

Necktie - A Profound LEARNING FEEDFORWARD NEURAL System FOR Opinion Investigation

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Necktie - A Profound LEARNING FEEDFORWARD NEURAL System FOR Opinion Investigation

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Abstract

The most effective method to demonstrate and encode the semantics of human-composed content and choose the kind of neural system to process it are not settled issues in conclusion investigation. Exactness and transferability are basic issues in AI as a rule. These properties are firmly identified with the misfortune gauges for the prepared model. I present a computationally-effective and precise feedforward neural system for slant expectation equipped for keeping up low misfortunes. At the point when combined with a viable semantics model of the content, it furnishes exceptionally exact models with low misfortunes. Trial results on delegate benchmark datasets and correlations with different strategies show the upsides of the new methodology.

Keywords: machine learning, deep learning, artificial intelligence, neural network.

Introduction: When approaching the problem of applying deep learning to sentiment analysis one faces at least five classes of issues to resolve. First, what is the best way to encode the semantics in natural language text so that the resulting digital representation captures well the semantics in their entirety and in a way that can be processed reliably and efficiently by a neural network and result in a highly accurate model? This is a critically important question in machine learning because it directly impacts the viability of the chosen approach. There are multiple ways to encode sentences or text using neural networks, ranging from a simple encoding based on treating words as atomic units represented by their rank in a vocabulary [3], to using word embedding or distributed representation of words [13], to using sentence embedding. Each of these encoding types have different complexity and rate of success when applied to a variety of tasks. The simple encoding method offers simplicity and robustness. The usefulness of word embedding has been established in several application domains, but it is still an open question how much better it is than simple encoding in capturing the entire semantics of the text in natural language processing (NLP) to provide higher prediction accuracy in sentiment analysis. Although intuitively one may think that because word embedding do capture some of the semantics contained in the text this should help, the available empirical test evidence is inconclusive. Attempts to utilize sentence embedding have been even less successful [4].

Second, given an encoding, what kind of neural network should be used? Some specific areas of applications of machine learning have an established leading network type. For example, convolutional neural networks are preferred in computer vision. However, because of the several different types of word and sentence encoding in natural language processing (NLP), there are multiple choices for neural network architectures, ranging from feedforward to convolutional and recurrent neural networks.

Third, what dataset should be used for training? In all cases the size of the training dataset is very important for the quality of training but the way the dataset is constructed and the amount of meta-data it includes also play a role. For example, the Keras IMDB Movie reviews Dataset [10] (KID) for sentiment classification contains human-written movie reviews. A larger dataset of similar type is the Stanford Large Movie Review Dataset (SLMRD) [1]. I consider KID and SLMRD in detail in Sections 1.3 and 1.4. Generally, simpler encodings and models trained on large amounts of data tend to outperform complex systems trained on smaller datasets [13]. Fourth, what kind of training procedure should be employed - supervised or unsupervised? Traditionally, NLP systems are trained on large unsupervised corpora and then applied on new data. However, researchers have been able to leverage the advantages of supervised learning and transfer trained models to new data by retaining the transfer accuracy [4].

Fifth, when training a model for transfer to other datasets, what are the model characterizing features guarantee that maintaining high/comparable transfer accuracy on the new dataset? Certainly, training and validation accuracy are important but so are the training and validation losses. Some researchers argue that the gradient descent method has an implicit bias that is not yet fully understood, especially in cases where there are multiple solutions that properly classify a given dataset [14]. Thus, it is important to have a neural network with low loss estimates for a trained model to hope for a good and reliable transfer accuracy.

The primary goal of this paper is to shed light on how to address these issues in practice. To do this, I introduce a new feedforward neural network for sentiment analysis and draw on the experiences from using it with two different types of word encoding: a simple one based on the word ranking in the dataset vocabulary; the other judiciously enhanced with meta-data related to word polarity. The main contribution of this paper is the design of the BowTie neural network in Section 2.

1 Data encoding and datasets: As discussed above, there are many different types of encodings of text with different complexity and degree of effectiveness. Since there is no convincing positive correlation established in the literature between complexity of the encoding and higher prediction accuracy, it is important to investigate the extent to which simple data encodings can be used for sentiment analysis. Simpler encodings have been shown to be robust and efficient [3]. But can they provide high prediction accuracy in sentiment analysis?

I investigate this open question by evaluating the accuracy one may attain using two types of text encoding on representative benchmark datasets.



Figure 1. A multi-hot en- coded text in D, Π_D with M = 88587.

