

10-301/10-601 Introduction to Machine Learning

Machine Learning Department School of Computer Science Carnegie Mellon University

Automatic Differentiation & Transformers

Matt Gormley, Henry Chai, Hoda Heidari Lecture 19 Mar. 27, 2024

Reminders

- Homework 6: Learning Theory & Generative Models
 - Out: Mon, Mar 18
 - Due: Sun, Mar 24 at 11:59pm
- Exam 2: Thu, Mar 28, 7:00 pm 9:00 pm

BACKGROUND: HUMAN LANGUAGE TECHNOLOGIES

Human Language Technologies

Speech Recognition

Machine Translation

기계 번역은 특히 영어와 한국어와 같은 언어 쌍의 경우 매우 어렵습니다.

Summarization

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Bidirectional RNN

RNNs are a now commonplace backbone in deep learning approaches to natural language processing



BACKGROUND: N-GRAM LANGUAGE MODELS

- <u>Goal</u>: Generate realistic looking sentences in a human language
- <u>Key Idea</u>: condition on the last n-1 words to sample the nth word



<u>Question</u>: How can we **define** a probability distribution over a sequence of length T?



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Learning an n-Gram Model

<u>Question</u>: How do we **learn** the probabilities for the n-Gram Model?



Learning an n-Gram Model

<u>Question</u>: How do we **learn** the probabilities for the n-Gram Model?

<u>Answer</u>: From data! Just **count** n-gram frequencies

... the cows eat grass...
... our cows eat hay daily...
... factory-farm cows eat corn...
... on an organic farm, cows eat hay and...
... do your cows eat grass or corn?...
... what do cows eat if they have...
... cows eat corn when there is no...
... which cows eat which foods depends...
... if cows eat grass...
... when cows eat corn their stomachs...
... should we let cows eat corn?...

$w_{t-1} = eat)$				
w _t	p(· ·, ·)			
corn	4/11			
grass	3/11			
hay	2/11			
if	1/11			
which	1/11			

 $p(w_t | w_{t-2} = cows,$

Sampling from a Language Model

<u>Question</u>: How do we sample from a Language Model?

Answer:

- Treat each probability distribution like a (50k-sided) weighted die 1.
- Pick the die corresponding to $p(w_t | w_{t-2}, w_{t-1})$ 2.
- Roll that die and generate whichever word w_t lands face up 3.
- Repeat 4.



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- 3. Roll that die and generate whichever word w_t lands face up
- 4. Repeat

Training Data (Shakespeaere)	5-Gram Model
I tell you, friends, most charitable care ave the patricians of you. For your wants, Your suffering in this dearth, you may as well Strike at the heaven with your staves as lift them Against the Roman state, whose course will on The way it takes, cracking ten thousand curbs Of more strong link asunder than can ever Appear in your impediment. For the dearth, The gods, not the patricians, make it, and Your knees to them, not arms, must help.	Approacheth, denay. dungy Thither! Julius think: grant,O Yead linens, sheep's Ancient, Agreed: Petrarch plaguy Resolved pear! observingly honourest adulteries wherever scabbard guess; affirmationhis monsieur; died. jealousy, chequins me. Daphne building. weakness: sun- rise, cannot stays carry't, unpurposed. prophet-like drink; back-return 'gainst surmise Bridget ships? wane; interim? She's striving wet;

RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORK (RNN) LANGUAGE MODELS

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)

inputs: $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T), x_i \in \mathcal{R}^I$ hidden units: $\mathbf{h} = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_T), h_i \in \mathcal{R}^J$ outputs: $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_T), y_i \in \mathcal{R}^K$ nonlinearity: \mathcal{H}



The Chain Rule of Probability

<u>Question</u>: How can we **define** a probability distribution over a sequence of length T?



Recall...

RNN Language Model: $p(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_T) = \prod_{t=1}^T p(w_t \mid f_{\theta}(w_{t-1}, \dots, w_1))$



<u>Key Idea</u>:

(1) convert all previous words to a **fixed length vector** (2) define distribution $p(w_t | f_{\theta}(w_{t-1}, ..., w_1))$ that conditions on the vector



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



Key Idea:



$$p(w_1, w_2, w_3, ..., w_T) = p(w_1 | h_1) p(w_2 | h_2) ... p(w_T | h_T)$$

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- Repeat 4.



??

VIOLA: Why, Salisbury must find his flesh and thought That which I am not aps, not a man and in fire, To show the reining of the raven and the wars To grace my hand reproach within, and not a fair are hand, That Caesar and my goodly father's world; When I was heaven of

presence and our fleets, We spare with hours, but cut thy council I am great, Murdered and by thy more to give thee but so much service in the noble bondman here, Would Shake her wine.

KING LEAR: O, if you were a feeble set, the courtesy of your law, Your sight and several breath, will wear the gods With his heads, and my hands are wonder'd at the deeds, So drop upon your lordship's head, and your opinion Shall be against your honour.

??

CHARLES: Marry, do I, sir; and I came to acquaint you with a matter. I am given, sir, secretly to understand that your younger brother Orlando hath a disposition to come in disguised against me to try a fall. To-morrow, sir, I wrestle for my credit; and he that escapes me without <u>some broken limb</u> shall acquit him well. Your brother is

Which is the real Shakespeare?!

ender; and, for your love, I would be , as I must, for my own honour, if he pre, out of my love to you, I came hither withal, that either you might stay him

from his intender brook such disgrace well as he shall run into, in the is a thing of his own search and altogether against my will.

TOUCHSTONE: For my part, I had rather bear with you than bear you; yet I should bear no cross if I did bear you, for I think you have no money in your purse.

