Abstract

Real-world machine learning systems are achieving remarkable performance in terms of coarse-grained metrics like overall accuracy and F-1 score. However, model improvement and development often require fine-grained modeling on individual data subsets or slices, for instance, the data slices where the models have unsatisfactory results. In practice, it gives tangible values for developing such models that can pay extra attention to critical or interested slices while retaining the original overall performance. This work extends the recent slice-based learning (SBL) (Chen et al., 2019) with a mixture of attentions (MoA) to learn slice-aware dual attentive representations. We empirically show that the MoA approach outperforms the baseline method as well as the original SBL approach on monitored slices with two natural language understanding (NLU) tasks.

1 Introduction

Though machine learning systems have been achieving excellent performance in terms of coarse-grained metrics like accuracy, they perform poorly or even fail on some individual data subsets (i.e., slices). For instance, many models have difficulties when learning for classes with only a few samples or samples with challenging structures. Inspecting particular data slices can serve as an important component in model development cycles. A recently proposed slice-based learning (SBL) exhibited compelling results with more than 3% improvements on pre-defined slices (Chen et al., 2019) in the task of binary classification. However, one potential limitation of the existing attention mechanism in SBL is that in multi-class cases, the attention suffers from the difficulty in using the experts’ confidences appropriately for computing slice distributions (refer to Sec. 3).

In this paper, we extend SBL with a mixture of attentions (MoA) mechanism. Two different attention mechanisms are learned to jointly attend to the defined slices from different representations in different latent subspaces. The first attention is based on slice membership likelihood and/or experts confidence as in SBL (Chen et al., 2019), which we call membership attention. The second one is dot-product attention that is based on the backbone model (e.g., BERT (Devlin et al., 2019)) extracted representations. The MoA approach is akin to multi-head attention (Vaswani et al., 2017) but with different attention types that receive different inputs.

As presented in Figure 1, the two attentions in MoA can work jointly to attend to (1) the expert rep-
representation \texttt{r} and (2) the backbone model extracted representation \texttt{x}, and finally form an attentive representation \texttt{s}. The \texttt{s} is a slice-aware featurization of the samples in the particular data slices and will be used for making a final model prediction.

We argue that learning joint attention with MoA from different resources for computing slice distributions is beneficial (Vaswani et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018). We evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed approach on intent detection (Liu et al., 2019) and linguistic acceptability (Warstadt et al., 2018) tasks.

Our main contributions are twofold:

- We extend SBL with MoA. The MoA approach has the ability to attend to slices in deterministic (weighted summation) and stochastic (sampling) ways.
- We conduct extensive experiments on two NLU tasks. The results show that MoA outperforms the baseline and vanilla SBL by average up to 9% and 6% respectively on defined slices.

2 Architecture

Figure 1 presents the slice-aware architecture based on SBL (Chen et al., 2019). Let \( \{x^n, y^n\}_{n=1}^N \) be a dataset with \( N \) samples. We aim to learn slice-aware representation \( s \) from slice-experts-learned representation \( r \) and backbone-model-extracted representation \( x \).

We first define slice functions (SFs) as in Table 1 to split the dataset into \( k \) slices of interests. Each sample is assigned with a slice label \( \gamma \in [0, 1] \) in \( \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_k\} \) as supervision data\(^3\).

### Table 1: The designed slice functions (SFs)\(^1\).

| SF Function | Description |
|-------------|-------------|
| def SF_Length(utterance, k=10): | \( \text{return } \text{len}(\text{utterance}) < k \) |
| def SF_Time(utterance): | \( \text{return } \text{"time" in utterance} \) |
| def SF_Email(utterance): | \( \text{return } \text{"email" in utterance} \) |
| def SF_Long(sentence, k=10): | \( n = \text{len(sentence)} \) |
| | .split(’ ’) |
| | return \( n > k \) |

Second, we use a backbone model like BERT to extract representation \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \) for a given sample. Then, slice indicators \( f_i(x; w_i^f) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}, i \in \{1, ..., k\} \) map \( x \) to a prediction \( h_i \). \( f_i \) are trained with \( \{x^n, \gamma^n\}_{n=1}^N \) to predict whether a sample belongs to a particular slice. They are learned with cross entropy loss

\[
\zeta_1 = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathcal{L}_{CE}(h_i, \gamma_i) \tag{1}
\]

Then, slice experts \( g_i(x; w_i^g), w_i^g \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \) learn a mapping from \( x \) to a slice vector \( r_i \in \mathbb{R}^d \) with the samples that only belong to the slice, followed by a shared head, which is shared across all experts and maps \( r_i \) to a prediction \( \hat{y} = \varphi(r_i; w_s) \). \( g_i \) and \( \varphi \) are learned on the base (original) task with ground-truth label \( y \) by

\[
\zeta_2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \gamma_i \mathcal{L}_{CE}(\hat{y}, y) \tag{2}
\]

Finally, a mixture of attentions (MoA) (as in Sec. 3) re-weights \( r \) and \( x \) to form \( s \). The \( s \) goes through a final prediction function \( \eta \) on the base task. The loss function is

\[
\zeta_3 = \mathcal{L}_{CE}(\eta(s; w_p), y) \tag{3}
\]

The total loss is a combination of the loss for slice indicators, slice experts and base task prediction function:

\[
\zeta = \zeta_1 + \zeta_2 + \zeta_3 \tag{4}
\]

The whole model is optimised with backpropagation (Rumelhart et al., 1986) in an end-to-end way.

