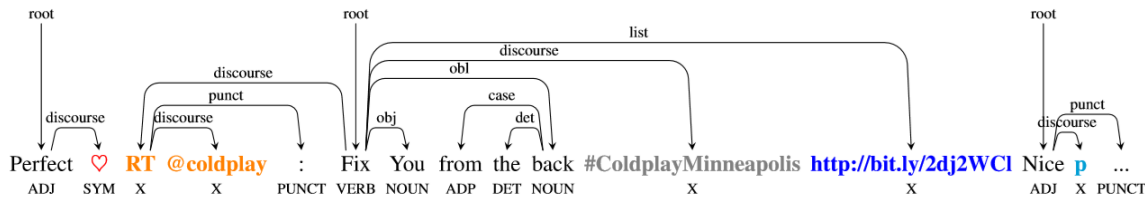


Figure 4.2 – An illustrative example from the TweepBank dataset showing non-syntactic tokens - Source: [203].

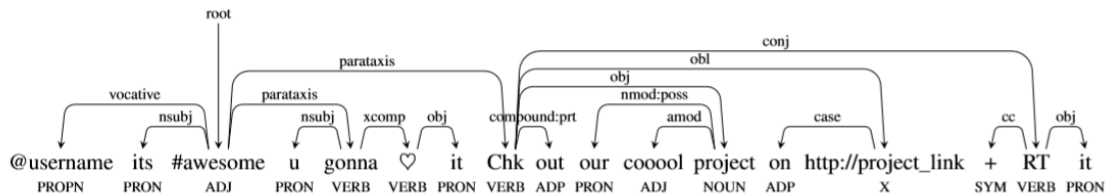


Figure 4.3 – An Illustrative example of informal but syntactic tokens - Source: [203].

(16,622 sentences). For the target domain, we use the recently published TweepBank dataset [203], annotated following the UD 2.0 guidelines. Considering the characteristics that distinguish Tweets from formal texts, the following special rules were adopted for the annotation of TweepBank dataset with syntactic dependencies:

- Multiple roots are allowed. Indeed, a single Tweet might be composed of more than one sentence. As illustrated in the provided example in Figure 4.2, the Tweet contains two sentences separated with “.”.
- In Tweets, many tokens do not carry a syntactic function in the sentence, *i.e.* non-syntactic tokens (sentiment emoticons, urls, hashtags, etc.). As illustrated in Figure 4.2, *heart*, *RT* and *@coldplay* are non-syntactic tokens and thus are respectively POS annotated as “SYM”, “X” and “X”. Regarding dependency relations, they are connected to their heads with the “discourse” syntactic relation. “The discourse relation is used for interjections and other discourse particles and elements (which are not clearly linked to the structure of the sentence)”¹⁰. However, these tokens may be used in Tweets with a syntactic function. For instance, in the syntactic tree of the Tweet in Figure 4.3, the hashtag *#awesome* is a content word, used as an adjective. Likewise, *RT* abbreviates the verb *retweet*.

4.7 Evaluation Metrics

Throughout this thesis, we evaluate our models using metrics that are commonly used by the community. Specifically, for sequence labelling tasks the accuracy (acc.) is commonly used,

¹⁰<https://universaldependencies.org/u/dep/discourse.html>

calculated by dividing the number of correct predictions by the number of all predictions, based on the number of true positives (TP), true negatives (TN), false positives (FP), and false negatives (FN), which is defined as follows:

$$Acc = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}. \quad (4.1)$$

For NER and CK, the F1 score is typically used, which is the harmonic mean of precision (P) and recall (R):

$$R = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}, \quad (4.2)$$

$$P = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}, \quad (4.3)$$

$$F1 = 2 \times \frac{P \times R}{P + R}. \quad (4.4)$$

The F1 metric provides a good estimate of the overall quality of a model. Indeed, as aforementioned, CK and NER datasets are annotated using the BIO scheme. Thus, F1 is used to calculate entity-level performances, *i.e.* exact match of the whole entity is needed, *e.g.* “Micchoke but the warriors blew a 3-1 lead” in the example provided in Table 4.2, both words of the entity *group* “the warriors” should be predicted correctly.

For DP task, two evaluation measures are commonly used, unlabelled attachment score (UAS) [103] and labelled attachment score (LAS) [252]. UAS does not consider the relation (arc label), while LAS requires a correct label for each arc. Specifically, “LAS is the percentage of words that are assigned both the correct syntactic head and the correct dependency label. We use CoNLL 2017 Shared Task evaluation script, where only universal dependency labels are taken into account, which means that language-specific subtypes such as *acl:relcl* (*relative clause*), a subtype of the universal relation *acl* (*adnominal clause*), will be truncated to *acl* both in the gold standard and in the parser output in the evaluation.”¹¹

A common approach to compare the performance between different approaches across different datasets and tasks is to take the average of each approach across all tasks and datasets. Precisely given a set of L datasets, the average score Avg_i of a particular approach i is calculated using:

$$\text{Avg}_i = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{j=1}^L s_j^i, \quad (4.5)$$

with s_j^i being the score of the approach i on dataset j . However, as it has been discussed in many research papers [345, 294, 348], when tasks are not evaluated using the same metrics or results across datasets are not of the same order of magnitude, the simple average does not allow a

¹¹<https://universaldependencies.org/conll18/evaluation.html>

“coherent aggregation”. For this, we use the average Normalized Relative Gain (aNRG) proposed by Tamaazousti *et al.* [350], where a score aNRG_i for each approach i is calculated compared to a reference approach (baseline) as follows:

$$\text{aNRG}_i = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{j=1}^L \frac{(s_j^i - s_j^{ref})}{(s_j^{max} - s_j^{ref})}, \quad (4.6)$$

with s_j^i being the score of the approach i on dataset j , s_j^{ref} being the score of the reference approach on dataset j and s_j^{max} is the score of the best score achieved across all approaches on dataset j .

5 | Sequential Transfer Learning from News to Social Media

5.1 Introduction

As discussed in the introduction, approaches based on neural-networks are effective when dealing with learning from large amounts of annotated data. However, these are only available for a limited number of languages and domains due to the cost of the manual annotation. Particularly, despite how valuable content from Social Media (SM) can be for a variety of applications (*e.g.* public security, health monitoring, or trends highlight), this domain is still poor in terms of annotated data.

This chapter presents the start-up contribution of the present thesis to overcome the problem of the lack of annotated data in low-resource domains and languages. Based on the intuition that the social media domain can be considered as an informal variety of the news domain (as illustrated in Figure 1.2), our main objective is to exploit the underlying similarities shared between the two domains. For this purpose, we study the effectiveness of sequential transfer learning to overcome the sparse data problem in the social media domain by leveraging the huge available annotated data in the news domain. Precisely, we aim to take advantage of the knowledge learned by a source model; formerly trained on sufficient annotated examples from the source domain; to help improve the learning of the target model.¹ We put our approaches to the test on three sequence labelling tasks: Part-Of-Speech tagging (POS), Chunking (CK) and Named Entity Recognition (NER) and we propose two sequential transfer learning schemes:

1. The first approach, that we call “**transfer of supervisedly-pretrained contextual representations**”, consists in injecting the *contextualised* representations generated by the source model as fixed input features at the first layer of the target model. Thus, all the remaining target model’s layers are trained from scratch.
2. The second approach, that we call “**transfer of pretrained models**”, aims to make better use of the pre-learned knowledge, by using the pretrained weights from the source model

¹ Note that, in this thesis, we focus on news as the source-domain and social-media as the target-domain. However, our methods are applicable to other source and target domains.

to initialise the target model’s parameters, instead of training them from scratch.

The remainder of this chapter is as follows:

- In section 5.2, we present the standard supervised training scheme (training from scratch on available in-domain data), using a common neural model for sequence labelling tasks. We compare the results thereof on the news domain *vs* the social media domain. Furthermore, we experiment with stacking different standard word representations.
- In section 5.3, we describe our approaches: “transfer of supervisedly-pretrained representations” and “transfer of pretrained models”.
- In section 5.4, we present the results of our approaches. We first present the experimental results of each proposed method, and then we compare their results. Next, we investigate the impact of off-the-shelf ELMo contextualised embeddings when incorporated with our transfer learning approaches².
- In section 5.5, we perform a series of in-depth empirical experiments to analyse our second approach: “transfer of pretrained models”.
- In section 5.6, we wrap up by discussing the findings of this chapter.

5.2 Standard Supervised Training for Sequence Tagging

In this section, we assess the performance of the standard supervised training scheme for sequence labelling tasks as a point of comparison. We start by describing the commonly used neural architecture for sequence labelling (§5.2.1). Then, we compare the results of this training scheme on the news domain *vs* the social media domain (§5.2.2).

5.2.1 Neural Sequence Labelling Model

Given an input sentence S of n successive tokens $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$, the goal of a sequence labelling model is to predict the label $c_t \in \mathcal{C}$ of every w_t , with \mathcal{C} being the tag-set.

We use a common end-to-end neural sequence labelling model [210, 275, 389], which is composed of three components (illustrated in Figure 5.1). First, the **Word Representation Extractor (WRE)**, denoted Υ , computes a vector representation \mathbf{x}_t for each token w_t . Second, this representation is fed into a **Feature Extractor (FE)**: based on a biLSTM network [133], denoted Φ . It produces a hidden representation, \mathbf{h}_t , that is fed into a **Classifier (CI)**: a fully-connected layer (FCL), denoted Ψ . Formally, given w_t , the logits are obtained using the following equation:

² Note that at the time of conducting the research of this chapter, ELMo contextual representations work was not published.

$$\hat{y}_t = (\Psi \circ \Phi \circ \Upsilon)(w_t) . \quad (5.1)$$

For simplicity, we define \hat{y}_t only as a function of w_t . In reality, the prediction \hat{y}_t for the word w_t is also a function of the remaining words in the sentence and the model's parameters, in addition to w_t .

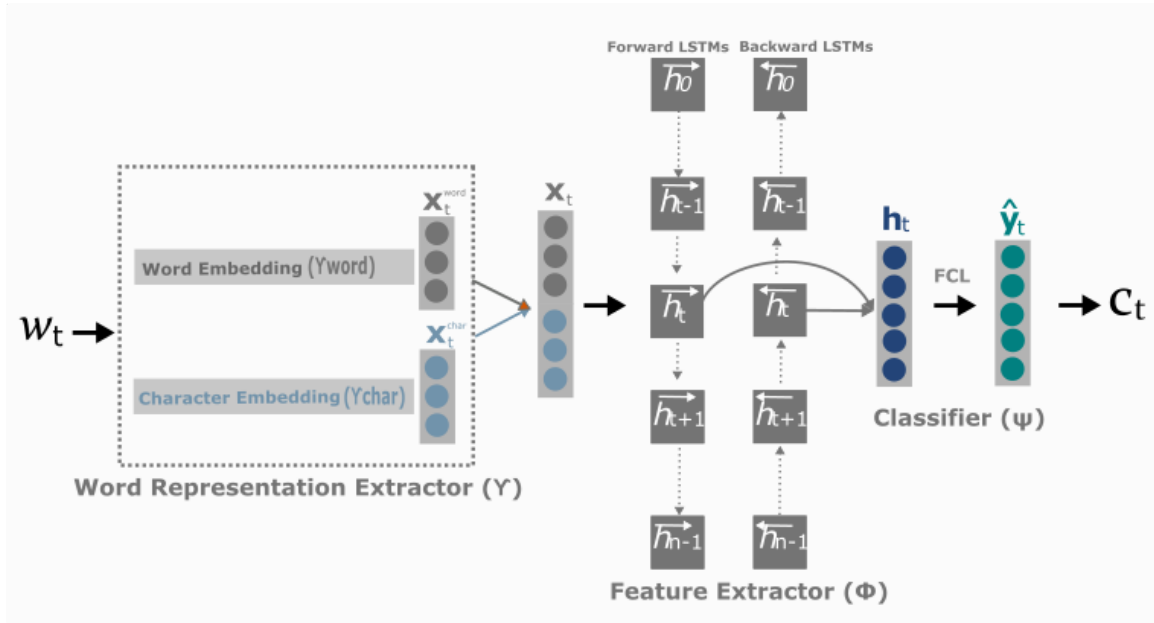


Figure 5.1 – Illustrative scheme of the base neural model for sequence labelling tasks.

In the following, we describe each component:

5.2.1.1 The Word Representation Extractor

Υ transforms each word into its vector representation. We make use of two types of representations: (1) a word-level component (denoted Υ^{word}) that generates a word-level embedding \mathbf{x}_t^{word} for each word w_t , and (2) character-level component (denoted Υ^{char}) that generates a character-level embedding \mathbf{x}_t^{char} for each word w_t , and concatenates them to get a final representation $\mathbf{x}_t = [\mathbf{x}_t^{word}, \mathbf{x}_t^{char}]$.

Standard word-level embeddings

The word-level embedding component, Υ^{word} , maps each word into a d^{word} dimensional space. Put simply, Υ^{word} generates a vector representation $\mathbf{x}_t^{word} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{word}}$ for each word w_t through a dense layer, following the equation:

$$\mathbf{x}_t^{word} = \mathbf{W}^{word} \cdot g(w_t) + \mathbf{b}^{word} , \quad (5.2)$$

Here, $g(\cdot)$ is a function that maps the word w_t into its v dimensional one-hot vector, with v the vocabulary size; $\mathbf{W}^{word} \in \mathbb{M}_{d^{word}, v}(\mathbb{R})$ is the word-level embedding weights matrix with

$\mathbb{M}_{a,r}(\mathbb{R})$ the vector space of $a \times r$ matrices over \mathbb{R} ; and $\mathbf{b}^{word} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{word}}$ is the bias vector.

The weights matrix may be randomly initialised and thus trained from scratch on the target-dataset training set. Otherwise, the weights matrix may be initialised with pretrained vectors (e.g. Word2vec, GloVe, etc.) to capture distributional semantic similarities between words³.

Character-level embeddings

Traditional word-level embeddings, pretrained on large unlabelled datasets, are limited in their ability to handle all Out-Of-Vocabulary (OOV) words. Indeed, these datasets could not provide a total coverage of any language’s vocabulary, which is a common problem for NLP tasks. Hopefully, Character-level Embeddings (CEs), which have become a crucial component in current NLP models, solve the OOV words issue thanks to their ability to encode morphological and orthographic features of every word even if it is OOV [270]. Particularly, CEs have been shown to be highly advantageous for morphological-level tasks such as morpho-syntactic tagging [204] and morphologically rich languages like Arabic [134, 10] and Slavic languages [337]. Two main architectures are used in the literature to model words’ character-features [410], Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) [210, 398, 16] and encoders based on variants of Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) [319, 275].

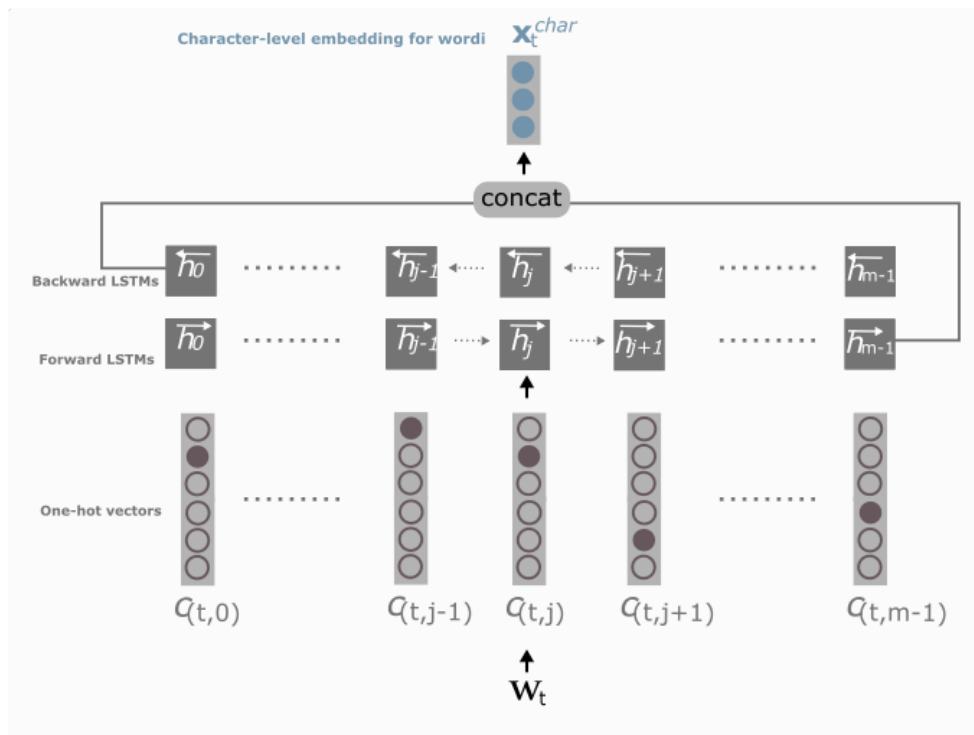


Figure 5.2 – Illustrative scheme of Υ^{char} , the character-level biLSTM-based embedding component.

As illustrated in Figure 5.2, we model character-level features using a bidirectional Long

³ Pretrained words embeddings are discussed in the state-of-the-art (§2.6.1).

Short-Term Memory (biLSTM) encoder, trained from scratch, to induce a fully context-sensitive character-level embedding. Concretely, a word w_t is divided into a succession of L_t characters $[\mathbf{c}_{(t,1)}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_{(t,L_t)}]$, each $\mathbf{c}_{(t,j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{v^{char}}$ defined as the one-hot vector of the corresponding character. Here, L_t is the length of the word w_t and v^{char} is the characters' vocabulary size. First, an embedding, $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{(t,j)} \in \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{d}^{char}}$, is computed for each character $\mathbf{c}_{(t,j)}$ through an embedding dense layer, following the equation:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{(t,j)} = \mathbf{W}^{char} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{(t,j)} + \mathbf{b}^{char}, \quad (5.3)$$

where $\mathbf{W}^{char} \in \mathbb{M}_{\tilde{d}^{char}, v^{char}}(\mathbb{R})$ is the character-level embedding weight matrix and $\mathbf{b}^{char} \in \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{d}^{char}}$ is the bias vector.

Next, a forward LSTM model reads the character vectors ($\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{(t,j)}$) from left to right and a backward LSTM model reads characters from right to left. The combination between the last hidden state of the forward LSTM and the last hidden state of the backward LSTM represents $\mathbf{x}_t^{char} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^{char}}$: the character-level embedding for the word w_t , where d^{char} is the character embedding's dimension.

5.2.1.2 Feature Extractor

To learn a context sensitive representation for each token, the word representation extractor's outputs, $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$, are fed into the feature extractor. It consists of a single biLSTM layer which iteratively passes through the sentence in both directions. Formally, a forward LSTM layer at a time-step t takes \mathbf{x}_t and the previous hidden state $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t-1}$ as input, and outputs the current forward hidden state $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t$, whilst a backward LSTM layer at time-step t takes \mathbf{x}_t and the following hidden state $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t+1}$ as input, and outputs the current backward hidden state $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t$. In order to take into account the context on both sides of that word, hidden representations $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t$ and $\overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t$ from forward and backward biLSTM units, respectively, are concatenated at every time-step, resulting \mathbf{h}_t vector: $\mathbf{h}_t = [\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t; \overleftarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t]$.

To obtain $\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t$, the following transformations are applied in the forward LSTMs:

$$\mathbf{i}_t = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_i \cdot [\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t]) \quad (5.4a)$$

$$\mathbf{f}_t = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_f \cdot [\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t]) \quad (5.4b)$$

$$\mathbf{o}_t = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_o \cdot [\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t]) \quad (5.4c)$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_t = \tanh(\mathbf{W}_c \cdot [\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t]) \quad (5.4d)$$

$$\mathbf{c}_t = \mathbf{f}_t \odot \mathbf{c}_{t-1} + \mathbf{i}_t \odot \tilde{\mathbf{c}}_t \quad (5.4e)$$

$$\overrightarrow{\mathbf{h}}_t = \mathbf{o}_t \odot \tanh(\mathbf{c}_t) \quad (5.4f)$$

Where σ is an element-wise sigmoid logistic function defined as $\sigma(\mathbf{a}) = [\frac{1}{1+\exp(-a_i)}]_{i=1}^{i=|\mathbf{a}|}$ for a vector \mathbf{a} . \odot denotes element-wise multiplication of two vectors. \mathbf{i}_t , \mathbf{f}_t and \mathbf{o}_t represent

input, forget and output gates at time-step t , respectively. \mathbf{W}_i , \mathbf{W}_f and \mathbf{W}_o represent the weight matrices of the input, forget and output gates, respectively. \mathbf{c}_t is the cell state at timestamp(t), $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}_t$ is the candidate for the cell state at time-step t , and \mathbf{W}_c is the weight matrix for the cell state.

5.2.1.3 Classifier

The feature extractor’s outputs $[\mathbf{h}_1, \dots, \mathbf{h}_n]$ are fed through a final dense layer with a softmax activation to generate a probability distribution over the output classes at each time-step t .

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_t = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{W}^{Cl} \mathbf{h}_t + \mathbf{b}^{Cl}), \quad (5.5)$$

where $\text{softmax}(\mathbf{a}) = \left[\frac{\exp(a_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{a}|} \exp(a_j)} \right]_{i=1}^{i=|\mathbf{a}|}$ for a vector \mathbf{a} ; $\mathbf{W}^{Cl} \in \mathbb{M}_{|C|, H}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathbf{b}^{Cl} \in \mathbb{R}^{|C|}$; H is the biLSTM’s output dimensionality; and $|C|$ is the tag-set size (number of the task’s labels).

In the standard supervised training scheme, the three modules are jointly trained by minimising the Softmax Cross-Entropy (SCE) loss using the Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) algorithm. Given a training set of M annotated sentences, where each sentence i is composed of m_i tokens. A training word $(w_{i,t}, y_{i,t})$ from the training sentence i , where $y_{i,t}$ is the gold standard label for the word $w_{i,t}$, the cross-entropy loss for this example is calculated as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}^{(i,t)} = -y_{i,t} \times \log(\hat{y}_{i,t}). \quad (5.6)$$

Thus, during training the sequence labelling task on M annotated sentences, the task loss is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{t=1}^{m_i} \mathcal{L}^{(i,t)}. \quad (5.7)$$

5.2.2 Experimental Results

The objective behind this experiment is two fold. First, we aim to assess the performance of the standard supervised training scheme on the high-resource news domain compared to the low-resource social media domain. Second, we study the impact of combining different kinds of embeddings, as it has been shown to be efficient to increase the diversity of the word representations [117, 48, 127]. We consider the following combinations of words representations:

1. CE: *randomly initialised* biLSTM character-level embedding.
2. WE: *randomly initialised* word-level embedding.
3. WE_{GloVe}: word-level embedding initialised with GloVe [262] *pretrained* word embedding.

4. WE_{FastText} : word-level embedding initialised with FastText [35] *pretrained* representations.
5. $WE_{\text{FastText}}+WE_{\text{GloVe}}$: word-level embedding initialised with the concatenation of FastText and GloVe *pretrained* representations.
6. WE+CE: concatenation of a word-level and a biLSTM character-level embeddings, *both randomly initialised*.
7. CE+ WE_{GloVe} : concatenation of GloVe *pretrained* embeddings with and *randomly initialised* character embedding.
8. CE+ WE_{FastText} : concatenation of word-level embedding initialised with FastText *pretrained* representations with the *randomly initialised* biLSTM character-level embedding.
9. CE+ $WE_{\text{FastText}}+WE_{\text{GloVe}}$: concatenation of FastText and GloVe *pretrained* word-level embeddings with the *randomly initialised* biLSTM character-level embedding.

5.2.2.1 Datasets

Throughout this chapter, we conduct experiments on three sequence labelling tasks (POS, CK and NER). For the *source-datasets*, we use the news domain with the following datasets: the WSJ part of Penn-Tree-Bank (PTB) [215] for POS; CONLL-03 for NER [355]; and CONLL2000 [354] for CK. In the same vein, for the *target-datasets*, we use the social media with the following datasets: TPoS, ArK and TweeBank [203] for POS; WNUT-17 [85] for NER; and TChunk [298] for CK. Statistics of all the datasets are summarised in Table 5.1. More details about the tasks and datasets are provided in chapter 4.

Task	#Classes	Sources	Eval. Metrics	Splits (train - val - test)
POS: POS Tagging	36	WSJ	Top-1 Acc.	912,344 - 131,768 - 129,654
CK: Chunking	22	CONLL-2000	Top-1 Acc.	211,727 - n/a - 47,377
NER: Named Entity Recognition	4	CONLL-2003	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	203,621 - 51,362 - 46,435
	40	TPoS	Top-1 Acc.	10,500 - 2,300 - 2,900
POS: POS Tagging	25	ArK	Top-1 Acc.	26,500 - / - 7,700
	17	TweeBank	Top-1 Acc.	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
CK: Chunking	18	TChunk	Top-1 Acc..	10,652 - 2,242 - 2,291
NER: Named Entity Recognition	6	WNUT-17	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	62,729 - 15,734 - 23,394

Table 5.1 – Statistics of the used datasets. **Top:** datasets of the source domain. **Bottom:** datasets of the target domain.

5.2.2.2 Implementation details

In the standard word-level embeddings, tokens are converted to lower-case while the character-level component still retains access to the capitalisation information. We set the randomly

initialised character embedding dimension (\tilde{d}^{char}) at 50, the dimension of hidden states of the character-level biLSTM (d^{char}) at 100 and used 300-dimensional word-level embeddings (d^{word}). Word-level embeddings were pre-loaded from publicly available GloVe vectors pre-trained on 42 billion words collected through web crawling and containing 1.9M different words [262] and from the publicly available FastText [35] vectors pre-trained on common crawl⁴. These embeddings are also updated during training. For the FE component, we use a single layer biLSTM (token-level feature extractor) and set the number of units (H) to 200. In all of our experiments, both pretraining and fine-tuning were performed using the same training settings, *i.e.* SGD with momentum and early stopping, mini-batches of 16 sentences, and a fixed learning rate of 1.5×10^{-2} . Throughout this thesis, all our models are implemented with the PyTorch library [258].

5.2.2.3 Results

Results are reported in Tables 5.2. The top table provides the results (accuracy %) on POS datasets and the bottom one provides the results on CK datasets (accuracy %) and NER datasets (F1 %). As discussed in section 4.7, we use the average (Avg.) as well as the aNRG metric (see equation 4.6) to compare the scores of the different methods. For the aNRG, the methods are compared to the reference CE+WE.

In light of the results displayed in Table 5.2, we make the following observations. First, All of our models perform significantly better on the news domain compared to the social media domain. This is mainly due to the lack of in-domain training data for the social media domain. Second, we can observe that CE+WE_{FastText}+WE_{GloVe} setting outperforms all other settings in most tasks and datasets, which indicates that the inductive biases encoded by different types of pretrained embeddings are complementary.

Third, character-level embeddings (CE) outperform randomly initialised word-level embeddings (WE) across all social media datasets, while both representations perform comparably on news-domain data-sets. Because OOV words are rare in news-domain datasets, randomly initialised word-level embeddings (WE) are sufficient to encode the majority of words. On the other hand, since OOV words are frequent in social media datasets, character-level information is essential to encode new tokens, we can observe that CE performs comparably with CE+WE, whereas WE degrades severely the performance compared to CE+WE (-32.1 aNRG for PoS tagging task and -21.1 aNRG for NER and CK tasks).

Fourth, The use of both pretrained word-level embeddings, WE_{fasttext} and WE_{GloVe}, is highly advantageous across all datasets of both domains, enhancing the performance compared to WE (from scratch). For news domain datasets, WE_{GloVe} exhibits better results. For the social media domain, WE_{GloVe} performs better on the POS task, while WE_{FastText} is better

⁴ <https://github.com/facebookresearch/fastText/blob/master/docs/crawl-vectors.md>

on CK and NER datasets. Finally, given the syntactic nature of POS and CK tasks and the semantic nature of NER tasks, pretrained word-level embeddings are more beneficial for NER compared to POS and CK, while character-level embeddings are more beneficial for the POS task.

Setting	POS (Acc.%)						Avg.	aNRG
	WSJ	TPoS		ArK	TweeBank			
	test	dev	test	test	dev	test		
CE+WE	97.20	84.32	82.81	86.23	86.82	87.58	87.5	0
CE	96.43	84.28	82.16	87.66	87.71	88.68	87.8	-0.9
WE	96.59	76.22	77.01	80.87	84.10	84.34	83.2	-32.1
WE _{GloVe}	97.41	86.66	85.21	88.34	90.33	90.70	89.8	+17.2
WE _{FastText}	97.33	85.45	84.34	88.19	90.53	91.14	89.5	+15.3
WE _{FastText} +WE _{GloVe}	97.45	87.05	86.39	89.31	91.37	<u>92.04</u>	90.6	+23.3
CE+WE _{GloVe}	<u>97.50</u>	88.52	86.82	<u>90.89</u>	91.61	91.66	<u>91.2</u>	+27.3
CE+WE _{FastText}	97.49	<u>88.61</u>	<u>87.26</u>	90.42	<u>91.63</u>	<u>92.04</u>	<u>91.2</u>	+27.7
CE+WE _{FastText} +WE _{GloVe}	97.53	89.22	87.35	91.15	92.34	92.61	91.7	+31.3

Setting	CK (Acc.%)			NER (F1 %)			Avg.	aNRG
	CONLL2000	TChunk		CONLL-03		WNUT-17		
	test	dev	test	dev	test	test		
CE+WE	95.17	84.20	82.50	87.68	80.67	19.20	74.9	0
CE	95.25	85.17	83.77	84.19	78.49	17.99	74.1	-4.3
WE	94.48	78.35	77.94	84.78	76.78	14.84	71.2	-21.1
WE _{GloVe}	96.04	85.48	83.03	92.70	88.52	36.58	80.4	+22.
WE _{FastText}	95.88	86.58	85.00	92.17	86.97	38.80	80.9	+22.9
WE _{FastText} +WE _{GloVe}	96.05	87.54	87.50	93.14	<u>89.19</u>	<u>40.93</u>	<u>82.4</u>	+30.5
CE+WE _{GloVe}	<u>96.09</u>	87.76	85.83	<u>93.03</u>	89.21	36.75	81.4	+28.3
CE+WE _{FastText}	96.01	<u>88.03</u>	86.32	92.61	88.50	40.84	82.1	+28.5
CE+WE _{FastText} +WE _{GloVe}	96.18	88.73	<u>86.97</u>	93.41	89.04	40.94	82.5	+32

Table 5.2 – Ablation study of traditional embeddings: character-level embeddings (denoted CE) and word-level embeddings (denoted WE) on POS, CK and NER tasks on the news domain (grey columns) and social media domain (white columns). The Avg. and aNRG columns aggregate the scores of the methods across datasets.

These results show that traditional pretrained word-level embeddings representations boost the performance over all tasks and datasets. Even more importantly, we found that they are more helpful when dealing with the low-resource social media domain than with the resource-rich news domain (especially for WNUT dataset with a jump in the F1 score from 19.20% by CE+WE to 40.94% by CE+WE_{FastText}+WE_{GloVe}). However, even though combining different word representations boosts the performance of sequence labelling in social media texts and helps handle the problem of OOV words, the performance gap between the best models for news and those for social media is still wide (e.g. 97.53% accuracy on WSJ dataset from news domain

compared to 87.35%, 91.15% and 92.61% on TPoS, ArK and TweeBank, respectively).

In the following sections, we propose two methods of transfer learning to reduce this gap. Despite the best results having been yielded by CE+WE_{GloVe}+WE_{FastText}, we use the sequence labelling architecture with the CE+WE_{GloVe} setting for word representation going forward, as a trade-off between performance and computation time since using both pretrained embeddings doubles the number of parameters to train.

5.3 Proposed Methods

As mentioned above, the neural sequence labelling model with standard word representations achieves high performance on high-resource languages and domains, such as the news domain. However, when it is trained on few annotated examples like the social media domain, the model performs poorly. Therefore, here we propose to improve sequence labelling performance on the social media domain by leveraging the knowledge learned from the news domain. We start by formulating transfer learning problem in section 5.3.1. Then, in section 5.3.2, we present our proposed approaches.

5.3.1 General Transfer Learning Problem Formulation

Here is a reminder for the transfer learning problem formulation given in chapter 2 (§2.2). Let us consider⁵ a domain $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathcal{X}, P(X)\}$ consisting of two components: the feature space \mathcal{X} and the marginal probability distribution $P(X)$, where $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathcal{X}$. Let us consider a task $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{Y}, P(Y), f\}$, where \mathcal{Y} is the label space, $P(Y)$ is the prior distribution, and f is the predictive function that transforms inputs to outputs: $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$. In a supervised training paradigm, f is learned from n training examples: $\{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} : i \in (1, \dots, n)\}$. Therefore, the predictive function f corresponds to the joint conditional probability $P(Y|X)$.

In a transfer learning scenario, we have a source domain $\mathcal{D}_S = \{\mathcal{X}_S, P_S(X_S)\}$, a source task $\mathcal{T}_S = \{\mathcal{Y}_S, P_S(Y_S), f_S\}$, a target domain $\mathcal{D}_T = \{\mathcal{X}_T, P_T(X_T)\}$, and a target task $\mathcal{T}_T = \{\mathcal{Y}_T, P_T(X_T), f_T\}$, where $X_S = \{x_1^S, x_2^S, \dots, x_{n^S}^S\} \in \mathcal{X}_S$, $X_T = \{x_1^T, x_2^T, \dots, x_{n^T}^T\} \in \mathcal{X}_T$ and $n^S \gg n^T$. The aim behind using transfer learning is to improve the learning of the predictive function of the target domain f_T by leveraging the knowledge gained from \mathcal{D}_S and \mathcal{T}_S .

Generally, in a transfer learning scheme, labelled training examples from the source domain $D_S = \{(x_i^S, y_i^S) \in \mathcal{X}_S \times \mathcal{Y}_S : i \in (1, \dots, n^S)\}$ are abundant. As for the target domain, either a small number of labelled target examples $D_{T,l} = \{(x_i^{T,l}, y_i^{T,l}) \in \mathcal{X}_T \times \mathcal{Y}_T : i \in (1, \dots, n^{T,l})\}$, where $n^S \gg n^T$, or a large number of unlabelled target examples $D_{T,u} = \{(x_i^{T,u}) \in \mathcal{X}_T : i \in (1, \dots, n^{T,u})\}$ are assumed to be available. From the above definitions, five scenarios of dissimilarities between source and target domains arise:

⁵ In this section, we follow the definitions and notations of Pan *et al.* [257], Weiss *et al.* [375] and Ruder [303].

1. $\mathcal{X}_S \neq \mathcal{X}_T$: The feature spaces between the source and target domains are different.
2. $P(X_S) \neq P(X_T)$: The marginal distributions in the feature spaces are different between the source and the target domains.
3. $\mathcal{Y}_S \neq \mathcal{Y}_T$: A mismatch between the class spaces of target and source domains.
4. $P(Y_S) \neq P(Y_T)$: The prior distributions of the source and target tasks are different, which is generally due to a class imbalance between the source and target domains.
5. $P(Y_S|X_S) \neq P(Y_T|X_T)$: the conditional probability distributions between the domains are different.

5.3.2 Our Approaches

When transferring from the news-domain to the social media domain, we first observe a difference in the marginal distributions $P(X_S) \neq P(X_T)$. Second, a difference in the feature space $\mathcal{X}_s \neq \mathcal{X}_t$ since, in social media, we can find new words and expressions that are not used in news. In addition, the label spaces are different $\mathcal{Y}_s \neq \mathcal{Y}_t$, since as seen in the chapter 4, there are many tasks where news datasets and social media datasets do not share the same tag-set.

