

Natural Language Processing with Deep Learning

CS224N/Ling284



John Hewitt

Lecture 10: Pretraining

Lecture Plan

1. A brief note on subword modeling
2. Motivating model pretraining from word embeddings
3. Model pretraining three ways
 1. Decoders
 2. Encoders
 3. Encoder-Decoders
4. Interlude: what do we think pretraining is teaching?
5. Very large models and in-context learning

Reminders:

Assignment 5 is out today! It covers lecture 9 (Tuesday) and lecture 10 (Today)!






It has ~pedagogically relevant math~ so get started!

Word structure and subword models

Let's take a look at the assumptions we've made about a language's vocabulary.

We assume a fixed vocab of tens of thousands of words, built from the training set.

All *novel* words seen at test time are mapped to a single UNK.

	word		vocab mapping	embedding
Common words	hat	→	pizza (index)	
	learn	→	tasty (index)	
Variations	taaaaasty	→	UNK (index)	
misspellings	laern	→	UNK (index)	
novel items	Transformerify	→	UNK (index)	

Word structure and subword models

Finite vocabulary assumptions make even *less* sense in many languages.

- Many languages exhibit complex **morphology**, or word structure.
 - The effect is more word types, each occurring fewer times.

Example: Swahili verbs can have hundreds of conjugations, each encoding a wide variety of information. (Tense, mood, definiteness, negation, information about the object, ++)

Here's a small fraction of the conjugations for *ambia* – to tell.

Conjugation of -ambia																										[less ▲]
Form Infinitive Positive form Imperative Habitual							Non-finite forms																		Negative kutoambia Plural ambieni	
							Positive kuambia																			
							Simple finite forms																			
Singular ambia							huambia																			
							Plural																			
Complex finite forms																										
							Persons / Classes							Classes											U	Ku
Persons			3rd / M-wa				M-mi		Ma		Ki-vi		N		10	11 / 14	15 / 17	16	18							
Polarity	Sg.	1st	Pl.	Sg.	2nd	Pl.	Sg.	3rd / 1	Pl.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11 / 14	15 / 17	16	18				
Past																										[less ▲]
Positive	niliambia	tuliambia	uliambia	mliambia	aliambia	waliambia	uliambia	iliambia	iliambia	yaliambia	kiliambia	viliambia	iliambia	ziliambia	uliambia	kuliambia	paliambia	mulambia								
Negative	sikuambia	hatukuambia	hukuambia	hamkuambia	hakuambia	hawakuambi	haukuambia	haikuambia	halikuambia	hayakuambi	hakikuambia	havikuambia	haikuambia	hazikuambia	haukuambia	hakukuambi	hapakuambi	hamukuambi								
Present																										[less ▲]
Positive	ninaambia	tunaambia	unaambia	mnaambia	anaambia	wanaambia	unaambia	inaambia	inaambia	yanaambia	kinaambia	vinaambia	inaambia	zinaambia	unaambia	kunaambia	panaambia	munaambia								
Negative	siambia	hatuambi	huambi	hamambi	haambi	hawaambi	hauambi	haiambi	haliambi	hayaambi	hakiambi	haviambi	haiambi	haziambi	hauambi	hakuambi	hapaambi	hamuambi								
Future																										[less ▲]
Positive	nitaambia	tutaambia	utaambia	mtaambia	ataambia	wataambia	utaambia	itaambia	itaambia	yataambia	kitaambia	vitaambia	itaambia	zitaambia	utaambia	kutaambia	pataambia	mutaambia								
Negative	sitaambia	hatutaambia	hutaambia	hamtaambia	hataambia	hawataambi	hautaambia	haitaambia	halitaambia	hayataambia	hakitaambia	havitaambia	haitaambia	hazitaambia	hautaambia	hakutaambia	hapataambia	hamutaambi								
Subjunctive																										[less ▲]
Positive	niambia	tuambia	uambia	mambia	aambia	waambia	uambia	liambia	liambia	yaambia	kiambia	viambia	iambe	ziambia	uambia	kuambia	paambia	muambia								
Negative	nisiambia	tusiambia	usiambia	msiambia	asiambia	wasiambia	usiambia	isiambia	isiambia	yasiambia	kisiambia	visiambia	isiambia	zisiambia	usiambia	kusiambia	pasiambia	musiambia								
Present Conditional																										[less ▲]
Positive	ningeambia	tungeambi	ungeambi	mngeambi	angeambi	wangeambi	ungeambi	ingeambi	ingeambi	yangeambi	kingeambi	vingeambi	ingeambi	zingeambi	ungeambi	kungeambi	pangeambi	mungeambi								
Negative	nisingeambi	tusingeambi	usingeambi	msingeambi	asingeambi	wasingeambi	usingeambi	isingeambi	isingeambi	yasingeambi	kisingeambi	vingeambi	isingeambi	zingeambi	usingeambi	kusingeambi	pasingeambi	musingeambi								
Past Conditional																										[less ▲]
Positive	ningaliambia	tungaliambi	ungaliambi	mngaliambi	angaliambi	wangaliambi	ungaliambi	ingaliambi	ingaliambi	yangaliambi	kingaliambi	vingaliambi	ingaliambi	zingaliambi	ungaliambi	kungaliambi	pangaliambi	mungaliambi								
Negative	nisingaliambi	tungaliambi	ungaliambi	msingaliambi	asingaliambi	wasingaliambi	ungaliambi	isingaliambi	isingaliambi	yasingaliambi	kisingaliambi	vingaliambi	isingaliambi	zingaliambi	ungaliambi	kungaliambi	pasingaliambi	musingaliambi								
Conditional Contrary to Fact																										[less ▲]
Positive	ningeliambi	tungeliambi	ungeliambi	mngeliambi	angeliambi	wangeliambi	ungeliambi	ingeliambi	ingeliambi	yangeliambi	kingeliambi	vingeliambi	ingeliambi	zingeliambi	ungeliambi	kungeliambi	pangeliambi	mungeliambi								
Gnomic																										[less ▲]
Positive	naambia	twaambia	waambia	mwaambia	aambia	waambia	waambia	yaambia	laambia	yaambia	chaambia	vyaambia	yaambia	zaambia	waambia	kwaambia	paambia	mwaambia								
Perfect																										[less ▲]

The byte-pair encoding algorithm

Subword modeling in NLP encompasses a wide range of methods for reasoning about structure below the word level. (Parts of words, characters, bytes.)

- The dominant modern paradigm is to learn a vocabulary of **parts of words (subword tokens)**.
- At training and testing time, each word is split into a sequence of known subwords.

Byte-pair encoding is a simple, effective strategy for defining a subword vocabulary.






1. Start with a vocabulary containing only characters and an “end-of-word” symbol.
2. Using a corpus of text, find the most common adjacent characters “a,b”; add “ab” as a subword.
3. Replace instances of the character pair with the new subword; repeat until desired vocab size.

Originally used in NLP for machine translation; now a similar method (WordPiece) is used in pretrained models.

Word structure and subword models

Common words end up being a part of the subword vocabulary, while rarer words are split into (sometimes intuitive, sometimes not) components.

In the worst case, words are split into as many subwords as they have characters.

	word		vocab mapping	embedding
Common words	hat	→	hat	
	learn	→	learn	
Variations	taaaaasty	→	taa## aaa## sty	
misspellings	laern	→	la## ern##	
novel items	Transformerify	→	Transformer## ify	

Outline

1. A brief note on subword modeling
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Motivating word meaning and context

Recall the adage we mentioned at the beginning of the course:

“You shall know a word by the company it keeps” (J. R. Firth 1957: 11)

This quote is a summary of **distributional semantics**, and motivated **word2vec**. But:

*“... the complete meaning of a word is always contextual,
and no study of meaning apart from a complete context
can be taken seriously.”* (J. R. Firth 1935)

Consider *I **record** the **record***: the two instances of **record** mean different things.

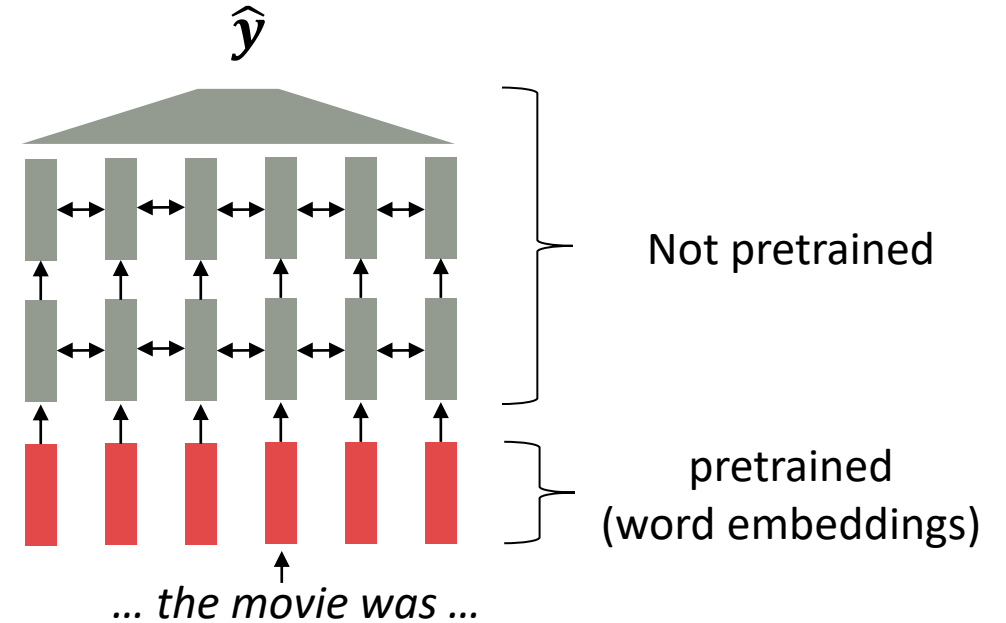
Where we were: pretrained word embeddings

Circa 2017:

- Start with pretrained word embeddings (no context!)
- Learn how to incorporate context in an LSTM or Transformer while training on the task.

