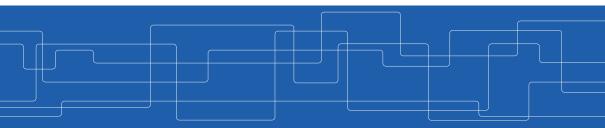


#### Recurrent Neural Networks

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



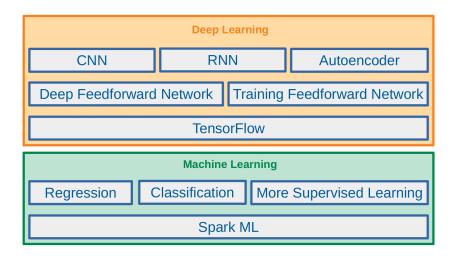


#### The Course Web Page

# https://id2223kth.github.io

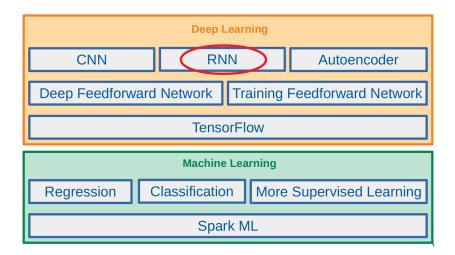


#### Where Are We?





#### 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<sup>(1)</sup>, x<sup>(2)</sup>, ..., x<sup>(t)</sup>, compute the probability distribution of the next word x<sup>(t+1)</sup>:

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





# 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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  - 4-grams: "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.



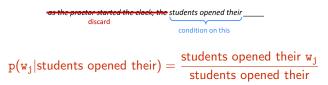
### n-gram Language Models - Example

- 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

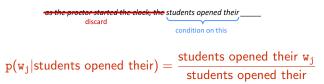


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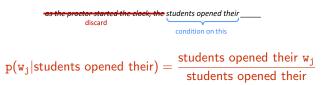


► In the corpus:

• "students opened their" occurred 1000 times



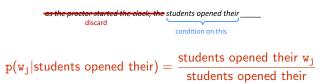
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- In the corpus:
  - "students opened their" occurred 1000 times
  - "students opened their books occurred 400 times: p(books|students opened their) = 0.4
  - "students opened their exams occurred 100 times:  $p(\mathsf{exams}|\mathsf{students}|\mathsf{opened}|\mathsf{their})=0.1$



# 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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- ► What if "students opened their" never occurred in data? Then we can't calculate probability for any w<sub>j</sub>!
- 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<sub>j</sub>", 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)

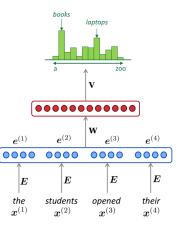
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  - Output: probability dist of the next word  $p(x^{(t+1)} = w_j | x^{(t)}, \cdots, x^{(1)})$
- One-Hot encoding
  - Represent a categorical variable as a binary vector.
  - All recodes are zero, except the index of the integer, which is one.
  - 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)

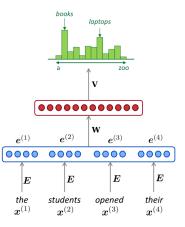
- A MLP model
  - Input: words  $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, x^{(4)}$
  - Input layer: one-hot vectors  $\mathbf{e}^{(1)}, \mathbf{e}^{(2)}, \mathbf{e}^{(3)}, \mathbf{e}^{(4)}$
  - Hidden layer:  $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{e})$ ,  $\mathbf{f}$  is an activation function.
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





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

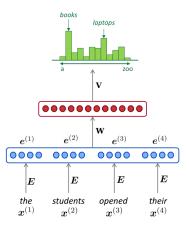
- Improvements over n-gram LM:
  - No sparsity problem
  - Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n))





# 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).



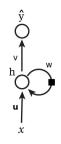
- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential data.
  - Until here, we assume that all inputs (and outputs) are independent of each other.
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- ► The idea behind Recurrent neural networks (RNN) is to make use of sequential 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.

