

NPFL099 Statistical Dialogue Systems

2. Machine Learning Toolkit

<http://ufal.cz/npfl099>

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6. 10. 2020



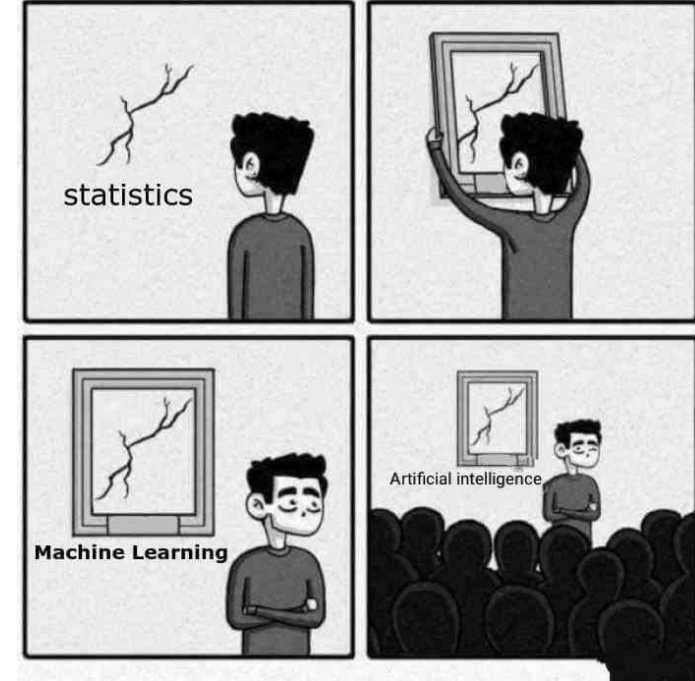
Charles University
Faculty of Mathematics and Physics
Institute of Formal and Applied Linguistics



unless otherwise stated

Machine Learning

- ML is basically function approximation
- function: data (**features**) → **labels**
 - discrete labels = **classification**
 - continuous labels = **regression**
- function shape
 - this is where different algorithms differ
 - neural nets: complex functions, composed of simple building blocks (linear, sigmoid, tanh...)
- training/learning = adjusting function parameters to minimize error
 - **supervised learning** = based on data + labels given in advance
 - **reinforcement learning** = based on exploration & rewards given online



<https://towardsdatascience.com/no-machine-learning-is-not-just-glorified-statistics-26d3952234e3>

Neural networks

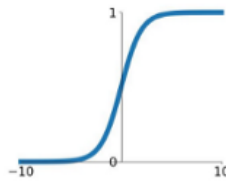
- Can be used for both classification & sequence models
- **Non-linear functions**, composed of basic building blocks
 - stacked into **layers**
- Layers are made of **activation functions**:
 - linear functions
 - nonlinearities – sigmoid, tanh, ReLU
 - softmax – probability estimates:

$$\text{softmax}(\mathbf{x})_i = \frac{\exp(x_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{|\mathbf{x}|} \exp(x_j)}$$

- Fully differentiable – training by **gradient descent**
 - network output incurs loss/cost
 - gradients **backpropagated** from loss to all parameters (composite function differentiation)

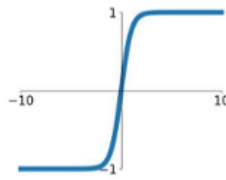
Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$



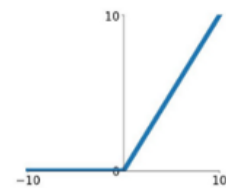
tanh

$$\tanh(x)$$



ReLU

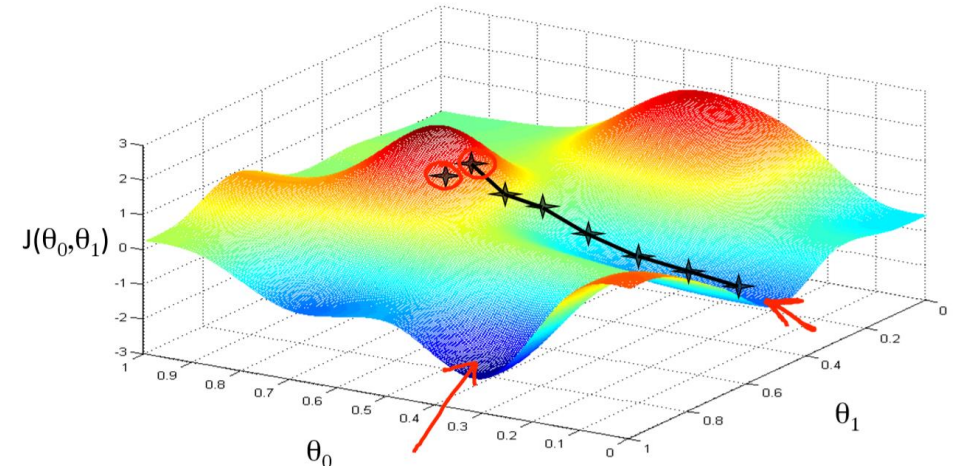
$$\max(0, x)$$



https://medium.com/@shrutija_don10104776/survey-on-activation-functions-for-deep-learning-9689331ba092

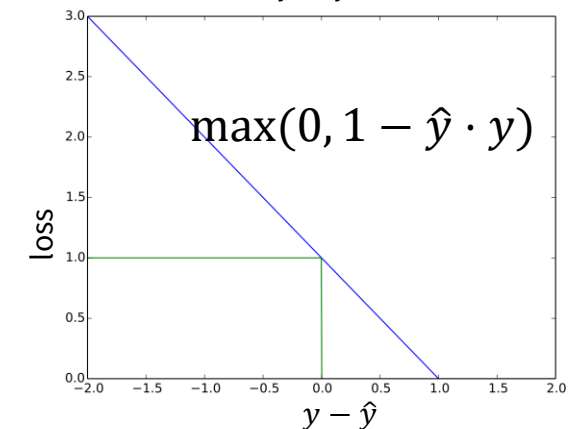
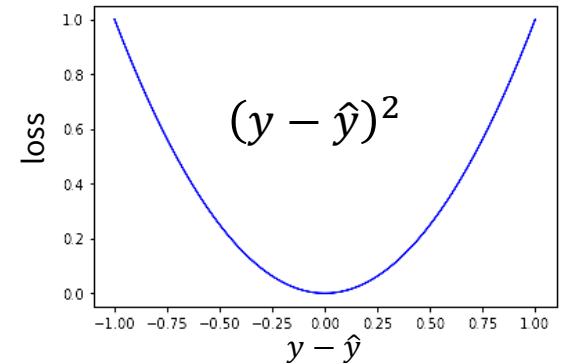
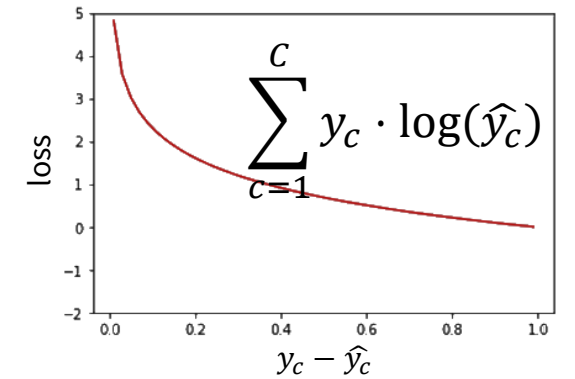
Gradient Descent

- supervised training– **gradient descent** methods
 - minimizing a **cost/loss function**
(notion of error – given system output, how far off are we?)
 - calculus: derivative = steepness/slope
 - follow the slope to find the minimum – derivative gives the direction
 - **learning rate** = how fast we go (needs to be tuned)
- gradient typically computed over **mini-batches**
 - random bunches of a few training instances
 - not as erratic as using just 1 instance,
not as slow as computing over whole data
 - **stochastic gradient descent**



Cost/Loss Functions

- differ based on what we're trying to predict
- **logistic / log loss** (“cross entropy”)
 - for classification / softmax – including **word prediction**
 - classes from the whole dictionary
 - pretty stupid for sequences, but works
 - sequence shifted by 1 \Rightarrow everything wrong
- **squared error loss** – for regression
 - forcing the predicted float value to be close to actual one
- **hinge loss** – for binary classification (SVMs), ranking
 - forcing the correct sign
- many others, variants