Some issues to think about:

- The training data we have for our **downstream task** (like question answering) must be sufficient to teach all contextual aspects of language.
- Most of the parameters in our network are randomly initialized!

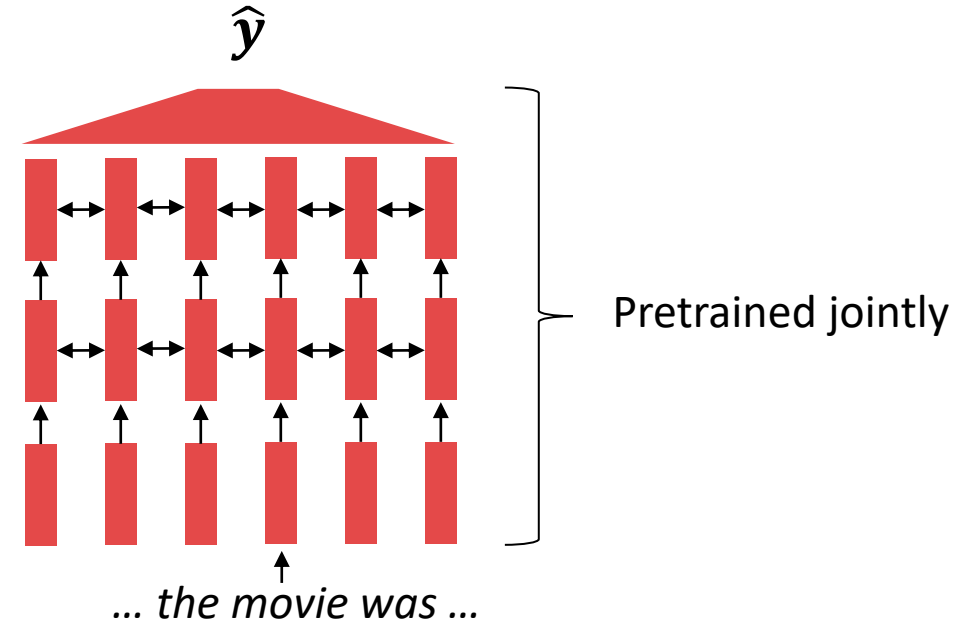


[Recall, *movie* gets the same word embedding, no matter what sentence it shows up in]

Where we're going: **pretraining whole models**

In modern NLP:

- All (or almost all) parameters in NLP networks are initialized via **pretraining**.
- Pretraining methods hide parts of the input from the model, and train the model to reconstruct those parts.
- This has been exceptionally effective at building strong:
 - **representations of language**
 - **parameter initializations** for strong NLP models.
 - **Probability distributions** over language that we can sample from



[This model has learned how to represent entire sentences through pretraining]

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

Stanford University is located in _____, California.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

I put ____ fork down on the table.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

The woman walked across the street,
checking for traffic over ____ shoulder.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

I went to the ocean to see the fish, turtles, seals, and _____.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

Overall, the value I got from the two hours watching
it was the sum total of the popcorn and the drink.

The movie was ____.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

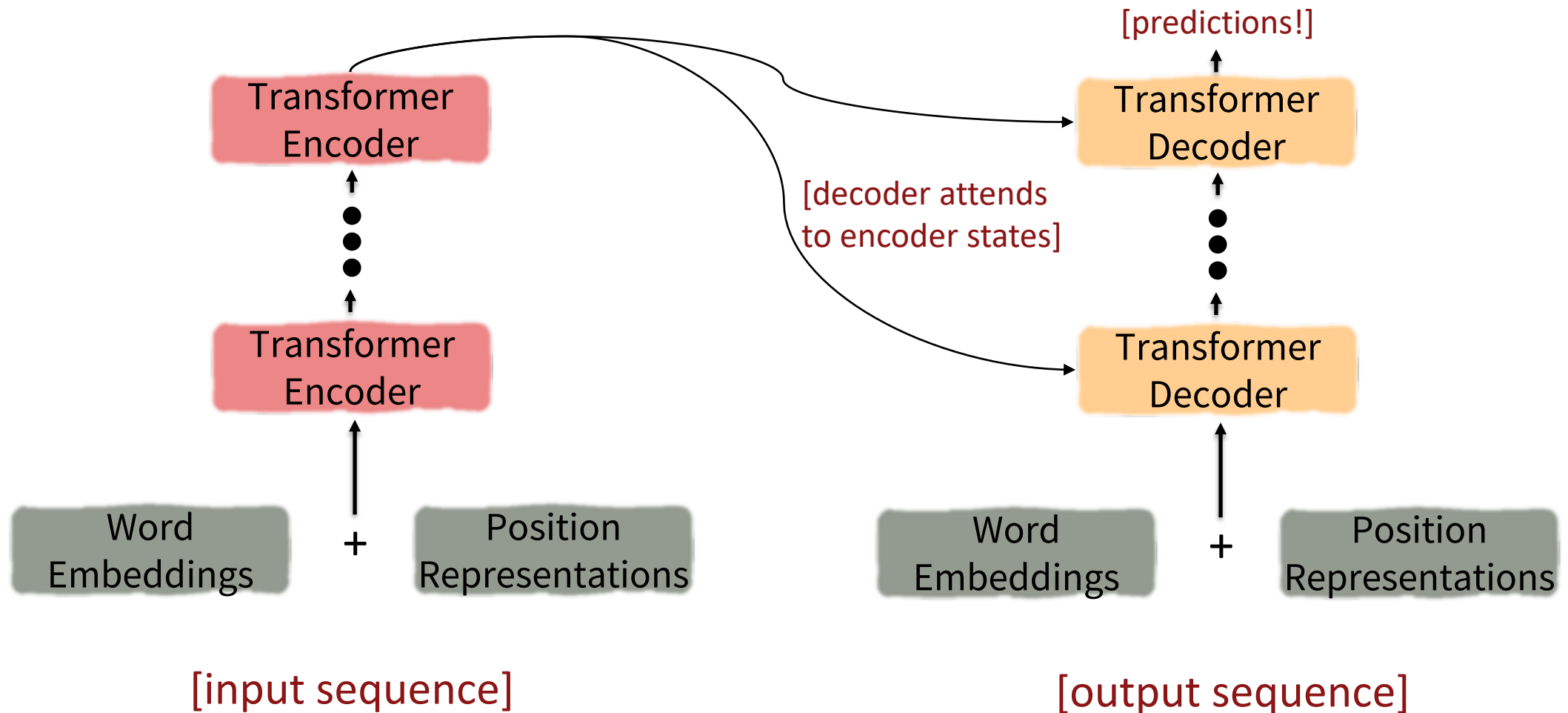
Iroh went into the kitchen to make some tea.
Standing next to Iroh, Zuko pondered his destiny.
Zuko left the _____.

What can we learn from reconstructing the input?

I was thinking about the sequence that goes
1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, _____

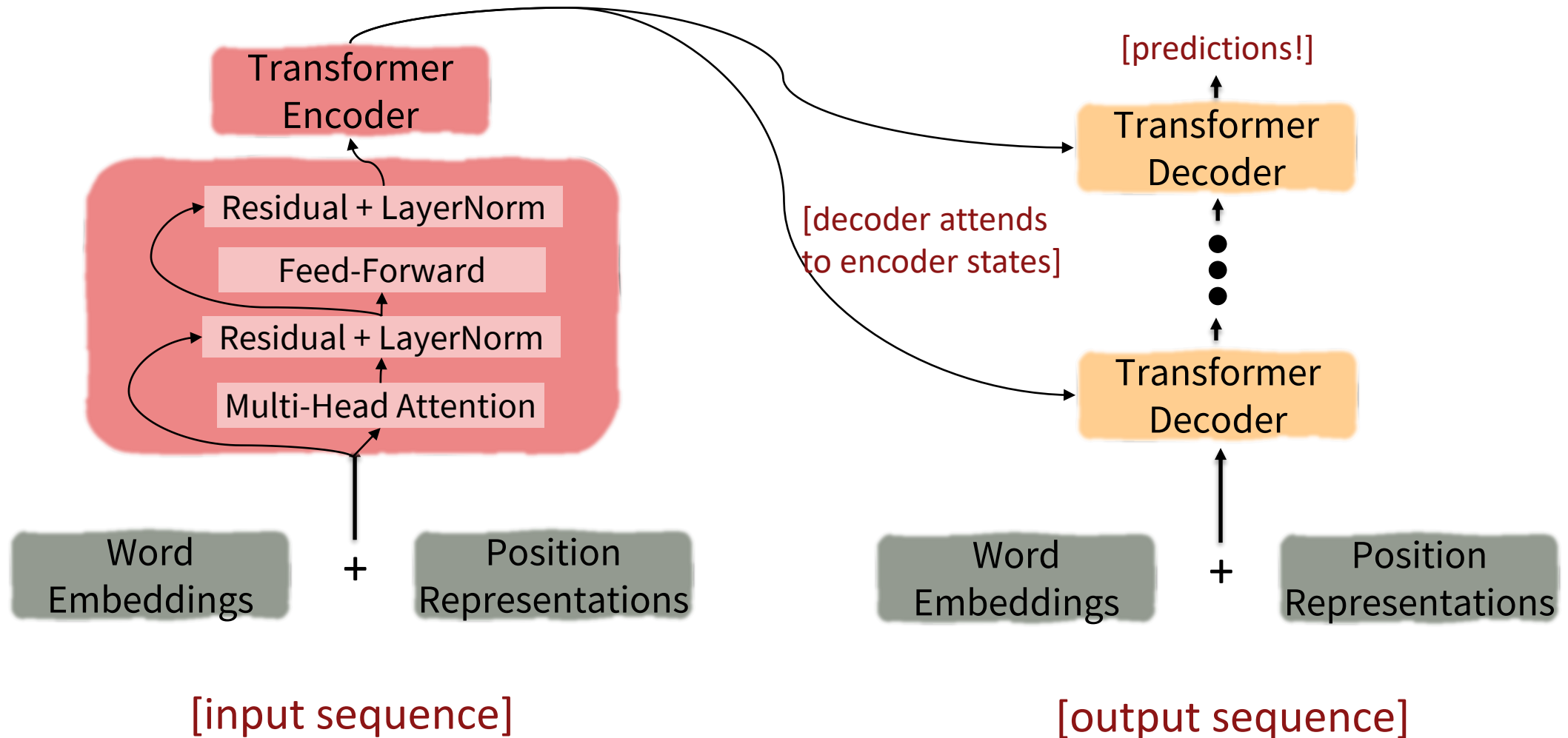
The Transformer Encoder-Decoder [\[Vaswani et al., 2017\]](#)

