Chapter 10

Sequence Modeling: Recurrent Neural Networks

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)

A family of neural networks specialized for processing sequential data

$$m{x}^{(1)}, m{x}^{(2)}, ..., m{x}^{(au)}$$

with hidden units $m{h}^{(t)}$ forming a dynamical system

$$m{h}^{(t)} = f_{m{ heta}}(m{h}^{(t-1)}, m{x}^{(t)})$$

• This recurrent relation, when unfolded, leads to

$$egin{aligned} m{h}^{(t)} &= f_{m{ heta}}(f_{m{ heta}}(m{h}^{(t-2)}, m{x}^{(t-1)}), m{x}^{(t)}) \ &= f_{m{ heta}}(f_{m{ heta}}(\dots f_{m{ heta}}(m{h}^{(0)}, m{x}^{(1)}), m{x}^{(2)}), \dots, m{x}^{(t-1)}), m{x}^{(t)}) \ &= g^{(t)}(m{x}^{(1)}, m{x}^{(2)}, \dots, m{x}^{(t)}) \end{aligned}$$

 $oldsymbol{\bullet}$ $oldsymbol{h}^{(t)}$ summarizes the past inputs up to t with a fixed length vector

- \bullet The RNN is to learn a single shared model $f_{\pmb{\theta}}$ instead of separate models $g^{(t)}$ at different time steps
- This enables generalization to any sequence length, and requires far fewer parameters
- ullet However, it also limits the model capacity; for example, the predicted relationship between the previous time step and a current time step is independent of t
- Note that it is possible for the dynamical system not to take any input

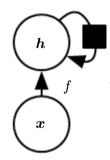
$$\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)}),$$

for example, in cases where the RNN serves as a generative model in unsupervised settings

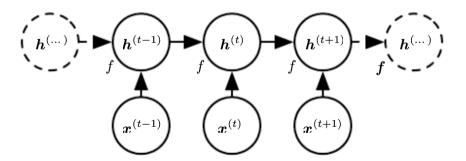
• Theoretically, when wired properly, the RNN is able to simulate procedures achievable by a Turing machine

Circuit Diagrams and Graph Unrolling

• **Circuit diagrams** – a succinct description of computations with nodes representing components that might exit in physical implementations

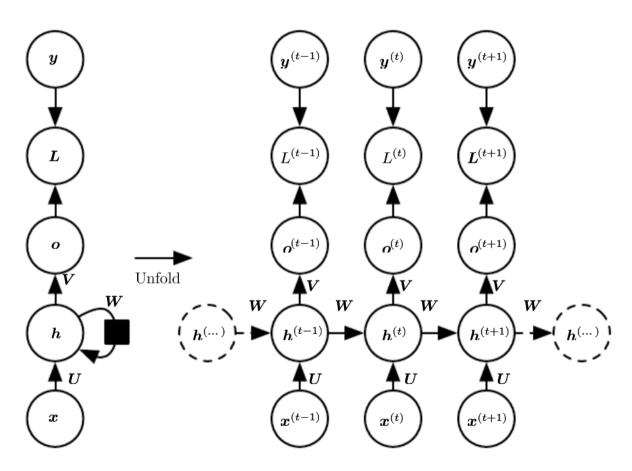


• **Unfolded computational graphs** – an explicit description of computations with nodes indicating variables at each time step



Design Pattern I

• An output at each time step with recurrent hidden unit connections



• Essentially, it implements a sequence-to-sequence mapping

$$m{x}^{(1)}, m{x}^{(2)}, \dots, m{x}^{(au)} o m{y}^{(1)}, m{y}^{(2)}, \dots, m{y}^{(au)}$$

• Forward propagation (with initial $h^{(0)}$)

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{a}^{(t)} &= oldsymbol{b} + oldsymbol{W} oldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)} + oldsymbol{U} oldsymbol{x}^{(t)}, \ oldsymbol{b}^{(t)} &= oldsymbol{c} + oldsymbol{V} oldsymbol{h}^{(t)}, \end{aligned}$$

where U, W, V correspond respectively to connections for

- Input-to-hidden units $(oldsymbol{U})$
- Hidden-to-hidden units $(oldsymbol{W})$
- Hidden-to-output units (V)

and b, c are biase

• Why use tanh instead of sigmoid for activation?

ullet When the target $m{y}^{(t)}$ is a discrete (multinoulli) variable, a softmax is applied to $m{o}^{(t)}$ to obtain

$$\hat{m{y}}^{(t)} = \operatorname{softmax}(m{o}^{(t)}),$$

• This $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(t)}$ serves as the model prediction for the empirical conditional probability of $\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)}$ given $\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(t)}$

$$p_{\mathsf{model}}(oldsymbol{y}^{(t)}|oldsymbol{x}^{(1)},oldsymbol{x}^{(2)},\ldots,oldsymbol{x}^{(t)}) = \prod_i \left(\hat{y}_i^{(t)}
ight)^{oldsymbol{1}(y_i^{(t)}=1)}$$