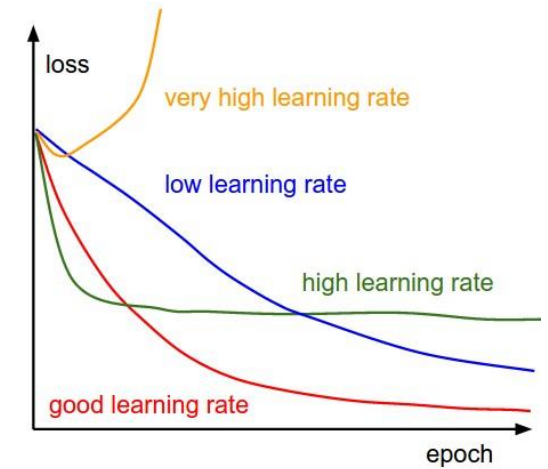
<https://machinelearningmastery.com/loss-and-loss-functions-for-training-deep-learning-neural-networks/>

<https://medium.com/@risingdeveloper/visualization-of-some-loss-functions-for-deep-learning-with-tensorflow-9f60be9d09f9>

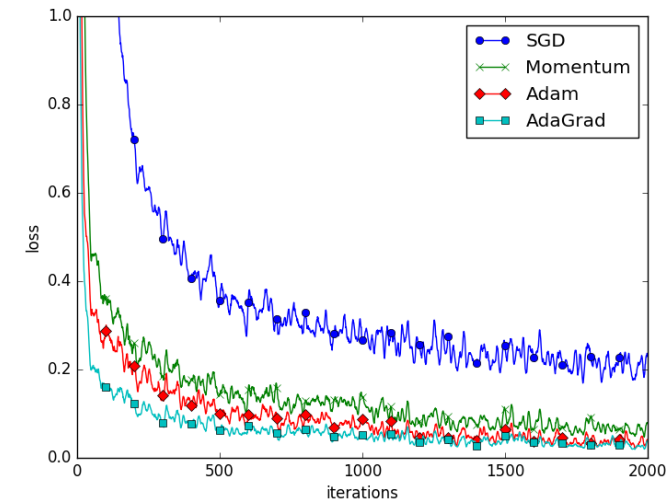
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hinge_loss

Gradient Descent: Learning Rate

- Learning rate (α) is tricky
 - too high α = may not find optimum
 - too low α = may take forever
- **Learning rate decay**: start high, lower α gradually
- **Momentum**: moving average
 - $m = \beta \cdot m + (1 - \beta) \cdot \Delta$, update by m instead of Δ
- Better options – per-parameter
 - look at how often each single weight gets updated
 - **AdaGrad** – all history
 - remember sum of total gradients squared: $\sum_t \Delta_t^2$
 - divide learning rate by $\sqrt{\sum \Delta_t^2}$
 - **Adam** – per-parameter momentum
 - moving averages for Δ & Δ^2 : $m = \beta_1 \cdot m + (1 - \beta_1)\Delta$, $v = \beta_2 \cdot v + (1 - \beta_2)\Delta^2$
 - use m instead of Δ , divide learning rate by \sqrt{v}

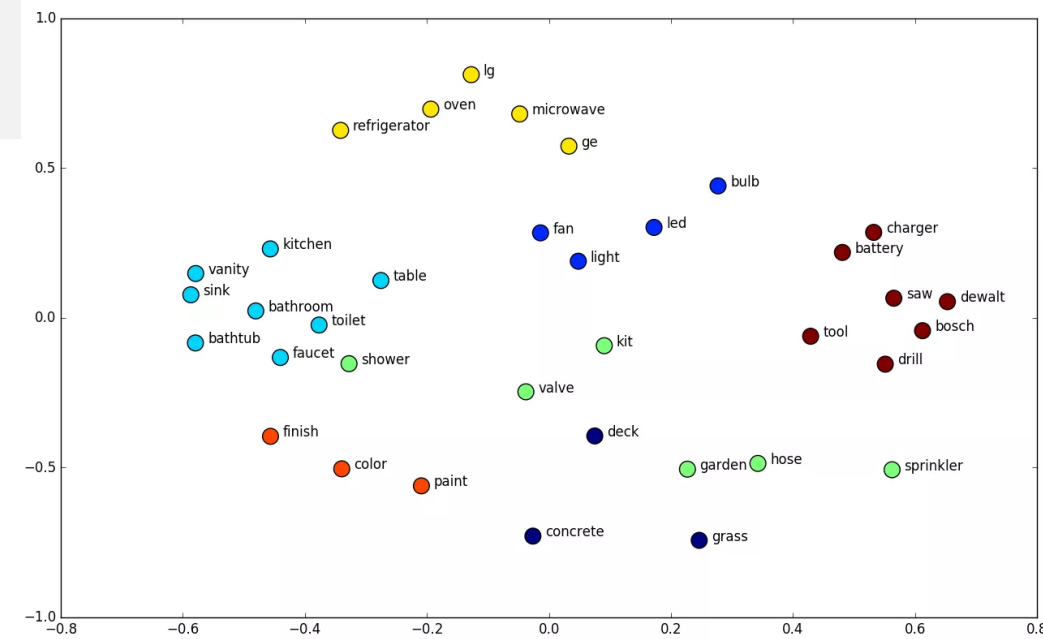


<http://cs231n.github.io/neural-networks-3/>



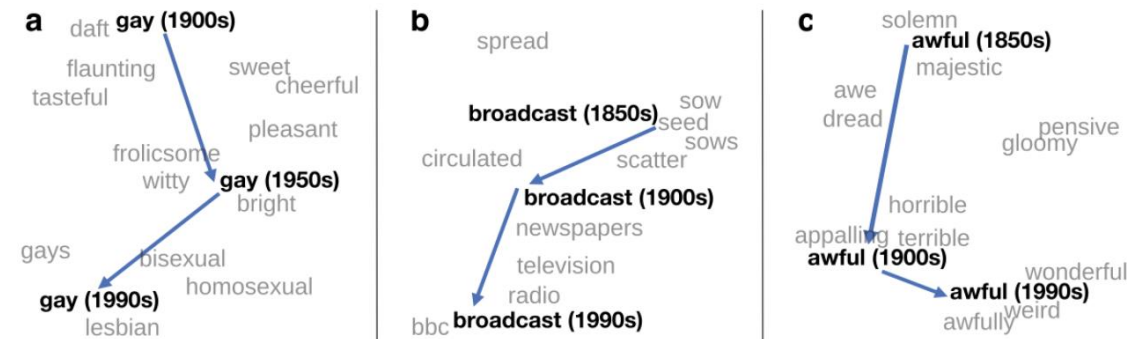
Word Embeddings

- let the network learn features by itself
 - input is just words (vocabulary is numbered)
- distributed word representation
 - **each word = a vector of floats**
- part of network parameters – trained
 - a) random initialization
 - b) pretraining
- the network learns which words are used similarly
 - they end up having close embedding values
 - different embeddings for different tasks



<http://blog.kaggle.com/2016/05/18/home-depot-product-search-relevance-winners-interview-1st-place-alex-andreas-nurlan/>

<http://ruder.io/word-embeddings-2017/>



Pretrained Word Embeddings

• Word2Vec

• Continuous Bag-of-Words

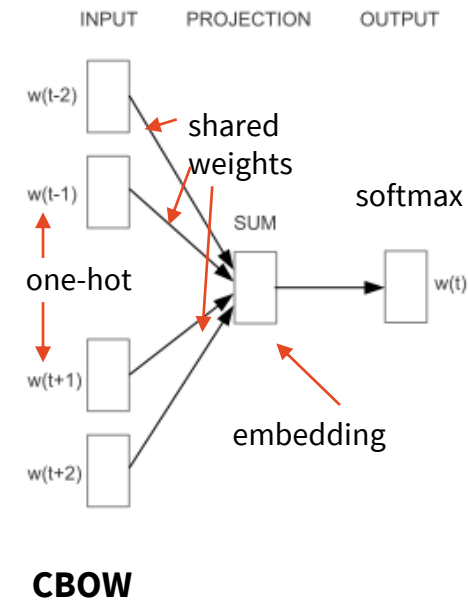
- predict a word, given $\pm k$ words window
- disregarding word order within the window

• Skip-gram: reverse

- given a word, predict its $\pm k$ word window
- closer words = higher weight in training

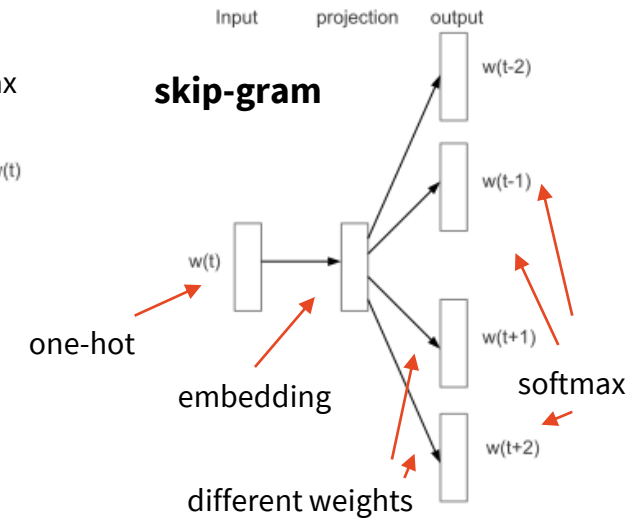
• GloVe

- optimized directly from corpus co-occurrences (= w_1 close to w_2)
- target: $e_1 \cdot e_2 = \log(\#co\text{-occurrences})$
 - number weighted by distance, weighted down for low totals
- trained by minimizing reconstruction loss on a co-occurrence matrix