Looking back at the whole model, zooming in on an Encoder block:



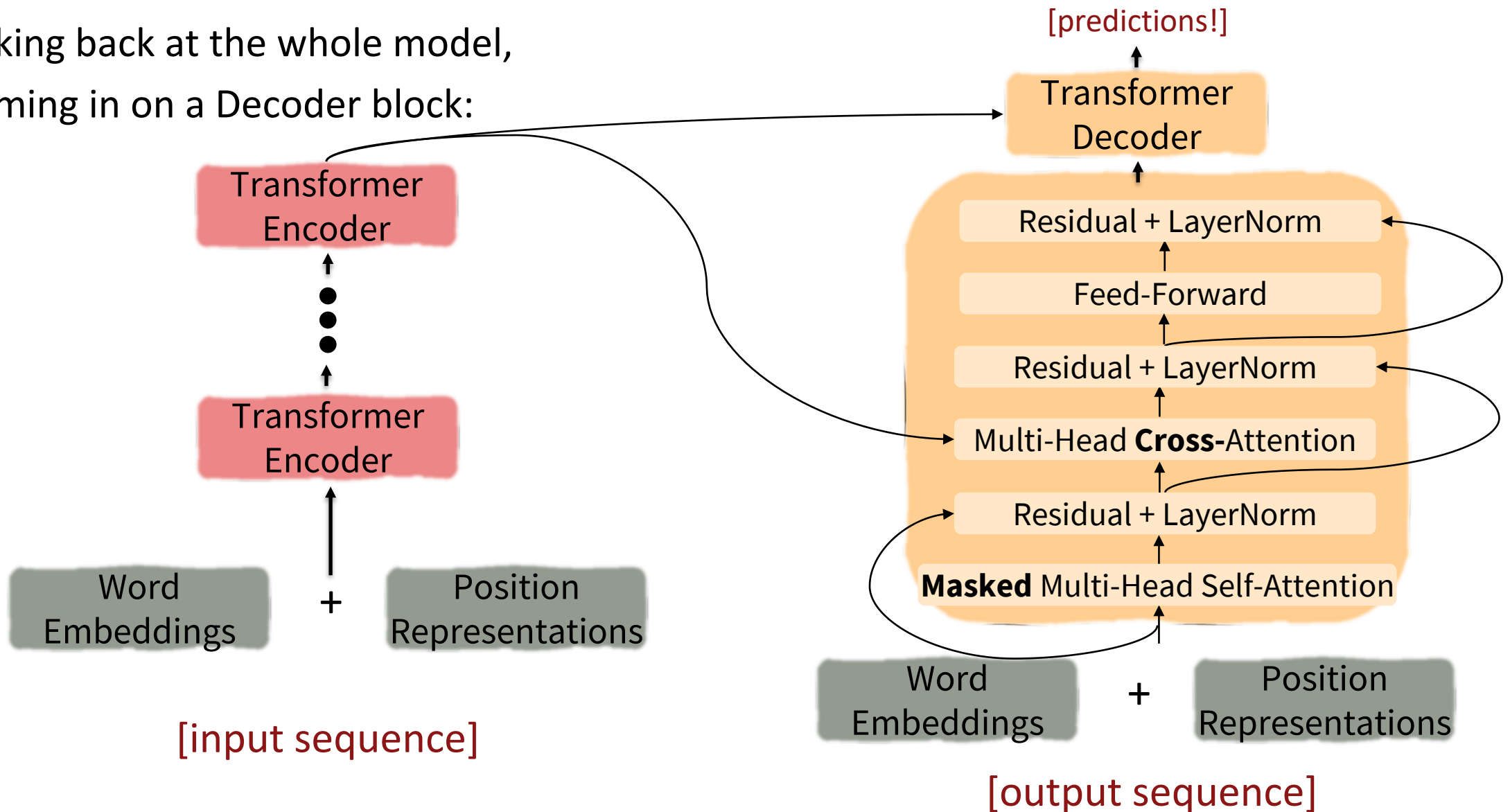
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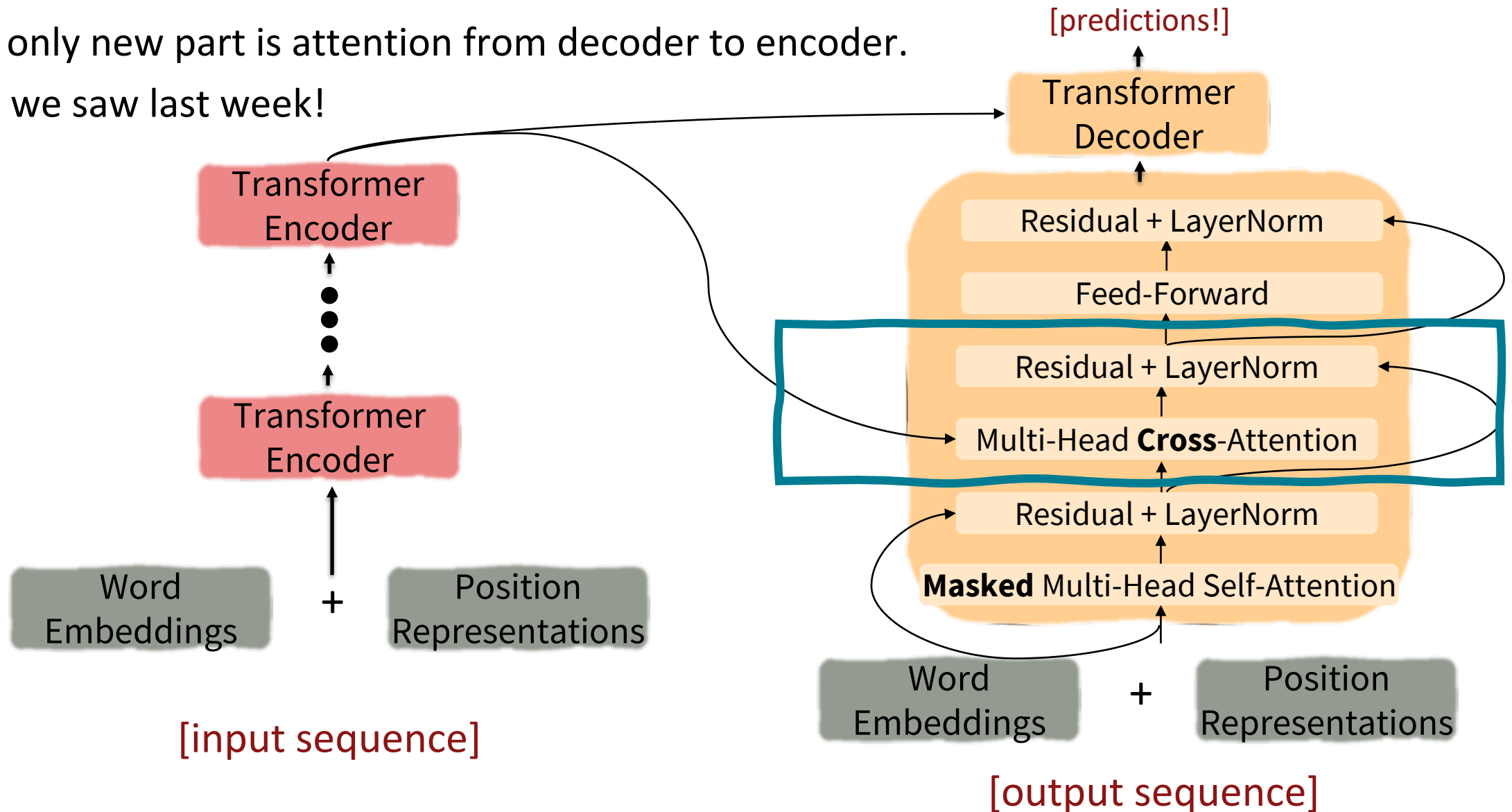
The Transformer Encoder-Decoder [Vaswani et al., 2017]

Looking back at the whole model,
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The Transformer Encoder-Decoder [Vaswani et al., 2017]

The only new part is attention from decoder to encoder.
Like we saw last week!