• During training, the total loss is the sum of losses over all time steps

$$L(\{\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(t)}\}, \{\boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(t)}\}) = \sum_{t} L^{(t)}$$

where the loss $L^{(t)}$ at time step t is given by

$$L^{(t)} = -\log p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)}|\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(t)})$$

• This network architecture corresponds to a conditional distribution $p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\tau)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)})$ that factorizes as

$$p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\tau)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)})$$

$$= \prod_{t} p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(t)})$$

$$= \prod_{t} p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(t)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)})$$

• This suggests that $m{y}^{(1)}, m{y}^{(2)}, \dots, m{y}^{(au)}$ are modeled to be conditionally independent given $m{x}^{(1)}, m{x}^{(2)}, \dots, m{x}^{(au)}$

Back-Propagation Through Time (BPTT)

- BPTT is merely back-propagation applied to unrolled graphs
- To obtain the gradient on parameter nodes, the gradient on their immediate child (downstream) nodes have to be evaluated first
- ullet As an example, to compute $\nabla_{oldsymbol{W}} L$, we observe that
 - The immediate child nodes of $m{W}$ are all $m{h}^{(t)}$'s, and
 - The chain rule for tensors^a can be applied to arrive at

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}} L = \sum_{t} \sum_{i} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial h_{i}^{(t)}} \right) (\nabla_{\mathbf{W}} h_{i}^{(t)})$$

a

$$\boldsymbol{X}_{m \times n} \xrightarrow{g(\boldsymbol{X})} \boldsymbol{Y}_{s \times k} \xrightarrow{f(\boldsymbol{Y})} z_{1 \times 1}$$

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{X}} z = \sum_{j} (\frac{\partial z}{\partial Y_{j}}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{X}} Y_{j},$$

• To complete the evaluation, we need to know further $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}L$, which can be evaluated using the same chain rule as

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}} L = \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}}{\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}\right)^{T} \left(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}} L\right) + \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{o}^{(t)}}{\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}\right)^{T} \left(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{o}^{(t)}} L\right)$$
$$= \boldsymbol{W}^{T} \boldsymbol{H}^{(t+1)} \left(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}} L\right) + \boldsymbol{V}^{T} \left(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{o}^{(t)}} L\right)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{H}^{(t+1)} &= \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}^{(t+1)}}\right)^T \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 - (h_1^{(t+1)})^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - (h_2^{(t+1)})^2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 - (h_n^{(t+1)})^2 \end{bmatrix} \\ \nabla_{\boldsymbol{o}^{(t)}} L &= \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(t)} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(t)} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(\tau)}} L = \boldsymbol{V}^T (\nabla_{\boldsymbol{o}^{(\tau)}} L) = \boldsymbol{V}^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}^{(\tau)} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(\tau)})$$

ullet In matrix form, $abla_{oldsymbol{W}}L$ is given as

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{W}} L = \sum_{t} \boldsymbol{H}^{(t)} (\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}} L) \boldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)T}$$

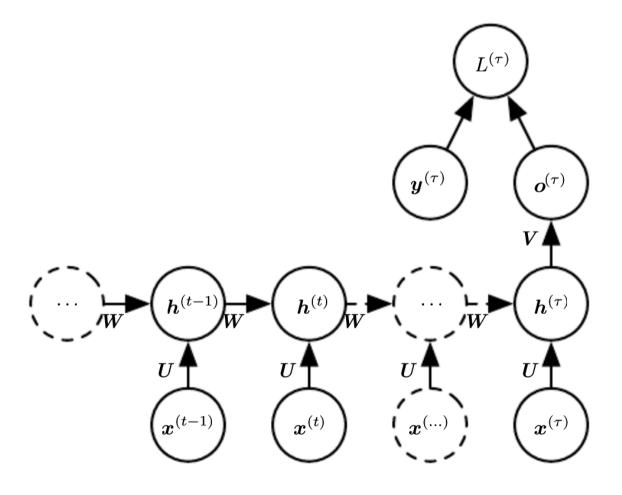
The gradient on the remaining parameters can be obtained similarly

$$egin{aligned}
abla_{oldsymbol{U}} L &= \sum_t oldsymbol{H}^{(t)}(
abla_{oldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}L)oldsymbol{x}^{(t)T} \
abla_{oldsymbol{V}} L &= \sum_t (
abla_{oldsymbol{o}^{(t)}}L)oldsymbol{h}^{(t)T} \
abla_{oldsymbol{o}} L &= \sum_t oldsymbol{H}^{(t)}(
abla_{oldsymbol{o}^{(t)}}L) \
abla_{oldsymbol{c}} L &= \sum_t
abla_{oldsymbol{o}^{(t)}}L \end{aligned}$$

ullet The runtime and memory cost for BPTT are both $\mathcal{O}(au)$

Design Pattern II

 Networks with hidden unit connections that produce a single output for an entire sequence