CBOW

(Mikolov et al., 2013)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1301.3781>



(Pennington et al., 2014)
<http://aclweb.org/anthology/D14-1162>

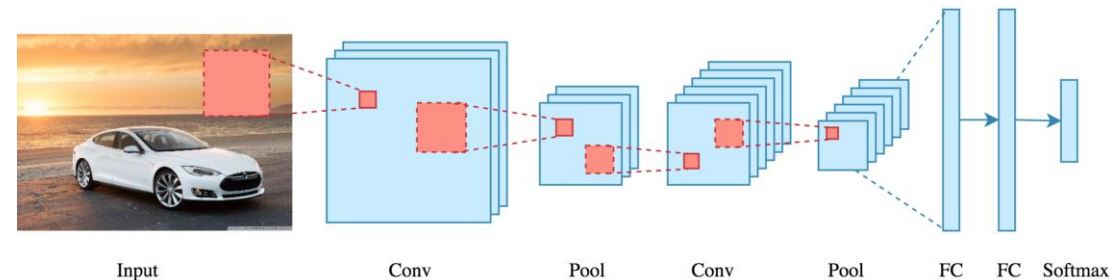
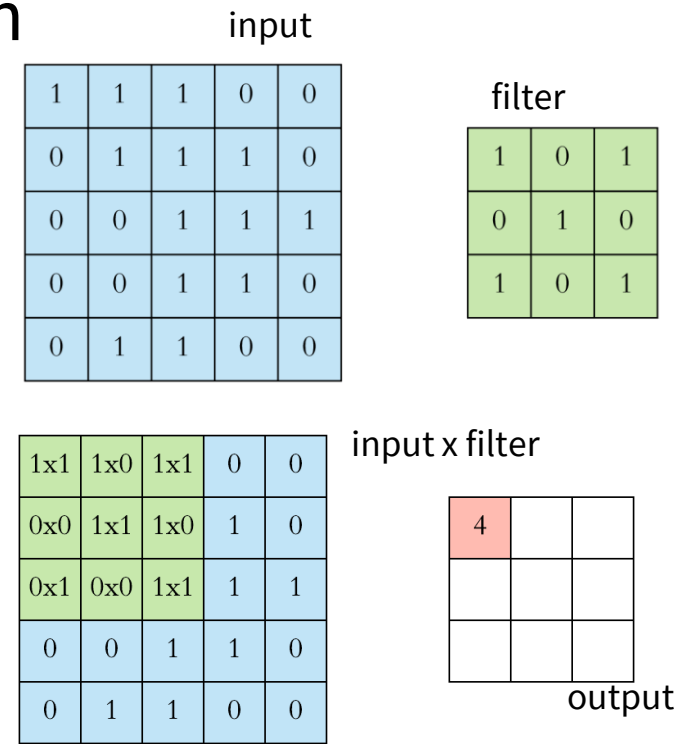
Word Embeddings

- Vocabulary is unlimited, embedding matrix isn't
 - + the bigger the embedding matrix, the slower your models
- Special **out-of-vocabulary token** *<unk>*
 - “default” / older option
 - all words not found in vocabulary are assigned this entry
 - can be trained using some rare words in the data
 - problem for generation – you don't want these on the output
- Using limited sets
 - **characters** – very small set
 - works, but makes for very long sequences
 - **subwords** – decided e.g. by byte-pair encoding
 - start from individual characters
 - iteratively merge most frequent bigram, until you get desired # of subwords
 - *sub@@ word* – the @@ marks “no space after”

(Sennrich et al., 2016)
<https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/P16-1162/>

Convolutional Networks

- Designed for computer vision – inspired by human vision
 - works for language in 1D, too!
- Use less parameters than fully connected – **filter/kernel**
- Apply filter repeatedly over the input
 - element-wise multiply window of input x filter
 - sum + apply non-linearity (ReLU) to result
 - => produce 1 element of output
- **Stride** – how many steps to skip
 - less overlap, reducing output dimension
- **Pooling** – no filter, pre-set operation
 - **maximum**/average on each window
 - typical CNN architecture alternates convolution & pooling

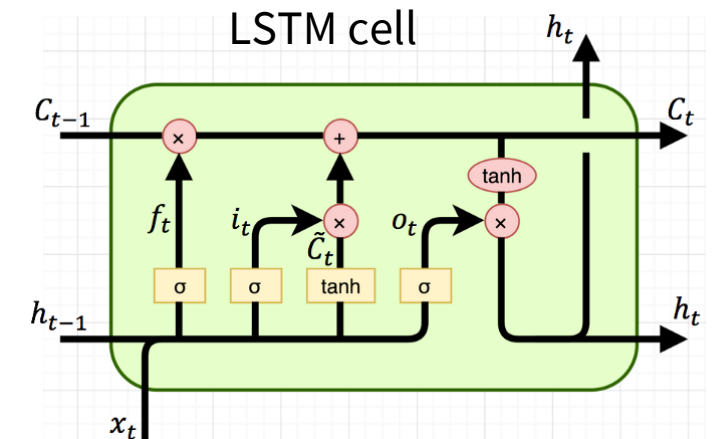
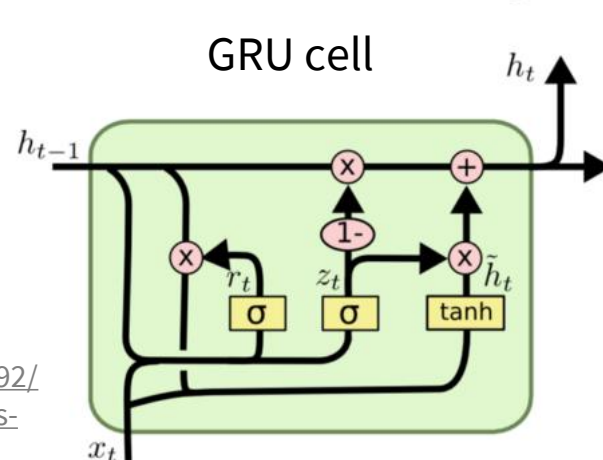
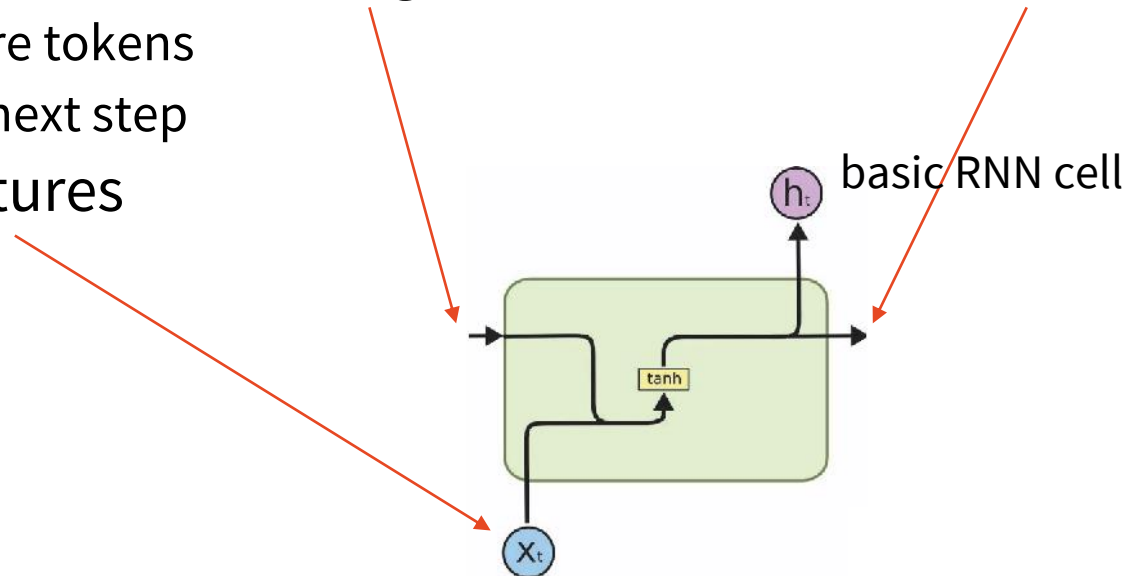