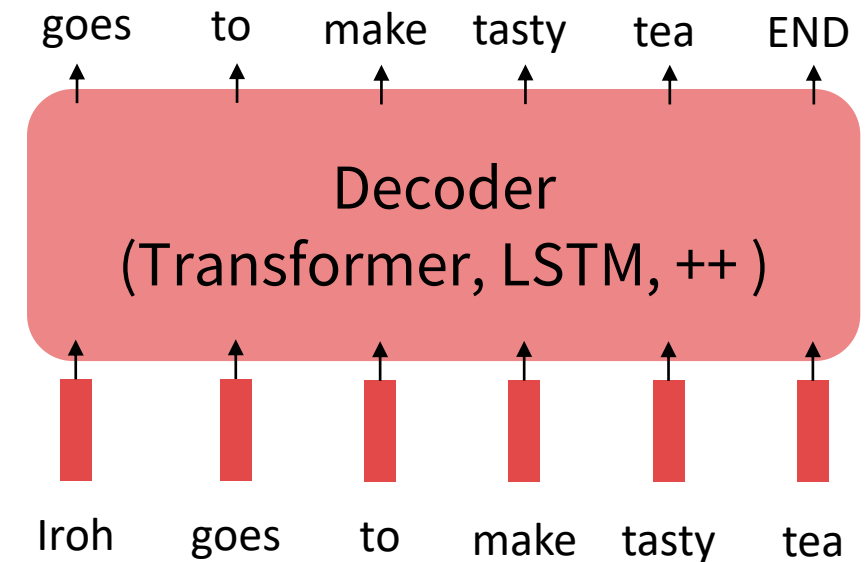
Pretraining through language modeling [[Dai and Le, 2015](#)]

Recall the **language modeling** task:

- Model $p_{\theta}(w_t | w_{1:t-1})$, the probability distribution over words given their past contexts.
- There's lots of data for this! (In English.)

Pretraining through language modeling:

- Train a neural network to perform language modeling on a large amount of text.
- Save the network parameters.

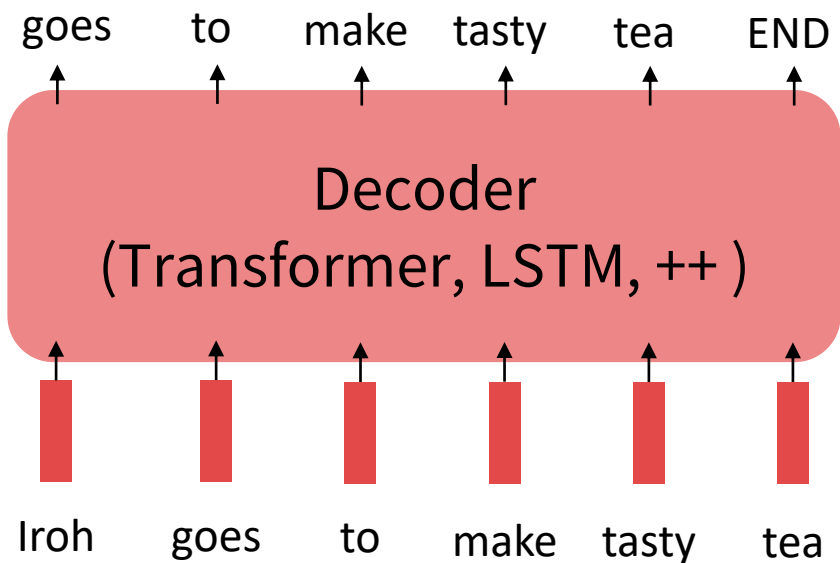


The Pretraining / Finetuning Paradigm

Pretraining can improve NLP applications by serving as parameter initialization.

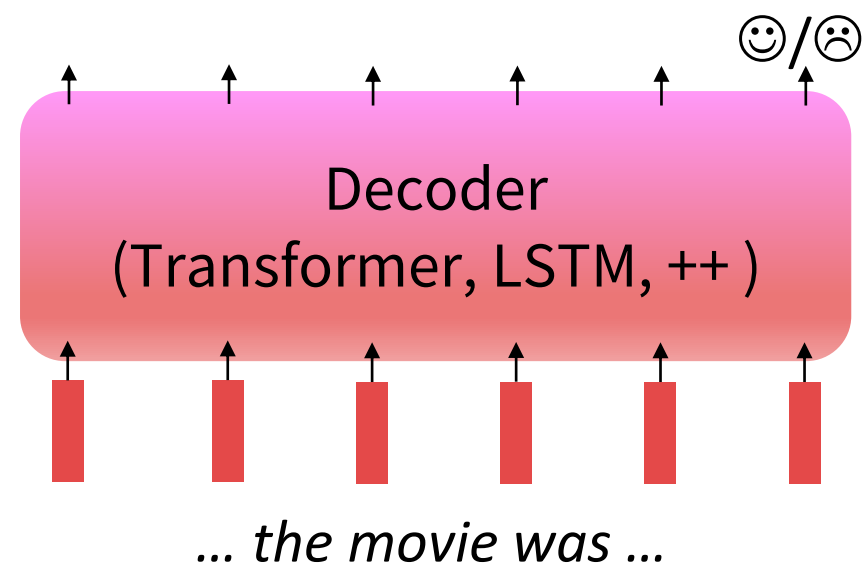
Step 1: Pretrain (on language modeling)

Lots of text; learn general things!



Step 2: Finetune (on your task)

Not many labels; adapt to the task!



Stochastic gradient descent and pretrain/finetune

Why should pretraining and finetuning help, from a “training neural nets” perspective?

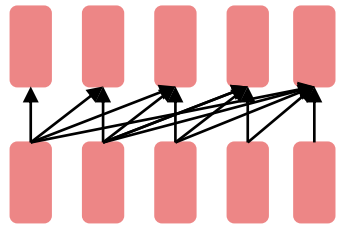
- Consider, provides parameters $\hat{\theta}$ by approximating $\min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\text{pretrain}}(\theta)$.
 - (The pretraining loss.)
- Then, finetuning approximates $\min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}_{\text{finetune}}(\theta)$, starting at $\hat{\theta}$.
 - (The finetuning loss)
- The pretraining may matter because stochastic gradient descent sticks (relatively) close to $\hat{\theta}$ during finetuning.
 - So, maybe the finetuning local minima near $\hat{\theta}$ tend to generalize well!
 - And/or, maybe the gradients of finetuning loss near $\hat{\theta}$ propagate nicely!

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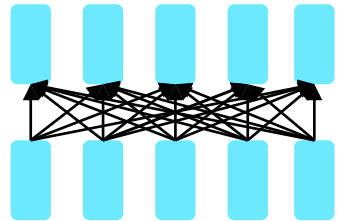
Pretraining for three types of architectures

The neural architecture influences the type of pretraining, and natural use cases.



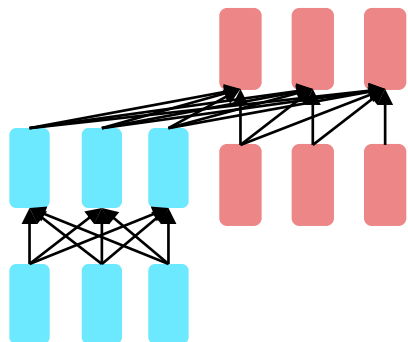
Decoders

- Language models! What we've seen so far.
- Nice to generate from; can't condition on future words



Encoders

- Gets bidirectional context – can condition on future!
- Wait, how do we pretrain them?

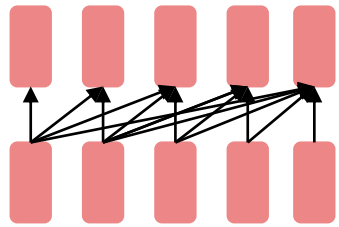


**Encoder-
Decoders**

- Good parts of decoders and encoders?
- What's the best way to pretrain them?

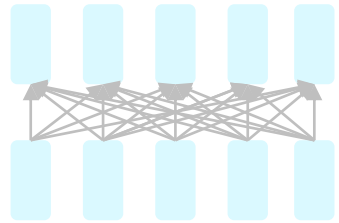
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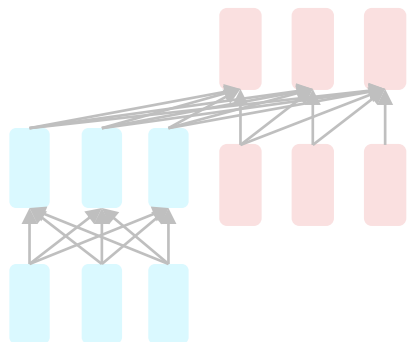
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Pretraining decoders

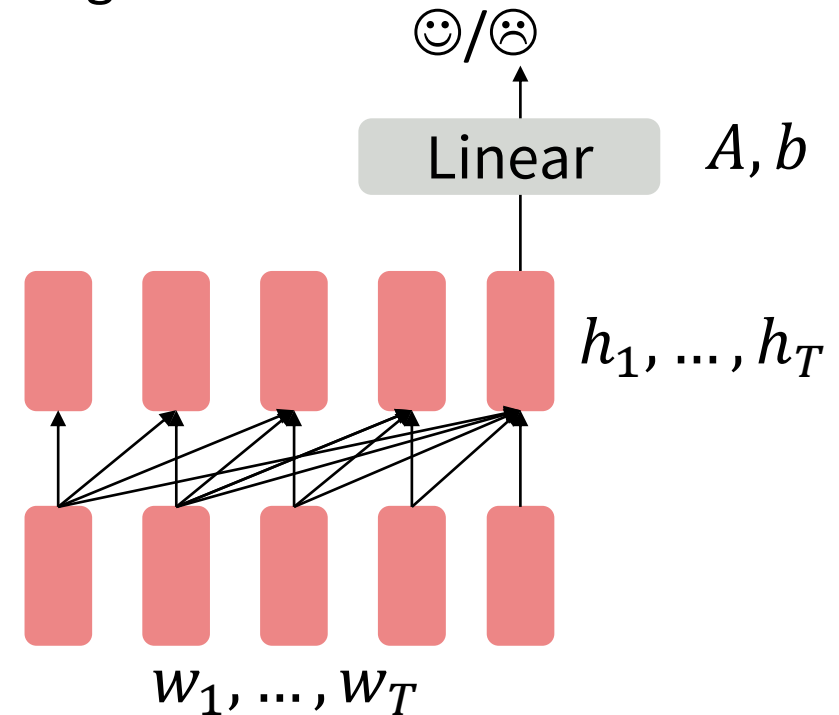
When using language model pretrained decoders, we can ignore that they were trained to model $p(w_t|w_{1:t-1})$.

