

Recurrent networks



RNNs

Examples of tasks and sequence types

- ▶ Sequence classification

- ▶ Input: sequence, output: class

- ▶ Time series classification
 - ▶ Sentence classification (topic, polarity, sentiment, etc.)

- ▶ Sequence generation

- ▶ Input: initial state (fixed vector), output: sequence

- ▶ Text Generation
 - ▶ Music

- ▶ Sequence to sequence transduction

- ▶ Input: sequence, output: sequence

- ▶ Natural language processing: Named Entity recognition
 - ▶ Speech recognition: speech signal to word sequence
 - ▶ Translation

RNNs

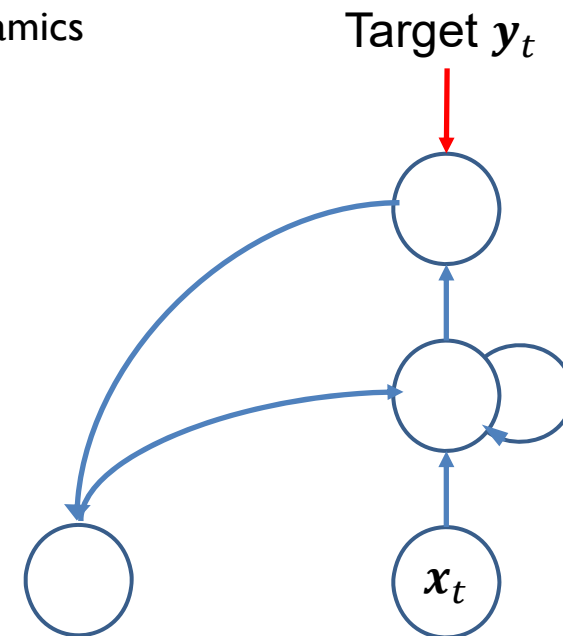
- ▶ Several formulations of RNN were proposed in the late 80s, early 90s
 - ▶ They faced several limitations and were not successful for applications
 - Recurrent NN are difficult to train
 - They have a limited memory capacity
- ▶ Mid 2000s successful attempts to implement RNN
 - ▶ e.g. A. Graves for speech and handwriting recognition
 - ▶ new models were proposed which alleviate some of these limitations
- ▶ Today
 - ▶ RNNs are used for a variety of applications e.g., speech decoding, translation, language generation, etc
 - ▶ They became SOTA for sequence processing tasks around 2015. In 2020 alternative NN ideas (Transformers) have replaced RNNs for most discrete sequence modeling tasks. Initially developed as language models, they are used today in vision and multimodal (e.g. text-image) tasks.
- ▶ In this course
 - ▶ We briefly survey some of the developments from the 90s
 - ▶ We introduce recent developments on RNNs

RNNs

- ▶ Imagine a NN with feedback loops, i.e. no more a DAG

- ▶ This transforms the NN into a dynamical/ state-space system

- ▶ Information can circulate according to different dynamics
 - Convergence, stable state?
- ▶ Supervision can occur at different times
- ▶ Inputs: fixed, sequences, etc....



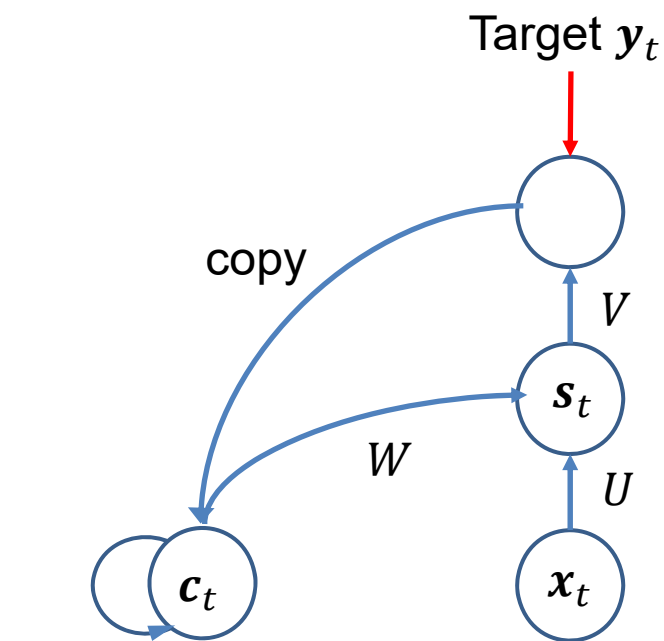
- ▶ Two main families

- ▶ Global connections
- ▶ Local connections

- ▶ In practice, only a limited class of RNNs is used for applications

RNNs local connections (90s)

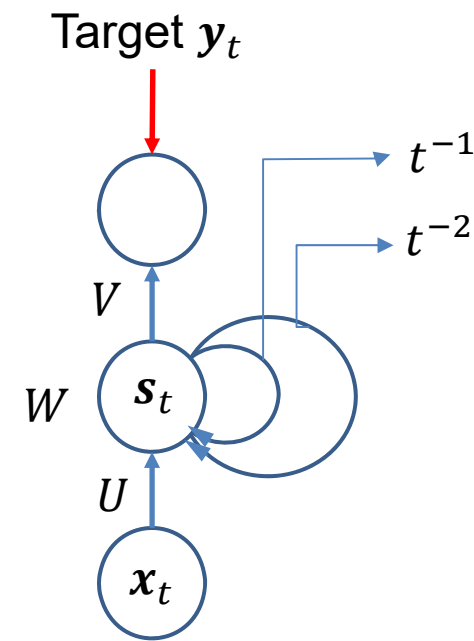
- ▶ Several local connection architectures proposed in the 90s



Fixed weights

Only the forward weights are learned:

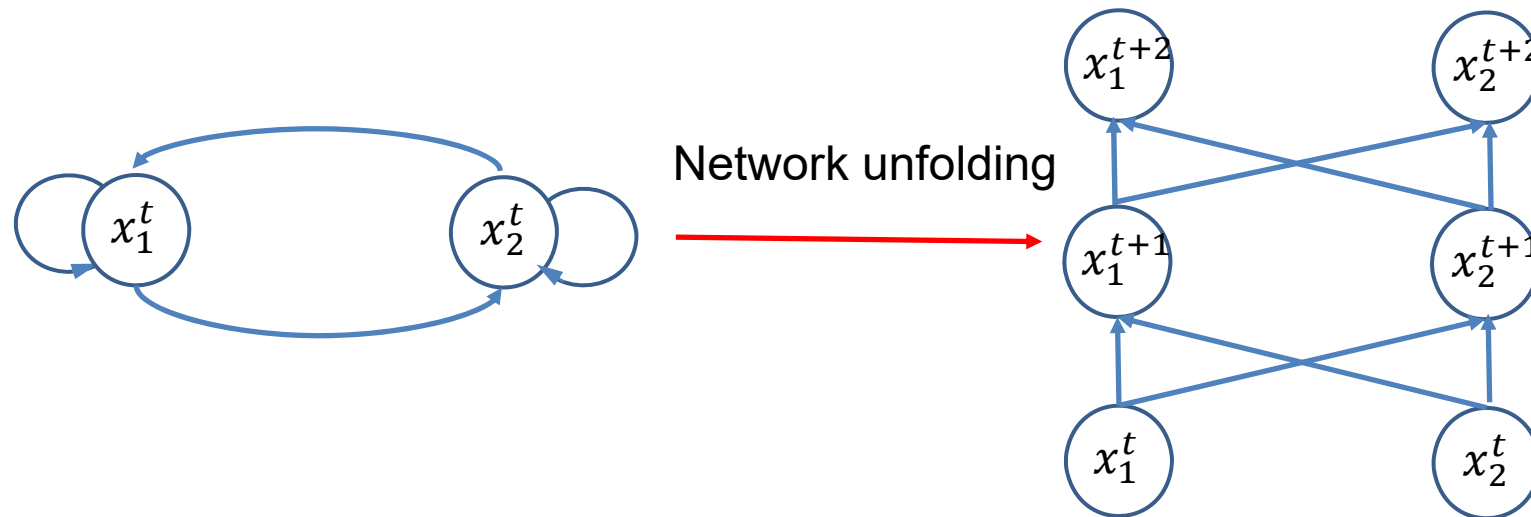
$$\text{SGD}_{s_t} = f(Wc_t) + Ux_t$$



All weights learned

$$s_t = f(Ws_{t-1}) + Ux_t$$

RNNs global recurrences (90s)



► Algorithm

- Back Propagation Through Time (BPTT)
- For general sequences: $O(n^4)$ if n units

Fig. (Pearlmutter, 1995, IEEE Trans. on Neural Networks – nice review paper on RNN from the 90s)

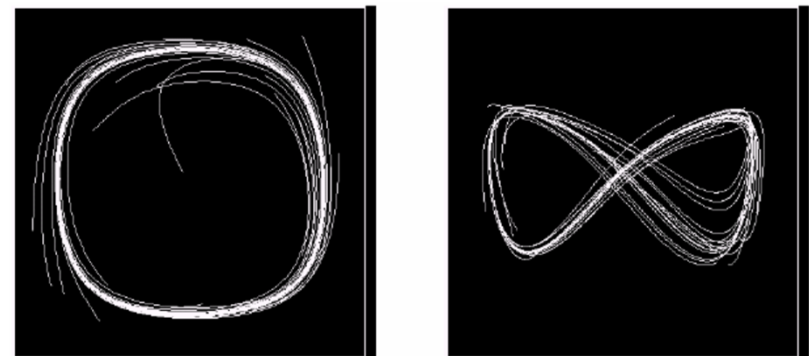
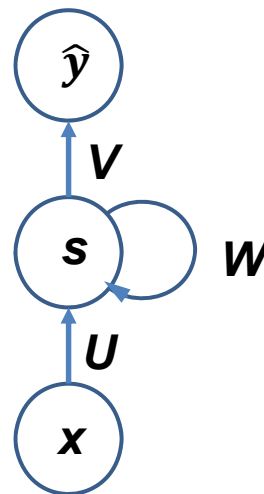


Fig. 9. The output states x_1 and x_2 plotted against each other for a 1000 time unit run, with all the units in the network perturbed by a random amount about every 50 units of time. The perturbations in the circle network (left) were uniform in ± 0.1 , and in the figure eight network (right) in ± 0.05 .