Recurrent Neural Networks

- Many identical layers with shared parameters (**cells**)
 - ~ the same layer is applied multiple times, taking its own outputs as input
 - ~ same number of layers as there are tokens
 - output = **hidden state** – fed to the next step
 - additional input – next token features

- Cell types

- **basic RNN**: linear + tanh
 - problem: vanishing gradients
 - can't hold long recurrences
- **GRU, LSTM**: more complex, to make backpropagation work better
 - “gates” to keep old values



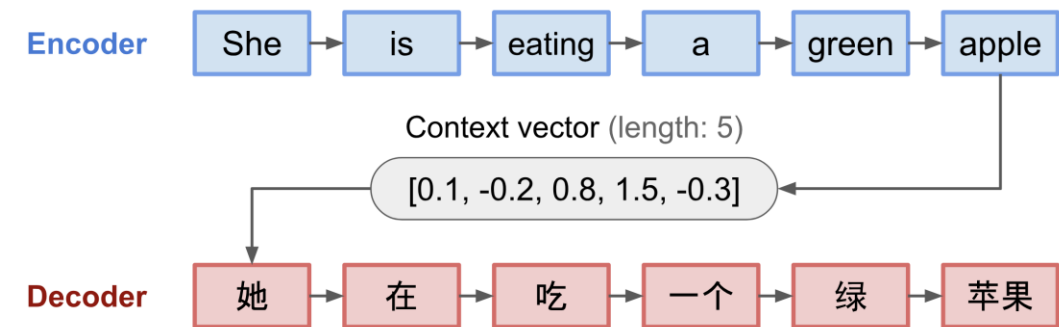
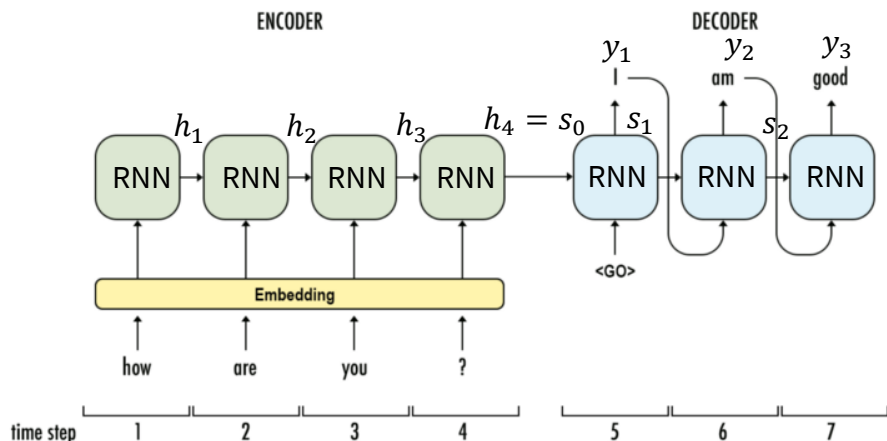
<https://medium.com/@saurabh.rathor092/simple-rnn-vs-gru-vs-lstm-difference-lies-in-more-flexible-control-5f33e07b1e57>

Encoder-Decoder Networks (Sequence-to-sequence)

- Default RNN paradigm for sequences/structure prediction
 - **encoder RNN**: encodes the input token-by-token into **hidden states** h_t
 - next step: last hidden state + next token as input
 - **decoder RNN**: constructs the output token-by-token
 - initialized by last encoder hidden state
 - output: hidden state & softmax over output vocabulary + argmax
 - next step: last hidden state + last generated token as input
- LSTM/GRU cells over vectors of ~ embedding size
- used in MT, dialogue, parsing...
 - more complex structures linearized to sequences

$$h_0 = 0$$
$$h_t = \text{cell}(x_t, h_{t-1})$$

$$s_0 = h_T$$
$$p(y_t | y_1, \dots, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}) = \text{softmax}(s_t)$$
$$s_t = \text{cell}(y_{t-1}, s_{t-1})$$

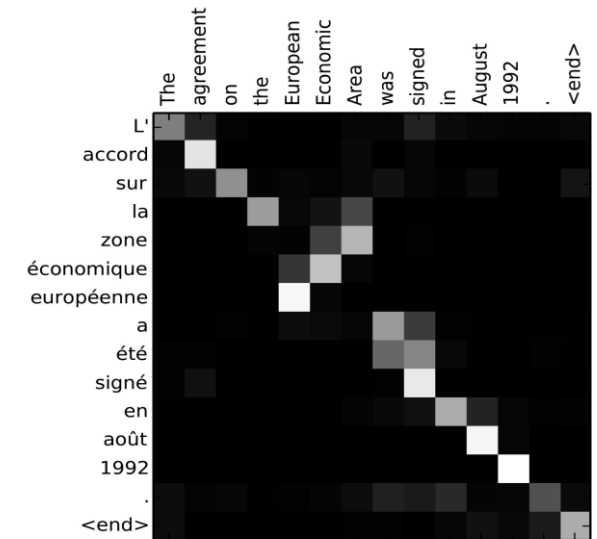
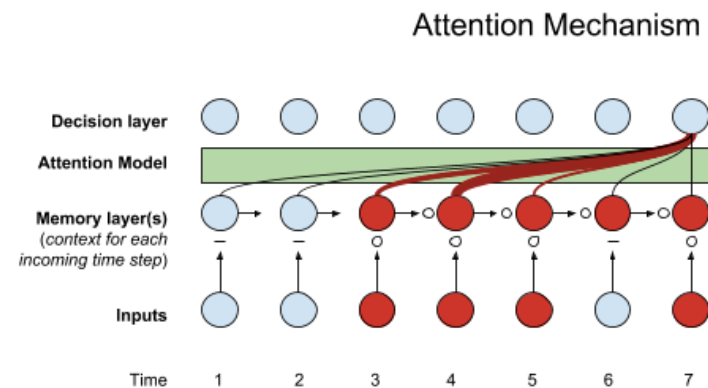


<https://lilianweng.github.io/lil-log/2018/06/24/attention-attention.html>

<https://medium.com/syncedreview/a-brief-overview-of-attention-mechanism-13c578ba9129>

Attention

- Encoder-decoder is too crude for complex sequences
 - the whole input is crammed into a fixed-size vector (last hidden state)
- **Attention** = “memory” of **all encoder** hidden states
 - weighted combination, re-weighted for every decoder step
→ can focus on currently important part of input
 - fed into decoder inputs + decoder softmax layer
- **Self-attention** – over **previous decoder steps**
 - increases consistency when generating long sequences

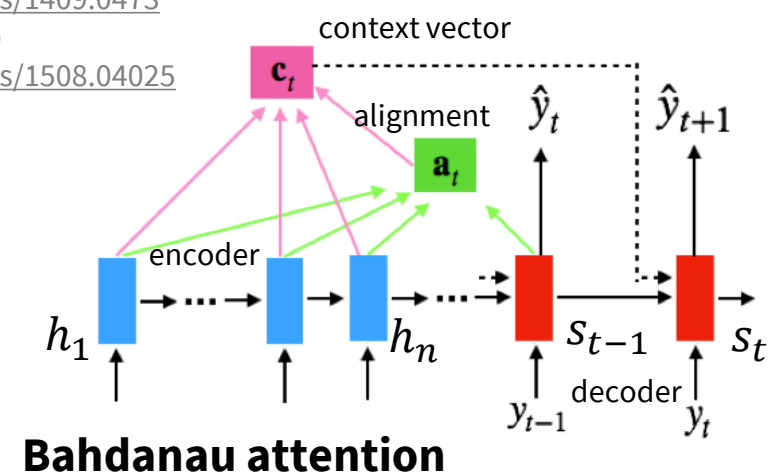


<https://skymind.ai/wiki/attention-mechanism-memory-network>

Bahdanau & Luong Attention

- different combination with decoder state
 - Bahdanau: use on input to decoder cell
 - Luong: modify final decoder state
- different weights computation
- both work well – exact formula not important

(Bahdanau et al., 2015)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1409.0473>
 (Luong et al., 2015)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1508.04025>



attention weights = alignment model

Bahdanau:

$$\alpha_{ti} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{v}_\alpha \cdot \tanh(\mathbf{W}_\alpha \cdot \mathbf{s}_{t-1} + \mathbf{U}_\alpha \cdot \mathbf{h}_i))$$

decoder state (points to \mathbf{s}_{t-1})
 trained parameters (points to $\mathbf{W}_\alpha, \mathbf{U}_\alpha, \mathbf{v}_\alpha$)
 encoder hidden state (points to \mathbf{h}_i)

Luong:

