Large Sequence Representation Learning via Multi-Stage Latent Transformers

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Abstract

We present LANTERN, a multi-stage transformer architecture for named-entity recognition (NER) designed to operate on indefinitely large text sequences (*i.e.* \gg 512 elements). For a given image of a form with structured text, our method uses language and spatial features to predict the entity tags of each text element. It breaks the quadratic computational constraints of the attention mechanism by operating over a learned latent space representation which encodes the input sequence via the cross-attention mechanism while having the multi-stage encoding component as a refinement over the NER predictions. As a proxy task, we propose RADAR, an LSTM classifier operating at character level, which predicts the relevance of a word with respect to the entityrecognition task. Additionally, we formulate a challenging novel NER use case, nutritional information extraction from food product labels. We created a dataset with 11, 926 images depicting food product labels entitled TREAT dataset, with fully detailed annotations. Our method achieves superior performance against two competitive models designed for long sequences on the proposed TREAT dataset.

I. Introduction. Information extraction from images and unstructured text plays a key role in natural language understanding (NLU) with direct impact in domains such as news content synthesis (Ozsoy et al., 2011; Moratanch and Chitrakala, 2017; Foong et al., 2015), query search (Choi et al., 2018) or knowledge-base systems (Agirre et al., 2018). The transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017) played a pivotal role in advancing the state-of-the art due to its robustness with respect to tasks related to sequential data manipulation and understanding. Its success relies mostly in the attention mechanism, considered as a key component for its versatility and its ability to self-specialize and filter the input information flow.

transformers, as it scales quadratically with respect to the size of the input sequence. To overcome this limitation, we propose a sequence parsing framework for textual information understanding allowing for indefinitely large input sequences, with focus on the NER task. Our method is entitled **LANTERN** (*i.e.* LArge sequeNce TransformER for NER). This is achieved via a multi-stage transformer approach over a latent space representation of the input sequence inspired from (Jaegle et al., 2021a) and adapted to NER. The key innovation we propose is a framework which analyses the entire sequence via a latent space attention-based modelling and leverages a multi-stage prediction setup.

II. Related Work. The transformer based architecture led to significant advances across major areas of NLU such as text classification (Lin et al., 2021), question answering (Choi et al., 2018), sequence to sequence translation (Rae et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2019) and sentiment analysis (Zhang et al., 2018).

Pretraining (Yang et al., 2019; Devlin et al., 2018; Brown et al., 2020) proved extremely useful for generic language understanding tasks. These are unsupervised learning models which produce a vocabulary representation of the unlabelled training corpus via a masked language modelling task. One such model is Bidirectional Encoder Representation from Transformers (BERT) (Devlin et al., 2018). Given the pretrained weights of the model obtained from a large unlabelled data corpus, it has proven quite impactful in terms of peak performance and versatility for different downstream linguistic tasks, such as question answering (Garg et al., 2020; Laskar et al., 2020), NER (Xu et al., 2020b,a; Li et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020; Hwang et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2022; Sandu et al., 2022) or sentence / document classification (Lin et al., 2021).

At the same time, the attention is a curse for

Most of these approaches are constrained by



Figure 1: (a) **TREAT labelling sample.** Visualizations of entity-based annotations containing nutrient information. First, the annotators look for the [PER100] keyword, followed by the identification of the key / value pair of the nutrients of interest. (b) Word cloud visualization of **TREAT words.** The vocabulary of interest is strongly related to ingredient and nutritional information word corpus. Some of the highest occurring words are measurements such as g or *kcal.* (c) **Stage-wise performance of LANTERN on TREAT dataset.** The performance improves across stage and batch dimensions, with a significant gap across the first stages.