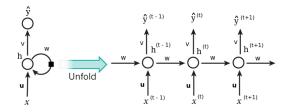


- ▶ Neurons in an RNN have connections pointing backward.
- RNNs have memory, which captures information about what has been calculated so far.



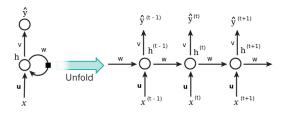


- ▶ Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
  - We write out the network for the complete sequence.



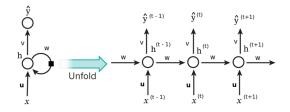


- ► Unfolding the network: represent a network against the time axis.
  - We write out the network for the complete sequence.
- ► For example, if the sequence we care about is a sentence of three words, the network would be unfolded into a 3-layer neural network.
  - One layer for each word.



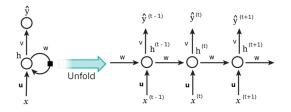


▶  $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$ , where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.



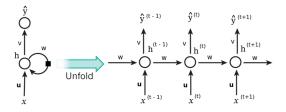


- ▶  $h^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}^{(t)} + wh^{(t-1)})$ , where f is an activation function, e.g., tanh or ReLU.
- $\hat{y}^{(t)} = g(vh^{(t)})$ , where g can be the softmax function.





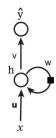
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- $\hat{y}^{(t)} = g(vh^{(t)})$ , where g can be the softmax function.
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ cost}(\mathtt{y^{(t)}}, \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}) = \texttt{cross\_entropy}(\mathtt{y^{(t)}}, \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}) = -\sum \mathtt{y^{(t)}} \texttt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{y}^{(t)}}$
- ▶  $y^{(t)}$  is the correct word at time step t, and  $\hat{y}^{(t)}$  is the prediction.





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (1/4)

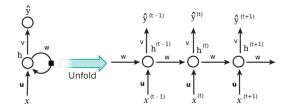
► Each recurrent neuron has three sets of weights: **u**, **w**, and **v**.





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

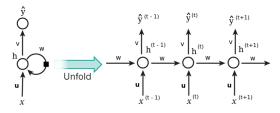
• u: the weights for the inputs  $x^{(t)}$ .





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (2/4)

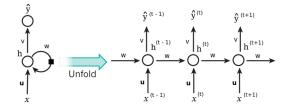
- u: the weights for the inputs  $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$ .
- ▶ x<sup>(t)</sup>: is the input at time step t.
- ► For example, x<sup>(1)</sup> could be a one-hot vector corresponding to the first word of a sentence.





### Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

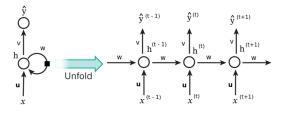
• w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step  $h^{(t-1)}$ .





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (3/4)

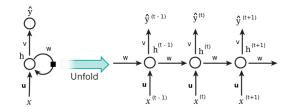
- w: the weights for the hidden state of the previous time step  $h^{(t-1)}$ .
- h<sup>(t)</sup>: is the hidden state (memory) at time step t.
  - $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
  - h<sup>(0)</sup> is the initial hidden state.





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

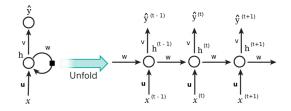
• v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step  $h^{(t)}$ .





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

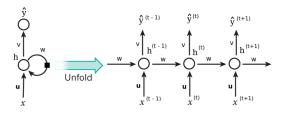
- v: the weights for the hidden state of the current time step  $h^{(t)}$ .
- ▶ ŷ<sup>(t)</sup> is the output at step t.
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \operatorname{softmax}(\operatorname{vh}^{(t)})$





# Recurrent Neurons - Weights (4/4)

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- ▶ ŷ<sup>(t)</sup> 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.

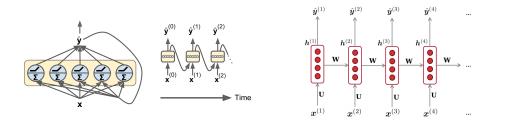




### Layers of Recurrent Neurons

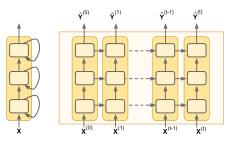
At each time step t, every neuron of a layer receives both the input vector x<sup>(t)</sup> and the output vector from the previous time step h<sup>(t-1)</sup>.

