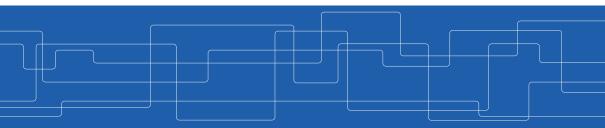


Recurrent Neural Networks

Amir H. Payberah payberah@kth.se 07/12/2018



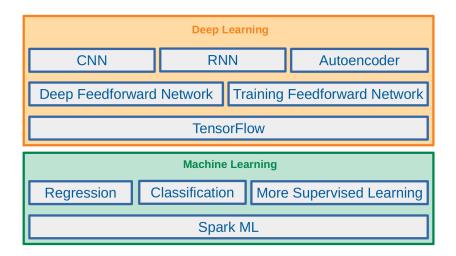


The Course Web Page

https://id2223kth.github.io

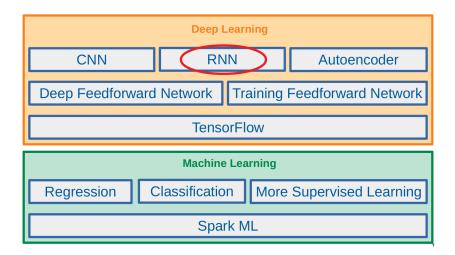


Where Are We?





Where Are We?





Let's Start With An Example





the students opened their	Ŷ
their work their books their teachers their homework their lecturer their new lecturer	Feeling Lucky venska



Language Modeling (1/2)

► Language modeling is the task of predicting what word comes next.





Language Modeling (2/2)

► More formally: given a sequence of words x⁽¹⁾, x⁽²⁾, ..., x^(t), compute the probability distribution of the next word x^(t+1):

$$p(\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{w}_{j} | \mathbf{x}^{(t)}, \cdots \mathbf{x}^{(1)})$$





Language Modeling (2/2)

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$$p(\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{w}_{j} | \mathbf{x}^{(t)}, \cdots \mathbf{x}^{(1)})$$

• w_j is a word in vocabulary $V = \{w_1, \cdots, w_v\}$.





▶ the students opened their ____



- ▶ the students opened their ____
- ► How to learn a Language Model?



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- ► How to learn a Language Model?
- Learn a n-gram Language Model!



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 - 4-grams: "the students opened their"



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- A n-gram is a chunk of n consecutive words.
 - Unigrams: "the", "students", "opened", "their"
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 - Trigrams: "the students opened", "students opened their"
 - 4-grams: "the students opened their"
- Collect statistics about how frequent different n-grams are, and use these to predict next word.



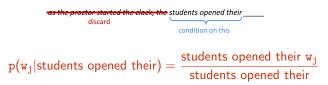
n-gram Language Models - Example

- Suppose we are learning a 4-gram Language Model.
 - $x^{(t+1)}$ depends only on the preceding 3 words $\{x^{(t)},x^{(t-1)},x^{(t-2)}\}.$

as the proctor started the clock, the students opened their	
discard	
	condition on this

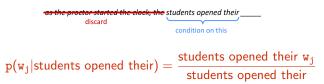


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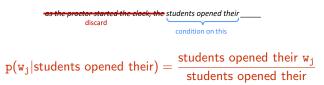


► In the corpus:

• "students opened their" occurred 1000 times



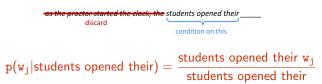
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 - "students opened their" occurred 1000 times
 - "students opened their books occurred 400 times: p(books|students opened their) = 0.4



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- In the corpus:
 - "students opened their" occurred 1000 times
 - "students opened their books occurred 400 times: p(books|students opened their) = 0.4
 - "students opened their exams occurred 100 times: $p(\mathsf{exams}|\mathsf{students}|\mathsf{opened}|\mathsf{their})=0.1$



Problems with n-gram Language Models - Sparsity

 $p(w_j | students opened their) = \frac{students opened their w_j}{students opened their}$



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Problems with n-gram Language Models - Sparsity

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- ► What if "students opened their" never occurred in data? Then we can't calculate probability for any w_j!
- Increasing n makes sparsity problems worse.
 - Typically we can't have **n** bigger than 5.



$$p(w_j | students opened their) = \frac{students opened their w_j}{students opened their}$$



Problems with n-gram Language Models - Storage

$p(w_j | \text{students opened their}) = \frac{\text{students opened their } w_j}{\text{students opened their}}$

- ► For "students opened their w_j", we need to store count for all possible 4-grams.
- ► The model size is in the order of O(exp(n)).
- ▶ Increasing n makes model size huge.