Vanishing and Exploding Gradients

- Gradients propagate over many stages tend to either vanish or explode
- ullet For example, the gradient $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}L$ in pattern II is seen to follow

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}} L = \boldsymbol{W}^T \boldsymbol{H}^{(t+1)} (\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}} L)$$

$$= (\underline{\boldsymbol{W}^T \boldsymbol{H}^{(t+1)}})^{(\tau-t)} (\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(\tau)}} L)$$

$$= \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{(\tau-t)} \boldsymbol{Q}^T (\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(\tau)}} L)$$

where $m{M}$ is assumed to be the same at every time step (as is the case without activation) and have an eigendecomposition $m{M} = m{Q} m{\Lambda} m{Q}^T$

ullet The term ${f \Lambda}^{(au-t)}$ causes the eigenvalues with magnitude smaller than one to decay to zero and eigenvalues with magnitude greater than one to explode (when $t\ll au$)

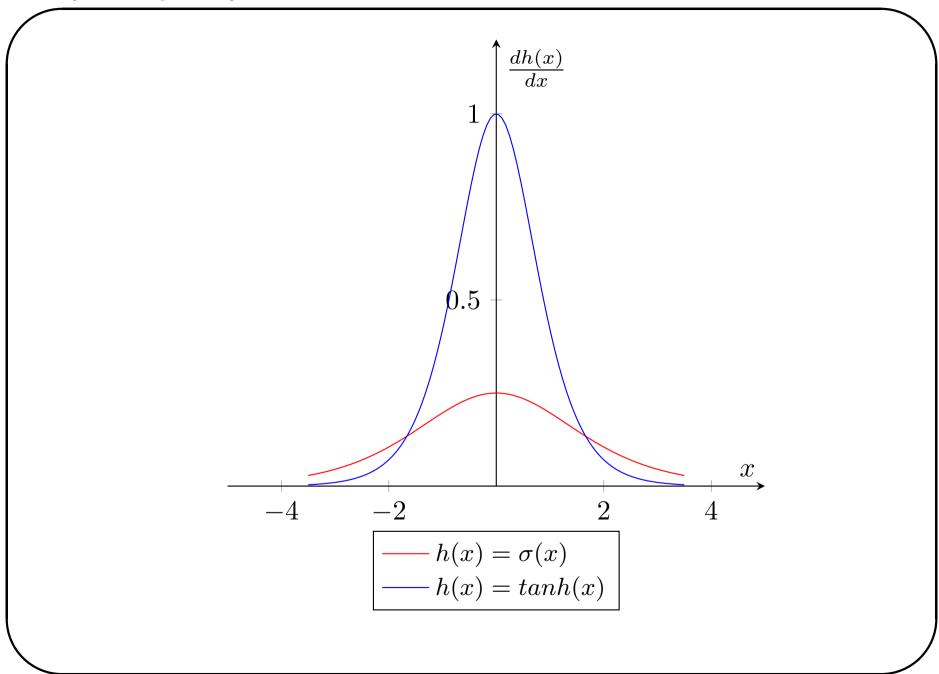
• When gradients vanish quickly, it becomes difficult to learn long-term dependencies; as an example, recall that

$$abla_{\boldsymbol{W}}L = \sum_{t} \boldsymbol{H}^{(t)}(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}L)\boldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)T}$$

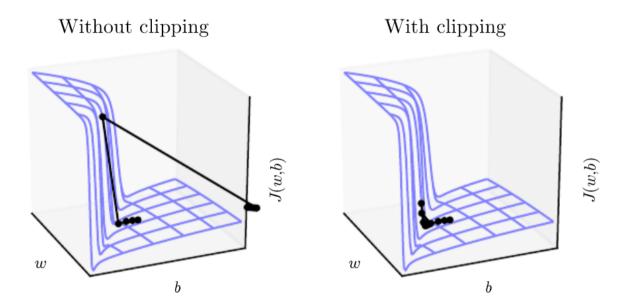
$$abla_{\boldsymbol{U}}L = \sum_{t} \boldsymbol{H}^{(t)}(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)}}L)\boldsymbol{x}^{(t)T}$$

where the distant past inputs $m{x}^{(t)}$ and hidden units $m{h}^{(t)}$ with $t\ll au$ are seen to contribute little to learning $m{W}$ and $m{U}$

- $m{\circ}$ From the perspective of forward propagation, an input $m{x}^{(t)},\ t\ll au$ may have been attenuated significantly before it reaches the output $m{o}^{(au)}$ due to the repeated multiplication with $m{H}m{W}$
- Sidetracking: The reason for choosing tanh as activation has to do with H, of which the diagonal entries are derivatives of h(x); gradients may vanish much quicker if sigmoid is used