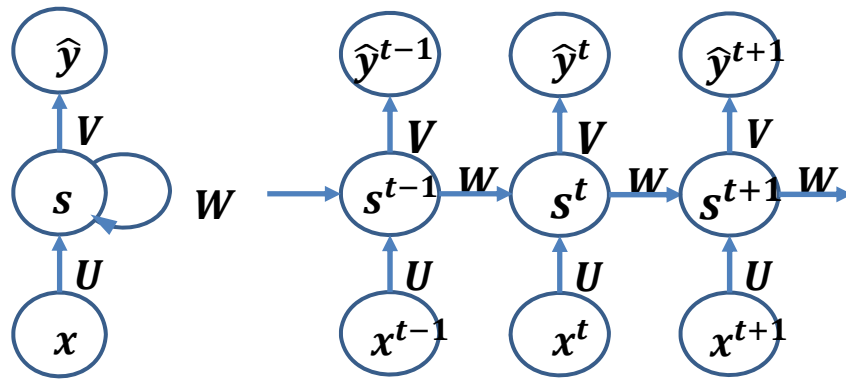
Dynamics of RNN

- ▶ We consider different tasks corresponding to different dynamics
 - ▶ They are illustrated for a simple RNN with loops on the hidden units
 - ▶ This can be extended to more complex architectures
 - ▶ However, RNNs used today all make use of local connections similar to this simple RNN
- ▶ Basic architecture

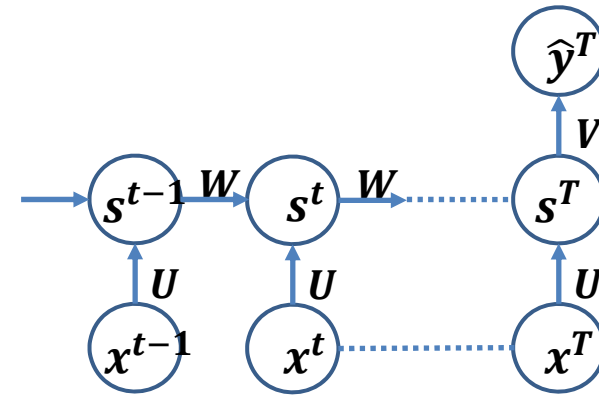


RNNs

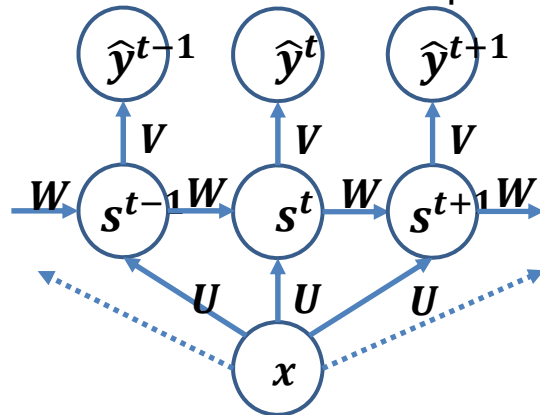
Dynamics of RNN – unfolding the RNN



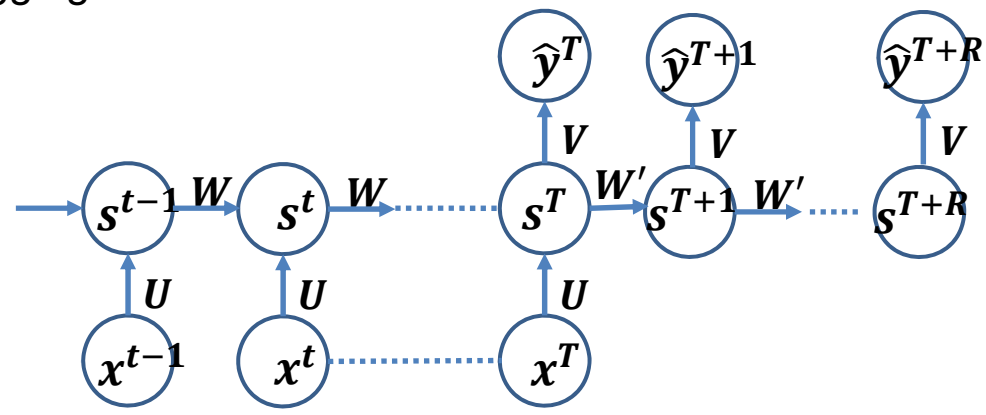
Many to many, e.g. speech
or handwriting decoding,
Part of Speech Tagging



Many to one, e.g.
sequence classification



One to many, e.g. image
annotation

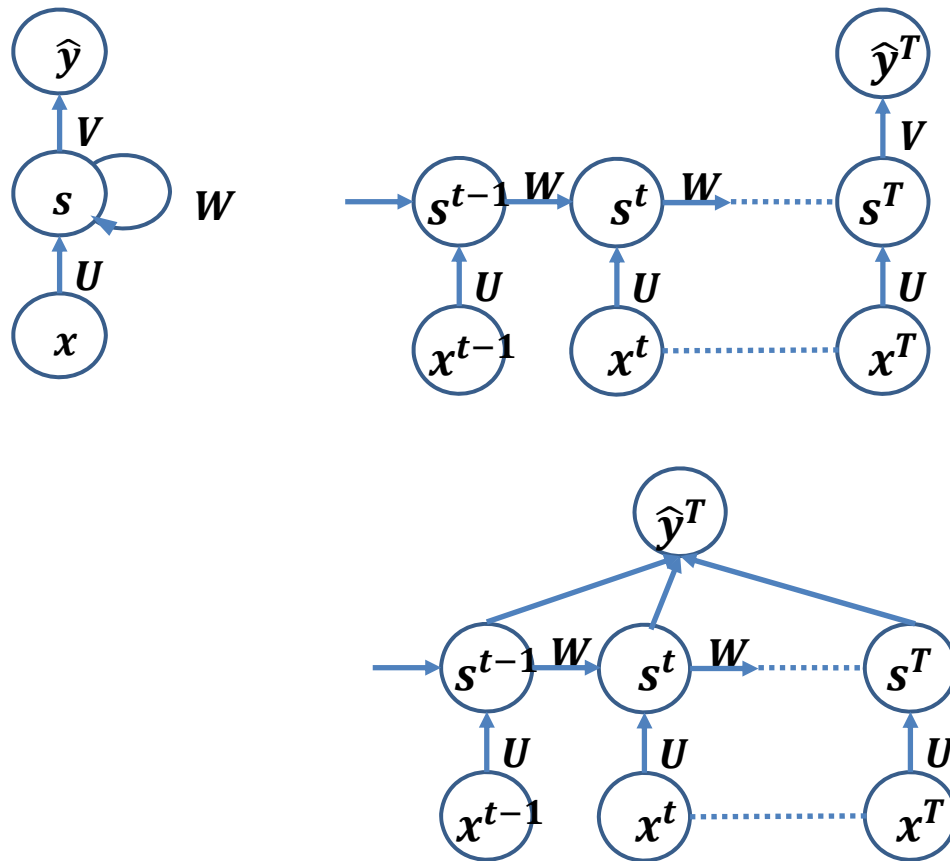


Many to many, e.g.
translation

RNNs

Dynamics of RNN – unfolding the RNN

- Different ways to compute sequence **encodings**



- The final state s^T encodes the sentence
- The whole state sequence encodes the input sequence – usually better: take elementwise max or mean of the hidden states.
- More on that on Attention and Transformers

RNNs

Back Propagation Through Time

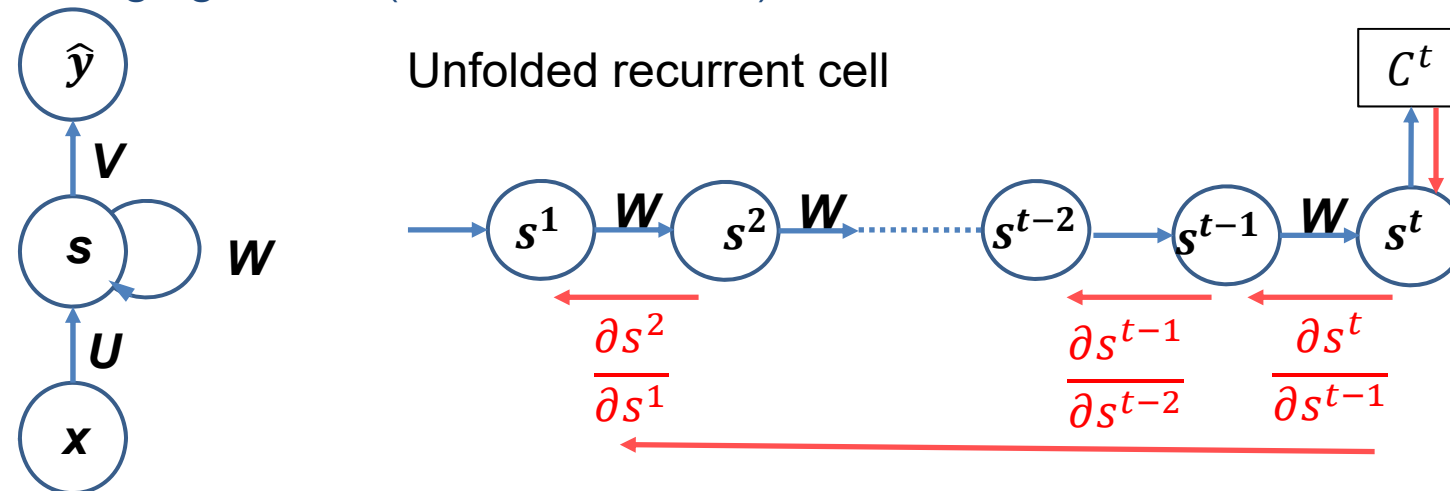
- ▶ By unfolding the RNN, one can see that one builds a Deep NN
- ▶ Training can be performed via SGD like algorithms
 - ▶ This is called Back Propagation Through Time
- ▶ Automatic Differentiation is used for training the RNNs
- ▶ RNNs suffer from the same problems as the other Deep NNs
 - ▶ Gradient exploding
 - ▶ Solution: gradient clipping
 - ▶ Gradient vanishing
 - ▶ In a vanilla RNN, gradient information decreases exponentially with the size of the sequence
 - ▶ Plus limited memory
 - ▶ Again exponential decay of the memory w.r.t. size of the sequence
- ▶ Several attempts to solve these problems
 - ▶ We introduce a popular family of recurrent units that became SOTA around 2015:
 - ▶ Gated units (GRU, LSTMs)

RNNs

Recurrent units: Long Short Term memory (LSTM – Hochreiter 1997),
Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

► Vanishing gradient problem

- Consider a many to many mapping problem such as decoding or building a language model (more on that later)



$$s^{t+1} = f(Ws^t + Ux^{t+1})$$

Gradient flow: vanishing gradient

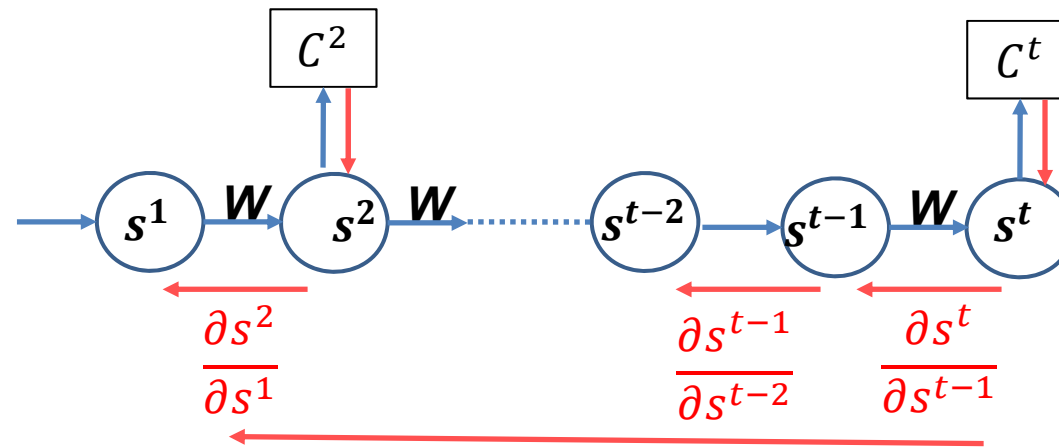
$$\frac{\partial C^t}{\partial s^1} = \frac{\partial s^2}{\partial s^1} \times \dots \times \frac{\partial s^t}{\partial s^{t-1}} \frac{\partial C^t}{\partial s^t}$$

If any of these quantities is small, the gradient from C^t gets smaller and smaller

RNNs

Recurrent units: Long Short Term memory (LSTM – Hochreiter 1997),
Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

► Vanishing gradient problem



- In this example, the gradient from C^2 is much stronger than the gradient from C^t
- This means that « long » term dependencies are difficult to capture with RNNs

