Simple Question Answering by Attentive Convolutional Neural Network

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Abstract

This work focuses on answering single-relation factoid questions over Freebase. Each question can acquire the answer from a single fact of form (subject, predicate, object) in Freebase. This task, simple question answering (SimpleQA), can be addressed via a two-step pipeline: entity linking and fact selection. In fact selection, we match the subject entity in fact with the entity mention in question by a character-level convolutional neural network (char-CNN), and match the predicate in fact with the question by a word-level CNN (word-CNN). This work makes two main contributions. (i) A simple and effective entity linker over Freebase is proposed. Our entity linker outperforms the state-of-the-art entity linker of SimpleQA task. (ii) A novel attentive max-pooling is stacked over word-CNN, so that the predicate representation can be matched with the predicate-focused question representation more effectively. Experiments show that our system sets new state-of-the-art in this task.

1 Introduction

Factoid question answering (QA) over knowledge bases such as Freebase has been intensively studied recently (e.g., Bordes et al. (2014), Yao et al. (2014), Bast and Haussmann (2015), Yih et al. (2015), Xu et al. (2016)). Answering a question can require reference to multiple related facts in Freebase or reference to a single fact. This work studies simple question answering (SimpleQA) based on the SimpleQuestions benchmark (Bordes et al., 2015) in which answering a question does not require reasoning over multiple facts. Single-relation factual questions are the most common type of question observed in various community QA sites (Fader et al., 2013) and in search query logs. Even though this task is called “simple”, it is in reality not simple at all and far from solved.

In SimpleQA, a question, such as “what’s the hometown of Obama?”, asks a single and direct topic of an entity. In this example, the entity is “Obama” and the topic is hometown. So our task is reduced to finding the fact (subject, predicate, object) in Freebase that answers the question, which roughly means the subject and predicate are the best matches for the topical entity “Obama” and for the topic description “what’s the hometown of”, respectively. Thus, we aim to design a method that picks a fact from Freebase, so that this fact matches the question best. This procedure resembles answer selection (Yu et al., 2014) in which a system is asked to choose the best answer from a list of candidates for a given question. In this work, we formulate the SimpleQA task as a fact selection problem and the key issue lies in the system design for how to match the fact to the question.

The first obstacle is that Freebase has an overwhelming number of facts. A common and effective way is to first conduct entity linking of a question over Freebase, so that only a small subset of facts remain as candidates. Prior work achieves entity linking by searching word n-grams of a question among all entity names (Bordes et al., 2015) (Golub and He, 2016). Then, facts whose subject entities match those n-grams are kept. Our first contribution in this work is to present a simple while effective
entity linker specific to SimpleQA. Our entity linker first uses each word of a question to search entity vocabulary, all entities are kept if their names contain one of the query words. Then, we design three simple factors to give a raw ranking score for each entity candidate: (i) the ratio of words in the entity name that are covered by the question; (ii) the ratio of words in the question that are covered by the entity name; (iii) the position of the entity mention in the question. We choose top-$N$ ranked entities as candidates. Our entity linker does not consider the semantics or topic of an entity; it considers only the string surface. Nevertheless, experiments show that these three factors are the basis for a top-performing entity linker for SimpleQA.

Based on entity linking results, we consider each fact as a fact candidate that has one of the entity candidates as subject. Then our system solves the task of fact selection, i.e., matching the question with each fact candidate and picking the best match. Our system is built based on two observations. (i) Surface-form match between a subject entity and its mention in the question provides more straightforward and effective clue than their semantic match. For example, “Barack Obama” matches with “Obama” in surface-form, which acts as a fundamental indicator that the corresponding fact and the question are possibly about the same “Obama”. (ii) Predicate in a fact is a paraphrase of the question’s pattern where we define the pattern to be the topic that the question is asking about the entity and represent it as the question in which the entity mention has been replaced by a special symbol. Often the predicate corresponds to a keyword or a rephrased token of the pattern and this means we need to create a flexible model of this relationship.