Example from http://karpathy.github.io/2015/05/21/rnn-effectiveness/

Shakespeare's As You Like It

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RNN-LM Sample

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MODULE-BASED AUTOMATIC DIFFERENTIATION

Training

Backpropagation



Forward Computation

- Write an **algorithm** for evaluating the function y = f(x). The algorithm defines a **directed acyclic graph**, where each variable is a node (i.e. the "**computation** graph")
- Visit each node in **topological order**. 2. For variable u_i with inputs v_1, \dots, v_N a. Compute $u_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$ b. Store the result at the node

Backward Computation (Version A)

- **Initialize** dy/dy = 1. 1.
- 2.
- Visit each node v_j in **reverse topological order**. Let u_1, \ldots, u_M denote all the nodes with v_j as an input Assuming that $y = h(\mathbf{u}) = h(u_1, \dots, u_M)$ and $\mathbf{u} = g(\mathbf{v})$ or equivalently $u_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_N)$ for all i a. We already know dy/du_i for all i

 - Compute dy/dv_i as below (Choice of algorithm ensures b. computing (du_i/dv_i) is easy

$$\int \frac{dy}{dv_j} = \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{dy}{du_i} \frac{du_i}{dv_j}$$



Return partial derivatives dy/du_i for all variables

Peceli

Training

Backpropagation



Forward Computation

- Write an **algorithm** for evaluating the function y = f(x). The algorithm defines a **directed acyclic graph**, where each variable is a node (i.e. the "**computation** graph")
- Visit each node in **topological order**. 2. For variable u_i with inputs v_1, \dots, v_N a. Compute $u_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$ b. Store the result at the node

Backward Computation (Version B)

- **Initialize** all partial derivatives dy/du_i to 0 and dy/dy = 1. 1.
- Visit each node in reverse topological order. 2. For variable $u_i = g_i(v_1, \dots, v_N)$
 - a.
 - We already know dy/du_i Increment dy/dv_j by (dy/du_i)(du_i/dv_j) (Choice of algorithm ensures computing (du_i/dv_j) is easy) b.



Return partial derivatives dy/du_i for all variables

PRET

Training

Backpropagation

Why is the backpropagation algorithm efficient?

- 1. Reuses **computation from the forward pass** in the backward pass
- 2. Reuses **partial derivatives** throughout the backward pass (but only if the algorithm reuses shared computation in the forward pass)

(Key idea: partial derivatives in the backward pass should be thought of as variables stored for reuse)

Recall
Background

A Recipe for

Gradients

1. Given training dat Backprop $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$ gradient! And it's a

2. Choose each of t

Decision function

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$

Loss function

 $\ell(\hat{oldsymbol{y}},oldsymbol{y}_i)\in\mathbb{R}$

Backpropagation can compute this gradient!

And it's a special case of a more general algorithm called reversemode automatic differentiation that can compute the gradient of any differentiable function efficiently!

opposite the gradient)

 $-\eta_t \nabla \ell(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}_i), \boldsymbol{y}_i)$

Recell

Backpropagation: Abstract Picture



Backpropagation: Procedural Method

Algorithm 1 Forward Computation

- 1: **procedure** NNFORWARD(Training example (x, y), Params α, β)
- 2: $\mathbf{a} = \alpha \mathbf{x}$
- 3: $\mathbf{z} = \sigma(\mathbf{a})$
- 4: $\mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\beta} \mathbf{z}$

5:
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{b})$$

6:
$$J = -\mathbf{y}^T \log \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

- 7: $\mathbf{o} = \texttt{object}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, J)$
- 8: **return** intermediate quantities **o**

Algorithm 2 Backpropagation

- 1: **procedure** NNBACKWARD(Training example (x, y), Params α, β , Intermediates o)
- 2: Place intermediate quantities $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, J$ in \mathbf{o} in scope

3:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} = -\mathbf{y} \div \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

4: $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{y}} = -\mathbf{g}^T (\operatorname{diag}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}))$

4:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}}^{T} (\operatorname{diag}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}) - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{T})$$

5: $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{\beta}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}^{T} \mathbf{z}^{T}$

T

5:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}^{T}$$

6:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{z}} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}^T$$

7:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{z}} \odot \mathbf{z} \odot (1 - \mathbf{z})$$

8:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\alpha} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{x}^{T}$$

9: **return** parameter gradients $\mathbf{g}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{g}_{\beta}$

Drawbacks of Procedural Method

- 1. Hard to reuse / adapt for other models
- 2. (Possibly) harder to make individual steps more efficient
- 3. Hard to find source of error if finitedifference check reports an error (since it tells you only that there is an error somewhere in those 17 lines of code)

Module-based automatic differentiation (AD / Autodiff) is a technique that has long been used to develop libraries for deep learning

- Dynamic neural network packages allow a specification of the computation graph dynamically at runtime
 - PyTorch <u>http://pytorch.org</u>
 - Torch <u>http://torch.ch</u>
 - DyNet <u>https://dynet.readthedocs.io</u>
 - TensorFlow with Eager Execution <u>https://www.tensorflow.org</u>
- Static neural network packages require a static specification of a computation graph which is subsequently compiled into code
 - TensorFlow with Graph Execution <u>https://www.tensorflow.org</u>
 - Aesara (and Theano) <u>https://aesara.readthedocs.io</u>
 - (These libraries are also module-based, but herein by "module-based AD" we mean the dynamic approach)

- Key Idea:
 - componentize the computation of the neural-network into layers
 - each layer consolidates multiple real-valued nodes in the computation graph (a subset of them) into one vector-valued node (aka. a module)
- Each **module** is capable of two actions:
 - 1. Forward computation of output $\mathbf{b} = [b_1, \dots, b_B]$ given input
 - $\mathbf{a} = [a_1, \dots, a_A]$ via some differentiable function f. That is $\mathbf{b} = f(\mathbf{a})$.





Dimensions: input $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^A$, output $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^B$, gradient of output $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} \triangleq \nabla_{\mathbf{a}} J \in \mathbb{R}^A$, and gradient of input $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}} \triangleq$ $\nabla_{\mathbf{h}} J \in \mathbb{R}^{B}$.