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (1/3)

- Recall the Language Modeling task:
 - Input: sequence of words $\mathtt{x}^{(1)}, \mathtt{x}^{(2)}, \cdots, \mathtt{x}^{(\mathtt{t})}$
 - Output: probability dist of the next word $p(x^{(t+1)} = w_j | x^{(t)}, \cdots, x^{(1)})$



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (1/3)

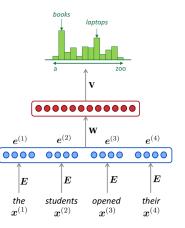
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- One-Hot encoding
 - Represent a categorical variable as a binary vector.
 - All recodes are zero, except the index of the integer, which is one.
 - Each embedded word $\mathbf{e}^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}^{\intercal} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ is a one-hot vector of size vocabulary size.

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} \text{ students} \xrightarrow{\text{opened}} [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \text{ opened} = [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(3)} \text{ their} = [0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \mathbf{x}^{(4)} \text{ book} = [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, ..., 0] \\ \underbrace{\mathbf{e}^{(t)}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)}$$



Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (2/3)

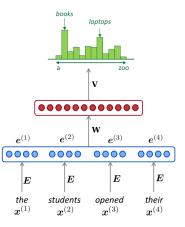
- A MLP model
 - Input: words $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, x^{(4)}$
 - Input layer: one-hot vectors $\mathbf{e}^{(1)}, \mathbf{e}^{(2)}, \mathbf{e}^{(3)}, \mathbf{e}^{(4)}$
 - Hidden layer: $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{e})$, \mathbf{f} is an activation function.
 - Output: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \texttt{softmax}(\mathbf{v}^{\intercal}\mathbf{h})$





Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (3/3)

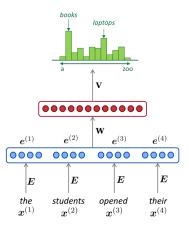
- Improvements over n-gram LM:
 - No sparsity problem
 - Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n))





Can We Build a Neural Language Model? (3/3)

- Improvements over n-gram LM:
 - No sparsity problem
 - Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n))
- Remaining problems:
 - It is fixed 4 in our example, which is small
 - We need a neural architecture that can process any length input





Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)





Recurrent Neural Networks (1/4)

► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.



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 - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).



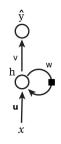
- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.
 - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).
- ► They can analyze time series data and predict the future.



- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.
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 - It is a bad idea for many tasks, e.g., predicting the next word in a sentence (it's better to know which words came before it).
- They can analyze time series data and predict the future.
- ► They can work on sequences of arbitrary lengths, rather than on fixed-sized inputs.

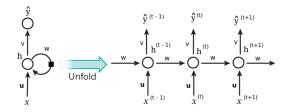


- ▶ Neurons in an RNN have connections pointing backward.
- RNNs have memory, which captures information about what has been calculated so far.



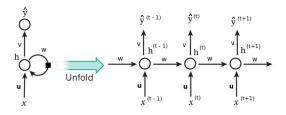


- ▶ Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
 - We write out the network for the complete sequence.



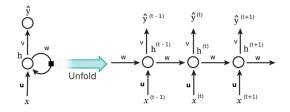


- ► Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
 - We write out the network for the complete sequence.
- ► For example, if the sequence we care about is a sentence of three words, the network would be unfolded into a 3-layer neural network.
 - One layer for each word.



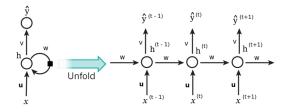


▶ $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.