• When gradients explode, the gradient-based training could throw the parameters far into a region where the objective becomes larger



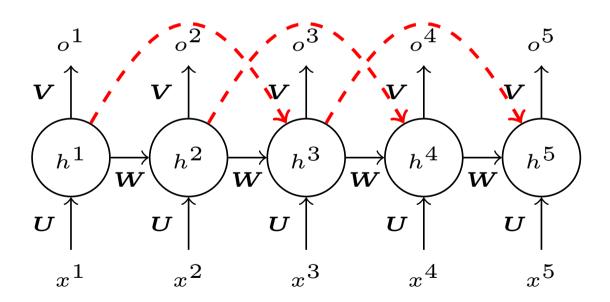
ullet One simple solution is to clip the gradient before the parameter update when a threshold on its norm is exceeded; that is, if $\|g\| > v$

$$oldsymbol{g} \leftarrow rac{oldsymbol{g} v}{\|oldsymbol{g}\|}$$

• Note that while the activation function $tanh\ helps$ to ensure forward propagation has bounded dynamics (i.e. hidden units will not explode), it is possible for backward propagation to remain unbounded (recall that H can be I)

Learning Long-Term Dependencies

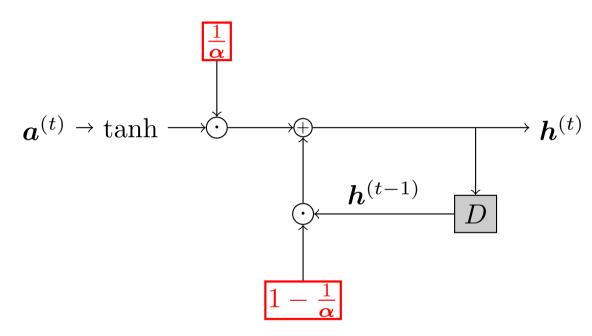
- Echo state networks
 - Set recurrent weights $oldsymbol{W}$ to ensure spectral radius of Jacobian pprox 1
 - Learn output weights V only
- **Skip connections** connections from variables in the distant past



Gradients diminish exponentially as a function of τ/d

• Leaky units – introducing an integrator in the hidden unit

$$\boldsymbol{h}^{(t)} = (1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}) \odot \boldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)} + \frac{1}{\alpha} \odot \tanh(\boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)} + \boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{x}^{(t)}), \ 1 \le \alpha_i < \infty$$



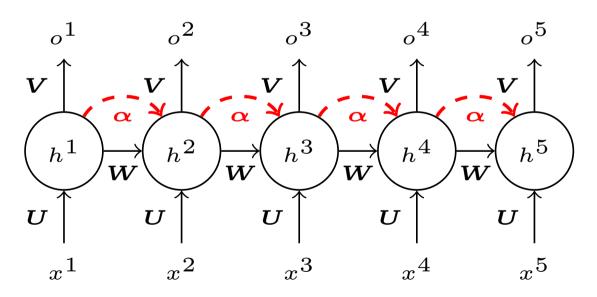
ullet The new content $oldsymbol{a}^{(t)}$ is given by

$$a^{(t)} = Wh^{(t-1)} + Ux^{(t)}$$

• The conventional RNN does not have this extra inner loop

$$\boldsymbol{a}^{(t)} o anh o anh$$

- α determines the time scale of integration $(\alpha_i \uparrow, \text{ scale} \uparrow)$
 - $-\alpha_i = 1$: Ordinary RNN
 - $-\alpha_i > 1: x^{(t)}$'s flow longer; gradients propagate more easily

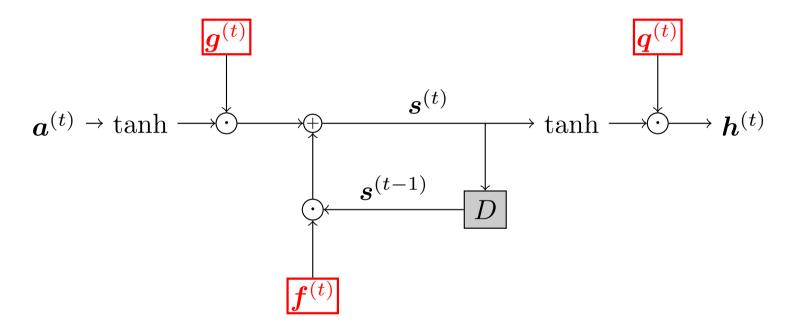


• The Jacobian $(\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}/\partial \boldsymbol{h}^{(t)})^T$ approximates a diagonally dominant matrix when α_i 's are large enough, suggesting gradients can back propagate more easily

$$abla_{m{h}^{(t)}}L = \left(rac{\partial m{h}^{(t+1)}}{\partial m{h}^{(t)}}
ight)^T \left(
abla_{m{h}^{(t+1)}}L
ight)^T$$

Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

• To change the time scale of integration dynamically by introducing programable gates $(\boldsymbol{g}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{f}^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{q}^{(t)})$ that are conditioned on context



• The gating context at time t refers collectively to $\{ {m x}^{(t)}, {m h}^{(t-1)} \}$ and may include other inputs

- Memory state: $s^{(t)}$

- Input gate: $oldsymbol{g}^{(t)} = \sigma(oldsymbol{U}^goldsymbol{x}^{(t)} + oldsymbol{W}^goldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)})$

- Output gate: $oldsymbol{q}^{(t)} = \sigma(oldsymbol{U}^ooldsymbol{x}^{(t)} + oldsymbol{W}^ooldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)})$

- Forget gate: $oldsymbol{f}^{(t)} = \sigma(oldsymbol{U}^f oldsymbol{x}^{(t)} + oldsymbol{W}^f oldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)})$

- New content: $oldsymbol{a}^{(t)} = oldsymbol{U} oldsymbol{x}^{(t)} + oldsymbol{W} oldsymbol{h}^{(t-1)}$

- Memory update: $oldsymbol{s}^{(t)} = oldsymbol{f}^{(t)} \odot oldsymbol{s}^{(t-1)} + oldsymbol{g}^{(t)} \odot oldsymbol{a}^{(t)}$

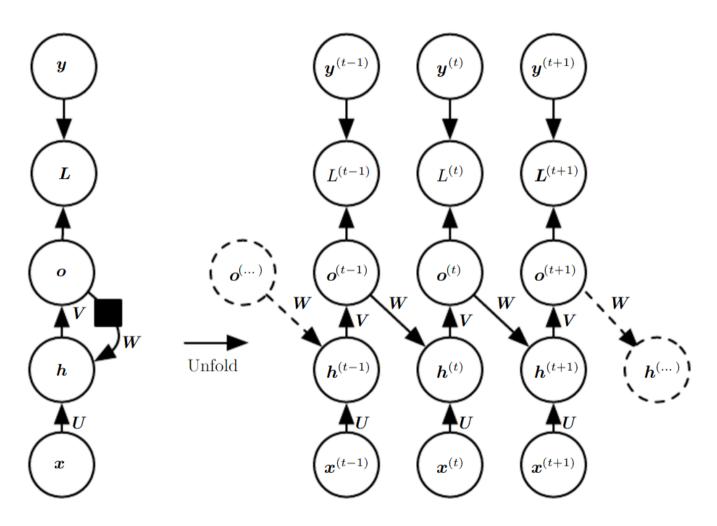
- Hidden unit update: $oldsymbol{h}^{(t)} = oldsymbol{q}^{(t)} \odot anh(oldsymbol{s}^{(t)})$

Output unit update: $oldsymbol{o}^{(t)} = oldsymbol{V} oldsymbol{h}^{(t)}$

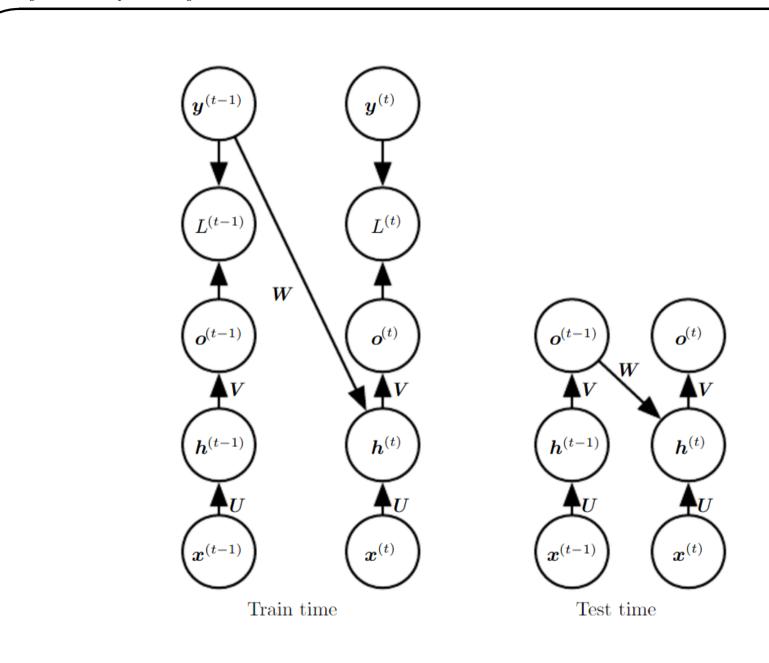
- The design of LSTM is justified by the fact that there could be subsequences of varying statistics in a main sequence
- Many variants of LSTM are available (study by yourself)