Sigmoid Module The sigmoid layer has only one input vector **a**. Below σ is the sigmoid applied elementwise, and \odot is element-wise multiplication s.t. $\mathbf{u}\odot$ $\mathbf{v} = [u_1 v_1, \dots, u_M v_M].$ 1: **procedure** SIGMOIDFORWARD(a)

2:
$$\mathbf{b} = \sigma(\mathbf{a})$$

return b 3:

```
4: procedure SIGMOIDBACKWARD(a, b, g<sub>b</sub>)
```

```
\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}} \odot \mathbf{b} \odot (1 - \mathbf{b})
5:
```

```
6:
           return g<sub>a</sub>
```

Softmax Module The softmax layer has only one input vector **a**. For any vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, we have that $diag(\mathbf{v})$ returns a $D \times D$ diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_D and whose nondiagonal entries are zero.

```
1: procedure SOFTMAXFORWARD(a)
```

```
\mathbf{b} = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{a})
2:
```

return b 3:

```
4: procedure SOFTMAXBACKWARD(a, b, g<sub>b</sub>)
```

5:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}^T \left(\mathsf{diag}(\mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^T \right)$$

6: return g_a Linear Module The linear layer has two inputs: a vector a and parameters $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times A}$. The output b is not used by LINEARBACKWARD, but we pass it in for consistency of form.

- 1: **procedure** LINEARFORWARD (a, ω)
- $\mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{a}$ 2:
- return b 3:

4: procedure LINEARBACKWARD($\mathbf{a}, \omega, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}$)

5:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{a}^{T}$$

6: $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} = \boldsymbol{\omega}^{T}\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}$

$$\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}}=oldsymbol{\omega}^{\,\prime}\,\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}$$

return g_{ω}, g_{a} 7:

Cross-Entropy Module The cross-entropy layer has two inputs: a gold one-hot vector a and a predicted probability distribution $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$. It's output $b \in \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar. Below \div is element-wise division. The output *b* is not used by CROSSENTROPYBACKWARD, but we pass it in for consistency of form.

1: **procedure** CROSSENTROPYFORWARD (a, \hat{a})

2:
$$b = -\mathbf{a}^T \log \hat{\mathbf{a}}$$

return b 3:

4: **procedure** CROSSENTROPYBACKWARD($\mathbf{a}, \hat{\mathbf{a}}, b, g_b$)

:
$$\mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}} = -g_b(\mathbf{a} \div \hat{\mathbf{a}})$$

return g_a 6:

 \triangleright We discard $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{x}}$

Algorithm 1 Forward Computation

- 1: procedure NNFORWARD (Training example (x, y), Parameters α ,
- β)
- $\mathbf{a} = \mathsf{LINEARFORWARD}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ 2:
- z = SIGMOIDFORWARD(a)3:
- $\mathbf{b} = \text{LinearForward}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$ 4:
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathsf{SoftmaxForward}(\mathbf{b})$ 5:
- $J = \mathsf{CROSSENTROPYFORWARD}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$ 6:
- $\mathbf{o} = \texttt{object}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, J)$ 7:
- return intermediate quantities o 8:

Algorithm 2 Backpropagation

1: **procedure** NNBACKWARD(Training example (x, y), Parameters α, β , Intermediates o) Place intermediate quantities $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, J$ in o in scope 2: ▷ Base case

3:
$$g_J = \frac{dJ}{dJ} = 1$$

- $\mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{v}}} = \mathsf{CROSSENTROPYBACKWARD}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, J, g_J)$ 4:
- $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}} = \mathsf{SOFTMAXBACKWARD}(\mathbf{b}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}})$ 5:
- $\mathbf{g}_{oldsymbol{eta}}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{z}} = \mathsf{LinearBackward}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}})$ 6:
- $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}} = \mathsf{SigmoidBackward}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{z}})$ 7:

8:
$$\mathbf{g}_{oldsymbol{lpha}}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathsf{LinearBackward}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}})$$

return parameter gradients $\mathbf{g}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{g}_{\beta}$ 9:

Advantages of Module-based AutoDiff

- Easy to reuse / 1. adapt for other models
- Encapsulated 2. layers are easier to optimize (e.g. implement in C++ or CUDA)
- Easier to find 3. bugs because we can run a finitedifference check on each layer separately

Object-Oriented Implementation:

- Let each module be an **object**
- Then allow the **control flow** dictate the creation of the **computation graph**
- No longer need to implement NNBackward(\cdot), just follow the computation graph in **reverse topological order**

		1	class Linear (Module)
1	class Sigmoid (Module)	2	method forward(a, ω)
2	method forward(a)	3	$\mathbf{b} = oldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{a}$
3	$\mathbf{b} = \sigma(\mathbf{a})$	4	return b
4	return b	5	method backward(a, ω , b, $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}$)
5	method backward(a, b, g _b)	6	$\mathbf{g}_{oldsymbol{\omega}} = \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{a}^T$
6	$\mathbf{g_a} = \mathbf{g_b} \odot \mathbf{b} \odot (1 - \mathbf{b})$	7	$\mathbf{g_a} = oldsymbol{\omega}^T \mathbf{g_b}$
7	$return g_a$	8	$\mathbf{return} \ \mathbf{g}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}}, \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{a}}$
1	class Softmax (Module)	1	class CrossEntropy(Module)
2	method forward(a)	2	method forward(\mathbf{a} , $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$)
3	$\mathbf{b} = \mathtt{softmax}(\mathbf{a})$	3	$b = -\mathbf{a}^T \log \hat{\mathbf{a}}$
4	return b	4	return b
5	method backward(\mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} , $\mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{b}}$)	5	method backward(a, $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$, b , g_b)
6	$\mathbf{g_a} = \mathbf{g_b}^T \left(\mathtt{diag}(\mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{b} \mathbf{b}^T ight)$	6	$\mathbf{g}_{\hat{\mathbf{a}}} = -g_b(\mathbf{a} \div \hat{\mathbf{a}})$
7	$return g_a$	7	return g_a

```
class NeuralNetwork(Module):
1
2
         method init()
3
              lin1_layer = Linear()
4
              sig_layer = Sigmoid()
5
              lin2_layer = Linear()
6
              soft_layer = Softmax()
7
              ce_layer = CrossEntropy()
8
9
         method forward (Tensor x, Tensor y, Tensor \alpha, Tensor \beta)
10
              \mathbf{a} = \text{lin1}\_\text{layer.apply}\_\text{fwd}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})
11
              z = sig\_layer.apply\_fwd(a)
12
              \mathbf{b} = \text{lin2\_layer.apply\_fwd}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\beta})
13
              \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{soft}_{aver.apply}_{fwd}(\mathbf{b})
14
              J = ce_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})
15
              return J.out tensor
16
17
         method backward (Tensor x, Tensor y, Tensor \alpha, Tensor \beta)
18
              tape bwd()
19
              return lin1_layer.in_gradients[1], lin2_layer.in_gradients[1]
20
```