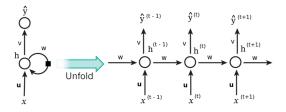


- ▶ $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.
- $\hat{y}^{(t)} = g(vh^{(t)})$, where g can be the softmax function.





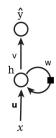
- ▶ $h^{(t)} = f(u^T x^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$, where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.
- $\hat{y}^{(t)} = g(vh^{(t)})$, where g can be the softmax function.
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ cost}(\mathtt{y^{(t)}}, \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}) = \texttt{cross_entropy}(\mathtt{y^{(t)}}, \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}) = -\sum \mathtt{y^{(t)}} \texttt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}$
- ▶ $y^{(t)}$ is the correct word at time step t, and $\hat{y}^{(t)}$ is the prediction.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (1/4)

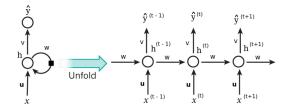
► Each recurrent neuron has three sets of weights: **u**, **w**, and **v**.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

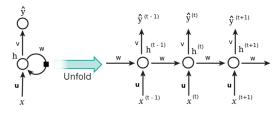
• u: the weights for the inputs $x^{(t)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

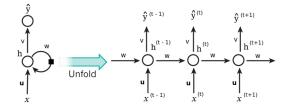
- u: the weights for the inputs $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$.
- ▶ x^(t): is the input at time step t.
- ► For example, x⁽¹⁾ could be a one-hot vector corresponding to the first word of a sentence.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

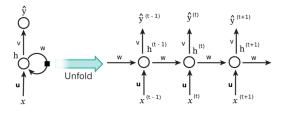
• w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step $h^{(t-1)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

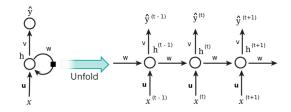
- w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step $h^{(t-1)}$.
- h^(t): is the hidden state (memory) at time step t.
 - $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
 - h⁽⁰⁾ is the initial hidden state.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

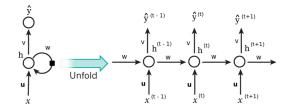
• v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step $h^{(t)}$.





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

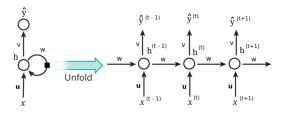
- v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step $h^{(t)}$.
- ▶ ŷ^(t) is the output at step t.
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \operatorname{softmax}(\operatorname{vh}^{(t)})$





Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

- ▶ v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step $h^{(t)}$.
- ▶ ŷ^(t) is the output at step t.
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \operatorname{softmax}(\operatorname{vh}^{(t)})$
- ► For example, if we wanted to predict the next word in a sentence, it would be a vector of probabilities across our vocabulary.

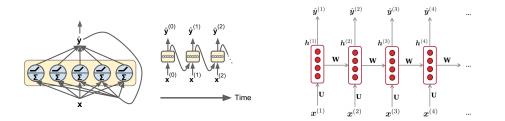




Layers of Recurrent Neurons

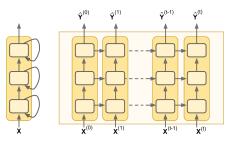
At each time step t, every neuron of a layer receives both the input vector x^(t) and the output vector from the previous time step h^(t-1).

$$egin{aligned} m{h}^{(ext{t})} &= ext{tanh}(m{u}^{ ext{T}}m{x}^{(ext{t})} + m{w}^{ ext{T}}m{h}^{(ext{t}-1)}) \ m{y}^{(ext{t})} &= ext{sigmoid}(m{v}^{ ext{T}}m{h}^{(ext{t})}) \end{aligned}$$





Stacking multiple layers of cells gives you a deep RNN.





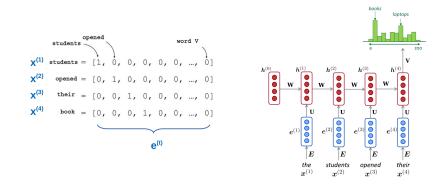
Let's Back to Language Model Example





A RNN Neural Language Model (1/2)

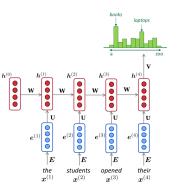
- ► The input **x** will be a sequence of words (each **x**^(t) is a single word).
- Each embedded word $\mathbf{e}^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ is a one-hot vector of size vocabulary size.