Let us consider a target model \mathcal{M}_t , which consists of the sequence labelling model (Figure 5.1) with the set of parameters θ_t . \mathcal{M}_t is composed of three components: Υ_t generates a word representation \mathbf{x}_i^t for each token w_i , Φ_t transforms the word representation into a hidden representation \mathbf{h}_i^t , and Ψ_t generates the class-probabilities \hat{y}_i^t . In the standard supervised training scheme, in order to learn the target predictive function \mathcal{F}_t , θ_t would be randomly initialised, and the model would be trained from scratch on target-data from the target task \mathcal{T}_t , *i.e.* labelled data $\{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X}_t \times \mathcal{Y}_t : i \in (1, \dots, n^t)\}$.

However, when labelled examples are rare, the trained model is brittle and more vulnerable to over-fitting. Thus, we propose to leverage the pre-learned knowledge by a source model \mathcal{M}_s , which consists of a sequence labelling model (Figure 5.1). Likewise, \mathcal{M}_s is composed of three pretrained components: Υ_s generates a word representation \mathbf{x}_i^s for each token w_i , Φ_s that transforms the word representation into a hidden representation \mathbf{h}_i^s and Ψ_s that generates the class-probabilities \hat{y}_i^s . \mathcal{M}_s is trained from scratch on a source task \mathcal{T}_s with labelled data $\{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X}_s \times \mathcal{Y}_s : i \in (1, \dots, n^s)\}$ from the source domain \mathcal{D}_s .

Our aim is to leverage the knowledge acquired by the source model \mathcal{M}_s 's parameters θ_s , learned using the source predictive function \mathcal{F}_s , to help improve the learning of the target predictive function \mathcal{F}_t . We attempt this by proposing two methods: *Transferring Supervisedly-Pretrained Contextual Representations* and *Transferring Pretrained Models*. We describe each one in the following sub-sections.

5.3.2.1 Transferring Pretrained Representations

Our first approach leverages the pre-learned knowledge in the source model \mathcal{M}_s by feeding the representations produced by the source model as input features for the target model, concatenated with the standard words embeddings. As illustrated in Figure 5.3, for each token w_i from the target dataset, we extract the *fixed* hidden representation \mathbf{h}_i^s , generated by the pretrained feature extractor Φ_s , and inject it into the target model. This last is then trained from scratch on the target training data.⁶

Precisely, for each word w_i from the target dataset, predictions are calculated as follows:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^t = (\Psi_t \circ \Phi_t)([\mathbf{x}_i^t, \mathbf{h}_i^s]) . \quad (5.8)$$

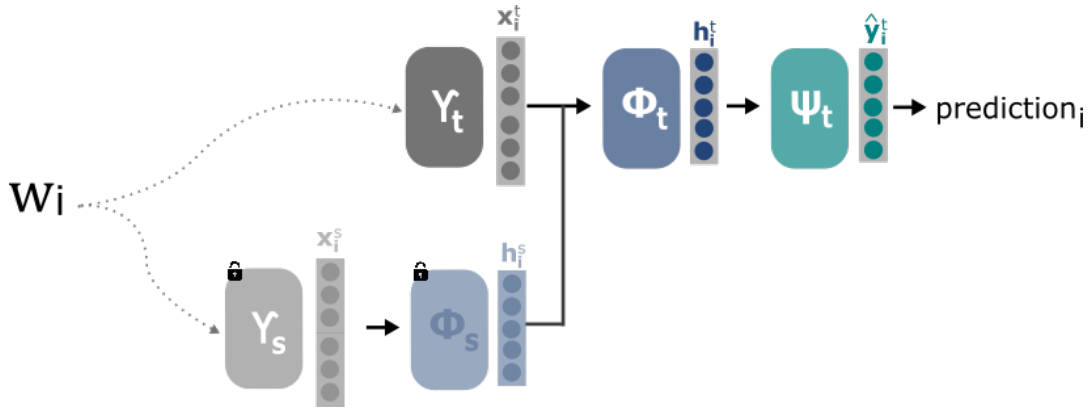


Figure 5.3 – Illustrative scheme of transferring supervised pretrained representations from the news domain to the social media domain. Here, Υ_s and Φ_s are already pretrained on the source task. They are also fixed during the training of the target model.

Furthermore, we experiment with the injection of representations generated by multiple models pretrained on different tasks from the source domain. Specifically, given a set of L source tasks $[\mathcal{T}_s^1, \dots, \mathcal{T}_s^L]$ from the source domain, where for each $l, r \in [1, \dots, L]$ ($l \neq r$), $\mathcal{T}_s^l \neq \mathcal{T}_s^r$. We train a source model \mathcal{M}_s^l for each task \mathcal{T}_s^l , and thus, for each word w_i , we obtain L pretrained hidden representations $[\mathbf{h}_i^{s^1}, \dots, \mathbf{h}_i^{s^L}]$; the concatenation thereof is injected into the target model.

Our pretrained representations differ from traditional pretrained embeddings such as Word2Vec and FastText. Here, the pretraining is performed on a deep model and on a supervised task from a general domain, and the produced representations are context-dependent.

⁶ The pretrained representation is not updated during the training on the target-dataset.

5.3.2.2 Transferring Pretrained Models

The second approach of transferring the pre-learned knowledge consists of transferring a part of the learned weights θ_s of the source model \mathcal{M}_s to initialise the target model, which is further fine-tuned on the target task with a small number of training examples from the target domain.

As illustrated in Figure 5.4, given a source neural network \mathcal{M}_s with a set of parameters θ_s split into two sets: $\theta_s = (\theta_s^1, \theta_s^2)$ and a target network \mathcal{M}_t with a set of parameters θ_t split into two sets: $\theta_t = (\theta_t^1, \theta_t^2)$, our method includes three simple yet effective steps:

1. We train the source model on annotated data from the source domain on a source dataset D_s .
2. We transfer the first set of parameters from the source network \mathcal{M}_s to the target network \mathcal{M}_t : $\theta_t^1 = \theta_s^1$, whereas the second set θ_t^2 of parameters is randomly initialised.
3. Then, the target model is further fine-tuned on the small target data-set D_t .

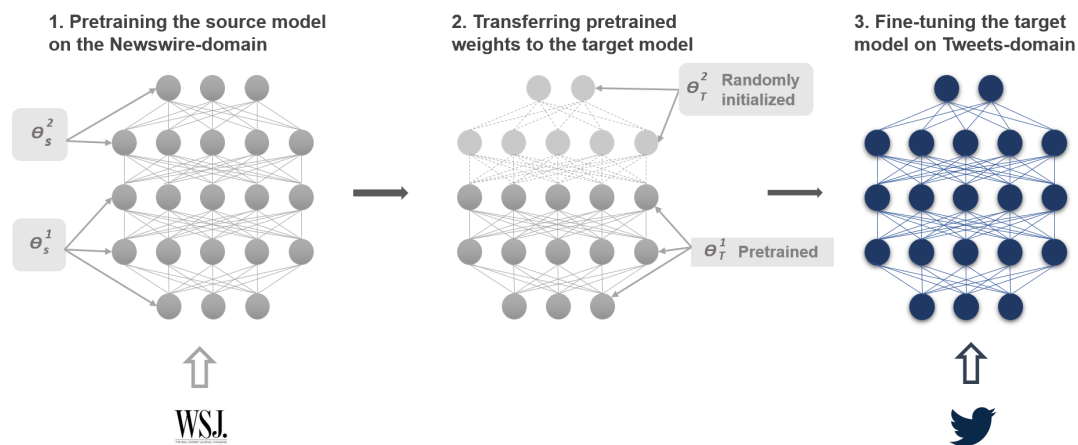


Figure 5.4 – An overview of the process of sequential transfer learning by fine-tuning pretrained parameters.

5.4 Experimental Results

In the following experiments, we investigate the efficiency of our proposed methods of transferring knowledge from the news domain to the social media domain on three sequence tagging tasks: POS, CK and NER.

1. In section 5.4.1, we assess the impact of our first approach of sequential transfer learning: *transfer of supervisedly-pretrained representations*.
2. In section 5.4.2, we study the efficiency of our second approach of sequential transfer learning: *transfer of pretrained models*.

3. In section 5.4.3, we compare the results of the two aforementioned methods.
4. In section 5.4.4, we investigate the performance of the recent ELMo contextualised representations when combined with our proposed approaches.

5.4.1 Transferring Supervisedly-Pretrained Representations

In this section, we investigate the impact of transferring supervisedly-pretrained representations from the news-domain to the social media domain. Specifically, we make use of the following pretrained representations:

- \mathbf{h}_{s-pos} : Representations generated by the source model, pretrained on the POS tagging source dataset (WSJ).
- \mathbf{h}_{s-ck} : Representations generated by the source model, pretrained on the CK source dataset (CONLL2000).
- \mathbf{h}_{s-ner} : Representations generated by the source model, pretrained on the NER source dataset (CONLL-03).

The results are reported in Table 5.3. In the top half of the table, we combine the pretrained representations with randomly initialised character-level embeddings (CE). In the bottom half, we experiment with combining the transferred representations with both character-level embeddings and word-level embeddings, the latter of which are initialised with GloVe (CE+WE_{GloVe}). We compare the results between the different settings using the aNRG metric (see equation 4.6). In the top half of the table, the aNRG metric is calculated in comparison to the reference CE and in the bottom half, the aNRG metric is calculated in comparison to the reference CE+WE_{GloVe}.

From the results in Table 5.3, we draw the following observations. It is apparent that our pretrained representations yield a greater improvement when combined with CE than with CE+WE_{GloVe}. For instance, when adding CK representations (\mathbf{h}_{s-ck}), we observe a +23.4 point increase in terms of aNRG with CE+ \mathbf{h}_{s-ck} compared to the +8.5 increase with CE+WE_{GloVe} + \mathbf{h}_{s-ck} . An expected observation since the traditional pretrained word-embeddings already accommodate valuable pretrained knowledge helpful to handle the problem of the lack of annotated examples in the social media domain. Notwithstanding, even when combined with WE_{GloVe}, our pretrained representations still yield a major performance increase, pointing to the fact that supervised pretraining helps encode new task-specific knowledge that is useful for many NLP tasks. NER representations are a notable exception, as we can observe a severe drop in the performance gain, from +16.1 aNRG for CE+ \mathbf{h}_{s-ner} to +1.1 for CE+WE_{GloVe} + \mathbf{h}_{s-ner} . This observation may be explained by the fact that NER is a semantic task, thus the knowledge encoded by NER on the news-domain is similar to that encoded by GloVe pretrained embeddings.

Features	POS (Acc.)					CK (Acc.)		NER (F1)	aNRG
	TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT	
	dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test	
CE	84.28	82.16	87.66	87.71	88.68	85.17	83.77	17.99	0
CE+h _{s-pos}	90.00*	88.35*	90.93*	91.97*	92.33*	90.18*	89.04*	28.21	+30.4
CE+h _{s-ck}	87.96	86.08	90.07	90.75	91.08	89.92*	88.77*	28.75	+23.4
CE+h _{s-ner}	86.88	86.21	89.96	89.75	90.56	86.09	85.83	33.63	+16.1
CE+h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ck}	90.13*	88.44*	91.23*	92.25*	92.84*	90.62*	89.65*	32.37	+33.2
CE+h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ner}	89.52*	88.44*	91.45*	92.39*	92.50*	89.52*	88.99*	32.46	+31.3
CE+h _{s-ck} +h _{s-ner}	88.96*	88.00*	90.62	91.33	91.70*	90.36*	88.99*	27.24	+27.6
CE+h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ck} +h _{s-ner}	90.91*	89.57*	91.10*	92.37*	92.83*	90.10*	89.04*	35.54	+34.2
CE+WE _{GloVe}	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75	0
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos}	90.39	88.83	<u>91.93</u>	92.64	93.18	89.96	88.73	38.37	+14.3
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ck}	88.96	87.35	91.53	92.16	92.59	89.88	88.16	37.59	+8.5
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ner}	88.65	87.35	90.88	91.68	92.23	87.06	85.75	38.30	+1.1
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ck}	90.69	89.27	<u>91.94</u>	92.75	93.14	90.10	88.86	38.28	+15.4
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ner}	90.21	88.87	<u>91.93</u>	92.52	93.11	89.83	87.94	39.33	+13.2
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ck} +h _{s-ner}	90.21	88.18	91.38	92.01	92.61	90.54	88.33	36.51	+10.8
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos} +h _{s-ck} +h _{s-ner}	<u>90.86</u>	<u>89.31</u>	92.16	<u>92.67</u>	93.31	<u>90.58</u>	<u>89.34</u>	39.19	+17.2

Table 5.3 – Results of combining our supervisedly-pretrained representations with standard embeddings. Results on social media datasets: TPoS, ArK and TweeBank for the POS task, TChunk for the CK task and WNUT for the NER task. The best score for each dataset is in bold, the second best score is underlined. In the top half, we combine the transferred fixed representations with CE. In the bottom half, we experiment with combining the transferred representations with CE+WE_{GloVe}. The scores marked with * are those which are higher than CE+WE_{GloVe}.

Furthermore, we can observe that the greatest improvement is achieved by the POS pretrained representations h_{s-pos} , followed by h_{s-ck} and finally h_{s-ner} . This is unsurprising, as many works have shown that POS and CK are considered as “universal helpers” [53]. Moreover, combining POS, CK and NER representations boosts the performance compared to using them individually. This indicates that each task encodes some unique inductive bias that is beneficial for other tasks.

In the top half of the table, the scores marked with * are those which are higher than CE+WE_{GloVe}. Almost all the results on POS and CK datasets are higher when using our supervisedly-pretrained representations compared to CE+WE_{GloVe}. Further, the best results on TPoS and TChunk datasets are obtained without using WE_{GloVe}. On the other hand, for NER task, GloVe pretrained embedding is important to boost the performance, which may be explained by the semantic nature of the task.

5.4.2 Transferring Pretrained Models

In the following, we report our experimental results on supervised sequential transfer learning of pretrained models from the news domain to the social media domain (method described in section 5.3.2.2). First, we report the main results when transfer is performed between the same NLP tasks (§5.4.2.1). Second, we perform further experiments to analyse layer-per-layer

transferability (§5.4.2.2). Third, we investigate the transferability between different NLP tasks (§5.4.2.3).

5.4.2.1 Overall Performance

Here, we discuss the results of the main experiment of our approach, *transferring pretrained models*, where the pretraining and fine-tuning tasks are the same. For TPoS, ArK and TweepBank datasets, the pretrained weights are learned on the WSJ dataset; for TChunk, the pretrained weights are learned on CONLL2000 dataset; and for WNUT dataset, the pretrained weights are learned on CONLL-03 dataset.

As shown in chapter 4, source and target datasets may have different tag-sets, even within the same NLP task. Hence, transferring the parameters of the classifier (Ψ) may not be feasible in all cases. Therefore, in this experiment, WRE’s layers (Υ) and FE’s layers (Φ) are pre-trained on the *source-dataset* and Ψ is randomly initialised. Then, the three modules are further jointly trained on the *target-dataset* by minimising a SCE (Softmax Cross-Entropy) loss using the SGD algorithm.

Results are reported in Table 5.4. We report the results of our reference *training from scratch* on target data (using CE+WE_{GloVe} scheme), followed by the results of the transfer learning approach, which greatly outperforms the reference. Specifically, transfer learning exhibits an improvement of $\sim+3\%$ acc. for TPoS, $\sim+1.2\%$ acc. for ArK, $\sim+1.6\%$ acc. for TweepBank, $\sim+3.4\%$ acc. for TChunk and $\sim+4.5\%$ F1 for WNUT.

Dataset		POS (Acc.)			CK (Acc.)		NER (F1)	
		TPoS		ARK	Tweepbank		TChunk	WNUT
Method	dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	
From scratch	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75
Transfer Learning	90.95	89.79	92.09	93.04	93.29	90.71	89.21	41.25

Table 5.4 – Main results of our proposed approach, *transferring pretrained models*, on social media datasets (Acc (%) for POS and CK and F1 (%) for NER). The best score for each dataset is highlighted in bold.

5.4.2.2 Layer-per-Layer Transferability

In this experiment, we investigate the transferability of each layer of our model. We start by transferring from the bottom-most layers (Υ) up to the top-most layers (Φ). In addition, we conduct experiments on two settings: 1) \mathfrak{A} : pretrained layers are frozen; and 2) \mathfrak{B} : pretrained layers are fine-tuned. As illustrated in Figure 5.5, we define 4 transfer schemes:⁷

⁷ Transfer Learning in Table 5.4 corresponds to scheme D.

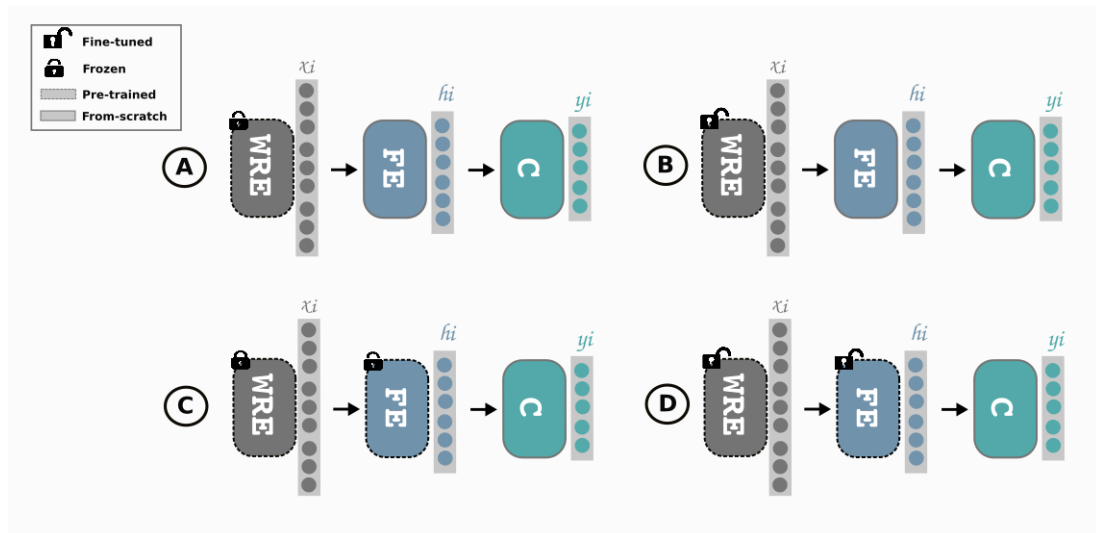


Figure 5.5 – Overview of the experimental schemes of transferring pretrained parameters. **Scheme A & B:** Only WRE’s layers are initialised with pretrained weights from the news domain whereas FE’s layers and the classifier are randomly initialised. **Scheme C & D:** In addition to WRE’s layers, FE’s layers are initialised with pretrained weights from the news domain whereas the classifier is randomly initialised. The pretrained layers are frozen in schemes A and C and tuned in schemes B and D during fine-tuning on the social media domain.

- **Scheme A:** Only WRE (Υ) layers; *i.e.* word-level embedding and biLSTM character embedding; are initialised with pretrained weights from the source model whereas the FE (Φ) and the classifier (Ψ) are randomly initialised. The pretrained layers are frozen (🔒) during fine-tuning on social media domain dataset.
- **Scheme B:** The same as Scheme A, except that the pretrained layers are tuned (🔓) during fine-tuning on social media domain dataset.
- **Scheme C:** In addition to WRE layers, FE layers are initialised with pretrained weights from the source model, whereas the classifier is randomly initialised. The pretrained layers are frozen (🔒) during fine-tuning on social media domain.
- **Scheme D:** The same as Scheme C, except that the pretrained layers are tuned (🔓) during fine-tuning on social media domain.

Scheme	POS (Acc.)					CK(Acc.)		NER (F1)	aNRG.
	TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT	
	dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test	
O	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75	0.0
A	88.87 [◇]	87.48 [◇]	90.85	92.05 [◇]	92.48 [◇]	87.85 [◇]	86.10 [◇]	39.27 [◇]	+3.7
B	<u>90.17[◇]</u>	<u>88.66[◇]</u>	<u>91.55[◇]</u>	<u>92.31[◇]</u>	<u>92.65[◇]</u>	<u>89.22[◇]</u>	<u>87.19[◇]</u>	<u>40.97[◇]</u>	+10.5
C	86.10	86.91 [◇]	85.39	87.48	87.92	82.35	81.75	27.83	-32.7
D	90.95[◇]	89.79[◇]	92.09[◇]	93.04[◇]	93.29[◇]	90.71[◇]	89.21[◇]	41.25[◇]	+18.6

Table 5.5 – **Layer-per-layer transferability analysis results** on social media datasets *TPoS*, *ARK*, *TweeBank*, *TChunk* and *WNUT*. Scheme O consists of training target models from scratch (random initialisation) on social media training-sets. Transfer schemes A,B, C and D are illustrated in Figure 5.5. Scores marked with [◇] are higher than the reference training from scratch (scheme O). Best scores by dataset are highlighted in bold, second best scores are underlined. The last column gives the aNRG score of each method compared to the reference (scheme O).

Results are shown in Table 5.5. First, as expected, the best performance across all tasks and datasets is yielded by the transfer scheme D. This is unsurprising since transfer is performed between the same tasks and thus transferring both low-most and top-most layers is beneficial. Second, we can observe that the transferability of each layer depends on whether the pretrained parameters are frozen or tuned:

- *When pretrained layers are frozen* (🔒) (schemes A and C), only the bottom-most layers are transferable, with little improvement (+3.7 aNRG) compared to the reference *training from scratch* (scheme O). Whereas, when also transferring the top-most layers (scheme C), the performance degrades dramatically (-32.7 aNRG) compared to the reference. This can be explained by the fact that the top-most layers are grossly domain specific, and thus need to be updated during fine-tuning to learn new patterns that are specific to the social media domain.
- *When pretrained layers are tuned* (🔓) (schemes B and D): both pretrained bottom-most and top-most layers are beneficial across all tasks and datasets. Specifically, transferring embeddings layers that are updated during fine-tuning (Scheme B) yields a slight improvement (+10.5 aNRG) compared to the reference. Moreover, transferring the feature extractor layers as well further enhances performance (+18.6 aNRG).

5.4.2.3 Inter-Tasks Transferability

Through the precedent experiments, we have analysed transfer learning from the news domain to the social media domain in a scenario where the pretraining (source) task is the same as the fine-tuning (target) one. Here, we carry out further experiments to analyse the transferability

Pretraining	Scheme	POS (acc.)					CK (acc.)		NER (F1)	Avg.
		TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT	
		dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test	
n/a	O	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75	82.5
POS	A	88.87 [◇]	87.48 [◇]	90.85	92.05 [◇]	92.48 [◇]	88.29 [◇]	87.41 [◇]	35.31	82.8
	B	<u>90.17[◇]</u>	<u>88.66[◇]</u>	91.55 [◇]	92.31 [◇]	92.65 [◇]	88.82 [◇]	87.72 [◇]	38.51 [◇]	83.8
	C	86.10	86.91 [◇]	85.39	87.48	87.92	79.67	79.39	20.17	76.6
	D	90.95[◇]	89.79[◇]	92.09[◇]	93.04[◇]	93.29[◇]	<u>89.79[◇]</u>	<u>88.99[◇]</u>	34.98	84.1
CK	A	87.66	86.65	90.27	91.39	92.03 [◇]	87.85 [◇]	86.10 [◇]	37.12 [◇]	82.4
	B	89.82 [◇]	87.70 [◇]	91.44 [◇]	92.07 [◇]	92.54 [◇]	89.22 [◇]	87.19 [◇]	37.35 [◇]	83.4
	C	82.94	79.14	81.04	83.31	83.84	82.35	81.75	19.02	74.2
	D	90.08 [◇]	87.70 [◇]	91.33 [◇]	<u>92.57[◇]</u>	<u>92.66[◇]</u>	90.71[◇]	89.21[◇]	34.76	83.6
NER	A	87.27	86.26	89.98	91.33	91.87 [◇]	86.93	84.61	39.27 [◇]	82.2
	B	89.43 [◇]	87.57 [◇]	90.75	91.73 [◇]	92.21 [◇]	88.56 [◇]	87.06 [◇]	<u>40.97[◇]</u>	93.5
	C	69.77	66.27	67.03	70.00	70.13	60.92	57.89	27.83	61.2
	D	89.35 [◇]	88.31 [◇]	90.90 [◇]	91.62 [◇]	92.05 [◇]	88.03 [◇]	86.54 [◇]	41.25[◇]	83.5

Table 5.6 – Results of inter-tasks transferability of pretrained models from news domain to social media domain datasets *TPoS*, *ARK*, *TweeBank*, *TChunk* and *WNUT*. The first column (pretraining) shows the pretraining task on the news domain. Scheme O represents training target models from scratch (random initialisation) on small social media training-sets. Transfer schemes A,B, C and D are illustrated in Figure 5.5. Red cells show results on transfer from the same NLP task and grey cells represent transfer from different task. Scores marked with [◇] are higher than the baseline training from scratch scheme. The best scores by dataset are highlighted in bold, second best scores are underlined.

between different tasks. Results are shown in Table 5.6. The results of transferring pretrained models from the same task are illustrated in red cells (Table’s diagonal), while the results of transferring from a different task are illustrated in grey cells.

In the first row of Table 5.6 (scheme O), we report the results of the reference training from scratch. The second group of rows reports the results when the weights are pretrained on the POS dataset from the news domain (WSJ). The third group of rows reports the results when the weights are pretrained on the CK dataset from the news domain (CONLL2000). Finally, the fourth group of rows reports the results when the weights are pretrained on the NER dataset from the news domain (CONLL-03).

In light of the results displayed in Table 5.6, we make the following observations.

- **fine-tuning vs freezing pretrained weights:** Across all transfer schemes, fine-tuning pretrained parameters yields better results compared to freezing them. An expected observation, since pretrained parameters need to be updated to match social media domain specificities better. Specifically, when transferring only the low-most layers, the damage brought by freezing (scheme A) is slight compared to fine-tuning (scheme B); \sim -1%, \sim -1% and \sim -10% on average. In the other hand, when transferring top-most layers as well, we observe that freezing pretrained parameters (scheme C) dramatically hurts the

performance compared to fine-tuning (scheme D); $\sim -7.5\%$, $\sim -9.4\%$ and $\sim -22.3\%$ on average. A plausible explanation is that, generally, the lowest layers of NNs tend to represent domain-independent features and thus encode information that could be useful for all tasks and domains, whereas top-most ones are more domain-specific, and thus, should be updated. These observations are not surprising and confirm the observations of many works in the literature [243, 396].

- **Pretraining task:** We can observe that the best average score is obtained when using parameters pretrained on POS tagging task. Specifically, the first best score is obtained using the scheme D and the second by scheme B. Which confirms the fact that the information encoded by POS task is universal and important for higher-level NLP tasks and applications [53]. Notably, for POS \rightarrow POS (Which includes POS \rightarrow TPoS, POS \rightarrow ArK and POS \rightarrow TweeBank) and POS \rightarrow TChunk, we can observe that both low-most and top-most layers play an important role. Transferring low-most layers (scheme B) yields an average improvement of $\sim +1.13\%$ for POS \rightarrow POS and $\sim +1.27\%$ for POS \rightarrow TChunk. In addition, transferring top-most layers as well (scheme D) yields an improvement of $\sim +1.8\%$ for POS \rightarrow POS and $\sim +2.6\%$ for POS \rightarrow TChunk. However, only low-most layers are transferable from POS to NER. As illustrated in the results, for POS \rightarrow WNUT transfer scenario, scheme B yields an improvement in F1 of $\sim +1.75\%$, while scheme D degrades the F1 score by $\sim -1.8\%$ compared to training from scratch. A plausible explanation is that the transferability decreases as the dissimilarity between source and target tasks increases, and since NER task is less similar to POS, only low-level features learned in embedding layers are beneficial for NER.

5.4.3 Comparing the Proposed Transfer Methods

In this section, we compare the performance of our two proposed methods, *i.e. transferring representations vs transferring models*. Specifically, for each pretraining task; POS, CK and NER; we investigate whether it is better to transfer the pre-learned knowledge as pretrained representations (fixed features) or as pretrained models (pretrained weights). When *transferring representations*, we report the results from the bottom half of Table 5.3; where representations are injected individually. Namely, $CE+WE_{\text{GloVe}}+\mathbf{h}_{s-\text{pos}}$, $CE+WE_{\text{GloVe}}+\mathbf{h}_{s-\text{ck}}$ and $CE+WE_{\text{GloVe}}+\mathbf{h}_{s-\text{ner}}$. When *transferring models*, we pick the best transfer scheme for each dataset from Table 5.6, *e.g.* when transferring from POS to WNUT dataset, the best F1 score is obtained using the transfer architecture B. While, when transferring parameters from NER to WNUT dataset, the best F1 score is obtained using the transfer scheme D.

Results are reported in Table 5.7. Clearly, transferring models begets better results across all pretraining tasks and target datasets. Particularly, the best performance per target-dataset is obtained when using transferred parameters from the same NLP task. For instance, for WNUT, the NER social media dataset, the best F1 score is obtained by transferring models from NER

Pretraining	Transfer Method	POS (acc.%)					CK (acc.%)		NER (F1%)
		TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT
		dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test
	Random Init	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75
POS	Transferring representations	90.39	88.83	91.93	92.64	93.18	89.96	88.73	38.37
	Transferring models	90.95	89.79	92.09	93.04	93.29	89.79	88.99	38.51
CK	Transferring representations	88.96	87.35	91.53	92.16	92.59	89.88	88.16	37.59
	Transferring models	90.08	87.70	91.33	92.57	92.66	90.71	89.21	37.35
NER	Transferring representations	88.65	87.35	90.88	91.68	92.23	87.06	85.75	38.30
	Transferring models	89.43	87.57	90.90	91.62	92.05	88.03	86.54	41.25

Table 5.7 – Comparison of our proposed approaches results: *transferring representations vs transferring models*. The first column presents the pretraining task. The second column represents the transfer method. Best scores per social media dataset are in bold.

pretraining on the news domain. Notwithstanding, combining different supervisedly-pretrained representations $\text{CE} + \text{WE}_{\text{GloVe}} + \mathbf{h}_{s\text{-}pos} + \mathbf{h}_{s\text{-}ck} + \mathbf{h}_{s\text{-}ner}$ (The last line of Table 5.3) begets comparable results with transferring models. However, it is noteworthy that transferring representations is less efficient in terms of computation (the computation of the contextual supervisedly-pretrained representations) and convergence speed (when transferring representations the parameters of the target model start from the random state which makes the convergence slower compared to transferring models where all the parameters are initialised with pretrained weights).

5.4.4 The Impact of ELMo Contextual Representations

As discussed in the state-of-the-art, the recent ELMo contextual embeddings [265] have allowed to boost the performance of NLP models across multiple tasks and domains significantly.⁸ This section studies the impact of off-the-shelf ELMo contextual embeddings for social media sequence tagging tasks. Specifically, we investigate the impact thereof when incorporated within our transfer learning approaches. We use the official pretrained models.⁹ 1) $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$: the small pre-trained model (13.6M parameters) on 1 billion word benchmark. 2) $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$: the big pre-trained model (93.6M parameters) on 5.5 billion word benchmark.

We start, in Table 5.8, by analysing the effect of combining ELMo representations with traditional embeddings:

- The first group of rows reports the results when using $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ and $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ solely for words’ representations.
- The second group of rows reports the results when $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ and $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ are combined with the biLSTM character-level embeddings (CE).

⁸ ELMo contextual representations are described in details in the state-of-the-art. Note that at the time of conducting the research of this chapter, ELMo contextual representations work was not published.

⁹ <https://allennlp.org/ELMo>

- The third group of rows reports the results when $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ and $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ are combined with the randomly initialised word-level embeddings (WE).
- The fourth group of rows reports the results when $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ and $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ are combined with the GloVe pretrained word-level embeddings (WE_{GloVe}).
- The fifth group of rows reports the results when $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ and $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ are combined with the concatenation of the biLSTM character-level embeddings and the GloVe pretrained word-level embeddings ($\text{CE}+\text{WE}_{\text{GloVe}}$).

Setting	POS (Acc.%)					CK (Acc.%)		NER (F1 %)	avg.	aNRG.
	TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT		
	dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test		
$\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$	90.21	88.35	90.62	92.19	92.93	90.36	89.61	34.35	83.6	–
$\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$	<u>91.99</u>	90.10	92.27	93.41	94.01	91.68	<u>90.57</u>	39.44	85.4	–
CE	84.28	82.16	87.66	87.71	88.68	85.17	83.77	17.99	77.2	0.0
CE+ $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$	90.91	89.01	91.48	92.69	93.34	91.55	89.25	33.99	84.00	+36.2
CE+ $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$	91.38	89.05	92.27	93.38	93.92	92.47	90.44	43.03	85.7	+41.8
WE	76.22	77.01	80.87	84.10	84.34	78.35	77.94	14.84	71.7	0.0
WE+ $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$	90.26	88.48	90.89	92.35	92.98	90.14	88.73	38.03	84.00	+49.9
WE+ $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$	91.51	<u>90.31</u>	91.99	93.38	94.14	91.99	90.26	40.27	85.5	+56.2
WE_{GloVe}	86.66	85.21	88.34	90.33	90.70	85.48	83.03	36.58	80.8	0.0
WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$	90.73	89.31	91.57	93.09	93.55	90.98	88.64	40.16	85.1	+27.7
WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$	<u>91.99</u>	90.66	92.95	<u>93.49</u>	94.40	91.59	90.26	<u>42.88</u>	<u>86.0</u>	+35.4
CE+ WE_{GloVe}	88.52	86.82	90.89	91.61	91.66	87.76	85.83	36.75	82.5	0.0
CE+ WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$	91.29	90.01	92.09	93.07	93.73	90.85	89.47	41.57	85.3	+20.3
CE+ WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$	92.20	90.18	<u>92.88</u>	93.52	<u>94.29</u>	91.51	90.66	44.95	86.3	+26.4

Table 5.8 – The effect of combining ELMo representations with traditional embeddings into the standard supervised training scheme. The best score per dataset is highlighted in bold. In each set of lines, the aNRG metric is calculated compared to the reference without ELMo embeddings (Grey rows).

Note that in each group of rows, the aNRG (see equation 4.6) metric is calculated compared to the reference without ELMo embeddings (Grey rows). From the results, we make the following observations. First, ELMo representations yield powerful results across all tasks and datasets. Second, in most cases concatenating more variants of embeddings leads to better results. Third, since ELMo (especially $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$) is already based on character-level information, adding character-level biLSTM embeddings have a marginal effect the performance. For instance, WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ setting provides 94.40% of accuracy on TweeBank dataset, while CE+ WE_{GloVe} + $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ provides 94.29% of accuracy. Finally, the gain brought by ELMo decreases when combined with more representations. For instance, the gain in terms of aNRG of adding $\text{ELMo}^{\text{small}}$ decreases from +36.2 when combined with CE solely, to +20.3 when combined with CE+ WE_{GloVe} .