1	class NeuralNetwork(Module):	2
2		3
3	method init()	4
4	lin1 layer = Linear()	5
5	sig layer = Sigmoid()	6
6	lin2 layer = Linear()	7
7	soft layer = Softmax()	8
8	ce layer = CrossEntropy()	9
9		10
10	method forward (Tensor x, Tensor y, Tensor	11
11	$\mathbf{a} = \text{lin1}$ layer.apply $\text{fwd}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$	12
12	$\mathbf{z} = sig_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{a})$	13
13	$\mathbf{b} = \text{lin2} \text{layer.apply} \text{fwd}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$	14
14	$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{soft} _ \text{layer.apply} _ \text{fwd}(\mathbf{b})$	15
15	$J = \text{ce_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$	16
16	return J.out_tensor	17
17		18
18	\mathbf{method} backward (Tensor \mathbf{x} , Tensor \mathbf{y} , Tensor	19
19	tape_bwd()	20
20	return $lin1_layer.in_gradients[1], lin2_la$	21
		22
		23
		24

global tape = stack() $(t_{t_{M}} = [])$
class Module:
method init()
out_tensor = null > tape = L sig-layer, in - layer
out_gradient = 1
ე
method apply_fwd(List in_modules)
in_tensors = [x.out_tensor for x in in_modules]
$out_tensor = forward(in_tensors)$
tape.push(self)
return self (, Ce layer Jott-layer
method apply_bwd():
in_gradients = backward(in_tensors, out_tensor, out_gradient)
for i in 1,, len(in_modules):
in_modules[i].out_gradient += in_gradients[i] \varkappa
return self
function tape_bwd():
while $len(tape) > 0$
m = tape.pop()
m.apply_bwd()

1 global tape = stack()

1	class NeuralNetwork(Module):	2	
2		3	С
3	method init()	4	
4	$lin1_layer = Linear()$	5	
5	$sig_layer = Sigmoid()$	6	
6	$lin2_layer = Linear()$	7	
7	$soft_layer = Softmax()$	8	
8	ce_layer = CrossEntropy()	9	
9		10	
10	\mathbf{method} forward (Tensor \mathbf{x} , Tensor \mathbf{y} , Tensor	11	
11	$\mathbf{a} = \text{lin1_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$	12	
12	$\mathbf{z} = sig_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{a})$	13	
13	$\mathbf{b} = \text{lin2_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$	14	
14	$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{soft_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{b})$	15	
15	$J = ce_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$	16	
16	return $J.out_tensor$	17	
17		18	
18	\mathbf{method} backward (Tensor \mathbf{x} , Tensor \mathbf{y} , Tensor	19	
19	tape_bwd()	20	c
20	return lin1_layer.in_gradients[1], lin2_l ϵ	21	t
		22	
		23	

```
class Module:
  method init()
      out tensor = null
      out_gradient = 1
  method apply_fwd(List in_modules)
      in tensors = [x.out tensor for x in in modules]
      out tensor = forward(in tensors)
      tape.push(self)
      return self
  method apply bwd():
      in_gradients = backward(in_tensors, out_tensor, out_gradient)
      for i in 1,..., len(in_modules):
```

```
in_modules[i].out_gradient += in_gradients[i]
return self
```

```
21 function tape_bwd():
22 while len(tape) > 0
23 m = tape.pop()
24 m.apply_bwd()
```

PyTorch

The same simple 3 neural network we defined in 8 pseudocode can 9 10 also be defined 11 12 in PyTorch. 13 model = Neural Wetwork 15 16

```
1 # Define model
 2 class NeuralNetwork(nn.Module):
      def init (self):
          super(NeuralNetwork, self). init ()
          self.flatten = nn.Flatten()
          self.linear1 = nn.Linear(28*28, 512)
          self.sigmoid = nn.Sigmoid()
          self.linear2 = nn.Linear(512,512)
      def forward(self, x):
          x = self.flatten(x)
          a = self.linearl(x)
              self.sigmoid(a)
          z =
          b = self.linear2(z)
          return b
17 # Take one step of SGD
18 def one step of sgd(X, y):
      loss fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
      optimizer = torch.optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=1e-3)
20
21
22
      # Compute prediction error
      pred = model(X)
23
24
      loss = loss fn(pred, y)
25
26
      # Backpropagation
27
      optimizer.zero grad()
28
      loss.backward()
29
      optimizer.step()
```

Example adapted from https://pytorch.org/tutorials/beginner/basics/quickstart_tutorial.html

PyTorch

Q: Why don't we call linear.forward() in PyTorch?

A: This is just syntactic sugar. There's a special method in Python ___call___ that allows you to define what happens when you treat an object as if it were a function.

```
In other words, running the following:
    linear(x)
is equivalent to running:
    linear.__call__(x)
which in PyTorch is (nearly) the same as running:
    linear.forward(x)
```

```
This is because PyTorch defines every Module's __call__ method to be something like this:
```

```
def __call__(self):
    self.forward()
```

PyTorch

Q: Why don't we pass in the parameters to a PyTorch Module?