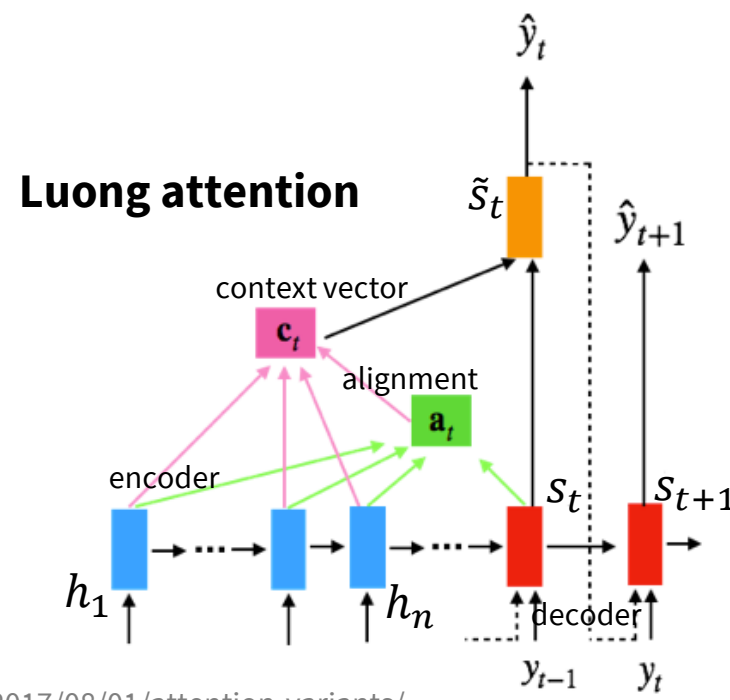
$$\alpha_{ti} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{h}_i^\top \cdot \mathbf{s}_t)$$

decoder state (points to \mathbf{s}_t)
 encoder hidden state (points to \mathbf{h}_i)

attention value = context vector

same for both – sum encoder hidden states weighted by α_{ti}

$$\mathbf{c}_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ti} \mathbf{h}_i$$

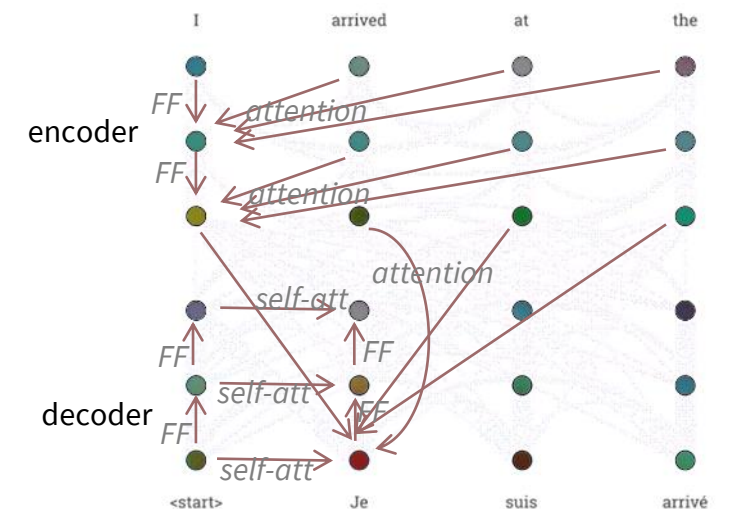
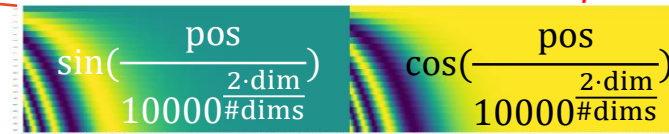
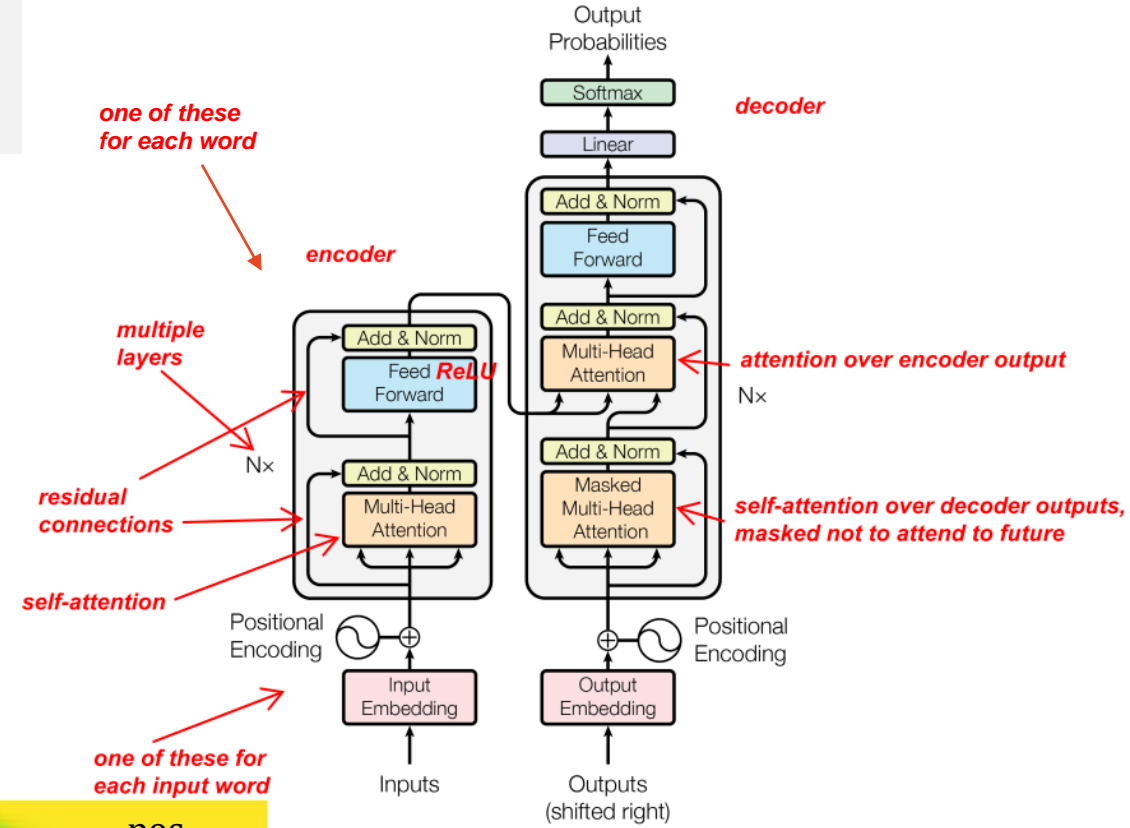


<http://cnyah.com/2017/08/01/attention-variants/>

Transformer

(Waswani et al., 2017)
<https://arxiv.org/abs/1706.03762>

- getting rid of (encoder) recurrences
 - making it faster to train, allowing bigger nets
 - replace everything with attention + feed-forward networks
 - ⇒ needs more layers
 - ⇒ needs to encode positions
- positional encoding
 - adding position-dependent patterns to the input
- attention – dot-product (Luong style)
 - scaled by $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\#dims}}$ (so values don't get too big)
 - more heads** (attentions in parallel)
 - focus on multiple inputs



Contextual Word Embeddings



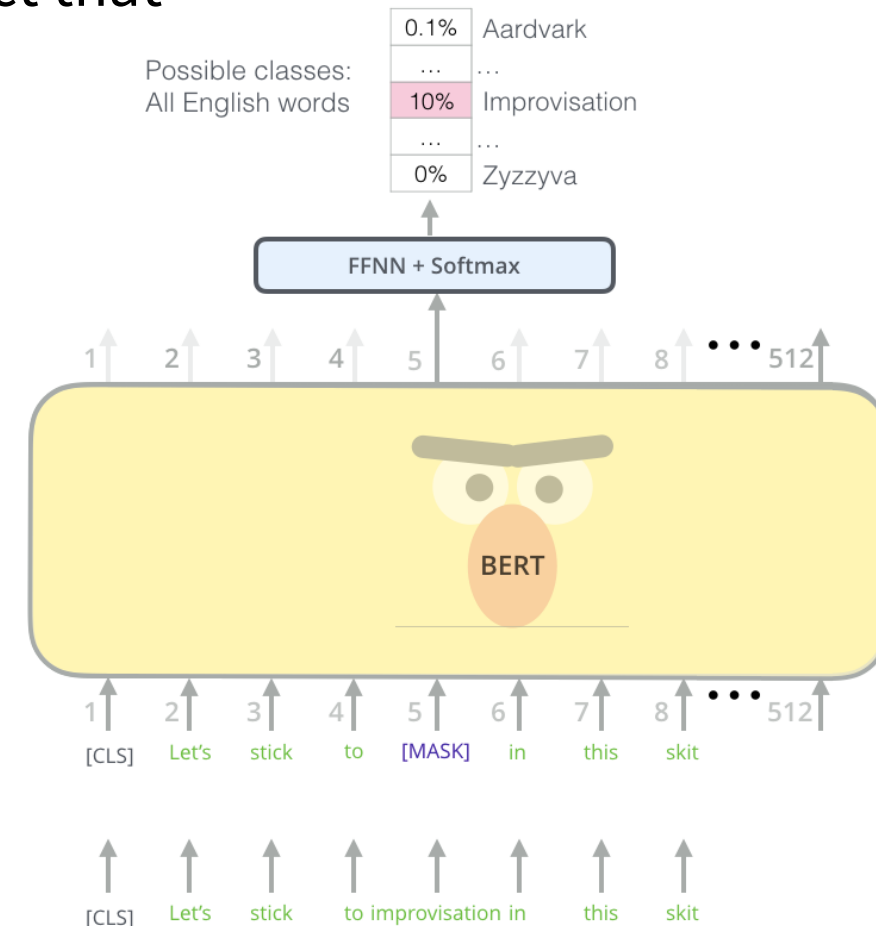
- Beyond pretrained word embeddings
 - words have different meanings based on context
 - static word embeddings (word2vec/GloVe) don't reflect that