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





Stacking multiple layers of cells gives you a deep RNN.





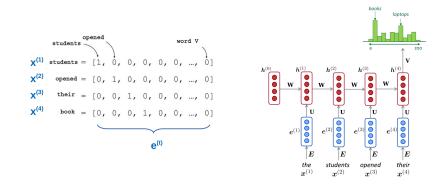
# Let's Back to Language Model Example





# A RNN Neural Language Model (1/2)

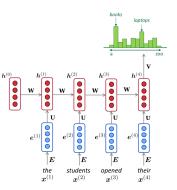
- ► The input **x** will be a sequence of words (each **x**<sup>(t)</sup> is a single word).
- Each embedded word  $\mathbf{e}^{(t)} = \mathbf{E}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}^{(t)}$  is a one-hot vector of size vocabulary size.





# A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

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

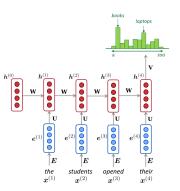




# A RNN Neural Language Model (2/2)

Let's recap the equations for the RNN:

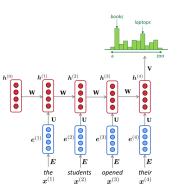
- $\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = \operatorname{tanh}(\mathbf{u}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{e}^{(t)} + \operatorname{wh}^{(t-1)})$
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)} = \texttt{softmax}(\texttt{vh}^{(t)})$
- The output  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}^{(t)}$  is a vector of vocabulary size elements.





# 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<sup>(t)</sup> 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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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



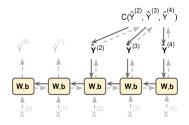
**Training RNNs** 

- ▶ 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)

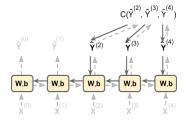
- ► To train the model using BPTT, we go through the following steps:
- ▶ 1. Forward pass through the unrolled network (represented by the dashed arrows).
- ► 2. The cost function is C(ŷ<sup>tmin</sup>, ŷ<sup>tmin+1</sup>, ··· , ŷ<sup>tmax</sup>), where tmin and tmax are the first and last output time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





# Backpropagation Through Time (2/3)

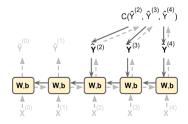
- 3. Propagate backward the gradients of that cost function through the unrolled network (represented by the solid arrows).
- ► 4. The model parameters are updated using the gradients computed during BPTT.



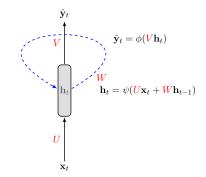


#### Backpropagation Through Time (3/3)

- 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  $\hat{y}^{(1)}.$







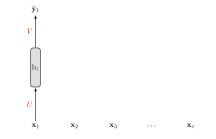


 $\mathbf{x}_1$   $\mathbf{x}_2$   $\mathbf{x}_3$   $\cdots$   $\mathbf{x}_{\tau}$ 