Design Pattern III

• Networks with only output recurrence

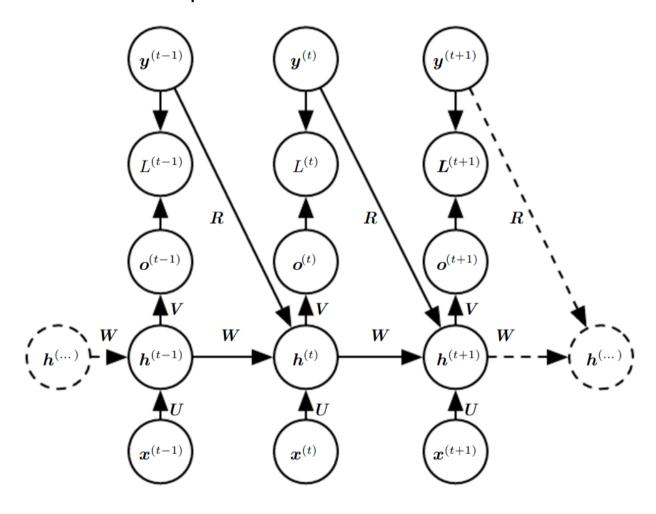


- ullet Such networks are less powerful as the outputs $oldsymbol{o}^{(t)}$'s are forced to approximate the targets $oldsymbol{y}^{(t)}$'s while having to convey a good summary about the past
- They however shed lights on training networks with output recurrence
- One effective way for training this type of networks is **teacher forcing**, which feeds correct targets $\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)}$ into $\boldsymbol{h}^{(t+1)}$ during training, allowing the gradient for each time step to be computed in isolation
- Open-loop issue: inputs seen at training and test time are different
- To resolve this, it is common to train with both teacher-forced inputs and free-running inputs (generated by the output-to-input paths), or randomly choose between them



Design Pattern IV

• Networks with both output recurrence and hidden unit connections



The training objective becomes to maximize

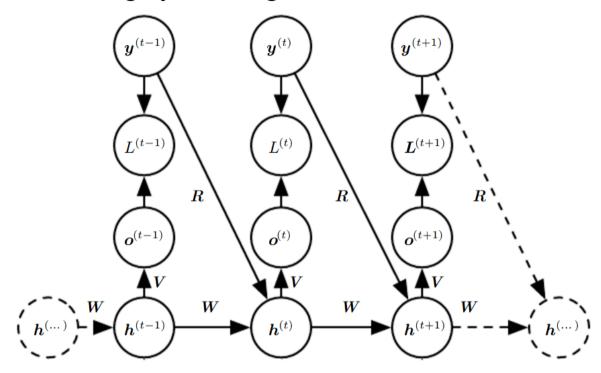
$$p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\tau)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)})$$

$$= \prod_{t=1}^{\tau} p_{\mathsf{model}}(\boldsymbol{y}^{(t)} | \boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(t-1)})$$

where $y^{(t)}$'s are modeled to be conditionally dependent (cf. Pattern I)

- ullet This type of networks allows modeling an arbitrary distribution over the $oldsymbol{y}$ sequence given the $oldsymbol{x}$ sequence of the same length, whether $oldsymbol{y}^{(t)}$'s are conditionally independent or dependent
- One may as well broadcast one single vector \boldsymbol{x} as $\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^{(\tau)}$, as is often seen in image capationing; in such tasks, \boldsymbol{x} may denote the feature vector of an image and $\boldsymbol{y}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{y}^{(\tau)}$ are its caption

ullet One can also turn the network into a generative model for unsupervised learning by omitting all the $m{x}^{(t)}$'s

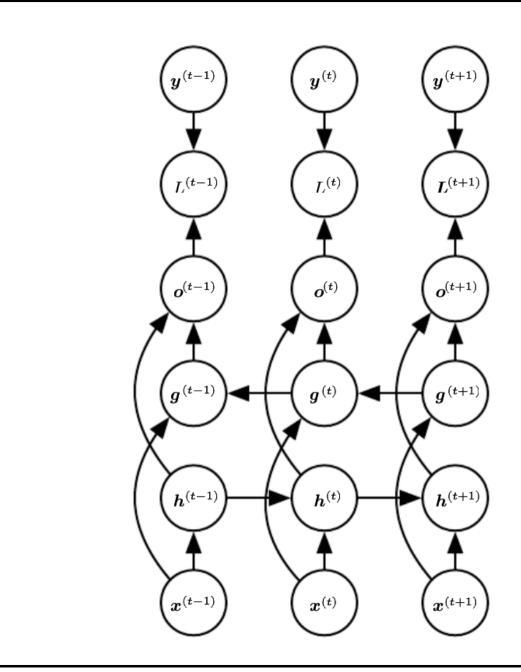


• Essentially, this corresponds to learning a model that factorizes as

$$p_{\mathsf{model}}({m y}^{(1)},{m y}^{(2)},\ldots,{m y}^{(au)}) = \prod_{t=1}^{ au} p_{\mathsf{model}}({m y}^{(t)}|{m y}^{(t-1)},{m y}^{(t-2)},\ldots,{m y}^{(1)})$$