We can finetune them by training a classifier on the last word's hidden state.

$$h_1, \dots, h_T = \text{Decoder}(w_1, \dots, w_T)$$
$$y \sim Aw_T + b$$

Where A and b are randomly initialized and specified by the downstream task.

Gradients backpropagate through the whole network.



[Note how the linear layer hasn't been pretrained and must be learned from scratch.]

Pretraining decoders

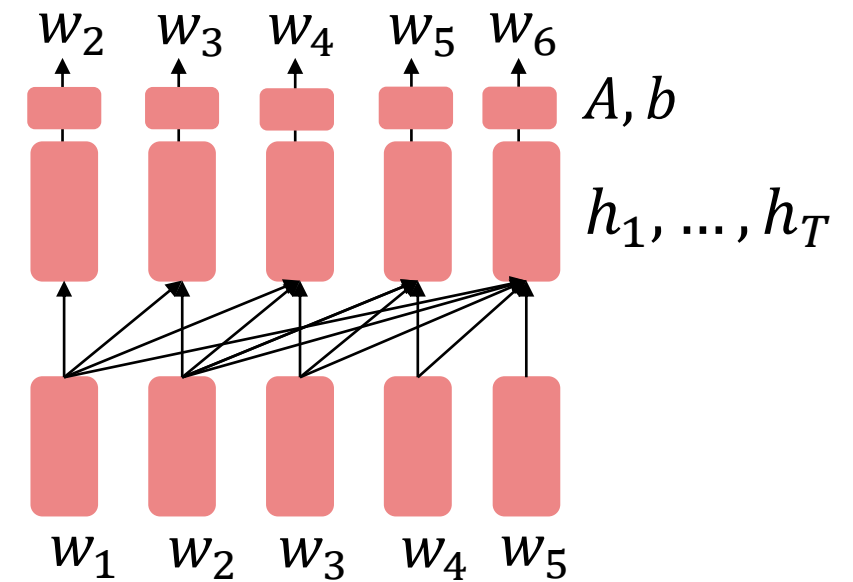
It's natural to pretrain decoders as language models and then use them as generators, finetuning their $p_{\theta}(w_t|w_{1:t-1})$!

This is helpful in tasks **where the output is a sequence** with a vocabulary like that at pretraining time!

- Dialogue (context=dialogue history)
- Summarization (context=document)

$$h_1, \dots, h_T = \text{Decoder}(w_1, \dots, w_T)$$
$$w_t \sim Aw_{t-1} + b$$

Where A, b were pretrained in the language model!



[Note how the linear layer has been pretrained.]

Generative Pretrained Transformer (GPT) [[Radford et al., 2018](#)]

2018's GPT was a big success in pretraining a decoder!

- Transformer decoder with 12 layers.
- 768-dimensional hidden states, 3072-dimensional feed-forward hidden layers.
- Byte-pair encoding with 40,000 merges
- Trained on BooksCorpus: over 7000 unique books.
 - Contains long spans of contiguous text, for learning long-distance dependencies.
- The acronym “GPT” never showed up in the original paper; it could stand for “Generative PreTraining” or “Generative Pretrained Transformer”

Generative Pretrained Transformer (GPT) [[Radford et al., 2018](#)]

How do we format inputs to our decoder for **finetuning tasks**?

Natural Language Inference: Label pairs of sentences as *entailing/contradictory/neutral*

Premise: *The man is in the doorway*
Hypothesis: *The person is near the door* } **entailment**

Radford et al., 2018 evaluate on natural language inference.

Here's roughly how the input was formatted, as a sequence of tokens for the decoder.

[START] *The man is in the doorway* [DELIM] *The person is near the door* [EXTRACT]

The linear classifier is applied to the representation of the [EXTRACT] token.

Generative Pretrained Transformer (GPT) [[Radford et al., 2018](#)]

GPT results on various *natural language inference* datasets.

Method	MNLI-m	MNLI-mm	SNLI	SciTail	QNLI	RTE
ESIM + ELMo [44] (5x)	-	-	<u>89.3</u>	-	-	-
CAFE [58] (5x)	80.2	79.0	<u>89.3</u>	-	-	-
Stochastic Answer Network [35] (3x)	<u>80.6</u>	<u>80.1</u>	-	-	-	-
CAFE [58]	78.7	77.9	88.5	<u>83.3</u>		
GenSen [64]	71.4	71.3	-	-	<u>82.3</u>	59.2
Multi-task BiLSTM + Attn [64]	72.2	72.1	-	-	82.1	61.7
Finetuned Transformer LM (ours)	82.1	81.4	89.9	88.3	88.1	56.0

Increasingly convincing generations (GPT2) [[Radford et al., 2018](#)]

We mentioned how pretrained decoders can be used **in their capacities as language models**.

GPT-2, a larger version of GPT trained on more data, was shown to produce relatively convincing samples of natural language.

Context (human-written): In a shocking finding, scientist discovered a herd of unicorns living in a remote, previously unexplored valley, in the Andes Mountains. Even more surprising to the researchers was the fact that the unicorns spoke perfect English.

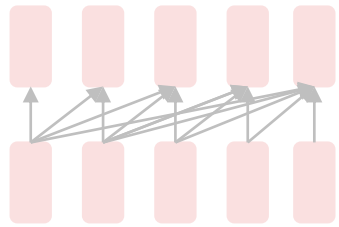
GPT-2: The scientist named the population, after their distinctive horn, Ovid's Unicorn. These four-horned, silver-white unicorns were previously unknown to science.

Now, after almost two centuries, the mystery of what sparked this odd phenomenon is finally solved.

Dr. Jorge Pérez, an evolutionary biologist from the University of La Paz, and several companions, were exploring the Andes Mountains when they found a small valley, with no other animals or humans. Pérez noticed that the valley had what appeared to be a natural fountain, surrounded by two peaks of rock and silver snow.

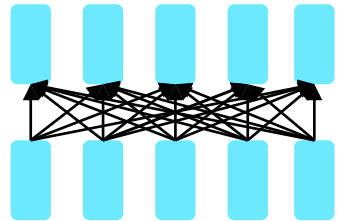
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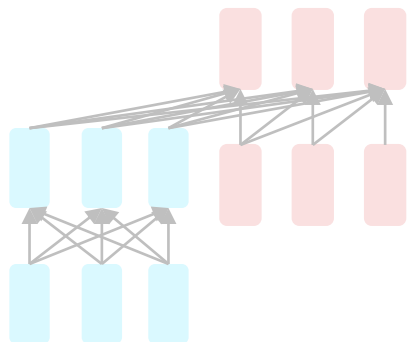
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**Encoder-
Decoders**

- Good parts of decoders and encoders?
- What's the best way to pretrain them?

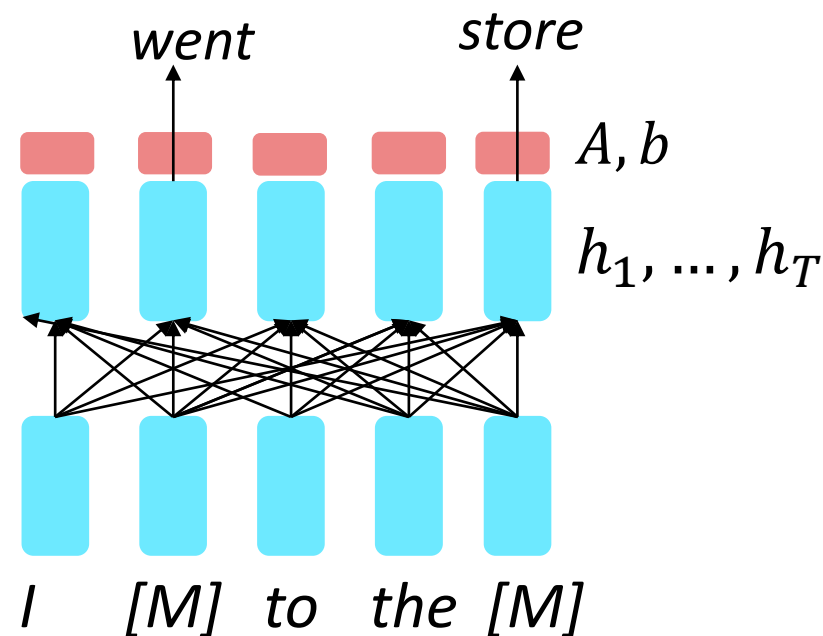
Pretraining encoders: what pretraining objective to use?

So far, we've looked at language model pretraining. But **encoders get bidirectional context**, so we can't do language modeling!

Idea: replace some fraction of words in the input with a special [MASK] token; predict these words.

$$h_1, \dots, h_T = \text{Encoder}(w_1, \dots, w_T)$$
$$y_i \sim Aw_i + b$$

Only add loss terms from words that are “masked out.” If \tilde{x} is the masked version of x , we're learning $p_\theta(x|\tilde{x})$. Called **Masked LM**.