- **ELMo**

- LSTMs trained for language modelling
- ELMo embeddings = weighted sum of input static embeddings & LSTM outputs
 - the weights are trained for a specific downstream task

- **BERT**

- huge Transformer encoder trained for:
 - masked word prediction
 - adjacent sentences detection (does B come right after A?)
- BERT embeddings = any combination of the Transformer layers



Pretrained Language Models (~ Contextual Word Embeddings)

- Basically a newer name/perspective for the same idea
 1. **Pretrain** a model on a huge dataset and some meaningful language-related task
 2. **Fine-tune** for your own task on your (smaller) data
- There are many variants of the pretrained models
 - mostly based on the Transformer architecture
 - pretraining tasks vary and make a difference
- **BERT** + variants: multilingual, **RoBERTa** (optimized)
- **GPT(-2/-3)**: Transformer decoder only, next-word prediction
- **BART**: BERT as denoising autoencoder (more below)
- **T5**: generalization, many variants
- a lot of this is released plug-and-play
 - you only need to finetune (and sometimes, not even that)

(Devlin et al., 2019)

<https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/N19-1423>

<https://github.com/google-research/bert>

(Rogers et al., 2020) <http://arxiv.org/abs/2002.12327>

(Liu et al., 2019) <http://arxiv.org/abs/1907.11692>

(Radford et al., 2019)

<https://openai.com/blog/better-language-models/>

(Brown et al., 2020)

<http://arxiv.org/abs/2005.14165>

(Lewis et al., 2019) <http://arxiv.org/abs/1910.13461>

(Raffel et al., 2019) <http://arxiv.org/abs/1910.10683>

<https://github.com/huggingface/transformers>

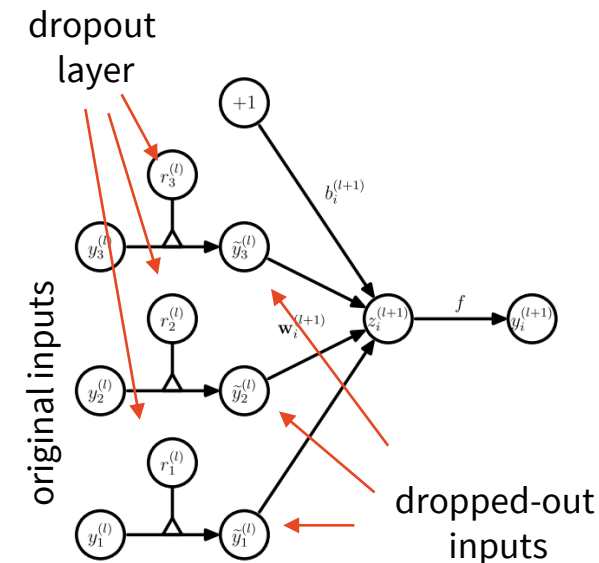
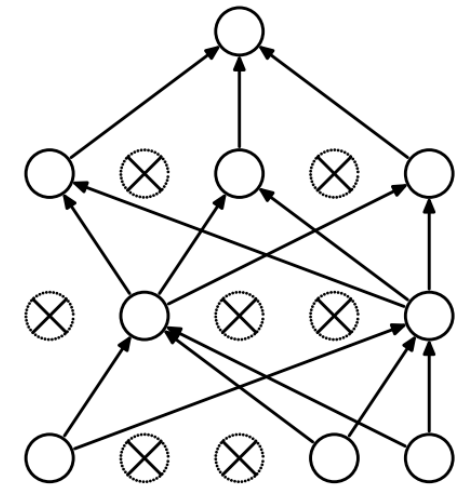


Dropout

- overfitting to training data is a problem for NNs
 - too many parameters
- **Dropout** – simple regularization technique
 - more effective than e.g. weight decay (L2)
 - **zero out some neurons/connections** in the network at random
 - technically: multiply by dropout layer
 - 0/1 with some probability (typically 0.5–0.8)
 - at training time only – full network for prediction
 - weights scaled down after training
 - they end up larger than normal because there's fewer nodes
 - done by libraries automatically
 - may need larger networks to compensate

(Srivastava et al., 2014)

<http://jmlr.org/papers/v15/srivastava14a.html>

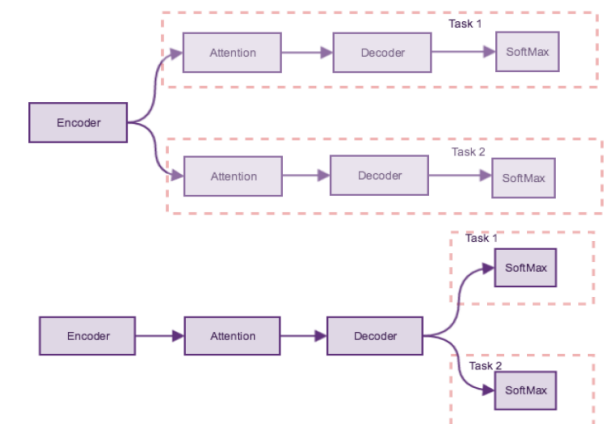
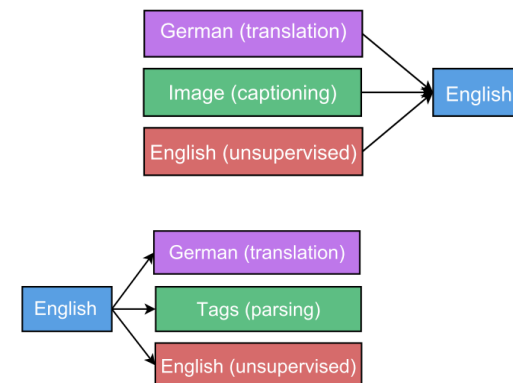
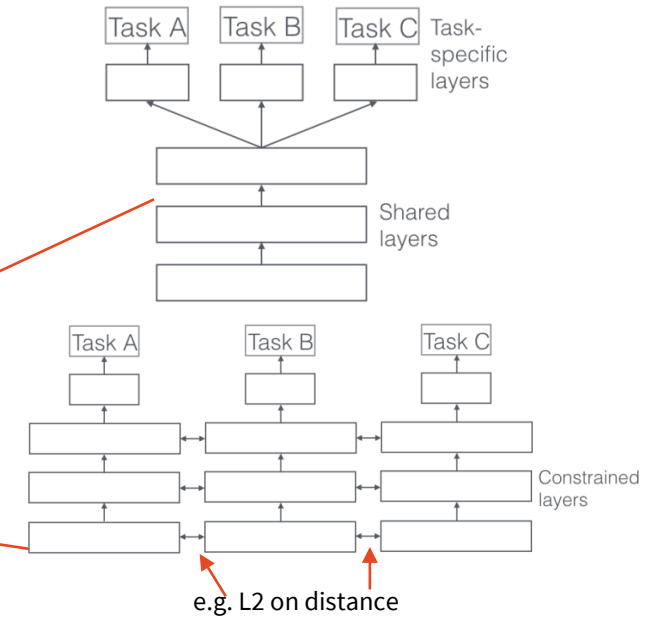