These observations motivate us to include two kinds of convolutional neural networks (CNN, Le Cun et al. (1998)) in our deep learning system. (i) A character-level CNN (char-CNN) that models the match between an entity and its mention in the question on surface-form. We consider CNN over character-level rather than the commonly-used word-level, so that the generated representation is more robust even in the presence of typos, spaces and other noise character sequences. (ii) A word-level CNN (word-CNN) with attentive maxpooling that learns the match of the predicate with the pattern. A Freebase predicate is a predefined relation, mostly consisting of a few words: “place of birth”, “nationality”, “author editor” etc. In contrast, a pattern is highly variable in length and word choice, i.e., the subsequence of the question that represents the predicate in a question can take many different forms. Convolution-maxpooling slides a window over the input and identifies the best matching subsequence for a task, using a number of filters that support flexible matching. Thus, convolution-maxpooling is an appropriate method for finding the subsequence that best matches the predicate description. We add attention to this basic operation of convolution-maxpooling. We learn the attentions of predicate over all $n$-gram phrases in the pattern, and finally pool phrase features by considering the feature values as well as the attentions to those features. Phrases more similar to the predicate, i.e., with higher attention values, will be selected with higher probability than other phrases to represent the pattern.

Our overall approach is for the entity linker to identify top-$N$ entity candidates for a question. All facts that contain one of these entities as subject are then the fact search space for this question. Char-CNN and word-CNN decompose each question-fact match into an entity-mention surface-form match and a predicate-pattern semantic match. Our approach has a simple architecture, but it outperforms the state-of-the-art, a system that has a much more complicated structure.

2 Related Work

As mentioned in Section 1, factoid QA against Freebase can be categorized into single-relation QA and multi-relation QA. Much work has been done on multi-relation QA in the past decade, especially after the release of benchmark WebQuestions (Berant et al., 2013). Most state-of-the-art approaches (Berant et al., 2013; Yahya et al., 2013; Yao and Van Durme, 2014; Yih et al., 2015) are based on semantic parsing, where a question is mapped to its formal meaning representation (e.g., logical form) and then translated to a knowledge base (KB) query. The surface-form entity linking has limitations in candidate collection as some entities have the same names. We tried another word-CNN to match the pattern to the entity description provided by Freebase, but no improvement is observed.
answers to the question can then be retrieved simply by executing the query. Other approaches retrieve a set of candidate answers from KB using relation extraction (Yao and Van Durme, 2014; Yih et al., 2014; Yao, 2015). Bast and Haussmann (2015) or distributed representations (Bordes et al., 2014; Dong et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). Our method in this work explores CNN to learn distributed representations for Freebase facts and questions.

SimpleQA was first investigated in (Fader et al., 2013) through PARALEX dataset against knowledge base Reverb (Fader et al., 2011). Yih et al. (2014) also investigate PARALEX by a system with some similarity to ours – they employ CNNs to match entity-mention and predicate-pattern. Our model differs two-fold. (i) They use the same CNN architecture based on a word-hashing technique (Huang et al., 2013) for both entity-mention and predicate-pattern matches. Each word is first preprocessed into a count vector of character-trigram vocabulary, then forwarded into the CNN as input. We treat entities and mentions as character sequences. Our char-CNN for entity-mention match is more end-to-end without data preprocessing. (ii) We introduce attentive maxpooling for better predicate-pattern match.

The latest benchmark SimpleQuestions in SimpleQA was introduced by Bordes et al. (2015). (Golub and He, 2016) is the state of the art. Bordes et al. (2015) tackle this problem by an embedding-based QA system developed under the framework of Memory Networks (Weston et al., 2015; Sukhbaatar et al., 2015). The setting of the SimpleQA corresponds to the elementary operation of performing a single lookup in the memory. They investigate the performance of training on the combination of SimpleQuestions, WebQuestions and Reverb training sets. Golub and He (2016) propose a character-level attention-based encoder-decoder framework to encode the question and subsequently decode into (subject, predicate) tuple. Specifically, their encoder, modeling question on character level, is robust to unseen entities and predicates. Our model in this work is much simpler than these prior systems.

