Deep Learning for NLP



Lecture 3 – Learning in MLPs / Backprop

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This lecture:



- Gradient Descent Learning:
 - A general optimization technique for non-linear functions
- Backpropagation
 - A general technique to determine the gradients in neural networks
- Language Modeling
 - A general approach to model natural languages

Outline



Gradient Descent

Excursion: Continuous Optimization



Consider generally the problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(\mathbf{w})$$

for a smooth function $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

Excursion: Continuous Optimization



Consider generally the problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^n} F(\mathbf{w})$$

for a smooth function $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

One general technique for addressing this problem is gradient descent:

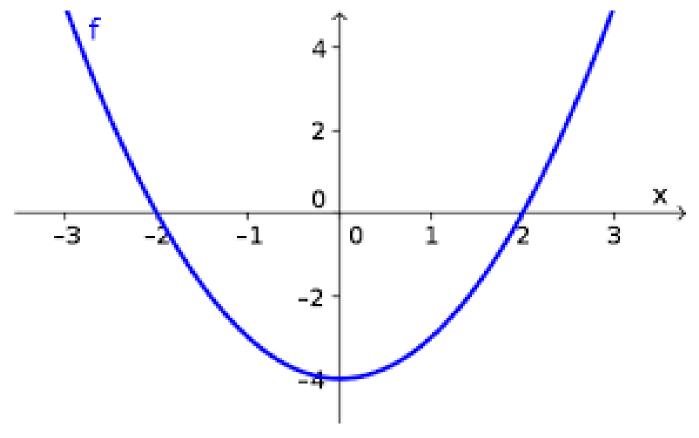
$$\mathbf{w'} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \alpha \nabla F(\mathbf{w})$$

where $\, lpha > 0 \,$ and $\,
abla F({f w}) \,$ is the *gradient* of F, evaluated at $\, {f w} \,$:

$$\nabla F(\mathbf{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial F}{\partial y_1}(\mathbf{w}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial F}{\partial y_n}(\mathbf{w}) \end{pmatrix}$$



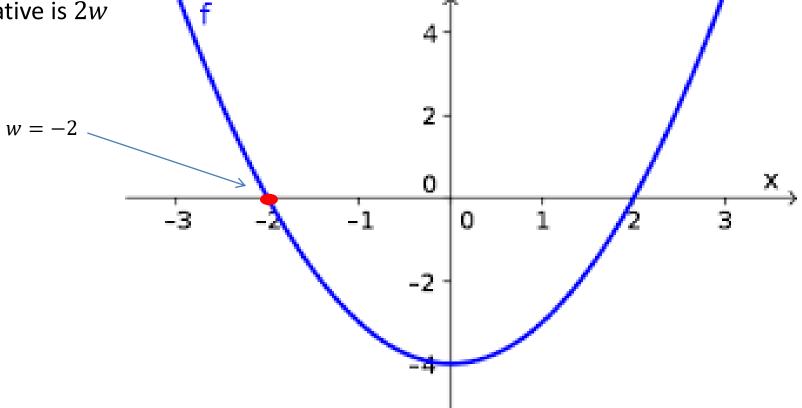
- Consider $F(w) = w^2 4$
- Derivative is 2w



From http://mathinsight.org/media/image/image/graph_x_squared_minus_4.png; note that this is $x^2 - 4$



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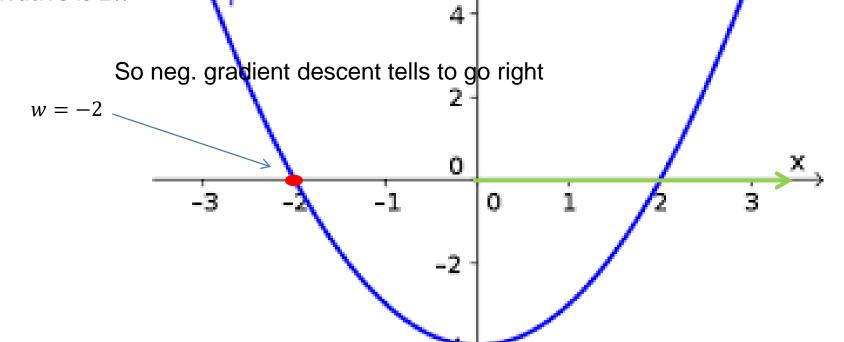


- Consider $F(w) = w^2 4$
- Derivative is 2w Gradient is $2 \cdot w = -4$ w = -20

From http://mathinsight.org/media/image/image/graph x squared minus 4.png; note that this is x^2-4