Furthermore, in Table 5.9, we analyse the effect of incorporating ELMo representations with our supervisedly-pretrained representations. We can observe that concatenating ELMo

Setting	POS (acc.)					CK (acc.)		NER (F1)	Avg.
	TPoS		ArK	TweeBank		TChunk		WNUT	
	dev	test	test	dev	test	dev	test	test	
CE+WE _{GloVe} +ELMo ^{small}	91.29	90.01	92.09	93.07	93.73	90.85	89.47	41.57	85.3
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos}	90.39	88.83	91.93	92.64	93.18	89.96	88.73	38.37	84.3
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-pos} +ELMo ^{small}	91.73	89.79	92.49	93.29	93.87	91.37	90.00	43.53	85.8
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ck}	88.96	87.35	91.53	92.16	92.59	89.88	88.16	37.59	83.5
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ck} +ELMo ^{small}	91.25	89.79	92.50	93.27	93.74	90.98	90.22	41.40	85.4
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ner}	88.65	87.35	90.88	91.68	92.23	87.06	85.75	38.30	82.7
CE+WE _{GloVe} +h _{s-ner} +ELMo ^{small}	90.73	90.40	92.28	93.28	93.82	90.93	89.52	41.87	85.4

Table 5.9 – The effect of incorporating ELMo representations with our supervisedly pretrained representations. The best score per dataset is highlighted in bold.

embeddings to supervisedly pretrained representations leads to further improvements: +1.5, +1.9 and +2.7 on average when combined with POS, CK and NER representations, respectively. These results confirm that the patterns encoded in the supervisedly-pretrained representations are complementary to those encoded in ELMo embeddings.

5.5 In-Depth Analysis

In this section, we perform an in-depth analysis to highlight some insights from supervised sequential transfer learning from the news-domain to social media domain. For our test-bed, we focus on transfer learning of pretrained models (§5.3.2.2), where WRE’s layers (Υ) and FE’s layers (Φ) are pre-trained on the *source-dataset*, and the classifier (Ψ) is randomly initialised. Then, the three modules are further jointly trained on the *target-dataset*. Precisely, the transfer is performed between the same tasks experiments (section 5.4.2.1 results), *i.e.* for TPoS, ArK and TweeBank datasets, the pretrained weights are learned on WSJ dataset; for TChunk, the pretrained weights are learned on CONLL2000 dataset; and for WNUT-17 dataset, the pretrained weights are learned on CONLL-03 dataset. Specifically, through this analysis, we attempt to answer the following questions:

- How does transfer learning behave in extremely low-resource regimes? (§5.5.1)
- What is the effect of the model’s size on transfer learning performance? (§5.5.2)
- What is the impact of transfer learning on the model’s convergence? (§5.5.3)
- What is the impact of pretraining stage on transfer learning performance? (§5.5.4)
- What does transfer learning improve? *i.e.* which classes benefit the most from transfer learning? (§5.5.5)

In the following, we mean by transfer learning the approach of transfer learning of pretrained models from the same NLP task, while random initialisation means training the model from scratch on social media dataset solely.

5.5.1 Extremely Low-Resource Settings

Here, we conduct additional experiments to study the impact of transfer learning when only few annotated examples from the target domain are available. In Figure 5.6, we evaluate the gain in accuracy brought by *transfer learning* compared to the baseline *random initialisation*, according to the number of available target training examples. From the results, we can observe that transfer learning has desirably a more significant gain with small target-task datasets. For instance, for TPoS, ArK, TweepBank and TChunk datasets, the gain in accuracy is, respectively, about 10%, 6%, 6% and 12% when only 10 annotated examples are available. However, when 100 annotated sentences are available, the gain decreases to 2%, 1.5%, 1% and 2.5%, respectively. This clearly means that, unsurprisingly, the *less target training-data* we have, the *more interesting transfer learning* will be.

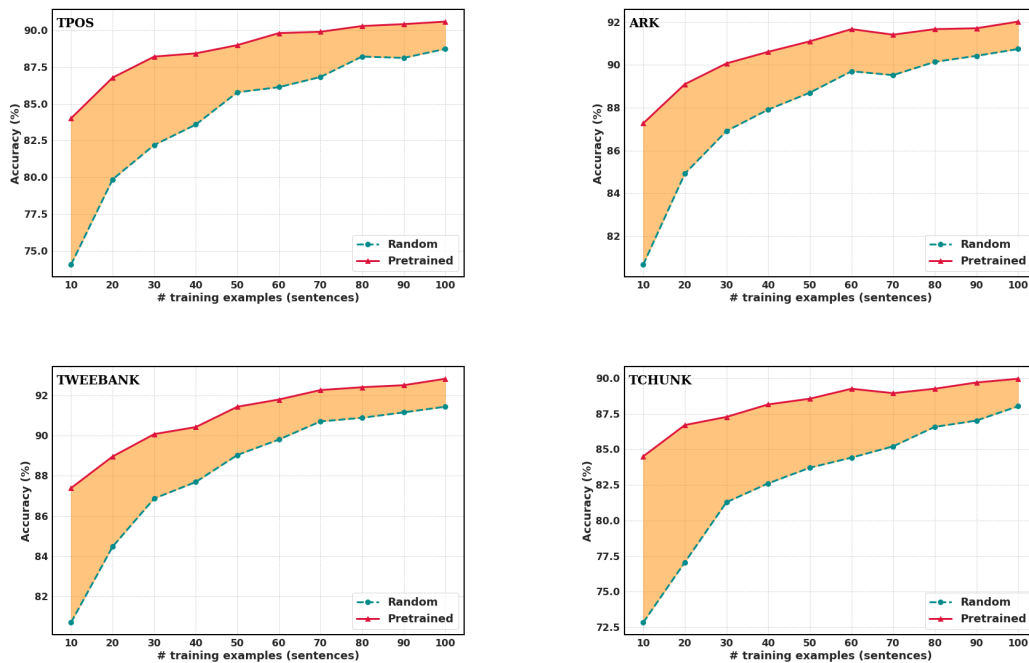


Figure 5.6 – Results, in terms of token-level accuracy, of transfer learning vs random initialisation according to different social media training-set sizes (on validation-sets of TPoS, ArK, TweepBank and TChunk). Transparent orange highlights the gain brought by transfer learning approach compared to the reference training from scratch.

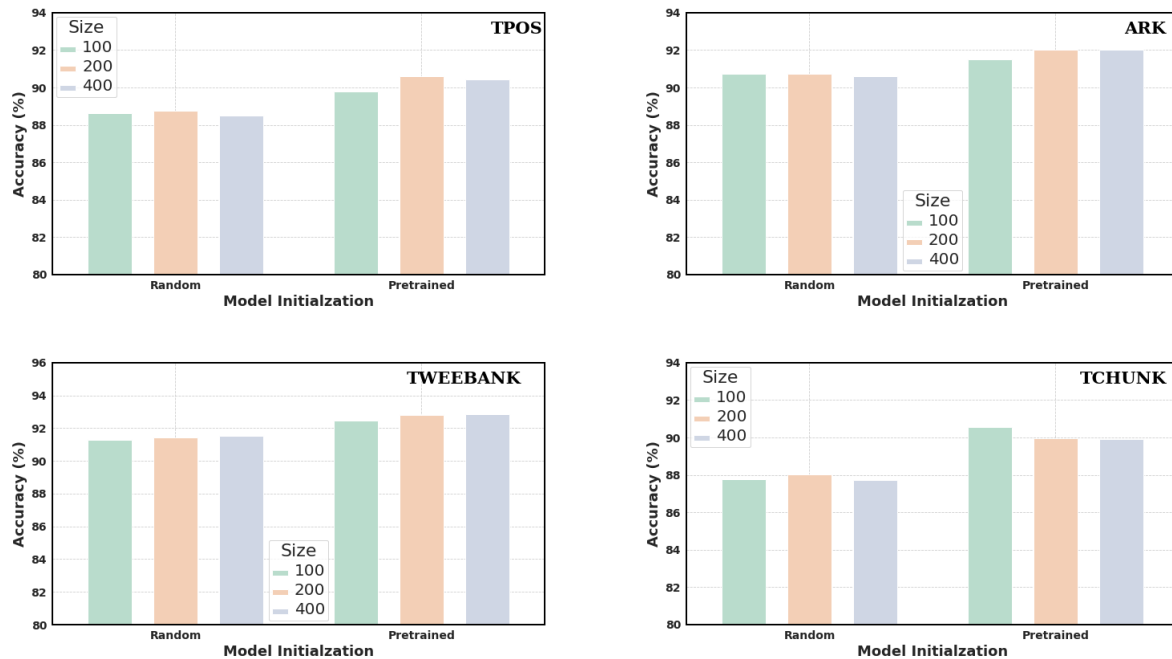


Figure 5.7 – The impact of the model’s size on transfer learning performance. Results of transfer learning (pretrained) vs random initialisation (random) on social media datasets (TPoS, ArK, TweeBank and Tchunk) using different models’ sizes (100,200,400).

5.5.2 The impact of model size

Here, we conduct additional experiments to investigate whether the model’s size impacts the effect brought by transfer learning. We evaluate the performance of transfer learning and random initialisation with different model’s sizes. More precisely, we train models with both random initialisation and transfer learning training schemes by varying $H \in \{100, 200, 300\}$, where H is the Feature Extractor biLSTM size. From the results shown in Figure 5.7, we find that the impact of model’s size is negligible either for random initialisation or transfer learning training schemes. This observation is unlike many earlier works, such as [285], showing that transfer learning primarily helps more large models compared to small models. Further experiments with different settings are needed to consolidate our findings.

5.5.3 The Impact of Transfer Learning on Convergence

Here, we investigate the effect of transfer learning on the convergence speed. For this, we plot in Figure 5.8 the performance on social media domain datasets: TweeBank, TPoS and TChunk, when using pretrained weights (transfer learning) vs random initialisation and according to different training epochs. Clearly, we find that transfer learning exhibits high performance from the first training epochs and results in a faster convergence compared to random initialisation.

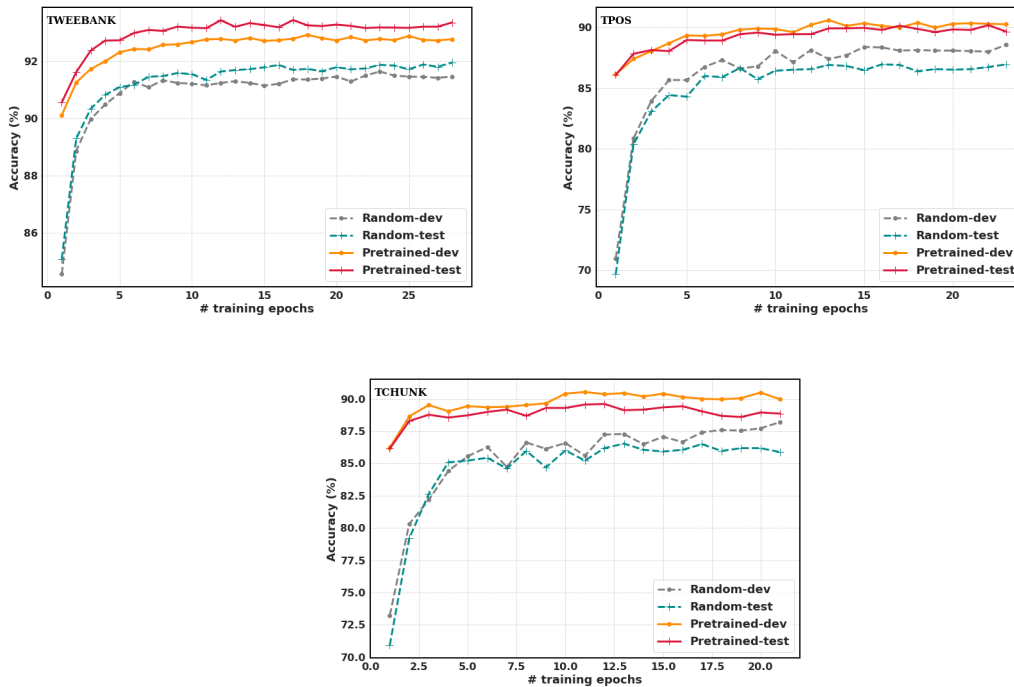


Figure 5.8 – Models with pretrained weights convergence faster compared to randomly initialised models. Accuracy (%) on validation-sets and test-sets of TweeBank, TPoS and TChunk when using pretrained weights (transfer learning) vs random initialisation, according to different fine-tuning epochs.

5.5.4 The impact of the pretraining state

So far, in our experiments, we used the pretrained parameters from the best model trained on the source dataset. In simple words, we picked the model at the epoch with the highest performance on the source validation-set. In this analysis, we study when pretrained parameters are ready to be transferred. Specifically, we pick the pretrained weights at different pretraining epochs; that we call the pretraining states. Then, we assess the performance when transferring each.

In Figure 5.9, we plot in Grey lines the curves of accuracy on source datasets (news) throughout pretraining epochs. We can observe that, unsurprisingly, the performance on source datasets increases rapidly on the first epochs of pretraining before reaching a plateau with a slight augmentation. Then, we plot in Green lines the performance on target datasets (social media) when using pretrained weights from different pretraining epochs. Globally, the best performance on target-datasets is yielded when using pretrained weights from early pretraining epochs. Specifically, for POS tagging, the best performance on *TweeBank* and *ArK* target-datasets is obtained when using the weights from the 7th and 6th pretraining epochs, respectively. In comparison, the best performance on the *WSJ* source-dataset is not obtained until the 19th epoch. Interestingly, the results, on both datasets *TweeBank* and *ArK*, degrade gradually at the last pretraining epochs. However, for *TPoS* target-dataset, we find that the performance follows the performance on *WSJ* source data-set. This phenomenon could be explained by the fact that

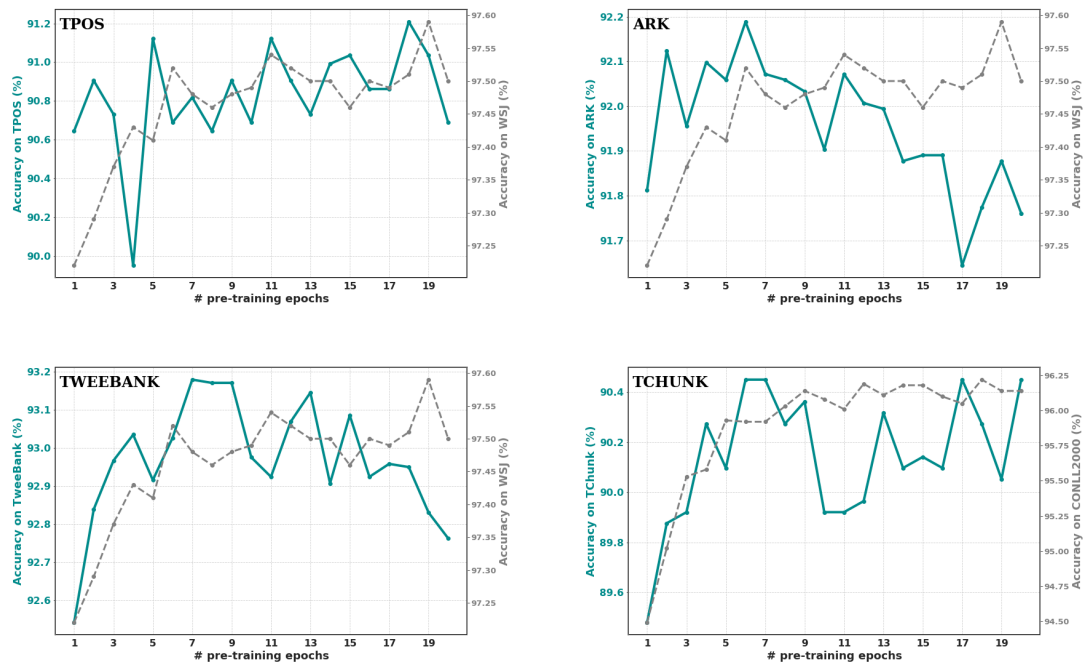


Figure 5.9 – Accuracy curves (grey) on source-datasets from the news domain according to different pretraining epochs. Accuracy curves (green) on target-datasets from the social media domain when using the pretrained parameters from each pretraining epoch. Note that different scales of the y-axis are used for source and target curves.

TPoS shares the same PTB tag-set as *WSJ*, whereas *TweeBank* and *ArK* use different tag-sets. Consequently, in the last states of pretraining, the pretrained parameters become well-tuned to the source dataset and specific to the source tag-set.

5.5.5 What Does Transfer Learning Improve?

Here, we quest which classes have benefited the most from transfer learning. In the left column of Figure 5.10, we report the percentage of improved predictions by each class i ($\frac{N_{improved_i}}{N_{class_i}}$) for each dataset. N_{class_i} is the number of tokens from the dev-set that belong to the class. $N_{improved_i}$ gives the number of tokens that – in reality – belong to this class, that have been wrongly predicted by random initialisation, but correctly predicted by transfer learning. In addition, we report the improvement in terms of the number of improved predictions ($N_{improved_i}$) in the right column, because in some cases a big improvement in percentage is – actually – due to the rarity of the corresponding class.

First, we can observe that the majority of classes benefit from transfer learning at different rates. Second, we find that some social media-specific classes present a drop in accuracy brought by transfer learning compared to random initialisation, *i.e.* the number of falsified predictions is higher than the number of improved predictions. For instance: -7% for X (existential there, predeterminers) and -2.5% for E (emoticon) for ArK dataset; -2% for SYM (Symbols) for

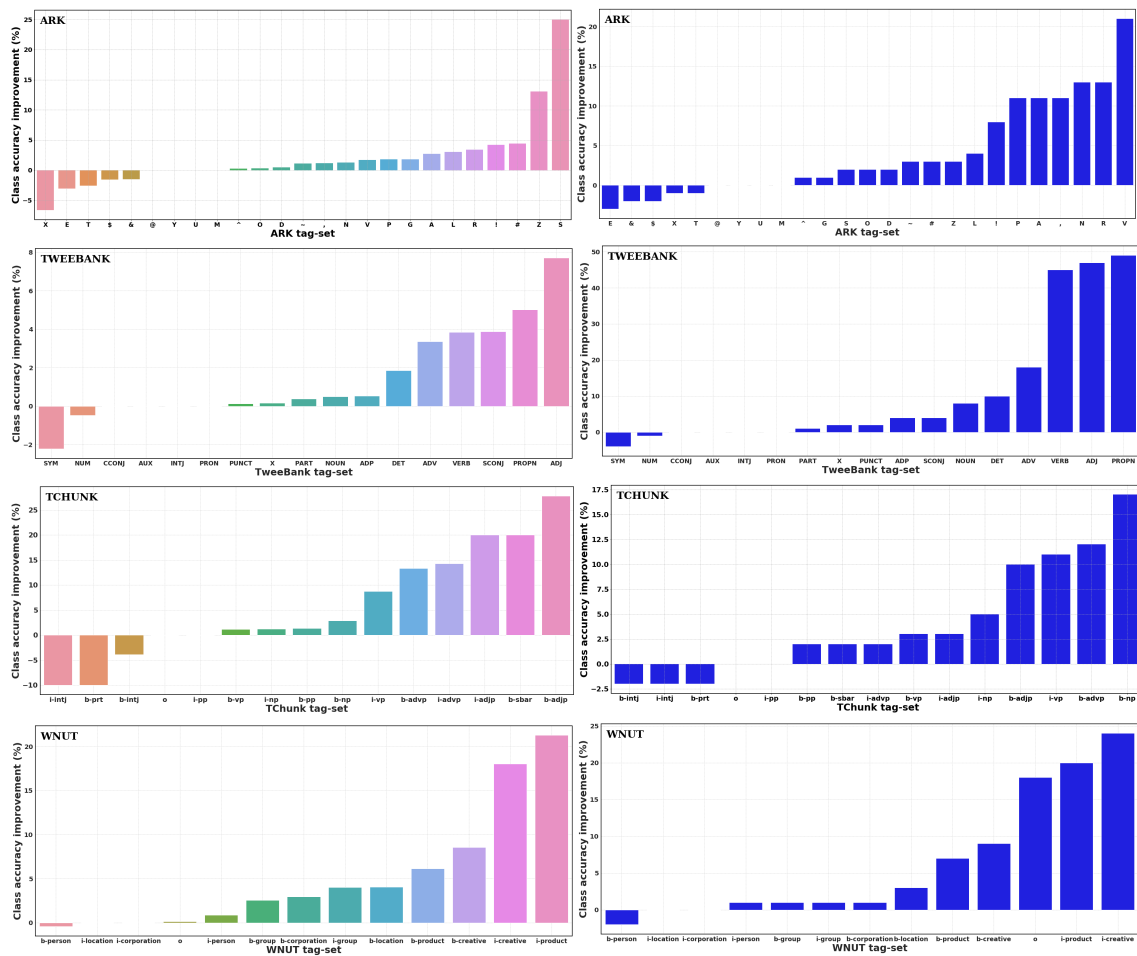


Figure 5.10 – Which classes benefit the most from transfer learning? Left Column: Improvement or drop in class-accuracy brought by transfer learning compared to random initialisation. Right Column: Number of per-class improved or falsified predictions by transfer learning compared to random initialisation. Tag-sets are provided in Table B.2 for ArK, Table B.3 for TweeBank and Table B.4 for TChunk.

TweeBank; and -10% for i-intj (Inside-interjection) for TChunk. Third, by comparing left and right histograms, we can observe that, as supposed, for some classes, the high percentage of improved predictions is due to the low-number of class-tokens. For instance, for the ARK dataset, the class “S” (nominal + possessive) has a high class-accuracy improvement (+25%), but in reality, this corresponds to only 2 improved predictions.

Furthermore, we provide in Table 5.10 some concrete examples of improved predictions by transfer learning compared to random initialisation. For each dataset we provide the sentence with gold annotations in the first line, followed by the predicted annotations by random initialisation in the second line and by transfer learning in the third line. For instance, for TPoS dataset, we can observe that transfer learning helps disambiguate the word “as”, which can be used in different scenarios. First, as a conjunction, connecting two clauses, e.g. *As they were paying, it starts raining*. Second, as a preposition, followed by a noun, e.g. *He plays football as a professional*. And, third, as an adverb, followed by an adjective, e.g. *Jack is younger than Joseph, but he is*

just as tall. In the provided example; “... he could go as high as the ...”, the first “as” is used as an adverb (RB) and the second as a conjunction (IN).

Note that in this thesis we assess the performances of our models with the percentage of the correctly tagged tokens. It would be interesting to investigate the performances at the sentence-level, *i.e.* the percentage of correctly tagged sentences.

TPoS	Gold	@user(USR) He(PRP) definitely(RB) will(MD) as(RB) long(RB) as(IN) he(PRP) checks(VBZ) out(RP) medically(NN) .(.) I(PRP) think(VBP) he(PRP) could(MD) go(VB) as(RB) high(JJ) as(IN) the(DT) 2nd(CD) or(CC) 3rd(CD) round(NN)
	Random	@user(USR) He(PRP) definitely(RB) will(MD) as(IN) long(RB) as(IN) he(PRP) checks(NNS) out(IN) medically(VBN) .(.) I(PRP) think(VBP) he(PRP) could(MD) go(VB) as(IN) high(NN) as(IN) the(DT) 2nd(CD) or(CC) 3rd(JJ) round(NN)
	TL	@user(USR) He(PRP) definitely(RB) will(MD) as(RB) long(RB) as(IN) he(PRP) checks(VBZ) out(RP) medically(NN) .(.) I(PRP) think(VBP) he(PRP) could(MD) go(VB) as(RB) high(JJ) as(IN) the(DT) 2nd(CD) or(CC) 3rd(JJ) round(NN)
ArK	gold	@user(@) yay(!) !(,) Thanyou(G) so(R) much(R) !(,) Much(A) love(N) to(P) you(O) !(,) xxxx(E)
	Random	@user(@) yay(!) !(,) Thanyou(L) so(R) much(A) !(,) Much(R) love(V) to(P) you(O) !(,) xxxx(#)
	TL	@user(@) yay(!) !(,) Thanyou(!) so(R) much(A) !(,) Much(A) love(N) to(P) you(O) !(,) xxxx(G)
TweeBank	gold	I(PRON) `m(AUX) heading(VERB) out(ADV) for(ADP) a(DET) #PokeGoBike(PROPN) ride(NOUN) .(PUNCT) Easier(ADJ) to(PART) catch(VERB) `em(PRON) all(DET) on(ADP) a(DET) Koben(PROPN) .(PUNCT)
	Random	I(PRON) `m(AUX) heading(VERB) out(ADP) for(ADP) a(DET) #PokeGoBike(NOUN) ride(NOUN) .(PUNCT) Easier(VERB) to(PART) catch(VERB) `em(ADP) all(DET) on(ADP) a(DET) Koben(NOUN) .(PUNCT)
	TL	I(PRON) `m(AUX) heading(VERB) out(ADP) for(ADP) a(DET) #PokeGoBike(PROPN) ride(NOUN) .(PUNCT) Easier(VERB) to(PART) catch(VERB) `em(PRON) all(DET) on(ADP) a(DET) Koben(PROPN) .(PUNCT)
TChunk	Gold	it(b-np) was(b-vp) half(b-np) past(i-np) 8(i-np) when(b-advp) the(b-np) drugs(i-np) began(b-vp) to(i-vp) take(i-vp) hold(b-np)
	Random	it(b-np) was(b-vp) half(b-np) past(b-np) 8(i-np) when(b-advp) the(b-np) drugs(i-np) began(b-vp) to(b-vp) take(i-vp) hold(i-vp)
	TL	it(b-np) was(b-vp) half(b-np) past(i-np) 8(i-np) when(b-advp) the(b-np) drugs(i-np) began(b-vp) to(i-vp) take(i-vp) hold(b-np)
WNUT	gold	Game(B-creative-work) of(I-creative-work) Thrones(I-creative-work) is(O) not(O) based(O) on(O) earth(B-location) js(O)
	Random	Game(O) of(O) Thrones(B-creative-work) is(I-creative-work) not(O) based(O) on(O) earth(O) js(O)
	TL	Game(B-creative-work) of(I-creative-work) Thrones(I-creative-work) is(O) not(O) based(O) on(O) earth(O) js(O)

Table 5.10 – Concrete examples of improved predictions by transfer Learning compared to random initialisation. Tag-sets are provided in Table B.2 for ArK, Table B.3 for TweeBank and Table B.4 for TChunk.

5.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have proposed two transfer learning methods to handle the problem of the lack of annotated data in low-resource domains. The first approach, *transfer of supervisedly pretrained representations*, consists in injecting the contextual representations generated by the source model as fixed inputs to the first layer of the target model, and thus, all of the target model’s layers are trained from scratch. The second approach, *transfer of pretrained models*, aims to make better use of the pre-learned knowledge, by using the pretrained weights from the source model to initialise the target model’s parameters, instead of training them from scratch.

Our extensive experiments on transfer from the high-resource news domain to the low-resource social media domain showed that both approaches boost the performance of 3 sequence labelling tasks on 5 social media datasets. Particularly, we found that transferring models outperforms transferring representations, since the former method allows the model to make better use of the pre-learned knowledge. It is noteworthy that transferring models is more efficient in terms of computation speed. In addition, we have showed that the recent ELMo contextual embeddings are complementary to our work and could be used to further improve performance.

Our in-depth analysis on our method of transferring pretrained models, showed that: 1) The method is more advantageous in extremely low-resource scenarios. 2) The method helps to improve the performance over all datasets classes. 3) The method leads to a faster convergence compared to training from scratch. 4) The model's size does not have an observable effect on the transfer performance. Finally, 5) the pretraining performance on the source task is not a predictor of performance on the target task.

6 | Neural Domain Adaptation by Joint Learning of Pretrained and Random Units

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, we have performed sequential transfer learning from the news-domain to the social media domain. Precisely, we used the Standard Fine-Tuning (SFT) adaptation scheme of transfer learning, by a supervised pretraining on the news-domain followed by an adaptation on the social media domain. Our results showed that using SFT boosts the performance positively on three NLP tasks from the social media domain, especially in extremely low-resource settings.

In this chapter, we attempt to improve the SFT adaptation scheme through three steps. First, through quantitative and qualitative analysis, we shed light on the *hidden negative transfer* occurring when transferring from news to social media despite the high relatedness between both domains. Second, we inspect the pretrained internal neural representations, at the representation-level and a more fine-grained neuron-level, showing that pretrained neurons are *biased* by what they have learnt from the source dataset. Thus, they struggle with learning certain patterns that are specific to the target domain. Third, to address this issue, we propose a new method to improve the SFT adaptation scheme by *augmenting* the pretrained model with *normalised, weighted* and *randomly initialised* neurons that foster a better adaptation while maintaining the valuable source knowledge.

This chapter is devised into two sub-chapters:

- The first sub-chapter (§6.2) proposes a series of analysis to spot the drawbacks of the SFT adaptation scheme of transfer learning. We start in section 6.2.2 by taking a step towards identifying and analysing the *hidden negative transfer* when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain. Negative transfer [300, 373] occurs when the knowledge learnt in the source domain hampers the learning of new knowledge from the target domain. Particularly, when the source and target domains are dissimilar, transfer learning may fail and hurt the performance, leading to a worse performance compared to

the standard supervised training from scratch. In this chapter, we decorticate the results of the SFT scheme obtained in the precedent chapter. Precisely, we perceive the gain brought by SFT, compared to random initialisation, as a combination of a positive transfer and a *hidden* negative transfer. We define positive transfer as the percentage of predictions that were wrongly predicted by random initialisation¹, but using transfer learning changed to the correct ones. The negative transfer represents the percentage of predictions that were tagged correctly by random initialisation, but using transfer learning gives incorrect predictions. Hence, the final gain brought by transfer learning would be the difference between positive and negative transfer. We show through a series of empirical analysis that, the *hidden* negative transfer mitigates the final gain brought by transfer learning.

Next, in section 6.2.3, we perform an interpretive analysis of individual pre-trained neurons behaviours in different settings. We find that pretrained neurons are *biased* by what they have learnt in the source-dataset. For instance, we observe a unit² firing on proper nouns (*e.g.* “George” and “Washington”) before fine-tuning, and on words with capitalised first-letter whether the word is a proper noun or not (*e.g.* “Man” and “Father”) during fine-tuning. Indeed, in news domain, only proper nouns start with an upper-case letter; thus the pre-trained units fail to discard this pattern which is not always respected in User-Generated-Content (UGC) in social media.³ As a consequence of this phenomenon, specific patterns to the target-dataset (*e.g.* “wanna” or “gonna” in the UGC in social media) are difficult to learn by pre-trained units. This phenomenon is non-desirable, since such specific units are essential, especially for target-specific classes [419, 181].

- The second sub-chapter (§6.3) proposes a new method to overcome the above-mentioned drawbacks of the SFT scheme of transfer learning. Precisely, we propose a hybrid method that takes benefit from both worlds, random initialisation and transfer learning, without their drawbacks. It consists in augmenting the source-network (set of pre-trained units) with randomly initialised units (that are by design non-biased) and jointly learn them. We call our method **PretRand** (**Pre**trained and **Rand**om units). PretRand consists of three main ideas: 1) Augmenting the source-network (set of pre-trained units) with a random branch composed of randomly initialised units, and jointly learn them. 2) Normalising the outputs of both branches to balance their different behaviours and thus forcing the network to consider both. 3) Applying learnable attention weights on both branches predictors to let the network learn which of random or pre-trained one is better for every class. Our experiments on 4 NLP tasks: Part-of-Speech tagging (POS), Chunking (CK), Named Entity Recognition (NER) and Morphosyntactic Tagging (MST); show that PretRand

¹ We recall that random initialisation means training from scratch on target data.

² We use “unit” and “neuron” interchangeably.

³ The same observation was pointed out in computer-vision [417] when fine-tuning on scenes a model pre-trained on objects, it is the neuron firing on the “white-dog” object that becomes highly sensitive to the “white-waterfall” scene.

enhances considerably the performance compared to the standard fine-tuning adaptation scheme.

6.2 Analysis of the Standard Fine-tuning Scheme of Transfer Learning

We perform our analysis on three sequence labelling tasks: POS, CK and NER. Given an input sentence $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$ of n successive tokens and a tag-set \mathcal{C} , the aim of sequence labelling is to predict the tag $c_i \in \mathcal{C}$ of every w_i . For the basic neural architecture, we use a commonly used model (described in details in section 5.2.1), which includes three main components: the Word Representation Extractor (WRE), denoted Υ ; the Features Extractor (FE), denoted Φ and the Classifier (Cl), denoted Ψ .

Υ computes for each token w_i a word-level embedding ($\mathbf{x}_i^{word} = \Upsilon^{word}(w_i)$) and a character-level biLSTM encoder-based embedding ($\mathbf{x}_i^{char} = \Upsilon^{char}(w_i)$), and concatenates them to get a final representation $\mathbf{x}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i^{word}, \mathbf{x}_i^{char})$. Then, Υ 's outputs $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$ are fed into the Φ that outputs a context sensitive representation for each token, consisting of a single biLSTM layer which iteratively passes through the sentence in both directions. Finally, Ψ consists of a softmax fully-connected layer that produces the classes-probabilities for each w_i as follows: $\hat{y}_i = (\Psi \circ \Phi \circ \Upsilon)(w_i)$.

In this sub-chapter, we analyse the precedent chapter's results of the fine-tuning adaptation scheme of transfer learning, referred to as Standard Fine-tuning (SFT) henceforth. Recall that SFT (§5.3.2.2) consists on three steps:

1. Pretraining the source-model on the *source-task*;
2. Initialising target model's word representation component (Υ) and feature extractor component (Φ) weights with source model's ones, while the classifier (Ψ) is randomly initialised;
3. And finally, in the adaptation stage, the three modules are jointly trained on the *target-dataset* by minimising the SCE loss using the SGD algorithm.

Our results, in the precedent chapter (Table 5.4), show that applying this method improves the results compared to training from scratch (random initialisation), across all tasks and social media data-sets. Here, we carry out a series of analysis to spot some of the limits of this method, namely, the *hidden negative transfer* (§6.2.2) and the *bias in pretrained neurons* (§6.2.3).

6.2.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets

Throughout this sub-chapter, we conduct experiments on three sequence labelling tasks (POS, CK and NER). For the *source-datasets*, we use the news domain with the following datasets: the WSJ part of Penn-Tree-Bank (PTB) [215] for POS; CONLL2003 for NER [355]; and CONLL2000 [354] for CK. In the same vein, for the *target-datasets*, we use the social media with the following datasets: TPoS, ArK and TweeBank [203] for POS; WNUT-17 [85] for NER; and TChunk [298] for CK. Statistics of all the datasets are summarised in Table 6.1. More details about the tasks and datasets are provided in chapter 4.

Task	#Classes	Sources	Eval. Metrics	#Tokens-splits (train - val - test)
POS: POS Tagging	36	WSJ	Top-1 Acc.	912,344 - 131,768 - 129,654
CK: Chunking	22	CONLL-2000	Top-1 Acc.	211,727 - n/a - 47,377
NER: Named Entity Recognition	4	CONLL-2003	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	203,621 - 51,362 - 46,435
	40	TPoS	Top-1 Acc.	10,500 - 2,300 - 2,900
POS: POS Tagging	25	ArK	Top-1 Acc.	26,500 - / - 7,700
	17	TweeBank	Top-1 Acc.	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
CK: Chunking	18	TChunk	Top-1 Top-1 Acc..	10,652 - 2,242 - 2,291
NER: Named Entity Recognition	6	WNUT-17	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	62,729 - 15,734 - 23,394

Table 6.1 – Statistics of the used datasets. **Top:** datasets of the source domain. **Bottom:** datasets of the target domain.

Training details

In the standard word-level embeddings, tokens are lower-cased while the character-level component still retains access to the capitalisation information. We set the randomly initialised character embedding dimension (\tilde{d}^{char}) at 50, the dimension of hidden states of the character-level biLSTM (d^{char}) at 100 and used 300-dimensional word-level embeddings (d^{word}). Word-level embeddings were pre-loaded from publicly available GloVe pre-trained vectors on 42 billions words from a web crawling and containing 1.9M words [262]. Note that, these embeddings are also updated during training. For the FE component, we use a single layer biLSTM (token-level feature extractor) and set the number of units (H) to 200. In all experiments, both pretraining and fine-tuning were performed using the same training settings, SGD with momentum with early stopping and mini-batches of 16 sentences, with a fixed learning rate of 1.5×10^{-2} .