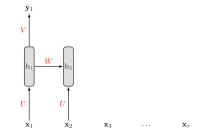




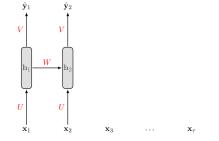




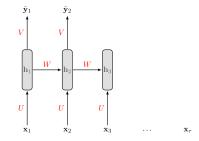




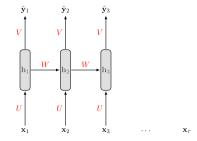




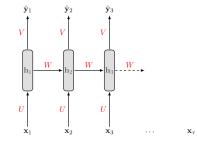




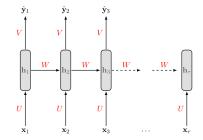




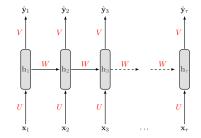




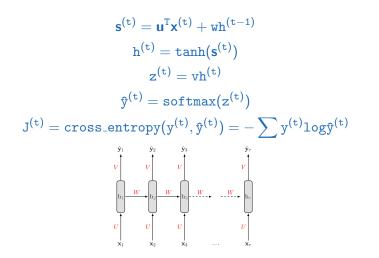




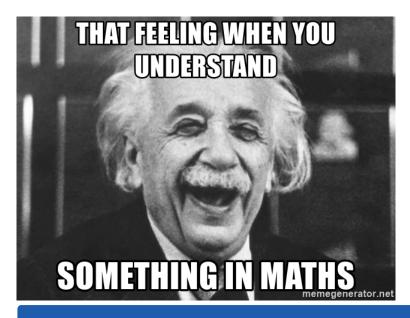








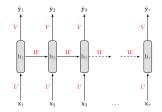






$$\mathtt{J}^{(\mathtt{t})} = \mathtt{cross\_entropy}(\mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})}, \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}) = -\sum \mathtt{y}^{(\mathtt{t})} \mathtt{log} \boldsymbol{\hat{\mathtt{y}}}^{(\mathtt{t})}$$

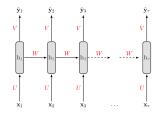
• We treat the full sequence as one training example.





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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.,  $E = J^{(1)} + J^{(2)} + \dots + J^{(t)}$





▶ J<sup>(t)</sup> is the total cost, so we can say that a 1-unit increase in v, w or u will impact each of J<sup>(1)</sup>, J<sup>(2)</sup>, until J<sup>(t)</sup> individually.



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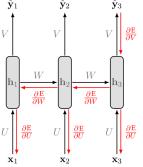
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$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial u} = \sum_{t} \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial J^{(2)}}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial J^{(1)}}{\partial u}$$



- 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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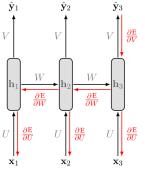




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$$\frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial J^{(3)}}{\partial \hat{y}^{(3)}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}^{(3)}}{\partial z^{(3)}} \frac{\partial z^{(3)}}{\partial v}$$

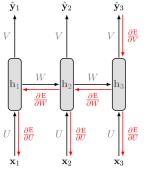




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$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{\hat{g}}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{\hat{g}}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$

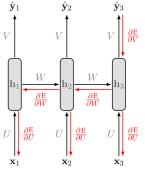




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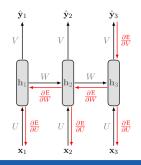
A change in v will only impact  $J^{(3)}$  at time t = 3, because it plays no role in computing the value of anything other than  $z^{(3)}$ .  $\hat{y}_1$   $\hat{y}_2$   $\hat{y}_3$ 

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$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{g}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{g}}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{v}}$$





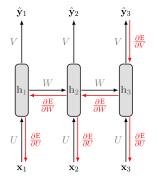
- Let's compute the derivatives of  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial w}$  and  $\frac{\partial J}{\partial u}$ , which are computed the same.
- A change in w at t = 3 will impact our cost J in 3 separate ways:
  - 1. When computing the value of  $h^{(1)}$ .
  - 2. When computing the value of  $h^{(2)}$ ,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

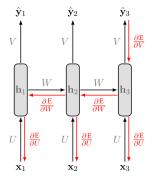
$$\begin{split} \sum_{\mathbf{t}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(\mathbf{t})}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(3)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}^{(1)}}{\partial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





• we compute our individual gradients as:

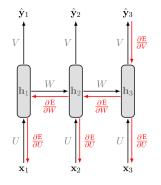
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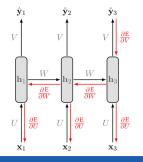
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• More generally, a change in w will impact our cost  $J^{(t)}$  on t separate occasions.

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

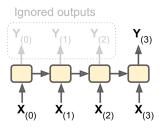




# **RNN** Design Patterns



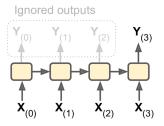
Sequence-to-vector network: takes a sequence of inputs, and ignore all outputs except for the last one.





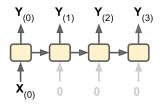
#### RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Vector

- 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.





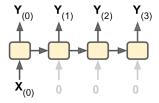
Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.