				Carbohydrates		Energy		Proteins		Salt		Sugar		Total Fat		Saturated Fat	
Statistic	All	Other	Per 100	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value
Min / Max	4/2007	4/1916	0/24	0/44	0/11	0/22	0/17	0/26	0/10	0/20	0/10	0/31	0/10	0/49	0/19	0/14	0/7
Mean	488.63	458.69	2.01	1.36	1.00	1.36	1.92	1.18	1.00	0.98	0.81	2.12	0.93	1.33	1.03	2.11	0.64
Std.	165.8	162.24	1.94	2.12	0.82	1.8	1.68	1.6	0.8	1.5	0.8	3.26	0.75	2.23	0.98	4.86	0.79
Median	482	462	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0

Table 1: **TREAT Dataset Image-Level Statistics**. Per image statistics with the words corresponding to each unique entity from **TREAT**. The [OTHER] entity is dominant (*i.e.* it represents $\approx 85\%$ out of the total labelled data corpus) as the nutrient section of a food label usually occupies around 10% of the total space of the label. The mean / median statistics does not reflect directly the length of the sequence inputed to **LANTERN**. It is processed via a tokeniser (Kudo, 2018) and the resulted length is usually 2.5× longer.

the quadratic computational limitation of the attention mechanism (sequences of up to 512 elements), thus bounded to subcontext. Several approaches (Dai et al., 2019; Goyal et al., 2021; Beltagy et al., 2020; Zaheer et al., 2020; Ainslie et al., 2020) considered modelling the sequence as a whole from the prism of the attention mechanism, even for sequence lengths $\gg 512$.

In (Beltagy et al., 2020), the authors propose a sparse attention mechanism to analyse larger sequences of up to 4096 elements, while keeping the computational time of the attention matrix linear with respect to the input size. A similar setup is also proposed in (Zaheer et al., 2020) using an additional random iterative attention mechanism to parse the entire graph of the sequence. Different from these approaches, our proposed pipeline can process indefinitely large sequences and has a stage-wise refinement mechanism of the NER predictions.

III. Dataset. Additionally, we introduce a new language modelling problem setup from the umbrella of NER tasks, namely nutritional information extraction from images of food products. This was achieved by collecting a dataset of food product images, entitled **TREAT** (*i.e.* nu**TRiEnt** f**A**c**T**s) with 11,926 images depicting food products with fully

extracted text information, bounding box image localization and complete NER class label annotations with sequences of up to $\approx 2,000$ words (≈ 5000 tokens) to be parsed. Labelling was performed using a web interface highlighting words. Annotators had to individually assign classes to words of interest. The proposed NER use-case is formulated on a linguistically diverse dataset in terms of semantics and specialisation. The collected data covers multiple European languages (EN, FR, DE, ES, IT, etc.) containing the nutritional information expressed with different languages within the same input text sequence. We further explore the specialisation in the compliance domain, learning to reason within the vocabulary of text content from food product labels. They must contain information related, but not limited, to ingredients, storage instructions, manufacturer addresses, nutritional information, allergen statements, advertising and production process details. Every piece of information can be found in standalone paragraphs, lists or table structures. The general layout is rich in both structure and visual cues. In terms of textual information, the collected data has both semantic text with full paragraphs or text structures (e.g. instructions, tables, lists or advertisement sections) and independent sentences



Figure 2: **Detailed overview of our proposed large-sequence parsing model.** Given an image I, we first extract all the words using a state-of-the-art algorithm, obtaining the complete list of words X. Next, X is filtered using **RADAR** thus obtaining the most relevant words with respect to our entity recognition task, $X_{filtered}$. The filtered list is embedded into a language and positional representation, E, of the remaining words. Lastly, E goes through **LANTERN** to generate predictions \tilde{Y} .