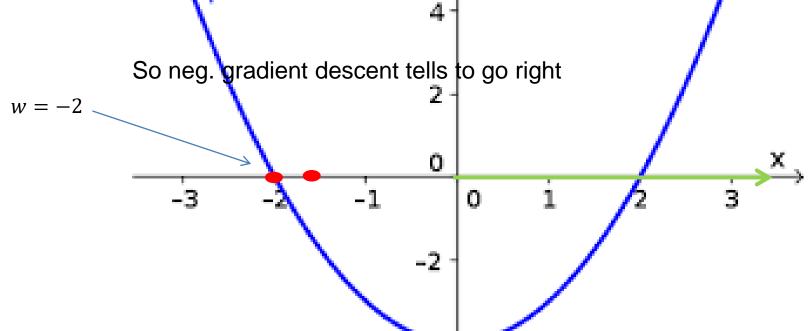
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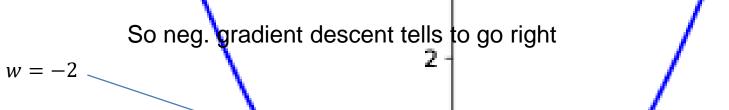
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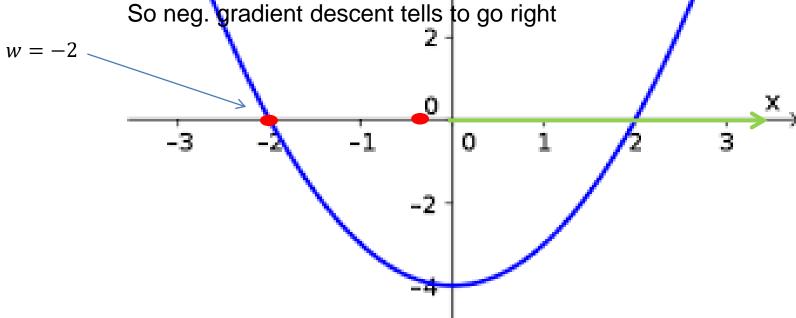
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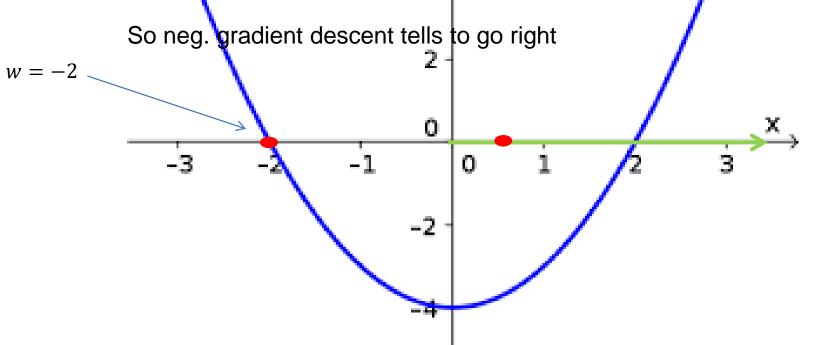




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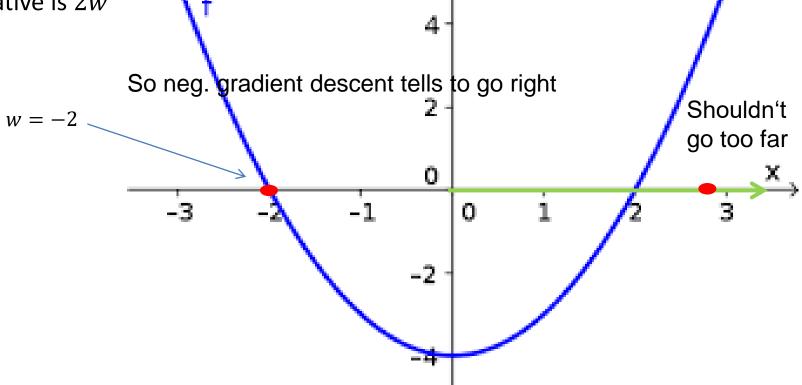
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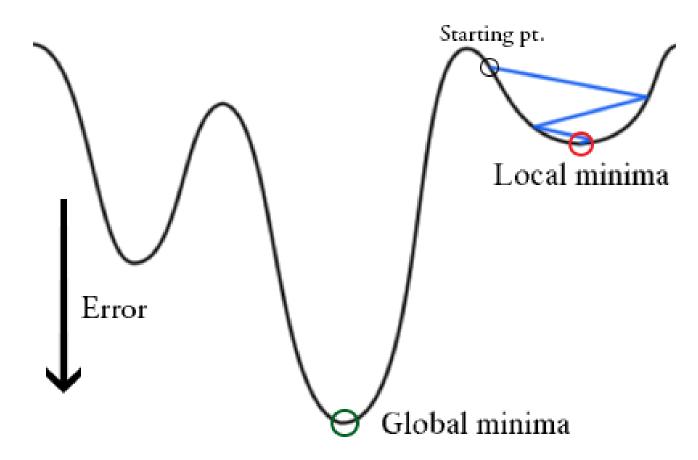
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Gradient descent does not always lead to good solutions





From https://static.thinkingandcomputing.com/2014/03/bprop.png

Other optimization techniques



- Note that other optimization techniques exist
 - Newton methods (2nd order, Hessian)
 - Conjugate gradient
 - **....**
- They may converge faster or be guaranteed to find global optima
 - May also require stronger assumptions
 - Second order methods need to determine the matrix of 2nd order derivatives
 - Rarely used for training neural networks

Batch Learning



- Given data: $(x_1, t_1), ..., (x_n, t_n)$
- Error- / Loss-Function: $\ell(y, t)$
- Objective:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} F(\mathbf{w}) = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i} \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{t}_i)$$

 $w = \theta$ stands for any set of parameters

where f is (e.g.) a neural network

- Batch learning:
 - Compute gradient based on all datapoints

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{w})$$

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \alpha \sum_{i} \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{t}_i)$$

Online Learning



- Given data: $(x_1, t_1), ..., (x_n, t_n)$
- Error- / Loss-Function: $\ell(y, t)$
- Objective:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} F(\mathbf{w}) = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i} \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{t}_i)$$

where f is (e.g.) a neural network

- Online learning:
 - Approximate VF by computing it at only one data point

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \alpha \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}), \mathbf{t}_i)$$
 for all $i = 1, ..., n$

Mini-Batch Learning



- Intermediate solution between batch and online learning
- Select k < n datapoints (randomly) for gradient computation
- $k = 1 \rightarrow$ online learning, $k = n \rightarrow$ batch learning
- Advantage:
 - Computing loss gradient on all datapoints computationally expensive
 - Mini-batch learning converges faster to a good solution than batch learning
- Disadvantage:
 - Unclear how to choose k
 - Smaller k's may lead to better solutions (generalize better)
- Mini-batch learning is also known as (a.k.a) stochastic gradient descent
 - SGD



Outline



Beyond gradient descent

Modifications



■ Adapt learning rate α over time: $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha_t$