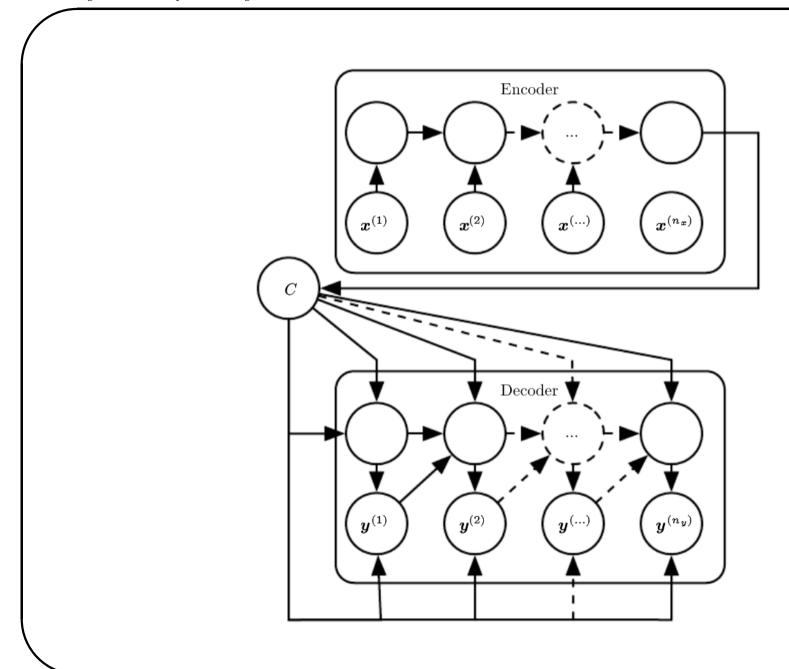
Bidirectional RNN

- ullet RNN has a causal structure: the state $m{h}^{(t)}$ at time t captures only information from the past $m{x}^{(1)},\dots,m{x}^{(t-1)}$ and the present $m{x}^{(t)}$ inputs
- ullet In many applications, it may be necessary to output a prediction $oldsymbol{y}^{(t)}$ that depend on the entire sequence
- Bidirectional RNN combines two RNNs, one moving forward in time and the other moving backward, to capture information from both the past and future
- This however requires the entire sequence be buffered
- The notion can readily be extended to 2-D signals, e.g. images



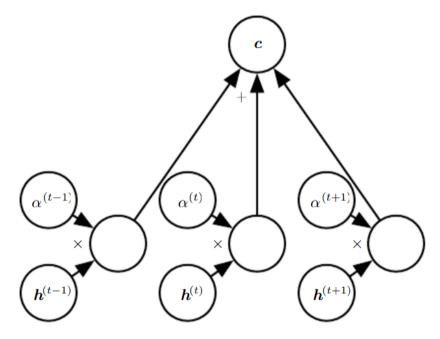
Sequence-to-Sequence Networks

- In some applications, e.g. machine translation and question answering, it may be necessary to map an input sequence to an output sequence that is not of the same length
- The encoder network encodes the input sequence and emits a context C for the decoder network to generate the output sequence
- ullet The context C can be a function of the last hidden unit or a summary of different hidden units by introducing an attention mechanism



Attention Mechanisms

ullet A weighted average of information with weights $lpha^{(t)}$'s (gate signals) produced by the model itself



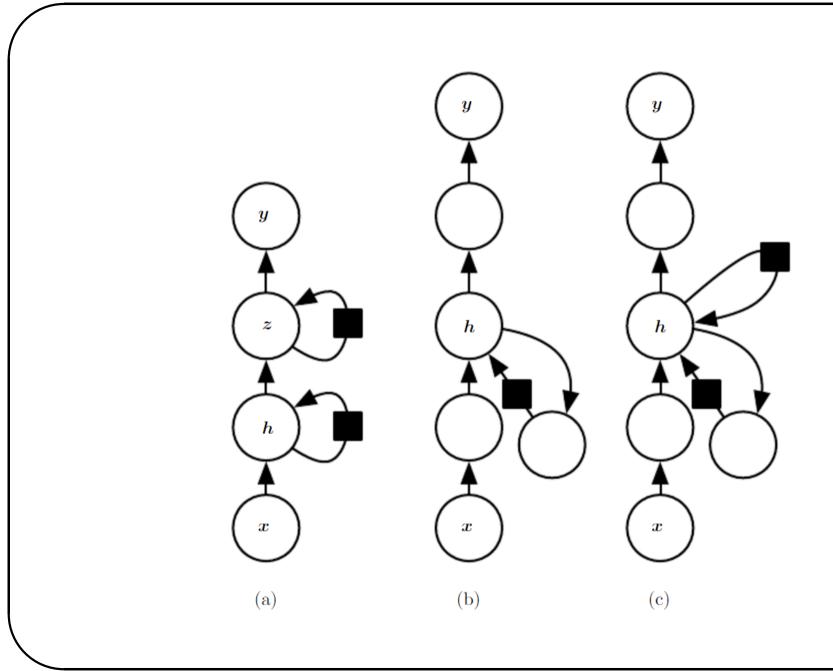
- The information to be averaged could be hidden units of a network or raw input data
- The weights are usually produced by applying a softmax function to