3 Methodology

The SBL approach (Chen et al., 2019) proposed a slice-residual attention modules (SRAMs) that are directly based on stacked membership likelihood \( H \in \mathbb{R}^k \) and experts’ prediction confidence.

\[\text{def SF_Email(sentence):}\]
\[\text{def SF_Time(sentence):}\]
\[\text{def SF_Long(sentence, k=10):}\]
\[\text{def SF_Question(sentence):}\]
Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be the original representation from the backbone model (e.g., BERT), $h_i \in \mathbb{R}^c$ ($c = 1$) as i-th indicator function’s prediction, and $r_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as i-th expert learned representation. When stacking on $k$ slices, we have $h \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times k}$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$. MoA’s goal is to (1) attend to $r$ based on indicator functions’ membership likelihood and/or experts confidence\(^4\); (2) attend to $x$ with a dot-product attention; (3) to form a new slice-aware attentive representation $s \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with weighted (sampled) $r$ and $x$.

The slice distributions are computed differently. For membership attention, the probability $p_1 = \text{SOFTMAX}(h)$ or $p_1 = \text{SOFTMAX}(h + |r|) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ($d=1$ in binary classification). Then membership weighted slice representation is computed: $s_1 = r \cdot p_1, s_1 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. For dot-product attention, we aim to learn an attention matrix $A = \{a_1, ..., a_k\}, a \in \mathbb{R}^d, A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times k}$ is randomly initialized and learned by the standard back-propagation. Intuitively, each $a$ is learned to be a slice prototype (Wang and Niepert, 2019; Roy et al., 2020). The probability over slices is computed as:

$$p_2 = \text{SOFTMAX}(A^\top \cdot x) \in \mathbb{R}^k$$

A new attentive representation $s_2$ is formed by weighting $A$ with $p_2$:

$$s_2 = A \cdot p_2, s_2 \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

or sampling from $A$:

$$\text{sample } s_2 \sim \{a_1, ..., a_k\}$$

Then slice-aware vector $s$ is computed by

$$s = s_1 \odot s_2$$

where $\odot$ is an operator (either $\odot$: element-wise addition or $\otimes$: element-wise multiplication). The eq.(8) can be extended into a more general form – mixture of attentions (MoA):

$$s = r \cdot \phi(h) \odot A \cdot \phi(A^\top \cdot x)$$

Note eq.(9) entails the following transformations ($\rightarrow$) and captures the representational differences from $r$ to $s$ and from $x$ to $s$:

$$x \rightarrow r \rightarrow p_1 \rightarrow s_1 \rightarrow s$$

$$p_2 \rightarrow s_2$$

The $\phi(\cdot)$ is either SOFTMAX: $p_i = \frac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_j \exp(z_j)}$ that deterministically computes slice distributions or a Monte-Carlo gradient estimator: GUMBEL-SOFTMAX (Gumbel, 1954; Jang et al., 2017; Maddison et al., 2017):

$$p_i = \frac{\exp((\log(z_i) + \pi_i)/\tau)}{\sum_j \exp[\log(z_j) + \pi_j]/\tau]}$$

The $\pi_i$ are i.i.d. samples from the GUMBEL(0, 1), that is, $\pi = -\log(-\log(u)), u \sim \text{UNIFORM}(0,1)$. $\tau$ is temperature which controls the concentration of slice distribution, and small $\tau$ leads to more confident prediction over slices. It aims to stochastically compute slice distribution. With Gumbel-softmax, the slice distribution is a soft sampling from:

$$p_1 \sim \text{GUMBEL-SOFTMAX}(h)$$

$$p_2 \sim \text{GUMBEL-SOFTMAX}(A^\top \cdot x)$$

or a hard sampling (but differentiable) from:

$$p_1 \sim \text{ONE-HOT}(\arg\max(p_1))$$

$$p_2 \sim \text{ONE-HOT}(\arg\max(p_2))$$

for membership and dot-product attention respectively.

4 Experiments

We performed our experiments on a binary classification task with linguistic acceptability and on a multi-class classification task with intent detection.