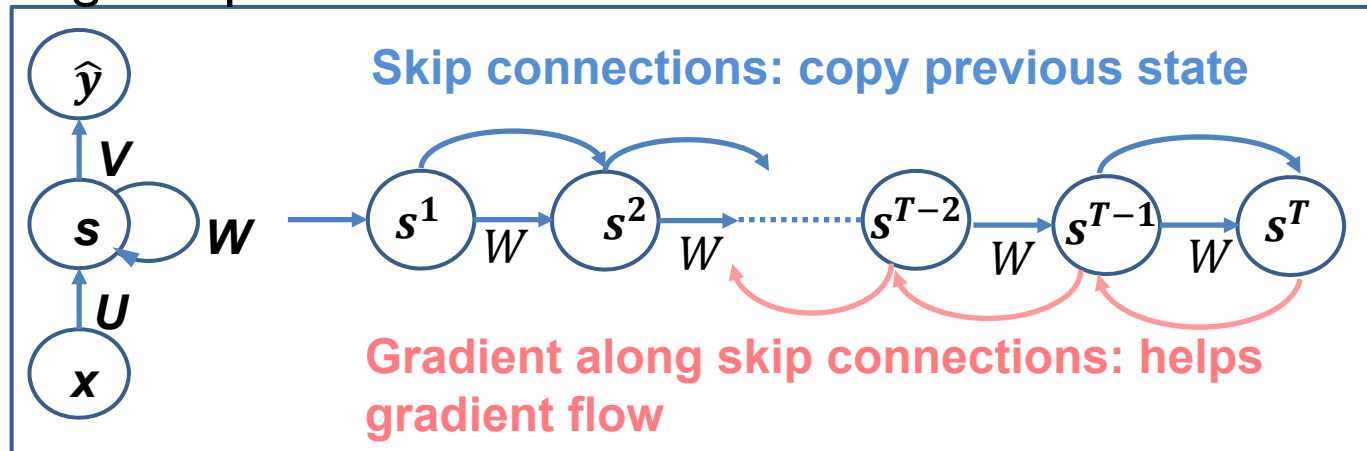
$$\frac{\partial C^t}{\partial s^1} = \frac{\partial s^2}{\partial s^1} \times \dots \times \frac{\partial s^t}{\partial s^{t-1}} \frac{\partial C^t}{\partial s^t}$$
$$\frac{\partial C^2}{\partial s^1} = \frac{\partial s^2}{\partial s^1} \frac{\partial C^2}{\partial s^2}$$

RNNs - Gated Units

Long Short Term memory (LSTM – Hochreiter 1997)

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

- ▶ Introducing « skip connections » - similar to ResNet



Past value New candidate value:

$$s^t = (1 - z^t) \odot s^{t-1} + z^t \odot s'^t$$

Gating mechanism

$$s'^t = \tanh(Ux^t + Ws^{t-1})$$
$$z^t = \sigma(U_z x^t + W_z s^{t-1})$$

\odot is the Hadamard product
 U_z and W_z learned by SGD

RNNs

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

Skip connections

- ▶ The output s_j^t of cell j is a weighted sum of the cell output at time $t - 1$, s_j^{t-1} and a new value of the cell $s_j'^t$

- ▶ $s^t = (1 - z^t) \odot s^{t-1} + z^t \odot s'^t$

- ▶ z is a gating function

- ▶ If $z = 0$, s_j^t is a simple copy of s_j^{t-1}
- ▶ If $z = 1$ it takes the new value $s_j'^t$
- ▶ w.r.t the classical recurrent unit formulation, this new form allows us to remember the value of the hidden cell at a given time in the past and reduces the vanishing gradient phenomenon

RNNs

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

- Skip connection with Forget Gate + Reset Gate

Past value New candidate value:

$$\mathbf{s}^t = (1 - \mathbf{z}^t) \odot \mathbf{s}^{t-1} + \mathbf{z}^t \odot \mathbf{s}'^t$$

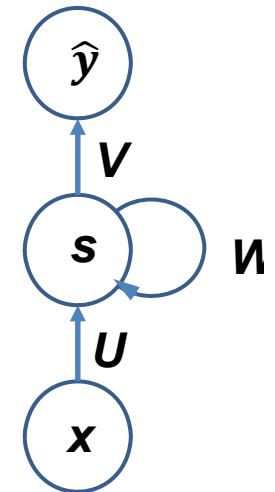
Gating mechanism

$$\mathbf{s}'^t = \tanh(U\mathbf{x}^t + W(r^t \odot \mathbf{s}^{t-1}))$$

$$\text{Forget gate } \mathbf{z}^t = \sigma(U_z \mathbf{x}^t + W_z \mathbf{s}^{t-1})$$

$$\text{Reset Gate } \mathbf{r}^t = \sigma(U_r \mathbf{x}^t + W_r \mathbf{s}^{t-1})$$

\odot is the Hadamard product



RNNs

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014) - followed

- ▶ The gating function is a function of the current input at time t and the past value of the hidden cell s^{t-1}
 - ▶ $z^t = \sigma(U_z x^t + W_z s^{t-1})$
- ▶ The new value s'^t is a classical recurrent unit where the values at time $t - 1$ are gated by a reset unit r_t
 - ▶ $s'^t = \tanh(Ux^t + W(r^t \odot s^{t-1}))$
- ▶ The reset unit r^t allows us to forget the previous hidden state and to start again a new modeling of the sequence
 - ▶ This is similar to a new state in a Hidden Markov Model (but it is soft)
 - ▶ $r^t = \sigma(U_r x^t + W_r s^{t-1})$

RNNs

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU – Cho 2014)

- ▶ There are two main novelties in this GRU
 - ▶ The z gating function which implements skip connections and acts for reducing the vanishing gradient effect
 - ▶ The r gating function which acts for forgetting the previous state and starting again a new subsequence modeling with no memory
- ▶ Each unit adapts its specific parameters, i.e. each may adapt its own time scale and memory size
- ▶ Training
 - ▶ is performed using an adaptation of backpropagation for recurrent nets
 - ▶ All the functions – unit states and gating functions are learned from the data using some form of SGD

Long short term memory - LSTM

- ▶ This was initially proposed in 1997 (Hochreiter et al.) and revised later.
- ▶ State of the art on several sequence prediction problems
 - ▶ Speech, handwriting recognition, translation
 - ▶ Used in conjunctions with other models e.g. HMMs or in standalone recurrent neural networks
 - ▶ The presentation here is based on (Graves 2012)

Long short term memory

- ▶ In the LSTM, there are 3 gating functions

- ▶ i: input gating
- ▶ o: output gating
- ▶ f: forget gating

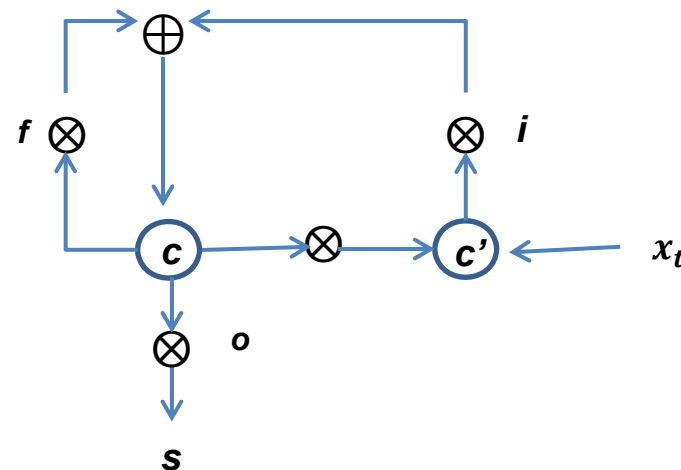
- ▶ Difference with the gated recurrent cell

- ▶ Similarities

- ▶ Both use an additive form for computing the hidden cell state (c) here.
 - This additive component reduces the vanishing gradient effect and allows us to keep in memory past state values.
- ▶ Both use a reset (called here forget (f)) gate
 - The reset permits to start from a new « state » a subsequence prediction

- ▶ Differences

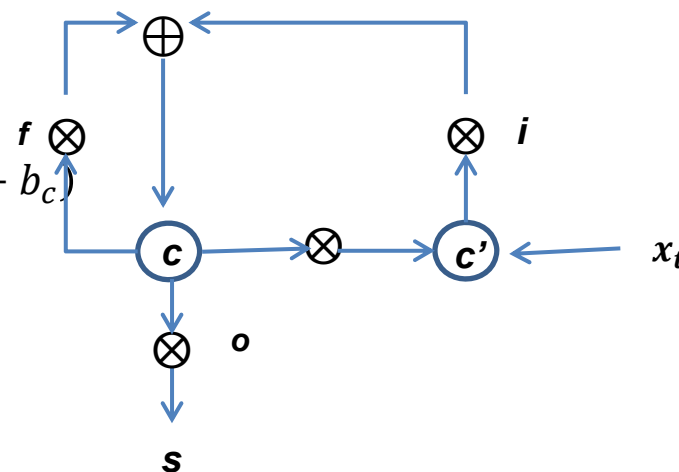
- ▶ No output gating in the GRU
- ▶ Reset does not play exactly the same role



Long short term memory

- ▶ For the forward pass, the different activations are computed as follows and in this order

- ▶ $i^t = \sigma(W_{xi}x^t + W_{hi}s^{t-1} + W_{ci}c^{t-1} + b_i)$
- ▶ $f^t = \sigma(W_{xf}x^t + W_{hf}s^{t-1} + W_{cf}c^{t-1} + b_f)$
- ▶ $c^t = f_t \odot c^{t-1} + i_t \odot \tanh(W_{xc}x^t + W_{hc}s^{t-1} + b_c)$
- ▶ $o^t = \sigma(W_{xo}x^t + W_{ho}s^{t-1} + W_{co}c^{t-1} + b_o)$
- ▶ $s^t = o^t \tanh(c^t)$



- ▶ c_t^i is a memory of cell i at time t , c_t is computed as for the GRU as a sum of c_{t-1} and of the new memory content $c'_t = \tanh(W_{xc}x_t + W_{hc}h_{t-1} + b_c)$
- ▶ o is an output gate
- ▶ σ is a logistic function
- ▶ W_{ci}, W_{cf}, W_{co} are diagonal matrices

Bidirectional and multilayer RNNs

RNNs Future

- ▶ RNNs variants (GRU, LSTM) became the dominant approach around 2015, for several tasks including speech recognition, translation, text generation etc
- ▶ These last years (2019-2020) they have become superseded by other approaches for many of these tasks
 - ▶ Transformers are now more frequently used for a large variety of tasks dealing with discrete sequences, in NLP for example
 - ▶ Note: after the Transformer » revolution » in NLP, their use in other domains s.a. vision, is increasing.

Language models

► Objective:

- Probability models of sequences (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^t)
- Items may be words, characters, character ngrams, word pieces, etc
- Formally: given a sequence of items, what is the probability of the next item?
 - $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^1)$

► Example

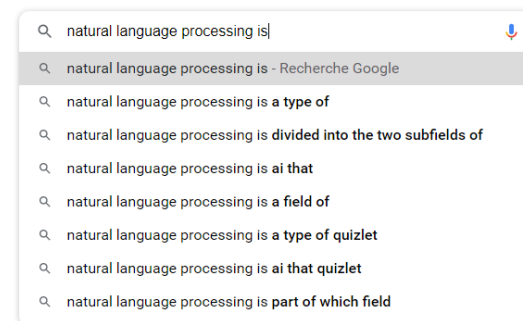
- « S'il vous plaît... dessine-moi ... » what next ?
- « $x^1 x^2 x^3 \dots \dots \dots x^{t-1} \dots$ » what is x^t ?