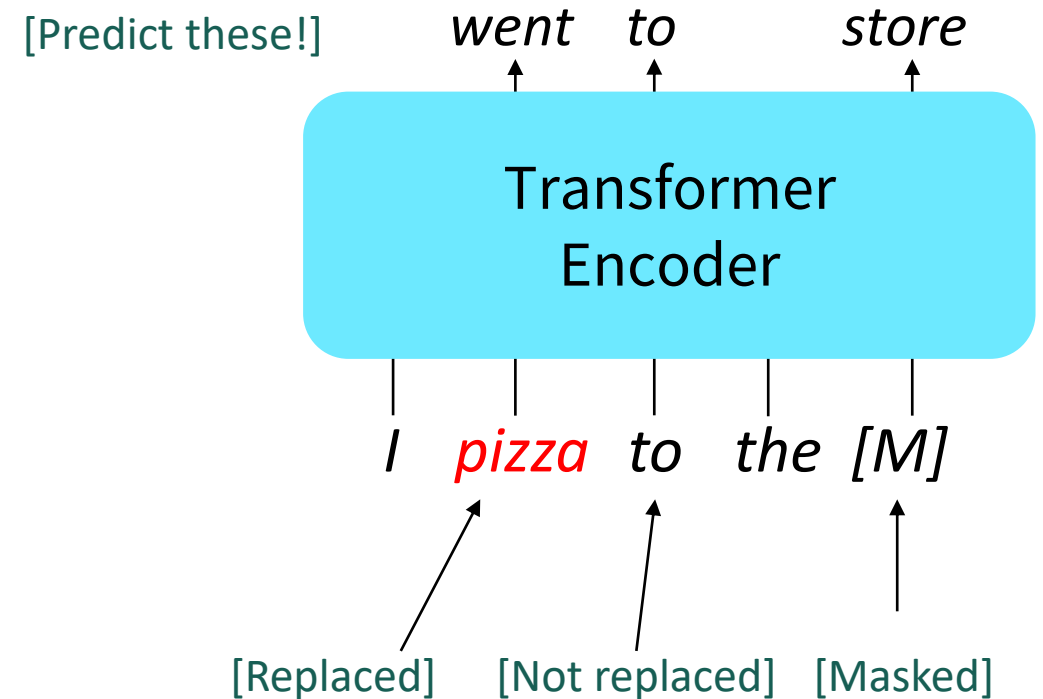
[Devlin et al., 2018]

BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

Devlin et al., 2018 proposed the “Masked LM” objective and **released the weights of a pretrained Transformer**, a model they labeled BERT.

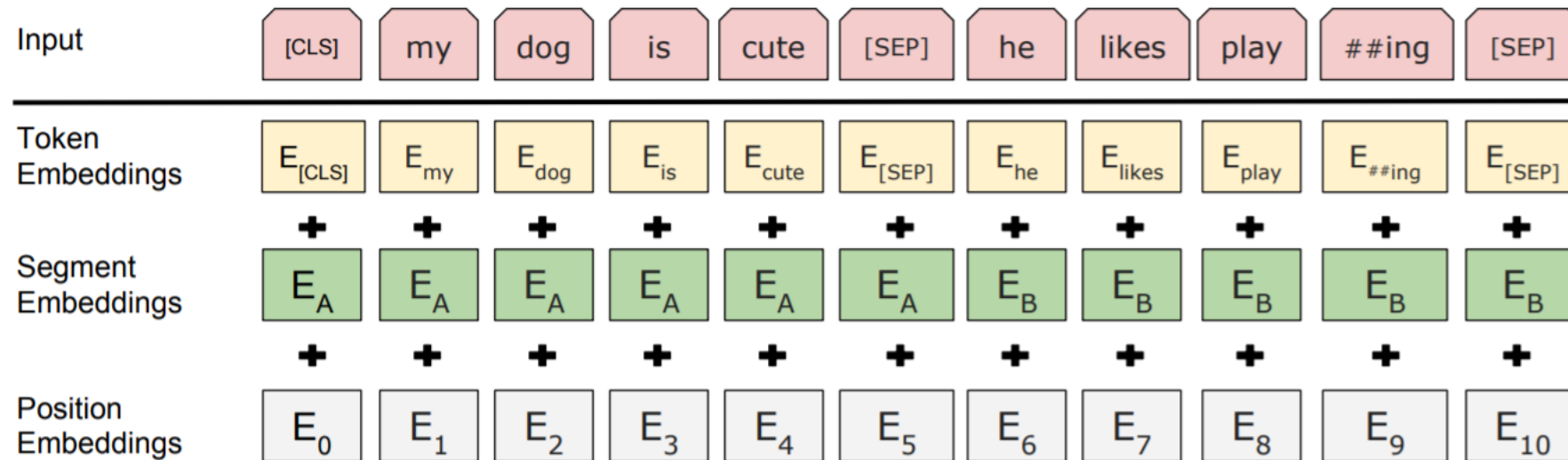
Some more details about Masked LM for BERT:

- Predict a random 15% of (sub)word tokens.
 - Replace input word with [MASK] 80% of the time
 - Replace input word with a random token 10% of the time
 - Leave input word unchanged 10% of the time (but still predict it!)
- Why? Doesn't let the model get complacent and not build strong representations of non-masked words. (No masks are seen at fine-tuning time!)



BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

- The pretraining input to BERT was two separate contiguous chunks of text:



- BERT was trained to predict whether one chunk follows the other or is randomly sampled.
 - Later work has argued this “next sentence prediction” is not necessary.

BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

Details about BERT

- Two models were released:
 - BERT-base: 12 layers, 768-dim hidden states, 12 attention heads, 110 million params.
 - BERT-large: 24 layers, 1024-dim hidden states, 16 attention heads, 340 million params.
- Trained on:
 - BooksCorpus (800 million words)
 - English Wikipedia (2,500 million words)
- Pretraining is expensive and impractical on a single GPU.
 - BERT was pretrained with 64 TPU chips for a total of 4 days.
 - (TPUs are special tensor operation acceleration hardware)
- Finetuning is practical and common on a single GPU
 - “Pretrain once, finetune many times.”

BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

BERT was massively popular and hugely versatile; finetuning BERT led to new state-of-the-art results on a broad range of tasks.

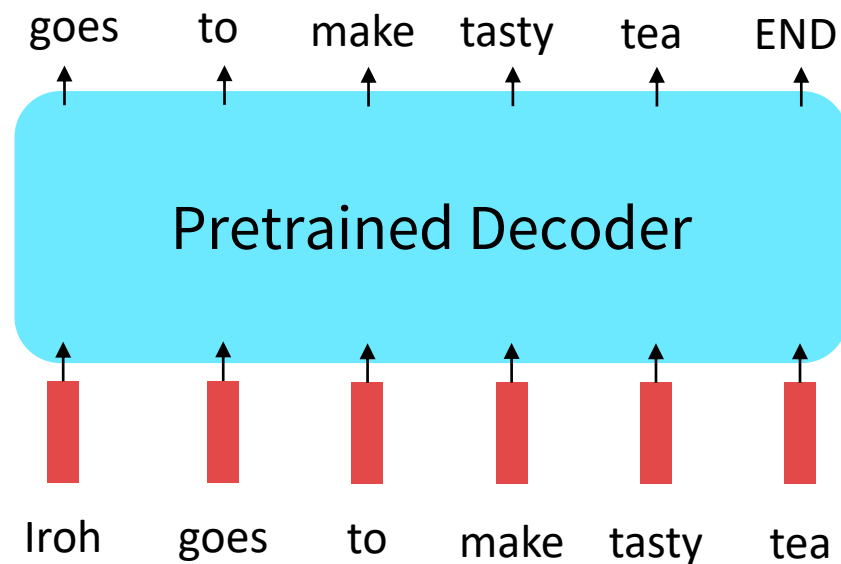
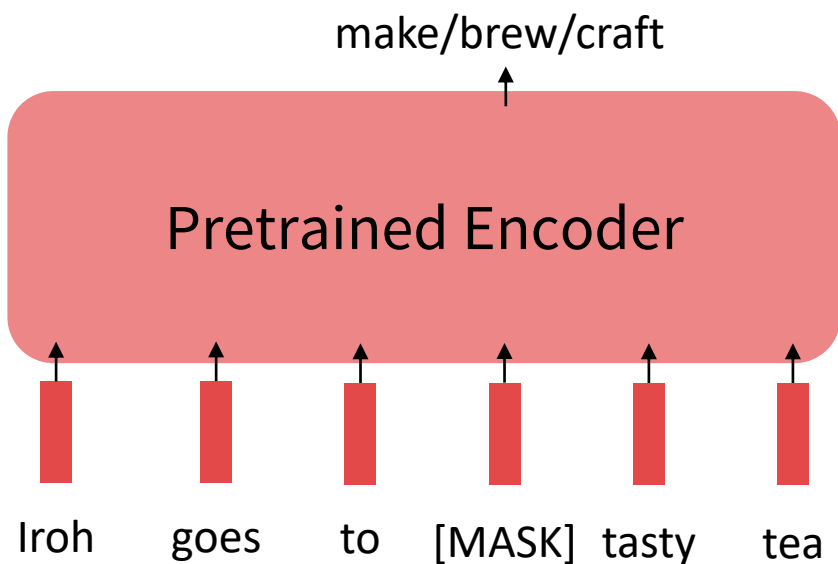
- **QQP**: Quora Question Pairs (detect paraphrase questions)
- **QNLI**: natural language inference over question answering data
- **SST-2**: sentiment analysis
- **CoLA**: corpus of linguistic acceptability (detect whether sentences are grammatical.)
- **STS-B**: semantic textual similarity
- **MRPC**: microsoft paraphrase corpus
- **RTE**: a small natural language inference corpus

System	MNLI-(m/mm) 392k	QQP 363k	QNLI 108k	SST-2 67k	CoLA 8.5k	STS-B 5.7k	MRPC 3.5k	RTE 2.5k	Average -
Pre-OpenAI SOTA	80.6/80.1	66.1	82.3	93.2	35.0	81.0	86.0	61.7	74.0
BiLSTM+ELMo+Attn	76.4/76.1	64.8	79.8	90.4	36.0	73.3	84.9	56.8	71.0
OpenAI GPT	82.1/81.4	70.3	87.4	91.3	45.4	80.0	82.3	56.0	75.1
BERT _{BASE}	84.6/83.4	71.2	90.5	93.5	52.1	85.8	88.9	66.4	79.6
BERT _{LARGE}	86.7/85.9	72.1	92.7	94.9	60.5	86.5	89.3	70.1	82.1

Limitations of pretrained encoders

Those results looked great! Why not use pretrained encoders for everything?

If your task involves generating sequences, consider using a pretrained decoder; BERT and other pretrained encoders don't naturally lead to nice autoregressive (1-word-at-a-time) generation methods.