Let π be a linguistic type (e.g. morpheme, word) and let Π_D be the set of all such linguistic types in a dataset D. Let $M = |\Pi_D|$ be the cardinality of Π_D . Let ψ be a linguistic text type (e.g., a movie review) and let Ψ_D be the set of all texts in D. Let $N = |\Psi_D|$ be the cardinality of Ψ_D . Let ΠD and ΨD be finite sets such that the elements in each set are enumerated by $\{0, ..., M\}$ and $\{0, ..., N\}$ respectively. Let T ^{NxM} be a tensor of real numbers of dimensions N by M , whose elements are set as follows:

$$\{\tau_{jk}\} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \pi_k \in \psi_j; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(1)

The multi-hot encoding (1) represents a very simple model of the semantics in ψ , $\forall \psi \in \Psi_D$. An example of a multi-hot encoded text is shown in Figure 1.

1.2 Polarity-weighted multi-hot encoding The second encoding I consider is similar to the multi-hot encoding in the sense it has the same non-zero elements but their values are weighted by the cumulative effect of the polarity of each word present in a given text π , as computed by [19]. Let $c_{\pi,\Psi}$ be the number of tokens of the linguistic type π in a text Ψ . Let ξ_{π} be the polarity rating of the token $\pi \in \Pi_D$. Naturally, I assume that if Ξ_D is the set of all polarity ratings for tokens $\pi \in \Pi_D$, then $|\Xi_D| = |\Pi_D|$. Let $\omega_{\zeta\pi\Psi} = \zeta_{\pi} * c_{\pi,\Psi}$ be the cumulative polarity of π in the text Ψ . Let $\Omega_D = \{\omega_i\}_{i=0}$ and $C_D = \{c_i\}_{i=0}$. Let Θ^{NxM} be a tensor of real numbers of dimensions N by M, whose elements are set as follows:



Figure 2. A polarity- weighted multi-hot encoded text in D, Π_D with M = 89527

The polarity-weighted multi-hot encoding (2) represents a more comprehensive model of the semantics in ψ , $\forall \psi \in \Psi D$, that captures more information about ψ . I will attempt to investigate if and how much this additional information helps to improve the sentiment predictions in Section 3. An example of a polarity-weighted multi-hot encoded text is shown in Figure 2.

1.3 The Keras IMDB Dataset (KID) The KID [10] contains 50 000 human-written movie reviews that are split in equal subsets of 25 000 for training and testing and further into equal categories labelled as positive or negative. For convenience, the reviews have been preprocessed and each review is encoded as a sequence of integers, representing the ranking of the corresponding word in ΠD with $|\Pi D| = 88587$. As such, it can be easily encoded by the multi-hot encoding (1).

1.4 The Stanford Large Movie Review Dataset (SLMRD) SLMRD contains 50 000 movie reviews, 25 000 of them for training and the rest for testing. The dataset comes also with a processed bag of words and a word polarity index [1, 12]. SLMRD contains also 50 000 unlabeled reviews intended for unsupervised learning. It comes with Π_D , polarity ratings Ω_D , and word counts C_D with $|\Omega_D| = |C_D| = |\Pi_D|$ = 89 527.

2. The BowTie2 feedforward neural network: As discussed above, the ability of the network to provide accurate predictions and maintain low losses is very important for allowing it to transfer to other datasets and

maintain the same or higher prediction accuracy as on the training dataset. I now introduce a feedforward neural network with that criteria in mind. By way of background [5], logistic regression computes the probability of a binary output y_i given an input x_i as follows:

$$P(\hat{\mathbf{y}}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{Ber}[\hat{y}_{i}|\mathbf{sigm}(x_{i}\mathbf{w})], \quad (3)$$

where Ber[] is the Bernouli distribution, sigm() is the sigmoid function, w is a vector of weights. The cost function to minimize is $C(w) = -\log P(y_i)X, w$. This method is particularly suitable for sentiment prediction. One critical observation is that logistic regression can be seen as a special case of the generalized linear model. Hence, it is analogous to linear regression. In matrix form, linear regression can be written as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{E}, \qquad (4)$$

where y° is a vector of predicted values y° i that the model predicts for y, X is a matrix of row vectors xi called regressors, w are the regression weights, and E is an error that captures all factors that may influence y° other than the regressors X. The gradient descent algorithm used for solving such problems [5] may be written as

$$\mathbf{w}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(k)} - \rho^{(k)} \mathbf{g}^{(k)} + \mathbf{E}^{(k)},$$
 (5)