(b) Dropout network

Multi-task Learning

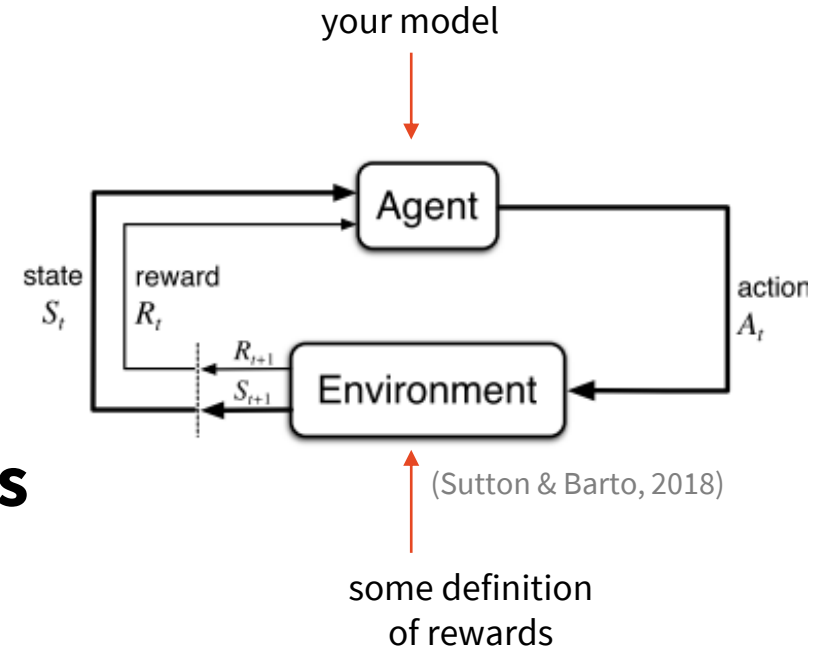
(Ruder, 2017)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1706.05098>
(Fan et al., 2017)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1706.04326>
(Luong et al., 2016)
<http://arxiv.org/abs/1511.06114>

- achieve better generalization by learning more things at once
 - a form of regularization
 - implicit data augmentation
 - biasing/focusing the model
 - e.g. by explicitly training for an important subtask
- parts of network shared, parts task-specific
 - hard sharing = parameters truly shared (most common)
 - soft sharing = regularization by parameter distance
 - different approaches w. r. t. what to share
- training – alternating between tasks
 - so the network doesn't “forget”



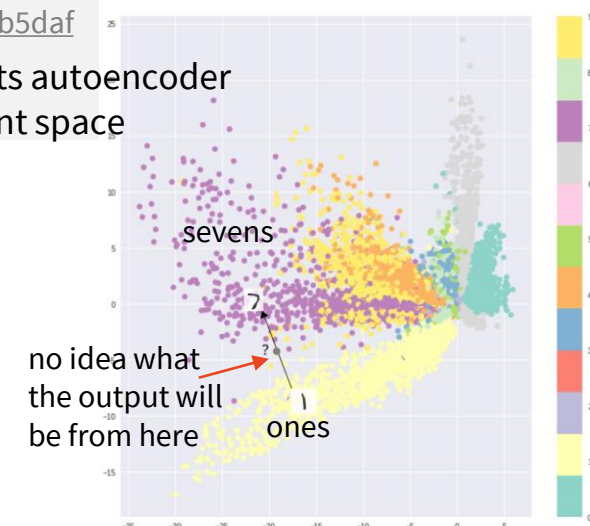
Reinforcement Learning

- Learning from **weaker supervision**
 - only get feedback once in a while, not for every output
 - good for globally optimizing sequence generation
 - you know if the whole sequence is good
 - you don't know if step X is good
 - sequence = e.g. sentence, dialogue
- Framing the problem as **states & actions & rewards**
 - “robot moving in space”, but works for dialogue too
 - state = generation so far (sentence, dialogue state)
 - action = one generation output (word, system dialogue act)
 - defining rewards might be an issue
- Training: **maximizing long-term reward**
 - via state/action values (Q function)
 - directly – optimizing policy



Autoencoders

MNIST digits autoencoder
latent space

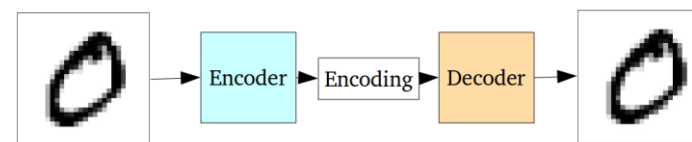


- Using NNs as **generative models**

- more than just classification – modelling the whole distribution
 - (of e.g. possible texts, images)
- generate new instances that look similar to training data
- considered **unsupervised learning**

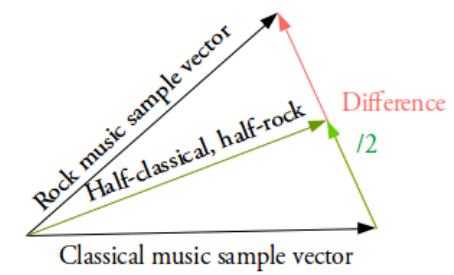
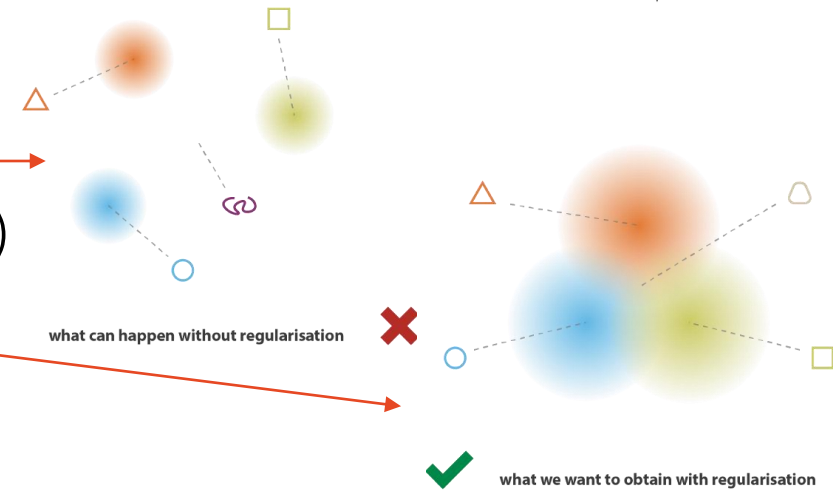
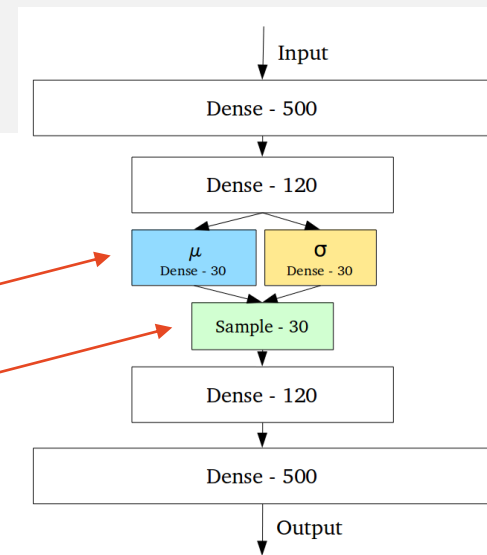
- **Autoencoder**: input → encoding → input

- encoding ~ “embedding” in latent space (i.e. some vector)
- trained by reconstruction loss
- problem: can’t easily get valid embeddings for generating new outputs
 - parts of embedding space might be unused – will generate weird stuff
 - no easy interpretation of embeddings – no idea what the model will generate
- still has uses:
 - **denoising autoencoder**: add noise to inputs, train to generate clean outputs
 - multi-task learning, representations for use in downstream tasks



Variational Autoencoders

- Making the encoding latent space more useful
 - using **Gaussians** – continuous space by design
 - encoding input into vectors of means μ & std. deviations σ
 - sampling encodings from $N(\mu, \sigma)$ for generation
 - samples vary a bit even for the same input
 - decoder learns to be more robust
 - model can degenerate into normal AE ($\sigma \rightarrow 0$)
 - we need to encourage some σ , smoothness, overlap ($\mu \sim 0$)
 - add **2nd loss: KL divergence** from $N(0,1)$
 - VAE learns a trade-off between using unit Gaussians & reconstructing inputs
- Problem: still not too much control of the embeddings
 - we can only guess what kind of output the model will generate