#### RNN Design Patterns - Vector-to-Sequence

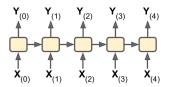
- Vector-to-sequence network: takes a single input at the first time step, and let it output a sequence.
- E.g., the input could be an image, and the output could be a caption for that image.





# RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

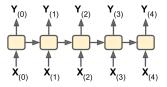
Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.





### RNN Design Patterns - Sequence-to-Sequence

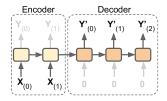
- Sequence-to-sequence network: takes a sequence of inputs and produce a sequence of outputs.
- ► Useful for predicting time series such as stock prices: you feed it the prices over the last N days, and it must output the prices shifted by one day into the future.
- ▶ Here, both input sequences and output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





#### RNN Design Patterns - Encoder-Decoder

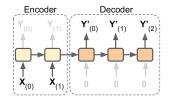
Encoder-decoder network: a sequence-to-vector network (encoder), followed by a vector-to-sequence network (decoder).





#### 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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- ▶ But, as that gap grows, RNNs become unable to learn to connect the information.
- ► RNNs may suffer from the vanishing/exploding gradients problem.



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- ► RNNs may suffer from the vanishing/exploding gradients problem.
- ► 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.



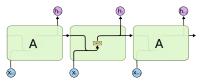
#### RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

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



#### RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

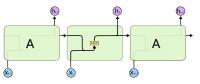
- ▶ Without looking inside the box, the LSTM cell looks exactly like a basic cell.
- ► The repeating module in a standard RNN contains a single layer.



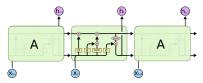


#### RNN Basic Cell vs. LSTM

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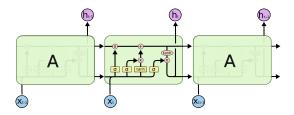


► The repeating module in an LSTM contains four interacting layers.



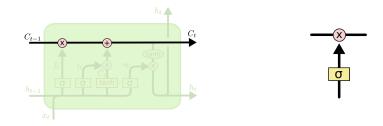


- ► In LSTM state is split in two vectors:
  - 1.  $h^{(t)}$  (h stands for hidden): the short-term state
  - 2.  $c^{(t)}$  (c stands for cell): the long-term state



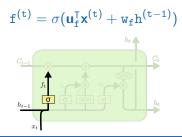


- ► The cell state (long-term state), the horizontal line on the top of the diagram.
- ▶ The LSTM can remove/add information to the cell state, regulated by three gates.
  - Forget gate, input gate and output gate



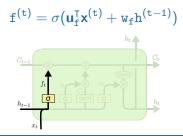


► Step one: decides what information we are going to throw away from the cell state.



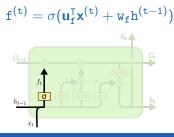


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- ► This decision is made by a sigmoid layer, called the forget gate layer.
- It looks at h<sup>(t-1)</sup> and x<sup>(t)</sup>, and outputs a number between 0 and 1 for each number in the cell state c<sup>(t-1)</sup>.
  - 1 represents completely keep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



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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.

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

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

$$c_{t-1}$$

$$h_{t}$$

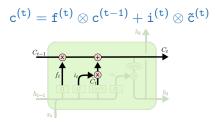
$$h_{t-1}$$

$$c_{t-1}$$

$$h_{t}$$

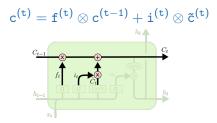


• Third step: updates the old cell state  $c^{(t-1)}$ , into the new cell state  $c^{(t)}$ .



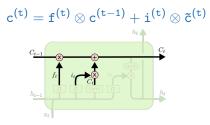


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- ▶ We multiply the old state by f<sup>(t)</sup>, forgetting the things we decided to forget earlier.
- Then we add it  $i^{(t)} \otimes \tilde{c}^{(t)}$ .
- This is the new candidate values, scaled by how much we decided to update each state value.

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

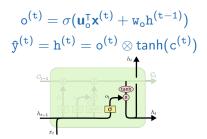


• Fourth step: decides about the output.

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



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- 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?