- Include momentum
 - smooth with past gradients

Include a regularization term

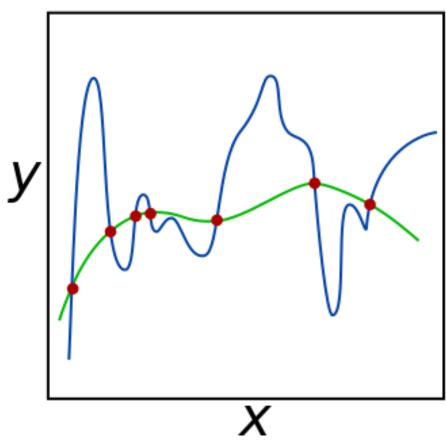
Modifications: Regularization



- Minimize
 - $\bullet \min_{\{w \in R^n\}} F(w) + \gamma R(w)$
 - for $\gamma \geq 0$
- Choose, e.g.,
 - $R(\mathbf{w}) = ||\mathbf{w}||^2 = \sum_i w_i^2$ (L2 regularization)
 - $R(\mathbf{w}) = |\mathbf{w}| = \sum_{i} |w_{i}|$ (L1 regularization)
- Motivation: Occam's razor
 - choose simpler solutions over more complicated ones

Modifications: Regularization





From https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regularization_(mathematics)

Advanced Optimizers



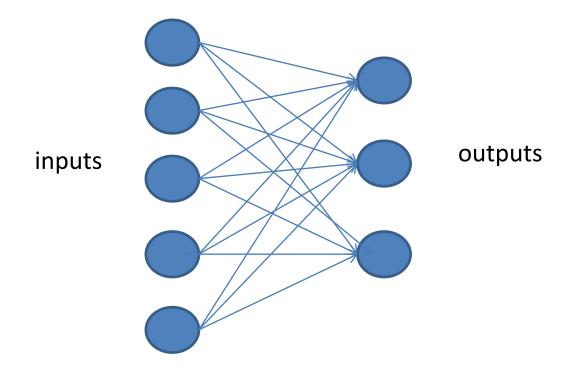
- More advanced optimizers, beyond SGD, have been proposed:
 - RMSProp, AdaGrad, AdaDelta, Adam, Nadam
- These methods train usually faster than SGD
- Found solution is often not as good as by SGD
 - Possible remedy: First train with Adam, fine-tune with SGD
- Great overview: http://ruder.io/optimizing-gradientdescent/index.htm

Outline

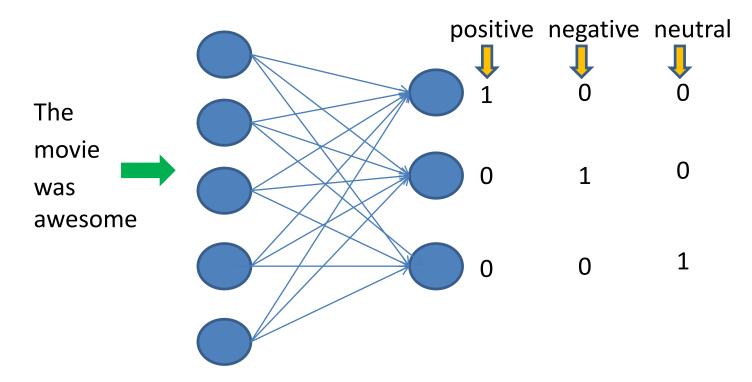


Deep Networks – Terminology (Recap)