6.2.2 Analysis of the Hidden Negative Transfer

It has been shown in many works in the literature [300, 120, 303, 137, 49, 56, 373, 254] that, when the source and target domains are less related (*e.g.* languages from different families), sequential transfer learning may lead to a negative effect on the performance, instead of improving it. This phenomenon is referred to as *negative transfer*. Precisely, negative transfer is considered when transfer learning is harmful to the target task/dataset, *i.e.* the performance when using

transfer learning algorithm is lower than that with a solely supervised training on in-target data [357]. In NLP, negative transfer phenomenon has only seldom been studied. We can cite the recent work of Kocmi [172] who evaluated the negative transfer in transfer learning in Neural Machine Translation (NMT) when the transfer is performed between different language-pairs. They found that: 1) The distributions mismatch between source and target language-pairs does not beget a negative transfer. 2) The transfer may have a negative impact when the source language-pair is less-resourced compared to the target one, in terms of annotated examples.

Our experiments have shown that transfer learning techniques from news domain to social media domain boosts tagging performance. Hence, following the above definition, transfer learning from news to social media does not beget a negative transfer. Contrariwise, in this work, we instead consider the *hidden negative transfer*, *i.e.* the percentage of predictions that were correctly tagged by random initialisation, but using transfer learning gives wrong predictions. Precisely, we perform empirical analysis to investigate the *hidden* negative transfer in SFT. We propose the following experiments: 1) we show that the final gain brought by SFT can be separated into two categories: *positive transfer* and *negative transfer*. We define *positive transfer* as the percentage of tokens that were wrongly predicted by random initialisation, but the SFT changed to the correct ones, while *negative transfer* represents the percentage of words that were tagged correctly by random initialisation, but using SFT gives wrong predictions (§6.2.2.1). 2) We study the impact of the pretraining state on negative and positive transfer (§6.2.2.2). Finally, 3) we provide some qualitative examples of negative transfer (§6.2.2.3).

6.2.2.1 Quantifying Positive Transfer & Negative Transfer

Let us consider the gain \mathcal{G}_i brought by the SFT scheme of transfer learning compared to random initialisation for the dataset i . \mathcal{G}_i is defined as the difference between positive transfer \mathcal{PT}_i and negative transfer \mathcal{NT}_i :

$$\mathcal{G}_i = \mathcal{PT}_i - \mathcal{NT}_i, \quad (6.1)$$

where positive transfer \mathcal{PT}_i represents the percentage of tokens that were wrongly predicted by random initialisation, but the SFT changed to the correct ones. *Negative transfer* \mathcal{NT}_i represents the percentage of words that were tagged correctly by random initialisation, but using SFT gives wrong predictions. \mathcal{PT}_i and \mathcal{NT}_i are defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{PT}_i = \frac{N_i^{\text{corrected}}}{N_i}, \quad (6.2)$$

$$\mathcal{NT}_i = \frac{N_i^{\text{falsified}}}{N_i}, \quad (6.3)$$

where N_i is the total number of tokens in the validation-set, $N_i^{\text{corrected}}$ is the number of tokens from the validation-set that were wrongly tagged by the model trained from scratch but are

correctly predicted by transfer learning scheme, and $N_i^{falsified}$ is the number of tokens from the validation-set that were correctly tagged by the the model trained from scratch but are wrongly predicted by the transfer learning scheme.

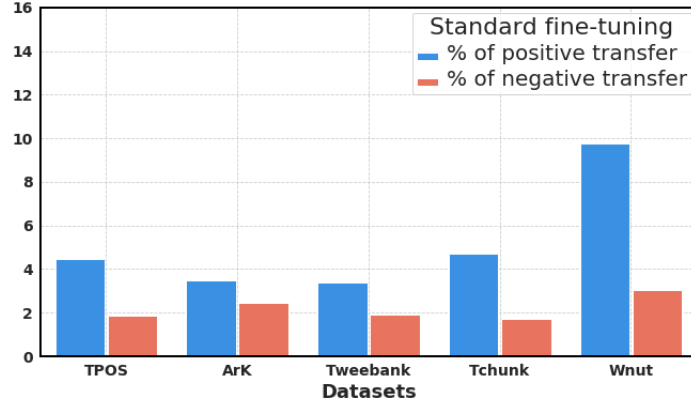


Figure 6.1 – The percentage of *negative transfer* and *positive transfer* brought by SFT adaptation scheme compared to supervised training from scratch scheme.

Figure 6.1 shows the results on English social media datasets, first tagged with the classic supervised training scheme and then using SFT. Blue bars show the percentage of *positive transfer* and red bars give the percentage of *negative transfer*. We observe that even though the SFT approach is effective since the resulting *positive transfer* is higher than the *negative transfer* in all cases, this last mitigates the final gain brought by SFT. For instance, for TChunk dataset, SFT corrected $\sim 4.7\%$ of predictions but falsified $\sim 1.7\%$, which reduces the final gain to $\sim 3\%$. Here we calculate positive and negative transfer at the token-level. Thus, the gain shown in Figure 6.1 for WNUT dataset does not correspond to the one in Table 5.4, since the F1 metric is calculated only on named-entities.

6.2.2.2 The impact of pretraining state on Negative Transfer

The experiment of this section is in the same vein as the experiment of section 5.5.4, where we investigated the question “when are pretrained parameters ready to transfer?”. Likewise, here we pick the pretrained weights at different pretraining epochs; that we call the pretraining states. Then, we assess the performance when transferring each. Nevertheless, here we are instead interested by the impact of the pretraining state on negative and positive transfer. Specifically, in Figure 6.2, we plot for each target dataset, the curves of positive transfer (green curves) and negative transfer (red curves) brought by initialising the target model with pretrained weights from different pretraining states compared to the random initialisation. Clearly, both negative and positive transfer increase with pretraining epochs, since more source domain knowledge is acquired in the course of pretraining. More importantly, for *TweeBank* and *ArK* datasets, the negative transfer increases rapidly in the last pretraining epochs. However, for *TPoS* dataset, the negative transfer stays almost stable throughout pretraining epochs. This observation is tied

to our findings in section.5.5.4 experiment, and thus it could be similarly explained by the fact that, at the last states of pretraining, the pretrained parameters become well-tuned to the source dataset. Thus, when the source and target datasets are not similar enough, we observe an increase of negative transfer at the end of pretraining and thus a drop in the transfer performance.

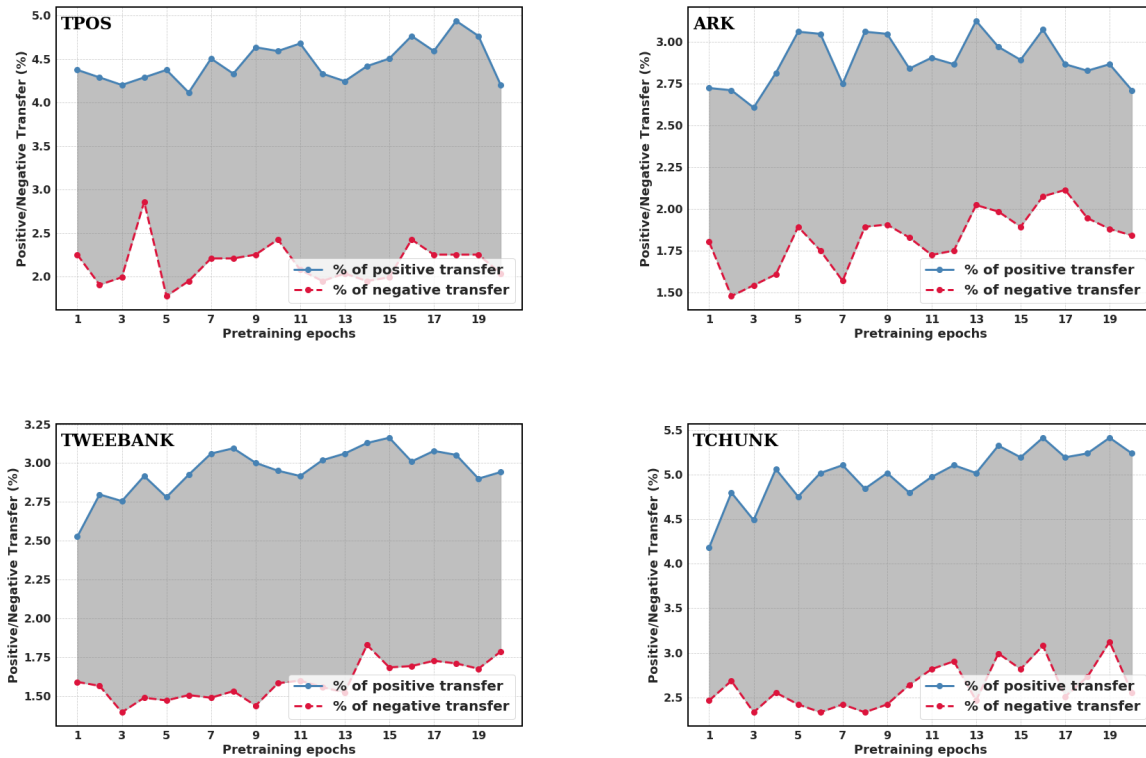


Figure 6.2 – Positive transfer curves (blue) and negative transfer curves (red) on social media data-sets, according to different pretraining epochs. Transparent Gray highlights the final gain brought by TL.

6.2.2.3 Qualitative Examples of Negative Transfer

We report in Table 6.2 concrete examples⁴ of words whose predictions were falsified when using SFT scheme compared to standard supervised training scheme. Among mistakes we have observed:

- **Tokens with an upper-cased first letter:** In news (formal English), only proper nouns start with an upper-case letter inside sentences. Consequently, in the SFT scheme, the

⁴ nn=N=noun=common noun / nnp=pnoun=propn=proper noun / vbz=Verb, 3rd person singular present / pos=possessive ending / prp=personal pronoun / prp\$=possessive pronoun / md=modal / VBP=Verb, non-3rd person singular present / uh=! =intj=interjection / rb=R=adverb / L=nominal + verbal or verbal + nominal / E=emoticon / \$=numerical / P=pre- or postposition, or subordinating conjunction / Z=proper noun + possessive ending / V=verb / adj=adjective / adp=adposition

DataSet							
TPoS	Award [◇]	's	its [*]	Mum	wont [*]	id [*]	Exactly
	nn	vbz	prp	nn	MD	prp	uh
	nnp	pos	prp\$	uh	VBP	nn	rb
ArK	Charity [◇]	I'M [*]	2pac [×]	2 [×]	Titans [*]	wth [×]	nvr [×]
	noun	L	pnoun	P	Z	!	R
	pnoun	E	\$	\$	N	P	V
TweeBank	amazin [•]	Night [◇]	Angry [◇]	stangs	#Trump	awsome [•]	bout [•]
	adj	noun	adj	propn	propn	adj	adp
	noun	propn	propn	noun	X	intj	verb
TChunk	luv [×]	**ROCKSTAR**THURSDAY	ONLY	Just [◇]	wyd [×]	id [*]	
	b-vp		b-np	i-np	b-advp	b-np	b-np
	i-intj		O	b-np	b-np	b-intj	i-np
Wnut	Hey [◇]	Father [◇]	& [×]	IMO [×]	UN	Glasgow	Supreme
	O	O	O	O	O	b-location	b-person
	b-person	b-person	i-group	b-group	b-group	b-group	b-corporation

Table 6.2 – Examples of falsified predictions by standard fine-tuning scheme when transferring from news domain to social media domain. Line 1: Some words from the validation-set of each data-set. Line 2: Correct labels predicted by the classic supervised setting (Random-200). Line 3: Wrong labels predicted by SFT setting. Mistake type: [◇] for words with first capital letter, [•] for misspelling, ^{*} for contractions, [×] for abbreviations. TPoS tagset: Table B.1, ArK tagset: Table B.2, TweeBank tagset: Table B.3, TChunk tagset: Table B.4.

pre-trained units fail to slough this pattern which is not always respected in social media. Hence, we found that most of the tokens with an upper-cased first letter are mistakenly predicted as proper nouns (PROPN) in POS, *e.g.* Award, Charity, Night, etc. and as entities in NER, *e.g.* Father, Hey, etc., which is consistent with the findings of Seah *et al.* [320]; negative transfer is mainly due to conditional distribution differences between source and target domains ($P_S(Y|X) \neq P_T(Y|X)$).

- **Contractions** are frequently used in social media to shorten a set of words. For instance, in TPoS dataset, we found that “’s” is in most cases predicted as a “possessive ending (pos)” instead of “Verb, 3rd person singular present (vbz)”. Indeed, in formal English, “’s” is used in most cases to express the possessive form, *e.g.* “company’s decision”, but rarely in contractions that are frequently used in social media, *e.g.* “How’s it going with you?”. Similarly, “wont” is a frequent contraction for “will not”, *e.g.* “i wont get bday money lool”, predicted as “verb” instead of “modal (MD)”⁵ by the SFT scheme. The same for “id”, which stands for “I would”.
- **Abbreviations** are frequently used in social media to shorten the way a word is standardly written. We found that SFT stumbles on abbreviations predictions, *e.g.* 2pac (Tupac), 2 (to), ur (your), wth (what the hell) and nvr (never) in ArK dataset; and luv (love) and wyd (what you doing?) in TChunk dataset.

⁵ A modal is an auxiliary verb expressing: ability (can), obligation (have), etc.

- **Misspellings:** Likewise, we found that the SFT scheme often gives wrong predictions for misspelt words, *e.g.* *awsome*, *bout*, *amazin*.

6.2.3 Interpreting the Bias in Pretrained Models

Much effort has been devoted to understand and interpret the information encoded in pre-trained models, especially pretrained contextual embeddings (ELMo, BERT, etc.). However, how this information is evolving during fine-tuning in the target task is relatively poorly understood. Here, we aim to gain some insights into how the inner pretrained representations are updated during fine-tuning on social media datasets when using the SFT scheme of transfer learning. For this, we propose to analyse the feature extractor’s (Φ) activations. Specifically, we attempt to visualise *biased neurons*, *i.e.* pre-trained neurons that do not change that much from their initial state.

Formally, let us consider a validation-set of N words, the feature extractor Φ generates a matrix $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbf{M}_{N,H}(\mathbb{R})$ of activations over all validation-set’s words, where $\mathbf{M}_{f,g}(\mathbb{R})$ is the space of $f \times g$ matrices over \mathbb{R} , and H is the size of the hidden representation (number of neurons). Each element $h_{i,j}$ from the matrix represents the activation of the neuron j on the word w_i . Given two models, the first before fine-tuning and the second after fine-tuning, we obtain two matrices $\mathbf{h}^{before} \in \mathbf{M}_{N,H}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathbf{h}^{after} \in \mathbf{M}_{N,H}(\mathbb{R})$, which give, respectively, the activations of Φ over all validation-set’s words before and after fine-tuning. Here we aim to visualise and quantify the change of the representations generated by the model from the initial state, \mathbf{h}^{before} (before fine-tuning), to the final state, \mathbf{h}^{after} (after fine-tuning). For this purpose, we perform two experiments: 1) quantifying the change of pretrained individual neurons (§6.2.3.1), and 2) visualising the evolution of pretrained neurons stimulus during fine-tuning (§6.2.3.2).

6.2.3.1 Quantifying the change of individual pretrained neurons

Approach

Here, we propose to quantify the change of the knowledge encoded in pretrained neurons after fine-tuning. For this purpose, we propose to calculate the similarity (correlation) between neurons activations before and after fine-tuning, when using the SFT adaptation scheme. Precisely, we calculate the correlation coefficient between each neuron’s activation on the target-domain validation-set before starting fine-tuning and at the end of fine-tuning.

Following the above formulation, and as illustrated in Figure 6.3, from \mathbf{h}^{before} and \mathbf{h}^{after} matrices, we extract two vectors $\mathbf{h}_j^{before} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and $\mathbf{h}_j^{after} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, representing respectively the activations of a unit j over all validation-set’s words *before* and *after* fine-tuning, where N is the number of words in the validation-set. Next, we generate an asymmetric correlation matrix $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbf{M}_{H,H}(\mathbb{R})$, where each element c_{jt} in the matrix represents the Pearson’s correlation between the unit j activation vector after fine-tuning (\mathbf{h}_j^{after}) and the unit t activation vector before fine-tuning (\mathbf{h}_t^{before}), computed as follows:

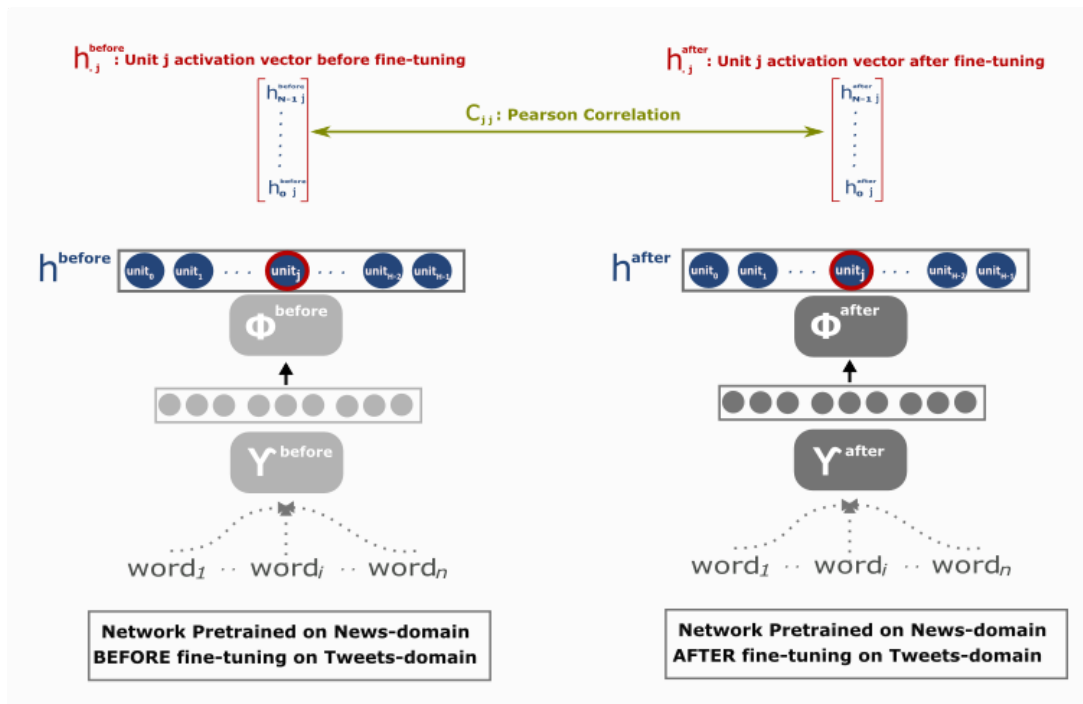


Figure 6.3 – Illustrative scheme of the computation of the *charge* of unit j , *i.e.* the Pearson correlation between unit j activations vector after fine-tuning to its activations vector before fine-tuning.

$$c_{jt} = \frac{\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{h}_j^{after} - \mu_j^{after})(\mathbf{h}_t^{before} - \mu_t^{before})]}{\sigma_j^{after} \sigma_t^{before}}. \quad (6.4)$$

Here μ_j^{before} and σ_j^{before} represent, respectively, the mean and the standard deviation of unit j activations over the validation set. Clearly, we are interested by the matrix diagonal, where c_{jj} represents the *charge* of each unit j from Φ , *i.e.* the correlation between each unit's activations after fine-tuning to its activations before fine-tuning.

Results

To visualise the bias phenomenon occurring in the SFT scheme, we quantify the *charge* of individual neurons. Precisely, we plot the asymmetric correlation matrix (\mathbf{C}) between the Φ layer's units *before* and *after* fine-tuning for each social media dataset (ArK for POS, TChunk for CK and WNUT-17 for NER). From the resulting correlation matrices illustrated in Figure 6.4, we can observe the diagonal representing the *charge* of each unit, with most of the units having a high charge (light colour), alluding the fact that, every unit after fine-tuning is highly correlated with itself before fine-tuning. Hypothesising that high correlation in the diagonal entails high bias, the results of this experiment confirm our initial motivation that pre-trained units are highly biased to what they have learnt in the source-dataset, making them limited to learn some patterns specific to the target-dataset. Our remarks were confirmed recently in the recent work of

Merchant *et al.* [231], who also found that fine-tuning is a “conservative process”.

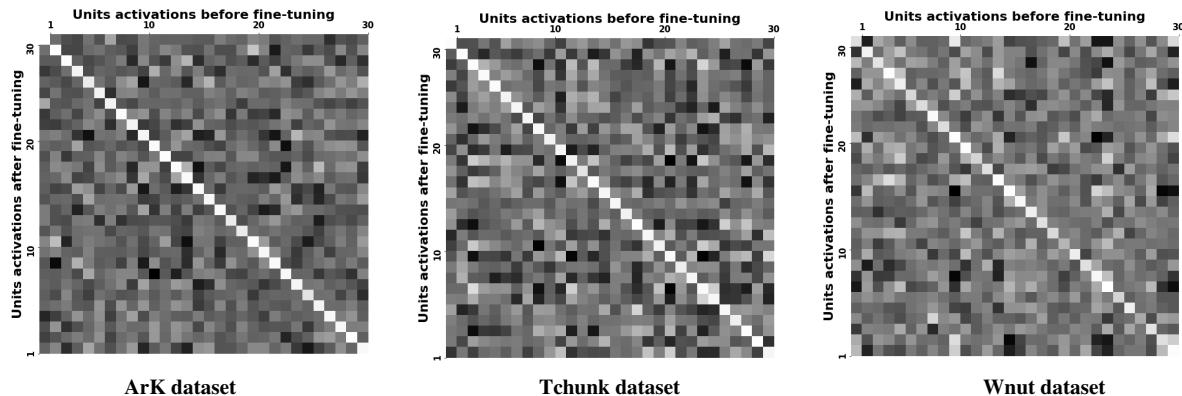


Figure 6.4 – Correlation results between Φ units’ activations before fine-tuning (columns) and after fine-tuning (rows). Brighter colours indicate higher correlation.

6.2.3.2 Visualising the Evolution of Pretrained Neurons Stimulus during Fine-tuning

Approach

Here, we perform units visualisation at the individual-level to gain insights on how the patterns encoded by individual units progress during fine-tuning when using SFT scheme. To do this, we generate top-k activated words by each unit; *i.e.* words in the validation-set that fire the most the said unit, positively and negatively, since LSTM generate positive and negative activations. In [166], top-k activated contexts from the model were plotted at the end of training (the best model), which shows on what each unit is specialised, but it does not give insights about how the said unit is evolving and changing during training. However, taking into account only the final state of training does not reveal the whole picture since the analysis will be linked to the chosen stopping criteria. Here, we instead propose to generate and plot top-k words activating each unit throughout the training.

We follow two main steps (illustrated in Figure 6.5):

1. We represent each unit j from Φ with a random matrix $\mathbf{A}^{(j)} \in \mathbf{M}_{N,D}(\mathbb{R})$ of the said unit’s activations on all the validation-set at different training epochs, where D is the number of epochs and N is the number of words in the validation-set. Thus, each element $a_{y,z}^{(j)}$ in the matrix represents the activation of the unit j on the word w_y at the epoch z .
2. We carry out a sorting of each column of the matrix (*i.e.* same epoch) and pick the higher k words (for *top-k* words firing the unit positively) and the lowest k words (for *top-k* words firing the unit negatively), leading to two matrices, $\mathbf{A}_{best+}^{(j)} \in \mathbf{M}_{D,k}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathbf{A}_{best-}^{(j)} \in \mathbf{M}_{D,k}(\mathbb{R})$, the first for *top-k* words activating positively the unit j at each training epoch, and the last for *top-k* words activating negatively the unit j at each training epoch.

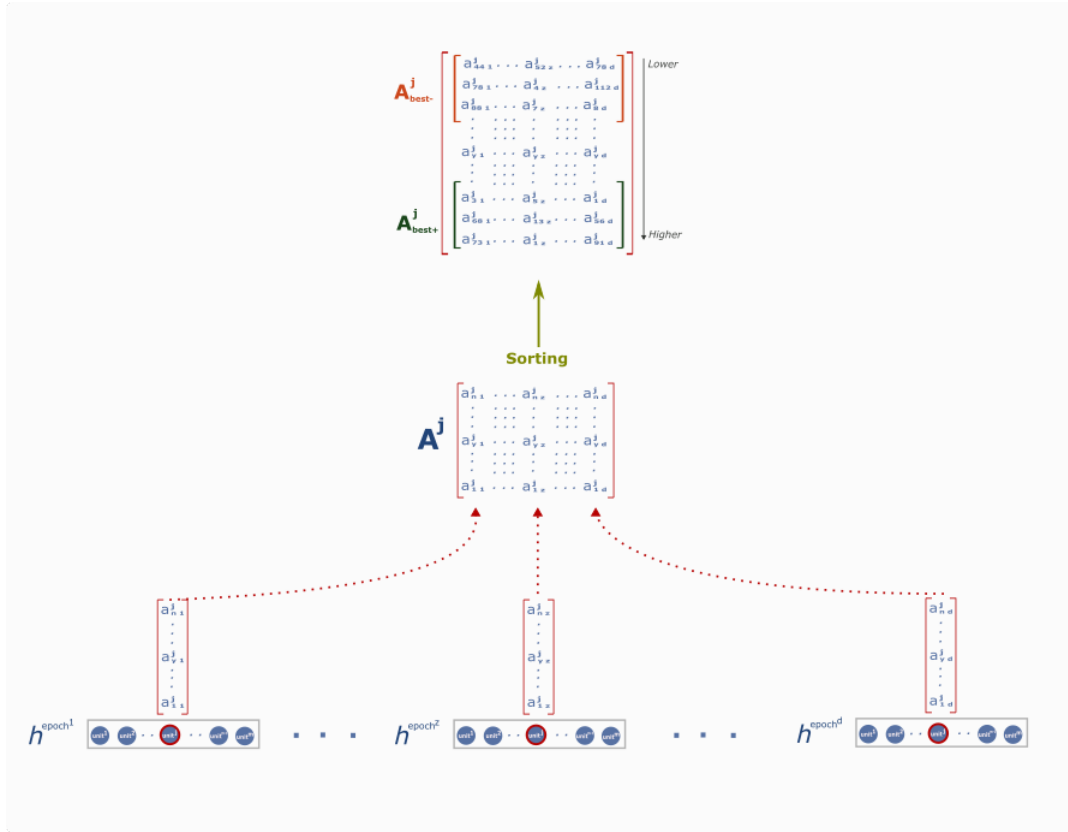


Figure 6.5 – Illustrative scheme of the calculus of top-k-words activating unit j , positively ($A_{best+}^{(j)}$) and negatively ($A_{best-}^{(j)}$) during fine-tuning epochs. h^{epoch^z} states for Φ 's outputs at epoch number z .

Results

Here, we give concrete visualisations of the evolution of pretrained neurons stimulus during fine-tuning when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain. Specifically, we plot the matrices of top-10 words activating each neuron j , positively ($A_{best+}^{(j)}$) or negatively ($A_{best-}^{(j)}$). The results are plotted in Figure 6.6 for ArK (POS) dataset, Figure 6.7 for TweepBank dataset (POS) and Figure 6.8 for WNUT dataset (NER). Rows represent the top-10 words from the target dataset activating each unit, and columns represent fine-tuning epochs; before fine-tuning in column 0 (at this stage the model is only trained on the source-dataset), and during fine-tuning (columns 5 to 20). Additionally, to get an idea about each unit's stimulus on source dataset, we also show, in the first column (Final-WSJ for POS and Final-CONLL-03 for NER), top-10 words from the source dataset activating the same unit before fine-tuning. In the following, we describe the information encoded by each provided neuron.⁶

⁶ Here we only select some interesting neurons. However we also found many neurons that are not interpretable.

- **Ark - POS:** (Figure 6.6)

- Unit-196 is sensitive to contractions containing an apostrophe regardless of the contraction’s class. However, unlike news, in social media and particularly ArK dataset, apostrophes are used in different cases. For instance *i’m*, *i’ll* and *it’s* belong to the class “L” that stands for “nominal + verbal or verbal + nominal”, while the contractions *can’t* and *don’t* belong to the class “Verb”.
- Unit-64 is sensitive to plural proper nouns on news-domain before fine-tuning, e.g. *Koreans* and *Europeans*, and also on ArK during fine-tuning, e.g. *Titans* and *Patriots*. However, in ArK dataset, “Z” is a special class for “proper noun + possessive ending”, e.g. *Jay’s mum*, and in some cases the apostrophe is omitted, e.g. *Fergusons house* for *Ferguson’s house*, which thus may bring ambiguity with plural proper nouns in formal English. Consequently, unit-64, initially sensitive to plural proper nouns, is also firing on words from the class “Z”, e.g. *Timbers* (*Timber’s*).

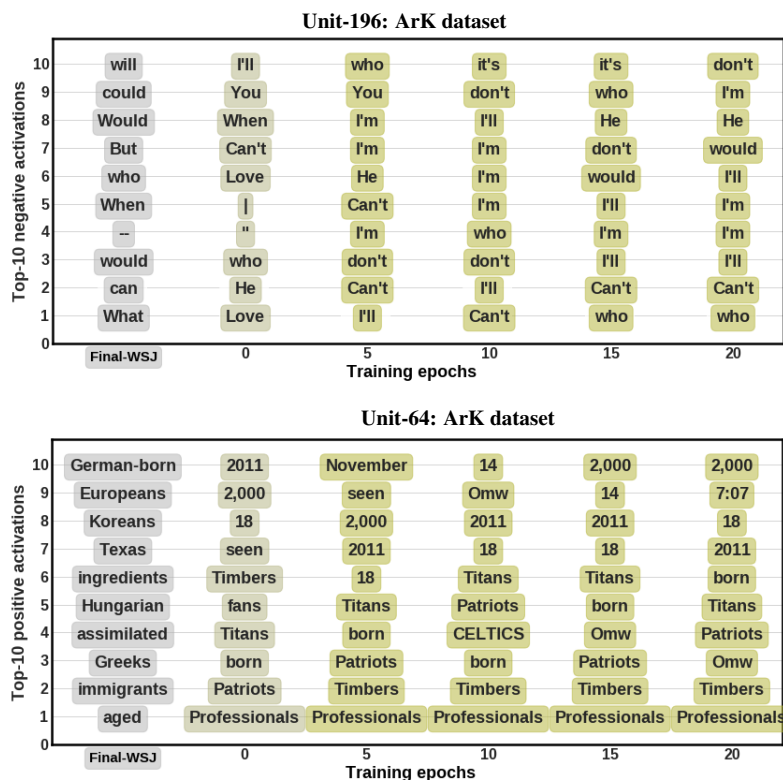


Figure 6.6 – Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning from ArK POS dataset. For each unit we show Top-10 words activating the said unit. The first column: top-10 words from the source validation-set (WSJ) before fine-tuning, Column 0: top-10 words from the target validation-set (ArK) before fine-tuning. Columns 5 to 20: top-10 words from the target validation-set during fine-tuning epochs.

• **Tweebank - POS:** (Figure 6.7)

- Unit-37 is sensitive before and during fine-tuning on plural nouns, such as *gazers* and *feminists*. However, it is also firing on the word *slangs* because of the *s* ending, which is in fact a proper noun. This might explain the wrong prediction for the word *slangs* (noun instead of proper noun) given by the SFT scheme (Table 6.2).
- Unit-169 is highly sensitive to proper nouns (*e.g. George* and *Washington*) before fine-tuning, and to words with capitalised first-letter whether the word is a proper noun or not (*e.g. Man* and *Father*) during fine-tuning on the TweeBank dataset. Which may explain the frequent wrong predictions of tokens with upper-cased first letter as proper nouns by the SFT scheme.

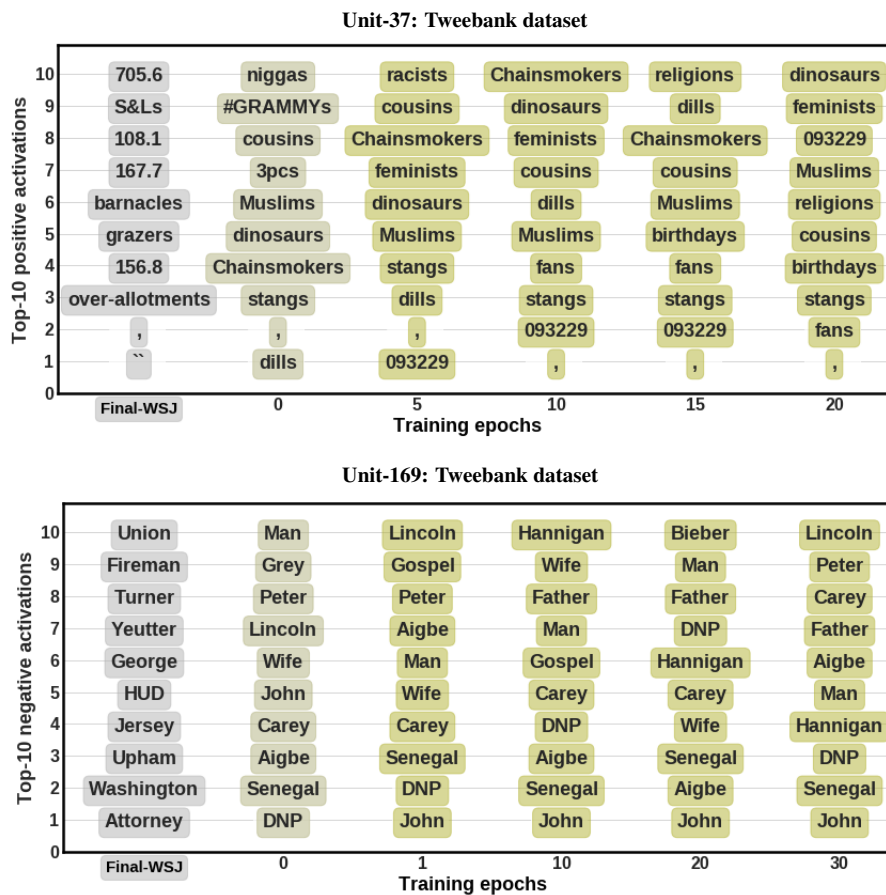


Figure 6.7 – Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning on Tweebank POS dataset. For each unit we show Top-10 words activating the said unit. The first column: top-10 words from the source validation-set (WSJ) before fine-tuning, Column 0: top-10 words from the target validation-set (Tweebank) before fine-tuning. Columns 5 to 20: top-10 words from the target validation-set during fine-tuning epochs.

- **WNUT - NER:** (Figure 6.8)

- Unit-101 is firing before and after fine-tuning on words that are part of an “Organisation” entity, e.g *County* (Ross County), *Park* (Queens Park Rangers), etc. Accordingly, it is sensitive to the word *Supreme*. As illustrated in Table 6.2, this word was mistakenly predicted as a part of an “Organisation” by SFT. Indeed, *Supreme Court* is frequently used in CONLL-03 (the source dataset) as an *Organisation*. However in rare cases such as *Supreme Court judge*, which is a “Person”, *Supreme* should be tagged as a part of a “Person” entity.
- Unit-184 is firing before and after fine-tuning on words that are part of an “Organisation” entity, e.g *Bank, inc* and “&”. Indeed, this last is frequently used in formal English in organisation names such as: *Jones & co*. However, in social media, it is mostly used as a contraction for the connector “and”. Consequently, as illustrated in Table 6.2. “&” is mistakenly predicted as a part of an “Organisation” by the SFT scheme.