A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

- Let's recap the equations for the RNN:
 - $h^{(t)} = tanh(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{e}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$ $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = softmax(vh^{(t)})$

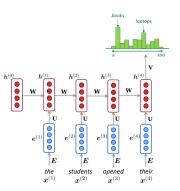




A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

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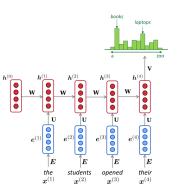
- $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \texttt{softmax}(\texttt{vh}^{(t)})$
- The output $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)}$ is a vector of vocabulary size elements.





A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

- Let's recap the equations for the RNN:
 - $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
 - $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \texttt{softmax}(\texttt{vh}^{(t)})$
- The output $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)}$ is a vector of vocabulary size elements.
- Each element of ŷ^(t) represents the probability of that word being the next word in the sentence.







HERE'S A POTATO



RNN in TensorFlow



RNN in TensorFlow (1/3)

Manul implementation of an RNN

```
# make the dataset
n_inputs = 3
n_neurons = 5
X0_batch = np.array([[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5], [6, 7, 8], [9, 0, 1]]) # t = 0
X1_batch = np.array([[9, 8, 7], [0, 0, 0], [6, 5, 4], [3, 2, 1]]) # t = 1
X0 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
X1 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
```



RNN in TensorFlow (1/3)

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X0 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
X1 = tf.placeholder(tf.float32, [None, n_inputs])
```

```
# build the network
Wx = tf.Variable(tf.random_normal(shape=[n_inputs, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
Wh = tf.Variable(tf.random_normal(shape=[n_neurons, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
b = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([1, n_neurons], dtype=tf.float32))
```

```
h0 = tf.tanh(tf.matmul(X0, Wx) + b)
h1 = tf.tanh(tf.matmul(h0, Wh) + tf.matmul(X1, Wx) + b)
```



RNN in TensorFlow (2/3)

Use dynamic_rnn



RNN in TensorFlow (2/3)

Use dynamic_rnn

build the network basic_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.BasicRNNCell(num_units=n_neurons) outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(basic_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)



RNN in TensorFlow (3/3)

Multi-layer RNN

```
layers = [tf.contrib.rnn.BasicRNNCell(num_units=n_neurons, activation=tf.nn.relu)
for layer in range(n_layers)]
```

```
multi_layer_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.MultiRNNCell(layers)
```

```
outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(multi_layer_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)
```