where g(k) is the gradient of the cost function C(w), $\rho(k)$ is the learning rate or step size, and E(k) is the error at step k of the iterative process. One error-introducing factor in particular is the numerical model itself and the errors generated and propagated by the gradient descent iterations with poorly conditioned matrices run on a computer with limited-precision floating-point numbers. Even if regularization

is used, the parameters them in the



the L2-term weight or the dropout rate) may not be optimal in practice thus leading to potentially higher numerical error. This is why it is important to look for numerical techniques that can reduce the numerical error effectively. This observation inspires searching for techniques similar to multigrid from numerical analysis that are very effective at reducing the numerical error [2]. Figure 3. The classic bow tie. The bow tie originated among Croatian mercenaries during the Thirty Years' War of the 17th century. It was soon adopted by the upper classes in France, then a leader in fashion, and flourished in the 18th and 19th centuries. (Wikipedia)

The neural network design:



Figure 4. The BowTie neural network. The estimated probability P $(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w^{(i)})$ may be fed into a post-processing discriminator component to assign a category (pos/neg) for the input $x^{(i)}$ with respect to a discriminator value $\delta \in [0, 1]$. All experiments presented in this paper use $\delta = 0.5$.

The feedforward neural network in Figure 4 consists of one encoding layer, a cascade of dense linear layers with L2-regularizers and of appropriate output size followed by a dropout regularized and a sigmoid. The encoder takes care of encoding the input data for processing by the neural network. In this paper I experiment with the two encodings defined in Section 1: the simple multi-hot encoding and the polarity-weighted multi-hot encoding.

The sigmoid produces the estimated output probability P ($y^{(i)}|x(i), w(i)$), which may be used to compute the negative log-loss or binary cross-entropy as

$$-\mathbf{y}\log(P(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)},\mathbf{w}^{(i)})) + (1-\mathbf{y})\log(1-P(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)},\mathbf{w}^{(i)}))$$
(6)

The binary cross-entropy provides a measure for quality and robustness of the computed model. If the model predicts correct results with higher probability, then the binary-cross entropy tends to be lower. If however the model predicts correct results with probability close to the discriminator value or predicts an incorrect category, the binary cross-entropy tends to be high. Naturally, it is desirable to have models that confidently predict correct results. It is also important to have models that maintain low binary cross-entropy for many training epochs because, depending on the training dataset, the iterative process (5) may need several steps to reach a desired validation accuracy. Models that auickly accumulate high cross-entropy estimates tend to over fit the training data and

do poorly on the validation data and on new datasets.

Hyper parameters: There are several hyper parameters that influence the behaviour of BowTie, see Table 1. For optimal performance the choice of the dense layer activation should be coordinated with the choice for the L_2 regularization weight. This recommendation is based on the computational experience with BowTie and is in line with the findings in [8] about the impact of the activation layer on the training of neural networks in general. The linear network (no dense layer activation) runs better with

Table 1. BowTie hyper parameters.

L₂-regularization weight close to 0.02 but rectified linear unit (RELU) activation runs better with L2-regularization weight close to 0.01. The network can tolerate a range of dropout rates but a dropout rate of 0.2 is commonly recommended in the literature and works well here too. The choice of the optimizer can affect the learning rate, the highest accuracy attained and the stability over several epochs. BowTie performs well with adaptive momentum (ADAM), Nesterov adaptive momentum (NADAM) and Root Mean Square Propagation (RMSPRop), no dense layer activation, L2-regularization set

Hyper parameters		
name	values/range	
L2-regularization weight	0.01 - 0.02	
Dropout rate	0.2 - 0.5	
Optimizer	NADAM, ADAM, or	
Dense Laver Activation	None (Linear network) RELU	

Dense Layer Activation None (Linear network), RELU to 0.019 (this value resulting from hyper parameter optimization) and a dropout rate of 0.2. It is interesting to note that RMSProp tends to converge faster to a solution and sometimes with a higher validation accuracy than NADAM but the transfer accuracy of the models computed with NADAM tends to be higher than for models computed with RMSPRop. For example, a model trained on SLMRD with validation accuracy of 89.24%, higher than any of the data in Table 4 below, yielded 91.04 % transfer accuracy over KID, which is lower than the results in Table 4. This experimental finding is consistent over many tests with the two optimizers and needs further investigation in future research to explore the theoretical basis for it.