VAE details

- VAE objective:
 - **reconstruction loss** (maximizing $p(x|z)$ in the decoder), MLE as per usual
 - **latent loss** (KL-divergence from ideal $p(z) \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ in the encoder)

$$\mathcal{L} = -\mathbb{E}_q[\log p(x|z)] + KL[q(z|x)||p(z)]$$

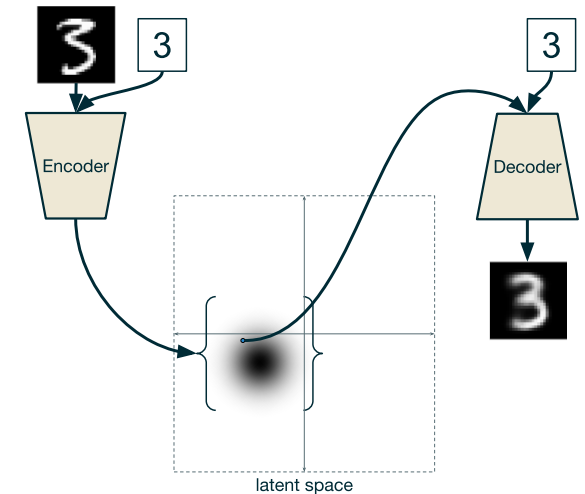
- This is equivalent to maximizing true $\log p(x)$ with some error
 - i.e. maximizing **evidence lower bound** (ELBO) / variational lower bound:

$$\mathbb{E}_q[\log p(x|z)] - KL[q(z|x)||p(z)] = \underbrace{\log p(x)}_{\text{"evidence" (i.e. data)}} - \underbrace{KL[q(z|x)||p(z|x)]}_{\text{ELBO}} \leftarrow \text{error incurred by using } q \text{ instead of true distribution } p$$

- Sidestepping sampling – **reparameterization trick**
 - $z \sim \mu + \sigma \cdot \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, then differentiate w. r. t. μ and σ

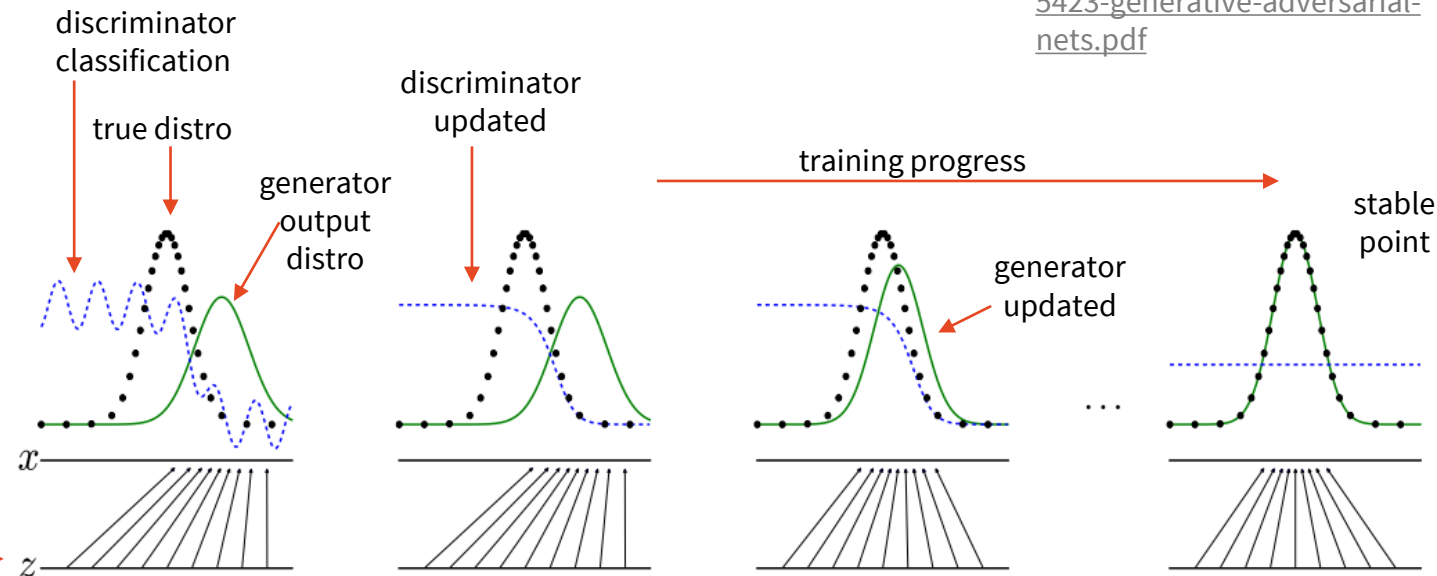
Conditional Variational Autoencoders

- Direct control over types of things to generate
- Additional conditioning on a given label/type/class c
 - c can be anything (discrete, continuous...)
 - image class: MNIST digit
 - sentiment
 - “is this a good reply?”
 - coherence level
 - just concatenate to input
 - given to both encoder & decoder at training time
- Generation – need to provide c
 - CVAE will generate a sample of type c
 - Latent space is partitioned by c
 - same latent input with different c will give different results



Generative Adversarial Nets

- Training generative models to generate **believable** outputs
 - to do so, they necessarily get a better grasp on the distribution
- Getting loss from a 2nd model:
 - **discriminator D** – “adversary” classifying real vs. generated samples
 - **generator G** – trained to fool the discriminator
 - the best chance to fool the discriminator is to generate likely outputs
- Training iteratively (EM style)
 - generate some outputs
 - classify + update discriminator
 - update generator based on classification
 - this will reach a stable point



Clustering

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/K-means_clustering

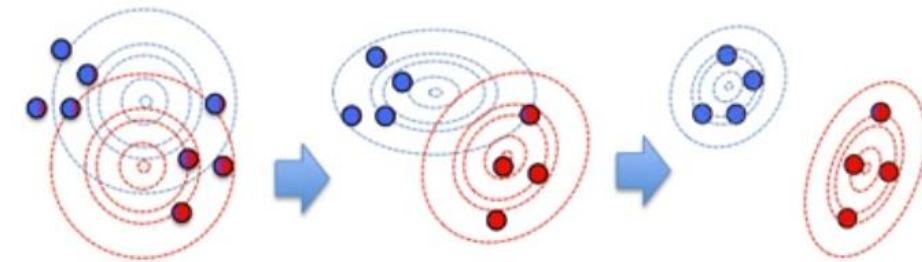
<https://www.displayr.com/what-is-hierarchical-clustering/>

<https://towardsdatascience.com/gaussian-mixture-models-d13a5e915c8e>

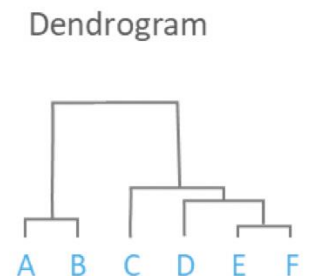
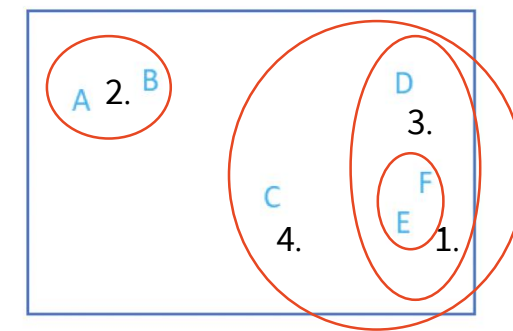
- Unsupervised, finding similarities in data
- basic algorithms

- **k-means:** assign into k clusters randomly, iterate:
 - compute means (centroids)
 - reassign to nearest centroid
- **Gaussian mixture:** similar, but soft & variance
 - clusters = multivariate Gaussian distributions
 - estimating probabilities of belonging to each cluster
 - cluster mean/variance based on data weighted by probabilities

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9YA2t78Ha68>



- **hierarchical** (bottom up):
start with one cluster per instance, iterate:
 - merge 2 closest clusters
 - end when you have k clusters / distance is too big
- hierarchical top-down (reversed \rightarrow)



- distance metrics & features decide what ends up together

Summary

- ML as a function mapping in \rightarrow out
- Neural networks (function shapes)
 - CNNs, RNNs, encoder-decoder (seq2seq), attention, Transformer
 - input representation: embeddings (+ pretrained, + contextual/LMs: BERT et al.)
- Supervised training
 - cost function
 - gradient descent + learning rate tricks
 - dropout
- Reinforcement learning (more to come later)
- Unsupervised learning
 - autoencoders, variational autoencoders
 - generative adversarial nets
 - clustering

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Troja N231/N233 (by agreement)

Labs in 10 mins
Next Tuesday 9:50am

Get the slides here:

<http://ufal.cz/npfl099>

References/Further:

Goodfellow et al. (2016): Deep Learning, MIT Press (<http://www.deeplearningbook.org>)

Kim et al. (2018): Tutorial on Deep Latent Variable Models of Natural Language

(<http://arxiv.org/abs/1812.06834>)

Milan Straka's Deep Learning slides: <http://ufal.mff.cuni.cz/courses/npfl114/1819-summer>

Neural nets tutorials:

- <https://codelabs.developers.google.com/codelabs/cloud-tensorflow-mnist/#0>
- <https://minitorch.github.io/index.html>
- <https://objax.readthedocs.io/en/latest/>