some relevance scores emitted somewhere in the model

• The soft weighting is more expensive than direct indexing but is differentiable, making it trainable with gradient-based algorithms

Deep Recurrent Networks

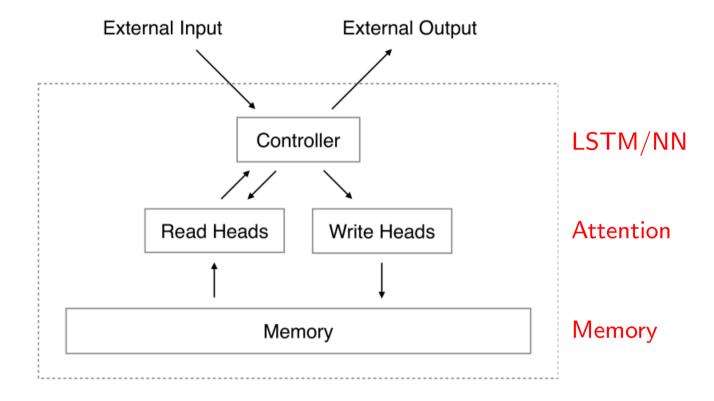
- RNN can be made deep in many ways
- Recurrent hidden units can be organized in a layered manner
- MLP can be introduced in the input-to-hidden, hidden-to-hidden, and hidden-to-output parts
- In doing so, skip connections may be necessary to mitigate the gradient vanishing and exploding problem



Neural Turing Machines (NTM)

- An end-to-end differentiable machine that combines neural networks,
 attention mechanisms, and memory to imitate a Turing Machine or
 Von Neumann architecture
- Von Neumann architecture
 - Arithmetic operations
 - Logical flow control (branching)
 - Memory
- NTM can learn to infer simple algorithms, e.g. copying, sorting, recall

• NTM architecture



- Memory state: $oldsymbol{M}_t$
- Address: $oldsymbol{w}_t$

$$\sum_{i} w_t(i) = 1, \ 0 \le w_t(i) \le 1$$

Reading

$$r_t = \sum_i w_t(i) M_t(i)$$

Writing

$$\mathbf{M}_t(i) = \sum_i \mathbf{M}_{t-1}(i)[\mathbf{1} - w_t(i)\mathbf{e}_t] + w_t(i)\mathbf{a}_t$$

where

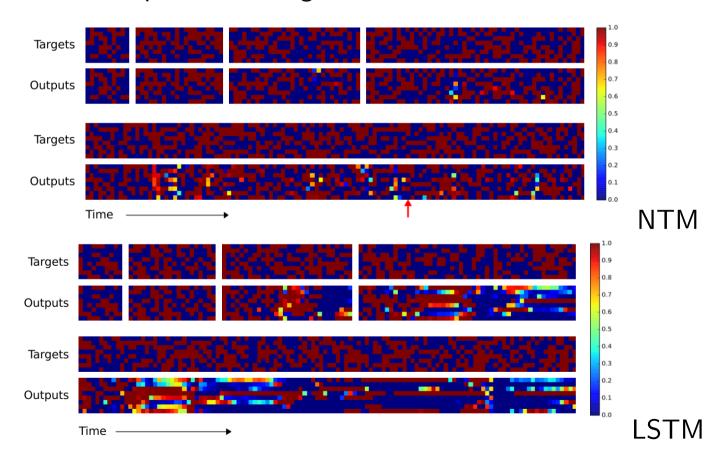
1 : A vector of all 1's

 e_t : Erasure vector with elements in (0,1)

 a_t : New content to be written

- Addressing: content- and location-based (study the paper)
- Logical flow control (study the code)

- Copying
 - Copying 8-bit random binary vectors
 - Trained on sequences of length 1-20
 - Tested on sequences of length 10, 20, 30, 50, 120



 Repeat copy, associative recall, N-grams, priority sort, etc. (study the paper)

Review

- Design patterns of RNN and their probability models
- Gradient vanishing and exploding problem
- Long short-term memory
- Back-propagation through time (BPTT)
- Training with output recurrence
- Attention mechanisms
- Neural Turing Machines