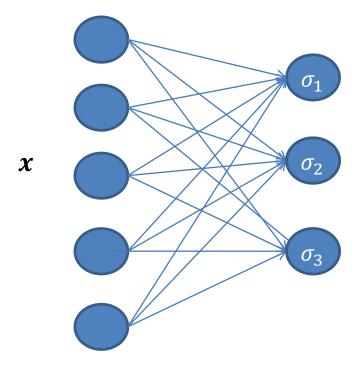




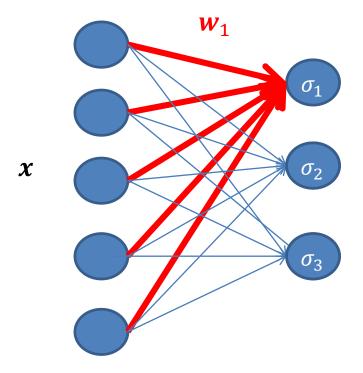




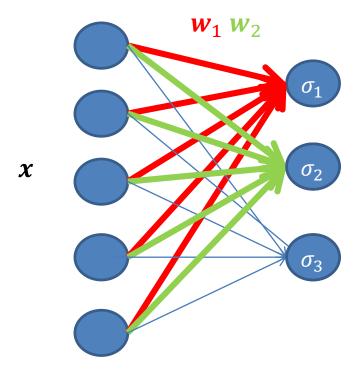




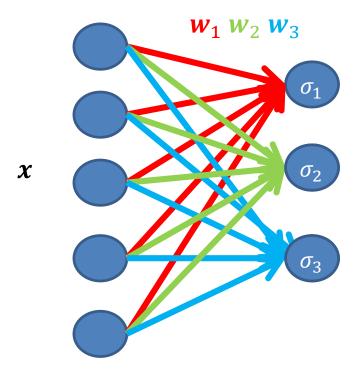




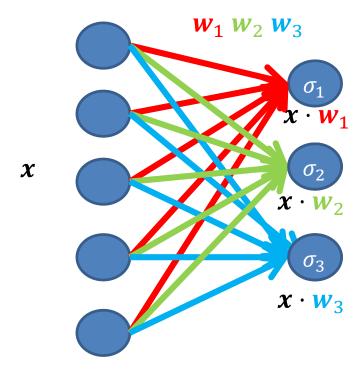




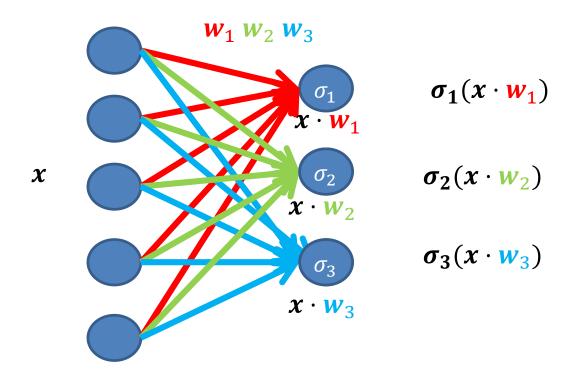




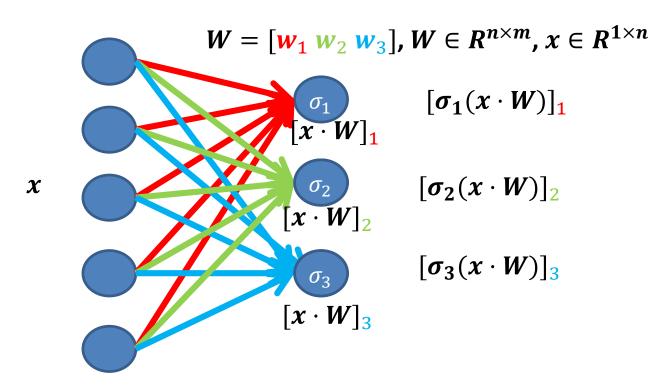




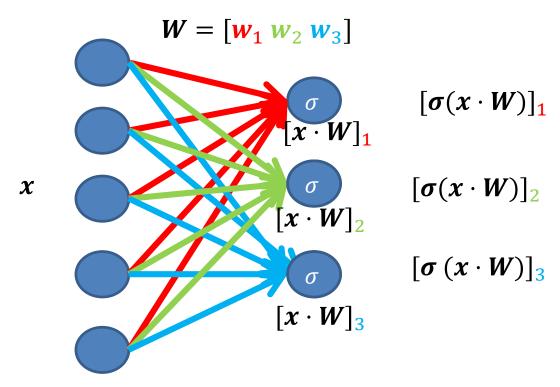






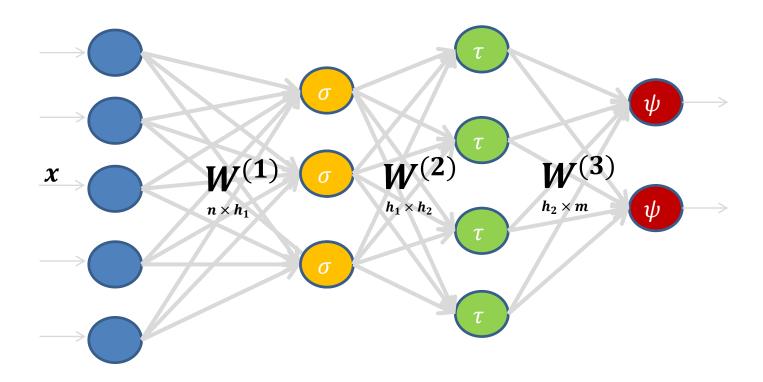








• Multiple **hidden layers/**units



This is called Multi-Layer-Perceptron (MLP). More difficult in terms of optimization

More complex neural networks



- Formally, a feed-forward neural network with H hidden units is a function
 - $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$,
 - with parameter (matrices) $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$, $\mathbf{W}^{(2)}$, ..., $\mathbf{W}^{(H)}$
 - and non-linearities

$$\sigma_1$$
, σ_2 , ..., σ_H

where

•
$$y^{(1)} = \sigma_1(z^{(1)})$$

•
$$\mathbf{z}^{(2)} = \mathbf{y}^{(1)} \cdot \mathbf{W}^{(2)}$$

-
- $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{(H)} = \sigma_H(\mathbf{z}^{(H)})$

Feed-forward NN a.k.a.
MLP

More complex neural networks



- Formally, a feed-forward neural network with H hidden units is a function
 - $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$,
 - with parameter (matrices) $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$, $\mathbf{W}^{(2)}$, ..., $\mathbf{W}^{(H)}$ and biases $\mathbf{b}^{(1)}$, $\mathbf{b}^{(2)}$, ..., $\mathbf{b}^{(H)}$
 - and non-linearities $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_H$
 - where

•
$$z^{(1)} = x \cdot W^{(1)} + b^{(1)}$$

•
$$y^{(1)} = \sigma_1(z^{(1)})$$

•
$$z^{(2)} = y^{(1)} \cdot W^{(2)} + b^{(2)}$$

-
- $z^{(H)} = y^{(H-1)} \cdot W^{(H)} + b^{(H)}$
- $y = \sigma_H(\mathbf{z}^{(H)})$

Why do we need hidden layers?



- Hidden layers can learn useful intermediate representations of the data
 - Helps learning
 - A good organization of hidden layers can make learning much faster
- Perceptron cannot even learn the XOR function
 - In contrast, MLP with one hidden layer is a universal approximator
 - See Cybenko 1989, Approximations by superpositions of sigmoidal functions; Hornik (1991),
 Approximation Capabilities of Multilayer Feedforward Networks
 - i.e. can represent/approximate any continuous function
 - More hidden layers can still be useful for learning an actual task