4.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets and Metrics. The CoLA (Warstadt et al., 2018) dataset has 8551 train and 527 development in domain samples\(^5\). We randomly split it into

\[^5\]https://nyu-mll.github.io/CoLA/
Figure 2: Distributions over slices (base, $s_1 =$ Length, $s_2 =$ Time and $s_3 =$ Email) of random test samples that are from membership and dot-product attention mechanisms. In (a)(c) membership attention shows higher confidence while dot-product attention gives higher confidence in (b)(d). Top rows are the utterances from the test set.

| Methods         | F1   | F1 Lift(%) | MCC | MCC Lift(%) |
|-----------------|------|------------|-----|-------------|
| Baseline        | 0.70 | 0.06       | 0.65| 0.24        |
| SBL             | 0.69 | 0.71       | 0.72| 0.23        |
| SBL-MoA ⊕       | 0.70 | 0.71       | 0.68| 0.24        |
| SBL-MoA ⊗       | 0.69 | 0.72       | 0.71| 0.25        |
| SBL-MoA-S ⊕     | 0.69 | 0.67       | 0.68| 0.24        |
| SBL-MoA-S ⊗     | 0.69 | 0.69       | 0.71| 0.26        |
| SBL-MoA-H ⊕     | 0.70 | 0.69       | 0.70| 0.25        |
| SBL-MoA-H ⊗     | 0.69 | 0.69       | 0.65| 0.25        |

Table 2: The results on CoLA test datasets. F1-score and MCC are reported (averaged on 5 random runs for each model). $s_1 =$ Long, and $s_2 =$ Question. The lift is the averaged relative improvement across slices over baseline. The largest improvement is in **bold** and second largest lift number is in *underline* (same to Table 3).

train/val/test with 7200/878/1000 samples. As in (Chen et al., 2019), we ensure the sample proportion in ground-truth are consistent across splits. We use F1-score and Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) (Matthews, 1975) as our metrics. The NLU dataset (Liu et al., 2019) for intent detection contains 25k user utterances across 64 intents. We randomly split it into train/val/test with ratio 0.7:0.1:0.2. We use the accuracy and F1-score as our metrics.

**Compared Methods.** We implemented and compared the following methods:

- **Baseline:** A three-layer feed-forward network.
- **SBL:** Slice-based learning (Chen et al., 2019).
- **SBL-MoA:** Our approach that extends SBL with a mixture of attentions (MoA).

For SBL-MoA, we developed multiple variants with Gumbel-Softmax. SBL-MoA-S (SBL-MoA-H) are the variant models with soft (hard) sampling from a Gumbel-Softmax distributions. We also tested the way that membership attention and dot-product interact with each other with ⊕ (element-wise addition) and ⊗ (element-wise multiplication).

**Implementation Details.** BERT-base (Devlin et al., 2019) in sentence-transformer (Thakur et al., 2020) is used as the backbone model. We use 128 hidden units for all models, which are implemented with Pytorch (Paszke et al., 2019). A dropout (p=0.5) is applied after input layer. The models are trained with Adam (0.001) (Kingma and Ba, 2014), with weight decay of 0.01 and 0.001 for the two tasks, respectively. All models are trained with a maximum of 500 epochs with early stopping (patience=50). The best models are selected based on model performance on the validation sets. The temperature $\tau = 1.0$ is fixed in all the experiments.

4.2 Results on Linguistic Acceptability

Table 2 presents the results on CoLA. First, slice-based models (i.e., SBL, SBL-MoA, and its variants) show that they can maintain (or improve) the original overall performance. Second, we observe that they achieve obvious performance lift on the monitored slices. For instance, SBL achieves an average 9% F1 score over the baseline. The proposed method (SBL-MoA, ⊗) achieves an average of 9% and maximum 12% lift. For MCC, the best performer is SBL-MoA-H, which achieves an average $\geq$7% and maximum 10% as compared to the baseline.

As the data size is relatively small, we use strong dropout regularization to prevent overfitting.
Table 3: The results on intent detection. Accuracy and F1 scores are reported. $s_1$=Length, $s_2$=Time, $s_3$=Email are the slices that we monitor and aim to improve. The experts’ confidence scores are not used as discussed in Sec.3.

SBL has been recently used in many applications. Penha et al. (Penha and Hauff, 2020) proposed to adapt SBL to improve ranking performance and capture the failures of the ranker model. Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2021) recently implemented SBL in a commercial conversational AI system in order to handle the long-tail problem of imbalanced distribution in customer queries and further improved the performance of the conversational skill routing components (Li et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2018b,a).

Our proposed mixture of attention (MoA) is an instance of multi-head attention (Vaswani et al., 2017) but with different attention types. MoA can also be extended to include other attention types. We have shown the effectiveness of this mechanism in determining the slice distributions.

6 Conclusion
This paper extends SBL with MoA (SBL-MoA) to improve model performance on particular data slices. We empirically show that SBL-MoA yields better slice level performance lift to baseline and vanilla SBL with two NLU tasks: linguistic acceptability and intent detection.
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