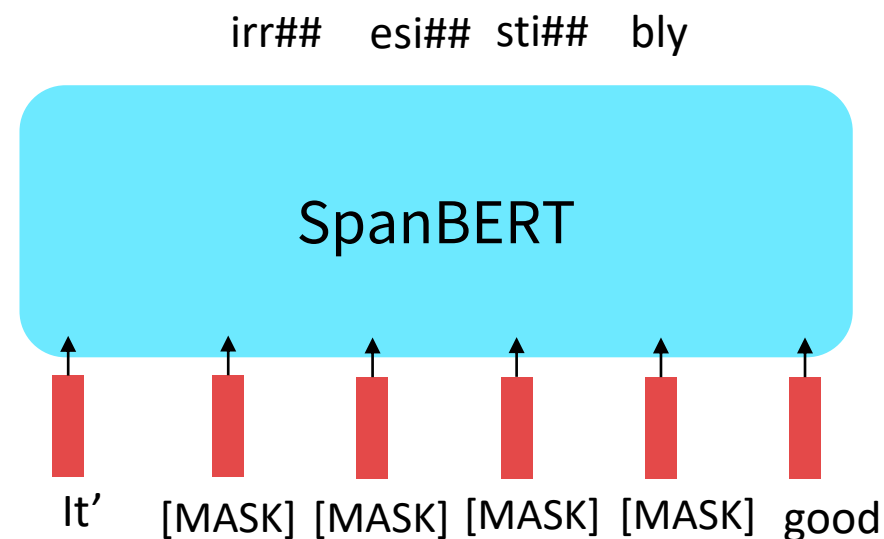
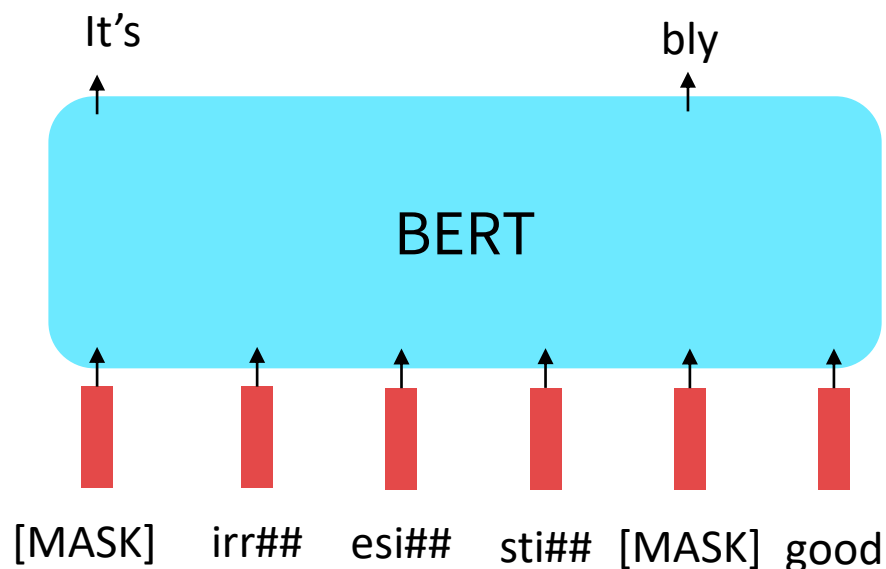


Extensions of BERT

You'll see a lot of BERT variants like RoBERTa, SpanBERT, +++)

Some generally accepted improvements to the BERT pretraining formula:

- RoBERTa: mainly just train BERT for longer and remove next sentence prediction!
- SpanBERT: masking contiguous spans of words makes a harder, more useful pretraining task



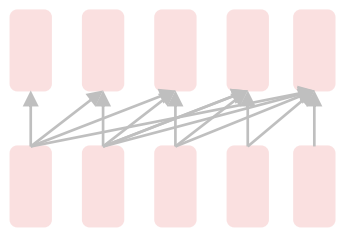
Extensions of BERT

A takeaway from the RoBERTa paper: more compute, more data can improve pretraining even when not changing the underlying Transformer encoder.

Model	data	bsz	steps	SQuAD (v1.1/2.0)	MNLI-m	SST-2
RoBERTa						
with BOOKS + WIKI	16GB	8K	100K	93.6/87.3	89.0	95.3
+ additional data (§3.2)	160GB	8K	100K	94.0/87.7	89.3	95.6
+ pretrain longer	160GB	8K	300K	94.4/88.7	90.0	96.1
+ pretrain even longer	160GB	8K	500K	94.6/89.4	90.2	96.4
BERT _{LARGE}						
with BOOKS + WIKI	13GB	256	1M	90.9/81.8	86.6	93.7

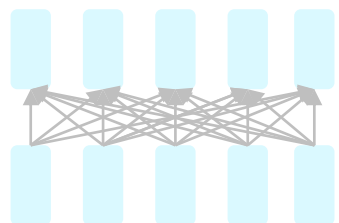
Pretraining for three types of architectures

The neural architecture influences the type of pretraining, and natural use cases.



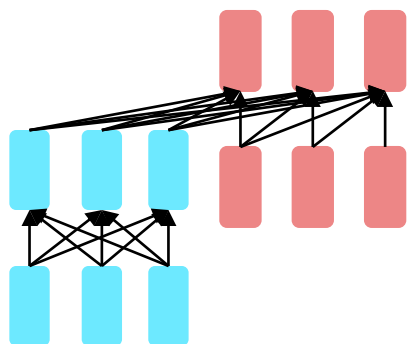
Decoders

- Language models! What we've seen so far.
- Nice to generate from; can't condition on future words



Encoders

- Gets bidirectional context – can condition on future!
- Wait, how do we pretrain them?



**Encoder-
Decoders**

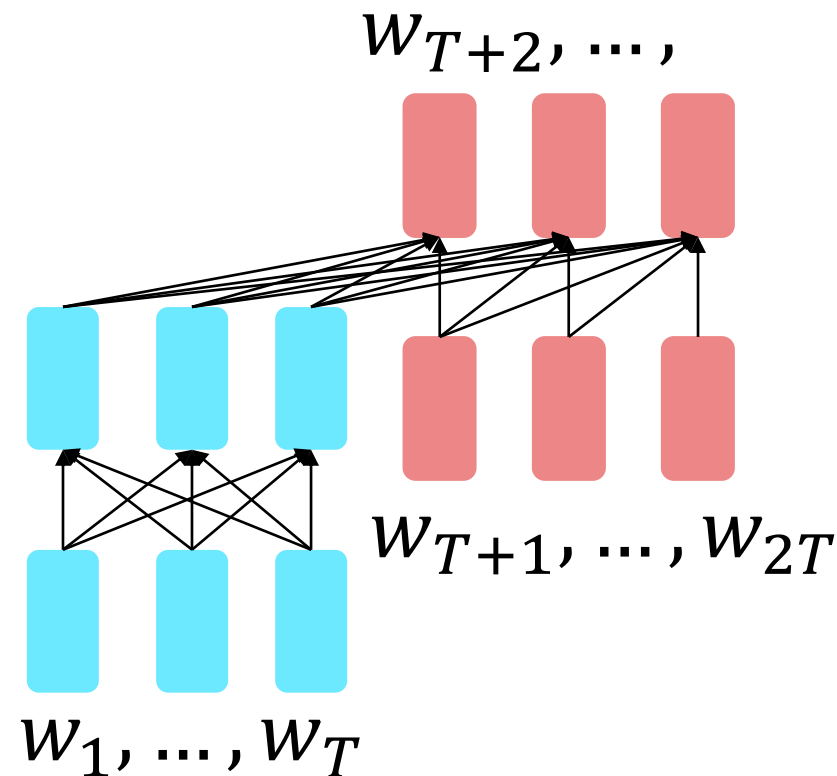
- Good parts of decoders and encoders?
- What's the best way to pretrain them?

Pretraining encoder-decoders: what pretraining objective to use?

For **encoder-decoders**, we could do something like **language modeling**, but where a prefix of every input is provided to the encoder and is not predicted.

$$\begin{aligned}h_1, \dots, h_T &= \text{Encoder}(w_1, \dots, w_T) \\h_{T+1}, \dots, h_{2T} &= \text{Decoder}(w_1, \dots, w_T, h_1, \dots, h_T) \\y_i &\sim Aw_i + b, i > T\end{aligned}$$

The **encoder** portion benefits from bidirectional context; the **decoder** portion is used to train the whole model through language modeling.



[Raffel et al., 2018]

Pretraining encoder-decoders: what pretraining objective to use?

What [Raffel et al., 2018](#) found to work best was **span corruption**. Their model: **T5**.

Replace different-length spans from the input with unique placeholders; decode out the spans that were removed!

Original text

Thank you ~~for inviting~~ me to your party ~~last~~ week.

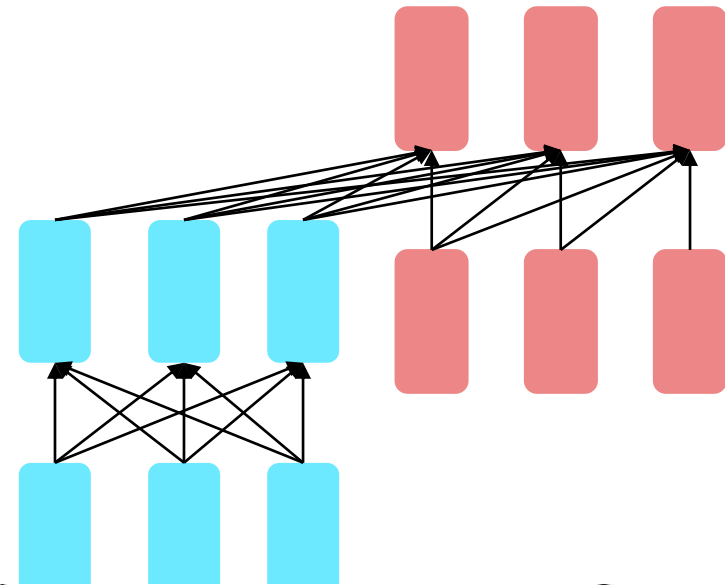
This is implemented in text preprocessing: it's still an objective that looks like **language modeling** at the decoder side.