Google

► Language models in everyday use

- Sentence completion
 - Search engine queries
 - Smartphone messages, etc
- Speech recognition, handwriting recognition, etc



Language models

- ▶ Language models can be used to compute the probability of a piece of text
- ▶ Let (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^T) be a sequence of text, its probability according to a language model is:
 - ▶ $p(x^1, x^2, \dots, x^T) = \prod_{t=1}^T p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^1)$
 - ▶ With $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^1)$ computed by the language model

Language models

How to learn a language model - n-grams

▶ A simple solution: n-grams

- ▶ n-grams are sequences of n consecutive words (or characters, or any items)
- ▶ Language model is based on n-gram statistics
- ▶ Markov assumption

- ▶ x^t only depends on the $n - 1$ preceding words

- $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^1) = p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})$

n-gram probability

- ▶ Use Bayes formula $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1}) = \frac{p(x^t, x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})}{p(x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})}$

n-1-gram probability

- ▶ Given large text collections, it is possible to compute estimates of the posterior probabilities

- ▶ An estimate could be $\hat{p}(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1}) = \frac{\text{count}(x^t, x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})}{\text{count}(x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})}$

- ▶ Where $\text{count}(x^t, x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1})$ is the number of occurrences of the sequence in the corpus

Language models

n-grams

► Sparsity problem

- In order to get good estimates, this requires large text quantities
- The larger n is, the larger the training corpus should be
- For a dictionary of 10 k words, there could be
 - $10^{4 \times 2}$ bigrams
 - $10^{4 \times 3}$ trigrams, etc
 - Note: the number of n-grams in a language is smaller than $10^{4 \times n}$ but still extremely large and grows exponentially with n
 - The model size increases exponentially with n
- n-gram counting is limited to relatively short sequences
 - Only large companies like Google could afford computing/ storing estimates for $n > 10$

Language models

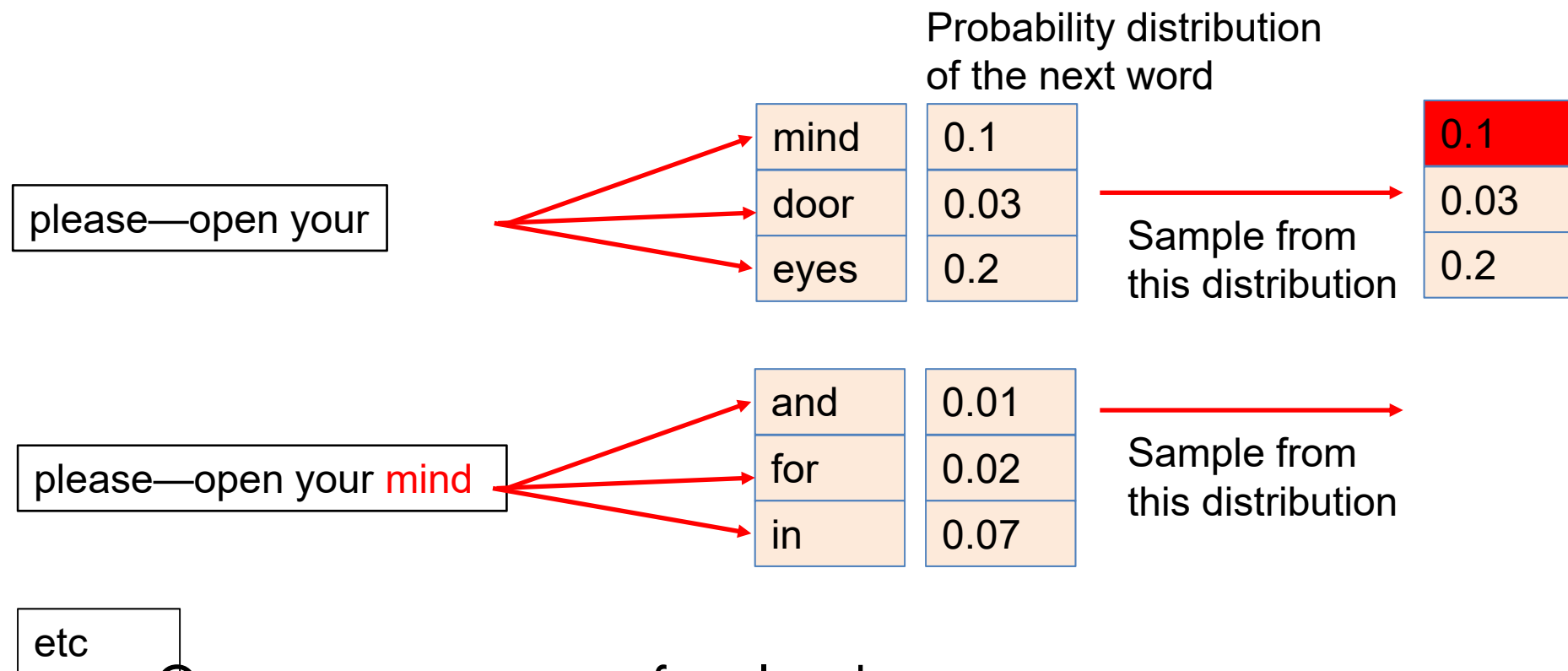
n-grams

► Additional problems

- Consider the sentence « Please open your mind » and a 4-gram model
 - What if « mind » never occurred in the corpus?
 - The probability of the sequence becomes 0, which is not realistic
 - Solution: every 4-gram is set to a minimum probability value of ϵ
 - This is a smoothing operation – there exists different smoothing estimates
 - What if « Please open your » never occurred in the corpus?
 - The 4-gram probability cannot be computed
 - Smooth using backoff estimates
 - e.g. $p(\text{please open your mind}) = p(\text{open your mind})$
- More generally, n-gram models are often smoothed with n-1 gram, n-2 grams etc
 - $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+1}) \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \alpha_i p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^{t-n+i})$

Language models n-grams – text generation

- ▶ Any language model can be used for text generation



- ▶ One can generate text of any length

Language models

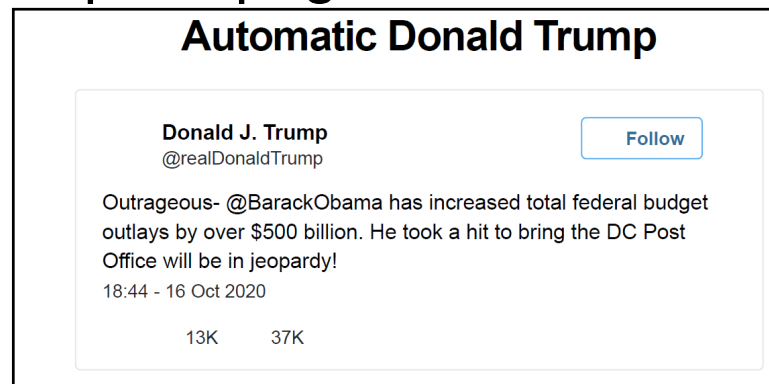
n-grams – text generation

- ▶ Example from <https://projects.haykranen.nl/markov/demo/>

- ▶ 4 gram trained on the Wikipedia article on Calvin and Hobbes
- ▶ Generated text

Rosalyn is a standary children used each otherwise as he stereotypically comic stand for an impulsive real-life Watterson's stuffed tiger, much as "grounded in reality rathmore spacious circle: because associety The club has said they have the archive shifting into low art some of the strip was one larger than Calvin anticipate indulges in his hands attribute red-and-black pants, magenta socks and Susie Derkins specifically characters like school where were printerestrainstory

- ▶ Example from <https://filiph.github.io/markov/>

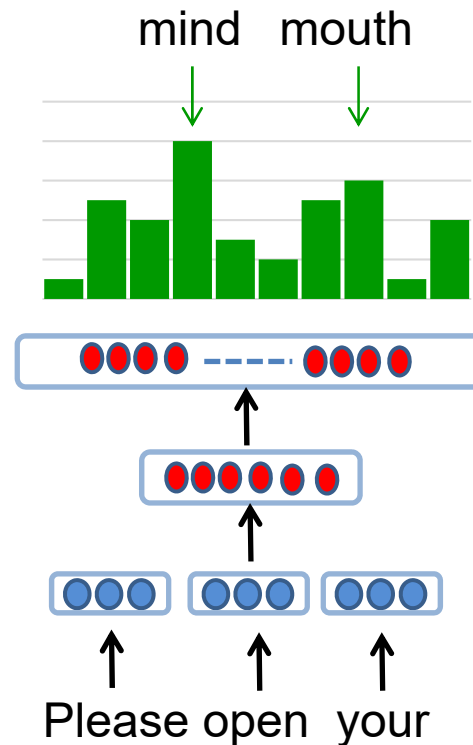


Language models

Neural networks

► Fixed input size NN

- The NN could be typically a convolutional NN with all the input word representations sharing the same weights
- It could also be made fully convolutional
- Less sensitive than n-grams to sparsity



- Posterior estimate of the next word
- Classification layer, softmax among all vocabulary words
- Hidden layer(s)
- Word representation, e.g. w2Vec
- Input sentence, one hot encoding

RNNs

Language models

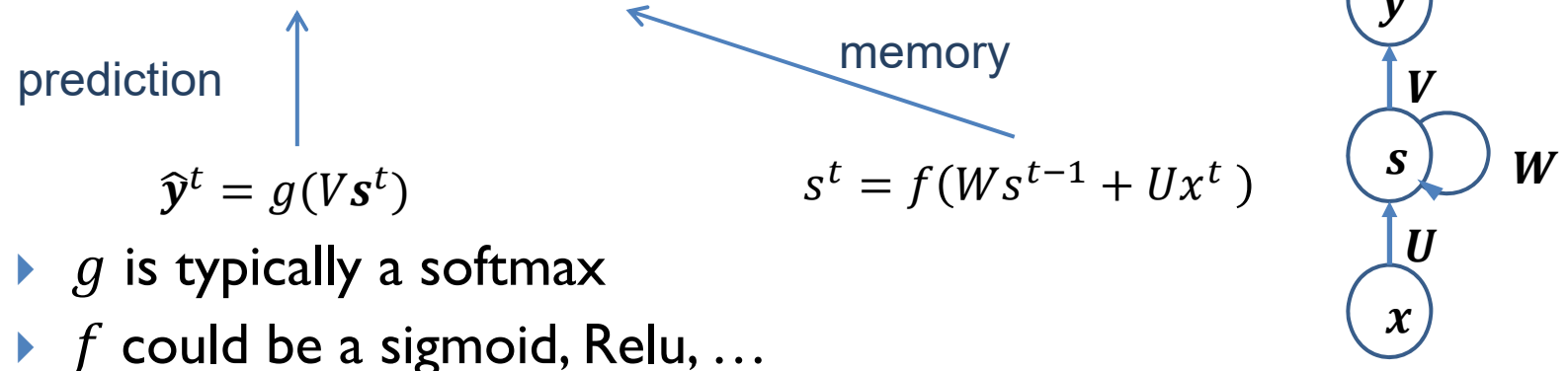
- ▶ RNNs offer an alternative approach to non recurrent NNs

- ▶ Objective:

- ▶ Probability models of sequences (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^t)

- ▶ Estimate with RNNs:

- ▶ $p(x^t | x^{t-1}, \dots, x^1)$



- ▶ g is typically a softmax
- ▶ f could be a sigmoid, Relu, ...
- ▶ x will usually be a word/ item representation learned from large corpora

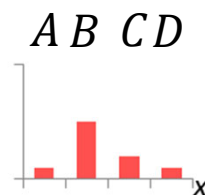
Recurrent neural networks Language models

► Training

- Use a corpus of text, e.g. a sequence of words (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^T)
- Feed the sequence into the RNN, one word at a time
- Compute the output distribution \hat{y}^t for each time step
 - \hat{y}^t is a distribution on the word dictionary
 - This is the estimated posterior probability distribution given past subsequence
 - If the dictionary is $V = \{A, B, C, D\}$:

- Loss function

- Classically the cross entropy between distribution y^t



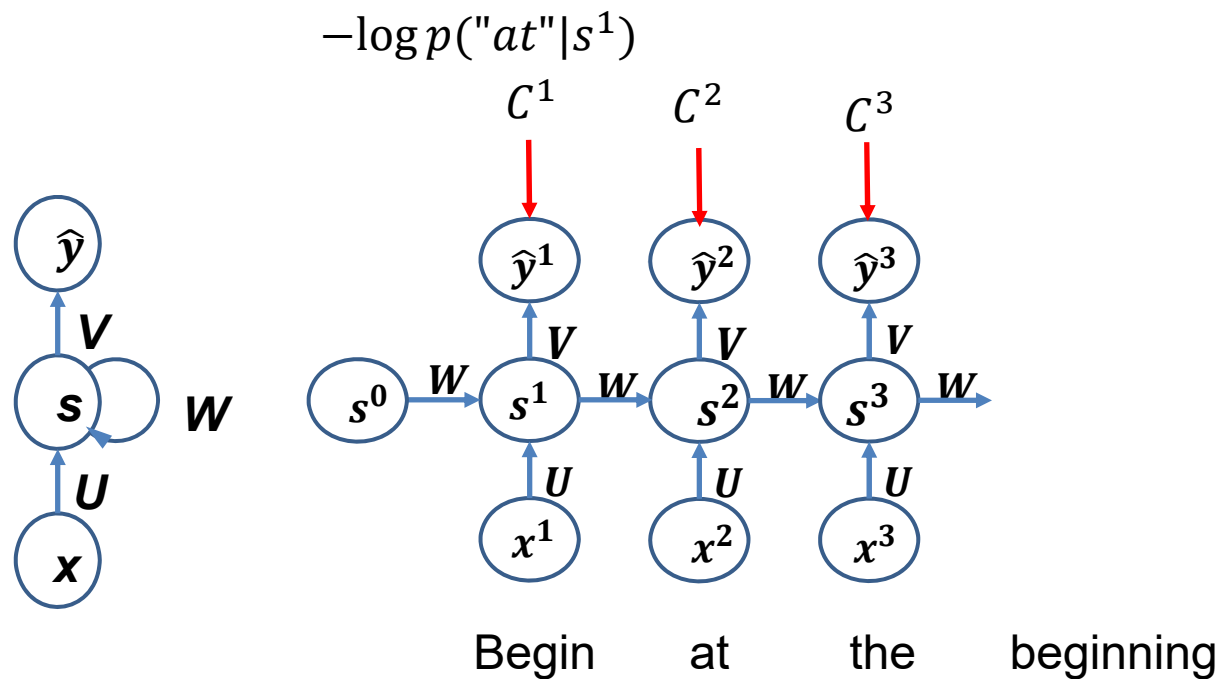
$\hat{y}^t = P(x^{t+1} | s^t)$
distribution \hat{y}^t and the target

- Loss at time t in the sequence: $C^t = C(\hat{y}^t, y^t) = -\sum_{i=1}^{|V|} y_i^t \log \hat{y}_i^t = -\log \hat{y}_{x_{t+1}}^t$
 - With $\hat{y}_{x_{t+1}}^t$ denoting the predicted output for the target class y_i^t (i.e. next word to predict)
 - Loss over a sequence of length T corpus $C = \sum_{t=1}^T C^t$
 - In practice, one uses a mini batch of sentences sampled from the corpus and use a stochastic gradient algorithm