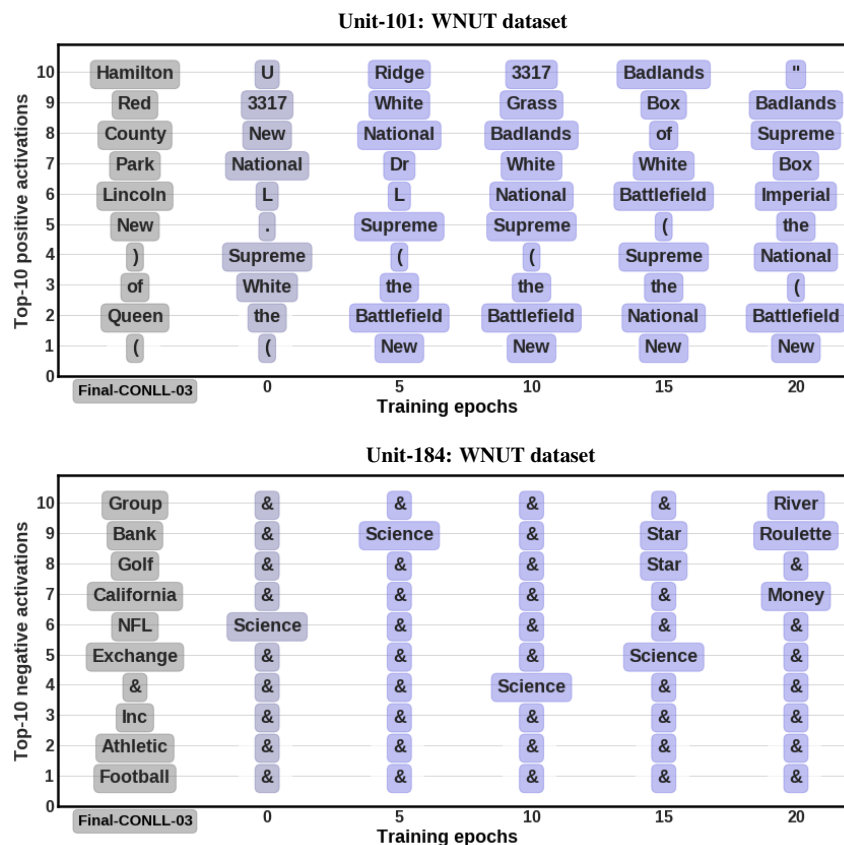


Figure 6.8 – Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning on WNUT NER dataset. For each unit we show Top-10 words activating the said unit. The first column: top-10 words from the source validation-set (CONLL-03) before fine-tuning, Column 0: top-10 words from the target validation-set (WNUT-17) before fine-tuning. Columns 5 to 20: top-10 words from the target validation-set during fine-tuning epochs.

6.2.4 Conclusion

In this sub-chapter, we have analysed the results of the standard fine-tuning adaptation scheme of transfer learning. Firstly, we were interested in the hidden negative transfer that arises when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain. Indeed, negative transfer has only seldom been tackled in sequential transfer learning works in NLP. In addition, earlier research papers evoke negative transfer only when the source domain has a negative impact on the target model. We showed that despite the positive gain brought by transfer learning from the high-resource news domain to the low-resource social media domain, we found that the hidden negative transfer mitigates the final gain brought by transfer learning. Second, we carried out an interpretive analysis of the evolution, during fine-tuning, of pretrained representations. We found that while fine-tuning necessarily makes some changes during fine-tuning on social media datasets, pretrained neurons are biased by what they have learnt in the source domain. In simple words, pretrained neurons tend to conserve much information from the source domain. Some of this information is undoubtedly beneficial for the social media domain (positive transfer), but some of it is indeed harmful (negative transfer). We hypothesise that this phenomenon of biased neurons restrains the pretrained model from learning some new features specific to the target domain (social media). To overcome this drawback of the standard fine-tuning adaptation scheme, we propose in the next sub-chapter a new scheme of adaptation.

We believe that more extensive experiments would be interesting to better understand the phenomenon of the hidden negative transfer and to confirm our observations. First, one can investigate the impact of the model's hyper-parameters (size, activation functions, learning rate, etc.) as well as regulation methods (dropout, batch normalisation, weights decay, etc.). Second, we suppose that the hidden negative transfer would be more prominent when the target dataset is too small since the pre-learned source knowledge will be more preserved. Hence, it would be interesting to assess the impact of target-training size. Third, a promising experiment would be to study the impact of the similarity between the source and the target distributions. For instance, one can use instance selection methods (§2.4.2) to select source examples for pretraining. Concerning the quantification of the change of pretrained individual neurons, it would be interesting to observe the percentage of biased neurons according to different thresholds of correlation. It would also be interesting to perform a representation-level similarity analysis to gain more insights, as it has been shown by Wu *et al.* [384] that representation-level similarity measures the distributional similarity while individual-level measures local similarity.

6.3 The Proposed Method: PretRand

From our analysis, we have found that the SFT scheme suffers from a main limitation. Indeed, despite the fine-tuning on the target domain, pre-trained neurons still biased by what they have learnt from the source domain, and thus some of these neurons struggle with learning uncommon target-specific patterns. We propose a new adaptation scheme that we call **PretRand**, joint learning of **Pretrained** and **Random** units. We start by presenting our proposed approach in section 6.3.1. Then, we report the results thereof in section 6.3.2. Finally, we carry out an empirical analysis of PretRand approach in section 6.3.3.

6.3.1 Method Description

We propose to take benefit from both worlds, the pre-learned knowledge in the pretrained neurons and the target-specific features easily learnt by random neurons. Roughly, we propose to augment the target-network with normalised, weighted and randomly initialised units that beget a better adaptation while maintaining the valuable source knowledge. Specifically, our proposed approach, PretRand, consists of three main ideas (illustrated in Figure 6.9):

1. Augmenting the pre-trained branch with a random one to facilitate the learning of new target-specific patterns (§6.3.1.1);
2. Normalising both branches to balance their behaviours during fine-tuning (§6.3.1.2);
3. Applying learnable weights on both branches to let the network learn which of random or pre-trained one is better for every class. (§6.3.1.3).

6.3.1.1 Adding the Random Branch

We expect that augmenting the pretrained model with new randomly initialised neurons allows a better adaptation during fine-tuning. Thus, in the adaptation stage, we augment the pre-trained model with a random branch consisting of additional random units (as illustrated in scheme “a” of Figure 6.9). Several works have shown that deep (top) layers are more task-specific than shallow (low) ones [265, 243]. Thus, deep layers learn generic features easily transferable between tasks. In addition, word embeddings (shallow layers) contain the majority of parameters. Based on these factors, we choose to expand only the top layers as a trade-off between performance and number of parameters (model complexity). In terms of the expanded layers, we add an extra biLSTM layer of k units in the FE: Φ_r (r for random); and a new FC layer of C units: Ψ_r . With this choice, we increase the complexity of the model only $1.02\times$ compared to the base one (SFT).

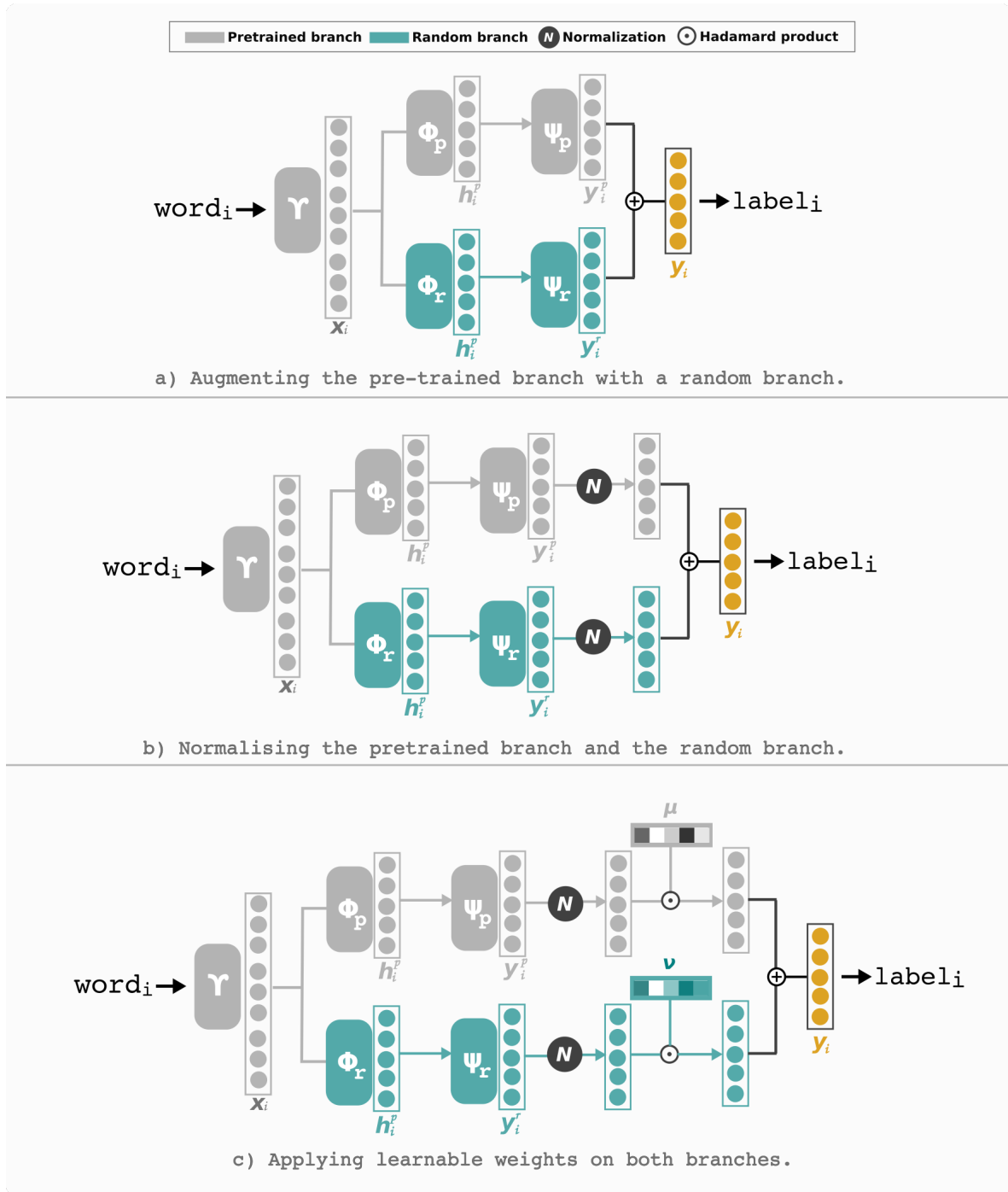


Figure 6.9 – Illustrative scheme of the three ideas composing our proposed adaptation method, PretRand. a) We augment the pre-trained branch (grey branch) with a randomly initialised one (green branch) and jointly adapt them with pre-trained ones (grey branch). An element-wise sum is further applied to merge the two branches. b) Before merging, we balance the different behaviours of pre-trained and random units, using an independent normalisation (\mathcal{N}). c) Finally we let the network learn which of pre-trained or random neurons are more suited for every class, by performing an element-wise product of the FC layers with learnable weighting vectors (μ and ν initialised with 1-values).

Concretely, for every w_i , two predictions vectors are computed; $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p$ from the pre-trained branch and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r$ from the random one. Specifically, the pre-trained branch predicts class-probabilities following:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p = (\Psi_p \circ \Phi_p)(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad (6.5)$$

with $\mathbf{x}_i = \Upsilon(w_i)$. Likewise, the additional random branch predicts class-probabilities following:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r = (\Psi_r \circ \Phi_r)(\mathbf{x}_i). \quad (6.6)$$

To get the final predictions, we simply apply an element-wise sum between the outputs of the pre-trained branch and the random branch:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i = \hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p \oplus \hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r. \quad (6.7)$$

As in the classical scheme, the SCE (Softmax Cross-Entropy) loss is minimised but here, both branches are trained jointly.

6.3.1.2 Independent Normalisation

Our first implementation of *adding the random branch* was less effective than expected. The main explanation is that the pre-trained units were dominating the random units, which means that the weights as well as the gradients and outputs of pre-trained units absorb those of the random units. As illustrated in the left plot of Figure 6.10, the absorption phenomenon stays true even at the end of the training process; we observe that random units weights are closer to zero. This absorption propriety handicaps the random units in firing on the words of the target dataset (The same problem was stated in some computer-vision works [200, 372, 349]).

To alleviate this absorption phenomenon and push the random units to be more competitive, we normalise the outputs of both branches ($\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r$) using the ℓ_2 -norm, as illustrated in the scheme “b” of Figure 6.9. The normalisation of a vector “ \mathbf{x} ” is computed using the following formula:

$$\mathcal{N}_2(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2}. \quad (6.8)$$

Thanks to this normalisation, the absorption phenomenon was solved, and the random branch starts to be more effective (see the right distribution of Figure 6.10).

Furthermore, we have observed that despite the normalisation, the performance of the pre-trained classifiers is still much better than the randomly initialised ones. Thus, to make them more competitive, we propose to start with optimising only the randomly initialised units while freezing the pre-trained ones, then, launch the joint training. We call this technique *random++*.

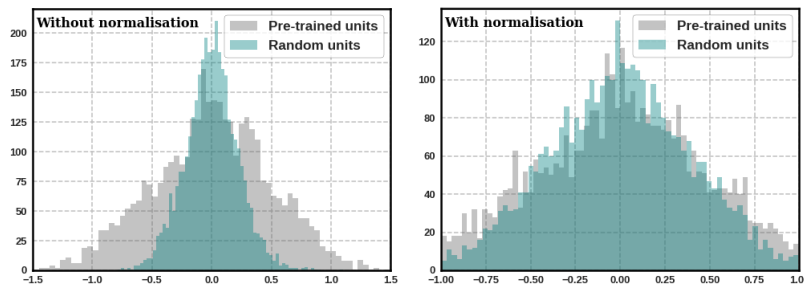


Figure 6.10 – The distributions of the learnt weight-values for the randomly initialised (green) and pre-trained (grey) fully-connected layers after their joint training. Left: without normalisation, right: with normalisation.

6.3.1.3 Attention Learnable Weighting Vectors

Heretofore, pre-trained and random branches participate equally for every class’ predictions, *i.e.* we do not weight the dimensions of $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r$ before merging them with an element-wise summation. Nevertheless, random classifiers may be more efficient in specific classes compared to pre-trained ones and vice-versa. In other terms, we do not know which of the two branches (random or pre-trained) is better for making a suitable decision for each class. For instance, if the random branch is more efficient for predicting a particular class c_j , it would be better to give more *attention* to its outputs concerning the class c_j compared to the pretrained branch.

Therefore, instead of simply performing an element-wise sum between the random and pre-trained predictions, we first *weight* $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p$ with a learnable weighting vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^C$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r$ with a learnable weighting vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^C$, where C is the tagset size (number of classes). Such as, the element u_j from the vector \mathbf{u} represents the random branch’s attention weight for the class c_j , and the element v_j from the vector \mathbf{v} represents the pretrained branch’s attention weight for the class c_j . Then, we compute a Hadamard product with their associated normalised predictions (see the scheme “c” of Figure 6.9). Both vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are initialised with 1-values and are fine-tuned by back-propagation. Formally, the final predictions are computed as follows:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i = \mathbf{u} \odot \mathcal{N}_p(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^p) \oplus \mathbf{v} \odot \mathcal{N}_p(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^r). \quad (6.9)$$

6.3.2 Experimental Results

First, we present the experimental setup in section 6.3.2.1. Second, in section 6.3.2.2, we compare PretRand’s to the baseline methods. Third, in section 6.3.2.3, we measure the importance of each component of PretRand for the overall performance. Fourth, in section 6.3.2.4, we investigate the impact of incorporating ELMo contextual representations, in the baseline methods *vs* PretRand. Finally, in section 6.3.2.5, we compare PretRand to best SOTA (State-Of-The-Art) approaches.

6.3.2.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets

In this sub-chapter, we assess PretRand’s performance on POS, CK, NER and MST tasks on the Social Media domain. For POS task, we use the WSJ part of Penn-Tree-Bank (PTB) [215] news dataset for the source news domain and TPoS, ArK and TweeBank [203] for the target social media domain. For CK task, we use the CONLL2000 [354] dataset for the news source domain and TChunk [298] for the target domain. For NER task, we use the CONLL2003 [355] for the source news domain and WNUT-17 [85] dataset for the social media target domain. For MST, we use the MTT shared-task [402] benchmark containing two types of datasets: social media and news, for three south-Slavic languages: Slovene (sl), Croatian (hr) and Serbian (sr). Statistics of all the datasets are summarised in Table 6.3. More details about the tasks and datasets are provided in chapter 4.

Task	#Classes	Sources	Eval. Metrics	# Tokens-splits (train - val - test)
POS: POS Tagging	36	WSJ	Top-1 Acc.	912,344 - 131,768 - 129,654
CK: Chunking	22	CONLL-2000	Top-1 Acc.	211,727 - n/a - 47,377
NER: Named Entity Recognition	4	CONLL-2003	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	203,621 - 51,362 - 46,435
MST: Morpho-syntactic Tagging	1304	Slovene-news	Top-1 Acc.	439k - 58k - 88k
	772	Croatian-news	Top-1 Acc.	379k - 50k - 75k
	557	Serbian-news	Top-1 Acc.	59k - 11k, 16k
POS: POS Tagging	40	TPoS	Top-1 Acc.	10,500 - 2,300 - 2,900
	25	ArK	Top-1 Acc.	26,500 - / - 7,700
	17	TweeBank	Top-1 Acc.	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
CK: Chunking	18	TChunk	Top-1 Top-1 Acc..	10,652 - 2,242 - 2,291
NER: Named Entity Recognition	6	WNUT-17	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	62,729 - 15,734 - 23,394
MST: Morpho-syntactic Tagging	1102	Slovene-sm	Top-1 Acc.	37,756 - 7,056 - 19,296
	654	Croatian-sm	Top-1 Acc.	45,609 - 8,886 - 21,412
	589	Serbian-sm	Top-1 Acc.	45,708 - 9,581 - 23,327

Table 6.3 – Statistics of the used datasets. **Top:** datasets of the source domain. **Bottom:** datasets of the target domain.

Training details

We use the following Hyper-Parameters (HP): **WRE’s HP:** In the standard word-level embeddings, tokens are lower-cased while the character-level component still retains access to the capitalisation information. We set the randomly initialised character embedding dimension at 50, the dimension of hidden states of the character-level biLSTM at 100 and used 300-dimensional word-level embeddings. The latter were pre-loaded from publicly available GloVe pre-trained vectors on 42 billions words from a web crawling and containing 1.9M words [262] for English experiments, and pre-loaded from publicly available FastText [35] pre-trained vectors on common crawl⁷ for South-Slavic languages. Note that, these embeddings are also updated during

⁷ <https://github.com/facebookresearch/fastText/blob/master/docs/crawl-vectors.md>

training. For contextual words embeddings, we used ELMo embeddings. For English, we used the small official pre-trained model on 1 billion word benchmark (13.6M parameters)⁸. Regarding South-Slavic languages, pre-trained models are not available but for Croatian⁹ [54]. Note that, in all experiments contextual embeddings are frozen during training. **FE’s HP**: we used a single layer biLSTM (token-level feature extractor) and set the number of units to 200. **PretRand’s random branch HP**: we experimented our approach with $k = 200$ added random-units. **Global HP**: In all experiments, training (pretraining and fine-tuning) was performed using the SGD with momentum with early stopping, mini-batches of 16 sentences and learning rate of 1.5×10^{-2} .

6.3.2.2 Comparison with Baseline Methods

In this section, we assess the performance of PretRand through a comparison to six baseline-methods, illustrated in Figure 6.11. First, since PretRand is an amelioration of the standard fine-tuning (SFT) adaptation scheme, we mainly compare it to the SFT baseline. Besides, we assess whether the gain brought by PretRand is due to the increase in the number of parameters; thus we also compare with the standard supervised training scheme with a wider model. Finally, the final predictions of PretRand are the combination of the predictions of the two branches, randomly initialised and pretrained, which can make one think about ensemble methods [91]. Thus we also compare with ensemble methods. The following items describe the different baseline-methods used for comparison:

- **(a) From-scratch₂₀₀**: The base model described in section 5.1, trained from scratch using the standard supervised training scheme on social media dataset (without transfer learning). Here the number 200 refers to the dimensionality of the biLSTM network in the FE (Φ).
- **(b) From-scratch₄₀₀**: The same as “From-scratch₂₀₀” baseline but with 400 instead of 200 biLSTM units in the FE. Indeed, by experimenting with this baseline, we aim to highlight that the impact of PretRand is not due to the increase in the number of parameters.
- **(c) Standard Fine-tuning (SFT)**: Pre-training the base model on the source-dataset, followed by an adaptation on the target-dataset with the standard fine-tuning scheme (chapter 5 - scheme D in section 5.4.2.2).
- **(d) Standard Feature Extraction (SFE)**: The same as SFT, but the pretrained parameters are frozen during fine-tuning on the social media datasets (chapter 5 - scheme C in section 5.4.2.2).
- **(e) Ensemble (2 rand)**: Averaging the predictions of two base models that are randomly initialised and learnt independently on the same target dataset, but with a different random initialisation.

⁸ <https://allennlp.org/elmo>

⁹ <https://github.com/HIT-SCIR/ELMoForManyLangs>

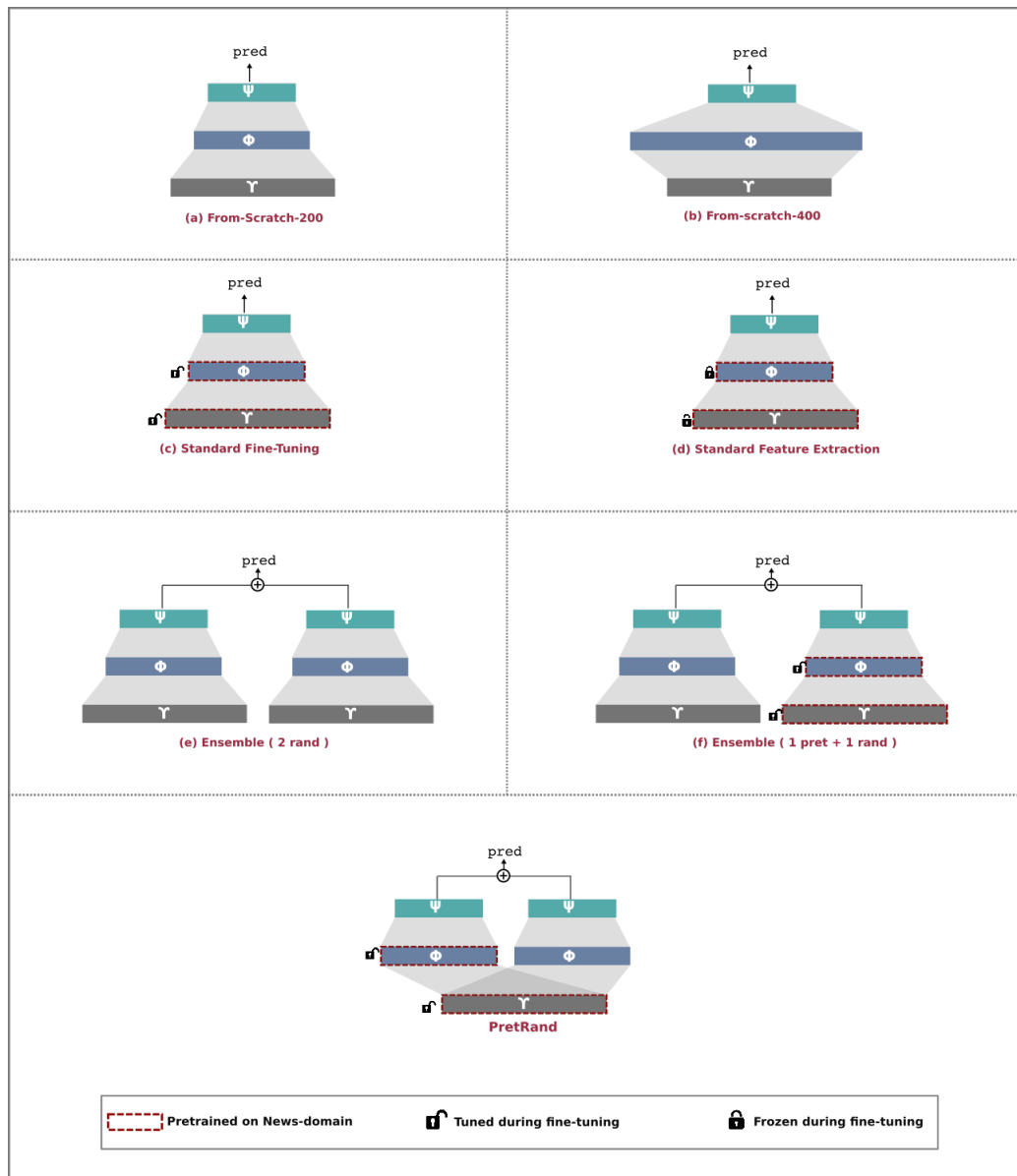


Figure 6.11 – Illustrative schemes of baseline-methods and PretRand.

- **(f) Ensemble (1 pret + 1 rand):** same as the previous but with one pre-trained on the source-domain (SFT baseline) and the other randomly initialised (From-scratch₂₀₀ baseline).

We summarise the comparison of PretRand to the above baselines in Tables 6.4. In the first table, we report the results of POS, CK and NER English social media datasets. In the second table, we report the results of MST on Serbian, Slovene and Croatian social media datasets. We compare the different approaches using the aNRG metric (see equation 4.6) compared to the reference From-scratch₂₀₀. First, we observe that PretRand outperforms the popular standard fine-tuning baseline significantly by +13.1 aNRG (28.8-15.7). More importantly, PretRand outperforms the challenging Ensemble method across all tasks and datasets and by +15.4 (28.8-13.4) on aNRG, while using much fewer parameters. This highlights the difference between

Method	#params	POS (acc.)			CK (acc.)	NER (F1)	aNRG
		TPoS	ArK	TweeBank	TChunk	WNUT	
From-scratch₂₀₀	1×	86.82	91.10	91.66	85.96	36.75	0
From-scratch₄₀₀	1.03×	86.61	91.31	91.81	87.11	38.64	+2.7
Feature Extraction	1×	86.08	85.25	87.93	81.49	27.83	-32.4
Fine-Tuning	1×	<u>89.57</u>	<u>92.09</u>	<u>93.23</u>	<u>88.86</u>	41.25	+15.7
Ensemble (2 rand)	2×	88.98	91.45	92.26	86.72	39.54	+7.5
Ensemble (1p+1r)	2×	88.74	91.67	93.06	88.78	<u>42.66</u>	+13.4
PretRand	1.02×	91.27	93.81	95.11	89.95	43.12	+28.8

Method	#params	MST (acc.)			aNRG
		Serbian	Slovene	Croatian	
From-scratch₂₀₀	1×	86.18	84.42	85.67	0
From-scratch₄₀₀	1.03×	86.05	84.37	85.77	-0.2
Feature Extraction	1×	73.56	70.22	79.11	-76.1
Fine-Tuning	1×	87.59	<u>88.76</u>	88.79	+19.9
Ensemble (2 rand)	2×	87.01	84.67	86.05	+3.4
Ensemble (1p+1r)	2×	<u>87.96</u>	88.54	<u>88.87</u>	+20.6
PretRand	1.02×	88.21	90.01	90.23	+27.5

Table 6.4 – Comparison of PretRand to baselines methods. Comparison of our method to baselines in terms of token-level accuracy for POS, CK and MST and entity-level F1 for NER (in %) on social media test-sets. In the second column (#params), we highlight the number of parameters of each method compared to the reference From-scratch₂₀₀ baseline. In the last column, we report the aNRG score of each method compared to the reference From-scratch₂₀₀. Best score per dataset is in bold, and the second best score is underlined.

our method and the ensemble methods. Indeed, in addition to normalisation and weighting vectors, PretRand is conceptually different since the random and pretrained branches share the WRE component. Also, the results of From-scratch₄₀₀ compared to From-scratch₂₀₀ baseline confirm that the gain brought by PretRand is not due to the supplement parameters. In the following (§6.3.2.3), we show that the gain brought by PretRand is mainly due to the shared word representation in combination with the normalisation and the learnable weighting vectors during training. Moreover, a key asset of PretRand is that it uses only 0.02% more parameters compared to the fine-tuning baseline.

6.3.2.3 Diagnostic Analysis of the Importance of PretRand’s Components

While in the precedent experiment we reported the best performance of PretRand, here we carry out an ablation study to diagnose the importance of each component in our proposed approach.

Specifically, we successively ablate the main components of PretRand, namely, the learnable weighting vectors (learnVect), the longer training of the random branch (random++) and the normalisation (ℓ_2 -norm). From the results in Table 6.5, we can first observe that ablating each of them successively degrades the results across all datasets, which highlights the importance of each component. Second, the results are only marginally better than than the SFT when ablating the three components from PretRand (the last line in Table 6.5). Third, ablating the normalisation layer significantly hurts the performance across all data-sets, confirming the importance of this step, making the two branches more competitive.

Method	POS			CK	NER	MST		
	TPoS	ArK	TweeBank	TChnuk	WNUT	Serbian	Slovene	Croatian
PretRand	91.27	93.81	95.11	89.95	43.12	88.21	90.01	90.23
-learnVect	91.11	93.41	94.71	89.64	42.76	88.01	89.83	90.12
-learnVect -random++	90.84	93.56	94.26	89.05	42.70	87.85	89.39	89.51
-learnVect -random++ -l2 norm	90.54	92.19	93.28	88.66	41.84	87.66	88.64	88.49

Table 6.5 – Diagnostic analysis of the importance of each component in PretRand. Accuracy for POS, CK and MST and F1 for NER (in %) when *progressively* ablating PretRand components.

6.3.2.4 Incorporating Contextualised Word Representations

So far in our experiments, we have used only the standard pre-loaded words embeddings and character-level embeddings in the WRE component. Here, we perform a further experiment that examines the effect of incorporating the ELMo contextualised word representations in different tasks and training schemes (From-scratch, SFT and PretRand). Specifically, we carry out an ablation study of WRE’s representations, namely, the standard pre-loaded words embeddings (word), character-level embeddings (char) and ELMo contextualised embeddings (ELMo). The ablation leads to 7 settings; in each, one or more representations are ablated. Results are provided in Table 6.6, “✓” means that the corresponding representation is used and “✗” means that it is ablated. For instance, in setting A only character-level representation is used.

Three important observations can be highlighted. First, in training from scratch scheme, as expected, contextualised ELMo embeddings have a considerable effect on all datasets and tasks. For instance, setting D (using ELMo solely) outperforms setting C (standard concatenation between character-level and word-level embeddings), considerably on Chunking and NER and slightly on POS tagging (except ArK). Furthermore, combining ELMo embeddings to the standard concatenation between character-level and word-level embeddings (setting G) gives the best results across all tasks and social media datasets. Second, when applying our transfer learning approaches, whether SFT or PretRand, the gain brought by ELMo embeddings (setting G) compared to standard concatenation between character-level and word-level embeddings (setting C) is slight on POS tagging (in average, SFT: +0.76% , PretRand: +0.22%) and Croatian MS tagging (SFT: +0.21% , PretRand: +0.10%), whilst is considerable on CK (SFT: +1.89% ,

Method	#	Char ^{◊*}	Word ^{•*}	ELMo ^{•×}	POS (acc.)			CK (acc.)	NER (F1.)	MST (acc.)
					TPoS	ArK	TweeB	TChunk	WNUT	Croatian
From-scratch	A	✓	✗	✗	82.16	87.66	88.30	84.56	17.99	83.26
	B	✗	✓	✗	85.21	88.34	90.63	84.17	36.58	80.03
	C	✓	✓	✗	86.82	91.10	91.66	85.96	36.75	85.67
	D	✗	✗	✓	88.35	90.62	92.51	89.61	34.35	86.34
	E	✓	✗	✓	89.01	91.48	93.21	88.48	33.99	86.94
	F	✗	✓	✓	89.31	91.57	93.60	89.39	40.16	85.97
	G	✓	✓	✓	90.01	92.09	93.73	88.99	41.57	86.79
SFT	A	✓	✗	✗	86.87	88.30	89.26	87.28	21.88	86.19
	B	✗	✓	✗	87.61	89.63	92.31	87.19	41.50	83.07
	C	✓	✓	✗	89.57	92.09	93.23	88.86	41.25	88.79
	D	✗	✗	✓	88.02	90.32	93.04	89.69	44.21	88.25
	E	✓	✗	✓	90.18	91.81	93.53	90.55	43.98	88.76
	F	✗	✓	✓	88.87	91.83	93.71	88.82	45.73	89.28
	G	✓	✓	✓	90.27	92.73	94.19	90.75	46.59	89.00
PretRand	A	✓	✗	✗	88.01	90.11	91.16	88.49	22.12	87.63
	B	✗	✓	✗	88.56	90.56	93.99	88.55	42.87	93.67
	C	✓	✓	✗	91.27	93.81	95.11	89.95	43.12	90.23
	D	✗	✗	✓	88.15	90.26	93.41	89.84	45.54	88.94
	E	✓	✗	✓	91.12	92.94	94.89	91.36	45.13	89.93
	F	✗	✓	✓	89.54	93.16	94.15	89.37	46.62	90.16
	G	✓	✓	✓	91.45	94.18	95.22	91.49	47.33	90.33

Table 6.6 – **Diagnosis analysis of the impact of ELMo contextual representations.** From-scratch, SFT and PretRand results, on social media test-sets, when ablating one or more type of representations. ◊: from scratch, •: pre-loaded, *: trained, ✗: frozen.

PretRand: +1.54%) and major on NER (SFT: +5.3% , PretRand: +4.2%). Finally, it should be pointed out that using ELMo slows down the training and inferences processes; it becomes 10 times slower.

6.3.2.5 Comparison to SOTA

We compare our results to the following SOTA methods:

- **CRF** [298] is a Conditional Random Fields (CRF) [180] based model with Brown clusters. It was jointly trained on a mixture of hand-annotated social-media texts and labelled data from the news domain, in addition to annotated IRC chat data [114].
- **GATE** [86] is a model based on Hidden Markov Models with a set of normalisation rules, external dictionaries, lexical features and out-of-domain annotated data. The authors experimented it on TPoS, with WSJ and 32K tokens from the NPS IRC corpus. They also proposed a second variety (**GATE-bootstrap**) using 1.5M additional training tokens annotated by vote-constrained bootstrapping.
- **ARK tagger** [255] is a model based on first-order Maximum Entropy Markov Model with greedy decoding. Brown Clusters, regular expressions and careful hand-engineered lexical

features were also used.