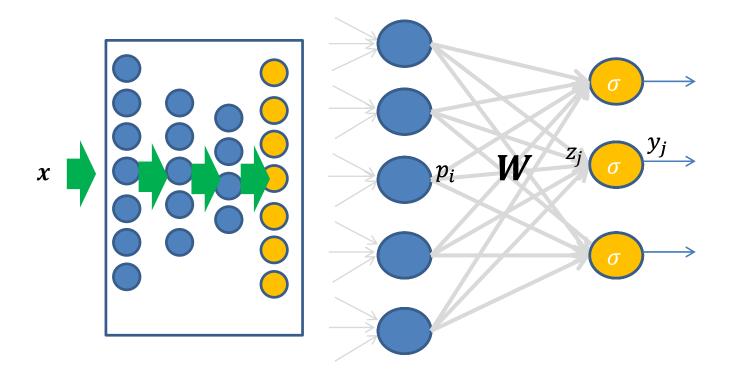
Outline

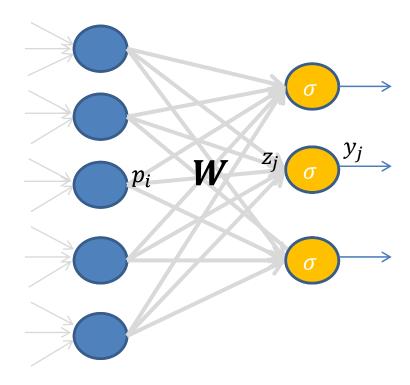


Backpropagation

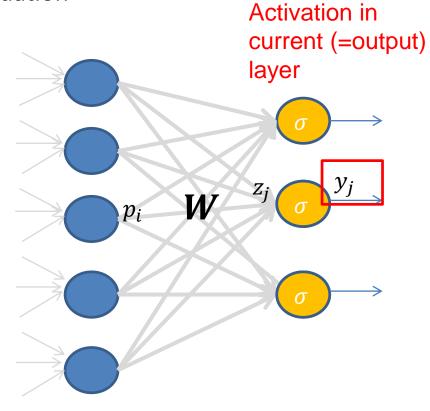
- When we want to use gradient descent for neural network learning, we need gradients over our loss
- For perceptrons, we could easily derive $\nabla \ell$ ourselves (by hand)
- For general MLP, we cannot derive $\nabla \ell$ so easily:
 - How to derive $\nabla \ell$ in these situations is the scope of the backprop algorithm

- Our following mathematical derivations are based on
 - N. Buduma, Fundamentals of Deep Learning: Designing Next Generation
 Maching Intelligence Algorithms, Chapter 2
- If you enjoy another viewpoint have a look at
 - A. Karpathy, cs231n, 2016, Lecture 4, Backpropagation



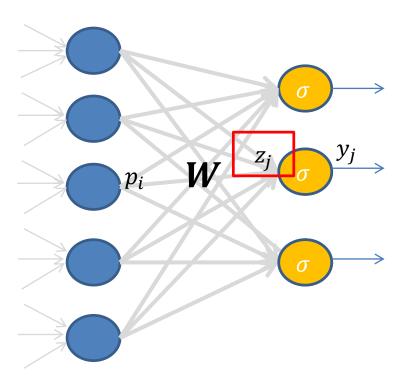




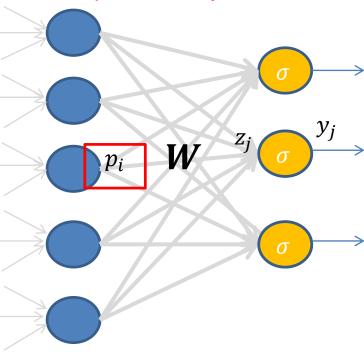




Pre-Activation



Activation in previous layer



- Backpropagation has two phases:
 - 1. Forward Propagation
 - 2. Backward Propagation
- In 1. Forward propagation, all the (pre-)activations in all layers are computed
 - Starting from an input point (x, t)
- We assume this has been done and focus on 2. Backward Propagation in the following

- Consider the above described model situation with some loss function
 - $L(\theta) = \sum_{(x,t)} \ell(y,t)$
 - The output $y \in R^m$ is determined by some (deep) MLP
- We focus on minimizing
 - $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ell(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{t})$
 - for notational convenience
- We focus on (multi-dim) square loss, but you can substitute other loss functions and derive analogous results
 - $\ell(y,t) = ||y-t||^2$

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•
$$\ell(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{t}) = ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{t}||^2 = \sum_j (t_j - y_j)^2 = \sum_j e_j(y_j)$$

• Here,
$$e_j(y_j) = (t_j - y_j)^2$$

High-level view of backprop



- Backprop is a form of dynamic programming
 - Recursively / inductively find the solution for an (optimization) problem
- We want to recursively determine the derivative of the loss wrt to the weights
- But we initially don't know how to do this, so we start out by looking at
 - $\delta \coloneqq \partial \ell / \partial q_i$
 - $lack q_i$ is activation of some neuron
 - "how much does my loss change when activation in some neuron (in some layer) changes"
 - lacktriangle Then we relate δ to $rac{\partial \ell}{\partial w_{ij}}$



$$\ell = \sum_{j} e_{j}(y_{j})$$



$$\ell = \sum_{j} e_{j}(y_{j})$$



$$\ell = \sum_{j} e_{j}(y_{j})$$



Chain rule

We find

$$\ell = \sum_{j} e_{j}(y_{j})$$



(note that
$$\frac{\partial e_j}{\partial y_j} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j}$$
)

$$\ell = \sum_{j} e_{j}(y_{j})$$

$$\ell = e_1(y_1) + e_2(y_2) + \dots + e_j(y_j) + \dots$$





Now

$$y_j = \sigma(z_j)$$



- Now
 - $y_j = \sigma(z_j)$
 - Therefore $\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial p_i} = \sigma'(z_j) \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial p_i}$



Now

•
$$y_j = \sigma(z_j)$$

• Therefore
$$\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial p_i} = \sigma'(z_j) \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial p_i}$$

■ But:

$$z_j = \boldsymbol{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}_j$$

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial p_i} = \left[\mathbf{w}_j \right]_i$$

(note that
$$\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{j} \right]_{i} = w_{ij}$$
)



$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \, \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial p_i}$$

Now

•
$$y_j = \sigma(z_j)$$

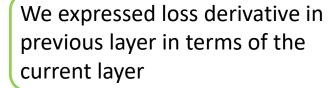
• Therefore
$$\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial p_i} = \sigma'(z_j) \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial p_i}$$

But:

$$Z_j = \boldsymbol{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}_j$$

$$\frac{\partial z_j}{\partial p_i} = w_{ij}$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \overline{\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j}} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$





That's a great result

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

- That's a great result
- We already know what the error derivative wrt. the last layer is

$$\ell(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{t}) = ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{t}||^2 = \sum_{j} (t_j - y_j)^2$$

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

- That's a great result
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But from this we know the values at the layer (lastLayer-1) by our formula above

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

- That's a great result
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- But from this we know the values at the layer (lastLayer-1) by our formula above
- But from this we know the values at the layer (lastLayer-2) by our formula above

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

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- That's a great result
- We already know what the error derivative wrt. the last layer is

- But from this we know the values at the layer (lastLayer-1) by our formula above
- But from this we know the values at the layer (lastLayer-2) by our formula above
- •
- We backpropagate the error derivatives from the last layer to the very first!