Recurrent neural networks Language models

► Training

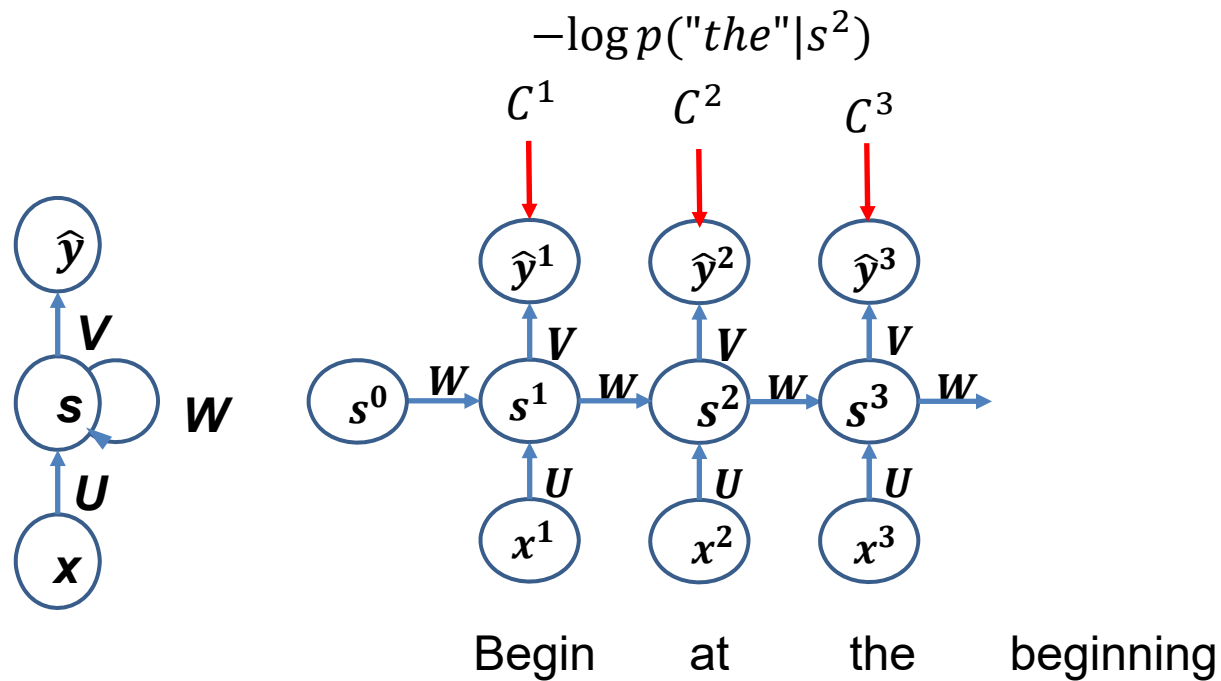
$$\hat{y}^t = P(x^{t+1}|s^t)$$



Recurrent neural networks Language models

► Training

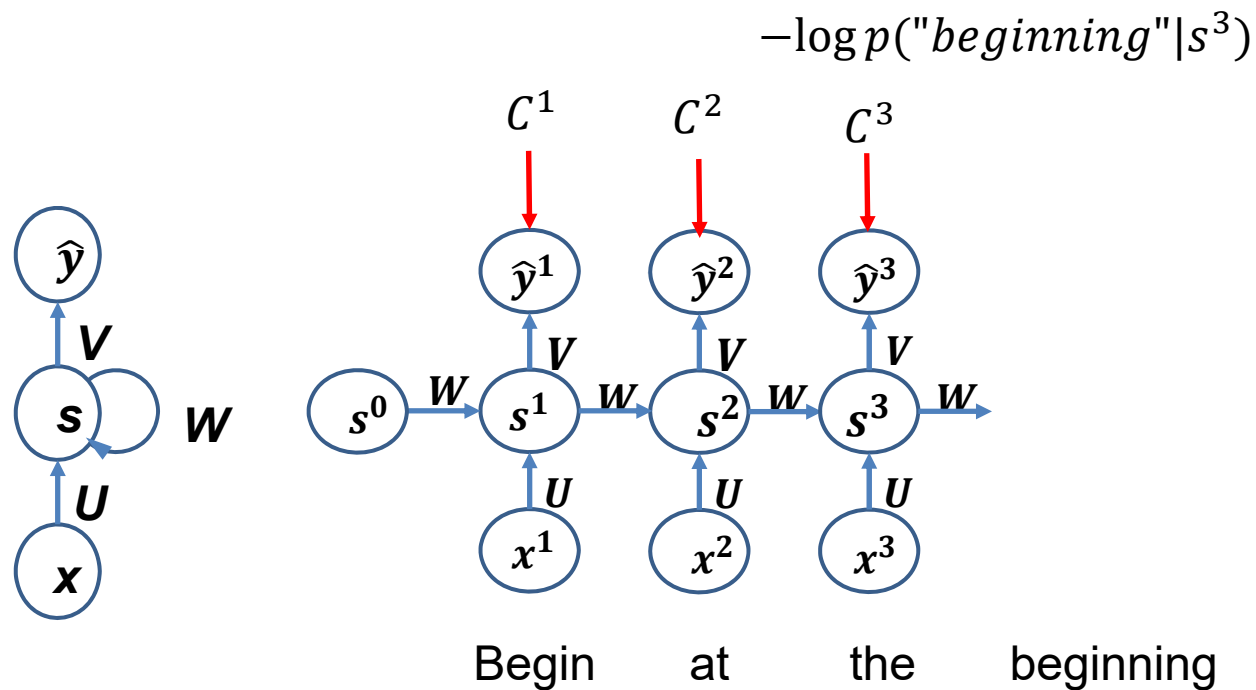
$$\hat{y}^t = P(x^{t+1}|s^t)$$



Recurrent neural networks Language models

► Training

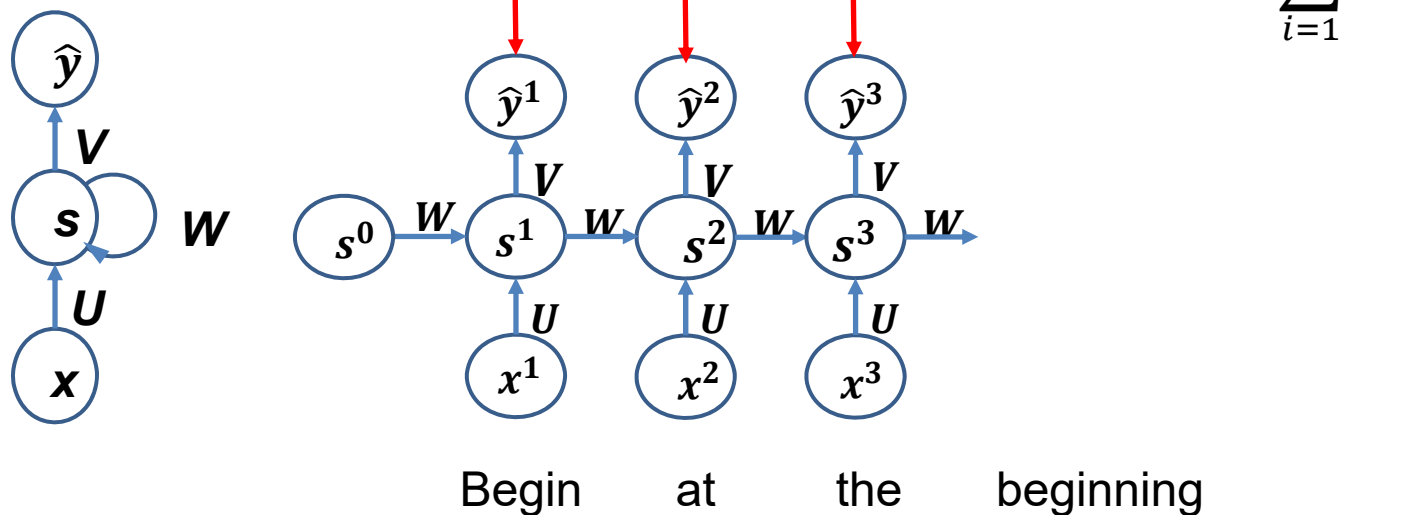
$$\hat{y}^t = P(x^{t+1}|s^t)$$



Recurrent neural networks Language models

► Training

$$\hat{y}^t = P(x^{t+1}|s^t)$$



► Note

- Weights are shared: only one U , one V , one W for the whole NN

Recurrent neural networks Language models

▶ Training algorithm: Back Propagation Through Time - BPTT

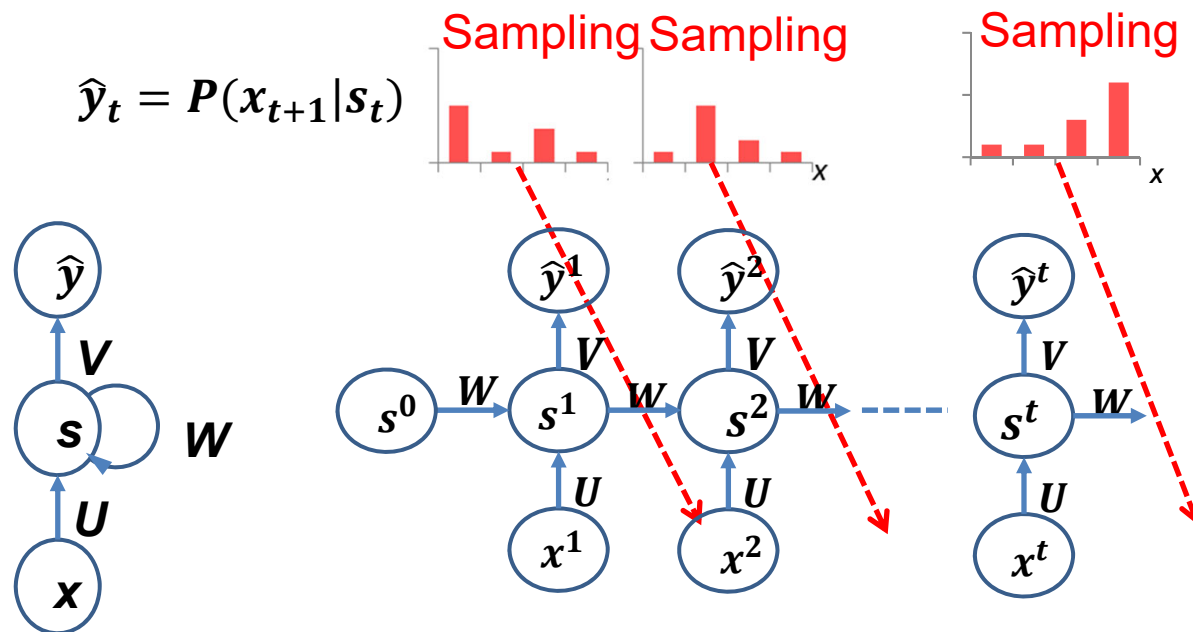
- ▶ Consider a sequence of words (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^T) sampled from the training set
- ▶ Loss function for a sequence : $\mathcal{C} = \sum_{t=1}^T \mathcal{C}^t$
 - ▶ SGD: compute the loss for the sequence (actually a batch of sequences), compute the gradient and update the parameters
 - ▶ Recall, weights are shared: only one U , one V , one W
- ▶ Example: update of the shared W weights
 - ▶ Gradient of the loss for the whole sequence: compute the derivatives w.r.t. each \mathcal{C}^t and sums them:
 - $\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}}{\partial W} = \sum_{t=1 \dots T} \frac{\partial \mathcal{C}^t}{\partial W}$
 - ▶ Gradient of the loss for the loss at time t , \mathcal{C}^t :
 - $\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}^t}{\partial W} = \sum_{i=1}^t \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}^t}{\partial W} \right)_{(i)}$ where $\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{C}^t}{\partial W} \right)_{(i)}$ is the gradient of the loss w.r.t. weight at position $i \leq t$
 - Backpropagate over time steps $i = 1 \dots t$, summing the gradient: BPTT
- ▶ This training regime is called teacher forcing
 - ▶ Successive sequential inputs correspond to the true sequence
 - ▶ Different during inference (see next slide)

RNNs

Language models

► Inference

- Suppose the RNN has been trained
- Inference processes by sampling from the predicted distribution



RNNs

Language models – Word representation

- ▶ Words, characters, n-grams, word pieces are all discrete data
- ▶ How to represent them
 - ▶ The usual way is to embed the words, etc in a continuous space of high dimension e.g. R^{200} , i.e. each word will be a vector in R^{200}
 - ▶ This could be done
 - ▶ Off line using some embedding technique (e.g. Word2Vec, see later)
 - Advantage, this can be done by using very large text collections
 - These representations could then be used for downstream tasks (e.g. classification)
 - ▶ On line while training the language model
 - In this case, the x s are initialized at random values in R^n and are learned by backpropagating the error, together with the other parameters
 - We usually lose the benefit of training on large corpora

Language models – examples

- ▶ Language models can be used to learn text representations, Generate text, Translation, Dialogue, etc

Inverse Cooking: Recipe Generation from Food Images, Salvador et al CVPR 2019



Title: Biscuits

Ingredients:

Flour, butter, sugar, egg, milk, salt.

Instructions:

- Preheat oven to 450 degrees.
- Cream butter and sugar.
- Add egg and milk.
- Sift flour and salt together.
- Add to creamed mixture.
- Roll out on floured board to 1/4 inch thickness.
- Cut with biscuit cutter.
- Place on ungreased cookie sheet.
- Bake for 10 minutes.

Figure 1: Example of a generated recipe, composed of a title, ingredients and cooking instructions.

Language generation, Training on Tolstoy's War and Peace a character language model, Stacked RNNs (LSTMs) (Karpathy 2015-
<https://karpathy.github.io/2015/05/21/rnneffectiveness/>)

tyntd-iafhatawiaoirdemot lytdws e ,tfti, astai f ogoh eoase rrranbyne 'nhtnee e
plia tkrlgd t o idoe ns,smtt h ne etie h,hregtrs niglike,aoaenns lng

train more

"Tmont thithey" fomesscerliund
Keushey. Thom here
sheulke, anmerenith ol sivh I lalterthend Bleipile shuwv fil on aseterlome
coaniogennc Phe lism thond hon at. MeiDimorotion in ther thize."

train more

Aftair fall unsuch that the hall for Prince Velzonski's that me of
her hearly, and behs to so arwage fiving were to it beloge, pavu say falling misfort
how, and Gogition is so overelical and ofter.

train more

"Why do what that day," replied Natasha, and wishing to himself the fact the
princess, Princess Mary was easier, fed in had oftened him.
Pierre aking his soul came to the packs and drove up his father-in-law women.

Learning word vector representations

Word2Vec model (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

▶ Goal

▶ Learn word representations

- ▶ Words or language entities belong to a discrete space
- ▶ They could be described using one hot encoding, but this is meaningless
- ▶ How to represent these entities with meaningful representations?

▶ Word2Vec model

- ▶ Learn robust vector representation of words that can be used in different Natural Language Processing or Information retrieval tasks
 - ▶ Learn word representations in phrase contexts
 - ▶ Learn using **very** large text corpora
 - ▶ Learn efficient, low complexity transformations
- ▶ Successful and influential work that gave rise to many developments and extensions
- ▶ Still in use, but superseded by Transformer based learned representations

How to encode words according to their semantic meaning

- ▶ **Representing words as discrete symbols**

- ▶ In traditional NLP, we regard words as discrete symbols: Words can be represented by **one-hot vectors** - Each word is a distinct symbol
- ▶ **Example:** in web search, if user searches for “Seattle motel”, we would like to match documents containing “Seattle hotel”.
 - ▶ motel = [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0]
 - ▶ hotel = [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0]
 - These two vectors are orthogonal.
 - There is **no natural notion of similarity** for one-hot vectors!
- ▶ **Vector dimension** = number of words in vocabulary (e.g., 500,000)
 - ▶ Very large dimensional discrete space - Problem for machine learning - sparsity

Semantics: words

- ▶ Instead: learn to encode similarity in the vectors themselves
 - ▶ GloVe (Pennington et al. 2014)

Nearest words to
frog:

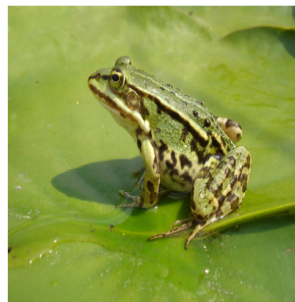
1. frogs
2. toad
3. litoria
4. leptodactylidae
5. rana
6. lizard
7. eleutherodactylus



litoria



leptodactylidae



rana



eleutherodactylus

Words in vector space

Representing words by their context

- ▶ Distributional semantics: A word's meaning is given by the words that frequently appear close-by
 - ▶ One of the most successful ideas of modern statistical NLP!
- ▶ When a word w appears in a text, its context is the set of words that appear nearby (within a fixed-size window).
 - ▶ Use the many contexts of w to build up a representation of w

...government debt problems turning into **banking** crises as happened in 2009...
...saying that Europe needs unified **banking** regulation to replace the hodgepodge...
...India has just given its **banking** system a shot in the arm...

The diagram illustrates the concept of context words for a target word. It features a light blue rectangular box containing three sentences, each with the word 'banking' highlighted in red. Below this box, two blue curly braces are positioned under the first and third sentences. Arrows from these braces point downwards to the text 'context words will represent *banking*'. This indicates that the words surrounding 'banking' in these sentences are used to define its meaning in a vector space.

context words will
represent *banking*

Words in vector space

Representing words by their context

- ▶ Word embeddings

- ▶ We represent words by vectors so that words with similar contexts share « close » representations in the vector space

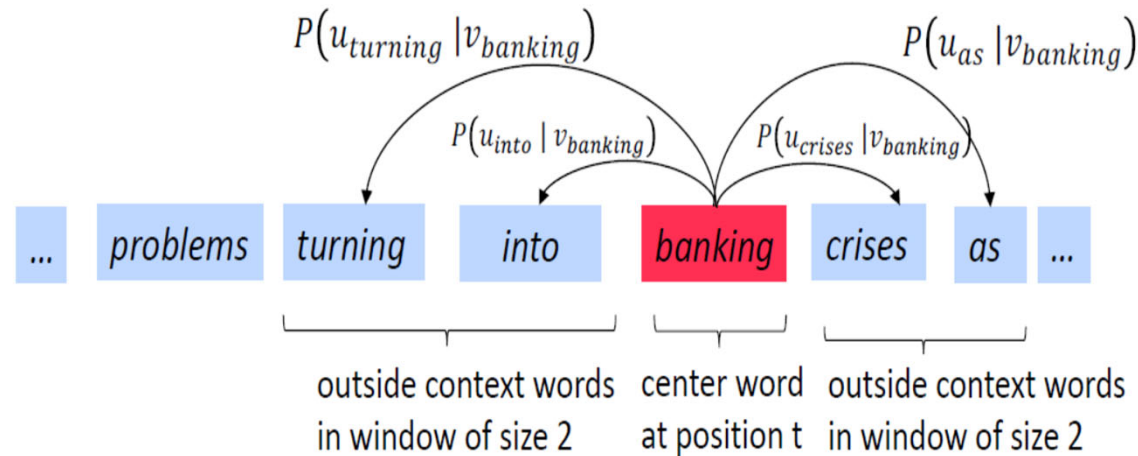
$$\textit{banking} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.87 \\ 0.45 \\ -0.34 \\ -0.63 \\ 0.23 \\ 0.16 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ Key idea

- ▶ These representations are learned from very large corpora for representing a large variety of situations/ contexts
 - ▶ No need for supervision
- ▶ These embeddings will be used for downstream tasks, e.g. classification