A: This just makes your code cleaner.

In PyTorch, you store the parameters inside the Module and "mark" them as parameters that should contribute to the eventual gradient used by an optimizer

0	method forward (Tensor x , Tensor y , Tensor α , Tensor β)
11	$\mathbf{a} = \text{lin1_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$
2	$\mathbf{z} = sig_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{a})$
3	$\mathbf{b} = \text{lin1_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$
4	$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{soft_layer.apply_fwd}(\mathbf{b})$
5	$J = ce_layer.apply_fwd(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$
6	return $J.out_tensor$

7	
10	<pre>def forward(self, x):</pre>
11	x = self.flatten(x)
12	<pre>a = self.linearl(x)</pre>
13	<pre>z = self.sigmoid(a)</pre>
14	<pre>b = self.linear2(z)</pre>
15	return b

Recap

Deep Learning

- AutoDiff
 - is a tool for computing gradients of a differentiable function, b = f(a)
 - the key building block is a module with a forward() and backward()
 - sometimes define f as code in forward() by chaining existing modules together
- Computation Graphs
 - are another way to define f (more conducive to slides)
 - we are considering various (deep) computation graphs: (1) CNN (2) RNN (3) RNN-LM
 (4) Transformer-LM
- Learning a Deep Network
 - deep networks (e.g. CNN/RNN) are trained by optimizing an objective function with SGD
 - compute gradients with AutoDiff

Language Modeling

- key idea: condition on previous words to sample the next word
- to define the **probability** of the next word...
 - ... n-gram LM uses collection of massive 50ksided dice
 - ... RNN-LM or Transformer-LM use a neural network
- Learning an LM
 - n-gram LMs are easy to learn: just count cooccurrences!
 - a RNN-LM / Transformer-LM is trained just like other deep neural networks

LEARNING AN RNN

Dataset for Supervised Part-of-Speech (POS) Tagging Data: $\mathcal{D} = \{ \boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}, \boldsymbol{y}^{(n)} \}_{n=1}^{N}$





SGD and Mini-batch SGD

Algorithm 1 SGD

1: Initialize $\theta^{(0)}$ 2: 3: 4: s = 05: for t = 1, 2, ..., T do for $i \in \mathsf{shuffle}(1, \ldots, N)$ do 6: Select the next training point (x_i, y_i) 7: Compute the gradient $g^{(s)} = \nabla J_i(\theta^{(s-1)})$ 8: Update parameters $\theta^{(s)} = \theta^{(s-1)} - \eta q^{(s)}$ 9: Increment time step s = s + 110: Evaluate average training loss $J(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} J_i(\theta)$ 11: 12: return $\theta^{(s)}$

Recalle

SGD and Mini-batch SGD

Algorithm 1 Mini-Batch SGD

- 1: Initialize $heta^{(0)}$
- 2: Divide examples $\{1, \ldots, N\}$ randomly into batches $\{I_1, \ldots, I_B\}$ 3: where $\bigcup_{b=1}^{B} I_b = \{1, \ldots, N\}$ and $\bigcap_{b=1}^{B} I_b = \emptyset$
- 4: s = 0
- 5: for t = 1, 2, ..., T do
- 6: **for** b = 1, 2, ..., B **do**
- 7: Select the next batch I_b , where $m = |I_b|$
- 8: Compute the gradient $g^{(s)} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \in I_b} \nabla J_i(\theta^{(s)})$
- 9: Update parameters $\theta^{(s)} = \theta^{(s-1)} \eta g^{(s)}$
- 10: Increment time step s = s + 1

11: Evaluate average training loss $J(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} J_i(\theta)$ 12: **return** $\theta^{(s)}$ Recalle

RNN

5:

6:

7:

8:

9:

Algorithm 1 Elman RNN

- 1: procedure FORWARD($x_{1:T}, W_{ah}, W_{ax}, b_a, W_{yh}, b_y$)
- 2: Initialize the hidden state h_0 to zeros
- 3: **for** *t* in 1 to *T* **do**
- 4: Receive input data at time step $t: x_t$
 - Compute the hidden state update:

$$a_t = W_{ah} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{ax} \cdot x_t + b_a$$
$$h_t = \sigma(a_t)$$

$$y_t = W_{yh} \cdot h_t + b_y$$



RNN

5:

6:

7:

8:

9:

Algorithm 1 Elman RNN

- 1: procedure FORWARD($x_{1:T}, W_{ah}, W_{ax}, b_a, W_{yh}, b_y$)
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 - Compute the hidden state update:

$$a_t = W_{ah} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{ax} \cdot x_t + b_a$$
$$h_t = \sigma(a_t)$$

Compute the output at time step *t*:

$$y_t = \operatorname{softmax}(W_{yh} \cdot h_t + b_y)$$





RNN + Loss

Algorithm 1 Elman RNN + Loss

1: procedure FORWARD($x_{1:T}, y_{1:T}^* W_{ah}, W_{ax}, b_a, W_{yh}, b_y$) Initialize the hidden state h_0 to zeros 2: for t in 1 to T do 3: Receive input data at time step t: x_t 4: Compute the hidden state update: 5: $a_t = W_{ah} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{ax} \cdot x_t + b_a$ 6: $h_t = \sigma(a_t)$ 7: Compute the output at time step *t*: 8: $y_t = \text{softmax}(W_{yh} \cdot h_t + b_y)$ 9: Compute the cross-entropy loss at time step *t*: 10: $\ell_t = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} (y_t^*)_k \log((y_t)_k)$ 11: Compute the total loss: 12: $\ell = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ell_t$ 13:

LEARNING AN RNN-LM

Learning a Language Model

<u>Question</u>: How do we **learn** the probabilities for the n-Gram Model?

<u>Answer</u>: From data! Just **count** n-gram frequencies

... the cows eat grass...