$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

- But we're looking for
 - lacksquare for all of the weight matrices $m{U} = m{W}^{(1)}, m{W}^{(2)}, m{W}^{(3)}, ...$



$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

- But we're looking for
 - $\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{ik}}$ for all of the weight matrices $\pmb{U} = \pmb{W^{(1)}}, \pmb{W^{(2)}}, \pmb{W^{(3)}}, ...$
 - Fortunately, we have the relation

- lacktriangle Here, m_k is the output/activation at the layer corresponding to matrix $oldsymbol{U}$
- l is the input for that layer
- z_k is the pre-activation of m_k , i.e., $m_k = \sigma(z_k)$



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$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{ik}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial z_k} \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial u_{ik}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial m_k} \frac{\partial m_k}{\partial z_k} l_i = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial m_k} \sigma'(z_k) l_i$$

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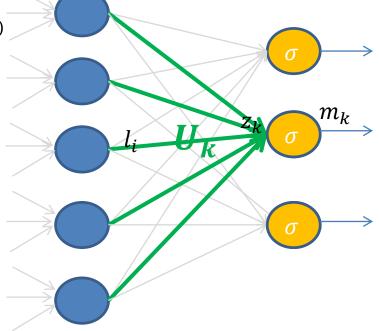




Fortunately, we have the relation

$$\boldsymbol{U} = [\boldsymbol{U}_1 \cdots \boldsymbol{U}_k \cdots]$$

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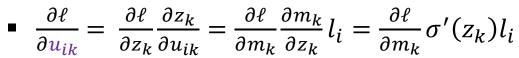






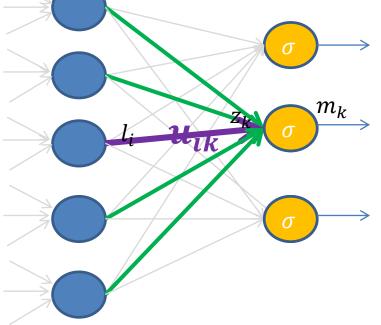
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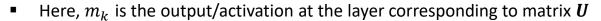




Chain rule

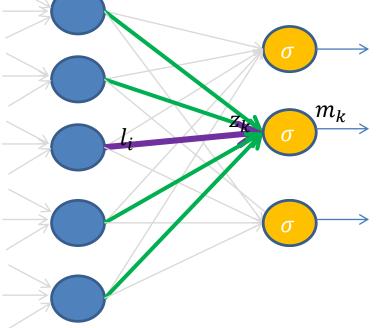
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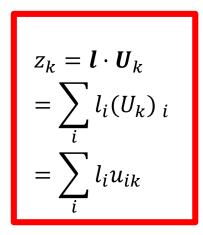




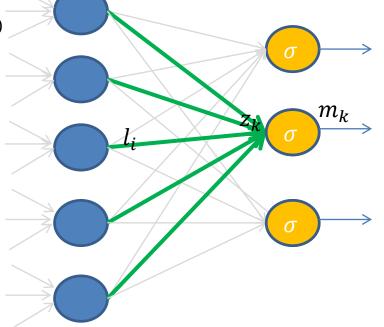
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$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial p_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial y_j} \sigma'(z_j) w_{ij}$$

We expressed error derivative in previous layer in terms of the current layer

- But we're looking for
 - $lacksquare rac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{ik}}$ for all of the weight matrices $\pmb{U} = \pmb{W^{(1)}}, \pmb{W^{(2)}}, \pmb{W^{(3)}}, ...$
 - Fortunately, we have the relation

This we get from backprop

$$\bullet \quad \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{ik}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial z_k} \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial u_{ik}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial m_k} \frac{\partial m_k}{\partial z_k} l_i = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial m_k} \sigma'(z_k) l_i$$

- lacktriangle Here, m_k is the output/activation at the layer corresponding to matrix $oldsymbol{U}$
- *l* is the input for that layer
- z_k is the pre-activation of m_k , i.e., $m_k = \sigma(z_k)$

Summary



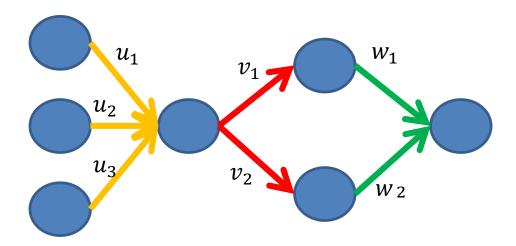
- Backpropagation is a recursive algorithm for determining loss derivatives
- Starts at the outer layer
- Propagates loss derivative signal 'backwards'
 - By expressing derivatives in one layer in terms of the next layer derivatives using the chain rule

- General technique for calculating derivatives of composite functions
 - Modifications of the presented algorithm apply to other mathematical functions, too (not only neural nets!)