3. Training and transfer scenarios: This section defines the objectives for the testing of the BowTie neural network shown in Figure 4 in terms of four training and transfer scenarios. But first it is important to decide on the type of training to employ - supervised or unsupervised. I embark on supervised training based on the findings in [4] about the advantages of supervised training and the availability of corpora of large labeled benchmark datasets [10] and [1]. These are the scenarios to explore:

• Scenario 1 (Train and validate): Explore the accuracy and robustness of the BowTie neural network with the simple multi-hot encoding by training and validating on KID.

• Scenario 2 (Train and validate): Explore the accuracy and robustness of the BowTie neural network with the simple multi-hot encoding by training and validating on SLMRD.

• Scenario 3 (Train and validate): Explore the accuracy and robustness of the BowTie neural network with the polarity-weighted multi-hot encoding by training and validating on SLMRD.

• Scenario 4 (Train, validate, and transfer): Explore the transfer accuracy of the BowTie neural network with polarity-weighted multihot encoding by training on SLMRD and predicting on KID.

The primary goal of this exploration is to establish some baseline ratings of the properties of the BowTie neural network with the different encodings and compare against similar results for other neural networks with other types of encoding. This provides a quantitative criteria for comparative judging.

Results In this section I report the results from executing Scenarios 1-4 from Section 3 using Tensor Flow [6], version 1.12, on a 2017 MacBook Pro with 3.1 GHz Intel Core i7 and 16 GB RAM without Graphics Processing Unit (GPU) acceleration. The test code is written in Python 3 and executes under a Docker image [7] configured with 10 GB of RAM and 4 GB swap.

Scenario 1. In this test, the BowTow neural network is tested with encoding 1. The results in Table 2 show high accuracy and low binary cross-entropy estimates.

Table 2. Scenario 1 results: Data from experiments with training a model on KID until it attains some validation accuracy greater than 88 %. Note that each time the data is loaded for training, it is shuffled randomly, hence the small variation in computational results.

То assess the relative computational efficiency of the BowTie neural network, I compared it to the convolutional neural network in [11] with a 10 000 word dictionary. The network reached accuracy of 88.92 % at Epoch 4 with binary cross entropy However, it took of 0.2682. 91 seconds/Epoch, which matched the numbers reported by the authors for the CPU-only computational platform. In addition, after Epoch 4, the binary cross-entropy started to increase steadily while the accuracy started to decline. For example, the binary crossentropy reached 0.4325 at Epoch 10 with validation accuracy of 87.76 % and 0.5536

Training and validating on KID		
Validation accuracy (%)	validation binary	
88.08	0.2955	
88.18	0.2887	
88.21	0.2945	

and 87.40 % correspondingly at Epoch 15.

In comparison, BowTie took only 3 seconds/Epoch for the same dictionary size and attained accuracy of 88.20% with binary cross-entropy of 0.2898. The binary cross-entropy stays stable below 0.38 for a number of Epochs. In other words, BowTie is 30-times faster, attains comparable accuracy and maintains stable binary-cross entropy.

Scenario 2: SLMRD is more challenging than KID for reasons that are visible in the test results for Scenarios 3 and 4, hence the slightly lower validation accuracy attained by BowTie using the simple encoding 1 - it easily



meets or exceeds the threshold accuracy of 87.95 % but could not surpass the 88 % limit in several experiments.

Table 3. Scenario 2 results. Data from experiments with training a model on KID until it attains some validation accuracy was equal to or greater than 87.95 %. Note that each time the data is loaded for training, it is shuffled randomly, hence the small variation in computational results.

Training and validating on SLMRD		
Validation accuracy (%)	validation binary cross- entropy	
87.98	0.2959	
87.95	0.2996	
87.96	0.3001	

Scenarios 3 and 4: I combine the reporting for Scenarios 3 and 4 because once the model is trained under Scenario 3 it is then transferred to compute predictions on KID. To perform the transfer testing on KID one needs to reconcile the difference in $|\Pi_{SLMRD}|$ and $|\Pi_{KID}|$. As I noted in Section 1, $|\Pi_{SLMRD}| = 89527$ and $|\Pi_{KID}| = 88587$. Moreover, Π_{KID} , $\subset \Pi_{SLMRD}$.