```
states_concat = tf.concat(axis=1, values=states)
```

```
logits = tf.layers.dense(states_concat, n_outputs)
```



Training RNNs



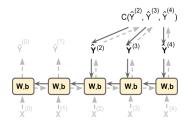
Training RNNs

- ▶ To train an RNN, we should unroll it through time and then simply use regular backpropagation.
- This strategy is called backpropagation through time (BPTT).



Backpropagation Through Time (1/3)

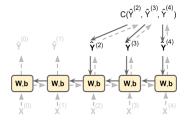
- ► To train the model using BPTT, we go through the following steps:
- ▶ 1. Forward pass through the unrolled network (represented by the dashed arrows).
- ► 2. The cost function is C(ŷ^{tmin}, ŷ^{tmin+1}, ··· , ŷ^{tmax}), where tmin and tmax are the first and last output time steps, not counting the ignored outputs.





Backpropagation Through Time (2/3)

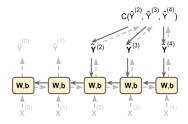
- 3. Propagate backward the gradients of that cost function through the unrolled network (represented by the solid arrows).
- ► 4. The model parameters are updated using the gradients computed during BPTT.



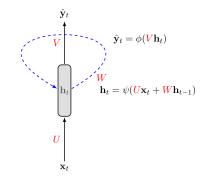


Backpropagation Through Time (3/3)

- The gradients flow backward through all the outputs used by the cost function, not just through the final output.
- ► For example, in the following figure:
 - The cost function is computed using the last three outputs, $\hat{y}^{(2)},\,\hat{y}^{(3)},$ and $\hat{y}^{(4)}.$
 - Gradients flow through these three outputs, but not through $\hat{y}^{(0)}$ and $\hat{y}^{(1)}.$







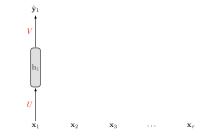


 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{x}_3 \cdots \mathbf{x}_{τ}

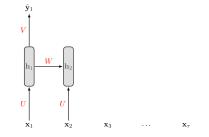




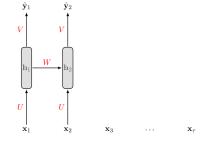




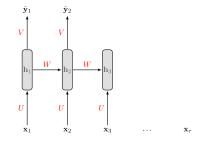




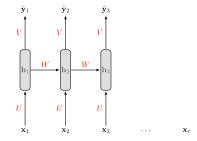




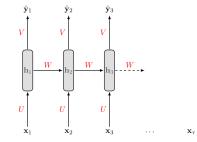




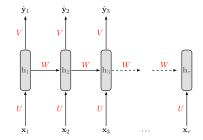




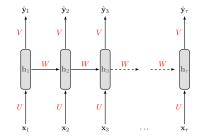




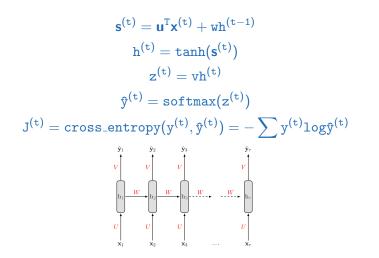




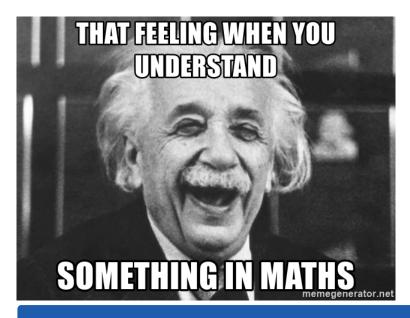








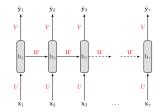






$$\mathtt{J}^{(\mathtt{t})} = \mathtt{cross_entropy}(\mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}) = -\sum \mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})} \mathtt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}$$

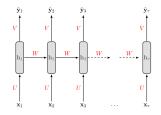
• We treat the full sequence as one training example.





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- We treat the full sequence as one training example.
- ► The total error E is just the sum of the errors at each time step.
- E.g., $E = J^{(1)} + J^{(2)} + \dots + J^{(t)}$





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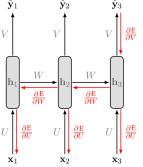
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- Let's start with $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y}$.
- A change in v will only impact $J^{(3)}$ at time t = 3, because it plays no role in computing the value of anything other than $z^{(3)}$. \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_2 \hat{y}_3

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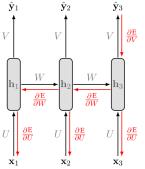




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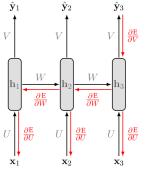




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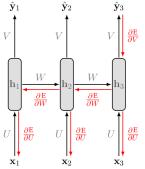




• Let's start with $\frac{\partial E}{\partial y}$.

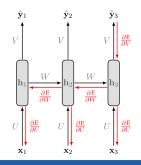
A change in v will only impact $J^{(3)}$ at time t = 3, because it plays no role in computing the value of anything other than $z^{(3)}$. \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_2 \hat{y}_3

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(t)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$
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$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{g}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$





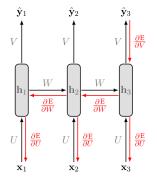
- Let's compute the derivatives of $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w}$ and $\frac{\partial J}{\partial u}$, which are computed the same.
- A change in w at t = 3 will impact our cost J in 3 separate ways:
 - 1. When computing the value of $h^{(1)}$.
 - 2. When computing the value of $h^{(2)}$, which depends on $h^{(1)}$.
 - 3. When computing the value of $h^{(3)}$, which depends on $h^{(2)}$, which depends on $h^{(1)}$.