Example



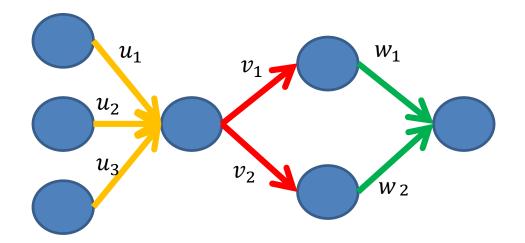
- We look at the following net
- Assume all activation functions are tanh, loss is square loss



Example



- We look at the following net
- Assume all activation functions are tanh, loss is square loss
- Let's initialize our net to u = (0.2, 0.5, -1), v = (0.9, -0.5), w = (0.2, -5)

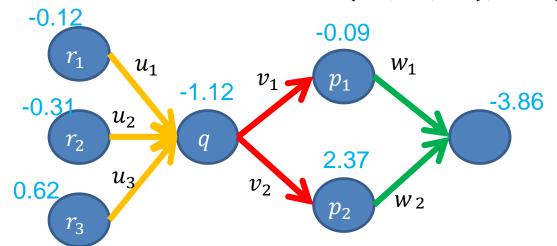


- Assume that x = (1,0,1) and t = 1
- Square loss: $(t y)^2$

 We first perform a forward pass and compute everything – from activations to loss. Then we switch to the backward pass

Example

- We look at the following net
- Assume all activation functions are tanh, loss is square loss
- Let's initialize our net to u = (0.2, 0.5, -1), v = (0.9, -0.5), w = (0.2, -5)



- Assume that x = (1,0,1) and t = 1
- Square loss: $(t y)^2$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_{ik}} = \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial m_k} \sigma'(z_k) l_i$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial u_3} = -1.12 \cdot (0.55) \cdot 1 = -0.61$$

Example – gradient check



- Finally, to see if we did everything correctly, perform a numeric gradient check
- E.g. to check $\partial \ell / \partial u_3$

Recall:
$$f'(x) \approx \frac{1}{h}(f(x+h) - f(x))$$

• We compute our loss ℓ at (for x = (1,0,1) and t = 1)

$$u' = (0.2, 0.5, -1 + h), v = (0.9, -0.5), w = (0.2, -5)$$

- and at u, v, w
- Then, we compute

$$\frac{1}{h} \cdot \left(\ell(\mathbf{x}, t; \mathbf{u}', \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) - \ell(\mathbf{x}, t; \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) \right)$$

Outline



(Neural) Language Models

Language Model



Language model:

- Assigns a sequence of tokens (words, characters, ...) a probability
- Which denotes likelihood of observing this sequence in text

Intuitively

Probability(the cat sat on the mat) > Probability(mat sat cat on the the)

Use cases:

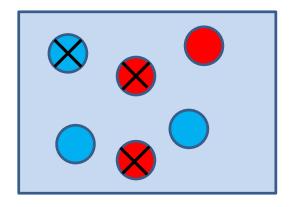
- Scoring sequences: e.g. in MT
- Generating Text

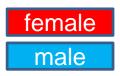


One slide primer on probability



- Joint probability: $P(A \cap B)$ also denoted as: P(A,B), $P(A \mid B)$
 - how likely is it to observe events A and B jointly?
- Conditional probab.: P(A|B) = P(A,B)/P(B)
 - how likely is it to observe A given B?
- Marginal probability: P(A)
 - how likely is it to observe event A?





X =committed crime

- What is P(female)? 1/2
- What is P(female,crime)? 2/6
- What is P(female|crime)? 2/3
- What is P(crime|female)?2/3
- What is P(crime|male)?1/3

N-gram language models



Previously, a common approach was to use n-gram language models

Approximate the true probability P of a stream of tokens

$$P(w_1 \ w_2 \ w_3 \ w_4 \ \dots)$$

$$= P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2 | w_1) \cdot P(w_3 | w_1 w_2) \cdot P(w_4 | \ w_1 w_2 w_3)$$

$$\cdot P(w_5 | w_1 w_2 w_3 w_4) \cdots$$

by an n-gram model, where:

$$P(w_t|w_1 \cdots w_{t-1}) \approx P(w_t|w_{t-n+1} \cdots w_{t-1})$$

Complete history

History of size n-1



N-gram language models



For example, 1-gram model (unigram)

$$P(w_1w_2w_3w_4\cdots)\approx P(w_1)P(w_2)P(w_3)P(w_4)\cdots$$

2-gram model (bigram)

$$P(w_1w_2w_3w_4\cdots) \approx P(w_1)P(w_2|w_1)P(w_3|w_2)P(w_4|w_3)\cdots$$

N-gram language models



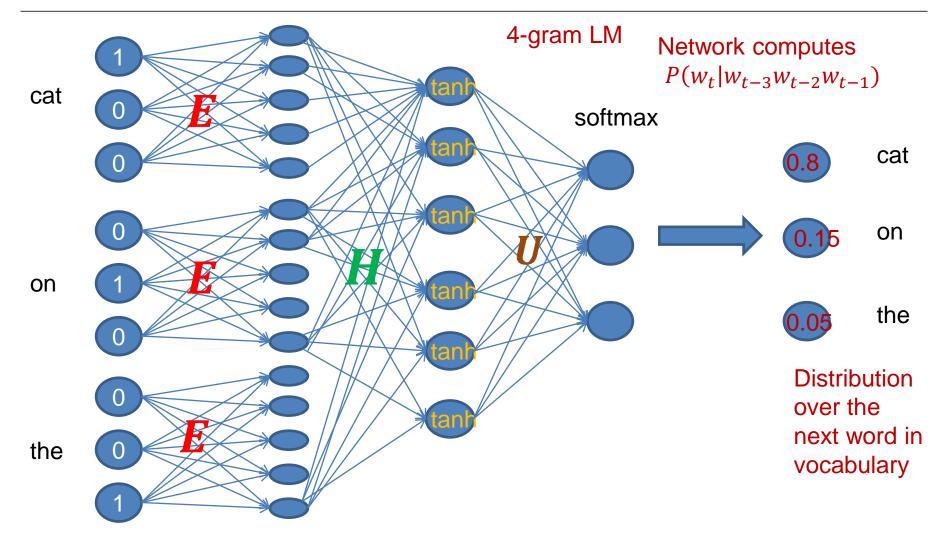
In traditional approaches, n-gram language probabilities are estimated from counts in (training) data:

$$P(dog|the) = \frac{cnt(the,dog)}{cnt(the)}$$

- $P(w_t|w_{t-n+1}\cdots w_{t-1}) \approx \frac{\operatorname{count}(w_{t-n+1}\cdots w_{t-1}w_t)}{\operatorname{count}(w_{t-n+1}\cdots w_{t-1})}$
- Additionally, some smoothing is performed to account for words not seen in the data
 - I.e. we should not assign zero probability to "the dog"
 - Just because we never saw this sequence in our training data
 - especially when we saw a dog and the cat etc.
- Implementing an n-gram language model with an MLP is (also) easy ...