Treating SimpleQA as fact selection is inspired by work on answer selection (e.g., Yu et al. (2014), Yin et al. (2016b), Santos et al. (2016)) that looks for the correct answer(s) from some candidates for a given question. The answer candidates in those tasks are raw text, not structured information as facts in Freebase are. We are also inspired by work that generates natural language questions given knowledge graph triples (Seyler et al., 2015; Serban et al., 2016). It hints that there exists a kind of match between natural language questions and FB triples.

### 3 Task Definition and Data Introduction

We first describe the SimpleQuestions task (Berant et al., 2013) and Freebase (Bollacker et al., 2008).

SimpleQuestions benchmark, a typical SimpleQA task, provides a set of single-relation questions; each question is accompanied by a ground truth fact. The object entity in the fact is the answer by default. The dataset is split into train (75,910), dev (10,845) and test (21,687) sets. While single-relation questions are easier to handle than questions with more complex and multiple relations, single-relation question answering is still far from being solved. Even in this restricted domain there are a large number of paraphrases of the same question. Thus, the problem of mapping from a question to a particular predicate and entity in Freebase is hard.

Freebase is a structured knowledge base in which entities are connected by predefined predicates or “relations”. All predicates are directional, connecting from the subject to the object. A triple (subject, predicate, object), denoted as (h, p, t), describes a fact: e.g., (U.S. Route 2, major_cities, Kalispell) refers to the fact that U.S. Route 2 runs through the city of Kalispell. SimpleQuestions provides two subsets of Freebase, FB2M and FB5M; see Table 1.

|          | FB2M    | FB5M    |
|----------|---------|---------|
| entities | 2,150,604 | 4,904,397 |
| predicates | 6,701 | 7,523    |
| atomic facts | 14,180,937 | 22,441,880 |

**Table 1**: Knowledge Bases used in this paper. FB2M and FB5M are two versions of Freebase.
4 Entity Linking and Mention Detection

Given a question, the entity linker provides a set of top-$N$ entity candidates. The input of our deep learning model are (subject, predicate) and (mention, pattern) pairs. Thus, given a question, two problems we have to solve are (i) identifying candidate entities in Freebase that the question refers to and (ii) identifying the span (i.e., mention) in the question that refers to the entity.

We perform entity linking by deriving the longest consecutive common subsequence (LCCS) between a question and entity candidates and refer to it as $\sigma$. Given a question $q$ and all entity names from Freebase, we perform the following three steps.

(i) Lowercase/tokenize entity names and question

(ii) Use each component word of $q$ to retrieve entities whose names contain this word. We refer to the set of all these entities as $C_e$.

(iii) For each entity candidate $e$ in $C_e$, compute its LCCS $\sigma$ with the question $q$. Let $p$ be the position of the last token of $\sigma$ in $q$. Compute $a = |\sigma|/|q|$, $b = |\sigma|/|e|$ and $c = p/|q|$ where $| \cdot |$ is length in words. Finally, entity candidate $e$ is scored by the weighted sum $s_e = \alpha a + \beta b + c$. Parameters $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are tuned on dev. Top-$N$ ranked entities are kept for each question.

Discussion. Factor $a = |\sigma|/|q|$ means we prefer candidates that cover more consecutive words of the question. Factor $b = |\sigma|/|e|$ means that we prefer the candidates that have more consecutive words appearing in the question. Factor $c = p/|q|$ means that we prefer candidates that appear close to the end of the question; this is based on the observation that most entity mentions are far from the beginning of the question. Despite the simplicity of our entity linker, it outperforms other state-of-the-art entity linkers of this SimpleQuestions task by a big margin. Besides, this entity linker is unsupervised and runs fast. We will show its promise and investigate the individual contributions of the three factors in experiments.

This work considers two perspectives for mention detection, Freebase-dependent and Freebase-independent. Pros and cons will be discussed in the experimental section.