- **TPANN** [138] is a biLSTM-CRF model that uses adversarial pre-training (the method described in §2.5.1) to leverage huge amounts of unlabelled social media texts, in addition to labelled datasets from the news domain. Next, the pretrained model is further fine-tuned on social media annotated examples. Also, regular expressions were used to tag Twitter-specific classes (hashtags, usernames, urls and @-mentions).
- **Flairs** [6] is a biLSTM-CRF sequence labelling architecture fed with the Pooled Contextual Embeddings [7] (pre-trained on character-level language models).
- **UH&CU** [337] is a biLSTM-based sequence labelling model for MST, jointly trained on formal and informal texts. It is similar to our base model, but used 2-stacked biLSTM layers. In addition, the particularity of UH&CU is that the final predictions are generated as character sequences using an LSTM decoder, *i.e.* a character for each morpho-syntactic feature instead of an atomic label.
- **Multi-dataset-multi-task (MDMT)** [235] consists in a multi-task training of 4 NLP tasks: POS, CK, super sense tagging and NER, on 20 Tweets datasets 7 POS, 10 NER, 1 CK, and 2 super sense-tagged datasets. The model is based on a biLSTM-CRF architecture and words representations are based on the pre-trained ELMo embeddings.
- **Data Annealing (DA)** [136] is a fine-tuning approach similar to our SFT baseline, but the passage from pretraining to fine-tuning is performed gradually, *i.e.* the training starts with only formal text data (news) at first; then, the proportion of the informal text data (social media) is gradually increased during the training process. They experiment with two architectural varieties, a biLSTM-based architecture (DA-LSTM) and a Transformer-based architecture (DA-BERT). In the last variety, the model is initialised with BERT_{base} pretrained model (110 million parameters). A CRF classifier is used as a classifier on the top of both varieties, biLSTM and BERT.
- **BertTweet** [247] is a large-scale model pretrained on an 80GB corpus of 850M English Tweets. The model is trained using BERT_{base} [87] architecture and following the pre-training procedure of RoBERTa [202]. In order to perform POS tagging and NER, a randomly initialised linear prediction layer is appended on top of the last Transformer layer of BertTweet, and then the model is fine-tuned on target tasks examples. In addition, lexical dictionaries were used to normalise social media texts.

In Table 6.7, we compare our best results (PretRand with the incorporation of ELMo) to SOTA across tasks and datasets. We can observe that PretRand outperforms best SOTA results on POS tagging datasets (except TPoS), Chunking (+4%) and Slovene (+1.5%) and Croatian (1.6%) MS tagging. However, it performs worse than UH&UC for Serbian MS tagging. This could be

Method	POS (acc.)			CK (acc.)	NER (F1.)	MST (acc.)		
	TPoS	ArK	TweeBank	TChunk	WNUT	Sr	SI	Hr
CRF [298]*	88.3	n/a	n/a	87.5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
GATE [86]*	88.69	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
GATE-bootstrap [86]*	90.54	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
ARK tagger [255]*	90.40	93.2	94.6	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
TPANN [138]* ×	90.92	92.8	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Flairs [6]◊	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	49.59	n/a	n/a	n/a
MDMT [235]◊ ×	91.70	91.61	92.44	n/a	49.86	n/a	n/a	n/a
DA-LSTM [136]×	89.16	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
DA-BERT [136]• ×	91.55	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
BertTweet [247]• *	90.1	94.1	95.2	n/a	54.1	n/a	n/a	n/a
UH&UC [337]	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	90.00	88.4	88.7
PretRand (our best)◊	91.45	94.18	95.22	91.49	47.33	88.21	90.01	90.33

Table 6.7 – Comparison of PretRand to the best published state-of-the-art methods in terms of token-level accuracy for POS, CK and MST and F1 for NER (in %) on social media datasets. ◊: use of contextualised representations. •: use of BERT pretrained model. *: use of normalisation dictionaries, regular expressions or external knowledge. ×: use of a CRF classifier on top of the neural model.

explained by the fact that the Serbian source dataset (news) is small compared to Slovene and Croatian, reducing the gain brought by pretraining and thus that brought by PretRand. Likewise, Akbik *et al.* [6] outperforms our approach on NER task, in addition to using a CRF on top of the biLSTM layer, they used Contextual string embeddings that have been shown to perform better on NER than ELMo [6]. Also, MDMT outperforms PretRand slightly on TPoS dataset. We can observe that BERT-based approaches (DA-BERT and BertTweet) achieve strong results, especially on NER, where BertTweet begets the best SOTA score. Finally, we believe that adding a CRF classification layer on top of our models will boost our results (like TPANN, MDMT, DA-LSTM and DA-BERT), as it is able to model strong dependencies between adjacent words. Note that, MDMT, DA-LSTM, DA-BERT and BertTweet are recent works, published after our work.

6.3.3 Analysis

In this section, we perform an empirical analysis of PretRand. First, we investigate the scenarios in which PretRand is most advantageous (§6.3.3.1). Second, we compare the hidden negative transfer brought by SFT vs PretRand (§6.3.3.2). Third, we visualise new target-specific features learnt by individual neurons in the random branch of PretRand (§6.3.3.3).

6.3.3.1 When and where PretRand is most Beneficial?

Here, we attempt to examine in which scenarios PretRand is most beneficial. We firstly explore in Figure 6.12, which class from TweeBank dataset benefits more from PretRand compared to SFT.

After that, we evaluate in Figure 6.13 the gain on accuracy brought by PretRand compared to SFT, according to different target-datasets' sizes. We observe that PretRand has desirably a bigger gain with bigger *target-task* datasets, which clearly means that the more target training-data, the more interesting our method will be. This observation may be because the random branch needs sufficient amounts of target training samples to become more competitive with the pretrained one.

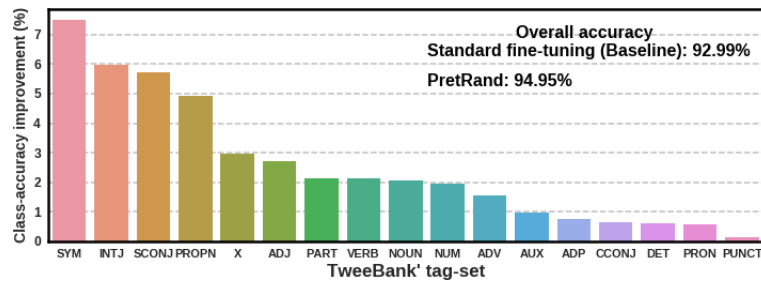


Figure 6.12 – Sorted class-accuracy improvement (%) on TweeBank of PretRand compared to fine-tuning.

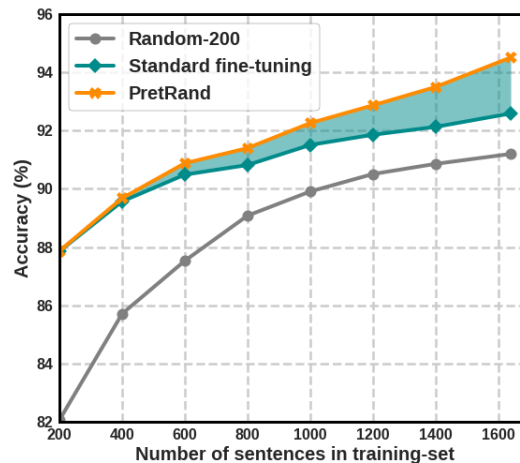


Figure 6.13 – Performances (on dev-set of TweeBank) according different training-set sizes for the target-dataset. Transparent green highlights the difference between our PretRand and standard fine-tuning.

6.3.3.2 Negative Transfer: PretRand vs SFT

Here, we resume the negative transfer experiment performed in section 6.2.2.1. Precisely, we compare the results of PretRand to those of SFT. We show in Figure 6.14 the results on English social media datasets, first tagged with the classic training scheme (From-scratch-200) and then *using SFT* in the left plot (or *using PretRand* in the right plot). Blue bars show the percentage of *positive transfer*, *i.e.* predictions that were wrong, but the SFT (or PretRand) changed to the correct ones, and red bars give the percentage of *negative transfer*, *i.e.* predictions that were

tagged correctly by From-scratch-200, but using SFT (or PretRand) gives the wrong predictions. We observe the high impact of PretRand on diminishing *negative transfer* vis-a-vis to SFT. Precisely, PretRand increases *positive transfer* by $\sim 0.45\%$ and decreases the *negative transfer* by $\sim 0.94\%$ on average.

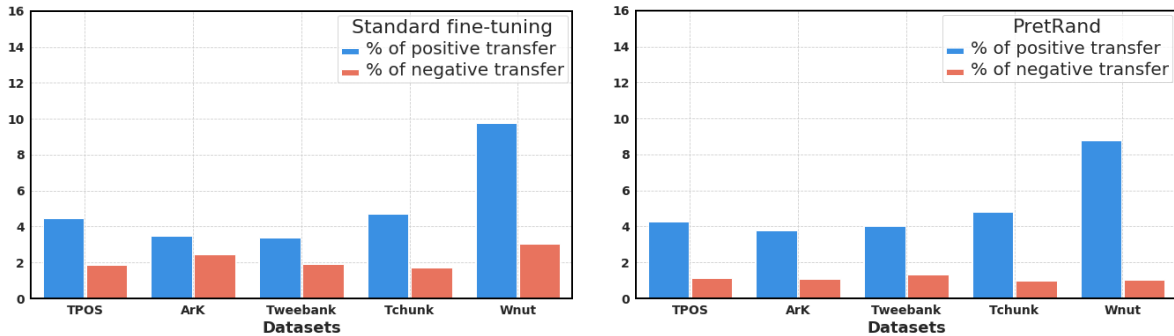


Figure 6.14 – Positive and negative transfers brought by SFT (left) and PretRand (Right) compared to the standard supervised training scheme (From-scratch).

6.3.3.3 Visualising Individual Neurons from the Random Branch of PretRand

In this section, we highlight the ability of the randomly initialised neurons, from the random branch in PretRand, to learn patterns that are specific to the target-dataset and not learnt by the pre-trained ones, because of their bias problem. For that purpose, we visualise some unique units – *i.e.* random units having a max correlation lower than 0.4 with the pre-trained ones – emerging in the random branch. We plot top-10 words activating some units from Φ_r , *i.e.* the biLSTM layer from the random branch, during the fine-tuning stage of PretRand (we follow the methodology described in section 6.2.3.2). In the following, we provide some examples of new target-specific patterns learnt by individual neurons from the random branch:¹⁰

¹⁰Note that, here we have visualised individual neurons from the random branch in PretRand, it would be interesting to visualise individual units from the pretrained branch to gain insights about the evolution of the encoded knowledge in pretrained neurons when using PretRand adaptation scheme compared to the SFT adaptation scheme.

- **ARK dataset - POS:** (Figure 6.15)

- Unit-69 is sensitive to the ARK’s special tag “L” that stands for “nominal + verbal” (e.g. i’m, it’s, that’s).
- Unit-84 is specific to frequent misspellings in Tweets. For instance, omitting the last “g” in words ending with “ing”, e.g. *doin*, *goin*, *tryin*.

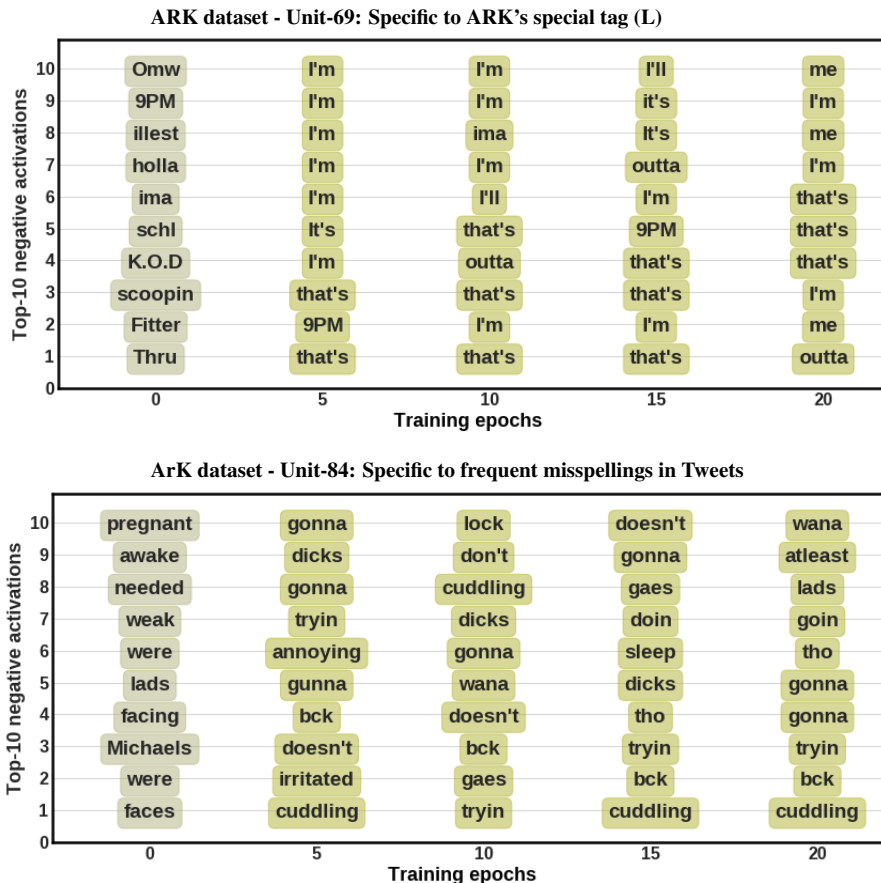


Figure 6.15 – Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on ArK social media dataset. For each unit we show in column 0: top-10 words from ArK dev-set before fine-tuning (random init). Columns 1 to 10: top-10 words from the target dev-set during fine-tuning epochs.

- **TweeBank dataset - POS:** (Figure 6.16)

We show top-10 words activating two units, unit-160 and unit-04. Both are sensitive to words like *gonna* (going to) or *wanna* (want to), frequently used contractions in Tweets. Indeed, in TweeBank, these words are tokenized into two tokens: *gon* and *na*, with the later annotated as a “particle” and the former as a “verb”. We observe that unit-160 is highly discriminative to the “verb” part and unit-04 to the “particle” part.

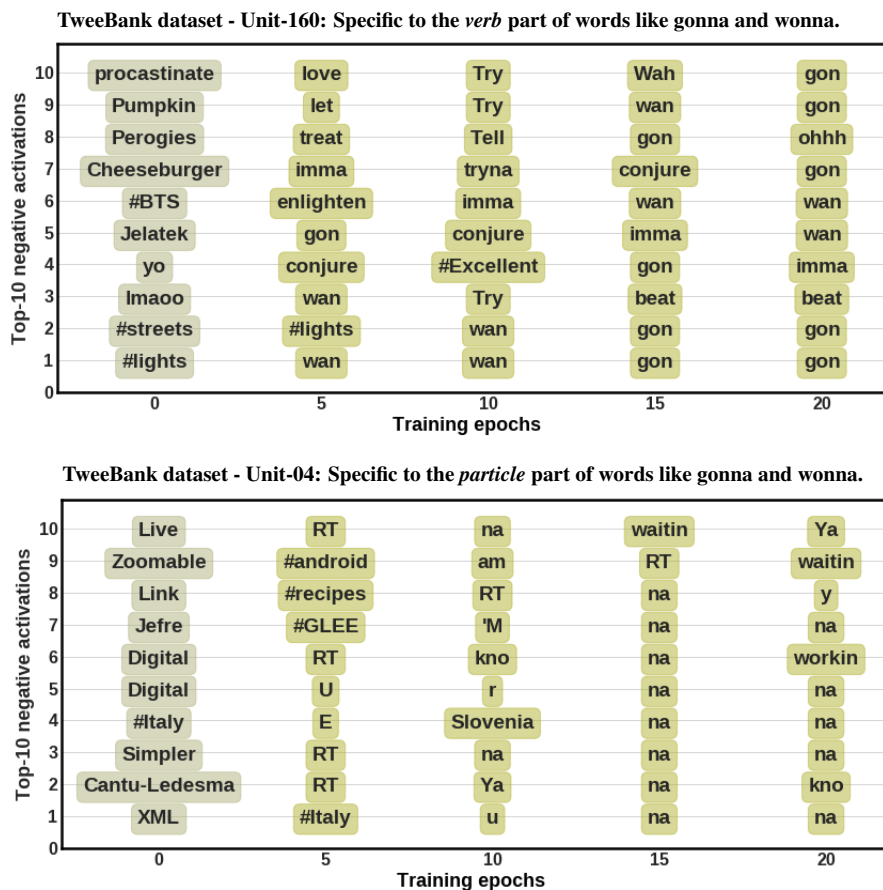


Figure 6.16 – Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on TweeBank dataset. For each unit we show in column 0: top-10 words from TweeBank dev-set before fine-tuning. Columns 1 to 10: top-10 words from TweeBank dev-set during fine-tuning epochs.

- **WNUT dataset - NER:** (Figure 6.17)

- Unit-71: We found in Table 6.2 that the symbol “&” (frequently used in Tweets as an abbreviation for “and”) was often mistakenly predicted in the SFT scheme as part of an *Organisation* entity. Further, we showed in Figure 6.8 that “&” is among the words that are firing a unit sensitive to *Organisation* entities since “&” is frequently used in formal English in organisation names. Contrariwise, the unit-71 from the random branch is correctly firing on the symbol “&” with the connector “and”.
- Unit-102 is sensitive to *Product* entities, a rare class which is specific to WNUT-17 dataset, e.g. “Galaxy”, “Apple”, “Nintendo”, etc. It is noteworthy that, we did not find any unit from the SFT scheme that is specific to *Product* entities.
- Unit-146: In the SFT scheme, the word “Supreme” is among top-10 words activating a unit specialised on *Organisation* entities (Figure 6.8), which can be at the origin of its wrong prediction (Table 6.2). On the other side, in the random branch of PretRand,

the word “Supreme” is among top-10 words activating unit-146, which is specialised in *PERSON* entities.

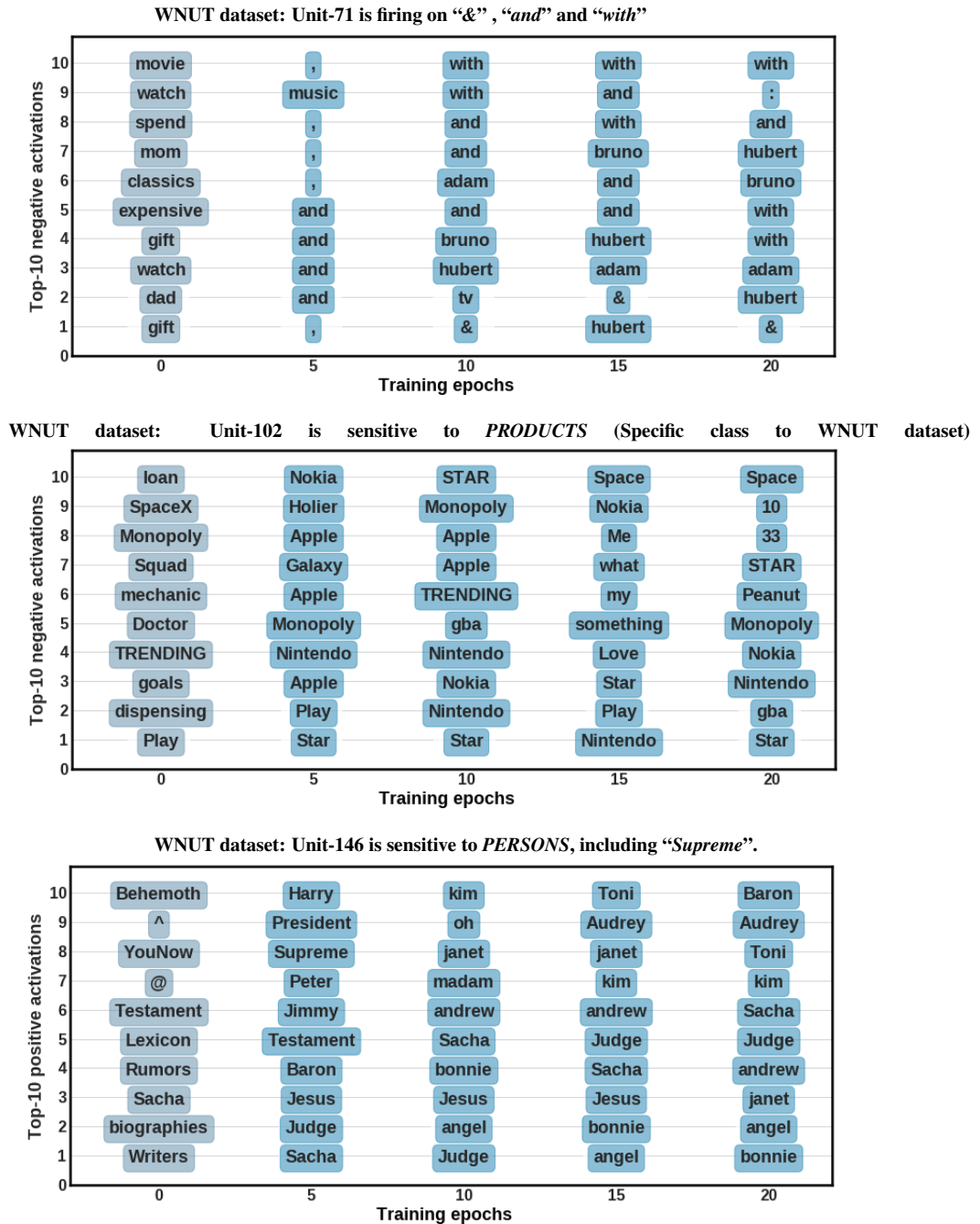


Figure 6.17 – Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on WNUT NER dataset. For each unit we show in column 0: top-10 words from WNUT dev-set before fine-tuning. Columns 1 to 10: top-10 words from WNUT dev-set during fine-tuning epochs.

6.4 Conclusion

Stemming from our analysis, we have introduced a novel approach, that we called *PretRand*, to overcome the observed problems using 3 main ideas: adding random units and jointly learn them with pre-trained ones; normalising the activations of both to balance their different behaviours; applying learnable weights on both predictors to let the network learn which of random or pre-trained one is better for every class. The underlying idea is to take advantage of both, target-specific features from the former and general knowledge from the latter. We carried out experiments on domain adaptation for 4 tasks: part-of-speech tagging, morpho-syntactic tagging, chunking and named entity recognition. Our approach exhibits performances that are significantly above standard fine-tuning scheme and is highly competitive when compared to the state-of-the-art.

We believe that many prosperous directions should be addressed in future research. First, PretRand's good results on sequence labelling tasks suggest to consider other kinds of NLP tasks, e.g. sequence-to-sequence and text classification tasks. Further, as negative transfer, and thus bias, is highly arising when transferring between less-related source-target domains [373], we suppose that PretRand's impact would be more interesting for cross-lingual transfer. Second, in this work, we experimented PretRand adaptation scheme on models pre-trained in a supervised manner, an important step forward is to examine its scalability with other pretraining methods, e.g adversarial or unsupervised pretraining. Third, the increasing omnipresence of Transformers architectures in a wide range of NLP tasks, due to their improved performances, motivates us to experiment with Transformer-based architecture instead of LSTM-based one. Last, a propitious continuity of our work to tackle the bias problem, would be to identify automatically biased neurons in the pre-trained model and proceed to a pruning of the most biased ones before fine-tuning.

7 | Multi-task Pretraining and Adaptation

7.1 Introduction

In the two previous chapters, we have studied the impact of sequential transfer learning to improve NLP models performance for the low-resourced social media domain. We have performed transfer in two steps, *mono-task pretraining* on a *single* task from a rich source domain (news) followed by a *mono-task fine-tuning* of the task of interest on the available few target-domain (social media) examples. Our results have proven that this approach is efficient for many tasks, outperforming the supervised learning from scratch because it takes benefit from cross-domain similarities. Otherwise, *Multi-Task Learning* (MTL) (§2.5.2) is a widely used method that gave rise to many benefits in several tasks and applications, especially in low-resourced scenarios. MTL consists in a joint training of related tasks to exploit their underlying similarities.

In this chapter, we propose a new approach that takes benefit from both transfer learning approaches: sequential transfer learning and multi-task learning, by learning a hierarchical multi-task model trained across multiple tasks from the source domain, then fine-tuned on multiple tasks from the target domain. We experiment our proposed approach on four NLP tasks: Part-Of-Speech tagging (POS), chunking (CK), Named Entity Recognition (NER) and Dependency Parsing (DP), applied to the social media domain. We show that our proposed method leads to significant improvements compared to both approaches.

First, to encounter the lack of annotated data in the social media domain, we propose to train the four tasks (POS, CK, NER and DP) on social media datasets from scratch using a hierarchical multi-task model to recognise as many linguistic properties as possible from a given sentence. Especially, the hierarchical nature of the model fosters high-level tasks to better leverage significant training signals generated by low-level ones. Our results show that this approach enhances the performance on social media domain across all tasks, outperforming the mono-task training from scratch paradigm.

Second, we introduce a novel method, that we call **Multi-Task Supervised Pre-training and Adaptation (MuTSPad)**, which unifies both approaches: sequential transfer learning and multi-task training. MuTSPad takes benefit from both, by learning a hierarchical multi-task model trained across multiple tasks from the source-domain (news), and further fine-tuned on multiple tasks from the target-domain (social media). Hence, in addition to various linguistic

properties learned from various supervised NLP tasks, MuTSPad takes advantage of the pre-learned knowledge from the high-resource source-domain. MuTSPad exhibits significantly better performance than both TL approaches.

Third, as in our case, we have two datasets, the first for news domain and the second for social media domain, both are heterogeneous, *i.e.* having one task-annotation per sentence.¹ Though, many early works had highlighted the intricacy of multi-task training from heterogeneous datasets [345] since a scheduling procedure is needed. Therefore, we propose to build multi-task datasets for the news and social media domains, by automatically augmenting the data to unify the aforementioned task-independent datasets.

The remainder of this chapter is as follows. First, we describe our approaches in section 7.2. Second, we present the experimental settings in section 7.3. Third, we provide our results and analysis in section 7.4. Finally, we conclude our findings in section 7.5.

7.2 Proposed Approach

We propose a new approach that combines two transfer learning approaches:

1. Mono-task pretraining (standard fine-tuning): pretraining the neural model on a rich source-task before updating its weights using the standard fine-tuning scheme on the task of interest (target task);
2. Multi-task learning: training the task of interest jointly with other auxiliary tasks with labelled data that might force the network to learn useful features.

Both approaches are known to work very well since a while and have yielded impressive results in recent years. Here, to make sure that we learn useful features that are relevant for the tasks of our interest, we propose an approach that combines pretraining and multi-task learning, and thus takes benefits from the rich source-domain, and especially all its available annotated data and tasks. We call our method: **Multi-Task Supervised Pre-training and Adaptation (MuTSPad)**. MuTSPad roughly consists in pretraining on a large annotated *multi-task source* datasets and then fine-tuning it on the *multi-task target* datasets.

We present in this section our proposed approach. We start by describing briefly the basic neural models to perform POS, NER, CK and DP tasks (§7.2.1). Then, we present the hierarchical multi-task architecture that allows training the four tasks jointly (§7.2.2). Next, we present our approach to train MuTSPad (§7.2.3). Finally, we discuss how we perform MTL with heterogeneous datasets (§7.2.4).

¹ To the best of our knowledge, there are no available common datasets containing annotations for all the above-mentioned tasks, neither for the news domain or the social media domain.

7.2.1 Basic Models

As mentioned above, POS, CK, NER and DP are the four tasks considered in this work. We start by describing briefly the base neural model used to train each task individually; sequence labelling architecture (POS, CK, NER) (§7.2.1.1) and DP architecture (§7.2.1.2).

7.2.1.1 Sequence Labelling Architecture

Recalling that, given an input sentence S of n successive tokens $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$ and a tag-set \mathcal{C} , sequence labelling aims to predict the tag $c_i \in \mathcal{C}$ of every w_i . For the base neural architecture, we use the commonly used model (described in details in section 5.2.1), that includes three main components:

1. Word Representation Extractor (**WRE**), denoted Υ .
2. Features Extractor (**FE**), denoted Φ .
3. Classifier (**CI**), denoted Ψ .

WRE computes a word-level embedding ($\mathbf{x}_i^{word} = \Upsilon^{word}(w_i)$) and a character-level biLSTMs encoder-based embedding ($\mathbf{x}_i^{char} = \Upsilon^{char}(w_i)$), and concatenates them to get a final representation $\mathbf{x}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i^{word}, \mathbf{x}_i^{char})$ for each token w_i . **WRE**'s outputs $[\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n]$ are fed into the **FE**, a single biLSTMs layer, that outputs a context sensitive representation for each w_i . Finally, **CI** consists of a softmax fully-connected layer that produces the classes-probabilities for each w_i as follows: $\hat{y}_i = (\Psi \circ \Phi \circ \Upsilon)(w_i)$.

7.2.1.2 Dependency Parsing Architecture

Given an input sentence $S = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$ of n successive tokens, the goal of DP is two folds:

1. Identifying, for each w_i , its head $w_j \in S$. The couple of tokens w_i and w_j are called the dependant and the head, respectively.
2. Predicting the dependency syntactic relation's class $r_j^i \in \mathcal{R}_{dp}$ relating each dependant-head pair, where \mathcal{R}_{dp} is the dependency-relations set.

In simple words, the goal is to predict the out-going labelled arc (w_i, w_j, r_j^i) for each token w_i . Thus, constructing a syntactic tree structure of the sentence, where words are treated as nodes in a graph, connected by labelled directed arcs.

We use the neural arc-factored graph-based dependency parser [280] which is based on the ‘‘Deep biAffine parser’’ [95]. As in sequence labelling models, the DP architecture is composed of three components (illustrated in Figure 7.1): a word representation component (**WRE**), denoted Υ^{dp} , followed by a feature extractor, denoted Φ^{dp} , and a classifier, denoted Ψ^{dp} . Except that Φ^{dp}

is a 3-stacked biLSTM network,² and Ψ^{dp} consists of *four* classifiers, producing four distinct vectors for representing the word: (i) as a dependant seeking its head; (ii), as a head seeking all its dependants; (iii), as a dependant deciding on its relation; and (iv), as a head deciding on the labels of its dependants. These representations are then passed to the biAffine softmax classifiers.

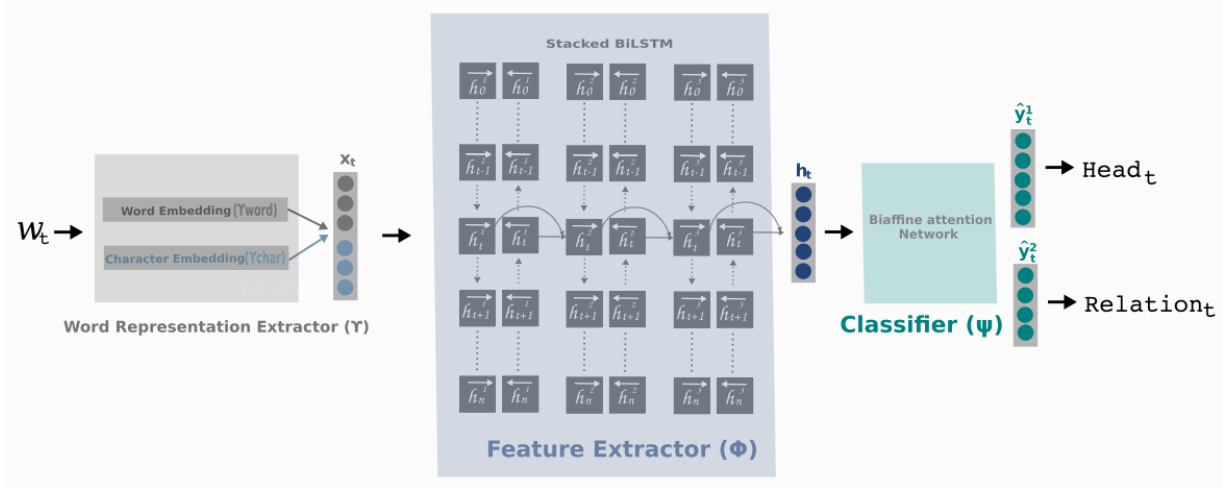


Figure 7.1 – Illustrative scheme of the neural arc-factored graph-based dependency parser.

Precisely, the biAffine classifier component (Ψ^{dp}) calculates the arc probability between each pair of words as well as a syntactic label for each arc. The FE outputs $[\mathbf{h}_1, \dots, \mathbf{h}_n]$ are fed into the biaffine classifier. Then, for each word w_i , the four MLP (Multi-Layer Perceptron) layers produce 4 vectors as follows:

$$\mathbf{v}_i^{arc-head} = MLP^{arc-head}(\mathbf{h}_i), \quad (7.1)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_i^{arc-dep} = MLP^{arc-dep}(\mathbf{h}_i), \quad (7.2)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_i^{label-head} = MLP^{label-head}(\mathbf{h}_i), \quad (7.3)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_i^{label-dep} = MLP^{label-dep}(\mathbf{h}_i), \quad (7.4)$$

where $\mathbf{v}_i^{arc-head}, \mathbf{v}_i^{arc-dep} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathbf{v}_i^{label-head}, \mathbf{v}_i^{label-dep} \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{R}_{dp}|}$. The first vector is a head seeking all its dependants; the second is a dependant seeking its head; the third is a head deciding on the labels of its dependants, and the fourth is a dependant deciding on its relation. Then, a score $s_{i,j}^{arc}$ of arc between each words-pair (w_i, w_j) is calculated using a biaffine transformation:

$$s_{i,j}^{arc} = (\mathbf{v}_i^{arc-head})^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{v}_j^{arc-dep} + (\mathbf{v}_i^{arc-head})^T \mathbf{b}^{arc}, \quad (7.5)$$

where $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Similarly, a score $s_{i,j}^l$ for each $l \in \mathcal{R}_{dp}$ being the label of the arc relating the head w_i to its dependant w_j is calculated as follows:

² Here we use the same hyper-parameters as the original paper.

$$s_{i,j}^l = (\mathbf{v}_i^{\text{label-head}})^T \mathbf{U}^l \mathbf{v}_j^{\text{label-head}} + (\mathbf{v}_i^{\text{label-head}} \oplus \mathbf{v}_j^{\text{label-dep}})^T \mathbf{b}^l + b^l, \quad (7.6)$$

where the parameters $\mathbf{U}^l \in \mathbb{R}^{|\mathcal{R}_{dp}| \times |\mathcal{R}_{dp}|}$, $\mathbf{b}^l \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times |\mathcal{R}_{dp}|}$ and the scalar b^l are distinct for each label $l \in \mathcal{R}_{dp}$.

7.2.2 Multi-Task Learning

We describe, in section 7.2.2.1, the proposed hierarchical multi-task model for the joint learning of POS, CK, NER and DP. Then, in section 7.2.2.2, we discuss the training process.

7.2.2.1 Hierarchical Multi-Task Architecture

As we aim to learn a multi-task model where POS, CK, NER and DP tasks are learned jointly, we choose a hard-sharing architecture scheme which contains a common branch as well as four exits, one per task. Also, as the tasks are hierarchically related to each other, we adopted a *hierarchical* architecture. The hierarchical structure in multi-task learning has been successfully used in the literature. First, Søgaard and Goldberg [340] showed that, considering the linguistic hierarchies of NLP tasks, the standard multi-task architecture where all tasks are at the same outermost level is “sub-optimal”. Further, Hashimoto *et al.* [148] proposed a joint model for a set of syntactic and semantic tasks: POS, CK, DP, semantic relatedness and textual entailment, and Sanh *et al.* [314] proposed a joint hierarchical model for semantic tasks: co-reference resolution, relation extraction, entity mention Detection and NER.

We organise the four tasks from low-level to high-level ones, with each task being fed with a shared word embedding as well as the outputs of all the lower tasks. To construct that hierarchy of tasks, we followed some linguistic hints from the literature. Indeed, many works have shown that POS improves CK [392, 305]; NER benefits from POS [303] and CK [67]; and DP profits from POS and CK [148]. In simple terms, POS and CK are considered as “universal helpers” [53]. Thus, based on these linguistic hierarchy observations, we feed POS features to CK; then POS and CK features to both NER and DP.