we compute our individual gradients as:

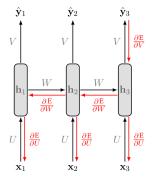
$$\begin{split} \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathbf{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\hat{y}}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \end{split}$$





• we compute our individual gradients as:

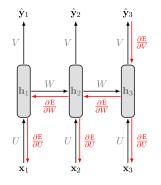
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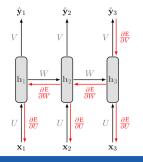
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• More generally, a change in w will impact our cost $J^{(t)}$ on t separate occasions.

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \sum_{k=1}^{t} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}^{(\mathrm{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{t})}} \left(\prod_{\mathbf{j}=\mathbf{k}+1}^{\mathsf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{j})}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{j})}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{j})}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{j}-1)}} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(\mathrm{k})}}{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{k})}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{s}^{(\mathrm{k})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

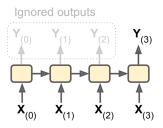




RNN Design Patterns



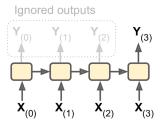
Sequence-to-vector network: takes a sequence of inputs, and ignore all outputs except for the last one.





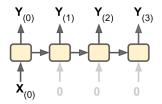
RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Vector

- Sequence-to-vector network: takes a sequence of inputs, and ignore all outputs except for the last one.
- ► E.g., you could feed the network a sequence of words corresponding to a movie review, and the network would output a sentiment score.





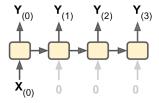
Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.





RNN Design Patterns - Vector-to-Sequence

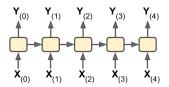
- Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.
- E.g., the input could be an image, and the output could be a caption for that image.





RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

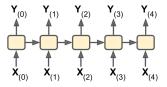
Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.





RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

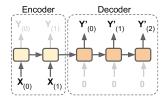
- Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.
- ► Useful for predicting time series such as stock prices: you feed it the prices over the last N days, and it must output the prices shifted by one day into the future.
- ▶ Here, both input sequences and output sequences have the same length.





RNN Design Patterns - Encoder-Decoder

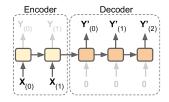
Encoder-decoder network: a sequence-to-vector network (encoder), followed by a vector-to-sequence network (decoder).





RNN Design Patterns - Encoder-Decoder

- Encoder-decoder network: a sequence-to-vector network (encoder), followed by a vector-to-sequence network (decoder).
- E.g., translating a sentence from one language to another.
- You would feed the network a sentence in one language, the encoder would convert this sentence into a single vector representation, and then the decoder would decode this vector into a sentence in another language.





LSTM



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• E.g., predicting the next word based on the previous ones.



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- ► To solve these problem, long short-term memory (LSTM) have been introduced.
- ► In LSTM, the network can learn what to store and what to throw away.



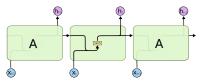
RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

▶ Without looking inside the box, the LSTM cell looks exactly like a basic cell.



RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

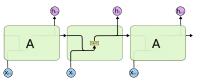
- ▶ Without looking inside the box, the LSTM cell looks exactly like a basic cell.
- ► The repeating module in a standard RNN contains a single layer.



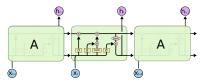


RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

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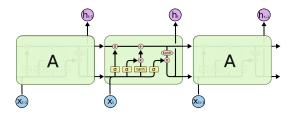