- ... our cows eat hay daily...
- ... factory-farm **cows eat corn**...
- ... on an organic farm, **cows eat hay** and...
- ... do your **cows eat grass** or corn?...
- ... what do **cows eat if** they have...
- ... cows eat corn when there is no... ... which cows eat which foods depends... ... if cows eat grass...
- ... when **cows eat corn** their stomachs... ... should we let **cows eat corn**?...

p(w _t w w	_{t-2} = cows, _{t-1} = eat)
w _t	p(• •, •)
corn	4/11
grass	3/11
hay	2/11
if	1/11
which	1/11

MLE for n-gram LM

- This counting method gives us the maximum likelihood estimate of the n-gram LM parameters
- We can derive it in the usual way:
 - Write the likelihood of the sentences under the n-gram LM
 - Set the gradient to zero and impose the constraint that the probabilities sumto-one
 - Solve for the MLE

Learning a Language Model

MLE for Deep Neural LM

- We can also use maximum likelihood estimation to learn the parameters of an RNN-LM or Transformer-LM too!
- But not in closed form instead we follow a different recipe:
 - Write the **likelihood** of the sentences under the Deep Neural LM model
 - Compute the gradient of the (batch) likelihood w.r.t.
 the parameters by AutoDiff
 - Follow the negative gradient using Mini-batch SGD (or your favorite optimizer)

MLE for n-gram LM

- This counting method gives us the maximum likelihood estimate of the n-gram LM parameters
- We can derive it in the usual way:
 - Write the likelihood of the sentences under the n-gram LM
 - Set the gradient to zero and impose the constraint that the probabilities sumto-one
 - Solve for the MLE

RNN + Loss

5:

How can we use this to compute the loss for an RNN-LM?

Algorithm 1 Elman RNN + Loss



1:	procedure FORW/	ARD $(x_{1:T},$	$y_{1:T}^* W_{ah},$	$W_{ax},$	b_a ,	W_{yh} ,	b_y)
			-					

- Initialize the hidden state h_0 to zeros 2:
- for t in 1 to T do 3:
 - Receive input data at time step t: x_t
 - Compute the hidden state update:

$$a_t = W_{ah} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{ax} \cdot x_t + b_a$$
$$h_t = \sigma(a_t)$$

Compute the output at time step *t*:

$$y_t = \operatorname{softmax}(W_{yh} \cdot h_t + b_y)$$

Compute the cross-entropy loss at time step t:

$$\ell_t = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} (y_t^*)_k \log((y_t)_k)$$

Compute the total loss: 12:

$$\ell = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ell_t$$

RNN-LM + Loss

3:

4:

5:

6:

7:

8:

9:

10:

11:

13:

How can we use this to compute the loss for an RNN-LM?

 $log p(\mathbf{w}) = log p(w_1, w_2, w_3, ..., w_T)$ $= log p(w_1 | h_1) + ... + log p(w_p | h_T)$



Algorithm 1 Elman RNN + Loss

- 1: procedure FORWARD($x_{1:T}, y_{1:T}^* W_{ah}, W_{ax}, b_a, W_{yh}, b_y$)
- 2: Initialize the hidden state h_0 to zeros
 - for t in 1 to T do
 - Receive input data at time step t: x_t
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$$\ell = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ell_t$$

RNN-LM + Loss

How can we use this to compute the loss for an RNN-LM?

 $log p(\mathbf{w}) = log p(w_1, w_2, w_3, ..., w_T)$ $= log p(w_1 | h_1) + ... + log p(w_2 | h_T)$



Algorithm 1 Elman RNN + Loss

- 1: procedure FORWARD($x_{1:T}, y_{1:T}^* W_{ah}, W_{ax}, b_a, W_{yh}, b_y$)
- 2: Initialize the hidden state h_0 to zeros
 - for t in 1 to T do
 - Receive input data at time step t: x_t
 - Compute the hidden state update:

$$a_t = W_{ah} \cdot h_{t-1} + W_{ax} \cdot x_t + b_a$$
$$h_t = \sigma(a_t)$$

Compute the output at time step *t*:

$$y_t = \operatorname{softmax}(W_{yh} \cdot h_t + b_y)$$

Compute the cross-entropy loss at time step t:

$$\ell_t = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} (y_t^*)_k \log((y_t)_k)$$

Compute the total loss:

$$\ell = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ell_t$$

Learning an RNN-LM

- Each training example is a sequence (e.g. sentence), so we have training data D = {w⁽¹⁾, w⁽²⁾, ..., w^(N)}
- The objective function for a Deep LM (e.g. RNN-LM or Tranformer-LM) is typically the loglikelihood of the training examples:

 $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \Sigma_i \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{w}^{(i)})$

 We train by mini-batch SGD (or your favorite flavor of mini-batch SGD)



LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

How large are LLMs?

Comparison of some recent large language models (LLMs)

Model	Creators	Year of release	Training Data (# tokens)	Model Size (# parameters)
GPT-2	OpenAl	2019	~10 billion (40Gb)	1.5 billion
GPT-3 (cf. ChatGPT)	OpenAl	2020	300 billion	175 billion
PaLM	Google	2022	780 billion	540 billion
Chinchilla	DeepMind	2022	1.4 trillion	70 billion
LaMDA (cf. Bard)	Google	2022	1.56 trillion	137 billion
LLaMA	Meta	2023	1.4 trillion	65 billion
GPT-4	OpenAl	2023	?	?

What is ChatGPT?

- ChatGPT is a large (in the sense of having many parameters) language model, fine-tuned to be a dialogue agent
- The base language model is GPT-3.5 which was trained on a large quantity of text

Transformer Language Models

MODEL: GPT

Attention



Attention



Attention


Attention



Attention



Attention





 W_{v}

87





 W_k

 W_{v}



 W_q

 W_k

 W_{v}









Animation of 3D Convolution

http://cs231n.github.io/convolutional-networks/



Figure from Fei-Fei Li & Andrej Karpathy & Justin Johnson (CS231N)

Recall...