An illustration of our multi-task hierarchical model is given in Figure 7.2. We can separate the multi-task model into 5 parts, a shared part and one branch per task:

- **Shared parameters (Gray):** The word representation extractor Υ is shared across all tasks. It generates a word representation \mathbf{x}_i for each word w_i : $\mathbf{x}_i = \Upsilon(w_i)$, which is fed to all tasks branches.
- **POS branch (Black):** The feature extractor component of the POS tagging branch (Φ^{pos}) is fed with the output of the shared Υ and after processing, it outputs BiLSTMs features $\mathbf{h}_i^{\text{pos}}$. This is then fed into the POS classifier Ψ^{pos} to calculate a probability distribution for the POS tag-set as follows:

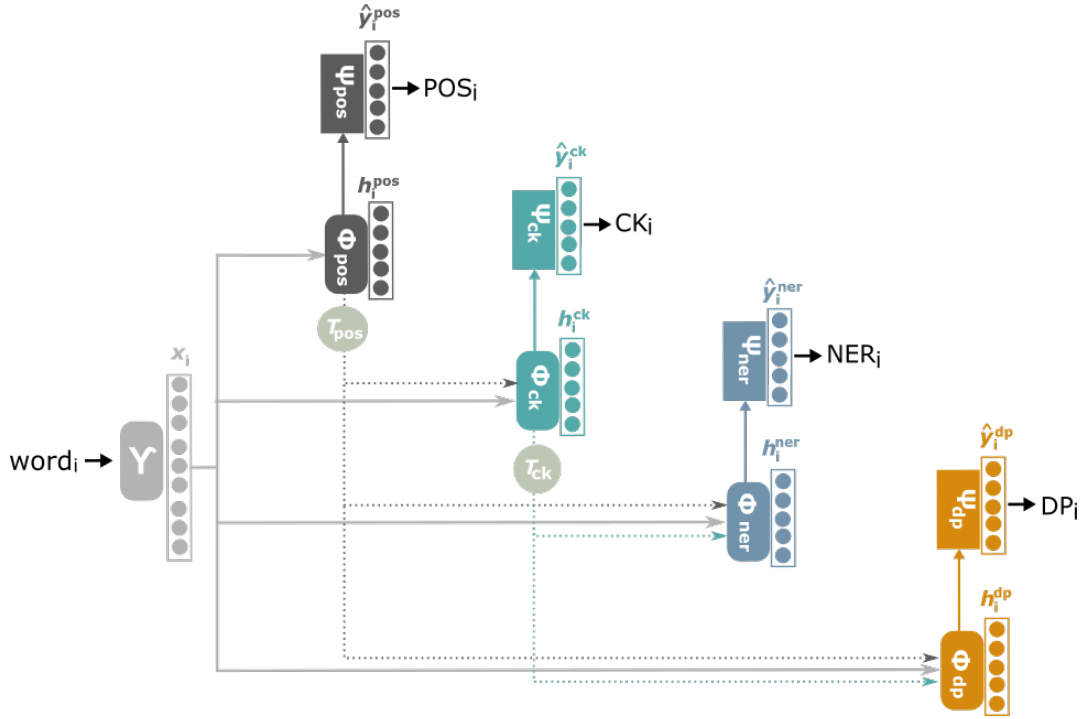


Figure 7.2 – Illustrative scheme of our Hierarchical multi-task architecture.

$$\hat{y}_i^{pos} = (\Psi^{pos} \circ \Phi^{pos})(x_i). \quad (7.7)$$

- **CK branch (Green):** POS features (h_i^{pos}) as well as x_i , the output of the shared Υ , are fed to the CK branch that outputs a probability distribution for the CK tag-set as follows:

$$\hat{y}_i^{ck} = (\Psi^{ck} \circ \Phi^{ck})(x_i, \mathbf{T}^{pos}(h_i^{pos})), \quad (7.8)$$

where, Φ^{ck} is the CK feature extractor that outputs BiLSTMs features h_i^{ck} and Ψ^{ck} is the CK classifier. Note that, rather than directly using Φ^{pos} 's output, we first reduce its dimensionality by applying a learnable dense layer transformation denoted \mathbf{T}^{pos} , in order to extract only the important information for chunking.

- **NER branch (Blue):** In the same vein, following our hierarchy, x_i plus the output features of POS (h_i^{pos}) as well as the output features of CK (h_i^{ck}) are fed to the NER branch that outputs one class probability per named entity. Formally, this is computed using:

$$\hat{y}_i^{ner} = (\Psi^{ner} \circ \Phi^{ner})(x_i, \mathbf{T}^{pos}(h_i^{pos}), \mathbf{T}^{ck}(h_i^{ck})), \quad (7.9)$$

where, Φ^{ner} is the NER feature extractor that outputs BiLSTMs features h_i^{ner} and Ψ^{ner} is the NER classifier. Note that, likewise the CK branch, rather than directly using Φ^{pos} and Φ^{ck} outputs, we first reduce their dimensionality by applying a learnable dense layer transformations denoted \mathbf{T}^{pos} and \mathbf{T}^{ck} , respectively.

- **DP branch (Orange):** similarly to the NER branch, the shared embedding, plus the output features of POS as well as the output features of CK are fed to \mathbf{FE}^{dp} , followed by \mathbf{C}^{dp} which outputs:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_i^{dp} = (\Psi^{dp} \circ \Phi^{dp})(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{T}^{pos}(\mathbf{h}_i^{pos}), \mathbf{T}^{ck}(\mathbf{h}_i^{ck})), \quad (7.10)$$

where, Φ^{dp} is the DP feature extractor that outputs BiLSTMs features \mathbf{h}_i^{dp} and Ψ^{dp} is the DP classifier. Note that, likewise the other branches, rather than directly using Φ^{pos} and Φ^{ck} outputs, we first reduce their dimensionality by applying a learnable dense layer transformations denoted \mathbf{T}^{pos} and \mathbf{T}^{ck} , respectively.

7.2.2.2 Multi-Task Loss Calculation

In terms of loss functions, as in classical multi-task learning, we minimise the weighted sum of each task loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{MT}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^M \alpha_{task_j} \times \mathcal{L}_{task_j}}{N}, \quad (7.11)$$

where α_{task_j} represents the weight attributed to the task $_j$, and M is the number of tasks, and \mathcal{L}_{task_j} is the loss of the task j .

As we used a hierarchical model for reasons mentioned in Section 7.2.2.1, we propose to focus, at the early-stage training, on low-level tasks and progressively increase the focus on higher-level ones³. Specifically, we tune the loss calculation minimisation by adapting the loss weights during the training, starting with heavier weights for low-level tasks compared to high-level ones. These weights are linearly increased for the first epochs, then kept constant afterwards.

7.2.3 MuTSPad: Multi-Task Supervised Pretraining and Adaptation

Multi-task pretraining has been especially explored for learning universal representations. We can cite the work of Cer *et al.* [51] who proposed joint learning of sentence embedding on a set of unsupervised (SkipThought) and supervised (natural language inference) tasks. Ahmed *et al.* [5] showed that joint learning of a biLSTM-based model on multiple tasks provides universal sentence representations that generalise better using two classification tasks: natural language inference and duplicate question detection. Similarly, Subramanian *et al.* [345] proposed to build a general-purpose sentence encoder by a joint learning of machine translation, parse tree generation and unsupervised skip-thought tasks. Likewise, multi-task fine-tuning has been recently explored as part of universal models fine-tuning. Liu *et al.* [201] proposed to fine-tune

³ Along the same line of thought of Kiperwasser & Ballesteros [171] who modified tasks sampling during training.

the pre-trained universal model, BERT, in a multi-task fashion on multiple tasks: single-sentence classification, pairwise text classification, text similarity, and relevance ranking.

Furthermore, in terms of using multi-task features for domain adaptation, Søgaard and Goldberg [340] showed the benefit of multi-task learning for domain adaptation from news-domain to Weblogs-domain for CK task, when disposing of CK’s supervision only for the source-domain, and lower-level POS supervision for the target-domain. Finally, in terms of unifying multi-task learning and fine-tuning, Kiperwasser and Ballesteros [171] proposed to improve machine translation with the help of POS and DP tasks by scheduling tasks during training; starting with multi-tasking of the principal task with auxiliary lower-level tasks (POS and DP), and as the training graduates, the model trains only to the main task. However, to the best of our knowledge, performing pretraining and fine-tuning on multi-task models for supervised domain adaptation has not been explored in the literature.

In this work, we study multi-task pretraining and fine-tuning for supervised domain adaptations. We propose **Multi-Task Supervised Pre-training and Adaptation (MuTSPad)** which consists in pretraining on a large annotated *multi-task source* dataset and then fine-tuning it on the *multi-task target* dataset. As supervised and unsupervised pretraining, MuTSPad alleviates the lack of annotated data in a target domain by taking benefit from rich source-domains. However, compared to them, it does the pretraining on *multiple* tasks, and not only one. This brings even more real supervision to the network and thus gives more chance to end up with more features. Also important, as source-domains are usually richer than target-domains, we might always find source-datasets that are labelled exactly with all the tasks we want to solve in the target-domain. This enforces the network to learn only features that might be relevant for our tasks of interest, and thus avoid filling up the network with irrelevant features.

Let us assume a set of M tasks $\mathcal{T} = [\mathcal{T}_1, \dots, \mathcal{T}_M]$, a set of datasets from the source domain $D^s = [D_1^s, \dots, D_M^s]$, and a set of datasets from the target domain $D^t = [D_1^t, \dots, D_M^t]$, where each task \mathcal{T}_i is associated with a source dataset D_i^s and a target dataset D_i^t .⁴ MuTSPad consists of three steps:

1. A source hierarchical multitask model \mathcal{M}_s is first trained on the set of heterogeneous *source*-datasets D^s .
2. The learned parameters θ_s of the source model \mathcal{M}_s are separated into two sets $\theta_s = (\theta_s^1, \theta_s^2)$. The first set of parameters are then used to initialise the first set of parameters of the target multi-task model (\mathcal{M}_t), $\theta_t^1 = \theta_s^1$, while the second set of target model parameters θ_t^2 is randomly initialised.
3. All the parameters of \mathcal{M}_t are then adapted on the set of heterogeneous target-datasets D^t .

⁴ Here we use the same source and target tasks. However, the method can be extended to handle different source and target tasks.

Note that, even if the target-tasks and source-tasks might be the same, their label-sets might differ. Thus as in classical fine-tuning, the parameters of each task-classifier (Ψ^{pos} , Ψ^{ck} , Ψ^{ner} and Ψ^{dp}) are randomly initialised, while the shared Υ as well as the features extractors (Φ^{pos} , Φ^{ck} , Φ^{ner} and Φ^{dp}) are initialised with the pretrained weights.

7.2.4 Heterogeneous Multi-Task Learning

When working on multi-task learning, we mostly face the heterogeneous scenario, where only one task-labels might be assigned to a dataset. In that case, the classical multi-task learning approach is not directly applicable; thus, we need to choose a “scheduling process” [403]. However, since training with different datasets for each task remains challenging [345], we propose to perform a “Datasets Unification” to simplify the learning scenario.

7.2.4.1 Tasks Scheduling Procedure

To deal with this heterogeneous aspect, we first use a simple frozen uniform scheduling, which we call “one task per batch”, where at each iteration of the training process, the task to train is selected randomly (Similar to Zareemoodi *et al.* [403]). Specifically, the base steps of “one task per mini-batch” scheduling process are as follow: 1) picking a mini-batch of samples from only one particular task and 2) updating *only* the parameters corresponding to the selected task, as well as the the task-agnostic parameters. Thus, at every step, only one task is trained. We successively pick all the tasks following a constant ordering strategy “from lower-level to higher-level tasks” [148]: POS then CK then NER then DP. Thus, every four steps, the model sees all the tasks once and learns their corresponding parameters once.

7.2.4.2 Datasets Unification

To overcome the intricacy of the “tasks scheduling process”, we propose to construct a *unified dataset* by combining several sources of independent textual annotations using a self-training method. Since we are interested in benefiting from pretraining and fine-tuning, we apply the unification process on both source and target datasets. These datasets contain samples of a broad range of heterogeneous annotations in a variety of contexts (initially sentences are labelled only with one task rather than all), making the multi-task training challenging. Thus, to circumvent this problem, we propose to *unify* the target (social media domain) set of datasets D_t to form a unified target dataset that we call *SocialAll*, denoted D_t^{all} . We do the same with source datasets (news domain) to form a unified multi-task dataset that we name *NewsAll*, denoted D_s^{all} . Concretely, we enrich the gold annotations of each task with an automatic annotation by applying on its training-set our baseline Mono-Task Learning model of the other three tasks. In the end, we obtain two unified datasets, one for the target domain and one for the source domain. Thus, in both datasets each sentence is labelled with all tasks (one label is the initial manual annotation,

and three are generated automatically). Consequently, using our unified datasets brings us to the classical multi-task scenario, where each sentence is annotated with all tasks, thus at each iteration, all tasks are learned, and thus all multi-task model’s parameters are updated once.

7.3 Experiments

In this section, we describe the experimental environment: datasets (§7.3.1); baselines and State-Of-The-Art (SOTA) works with which we compare our results (§7.3.2); and implementation details (§7.3.3).

7.3.1 Datasets

Task	#Classes	Sources	Eval. Metrics	Splits (train - val - test)
POS: POS Tagging	36	WSJ	Top-1 Acc.	912,344 - 131,768 - 129,654
CK: Chunking	22	CONLL-2000	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	211,727 - n/a - 47,377
NER: Named Entity Recognition	4	CONLL-2003	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	203,621 - 51,362 - 46,435
DP: Dependency Parsing	51	UD-English-EWT	Top-1 LAS.	204,585 - 25,148 - 25,096
POS: POS Tagging	17	TweeBank	Top-1 Acc.	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112
CK: Chunking	18	TChunk	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	10,652 - 2,242 - 2,291
NER: Named Entity Recognition	6	WNUT	Top-1 Exact-match F1.	62,729 - 15,734 - 23,394
DP: Dependency Parsing	51	TweeBank	Top-1 LAS.	24,753 - 11,742 - 19,112

Table 7.1 – Statistics of the datasets we used to train our multi-task learning models. **Top:** datasets of the source domain. **Bottom:** datasets of the target domain.

As mentioned above, we conduct experiments on four tasks: two low-level tasks (POS and CK) and two higher-level ones: (NER and DP). For the **source-datasets**, we use the news domain with the following datasets: the WSJ part of Penn-Tree-Bank (PTB) [215] for POS, annotated with the PTB tag-set; CONLL2003 for NER [355]; CONLL2000 [354] for CK; UD-English-EWT [251] for DP. In the same vein, for the **target-datasets**, we use the social media domain with the following datasets: the recent TweeBank [203] for POS, annotated with the PTB universal tag-set; WNUT-17 from emerging entity detection shared task [85] for NER; TChunk [298] for CK; the data annotated with UD relations in the TweeBank dataset for DP. Statistics of all the datasets are summarised in Table 7.1. More details about datasets are provided in chapter 4.

7.3.2 Comparison methods

7.3.2.1 Baselines

We compare our method to multiple baselines that we separate into four categories according to the pretraining method:

Without Pretraining: Training from scratch on the social media datasets (target-domain).

- **Mono-Task Learning**: an independent training of our mono-tasks models (one model per task) on every target-task separately.⁵
- **Multi-Task Learning**: *Joint training* of our multi-task model described in section 7.2.2.1 on all the tasks from the target-domain; trained from scratch on social media datasets (one model for all the tasks).

Unsupervised pretraining: We replace the **WRE** component in *Mono-Task Learning* by the unsupervisedly pre-trained model, ELMo⁶ (Embeddings from Language Models) [265], consisting of a CNNs-based character-level representation followed by a 2-layer LSTM. Thus, ELMo with the randomly initialised FE and CI are further trained on the target-domain tasks. Specifically, we run experiments with two ELMo models: 1) ELMo^{small}: the small pre-trained model (13.6M parameters) on 1 billion word benchmark. 2) ELMo^{large}: the big pre-trained model (93.6M parameters) on 5.5 billion word benchmark.

Supervised pretraining⁷ on the source-domain of the network on each task independently then fine-tuning *on the same task* in the target domain. Here, we call this method: **Mono-Task pretraining**. A variant of it is marked with * and consists of just pretraining, *i.e.* without fine-tuning. Note that this variant is possible only when the target dataset has the same tagset as the source dataset.

Adversarial pretraining is particularly used for domain adaptation that aims to reduce the shift between the source and target domains at the pretraining stage. Precisely, in parallel to task's objective trained on supervised annotations from the source domain, an adversarial objective with respect to a domain discriminator is trained on unsupervised target data⁸ to minimise the distance between source and target representations. Followed by a fine-tuning *on the same task* in the social media domain.

7.3.2.2 State-Of-The-Art (SOTA)

We compare our approach to the best SOTA performances for each task:

- **BiAffine** [95] (DP): We report the LAS score for DP reported by Liu *et al.* [203]. Note that, in addition to word-level and character-level embeddings, which we use in our model to represent words, they make use predicted POS labels and lemmas as input.

⁵ From-scratch₂₀₀ in chapter 6

⁶ <https://allennlp.org/elmo>

⁷ Equivalent to standard fine-tuning scheme in the previous chapters.

⁸ We use the Tweets raw data provided by Gui *et al.* [138] <https://github.com/guitaowufeng/TPANN/tree/master/data>.

- **Flairs** [6] (NER): It use a biLSTM-CRF sequence labelling architecture, fed with Pooled Contextual Embeddings [7], pre-trained using a character-level language model.
- **Multi-dataset-multi-task (MDMT)** [235] (POS, CK and NER): multi-task learning of 4 NLP tasks: POS, CK, super sense tagging and NER on 20 Tweets datasets: 7 POS, 10 NER, 1 CK, and two super sense-tagged datasets. The model is based on a biLSTM-CRF architecture, and words representations are based on the pre-trained ELMo embeddings.
- **Data Annealing (DA)** [136] (CK): A fine-tuning approach similar to our *Mono-Task pretraining* baseline, but the passage from pretraining to fine-tuning is performed gradually, *i.e.* the training starts with only formal text data (news) at first; then, the proportion of the informal training instances (social media) is gradually increased during the training process. They experiment with two architectural varieties, biLSTM-based architecture (**DA-LSTM**) and Transformer-based architecture (**DA-BERT**). In the last variety, the model is initialised with BERT_{base} (110 million parameters) pretrained model. A CRF classifier is used as a classifier on the top of both varieties, biLSTM and BERT.
- **BertTweet** [247] (POS and NER): A large-scale pretrained language model BERT [87] (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) for English Tweets using an 80GB corpus of 850M English Tweets. The model is trained using BERT_{base} architecture and following the pretraining procedure of RoBERTa [202]. A randomly initialised linear prediction layer is appended on top of the last Transformer layer of BertTweet, and then the model is fine-tuned on target tasks examples. Also, lexical dictionaries were used to normalise social media texts.

7.3.3 Implementation details

The hyper-parameters (HP) we used are as follow: **The task-agnostic WRE:** The dimension of character embedding is equal to 50. The dimension of the hidden states of the character-level biLSTM is equal to 100. The dimension of word-level embeddings is equal to 300 (pre-loaded from GloVe pre-trained vectors [262] and updated during training). **Sequence labelling branches:** We use a single-layer biLSTM (token-level feature extractor), with an output features dimension equals to 200. **DP branch HP:** We follow Stanford parser’⁹ HP configuration. **Transformation layers:** T^{pos} and T^{ck} are a fully connected layers that transform POS and CK outputs, respectively, to 100-dimensional features. **Training details:** In all experiments (pretraining and fine-tuning) SGD was used for training with early stopping, mini-batches were set to 16 sentences and the learning rate to 1.5×10^{-2} . Evidently, all the HP have been cross-validated. **Multi-Task Loss calculation:** During training, tasks weights α_{pos} , α_{ck} , α_{ner} and α_{dp} are respectively set up to: 1, 0.5, 0.25 and 0.25, respectively. Then, doubled at each epoch until $\alpha_{task} = 1$. Then, kept constant afterwards.

⁹ github.com/stanfordnlp/stanfordnlp

7.4 Results

Here, we provide our experimental results. We start by comparing MuTSPad best results to the baselines and SOTA methods (§7.4.1). Then, we investigate the impact of datasets unification in heterogeneous MTL (§7.4.2). Finally, we analyse how individual units from low-level tasks impact high-level tasks in our hierarchical multi-task model (§7.4.3).

7.4.1 Comparison to SOTA and Baselines

Our experimental results are reported in Table 7.2. In the first set of lines, we report the SOTA methods scores; followed by baselines methods. On the second column, we describe the pre-training type (none, supervised, unsupervised, adversarial and multi-task). The last column gives the aNRG metric (see equation 4.6) compared to the reference *mono-task learning* to aggregate the scores of the methods across tasks.

Method	PreTraining	POS (acc)	DP (LAS)	NER (F1)	CK (F1)	aNRG
BiAffine [96]	n/a	n/a	77.7	n/a	n/a	n/a
Flairs [6]	n/a	n/a	n/a	49.59	n/a	n/a
MDMT [235]	n/a	92.44	n/a	49.86	87.85	n/a
DA-LSTM [136]	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	84.58	n/a
DA-BERT [136]	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	87.03	n/a
BertTweet [247]	n/a	95.2	n/a	54.1	n/a	n/a
Best SOTA	n/a	95.2	77.7	54.1	87.85	n/a
Mono-task Learning	none	91.58	67.48	36.75	80.26	0.0
Multi-Task Learning		91.98	71.16	38.98	81.66	+6.7
ELMo ^{small}	Unsupervised	92.51	69.12	41.57	84.28	+11.
ELMo ^{large}		<u>94.02</u>	69.76	44.95	<u>85.56</u>	+19.
Mono-Task pretraining*	Supervised	n/a	76.92	n/a	70.16	n/a
Mono-Task pretraining		93.33	<u>78.21</u>	41.25	84.64	+20.8
Adversarial pretraining	Adversarial	93.47	77.49	41.68	84.75	+20.9
MuTSPad (best)	MultiTask, Sup.	94.53	80.12	<u>43.34</u>	85.77	+28.1

Table 7.2 – Overall results of MuTSPad method compared to baselines and SOTA methods. On the second column, we describe the pretraining type (none, supervised, unsupervised, adversarial and our multi-task supervised). The last column (aNRG) aggregates the scores of the methods across tasks.

Clearly, MuTSPad strongly outperforms the baselines and is very competitive with the best SOTA results. First, we can observe that *multi-task learning* baseline enhances the performances of all tasks compared to *mono-task learning* (+6.7 aNRG). Obviously, it is most advantageous for DP by $\sim 3.5\%$ since POS labels highly influence DP, while it is least benefactor for POS by

$\sim 0.5\%$ since POS branch is in the lower level and thus benefits only from the learned knowledge in the shared parameters (WRE).

Second, incorporating pre-trained ELMo representations performs better compared to *mono-task learning*. Particularly for NER task with $\sim +8\%$ by $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$. We also found that it improves the other tasks but not with the same order of improvement as for NER, which we mainly attribute to the fact that contextual representations that are pre-trained on language modelling capture more semantic features. Notably, we find that DP gains the least from ELMo compared to the other syntactic tasks.

Third, compared to baselines, MuTSPad outperforms both TL methods, *multi-task learning* and *mono-task pretraining*, on all data-sets, by $\sim +21.4$ and $\sim +7.3$ aNRG, respectively. Compared to unsupervised pretraining, we can observe that MuTSPad outperforms ELMo on POS, CK and DP, where $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ brought higher performances for NER. Note that ELMo is complementary to our approach; hence, we expect a higher performance when incorporating $\text{ELMo}^{\text{large}}$ to MuTSPad.

Finally, compared to SOTA, MuTSPad LAS score on DP is about $\sim 2.5\%$ higher than the best SOTA score. Also for POS we achieve better accuracy score than the best SOTA. For CK and NER experiments, we achieve lower scores than SOTA. It is noteworthy that, first, contrary to our approach, all these methods are mono-task models (except MDMT), *i.e.*, unable to solve other tasks. Second, NER and CK best SOTA used pretrained contextualised representations that boost the performance, namely, Flairs embeddings by Akbik *et al.* [6], ELMo by Mishra [235] and BERT by Gu & Yu [136] and Nguyen *et al.* [247].

7.4.2 Impact of Datasets Unification

Method	POS	DP	NER	CK
w/o unif.	94.08	79.17	43.34	84.87
w/ source unif.	94.36	79.67	43.21	85.77
w/ source+target unif.	94.53	80.12	40.65	85.71

Table 7.3 – Impact of Datasets Unification on MuTSPad.

We report in Table 7.3 MuTSPad’s results: 1) **w/o unif.**: Training on independent datasets, using the “one batch per task” scheduling rule, on both stages: pretraining and fine-tuning. 2) **w/ source unif.** : In the pretraining stage, training is performed on the unified dataset. While in fine-tuning, training is performed on independent datasets. 3) **w/ source+target unif.** : In both pretraining and fine-tuning stages, training is performed on the unified datasets.

Clearly, pretraining on unified source datasets (w/source unif) slightly improved performances on all tasks. Nevertheless, fine-tuning on unified target datasets (w/source+target unif) is beneficial only for POS and DP tasks, while it strongly hurts NER’s F1 score. We mainly

attribute this to the low F1 score of the "Mono-task learning" baseline on the NER WNUT-17 dataset, leading to noisy NER automatic predictions.

7.4.3 Low-Level Tasks Importance Analysis

In this section, we investigate how low-level tasks impact high-level tasks in our hierarchical multi-task model (See Figure 7.2). Specifically, we focus on the impact of \mathbf{h}^{pos} , the representation encoded by the POS task, for CK, NER and DP tasks. For this purpose, we quantify the importance of \mathbf{h}^{pos} individual units for POS, CK, NER and DP performances. Assuming that ablating the most important units for a task should bring a higher drop in performance compared to the least important units, we perform an individual ablation¹⁰ of \mathbf{h}^{pos} units (neurons), as in [419] and [76].

Given the already trained target multi-task model \mathcal{M}_t , we set the relating weights of each unit i from \mathbf{h}^{pos} to zero, (*i.e.* \mathbf{T}^{pos} layer's weights for CK, NER and DP; and \mathbf{C}^{pos} layer's weights for POS). Hence, the ablated unit will not contribute to the final prediction for any input word. Then, with one unit ablated at a time, we launch the inference on each task's dev-set, then compute the resulting score-drop for each class (label), leading to a matrix per task $\mathbf{A}^{\text{task}} \in \mathbb{M}_{d,m}(\mathbb{R})$, where d is \mathbf{h}^{pos} 's dimension and m is the number of task' classes. This matrix can be summarised in a *max-class-score-drop* vector $\mathbf{v}^{\text{task}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, where each element v_i^{task} from the vector represents the max-class-score-drop when ablating the unit i from \mathbf{h}^{pos} .

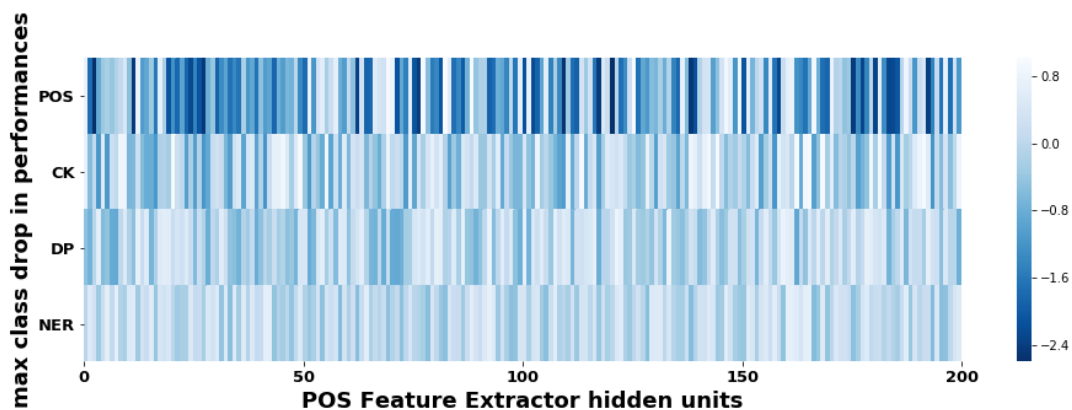


Figure 7.3 – Maximum drop in performance on POS, CK, DP and NER tasks when ablating individual POS units. from the POS Feature Extractor output (\mathbf{h}^{pos}). Dark/light blue: high/low drop. One can see that it is the POS task that is most impacted by the POS units.

Applying this method, for POS, CK, NER and DP, leads to 4 *max-class-score-drop* vectors, one for each task, \mathbf{v}^{pos} , \mathbf{v}^{ck} , \mathbf{v}^{ner} and \mathbf{v}^{dp} . In the heatmap in Figure 7.4, we plot one vector per line: \mathbf{v}^{pos} , \mathbf{v}^{ck} , \mathbf{v}^{ner} then \mathbf{v}^{dp} . This figure illustrates the importance of POS units for each task, where darker blue means a higher drop (thus higher importance) and lighter blue means

¹⁰Also called pruning or features erasure. (section 3.2.5)

lower drop (thus lower importance). We observe high values of v^{POS} for POS compared to the remaining tasks since h^{POS} 's units are more important for POS tagging than all other tasks. Also, h^{POS} 's units are directly used for prediction for POS while transformed through several layers for the other tasks. Furthermore, we can also observe that h^{POS} 's units are more important for CK and DP compared to NER since this last is semantic while the POS, CK and DEP are syntactic.

Task	Class	Unit	Top-10 activations
CK	B-INTJ	POS-Unit-112	:); awwwwwwww; uggghh; Omg; lol; hahahaha; WELL; Nope; LOL; No
	B-ADJP	POS-Unit-99	rapidely; Deeply; fine; more; hardly; particulary; slower; guilty; loose; entirely
DP	auxiliary	POS-Unit-47	do; can; was; ca; can; 's; would; have; ame; Wo
	discourse	POS-Unit-112	Hhhahahh; no; lmao; sorry; omg; hey; lol; yea; haha; please
NER	B-location	POS-Unit-35	North; Ireland; Italy; Kelly; Qatar; in; southafrica; new; over; Wellington
	B-person	POS-Unit-115	Trilarion; Jo; Watson; Hanzo; Abrikosov; Lily; jellombooty; theguest; Professor

Table 7.4 – Top-10 words activating positively (red) or negatively (blue) (Since LSTMs generate positive and negative activations) some units from h^{POS} that are the most important for different classes from CK, DP and NER.

Moreover, we attempt to peek inside specific units from h^{POS} , which the ablation thereof begets a high drop in CK, DP and NER classes-scores. Specifically, we report in Table 7.4 the top-10 words activating some of these units. Expectedly, we found that some of POS' units are firing, and thus specialised, on patterns that are beneficial for higher-level tasks. For instance, Unit-99, specialised on adjectives ending with the suffix “ly”, is highly important for the CK class “B-ADJP” (*beginning of adjectival phrase*). Also, Unit-115 is firing on person names, a valuable pattern for “B-person” class of NER. Interestingly, we found some units that are beneficial for multiple tasks, *e.g.* Unit-112, which is specific for interjections, is also important for both “discourse” class for DP and “B-INTJ” (*beginning of an interjection phrase*) for CK.

7.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have proposed **MuTSPad**, a new approach based on transfer learning for supervised domain adaptation with three main contributions: 1) Consolidating two transfer learning approaches, sequential transfer learning and multi-task learning, by pretraining on a resource-rich domain and fine-tuning on a low-resourced domain in a multi-task fashion; 2) Unifying independent datasets to overcome the intricacy of multi-task training from heterogeneous datasets; and 3) Conducting a set of individual units ablation, refining our understanding on how individual neurons from lower-level tasks impact high-level tasks. We showed through empirical results on domain adaptation from *news* to *social media* that the proposed method *MuTSPad* allows a simultaneous benefit from similarities between domains and tasks, yielding better transfer learning performances on four NLP tasks.

This study leaves several important open directions for future work. First, we believe that it would be beneficial to explore the combination of supervised and unsupervised multi-task

pretraining. Second, concerning conceptual choices for the multi-task model architecture, it would be interesting to incorporate the attention mechanism [21] in our hierarchical multi-task architecture. Indeed, actually, low-level tasks outputs are transformed through a simple fully connected layers (T^{pos} and T^{ck}) to reduce their dimensionality before their injection to the higher tasks. Thus, to help high-level tasks focus only on the most relevant units from the lower tasks, one can incorporate attention weights in the transformation layers. Third, actually, we perform the adaptation step using the standard fine-tuning scheme, a promising direction would be to use our adaptation method PretRand (Chapter 6) at the adaptation stage of MuTSPad by augmenting the source multi-task model \mathcal{M}_s with randomly initialised layers before adaptation. Finally, it would be interesting to explore the benefit of **MuTSPad**'s learned representations for higher-level NLP applications such as machine translation and sentiment analysis.

8 | Conclusions and Perspectives

8.1 Conclusions

Throughout this thesis, we have explored different neural transfer learning approaches and scenarios to improve the performance of neural NLP tools in low-resource settings. In particular, starting from the hypothesis that social media domain (informal texts) is an informal variety of the news domain (formal texts), we have demonstrated the advantage of neural transfer learning for supervised domain adaptation from the high-resource news domain to the low-resource social media domain. We have focused on the case where sufficient annotated datasets are available from the source domain while only small annotated datasets from the target domain are available. We summarise our main contributions and findings as follow:

- **Neural sequential transfer learning across domains:** After an in-depth study of transfer learning techniques and approaches, we started by a sequential transfer learning method that allows taking advantage of the knowledge learnt by a source model, formerly trained on available annotated datasets from the source domain, to help improve the learning of the target model. Specifically, we have proposed two sequential transfer learning schemes. The first, *transfer of supervisedly-pretrained contextual representations* that consists in feeding the representations generated by the source model as features to the target model, and thus, all target model's layers are trained from scratch. The second, *transfer of pretrained models*, allows taking more advantages of the pre-learned knowledge, using the pretrained weights from the source model to initialise the target model's parameters, instead of training them from scratch. Our experiments on sequence labelling tasks showed that both proposed methods yield significant improvements compared to the standard supervised training scheme, but *transferring pretrained models* approach begets better results across target tasks and datasets. Besides, transferring models is more efficient in terms of computation and convergence speeds. To have more insights about the impact of sequential transfer learning of models, we performed an in-depth analysis that showed the following findings: First, our method is more advantageous in extremely low-resource scenarios. Second, our method leads to a faster convergence compared to training from scratch. Third, the model's

size does not have an observable effect on the transfer performance. Fourth, the pretraining performance on the source task is not a reliable predictor for the performance on the target task. Finally, off-the-shelf ELMo universal representations are complementary to our proposed approaches and thus can be used for further improvements.