Both approaches return a mention (i.e., a span) in the question. We then convert the question into the tuple (mention, pattern) where pattern is created by
replacing the mention in the question with \(<e>\).

**FB-dependent Mention Detection.** Each question \(q\) is provided top-\(N\) entity candidates from Freebase by entity linker.

We first compute the LCCS \(\sigma\) on word level between \(q\) and entity \(e\). If the entity is longer than \(\sigma\) and has \(l\) (resp. \(r\)) words on the left (resp. right) of \(\sigma\), then we extend \(\sigma\) in the question by \(l\) left (resp. \(r\) right) words and select this subsequence as the candidate mention. For example, entity “U.S. Route 2” and question “what major cities does us route 2 run through” have LCCS \(\sigma\) “route 2”. The FB entity “U.S. Route 2” has one extra word “u.s.” on the left of \(\sigma\), so we extend \(\sigma\) by one left word and the candidate mention is “us route 2”. We do this so that the mention has the same word size as the entity string.

In rare cases that the LCCS on the word level has length 0, we treat both entity string and question as character sequence, then compute LCCS \(\sigma\) on character level. Finally, mention is formed by expanding \(\sigma\) on both sides up to a space or the text boundary.

This approach to mention detection usually produces more than one (mention, pattern) pair.

**FB-independent Mention Detection.** In this case, we take a named entity recognition (NER) approach. We tried Stanford NER (Finkel et al., 2005), but it did not work well for our noisy text. We instead use an approach based on part-of-speech (POS) tagging. We observed that a single POS tagger cannot be trusted as questions contain confusing noise tokens. We thus resort to three top-performing POS taggers: (i) Stanford POS tagger\(^3\) (Toutanova et al., 2003); (ii) FLORS\(^4\) (Schnabel and Schütze, 2014; Yin et al., 2015), the state-of-the-art POS tagger in domain adaptation scenario (its strength in domain adaptation applies to the QA task as the question domains can not be estimated); and (iii) NLTK default POS tagger\(^5\). For each word, we choose the majority tag or, if there is none, Stanford tagger’s prediction.

For a question, we identify all subsequences that have POS tags only in \(\{\text{NN}, \text{NNS}, \text{NNP}, \text{NNPS}, \text{FW}, \text{JJ}, \text{JJR}, \text{CD}\}\). We rank them by \(\gamma|\sigma|/|q| + p/|q|\) (similar to our entity linker, but without factor \(b\)) and select the top-scoring subsequence as the FB-independent mention.

To tune this approach, we count as a success an FB-independent mention that has a non-zero LCCS with its gold entity. We then tune \(\gamma = 4.5\) on dev, giving us an accuracy of 84.5\% on dev.

This approach to mention detection produces one single (mention, pattern) pair.

5 Fact Selection

Entity linker provides top-\(N\) entity candidates for each question. All facts having those entities as subject form a fact pool, then we build the system to seek the best.

Our whole system is depicted in Figure 1(a). It consists of match from two aspects: (i) a CNN on character level (char-CNN) to detect the similarity of entity string and the mention string in surface-form (the left column); (ii) a CNN with attentive max-pooling (AMP) in word level (word-AMPCNN) to detect if the predicate is a paraphrase of the pattern.

Word-AMPCNN is motivated by the observation that the FB predicate name is short and fixed whereas the corresponding pattern in the question is highly variable in length and word choice. Our hypothesis is that the predicate-pattern match is best done based on keywords in the pattern (and perhaps humans also do something similar) and that the CNN therefore should identify helpful keywords. Traditional maxpooling treats all \(n\)-grams equally. In this work, we propose attentive max-pooling (AMP). AMP gives higher weights to \(n\)-grams that better match the predicate. As a result, the predicate-pattern match computed by the CNN is more likely to be correct.

Next, we introduce the CNN combined with maxpooling for both char-CNN and word-CNN, then present AMPCNN. Figure 1(b) shows the common framework of char-CNN and word-CNN; only input granularity and maxpooling are different.