Multi-headed Attention



- Just as we can have multiple channels in a convolution layer, we can use multiple heads in an attention layer
- Each head gets its own parameters
- We can concatenate all the outputs to get a single vector for each time step

- To ensure the dimension of the • **input** embedding \mathbf{x}_t is the same as the **output** embedding **x**_t', Transformers usually choose the embedding sizes and number of heads appropriately:
 - d_{model} = dim. of inputs
 - $d_k = \dim$. of each output
 - h = # of heads•
 - Choose $d_k = d_{model} / h$ ٠
- Then concatenate the outputs



X₁' **x**₂' x,' X₄ W multi-headed attention W_k W_{v} **X**₁ **X**₃ \mathbf{X}_4

- Just as we can have multiple channels in a convolution layer, we can use **multiple heads** in an **attention** layer
- Each head gets its own parameters
- We can **concatenate** all the outputs to get a single vector for each time step

- To ensure the dimension of the input embedding x_t is the same as the output embedding x_t', Transformers usually choose the embedding sizes and number of heads appropriately:
 - $d_{model} = dim. of inputs$
 - d_k = dim. of each output
 - h = # of heads
 - Choose $d_k = d_{model} / h$
- Then concatenate the outputs





- Just as we can have multiple channels in a convolution layer, we can use multiple heads in an attention layer
- Each head gets **its own parameters**
- We can concatenate all the outputs to get a single vector for each time step

RNN Language Model



Key Idea:

(1) convert all previous words to a **fixed length vector** (2) define distribution $p(w_t | f_{\theta}(w_{t-1}, ..., w_1))$ that conditions on the vector $\mathbf{h}_t = f_{\theta}(w_{t-1}, ..., w_1)$ Recaller

Transformer Language Model

Important!

- RNN computation graph grows
 linearly with the number of input tokens
- Transformer-LM computation graph grows quadratically with the number of input tokens



Each hidden vector looks back at the hidden vectors of the **current and previous timesteps in the previous layer.**

The language model part is just like an RNN-LM!

Transformer Language Model

Important!

- RNN computation graph grows
 linearly with the number of input tokens
- Transformer-LM computation graph grows quadratically with the number of input tokens



Each layer of a Transformer LM consists of several **sublayers**:

- 1. attention
 - 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections

Each hidden vector looks back at the hidden vectors of the **current and previous timesteps in the previous layer.**

The language model part is just like an RNN-LM!

Layer Normalization

- The Problem: internal covariate shift occurs during training of a deep network when a small change in the low layers amplifies into a large change in the high layers
- One Solution: Layer normalization normalizes each layer and learns elementwise gain/bias
- Such normalization allows for higher learning rates (for faster convergence) without issues of diverging gradients

Given input $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$, LayerNorm computes output $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$:

$$\mathbf{p} = \boldsymbol{\gamma} \odot \frac{\mathbf{a} - \mu}{\sigma} \oplus \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

where we have mean $\mu = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} a_k$, standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} (a_k - \mu)^2}$, and parameters $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^K$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^K$.

 \odot and \oplus denote elementwise multiplication and addition.



Residual Connections

Residual Connection

- The Problem: as network depth grows very large, a performance degradation occurs that is not explained by overfitting (i.e. train / test error both worsen)
- One Solution: Residual connections pass a copy of the input alongside another function so that information can flow more directly
- These residual connections allow for effective training of very deep networks that perform better than their shallower (though still deep) counterparts

Figure from https://arxiv.org/pdf/1512.03385.pdf





mm

34-laye

50

40

50

ResNet-18

ResNet-34

10

20

30

iter. (1e4)

%

TOL

Residual Connections

- The Problem: as network depth grows very large, a performance degradation occurs that is not explained by overfitting (i.e. train / test error both worsen)
- One Solution: Residual connections pass a copy of the input alongside another function so that information can flow more directly
- These residual connections allow for effective training of very deep networks that perform better than their shallower (though still deep) counterparts



Why are residual connections helpful?

Instead of f(a) having to learn a full transformation of a, f(a) only needs to learn an additive modification of a (i.e. the residual).



- 1. attention
- 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections



- 1. attention
- 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections



- 1. attention
- 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections

Transformer Layer

- 1. attention
- 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections



Transformer Language Model



Each layer of a Transformer LM consists of several **sublayers**:

- 1. attention
- 2. feed-forward neural network
- 3. layer normalization
- 4. residual connections

Each hidden vector looks back at the hidden vectors of the **current and previous timesteps in the previous layer.**

The language model part is just like an RNN-LM.

In-Class Poll

Question:

Suppose we have the following input embeddings and attention weights:

- $x_1 = [1,0,0,0] a_{4,1} = 0.1$
- $x_2 = [0,1,0,0] a_{4,2} = 0.2$
- $x_3 = [0,0,2,0] a_{4,3} = 0.6$
- $x_4 = [0,0,0,1] a_{4,4} = 0.1$

And $W_v = I$. Then we can compute x_a' .

Now suppose we swap the embeddings x_2 and x_3 such that

- $X_2 = [0,0,2,0]$
- $X_3 = [0,1,0,0]$

What is the new value of x_4 ?



 $\mathbf{a}_4 = \mathsf{softmax}(\mathbf{s}_4)$ attention weights

 $s_{4,j} = \mathbf{k}_j^T \mathbf{q}_4 / \sqrt{d_k}$ scores $\mathbf{q}_j = \mathbf{W}_q^T \mathbf{x}_j$ queries

 $\mathbf{k}_j = \mathbf{W}_k^T \mathbf{x}_j$ keys

 $\mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{W}_v^T \mathbf{x}_i$ values

Answer:

Position Embeddings

- The Problem: Because attention is position invariant, we **need** a way to learn about positions
- The Solution: Use (or learn) a collection of position specific embeddings: p_t represents what it means to be in position t. And add this to the word embedding w_t.