► The repeating module in an LSTM contains four interacting layers.



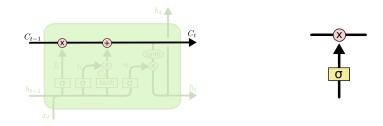


- ► In LSTM state is split in two vectors:
 - 1. $h^{(t)}$ (h stands for hidden): the short-term state
 - 2. $c^{(t)}$ (c stands for cell): the long-term state



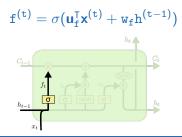


- ► The cell state (long-term state), the horizontal line on the top of the diagram.
- ▶ The LSTM can remove/add information to the cell state, regulated by three gates.
 - Forget gate, input gate and output gate



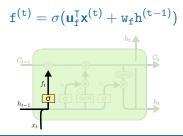


► Step one: decides what information we are going to throw away from the cell state.



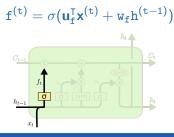


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- ► This decision is made by a sigmoid layer, called the forget gate layer.
- It looks at h^(t-1) and x^(t), and outputs a number between 0 and 1 for each number in the cell state c^(t-1).
 - 1 represents completely keep this, and 0 represents completely get rid of this.





Second step: decides what new information we are going to store in the cell state. This has two parts:

$$\mathbf{i}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{i}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

$$\tilde{c}^{(t)} = \tanh(\mathbf{u}_{\tilde{c}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{\tilde{c}}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

$$c_{t}$$

$$h_{t}$$

$$c_{t}$$

$$h_{t-1}$$

$$c_{t}$$

$$h_{t}$$



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- ▶ 1. A sigmoid layer, called the input gate layer, decides which values we will update.
- 2. A tanh layer creates a vector of new candidate values that could be added to the state.

$$i^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{i}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

$$\tilde{c}^{(t)} = \tanh(\mathbf{u}_{\tilde{c}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{\tilde{c}}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$

$$c_{t-1}$$

$$h_{t}$$

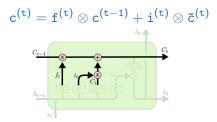
$$h_{t-1}$$

$$c_{t-1}$$

$$h_{t}$$

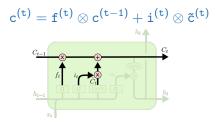


• Third step: updates the old cell state $c^{(t-1)}$, into the new cell state $c^{(t)}$.



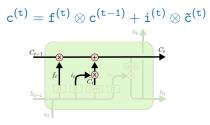


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- ▶ We multiply the old state by f^(t), forgetting the things we decided to forget earlier.
- Then we add it $i^{(t)} \otimes \tilde{c}^{(t)}$.
- This is the new candidate values, scaled by how much we decided to update each state value.

$$c^{(t)} = f^{(t)} \otimes c^{(t-1)} + i^{(t)} \otimes \tilde{c}^{(t)}$$

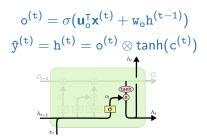


• Fourth step: decides about the output.

$$\mathbf{o}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{o}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{o}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \mathbf{o}^{(t)} \otimes \tanh(\mathbf{c}^{(t)})$$



- Fourth step: decides about the output.
- First, runs a sigmoid layer that decides what parts of the cell state we are going to output.





- Fourth step: decides about the output.
- First, runs a sigmoid layer that decides what parts of the cell state we are going to output.
- Then, puts the cell state through tanh and multiplies it by the output of the sigmoid gate (output gate), so that it only outputs the parts it decided to.

$$\mathbf{o}^{(t)} = \sigma(\mathbf{u}_{o}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \mathbf{w}_{o}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)})$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \mathbf{o}^{(t)} \otimes \tanh(\mathbf{c}^{(t)})$$



Multi-layer LSTM

```
lstm_cells = [tf.contrib.rnn.BasicLSTMCell(num_units=n_neurons) for layer in range(n_layers)]
multi_cell = tf.contrib.rnn.MultiRNNCell(lstm_cells)
```

```
outputs, states = tf.nn.dynamic_rnn(multi_cell, X, dtype=tf.float32)
```

```
top_layer_h_state = states[-1][1]
```

```
logits = tf.layers.dense(top_layer_h_state, n_outputs)
```



Summary





- ► RNN
- Unfolding the network
- ► Three weights
- Backpropagation through time
- RNN design patterns
- ► LSTM



- ▶ Ian Goodfellow et al., Deep Learning (Ch. 10)
- ► Aurélien Géron, Hands-On Machine Learning (Ch. 14)
- Understanding LSTM Networks http://colah.github.io/posts/2015-08-Understanding-LSTMs
- CS224d: Deep Learning for Natural Language Processing http://cs224d.stanford.edu



Questions?