				Carbo	hydrates	En	ergy	Pro	teins	Salt		Sugar		Total Fat		Saturated Fat	
Model	All	Other	Per 100	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value	Key	Value
(Beltagy et al., 2020)	0.74	0.96	0.78	0.78	0.71	0.80	0.70	0.78	0.71	0.74	0.68	0.78	0.73	0.75	0.72	0.67	0.52
(Zaheer et al., 2020)	0.76	0.96	0.79	0.77	0.74	0.83	0.69	0.78	0.78	0.79	0.77	0.80	0.77	0.79	0.74	0.64	0.53
(Xu et al., 2020b)	0.61	0.96	0.86	0.59	0.55	0.69	0.67	0.45	0.41	0.41	0.4	0.55	0.53	0.51	0.50	0.48	0.44
Ours	0.86	0.97	0.83	0.94	0.82	0.94	0.87	0.93	0.77	0.91	0.79	0.94	0.76	0.89	0.76	0.87	0.78

Table 2: **TREAT Test Set - Word Level Results**. The LayoutLM baseline failed to provide quality results as its context window was limited to 512 elements. Approaches of (Beltagy et al., 2020) and (Zaheer et al., 2020) obtain superior results as they are able to handle larger sequences (*i.e.* 2048). The highest F1-score is obtained with **LANTERN** as it is able to grasp the entire textual context of the product content.

such as titles, individual statements or website references. As illustrated in figure 1 (b), the downloaded images contain a high variability in terms of vocabulary corpus, mainly related to ingredient or nutritional aspects. Check figure 1 (a) for a labelling sample and table 1 for dataset statistics. Additionally, we perform an analysis from a linguistic point of view and notice the following distribution of dominant languages: 40% english, 11% spanish, 11% italian, 10% german and 8% french. The rest of 20% are data samples with mixed or other languages, unable to determine the dominant one.

We build a vocabulary with 15,000 unique tokens using (Kudo, 2018). Up to 24% of the resulted tokens are made of 5 characters, while tokens with different sizes occupy a relatively uniform space (*e.g.* 13% tokens are 7 characters long, 10% tokens are 6 characters long and tokens with 2 or 3 characters take 8% of the vocabulary space).

IV. Methodology. Let $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w}$ denote an image containing a list $\mathbf{X} = (x_1 \dots x_{M_{\mathbf{I}}})$ of

 $M_{\mathbf{I}}$ words, with $x_i = (w_i, c_i)$ where w_i is the OCR (AWS-Textract, 2019) extracted word and $c_i \in [0, 1]^4$ represents the bounding box coordinates relative to dimensions of \mathbf{I} . Additionally, let $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1 \dots y_{M_I})$ denote the class labels for each word w_i in \mathbf{X} .

Given the high inflation of [OTHER] inside **TREAT** (see table 1) we constructed **RADAR** (**R**elevAnt wor**D** clAssifie**R**) using a bidirectional LSTM model (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) at character level to predict if the word is relevant or irrelevant ([OTHER]). Thus, we have $\mathbf{X}_{filtered} = \{x_i \mid \mathbf{RADAR}(x_i) > \alpha, i = 1 \dots M_{\mathbf{I}}\}$ where α is validated to obtain a recall of 1 for relevant words. To simplify notation, we identify $\mathbf{X}_{filtered}$ with \mathbf{X} .

The language based embeddings for w_i are supplemented with positional encodings (Vaswani et al., 2017). Thus, we obtain the embedding representation $\mathbf{E} = (e_1 \dots e_{M_{\mathbf{I}}})$ of \mathbf{X} where $e_i = (e_{i1}^w \dots e_{id_w}^w, e_{i1}^x \dots e_{id_x}^x, e_{i1}^y \dots e_{id_y}^y)$.

This leads to an input sequence $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times d}$, where $d = d_w + d_x + d_y$. The dimensions d_w , d_x and d_y denote language embedding sizes while x and y denote positional variables with respect to image width and height, respectively. Additionally, a latent block representation denoted with $\mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ ($N \ll M$) is learned. The intuition behind the latent block is to learn a projection of the most relevant information with respect to the NER task.

The LANTERN module is applied in a stagewise manner. Each stage receives as input the embedded input sequence, E, and a latent block, $\mathbf{L}^t \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, and it predicts an array, $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}^t}$. In the following, we will describe the computational stages $t \in \{0 \dots T\}$. For t = 0, we have $\mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$.