Let $\Pi_{\Delta} = \Pi_{\text{KID}} \setminus (\Pi_{\text{KID}} \cap \Pi_{\text{SLMRD}}$). It turns out that

$$\Pi_{\Delta} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 0s, 1990s, 5, 18th, 80s, 90s, 2006, 2008, \\ 85, 86, 0, 5, 10, tri, 25, 4, 40s, 70s, 1975, \\ 1981, 1984, 1995, 2007, dah, walmington, \\ 19, 40s, 12, 1938, 1998, 2, 1940's, 3, 000, 15, 50. \end{array} \right\}.$$

Clearly, $|\Pi_{\Delta}|$ is small and of the words in Π_{Δ} , only 'walmington' looks like a plausible English word but it is the name of a fictional town in a British TV series from the 1970's. As such it has no computable polarity index and is semantically negligible.

Based on this, I dropped all these words during the mapping of $\pi \in \Pi_{\Delta}$ into the corresponding $\pi \in \Pi_{SLRMD}$. Note that this $\pi \to \pi$ / mapping enables the encoding of the semantics of the texts in KID according to 2.

Some simple but revealing statistics about the data: With encoding 2, the matrix TSLMRD for the training set in SLMRD shows cumulative polarity in the range [-50.072 837, 58.753 546] and the cumulative polarity of the elements of the matrix

TSLMRD for the test set is in the range [-48.960 107, 63.346 164]. This suggests that SLMRD is pretty neutral and an excellent dataset for training models. In contrast, the elements of the matrix TKID are in the range [-49.500 000, 197.842 862].

Table 4. Scenarios 3 and 4 results: Data from experiments with training a model on SLMRD until it attains some validation accuracy greater than 89 % and then using that same model to predict the category for each labelled review in KID. Note that the transfer accuracy is computed over the entire set of 50 000 reviews in KID.

Training on SLMRD		Predicting on KID
Validation	Validation binary	Prediction transfer
accuracy (%)	cross-entropy	accuracy (%)
89.02	0.2791	91.56
89.12	0.2815	91.63
89.17	0.2772	91.76

Table 4 contains the results from executing Scenarios 3 and 4. The validation and transfer accuracy results in Table 4 are better than those shown in Tables 2 and 3. This shows the value word polarity brings in capturing the semantics of the text. The transfer accuracy over KID is also higher than the results obtained by using the convolutional neural network [11] on KID.

The results in Table4 are higher than the results reported for sentiment prediction of movie reviews in [4] but also in agreement with the reported experience by these authors of consistently improved accuracy from supervised learning on a large representative corpus before transferring the model for prediction to a corpus of interest.

Note also that the validation accuracy results for the BowTie neural network on SLMRD are substantially higher than the results for the same dataset in [12]. The observation in [12] that even small percentage improvements result in a significant number of correctly classified reviews applies to the data in Table 4: that is, there are between 172 and 210 more correctly classified reviews for BowTie. In addition, BowTie is computationally stable and retains low cross-entropy losses over a large number of epochs, see Figures 5 and 6, which is a desirable property. The speed of computation improves on platforms with GPU acceleration. For example, experiments on a system with eight Tesla V100-SXM2 GPUs yield speedups of nearly a factor of two in training but the acceleration plateaued if more than two GPUs were used. The computational speedup was better during prediction computations with a trained model: the time needed to calculate prediction for the entire set of 50 000 reviews reduced from 44 secs on one GPU to 31 secs on two GPUs, to 28 secs on four GPUs and to 26 secs on eight GPUs.



Figure 6. BowTie accuracy and cross-entropy results. The neural network keeps the cross-entropy estimate in check over the course of 100 epochs.

Discussion and next steps: The experimental results from sentiment prediction presented above show the great potential deep learning has to enable automation in areas previously considered impossible. At the same time, we witnessing troubling trends are of deterioration in cybersecurity that have permeated the business and home environments: people often cannot access the tools they need to work or lose the data that is important to them [20]. Traditionally, governments and industry groups have approached this problem by establishing security testing and validation programs whose purpose is to identify and eliminate security flaws in IT products before adopting them for use.

One area of specific concern in cybersecurity is cryptography. Society recognizes cryptography's fundamental role in protecting sensitive information from unauthorized disclosure or modification. The cybersecurity recommendations in [20] list relying on cryptography as a means of data protection as one of the top recommendations to the business community for the past several years. However, the validation programs to this day remain heavily based on human activities involving reading and assessing human-written documents in the form of technical essays - see Fig. 7 for an illustration of the structure of the Cryptographic Module Validation Program (CMVP) [18] established in 1995 to validate cryptographic modules against the security requirements in Federal Information Processing Standard (FIPS) Publication 140-2 [15].

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