Inputs

Thank you <X> me to your party <Y> week.

Targets

<X> for inviting <Y> last <Z>



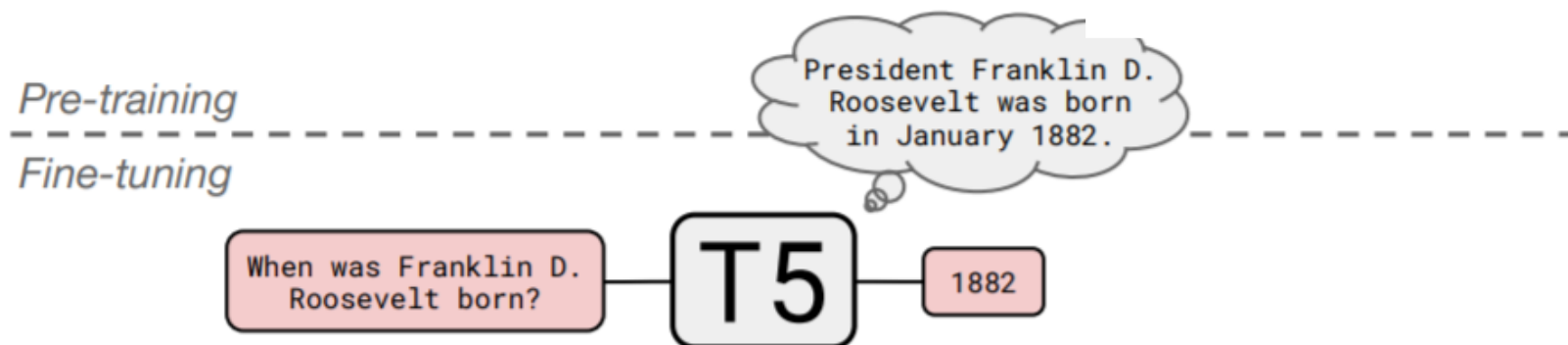
Pretraining encoder-decoders: what pretraining objective to use?

[Raffel et al., 2018](#) found encoder-decoders to work better than decoders for their tasks, and span corruption (denoising) to work better than language modeling.

Architecture	Objective	Params	Cost	GLUE	CNNDM	SQuAD	SGLUE	EnDe	EnFr	EnRo
★ Encoder-decoder	Denoising	$2P$	M	83.28	19.24	80.88	71.36	26.98	39.82	27.65
Enc-dec, shared	Denoising	P	M	82.81	18.78	80.63	70.73	26.72	39.03	27.46
Enc-dec, 6 layers	Denoising	P	$M/2$	80.88	18.97	77.59	68.42	26.38	38.40	26.95
Language model	Denoising	P	M	74.70	17.93	61.14	55.02	25.09	35.28	25.86
Prefix LM	Denoising	P	M	81.82	18.61	78.94	68.11	26.43	37.98	27.39
Encoder-decoder	LM	$2P$	M	79.56	18.59	76.02	64.29	26.27	39.17	26.86
Enc-dec, shared	LM	P	M	79.60	18.13	76.35	63.50	26.62	39.17	27.05
Enc-dec, 6 layers	LM	P	$M/2$	78.67	18.26	75.32	64.06	26.13	38.42	26.89
Language model	LM	P	M	73.78	17.54	53.81	56.51	25.23	34.31	25.38
Prefix LM	LM	P	M	79.68	17.84	76.87	64.86	26.28	37.51	26.76

Pretraining encoder-decoders: what pretraining objective to use?

A fascinating property of T5: it can be finetuned to answer a wide range of questions, retrieving knowledge from its parameters.



NQ: Natural Questions

WQ: WebQuestions

TQA: Trivia QA

All “open-domain”
versions

	NQ	WQ	TQA		
			dev	test	
<u>Karpukhin et al. (2020)</u>	41.5	42.4	57.9	–	
T5.1.1-Base	25.7	28.2	24.2	30.6	220 million params
T5.1.1-Large	27.3	29.5	28.5	37.2	770 million params
T5.1.1-XL	29.5	32.4	36.0	45.1	3 billion params
T5.1.1-XXL	32.8	35.6	42.9	52.5	11 billion params
<u>T5.1.1-XXL + SSM</u>	35.2	42.8	51.9	61.6	

Outline

1. A brief note on subword modeling
2. Motivating model pretraining from word embeddings
3. Model pretraining three ways
 1. Decoders
 2. Encoders
 3. Encoder-Decoders
4. Interlude: what do we think pretraining is teaching?
5. Very large models and in-context learning

What kinds of things does pretraining learn?

There's increasing evidence that pretrained models learn a wide variety of things about the statistical properties of language. Taking our examples from the start of class:

- *Stanford University is located in _____, California.* [Trivia]
- *I put ____ fork down on the table.* [syntax]
- *The woman walked across the street, checking for traffic over ____ shoulder.* [coreference]
- *I went to the ocean to see the fish, turtles, seals, and _____.* [lexical semantics/topic]
- *Overall, the value I got from the two hours watching it was the sum total of the popcorn and the drink. The movie was ____.* [sentiment]
- *Iroh went into the kitchen to make some tea. Standing next to Iroh, Zuko pondered his destiny. Zuko left the _____.* [some reasoning – this is harder]
- *I was thinking about the sequence that goes 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ____* [some basic arithmetic; they don't learn the Fibonacci sequence]
- Models also learn – and can exacerbate racism, sexism, all manner of bad biases.
- More on all this in the interpretability lecture!

Outline

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GPT-3, In-context learning, and very large models

So far, we've interacted with pretrained models in two ways:

- Sample from the distributions they define (maybe providing a prompt)
- Fine-tune them on a task we care about, and take their predictions.

Very large language models seem to perform some kind of learning **without gradient steps** simply from examples you provide within their contexts.

GPT-3 is the canonical example of this. The largest T5 model had 11 billion parameters.

GPT-3 has 175 billion parameters.

GPT-3, In-context learning, and very large models

Very large language models seem to perform some kind of learning **without gradient steps** simply from examples you provide within their contexts.

The in-context examples seem to specify the task to be performed, and the conditional distribution mocks performing the task to a certain extent.

Input (prefix within a single Transformer decoder context):

“ thanks -> merci
 hello -> bonjour
 mint -> menthe
 otter -> ”

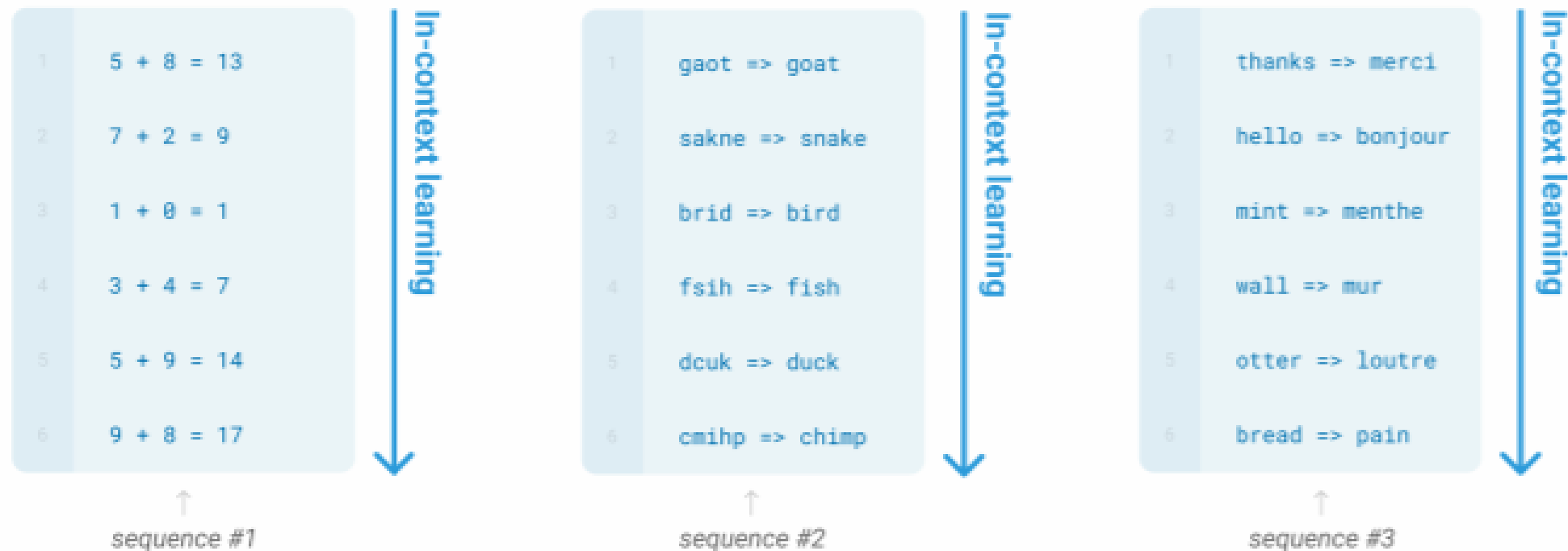
Output (conditional generations):

loutre...”

GPT-3, In-context learning, and very large models

Very large language models seem to perform some kind of learning **without gradient steps** simply from examples you provide within their contexts.

Learning via SGD during unsupervised pre-training



Parting remarks

These models are still not well-understood.

“Small” models like BERT have become general tools in a wide range of settings.

More on this in later lectures!

Assignment 5 out today! Tuesday's and today's lectures in its subject matter.