STAGE t=0: we start by applying a crossattention mechanism $\Theta : \mathbb{R}^{M \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, over E and \mathbf{L}^{INIT} . Functions $k(\cdot), q(\cdot)$ and $v(\cdot)$ represent the keys, queries and values, respectively.

$$\Theta(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}) = softmax(\frac{q(\mathbf{L})k(\mathbf{E})^{\top}}{\sqrt{d}})v(\mathbf{E}) \quad (1)$$

This will basically result in a projection of the input sequence **E** to the latent space $\mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ through \mathbf{L}^{INIT} . We will denote the resulted projected latent block with $\mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{\texttt{INIT}} = \Theta(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}^{\texttt{INIT}}).$

Next, $\mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{\text{INIT}}$ is passed through a transformer encoder, $\Gamma : \mathbb{R}^{N \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$, to learn an implicit statistic between the elements of the latent block elements. The initial latent block information is added as a residual information on the resulting encoded information from Γ , thus having

$$\mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}} = \Gamma(\mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{\text{INIT}}) + \mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}}$$
(2)

Lastly, we apply a reversed cross-attention mechanism, $\Theta_{\text{REV}} : \mathbb{R}^{N \times d} \to \mathbb{R}^{M \times d}$ over the input sequence E and the latent block $\mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}}$ processed through transformer Γ .

$$\Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}) = softmax(\frac{q(\mathbf{E})k(\mathbf{L})^{\top}}{\sqrt{d}})v(\mathbf{L}) \quad (3)$$

The reversed cross-attention operation provides a reprojection of the transformed latent block information $\mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}}$ to the input space, $\mathbb{R}^{M \times d}$. Thus, the resulted information from the reversed crossattention will be, $\mathbf{L}_{\Theta_{REV}}^{\text{INIT}} = \Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}})$. $\mathbf{L}_{\Theta_{REV}}^{\text{INIT}}$ is next passed through a feed-forward net-

work, $\Psi(\cdot)$, which provides the class predictions for

the sequence's entities, $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t=0}$ (*i.e.* t = 0 denotes the first stage), and it is being optimized using a cross-entropy loss function.

STAGE t>0: This process is repeated for several iterations, in a multi-stage setup. For the next stages (*i.e.* stage $0 < t \le T$), the latent sequence \mathbf{L}^{t} is initialized with the latent block information obtained from equation 2 of stage t - 1.

$$\mathbf{L}^{t} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}}, & \text{if } t = 1\\ \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{t-1}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The prediction of stage t - 1 of the NER task, $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t-1}$, is fed to the feed-forward module of the current stage, t, as a weight factor. Also, $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t-1}$, is used as a weight to the attention-matrix computed at the current stage, t, obtained via a projection function $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^{M \times d_{target}} \to \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ where d_{target} is the total number of entities to be predicted

$$\Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{A}) = softmax(\frac{q(\mathbf{E})k(\mathbf{L})^{\top}}{\sqrt{d}} \odot \mathbf{A})v(\mathbf{L})$$

where $\odot(\cdot)$: $\mathbb{R}^{M \times N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ represent the Hadamard product and $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ is a weight matrix. Thus, the reprojected latent block information from stage t becomes, $\mathbf{L}_{\Theta_{\text{REV}}}^t$ = $\Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{t}, \Phi(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t-1}))).$

At each stage, a cross-entropy loss is applied over the output of Ψ : $\mathbb{R}^{M \times d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{M \times d_{target}}$, which are cumulated until the final stage T, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{NER}} =$ $\sum_{t=0}^{T} \mathcal{L}_{\text{NER}}^t(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^t, \mathbf{Y}).$

Given an input image I and a learned latent block L, the framework outputs an array Y with class predictions for all the relevant words identified within image I. A step-by-step breakdown of our pipeline is illustrated in figure 2 and in algorithm 1.