5.1 Framework of CNN-Maxpooling

Both char-CNN and word-CNN have two weight-sharing CNNs, as they model two pieces of text. In what follows, we use “entry” as a general term for both character and word.

The **input layer** is a sequence of entries of length

\[\text{http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/tagger.shtml}\]
\[\text{http://cistern.cis.lmu.de/flors/}\]
\[\text{http://www.nltk.org/book/ch05.html}\]

\(^2\)Only using LCCS as mention performed worse.

\(^3\)http://nlp.stanford.edu/software/tagger.shtml

\(^4\)http://cistern.cis.lmu.de/flors/

\(^5\)http://www.nltk.org/book/ch05.html
where each entry is represented by a $d$-dimensional randomly initialized embedding; thus the sequence is represented as a feature map of dimensionality $d \times s$. Figure 1(b) shows the input layer as the lower rectangle with multiple columns.

**Convolution Layer** is used for representation learning from sliding n-grams. For an input sequence with $s$ entries: $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_s$, let vector $c_i \in \mathbb{R}^{nd}$ be the concatenated embeddings of $n$ entries $v_{i-n+1}, \ldots, v_i$ where $n$ is the filter width and $0 < i < s + n$. Embeddings for $v_i$, $i < 1$ or $i > s$, are zero padded. We then generate the representation $p_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for the $n$-gram $v_{i-n+1}, \ldots, v_i$ using the convolution weights $W \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times nd}$:

$$p_i = \tanh(W \cdot c_i + b)$$ (1)

where $b \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

**Maxpooling.** All $n$-gram representations $p_i$ ($i = 1 \ldots s + n - 1$) are used to generate the representation of input sequence $s$ by maxpooling: $s_j = \max(p_{1j}, p_{2j}, \cdots)$ ($j = 1, \cdots, d$).

### 5.2 AMPCNN: CNN-Attentive-Maxpooling

Figure 2 shows TMP (Traditional MaxPooling) and AMP (Attentive MaxPooling) as we apply them to SimpleQA. Recall that we use standard CNNs to produce (i) the predicate representation $v_p$ (see Figure 1(a)) and (ii) a feature map of the pattern, i.e., a matrix with columns denoting n-gram representations (shown in Figure 1(b), the matrix below “col-wise (attentive) maxpooling”). In Figure 2 we refer to the feature map as $F_{\text{pattern}}$ and to the predicate representation as $v_p$.

TMPCNN, i.e., traditional maxpooling, outputs the vector shown as $v_{\text{TMP}}$; the same $v_{\text{TMP}}$ is produced for different $v_p$. The basic idea of AMPCNN is to let the predicate $v_p$ bias the selection and weighting of subsequences of the question to compute the representation of the pattern. The first step in doing that is to compute similarity scores $s$ between the predicate representation $v_p$ and each column vector of $F_{\text{pattern}}$:

$$s_i = \cos(v_p, F_{\text{pattern}}[:, i])$$ (2)

These cosines are then transformed into decay values by setting negative values to 0 (negatively correlated column vectors are likely to be unrelated to the predicate) and normalizing the positive values by dividing them by the largest cosine (.97 in this case), so that the largest decay value is 1.0. This is shown as “decay” and $s$ in the figure. Finally, we compute the reweighted feature map $F_{\text{decay}}$ as follows:

$$F_{\text{decay}}[:, i] = F_{\text{pattern}}[:, i] \ast s_i$$ (3)

In $F_{\text{decay}}$, the matrix with four green values, we can locate the maximal values in each dimension. Notice that they are not the true features by CNN any more, instead, they convey the original feature values as well as their importance to be considered. In $F_{\text{decay}}$, we can see that the maximal values in each dimension mostly come from the first column and the third column which have relatively higher similarity scores 0.97 and 0.76 respectively to the predicate. We use the coordinates of those maximal values to retrieve features from $F_{\text{pattern}}$ as a final pattern representation $v_{\text{AMP}}$, the blue column vector.