- **Negative transfer in sequential transfer learning:** The encouraging results that we obtained with *transferring pertained models* using the standard fine-tuning (SFT) scheme pushed us to dig deeper and look for potential improvements. Specifically, we analysed the negative transfer when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain. Roughly, negative transfer occurs when the knowledge learnt in the source domain hampers the learning of new knowledge from the target domain. Particularly, when the source and target domains are dissimilar, transfer learning may fail and hurt the performance, leading to a worse performance compared to the standard supervised training from scratch. In this thesis, we have proposed to analyse deeply the results of the SFT scheme; *i.e.* we perceive the gain brought by SFT, compared to random initialisation, as a combination of a *hidden positive transfer* and a *hidden negative transfer*. We define positive transfer as the percentage of predictions that were wrongly predicted by random initialisation, but using transfer learning changed to the correct ones. Negative transfer represents the percentage of predictions which were tagged correctly by random initialisation, but using transfer learning provides incorrect predictions. Hence, the final gain brought by transfer learning would be the difference between positive and negative transfers. We have shown through a series of empirical analysis that, the hidden negative transfer *mitigates* the final gain brought by transfer learning. We believe that analysing the hidden negative transfer is an essential step towards spotting the limits and the potential improvement tracks of the actual transfer learning tasks.
- **Analysis and interpretation methods:** First, we have proposed a new categorisation of interpretability methods in NLP. (1) Descriptive methods aim to investigate the knowledge learnt by neural models in their internal representations. (2) Explicative methods aim to justify the predictions of the model. (3) Mechanistic methods seek to provide a functional understanding of the model. Second, to go even further in our analysis of the SFT scheme, we have investigated how the internal representations of the pretrained models are updated during fine-tuning on the social media domain. We have addressed this question with two distinct interpretive approaches: *correlation analysis* and *individual units stimulus*. Following our proposed taxonomy, these methods belong to the descriptive methods category. We found that pretrained neurons are *biased* by what they have learnt in the source-dataset, *i.e.* pretrained neurons tend to conserve much information from the source domain. Some of this information is undoubtedly beneficial for the social media domain (positive transfer), but some of it is indeed harmful (negative transfer). We suppose that, as a consequence of this phenomenon, specific patterns to the target-dataset are difficult to

learn by pre-trained units. This phenomenon is non-desirable, since such specific units are important for performance, especially for target-specific classes.

- **PretRand - a novel adaptation method for neural sequential transfer learning:** We have proposed a hybrid method that takes benefit from both approaches, random initialisation (standard supervised training scheme from scratch) and transfer learning, without their drawbacks. It consists in augmenting the source-network with randomly initialised units and jointly learn them. PretRand consists of three main ideas. First, augmenting the source-network (set of pre-trained units) with a random branch composed of randomly initialised units, and jointly learn them. Second, normalising the outputs of both branches to balance their different behaviours and thus forcing the network to consider both. Indeed, we found that when naively augmenting the pretrained branch with the random branch, the former strongly fires discriminatively on many words, while the latter does not fire on any word at the initial stage of fine-tuning. Therefore, the random units do *not* significantly contribute to the computation of gradients and are thus slowly updated. Third, applying attention learnable weights on both branches predictors to let the network learn which of random or pre-trained one is better for every class. Our experiments on sequence labelling tasks showed that PretRand significantly enhances the performance compared to the standard fine-tuning adaptation scheme. It is noteworthy that PretRand does not slow down the model compared to SFT, since as shown in Table 6.4, PretRand uses only 0.02% more parameters compared to the standard fine-tuning baseline.
- **MuTSPad - consolidating sequential transfer learning and multi-task learning:** In the above contributions, we have studied the impact of *mono-source mono-target* sequential transfer learning to improve NLP models performance for low-resource domains (social media texts), where the transfer is performed in two steps: mono-task pretraining on a single task from a rich source domain followed by a mono-task fine-tuning of the task of interest on the available few target-domain examples. Nevertheless, as shown in many research works, but also our results in chapter 5, transferring knowledge, simultaneously, from multiple tasks can boost the performance. Therefore, we have proposed in chapter 7 a new approach that we called **Multi-Task Supervised Pre-training and Adaptation (MuTSPad)**. It performs a *multi-source multi-target* sequential transfer learning and thus takes advantage of both approaches, sequential transfer learning and multi-task learning, by learning a hierarchical model trained across multiple tasks from the source domain, then fine-tuned on multiple tasks from the target domain.

8.2 Perspectives

Several paths of research arise from the work carried out during this thesis. We briefly discuss a few of them below. We start, in section 8.2.1, by research tracks that were partially or were

not addressed during this thesis, but we believe that their investigation will boost our proposed approaches. Then, in section 8.2.2, we present some broader promising research directions that are related to our research.

8.2.1 Short-term Perspectives

- **Fine-tuning strategies in the standard fine-tuning scheme:** In chapter 5 experiments, we have performed the fine-tuning stage in a naive manner. *i.e.* pretraining and fine-tuning stages are performed using the same settings. One can explore different strategies recently proposed in the literature to improve the fine-tuning process on the target task. A standard method is to attribute lower learning rates for the low-most pretrained layers. Indeed, as discussed in [396, 243, 265], model’s layers learn different types of knowledge, *i.e.* top layers are more task-specific than low ones. Thus, low layers learn generic features easily transferable between tasks, while top layers learn features that are specific to the learnt task and domain. For instance, Howard & Ruder [155] proposed more sophisticated approaches. Namely, *discriminative fine-tuning* and *Slanted triangular learning rates*. The former comes down to the approach affecting different learning rates per layer. The latter consists in tuning the learning rate in two steps: first, it linearly increases the learning rate and then linearly decays. This method allows converging rapidly to a suitable region of parameters before slowly tuning the parameters to the best parameters.
- **Explaining the hidden negative transfer:** In chapter 6, we have performed a set of analysis to assess the hidden negative transfer occurring when transferring from the news domain to the social media domain using the standard fine-tuning scheme. We believe that it is worth going further in this analysis. A fruitful direction would be to explain this hidden negative transfer using explicative methods (§3.3). Notably, one can use *influence functions* (§3.3.6) to identify source training examples responsible for the negative transfer. Further, to identify text pieces of the evaluated sentence that justify a prediction with a negative transfer, one can use *surrogate methods* (§3.3.4) or *gradients based methods* (§3.3.3).
- **Pruning biased neurons in the standard fine-tuning scheme:** In chapter 6, we have shown through our analysis that pretrained neurons are biased by what they have learnt in the source task. Certainly, some of these neurons keep valuable knowledge from the source domain that are beneficial to the target domain (positively biased neurons). However, a part of these neurons may contain knowledge that is harmful to the target domain (negatively biased neurons). To handle this problem, we have proposed in section 6.3 to augment the pretrained neurons with random neurons to learn new features that are specific to the target domain. Another promising method to avoid the harmful effect of negatively biased neurons would be to automatically identify negatively biased neurons in the pre-trained

model using *features erasure methods* (§3.2.5). And then, proceed to a **pruning** of the most biased ones before fine-tuning. Note that pruning pretrained transformer-based models, like BERT, has been recently investigated in the literature [219, 131, 315, 78] to achieve an accuracy-speed tradeoff. Furthermore, **Knowledge Distillation** is a promising method that aims to transfer the knowledge from a large teacher model to a smaller student model through a distillation process [149]. For instance, a distilled version of BERT was proposed by Sanh *et al.* [313] to reduce the size of the original BERT while keeping its valuable knowledge. An intriguing direction would be to distil the teacher model pretrained on the source domain on a smaller target model containing only the information encoded by positively biased neurons.

- **More sophisticated multi-task learning for multi-source multi-target transfer learning:** The positive results of our proposed approach, MuTSPad, leaves several important open directions for future work. Notably, we did not explore all the potential of multi-task learning. First, we should explore soft multi-task architectures. Second, we can investigate the combination of supervised and unsupervised multi-tasking. Third, we can incorporate an attention mechanism in our hierarchical multi-task architecture. Indeed, actually, low-level tasks outputs are transformed through a simple fully connected layers to reduce their dimensionality before their injection to the higher tasks. Thus, to help high-level tasks to focus only on the most important units from the lower tasks, one can incorporate attention weights in the transformation layers. Finally, a promising direction would be to use our adaptation method PretRand (chapter 6) at the adaptation stage of MuTSPad by augmenting the source multi-task model with randomly initialised layers before adaptation.
- **Transformer-based architectures:** The increasing omnipresence of Transformers architectures in a wide range of NLP tasks, due to their improved performances, motivates us to experiment our approaches on Transformer-based architecture instead of LSTM-based one. Furthermore, it would be interesting to combine pretrained Transformer-based models, like BERT or RoBERTa, with our approaches. For this, we propose to use our pretraining approaches as an **Intermediate Pretraining Task**, also called Supplementary Training on Intermediate Labelled-data Tasks (STILT) [269, 278]. In simple words, the approach will be performed in 3 steps; the Transformer-based model is firstly pretrained on self-supervised tasks (e.g. language modelling). Then, the model is further trained on news source datasets using the approaches discussed in this thesis. Finally, the model is fine-tuned on social media small datasets.
- **Application of our approaches on less similar source-target languages:** In this thesis, we have experimented our approaches on transfer from the news domain to the social media domain. It would be interesting to investigate the flexibility of our approaches in more challenging settings. *e.g.* transfer between the formal Arabic language (Modern

Standard Arabic) and informal Arabic languages (22 dialects distributed over five regional categories) that we can find on social media.

8.2.2 Long-term Perspectives

Stemming from the research work carried out during this thesis, we believe in the importance of the following research directions.

- **Opportunities and challenges of social media data analysis:** Social media has offered access to vast amounts of textual data. Otherwise, social media is also a rich source of **multi-modal data**, which will allow unfolding many opportunities and applications. Recently, there is a rising interest in the NLP community on multi-modal data. For instance, multi-modal pretraining has been studied by Lin *et al.* [194] who proposed interBERT, a multi-modal model for images and text. Zhang *et al.* [413] used multi-modal representations for Neural Machine Translation (NMT). Kiela *et al.* [170] performed hate speech detection in multi-modal data in social media. However, this data abundance in social media may impose many challenges. First, it threatens users' privacy. Indeed, User-Generated-Content (UGC) in social media may contain personal data and thus privacy-sensitive information. Hence, training neural models directly on these data makes them vulnerable to malicious actors. Therefore, thinking about **privacy-preserving methods** for NLP is becoming crucial. Second, UGC in social media may be **socially biased**. Thus, training neural networks directly on this type of data may generate unfair and harmful models. Actually, detecting bias in NLP models and de-biasing these models is a firing research topic [34].
- **Transfer Learning for emerging topics:** In this thesis, we have shown the efficiency of transfer learning from the news domain to social media. We believe that Transfer learning is a promising approach that can be perfectly applied to a variety of emerging topics where low-data settings are frequent and solutions are urgently requested, *e.g.* climate change [299] and COVID-19 [14, 220].
- **Incorporating expert knowledge into deep neural models:** As we have shown in this thesis, specific languages used in social media platforms generally share a number of syntactic structures and vocabulary with formal languages. Another avenue for research consists in analysing close languages and modelling their divergences and similarities in the form of linguistic rules and resources and then incorporating this expert knowledge into deep neural models in order to improve the training step and to obtain more accurate predictions. The WALS (World Atlas of Language Structures) database ¹ can be exploited to extract structural and lexical properties of close languages. The idea of incorporating

¹ <https://wals.info/>

external knowledge to improve the performance of deep learning models for image analysis is not new [257, 386], but there are only a few works on how linguistic resource can be introduced in these models and how these resources can help them to improve their performance [359, 183].

A | List of Publications

- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Youssef Tamaazousti, Hassane Essafi and Fatiha Sadat. "On the *Hidden* Negative Transfer in Sequential Transfer Learning from News to Tweets." In Adapt-NLP@EACL2021, The Second Workshop on Domain Adaptation for NLP @ The 16th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics. [226]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Othman Zennaki, and Fatiha Sadat. "Supervised Transfer Learning for Sequence Tagging of User-Generated-Content in Social Media." In Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence 2020 (Human Language Technology. Challenges for Computer Science and Linguistics). [229]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Mohamed-Ayoub Tahiri, Youssef Tamaazousti, Hassane Essafi, and Fatiha Sadat. "Multi-Task Supervised Pretraining for Neural Domain Adaptation." In Proceedings of the Eighth International Workshop on Natural Language Processing for Social Media, pp. 61-71. 2020.[223]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Youssef Tamaazousti, Hassane Essafi and Fatiha Sadat. "Apprentissage mixte de neurones pré-entraînés et aléatoires dans un modèle neuronal pour l'adaptation au domaine." In Actes de la conférence Reconnaissance des Formes, Image, Apprentissage et Perception (RFIAP), 2020. [225]
- Sara Meftah, Youssef Tamaazousti, Nasredine Semmar, Hassane Essafi, and Fatiha Sadat. "Joint Learning of Pre-Trained and Random Units for Domain Adaptation in Part-of-Speech Tagging." In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers), pp. 4107-4112. 2019.[230]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Youssef Tamaazousti, Hassane Essafi, and Fatiha Sadat. "Exploration de l'apprentissage par transfert pour l'analyse de textes des réseaux sociaux (Exploring neural transfer learning for social media text analysis)." In Actes de la Conférence sur le Traitement Automatique des Langues Naturelles (TALN) PFIA 2019. Volume II: Articles courts, pp. 293-302. 2019. [224]

- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Fatiha Sadat, and Stephan Raaijmakers. "Using neural transfer learning for morpho-syntactic tagging of South-Slavic languages tweets." In Proceedings of the Fifth Workshop on NLP for Similar Languages, Varieties and Dialects (VarDial 2018), pp. 235-243. 2018. [222]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar and Fatiha Sadat. "A neural network model for part-of-speech tagging of social media texts." In Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018). 2018. [221]
- Sara Meftah, Nasredine Semmar, Othman Zennaki, and Fatiha Sadat. "Using transfer learning in part-of-speech tagging of English Tweets." In The Language and Technology Conference, pp. 236-240. 2017. [228]

B | Tagsets

In this appendix, we provide the list of labels of each task and dataset used in this thesis.

B.1 TPoS Tagset

CC	Coordinating conjunction	CD	Cardinal number
DT	Determiner	EX	Existential there
FW	Foreign word	IN	Preposition or subordinating conjunction
JJ	Adjective	JJR	Adjective, comparative
JJS	Adjective, superlative	LS	List item marker
MD	Modal	NN	Noun, singular or mass
NNS	Noun, plural	NNP	Proper noun, singular
NNPS	Proper noun, plural	PDT	Predeterminer
POS	Possessive ending	PRP	Personal pronoun
PRP\$	Possessive pronoun	RB	Adverb
RBR	Adverb, comparative	RBS	Adverb, superlative
RP	Particle	SYM	Symbol
TO	to	UH	Interjection
VB	Verb, base form	VBD	Verb, past tense
VBG	Verb, gerund or present participle	VBN	Verb, past participle
VBP	Verb, non-3rd person singular present	VBZ	Verb, 3rd person singular present
WDT	Wh-determiner	WP	Wh-pronoun
WP\$	Possessive wh-pronoun	WRB	Wh-adverb
URL	Web addresses	USR	Username mentions
RT	<i>Retweet</i> signifier	HT	hashtags

Table B.1 – TPoS dataset tagset.

B.2 ArK Tagset

N	common noun
O	pronoun (personal/WH; not possessive)
^	proper noun
S	nominal + possessive
V	verb incl. copula, auxiliaries
A	adjective
!	interjection
D	determiner
P	pre- or postposition, or subordinating conjunction
&	coordinating conjunction
T	verb particle
X	existential there, predeterminers
#	hashtag (indicates topic/category for tweet)
~	discourse marker, indications of continuation of a message across multiple tweets
U	URL or email address
E	emoticon
\$	numeral
,	punctuation
G	other abbreviations, foreign words, possessive endings, symbols, garbage
L	nominal + verbal (e.g. i'm), verbal + nominal (let's, lemme)
M	proper noun + verbal
Y	X + verbal

Table B.2 – ArK dataset tagset.

B.3 TweeBank POS Tagset

ADJ: adjective	Words that typically modify nouns and specify their properties or attributes.
ADP: adposition	Prepositions and postpositions (<i>e.g.</i> in, to, during, etc.).
AUX: auxiliary	A function word that accompanies the lexical verb of a verb phrase.
CCONJ: coordinating conjunction	Words that link words or larger constituents.
DET: determiner	Express the reference of a noun or a noun phrase.
INTJ: interjection	A word that is used most often as an exclamation or an emotion.
NOUN: noun	Words denoting a person, place, thing, animal or idea.
NUM: numeral	Express quantity, sequence, frequency, fraction, etc.
PART: particle	Function words that must be associated with another word or phrase.
PRON: pronoun	Words that substitute for nouns or noun phrases.
PROPN: proper noun	A noun that is the name of a specific individual, place, or object.
PUNCT: punctuation	Used to delimit linguistic units in printed text.
SCONJ: subordinating conjunction	link constructions by making one of them a constituent of the other.
SYM: symbol	<i>e.g.</i> +, ×, ÷, =, <, >, :)
VERB: verb	Words that typically signal events and actions.
X: other	Words that for some reason cannot be assigned a real POS category.

Table B.3 – TweeBank dataset POS tagset.¹

B.4 TChunk Chunking Tagset

O	Outside the syntactic span.
B-NP	The first word in a nominal phrase.
I-NP	A word inside a nominal phrase.
B-VP	The first word in a verbal phrase.
I-VP	A word inside a verbal phrase.
B-ADJP	The first word in an adjective phrase.
I-ADJP	A word inside an adjective phrase.
B-ADVP	The first word in an adversarial phrase.
I-ADVP	A word inside an adversarial phrase.
B-CONJP	The first word in a conjunction phrase.
I-CONJP	A word inside a conjunction phrase.
B-INTJ	The first word in an interjection.
I-INTJ	A word inside an interjection.
B-LST	The first word in a list marker.
I-LST	A word inside a list marker.
B-PP	The first word in a prepositional phrase.
I-PP	A word inside a prepositional phrase.
B-PRT	The first word in Particles.
I-PRT	A word inside Particles.
B-SBAR	The first word in subordinate clause.
I-SBAR	A word inside a subordinate clause.

Table B.4 – TChunk chunking dataset tagset..

B.5 Universal Dependencies

acl	clausal modifier of noun (adjectival clause)
advcl	adverbial clause modifier
advmod	adverbial modifier
amod	adjectival modifier
appos	appositional modifier
aux	auxiliary
case	case marking
cc	coordinating conjunction
ccomp	clausal complement
clf	classifier
compound	compound
conj	conjunct
cop	copula
csubj	clausal subject
dep	unspecified dependency
det	determiner
discourse	discourse element
dislocated	dislocated elements
expl	expletive
fixed	fixed multiword expression
flat	flat multiword expression
goeswith	goes with
iobj	indirect object
list	list
mark	marker
nmod	nominal modifier
nsubj	nominal subject
nummod	numeric modifier
obj	object
obl	oblique nominal
orphan	orphan
parataxis	parataxis
punct	punctuation
reparandum	overridden disfluency
root	root
vocative	vocative
xcomp	open clausal complement

Table B.5 – Universal dependencies, used in the TweeBank dataset.

C | Résumé En Français

Les méthodes d'apprentissage automatique qui reposent sur les Réseaux de Neurones (RNs) obtiennent des performances qui s'approchent de plus en plus de la performance humaine dans plusieurs applications du Traitement Automatique de la Langue (TAL) qui bénéficient de la capacité des différentes architectures des RNs à généraliser à partir des régularités apprises à partir des exemples d'apprentissage. En particulier, la structure ordonnée et les dépendances temporelles des données textuelles nécessitent un traitement spécifique. En effet, le contexte joue un rôle important pour identifier le sens d'un mot ou comprendre une phrase dans un document. Pour ce type de tâches, les RNs récurrents (RNNs pour *Reccurent Neural Networks*) et ses variantes; dont les deux principales: le modèle *Long Short-Term Memory* (LSTM) et sa version simplifiée *Gated Recurrent Units* (GRUs) sont les plus adaptés grâce à leur capacité à conserver en mémoire les informations pertinentes en analysant les mots (ou les caractères) dans un ordre précis. En outre, les RNs à convolutions (CNNs pour *Convolutional Neural Networks*) ont aussi montré leur efficacité pour l'encodage des caractères. Plusieurs études [165] ont montré que les CNNs représentaient l'architecture idéale pour l'extraction et l'encodage des informations morphologiques (racine, préfixe, suffixe, etc.), en particulier pour les langues avec une morphologie riche [59, 210] comme l'Arabe, les langues Slovaques, le Hindi, etc. Toutefois, ces modèles sont limités par leur dépendance aux données annotées. En effet, pour être performants, ces modèles ont besoin de corpus annotés de taille importante. Par conséquent, uniquement les langues bien dotées peuvent bénéficier directement de l'avancée apportée par les RNs, comme par exemple les formes formelles des langues.

Dans le cadre de cette thèse, nous avons proposé des méthodes d'apprentissage par transfert neuronal pour la construction des outils de TAL pour les langues et domaines peu dotés en exploitant leurs similarités avec des langues et des domaines bien dotés. Précisément, nous avons expérimenté nos approches pour le transfert à partir du domaine source des textes formels vers le domaine cible des textes informels (langue utilisée dans les réseaux sociaux). Nous avons commencé par introduire une nouvelle classification des méthodes d'apprentissage par transfert pour le TAL selon trois dimensions (Chapitre 2). La première dimension classe les méthodes selon le type des connaissances transférées de la tâche source vers la tâche cible. La deuxième dimension classe ces méthodes selon l'objectif derrière l'utilisation de l'apprentissage par transfert. La troisième dimension distingue les méthodes permettant de transférer les différents

types de connaissances.

Tout au long de cette thèse nous avons présenté différentes contributions. Tout d’abord, nous avons proposé deux approches pour le transfert des connaissances encodées dans les représentations neuronales d’un modèle source, pré-entraîné sur les données annotées du domaine source, vers un modèle cible, adapté par la suite sur quelques exemples annotés du domaine cible. La première méthode transfère des représentations contextuelles pré-entraînées sur le domaine source (§5.3.2.1). Tandis que la deuxième méthode utilise des poids pré-entraînés pour initialiser les paramètres du modèle cible qui sera adapté par la suite sur les exemples d’apprentissage du domaine cible en utilisant le schéma du *fine-tuning* standard (§5.3.2.2).

Ensuite, nous avons effectué une série d’analyses pour repérer les limites des méthodes proposées. Nous avons constaté que, même si l’approche d’apprentissage par transfert proposée en utilisant le schéma du *fine-tuning* standard améliore les résultats sur le domaine cible, un transfert négatif « dissimulé » peut atténuer le gain final apporté par l’apprentissage par transfert. Parmi les erreurs causées par le transfert négatif que nous avons constaté les mots avec une première lettre en majuscule qui sont souvent prédits, par erreur, par le modèle avec apprentissage par transfert comme des noms propres (§6.2.2).

De plus, nous avons proposé une analyse interprétative (§6.2.3) du modèle pré-entraîné qui montre que les neurones pré-entraînés peuvent être biaisés par ce qu’ils ont appris du domaine source, et donc peuvent avoir des difficultés à apprendre des *patterns* spécifiques au domaine cible. A titre d’exemple, nous avons repéré un neurone qui est très sensible aux noms propres (par exemple, *George* et *Washington*) avant le *fine-tuning*, et aux mots dont la première lettre est en majuscule, que le mot soit un nom propre ou pas (par exemple, *Man* et *Father*) pendant le *fine-tuning* sur l’ensemble de données des réseaux sociaux. En effet, nous avons constaté que la plupart des mots dont la première lettre est en majuscule sont prédits par erreur comme des noms propres dans le schéma de *fine-tuning* standard. En fait, en anglais standard, à l’intérieur des phrases, seuls les noms propres commencent par une lettre majuscule, ce qui fait que le *fine-tuning* du modèle pré-appris ne parvient pas à éliminer ce pattern qui n’est pas toujours respecté dans les réseaux sociaux.

Suite à cette analyse, nous avons proposé un nouveau schéma d’adaptation hybride (§6.3) qui augmente le modèle cible avec des neurones normalisés, pondérés et initialisés aléatoirement permettant une meilleure adaptation au domaine cible tout en conservant les connaissances apprises du domaine source. Notre méthode consiste à augmenter le réseau de neurones source (ensemble de neurones pré-entraînés) avec des neurones initialisés de façon aléatoire et à les apprendre conjointement. Nous appelons notre méthode **PretRand** (*Pretrained and Rand units*). La principale difficulté est de forcer le réseau à prendre en compte les neurones aléatoires, car elles ont des comportements différents de ceux des neurones pré-entraînés. En effet, si ces derniers sont activés fortement de manière discriminatoire sur de nombreux mots, les premiers ne s’activent sur aucun mot au stade initial du *fine-tuning*. Par conséquent, les neurones aléatoires ne contribuent pas de manière significative au calcul des gradients et sont donc lentement mises

à jour. Pour surmonter ce problème, nous avons proposé de normaliser indépendamment les couches pré-entraînées et aléatoires. Cette normalisation équilibre leur échelle d'activations et force ainsi le réseau à les prendre en compte toutes les deux. Enfin, nous ne savons pas lesquels des prédicteurs, pré-entraînés ou aléatoires sont les meilleurs pour chaque classe. Nous proposons, donc, d'apprendre des vecteurs de pondération sur chaque branche.

Enfin, nous avons proposé une approche d'apprentissage par transfert qui permet de tirer profit des similarités entre différentes tâches, en plus des connaissances pré-apprises du domaine source. Nous appelons notre méthode **Multi-Task Supervised Pre-training and Adaptation (MuTSPad)**. Elle consiste à apprendre un modèle multi-tâches hiérarchique sur le domaine source qui sera adapté par la suite sur multiple tâches du domaine cible (chapitre 7).

List of Figures

1.1	Language resources distribution - Source: [164].	4
1.2	Example of a Tweet. Grey segments show expressions similar to formal texts and red ones show social media domain's specific expressions (informal).	7
2.1	Standard supervised training scheme vs Transfer Learning [257].	11
2.2	Example of the projection of part-of-speech annotations. The source language is English and the target language is French. Source: [404].	15
2.3	Adversarial training neural architecture. Source: [115]	20
2.4	Multi-task learning Parameters Sharing Schemes.	23
2.5	Illustrative schemes of CBOW and Skip-gram neural architectures.	29
3.1	Classification of analysis and interpretability methods for neural NLP models.	37
3.2	Character-by-character activations of the sentiment neuron discovered in RNNs-based language model [281].	38
3.3	Heatmap of individual neurons importance using feature erasure methods [190].	41
3.4	Examples of rationales annotations from the ERASER dataset [88].	42
3.5	Learned attention weights in a NMT model French - English.	43
3.6	Gradients-based Saliency heatmaps.	44
4.1	Example of Stanford Dependencies - Source [83].	52
4.2	An illustrative example from the TweeBank dataset showing non-syntactic tokens - Source: [203].	54
4.3	An Illustrative example of informal but syntactic tokens - Source: [203].	54
5.1	Illustrative scheme of the base neural model for sequence labelling tasks.	59
5.2	Illustrative scheme of Υ^{char} , the character-level biLSTM-based embedding component.	60
5.3	Illustrative scheme of transferring contextual supervisedly pretrained representations from news-domain to social media domain	68
5.4	An overview of the process of sequential transfer learning by fine-tuning pretrained parameters.	69
5.5	Overview of the experimental schemes of layer-per-Layer transferability experiment.	73

5.6	Results of transfer learning vs random initialisation according to different social media training-set sizes.	80
5.7	The impact of the model's size on transfer learning performance	81
5.8	The impact of transfer learning on training convergence.	82
5.9	The impact of pretraining state on transfer learning performance.	83
5.10	Which classes benefit the most from transfer learning?	84
6.1	The percentage of <i>negative transfer</i> and positive transfer brought by SFT adaptation scheme compared to supervised training from scratch.	92
6.2	Positive transfer curves and negative transfer curves on social media data-sets, according to different pretraining epochs.	93
6.3	The Pearson correlation between unit j activations vector after fine-tuning to its activations vector before fine-tuning.	96
6.4	Correlation results between Φ units' activations before fine-tuning and after fine-tuning.	97
6.5	Illustrative scheme of the calculus of top-k-words activating a unit j during fine-tuning	98
6.6	Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning from ArK POS dataset.	99
6.7	Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning on Tweebank POS dataset.	100
6.8	Individual units activations before and during fine-tuning on WNUT-17 NER dataset.	101
6.9	Illustrative scheme of the three ideas of our proposed adaptation method, PretRand.	104
6.10	The distributions of the learnt weight-values for the randomly initialised and pre-trained branches after their joint training.	106
6.11	Illustrative schemes of baseline-methods and PretRand.	109
6.12	Sorted class-accuracy improvement (%) on TweeBank of PretRand compared to fine-tuning.	115
6.13	Performances (on dev-set of TweeBank) according different training-set sizes for the target-dataset.	115
6.14	Positive transfer and negative transfer brought by SFT (left) and PretRand (Right) compared to standard supervised training scheme	116
6.15	Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on ArK social media dataset.	117
6.16	Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on TweeBank dataset.	118
6.17	Individual units activations (from the random branch) before and during fine-tuning PretRand on WNUT NER dataset	119
7.1	Illustrative scheme of the neural arc-factored graph-based dependency parser.	124

7.2	Illustrative scheme of the Hierarchical multi-task architecture of MuTSPad. . .	126
7.3	Maximum drop in performance on POS, CK, DP and NER tasks when ablating individual POS units.	135

List of Tables

2.1	Different transfer learning approaches used for different research objectives. . . .	34
4.1	Statistics of the used datasets.	48
4.2	Illustrative examples of annotated sentences from each social media dataset. . . .	49
5.1	Statistics of the used datasets.	63
5.2	Ablation study of traditional embeddings: character-level embeddings and word-level embeddings.	65
5.3	Results of combining our supervisedly-pretrained representations with standard embeddings.	71
5.4	Main results of our proposed approach, <i>transferring pretrained models</i>	72
5.5	Layer-per-layer transferability analysis results.	74
5.6	Results of inter-tasks transferability of pretrained models.	75
5.7	Comparison of our proposed approaches results: <i>transferring representations vs transferring models</i>	77
5.8	Results of combining ELMo contextual representations with traditional embeddings.	78
5.9	Results of combining ELMo contextual representations with our supervisedly-pretrained representations.	79
5.10	Concrete examples of improved predictions by transfer Learning compared to random initialisation	85
6.1	Statistics of the used datasets.	90
6.2	Examples of falsified predictions by the standard fine-tuning scheme of transfer learning.	94
6.3	Statistics of the used datasets.	107
6.4	Comparison of PretRand to baselines methods.	110
6.5	Diagnostic analysis of the importance of each component in PretRand.	111
6.6	Diagnosis analysis of the impact of ELMo contextual representations in training schemes: From-scratch, SFT and PretRand.	112
6.7	Comparison of PretRand to best the published SOTA methods.	114
7.1	Statistics of the datasets we used to train our multi-task learning models.	130

7.2	Overall results of MuTSPad method compared to baselines and SOTA methods.	133
7.3	Impact of Datasets Unification on MuTSPad.	134
7.4	Top-10 words activating positively (red) or negatively (blue) some units from POS branch units.	136
B.1	TPoS dataset tagset.	147
B.2	ArK dataset tagset.	148
B.3	TweeBank dataset POS tagset.	149
B.4	TChunk chunking dataset tagset.	150
B.5	Universal dependencies.	151

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Titre : Apprentissage par Transfert Neuronal pour l'Adaptation aux Domaines en Traitement Automatique de la Langue

Mots clés : Apprentissage par transfert, Adaptation aux domaines, réseaux de neurones, Langues et domaines peu dotés, Étiquetage de séquences

Résumé : Les méthodes d'apprentissage automatique qui reposent sur les Réseaux de Neurones (RNs) ont démontré des performances de prédiction qui s'approchent de plus en plus de la performance humaine dans plusieurs applications du Traitement Automatique des Langues (TAL) qui bénéficient de la capacité des différentes architectures des RNs à généraliser en exploitant les régularités apprises à partir d'exemples d'apprentissage. Toutefois, ces modèles sont limités par leur dépendance aux données annotées. En effet, pour être performants, ces modèles ont besoin de corpus annotés de taille importante. Par conséquent, uniquement les langues bien dotées peuvent bénéficier directement de l'avancée apportée par les RNs, comme par exemple les formes formelles des langues. Dans le cadre de cette thèse, nous proposons des méthodes d'apprentissage par transfert neuronal pour la construction des outils de TAL pour les langues et domaines peu dotés en exploitant leurs similarités avec des langues et des domaines bien dotés. Précisément, nous expérimentons nos approches pour le transfert à partir du domaine source des textes formels vers le domaine cible des textes informels (langue utilisée dans les réseaux sociaux). Tout au long de cette thèse nous présentons différentes contributions. Tout d'abord, nous proposons deux approches pour le transfert des connaissances encodées dans les représentations neuronales d'un modèle source, pré-entraîné sur les données annotées du domaine source, vers un modèle cible, adapté par la suite sur quelques exemples annotés du domaine cible.

La première méthode transfère des représentations contextuelles pré-entraînées sur le domaine source. Tandis que la deuxième méthode utilise des poids pré-entraînés pour initialiser les paramètres du modèle cible. Ensuite, nous effectuons une série d'analyses pour repérer les limites des méthodes proposées. Nous constatons que, même si l'approche d'apprentissage par transfert proposée améliore les résultats sur le domaine cible, un transfert négatif « dissimulé » peut atténuer le gain final apporté par l'apprentissage par transfert. De plus, une analyse interprétative du modèle pré-entraîné montre que les neurones pré-entraînés peuvent être biaisés par ce qu'ils ont appris du domaine source, et donc peuvent avoir des difficultés à apprendre des « patterns » spécifiques au domaine cible. Suite à cette analyse, nous proposons un nouveau schéma d'adaptation qui augmente le modèle cible avec des neurones normalisés, pondérés et initialisés aléatoirement permettant une meilleure adaptation au domaine cible tout en conservant les connaissances apprises du domaine source. Enfin, nous proposons une approche d'apprentissage par transfert qui permet de tirer profit des similarités entre différentes tâches, en plus des connaissances pré-apprises du domaine source.

Title: Neural Transfer Learning for Domain Adaptation in Natural Language Processing

Keywords: Transfer Learning, Domain Adaptation, Neural Networks, Low-resource languages and domains, Sequence labelling

Abstract: Recent approaches based on end-to-end deep neural networks have revolutionised Natural Language Processing (NLP), achieving remarkable results in several tasks and languages. Nevertheless, these approaches are limited with their *gluttony* in terms of annotated data, since they rely on a supervised training paradigm, *i.e.* training from scratch on large amounts of annotated data. Therefore, there is a wide gap between NLP technologies capabilities for high-resource languages compared to the long tail of low-resourced languages. Moreover, NLP researchers have focused much of their effort on training NLP models on the news domain, due to the availability of training data. However, many research works have highlighted that models trained on news fail to work efficiently on out-of-domain data, due to their lack of robustness against domain shifts. This thesis presents a study of transfer learning approaches through which we propose different methods to take benefit from the pre-learned knowledge from high-resourced domains to enhance the performance of neural NLP models in low-resourced settings. Precisely, we apply our approaches to transfer from the news domain to the social media domain. Indeed, despite the importance of its valuable content for a variety of applications (*e.g.* public security, health monitoring, or trends highlight), this domain is still lacking in terms of annotated data. We present different contributions.

First, we propose two methods to transfer the knowledge encoded in the neural representations of a source model -- pretrained on large labelled datasets from the source domain -- to the target model, further adapted by a fine-tuning on few annotated examples from the target domain. The first transfers supervisedly-pretrained contextualised representations, while the second method transfers pretrained weights used to initialise the target model's parameters. Second, we perform a series of analysis to spot the limits of the above-mentioned proposed methods. We find that even though transfer learning enhances the performance on social media domain, a hidden negative transfer might mitigate the final gain brought by transfer learning. Besides, an interpretive analysis of the pretrained model shows that pretrained neurons may be biased by what they have learnt from the source domain, thus struggle with learning uncommon target-specific patterns. Third, stemming from our analysis, we propose a new adaptation scheme which augments the target model with normalised, weighted and randomly initialised neurons that beget a better adaptation while maintaining the valuable source knowledge. Finally, we propose a model that, in addition to the pre-learned knowledge from the high-resource source-domain, takes advantage of various supervised NLP tasks.