V. Experiments. We conduct experiments on our proposed dataset TREAT. Prior to applying LANTERN, we filtered a part of the irelevant word corpus (i.e. [OTHER]) using RADAR. The accuracy of **RADAR** is 85% and we filtered 48% of the irrelevant words. The reason behind filtering such a low quantity of [OTHER] with respect to the obtained accuracy is because the majority of the word corpus from TREAT represents numerical values (e.g. 100g, 30ml) which we marked with [NUM]. These words ([NUM]) cannot be filtered without leveraging their positional context as they can be linked with nutrient keys. Thus, we decided to introduce them as such inside LANTERN without



Figure 3: **Multi-stage Qualitative Results obtained with LANTERN on TREAT Test Set.** We show the progressive improvement of the generated entities achieved via the multi-stage component of LANTERN. The refinement is clearly visible from stage to stage, as the model turns its attention towards the words describing the nutrients of interest.

RADAR filtration. In table 2 we report the wordlevel precision, recall and F1-score. We use a total of 6 stages with a total embedding size of d = 64, where d_w , d_x and d_y are set to the values of 32, 16 and 16, respectively. The dimension N of latent block L is 256. Our method is able to achieve superior results compated to similar NER frameworks (Xu et al., 2020b), (Beltagy et al., 2020) and (Zaheer et al., 2020), some of them being designed for long sequences. For a fair evaluation, we compare against other competitive NER baselines using text and position embeddings only.

Algorithm 1 LANTERN

Input: $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w}$, $\mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ **Output:** $\tilde{Y} = (\tilde{y_1} \dots \tilde{y_M})$ 1 $\mathbf{X} \leftarrow \text{OCR}(\mathbf{I})$ 2 $\mathbf{X}_{filtered} \leftarrow \mathbf{RADAR}(\mathbf{X})$ $\mathbf{s} \in Embed(\mathbf{X}_{filtered})$ $\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{L}}^{\text{INIT}} \leftarrow \Theta(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}})$ $\mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}} \leftarrow \Gamma(\mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{\text{INIT}}) + \mathbf{L}^{\text{INIT}}$ 6 $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^0 \leftarrow \Psi(\Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}}))$ 7 for t = 1 ... T do if t = 1 then 8 $\left| \mathbf{L}^{t} \leftarrow \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{\text{INIT}} \right|$ 9 else 10 $\mathbf{L}^t \leftarrow \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{t-1}$ 11
$$\begin{split} \mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{\mathbf{L}} &\leftarrow \Theta(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}^{t}) \\ \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{t} &\leftarrow \Gamma(\mathbf{L}_{\Theta}^{t}) + \mathbf{L}^{t} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t} &\leftarrow \Psi(\Theta_{\text{REV}}(\mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L}_{\Gamma}^{t}, \Phi(\tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^{t-1}))) \end{split}$$
12 13 14 15 $\tilde{\mathbf{Y}} \leftarrow \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}^T$

In figure 3 we showcase multi-stage predictions, thus highlighting the refinement aspect of our framework on a practical example.

Method	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
LANTERN w/o RADAR	0.83	0.80	0.81
LANTERN w RADAR	0.84	0.87	0.86
LANTERN w/o weight sharing	0.83	0.80	0.81
LANTERN w weight sharing	0.82	0.82	0.82
LANTERN w Language	0.39	0.42	0.40
LANTERN w Language + Positional	0.83	0.80	0.81

Table 3: Ablation study on various components of LANTERN over TREAT dataset. The highest impact in terms of performance is obtained with the RADAR based filtration of [OTHER]. Parameter weight sharing across all the stages also impacts positively the performance and it helps the model to convergence faster.

In table 3 we analyse the impact of the various model components and embedding types used by our model, thus validating the architectural innovative aspects of our method. In figure 1 (c) we show the impact of the multi-stage component. The refinement aspect of the method is visible between consecutive stages leading to significant improvement between the first and last stages.

VI. Conclusions. We propose a novel method for NER, specifically designed for indefinitely large sequences. It leverages a multi-stage transformer-based pipeline which breaks the quadratic computational constraints of the attention mechanism by projecting the input sequence to a latent space representation and a stage-wise setup which acts as a context refinement of the entity predictions. The methodology was evaluated on a novel and difficult NER use case, nutritional information extraction, proving superior results over other strong baselines specifically designed for long sequence parsing.

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