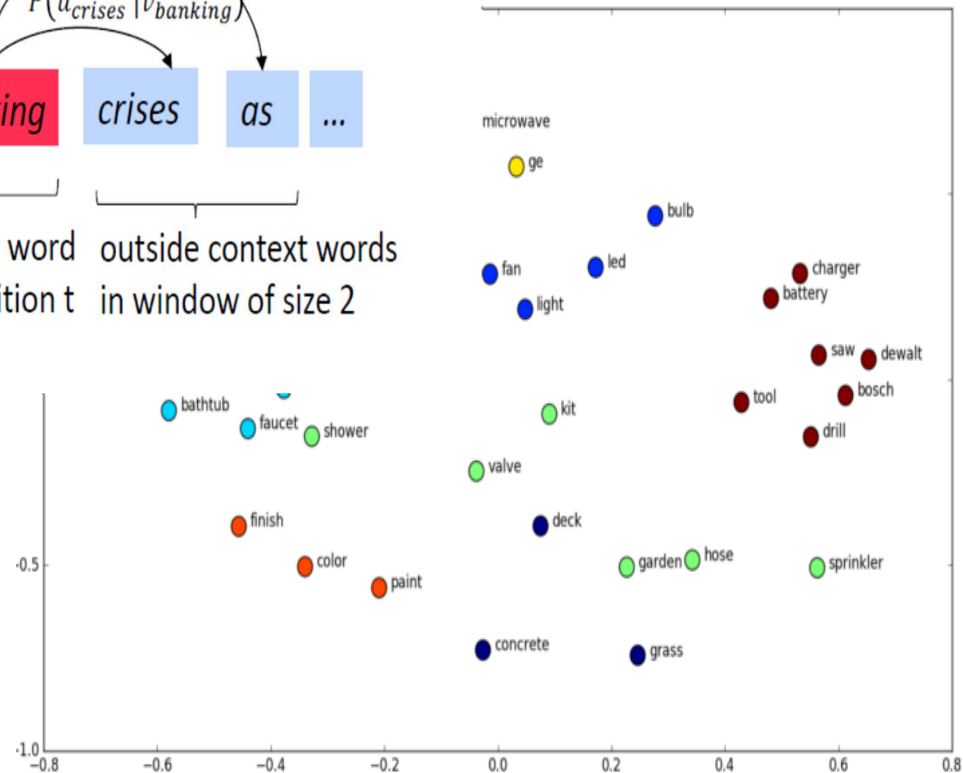
Word embeddings

Word2Vec – Mikolov et al. 2013



30

$$p(o|c) = \frac{\exp(u_o \cdot v_c)}{\sum_{w \in \text{Vocabulary}} \exp(u_w \cdot v_c)}$$



Word embeddings projections on 2D space:
words with similar contexts are close in the
embedding space

Learning word vector representations (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

► CBOW model

► Task

- Predict the middle word of a sequence of words

► Input and output word representations are learned jointly

- (random initialization)

► The projection layer is linear followed by a sigmoid

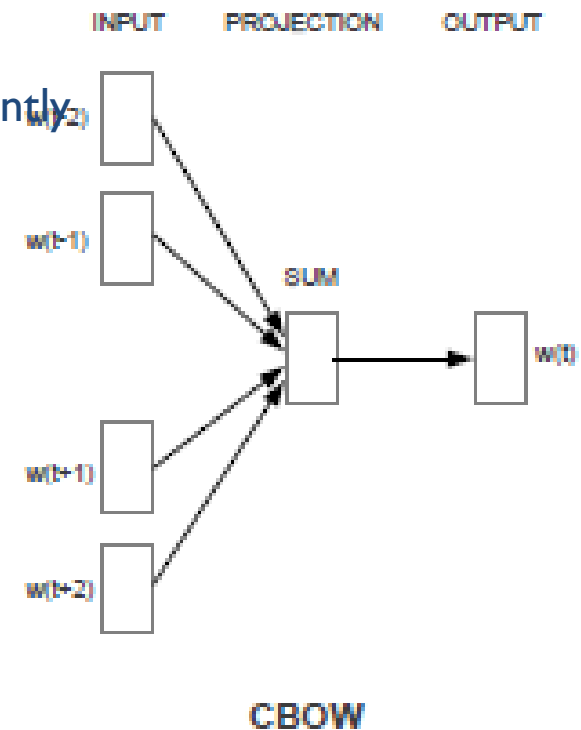
► Word weight vectors in the projection layer are shared (all the weight vectors are the same)

► The output layer computes a hierarchical softmax

- See later

- This allows computing the output in $O(\log_2(\text{dictionary size}))$ instead of $O(\text{dictionary size})$

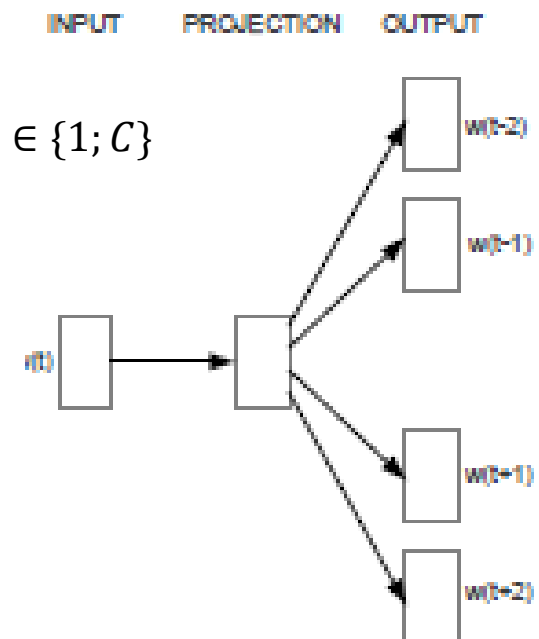
► The context is typically 4 words before and 4 after



Learning word vector representations (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

► Skip Gram model

- Similar to the CBOW model, except that the context is predicted from the central word instead of the reverse
- Input and outputs have different representations for the same word
- The output is computed using a hierarchical softmax classifier
- Output words are sampled less frequently if they are far from the input word
 - i.e. if the context is $C = 5$ words each side, one selects $R \in \{1; C\}$ and use R words for the output context



Learning word vector representations (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

► Skip gram model

► Loss average log probability

$$L = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{-c \leq j \leq c, j \neq 0} \log p(w_{t+j} | w_t)$$

- Where T is the number of words in the whole sequence used for training (roughly number of words in the corpus) and c is the context size

$$p(w_{out} | w_{in}) = \frac{\exp(v_{w_{out}} \cdot v_{w_{in}})}{\sum_{w=1}^V \exp(v_w \cdot v_{w_{in}})}$$

- Where v_w is the learned representation of the w vector (the hidden layer), $v_{w_{out}} \cdot v_{w_{in}}$ is a dot product and V is the vocabulary size
- Note that computing this softmax function is impractical since it is proportional to the size of the vocabulary
- In practice, this can be reduced to a complexity proportional to $\log_2 V$ using a binary tree structure for computing the softmax
 - Other alternatives are possible to compute the softmax in a reasonable time
 - In Mikolov 2013: simplified version of negative sampling
 - $l(w_{in}, w_{out}) = \log \sigma(v_{w_{out}} \cdot v_{w_{in}}) + \sum_{i=1}^k \log \sigma(-v_{w_i} \cdot v_{w_{in}})$
 - with $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$

Learning word vector representations (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

► Properties

- « analogical reasoning »
- This model learns analogical relationships between terms in the representation space
 - i.e. term pairs that share similar relations are share a similar geometric transformation in the representation space
 - Example for the relation « capital of »
 - In the vector space
 - $\text{Paris} - \text{France} + \text{Italy} = \text{Rome}$
 - At least approximatively
 - i.e. Rome is the nearest vector to
 - $\text{Paris} - \text{France} + \text{Italy}$
- Reasoning via more complex inferences
- is however difficult:
 - Combination of transformations
 - to infer more complex facts is not effective

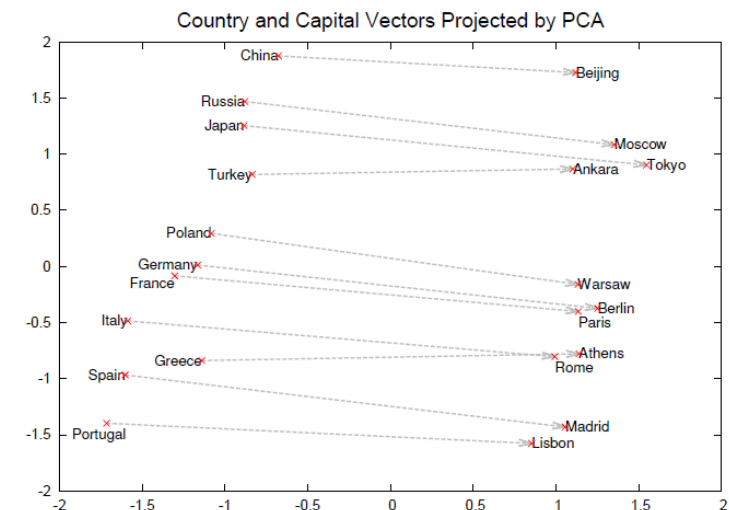


Figure 2: Two-dimensional PCA projection of the 1000-dimensional Skip-gram vectors of countries and their capital cities. The figure illustrates ability of the model to automatically organize concepts and learn implicitly the relationships between them, as during the training we did not provide any supervised information about what a capital city means.

Figure from Mikolov 2013

Learning word vector representations (Mikolov et al. 2013a, 2013b)

- ▶ Paris – France + Italy = Rome

Table 8: Examples of the word pair relationships, using the best word vectors from Table 4 (Skip-gram model trained on 783M words with 300 dimensionality).

Relationship	Example 1	Example 2	Example 3
France - Paris	Italy: Rome	Japan: Tokyo	Florida: Tallahassee
big - bigger	small: larger	cold: colder	quick: quicker
Miami - Florida	Baltimore: Maryland	Dallas: Texas	Kona: Hawaii
Einstein - scientist	Messi: midfielder	Mozart: violinist	Picasso: painter
Sarkozy - France	Berlusconi: Italy	Merkel: Germany	Koizumi: Japan
copper - Cu	zinc: Zn	gold: Au	uranium: plutonium
Berlusconi - Silvio	Sarkozy: Nicolas	Putin: Medvedev	Obama: Barack
Microsoft - Windows	Google: Android	IBM: Linux	Apple: iPhone
Microsoft - Ballmer	Google: Yahoo	IBM: McNeaty	Apple: Jobs
Japan - sushi	Germany: bratwurst	France: tapas	USA: pizza

Word2Vec extensions, example of FastText

- ▶ After W2V, several similar ideas and extensions have been published
 - ▶ Among the more popular are Glove (Pennington 2014) and FastText (Bojanowski 2017)
 - ▶ Vector representations learned on large corpora with these methods are made available
 - ▶ FastText is a simple extension of the skipgram model in W2V, where n-grams are used as text units instead of words in W2V
 - ▶ Consider the word « where » and 3-grams. « where » will be represented as:
 - <wh, whe, her, ere, re>, with « < » and « > » corresponding to special « begin » and « end » characters
 - A vector representation z_i is associated to each n-gram i
 - The word representation is simply the sum of the n-gram representations of the word description
 - ▶ Remember $p(w_{out}|w_{in}) = \frac{\exp(v_{w_{out}} \cdot v_{w_{in}})}{\sum_{w=1}^V \exp(v_w \cdot v_{w_{in}})}$ in W2V
 - ▶ $v_{w_{out}} \cdot v_{w_{in}}$ is replaced by $\sum_{z_i \in \text{ngram}(w_{in})} v_{w_{out}} \cdot z_i$
 - ▶ And similarly for $v_w \cdot v_{w_{in}}$

Language models - Evaluation

- ▶ A classical criterion for evaluating language models is **perplexity**

- ▶ $PP(model\ p_{LM}) = \left(\frac{1}{p_{LM}(x^1, \dots, x^T)} \right)^{1/T} = \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{p_{LM}(x^{t+1} | x^t, \dots, x^1)} \right)^{1/T}$

- ▶ Where $p_{LM}()$ is the probability estimate of the language model

- ▶ $PP(model\ p_{LM}) = \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{|V|} y_i^t \hat{y}_i^t} \right)^{1/T} = \left(\prod_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{\hat{y}_{x_{t+1}}^t} \right)^{1/T}$