In summary, TMP has no notion of context. The novelty of AMP is that it is guided by attentions from the context, in this case attentions from the predicate. In contrast to TMP, we expect AMP to mainly extract features that come from n-grams.

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6We tried max-pooling over $F_{\text{decay}}$ as $v_{\text{AMP}}$ directly, but much worse performance was observed.
We do not have reranking step in this work.

A reranking algorithm to refine the entity ranking list.

Figure 1(a) shows two-way match between a tuple \( t \) and a question \( q \): entity-mention match by char-CNN (score \( m_e \)), predicate-pattern match by word-AMPCNN (score \( m_r \)). The overall ranking score of the pair is \( s_t(q,t) = m_e + m_r + s_e \) where \( s_e \) is the entity ranking score in entity linking phase.

Our objective is to minimize ranking loss:

\[
\ell(q,t^+,t^-) = \max(0, \lambda + s_t(q,t^-) - s_t(q,t^+))
\]

where \( \lambda \) is a constant.

We build word and character vocabularies on train. OOV words and characters from dev and test are mapped to an OOV index. Then, words (resp. characters) are randomly initialized into \( d_{\text{word}} \)-dimensional (resp. \( d_{\text{char}} \)-dimensional) embeddings. The output dimensionality in convolution, i.e., Equation 1 is the same as input dimensionality. We employ Adagrad (Duchi et al., 2011), \( L_2 \) regularization and diversity regularization (Xie et al., 2015). Hyperparameters (Table 2) are tuned on dev.

### 6.2 Entity Linking

In Table 3 we compare our entity linker with the state-of-the-art entity linker (Golub and He, 2016) in this SimpleQA task. Golub and He (2016) report the coverage of ground truth by top-\( N \) cases \((N \in \{1, 10, 20, 50, 100\})\). In addition, they explore a reranking algorithm to refine the entity ranking list. We do not have reranking step in this work.

Table 3 shows overall performance of our entity linker and performance without factor \( a \), \( b \) or \( c \) (-a, -b, -c). Our entity linker outperforms the baseline’s raw results by big margins and is 2–3 percent above their reranked scores. This shows the outstanding performance of our entity linker despite its simplicity. The table also shows that all three factors \((a, b, c)\) matter. Observations: (i) Each factor matters more when \( N \) is smaller. This makes sense because when \( N \) reaches the entity vocabulary size, all methods will have coverage 100\%. (ii) The position-related factor \( c \) has less influence. From top1 to top100, its contribution decreases from 4.3 to 9. Our entity linker still outperforms the reranked baseline for \( N \geq 20 \). (iii) Factor \( a \) is dominant for small \( N \), presumably because it chooses the longer one when two candidates exist, which is critical for small \( N \). (iv) Factor \( b \) plays a more consistent role across different \( N \).

### 6.3 SimpleQuestions

Table 4 compares AMPCNN with two baselines. (i) MemNN (Bordes et al., 2015), an implementation of memory network for SimpleQuestions task. (ii) Encoder-Decoder (Golub and He, 2016), the state-of-the-art system in this task, a character-level, attention-based encoder-decoder LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) model. Both MemNN and Encoder-Decoder use multiple data resources (WebQuestion, SimpleQuestions and Paraphrases (Fader et al., 2014)) and they are ensembles with improvements over non-ensemble single systems from 62.2 to 63.9 on FB5M (Bordes et al., 2015) and from 65.9 to 66.2 on FB2M (Golub and He, 2016). Our system outperforms both baselines significantly even though it uses only a single dataset (SimpleQuestions) and uses no ensemble.

We report results for FB-dependent and FB-independent mention detection. Furthermore, we compare AMPCNN to TMPCNN, i.e., we remove attention and representations for the predicate-pattern match are computed without attention. We choose top-20 (i.e., \( N = 20 \)) entities returned by entity linker. Table 4 shows that AMPCNN with
FB-dependent mention detection has optimal performance: 2.1 and 1.5 points above state-of-the-art for FB2M and FB5M, respectively. Performance on FB5M is slightly lower than on FB2M, which should be mainly due to the lower coverage for entity linking on FB5M – about 2% below that on FB2M. In addition, our CNN can still outperform baselines significantly even if the attention mechanism is removed (TMPCNN result). This hints that CNN is promising for SimpleQA.