The **key idea** is that every word that appears in position t uses the same position embedding \mathbf{p}_{t}

- There are a number of varieties of position embeddings:
 - Some are fixed (based on sine and cosine), whereas others are learned (like word embeddings)
 - Some are absolute (as described above) but we can also use relative position embeddings (i.e. relative to the position of the query vector)



110

GPT-3

- GPT stands for Generative Pre-trained Transformer
- GPT is just a Transformer LM, but with a huge number of parameters

Model	# layers	dimension of states	dimension of inner states	<pre># attention heads</pre>	# params
GPT (2018)	12	768	3072	12	117M
GPT-2 (2019)	48	1600			1542M
GPT-3 (2020)	96	12288	4*12288	96	175000M

Matrix Version of Scaled Dot-Product Attention

queries

keys

values



Wa

 W_{v}

- For speed, we compute all the queries at once using matrix operations
- First we pack the queries, keys, values into matrices:

$$- Q = [q_1, \dots, q_N]^T$$
$$- K = [k_1, \dots, k_N]^T$$
$$- V = [v_1, \dots, v_N]^T$$

• Then we compute all the queries at once:

$$\mathsf{Attn}(\mathbf{x}_{1:N}) = \mathsf{softmax}$$

$$\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}V\right)$$

Matrix Version of Scaled Dot-Product Attention



- For speed, we compute all the queries at once using matrix operations
- First we pack the queries, keys, values into matrices:

$$- Q = [q_1, \dots, q_N]^T$$
$$- K = [k_1, \dots, k_N]^T$$
$$- V = [v_1, \dots, v_N]^T$$

• Then we compute all the queries at once:

$$Attn(\mathbf{x}_{1:N}) = softmax$$

$$\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}V\right)$$

In practice, the attention weights are computed for all time steps T, then we mask out (by setting to –inf) all the inputs to the softmax that are for the timesteps to the right of the query.

LEARNING A TRANSFORMER LM

Learning a Transformer LM

- Each training example is a sequence (e.g. sentence), so we have training data D = {w⁽¹⁾, w⁽²⁾,...,w^(N)}
- The objective function for a Deep LM (e.g. RNN-LM or Tranformer-LM) is typically the loglikelihood of the training examples:

 $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \Sigma_i \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{w}^{(i)})$

• We train by mini-batch SGD (or your favorite flavor of mini-batch SGD)

Training a Transformer-LM is the same, except we swap in a different deep language model.



Language Modeling

An aside:

- State-of-the-art language models currently tend to rely on **transformer networks** (e.g. GPT-3)
- RNN-LMs comprised most of the early neural LMs that **led to** current SOTA architectures



Figure from https://paperswithcode.com/sota/language-modelling-on-penn-treebank-word

Why does efficiency matter?

Case Study: GPT-3

- # of training tokens = 500 billion
- # of parameters = 175 billion
- # of cycles = 50 petaflop/s-days (each of which are 8.64e+19 flops)

Dataset	Quantity (tokens)	Weight in training mix	Epochs elapsed when training for 300B tokens		
Common Crawl (filtered)	410 billion	60%	0.44		
WebText2	19 billion	22%	2.9		
Books1	12 billion	8%	1.9		
Books2	55 billion	8%	0.43		
Wikipedia	3 billion	3%	3.4		

Table 2.2: Datasets used to train GPT-3. "Weight in training mix" refers to the fraction of examples during training that are drawn from a given dataset, which we intentionally do not make proportional to the size of the dataset. As a result, when we train for 300 billion tokens, some datasets are seen up to 3.4 times during training while other datasets are seen less than once.

Model Name	n_{params}	$n_{\rm layers}$	d_{model}	$n_{ m heads}$	$d_{\rm head}$	Batch Size	Learning Rate
GPT-3 Small	125M	12	768	12	64	0.5M	6.0×10^{-4}
GPT-3 Medium	350M	24	1024	16	64	0.5M	$3.0 imes 10^{-4}$
GPT-3 Large	760M	24	1536	16	96	0.5M	2.5×10^{-4}
GPT-3 XL	1.3B	24	2048	24	128	1M	$2.0 imes 10^{-4}$
GPT-3 2.7B	2.7B	32	2560	32	80	1M	1.6×10^{-4}
GPT-3 6.7B	6.7B	32	4096	32	128	2M	1.2×10^{-4}
GPT-3 13B	13.0B	40	5140	40	128	2M	1.0×10^{-4}
GPT-3 175B or "GPT-3"	175.0B	96	12288	96	128	3.2M	0.6×10^{-4}

 Table 2.1: Sizes, architectures, and learning hyper-parameters (batch size in tokens and learning rate) of the models which we trained. All models were trained for a total of 300 billion tokens.



Figure 2.2: Total compute used during training. Based on the analysis in Scaling Laws For Neural Language Models [KMH⁺20] we train much larger models on many fewer tokens than is typical. As a consequence, although GPT-3 3B is almost 10x larger than RoBERTa-Large (355M params), both models took roughly 50 petaflop/s-days of compute during pre-training. Methodology for these calculations can be found in Appendix D.

Recap

Deep Learning

- AutoDiff
 - is a tool for computing gradients of a differentiable function, b = f(a)
 - the key building block is a module with a forward() and backward()
 - sometimes define f as code in forward() by chaining existing modules together
- Computation Graphs
 - are another way to define f (more conducive to slides)
 - we are considering various (deep) computation graphs: (1) CNN (2) RNN (3) RNN-LM
 (4) Transformer-LM
- Learning a Deep Network
 - deep networks (e.g. CNN/RNN) are trained by optimizing an objective function with SGD
 - compute gradients with AutoDiff

Language Modeling

- key idea: condition on previous words to sample the next word
- to define the **probability** of the next word...
 - ... n-gram LM uses collection of massive 50ksided dice
 - ... RNN-LM or Transformer-LM use a neural network
- Learning an LM
 - n-gram LMs are easy to learn: just count cooccurrences!
 - a RNN-LM / Transformer-LM is trained just like other deep neural networks