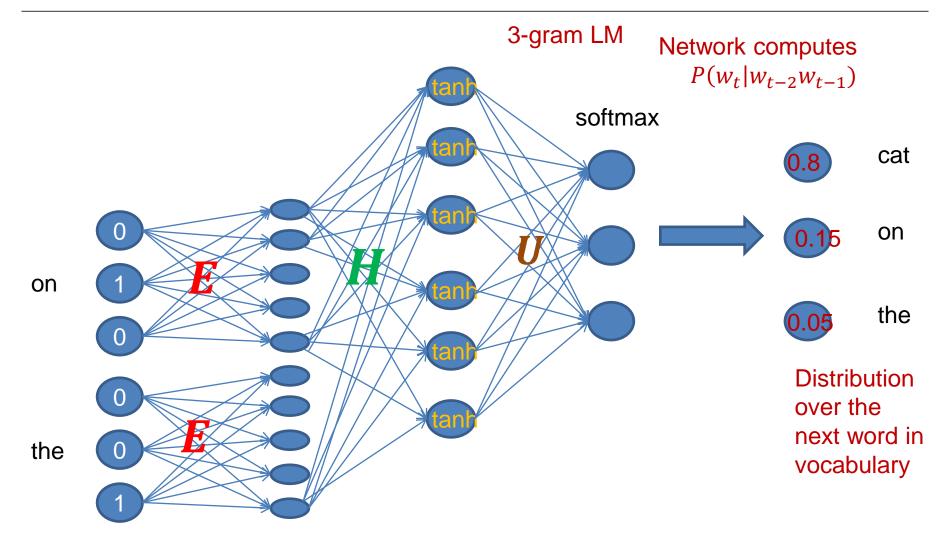
Bengio et al. (2003), A neural prob. language model





Bengio et al. (2003), A neural prob. language model





Language Models can (also) be used to Generate Language



- For example with a bigram language model:
 - Sample \widetilde{w}_1 from $p(w_1)$
 - Then sample \widetilde{w}_2 from $p(w_2|\widetilde{w}_1)$
 - Then sample \widetilde{w}_3 from $p(w_3|\widetilde{w}_2)$
 - And so on

$$P(w_1w_2w_3w_4\cdots)$$

 $\approx P(w_1)P(w_2|w_1)P(w_3|w_2)P(w_4|w_3)\cdots$

- Problem with n-gram language models:
 - inherent limitations in the past window that they can take into consideration

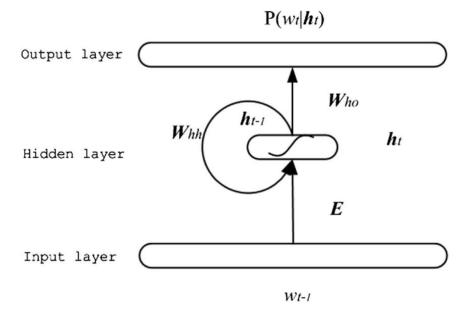
RNN language models



 To remedy, one uses a slightly different network structure, so called Recurrent Neural Networks

Where indefinite amount of past knowledge is stored in the hidden

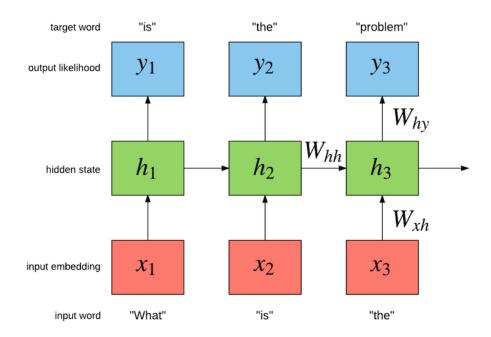
layer



RNN language models



The RNN is trained to predict the next word

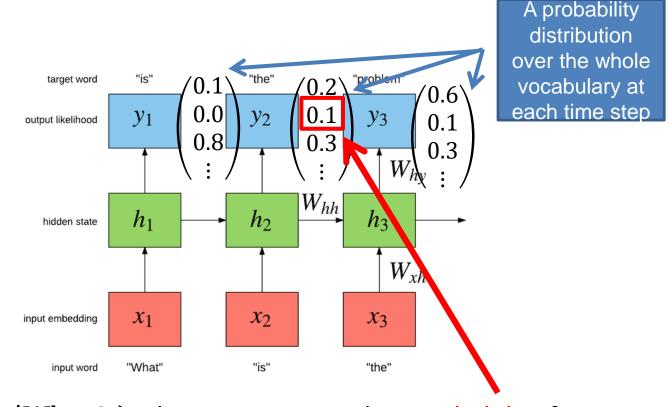


- The RNN computes $p(w_t|w_1 \cdots w_{t-1}) \rightarrow$ no n-gram approximation
- For generation, sample from softmax, and feed in to next time step

RNN language models



Example



- To get p(the|What is), choose corresponding probability from softmax (e.g. 0.1)
- It is common to pad the input with a SOS and predict an EOS in the last step

Language Models in NLP



LMs have seen a revival in NLP

- E.g., because language modeling can be a cheap **auxiliary task**
- And also due to ELMo/BERT

Summary



- We saw gradient descent (GD, SGD)
 - A general technique for optimization
 - Saw also extensions of vanilla SGD
- Then we saw backprop(agation)
 - A general technique for deriving gradients in MLPs
 - Once the gradient is determined, can again learn with GD or extensions
- Then we saw N-gram and RNN language models

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