- ▶ With $y_i^t \in \{0,1\}$ the target code at time t for word i and \hat{y}_i^t the corresponding predicted value. $\hat{y}_{x_{t+1}}^t$ is the prediction for input x_{t+1}

- ▶ $PP(model\ p_{LM}) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T -\log \hat{y}_{x_{t+1}}^t\right) = \exp(C)$

- ▶ i.e. exponential of the cross-entropy loss C
 - ▶ Perplexity $PP(model\ p_{LM})$ is estimated on a test set of sentences
 - ▶ Lower is better

Language models - Evaluation

► Interpretations

- Weighted average branching factor of a language: average nb of words following another word
 - e.g. for random digit sequences, perplexity is 10
- Perplexity estimates on the WSJ corpus (1.5 M words test corpus, dictionary size = 20 k words) for n-gram models

Unigram

962

Bigram

170

Trigram

109

Fig. from XX

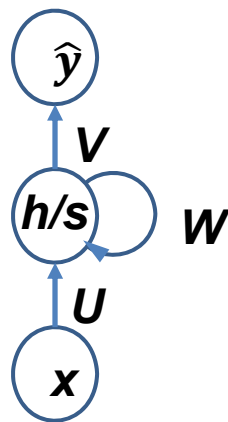
Translation

- ▶ NN have been used for a long time in translation systems (as an additional component, e.g. for reranking or as language model)
- ▶ Recently translation systems have been proposed that are based on recurrent neural networks with GRU or LSTM units.
 - ▶ Initial papers: Sutskever et al. 2014, Cho et al. 2014
- ▶ General principle
 - ▶ Sentence to sentence translation
 - ▶ Use an encoder-decoder architecture
 - ▶ Encoding is performed using a RNN on the input sentence (e.g. English)
 - ▶ This transforms a variable length sequence into a fixed size vector which encodes the whole sentence
 - ▶ Starting with this encoding, another RNN generates the translated sentence (e.g. French)
 - ▶ Instead of using a fixed length encoding, current systems use an **attention mechanism**

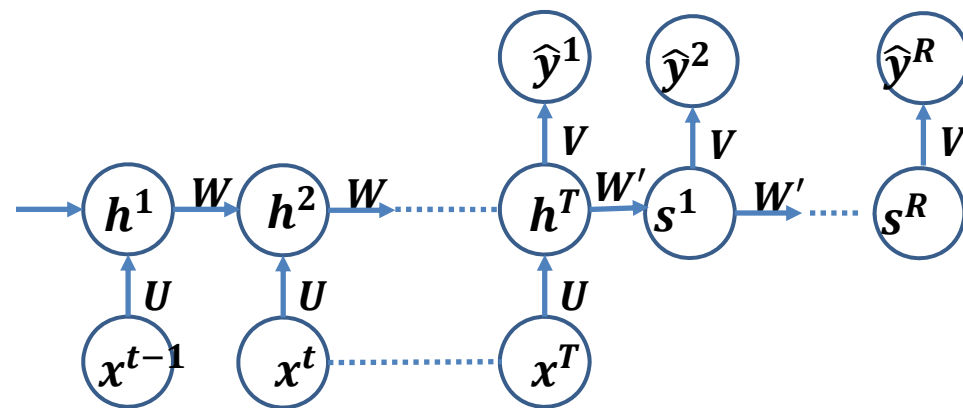
Encoder-Decoder paradigm: example of neural translation – (Cho et al. 2014, Sutskever et al. 2014)

- ▶ First attempts for DL Machine Translation with RNNs

Recurrent NN



Unfolded recurrent NN for translation



- ▶ Proof of concept, did not match SOTA, several improvements since this first attempt
- ▶ Replaced by Attention Models - Transformers

Translation

▶ Let

- ▶ x^1, \dots, x^T be an input sentence
- ▶ $y^1, \dots, y^{T'}$ be an output sentence
- ▶ Note that T and T' are most often different and that the word order in the two sentences is also generally different

▶ Objective

- ▶ Learn $p(y^1, \dots, y^{T'} | x^1, \dots, x^T)$
- ▶ Encoder
 - ▶ Reads each symbol of the input sentence sequentially using a RNN
 - ▶ After each symbol the state of the RNN is changed according to $\mathbf{h}^t = f(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{h}^{t-1})$
 - ▶ After reading the sentence, the final state is $\mathbf{h}^T = \mathbf{v}$
- ▶ Decoder
 - ▶ Generates the output sequence by predicting the next symbol y^t given $\mathbf{s}^{t-1}, y^{t-1}$ and the vector \mathbf{v}
 - $\mathbf{s}^t = f(\mathbf{y}^{t-1}, \mathbf{s}^{t-1}, \mathbf{v})$
 - $p(y^t | y^{t-1}, \dots, y^1, \mathbf{v}) = g(y^{t-1}, \mathbf{s}^t, \mathbf{v})$

▶ Training: cross-entropy loss

- ▶ $\max_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \log p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y}_s^n | \mathbf{x}_s^n)$, where \mathbf{x}_s^n and \mathbf{y}_s^n are sentences and p_{θ} is the translation model, N is the number of sentences

Translation

- ▶ **Typical architecture**
 - ▶ RNN with 1000 hidden cells
 - ▶ Word embeddings of dimension between 100 and 1000
 - ▶ Softmax at the output for computing the word probabilities
 - ▶ Of the order of 100 M parameters

Google Neural Machine Translation System

(Wu et al 2016)

<https://research.googleblog.com/2016/09/a-neural-network-for-machine.html>

► General Architecture

Encoder: 8 stacked LSTM RNN + residual connections

Decoder: 8 stacked LSTM RNN + residual connections + Softmax output layer

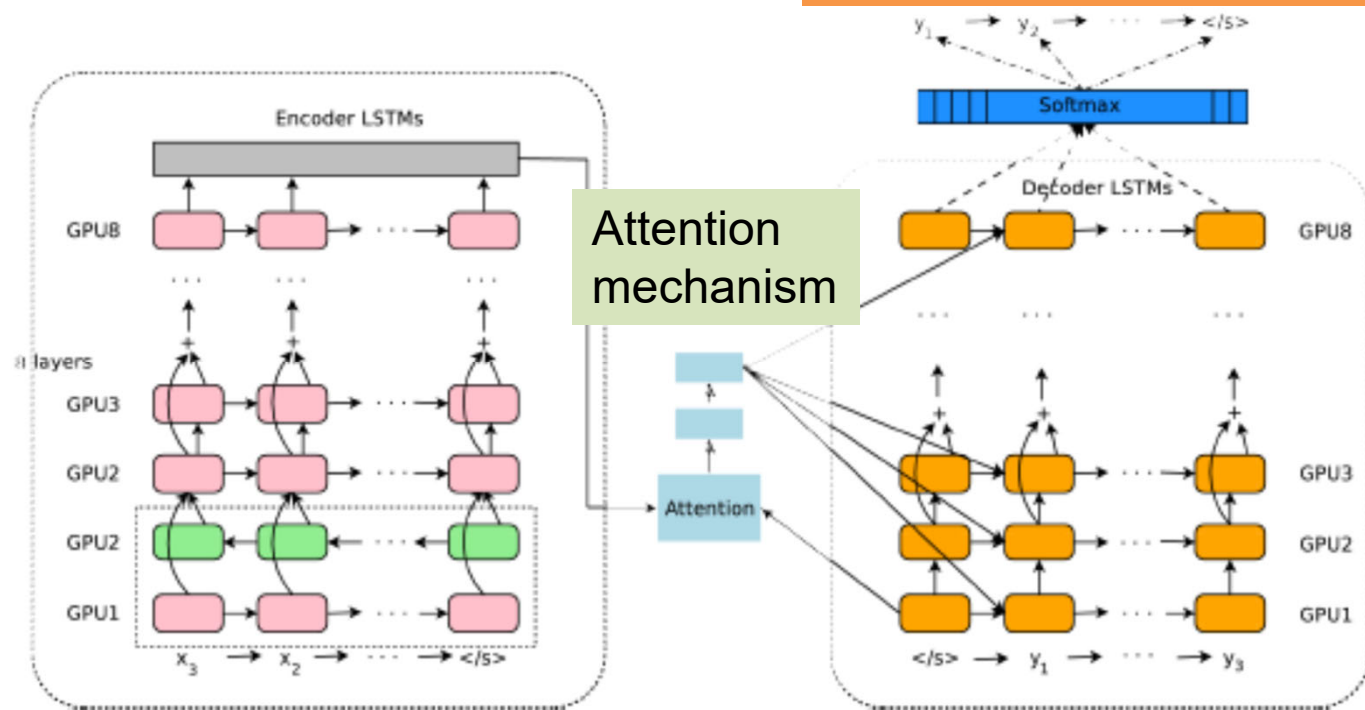


Figure from Wu et al. 2016

Neural image caption generator (Vinyals et al. 2015)

► Objective

- Learn a textual description of an image
 - i.e. using an image as input, generate a sentence that describes the objects and their relation!

► Model

- Inspired by a translation approach but the input is an image
 - Use a RNN to generate the textual description, word by word, provided a learned description of an image via a deep CNN

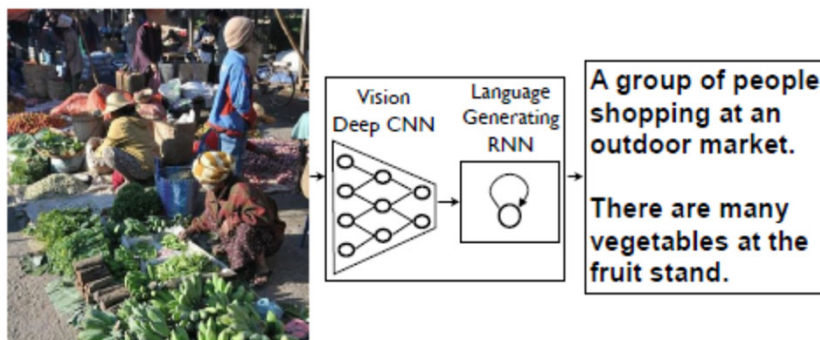
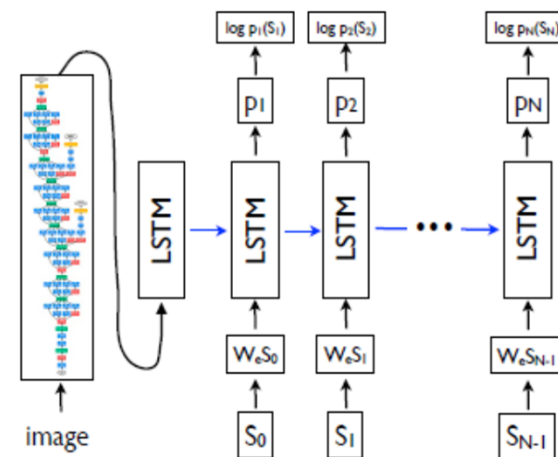


Figure 1. NIC, our model, is based end-to-end on a neural network consisting of a vision CNN followed by a language generating RNN. It generates complete sentences in natural language from an input image, as shown on the example above.

Neural image caption generator (Vinyals et al. 2015)

► Loss criterion

- $\max_{\theta} \sum_{I,S} \log p(S|I; \theta)$
 - Where (I, S) is an associated couple (Image, Sentence)
 - Notations correspond to the figure
- $\log p(S|I; \theta) = \sum_{t=1}^N \log p(S_t|I, S_0, \dots, S_{t-1})$
- $p(S_t|I, S_0, \dots, S_{t-1})$ is modeled with a RNN with S_0, \dots, S_{t-1} encoded into the hidden state h_t of the RNN
- Here $s^{t+1} = f(s^t, x_t)$ is modelled using a RNN with LSTM cells
- For encoding the image, a CNN is used



Neural image caption generator (Vinyals et al. 2015)



Figure 5. A selection of evaluation results, grouped by human rating.