Interestingly, FB-independent makes the performance worse by about 5%. This can be attributed to the fact that FB-independent’s accuracy of 84.5% (Section 4) is not good enough for a pipeline system. FB-dependent can make the probability of mention detection for ground truth entities close to 100% recall at the cost of extracting false positive mentions (for subjects of negative facts). But the mismatch of predicates in negative facts and patterns is expected to diminish the bad effect dramatically.

Despite the worse (albeit still better than MemNN on FB2M) performance of FB-independent, it is more intuitive than FB-dependent because each question should have one mention in SimpleQuestions and this mention should not vary in dependence of entity candidates that were falsely linked. What we need in the future is a more advanced approach for mention detection or NER\(^7\).

### 6.4 Effect of Attentive Maxpooling (AMP)

We compare AMP (one main contribution of ours) with three CNN attention mechanisms that are representative of related work in modeling two pieces of text: (i) HABCNN: Hierarchical attention-based CNN (Yin et al., 2016a); (ii) ABCNN: Attention-based CNN (Yin et al., 2016b); (iii) APCNN: CNN with attentive pooling (Santos et al., 2016).

| Methods                      | FB2M  | FB5M  | RC   | Para |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|------|------|
| **baseline**                 |       |       |      |      |
| random guess                 | 4.9   | 4.9   | .847 | 0    |
| MemNN                        | 62.7  | 63.9  | .902 | 0    |
| Encoder-Decoder              | 66.2  | 65.7  | .905 | \(\mathbb{R}^{d \times \ d}\) |
| **CNN**                      |       |       |      |      |
| AMPCNN FB-independent        | 63.9  | 62.1  | .913 | 0    |
| TMPCNN FB-dependent          | 67.5* | 66.6* |      |      |
| AMPCNN FB-dependent          | **68.3** | **67.2** |      |      |

Table 4: Experimental results for SimpleQuestions. Significant improvements over “Encoder-Decoder” are marked with * (test of equal proportions, \(p < .05\)).

Table 5: Comparing different attention mechanisms of CNN in terms of RC, extra parameters brought (Para).

Since attentive matching of predicate-pattern is only one part of our jointly trained system, it is hard to judge whether or not an attentive CNN performs better than alternatives. We therefore create a relation classification (RC) subtask to compare AMP with baseline schemes. RC task is created based on SimpleQuestions: label each question (converted into a pattern first) with the ground truth predicate; all other predicates of the gold subject entity are labeled as negative. The resulting datasets have sizes 72,239 (train), 10,310 (dev) and 20,610 (test).

In the three baselines, two pieces of text apply attention to each other. We adapt them into one-way attention (OWA) as AMP does in this work: fix predicate representation, and use it to guide the learning of pattern representation. To be specific, ABCNN first gets predicate representation by mean pooling, then uses this representation to derive similarity scores of each n-gram in pattern as attention scores, finally averages all n-gram embeddings weighted by attentions as pattern representation. HABCNN first gets predicate representation by max pooling, then computes attention scores the same way as ABCNN, finally does maxpooling over representations of top-\(k\) similar n-grams. APCNN is similar to ABCNN except that the similarity scores are computed by a nonlinear bilinear form.

Table 5 shows that AMPCNN performs well on relation classification, outperforming the best baseline APCNN by 0.8%. AMPCNN also has fewer parameters and runs faster than APCNN.

### 7 Conclusion

In this work, we explored CNNs for the SimpleQuestions task. We made two main contributions. (i) A simple and effective entity linker that brings higher coverage of ground truth entities. (ii) An attentive maxpooling stacked above convolution layer that models the relationship between predicate and question pattern more effectively. Our experiments
show outstanding performance on both simpleQA and relation classification.

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