Word Vectors; Gradient Descent

LING 575j: Deep Learning for NLP C.M. Downey Spring 2023

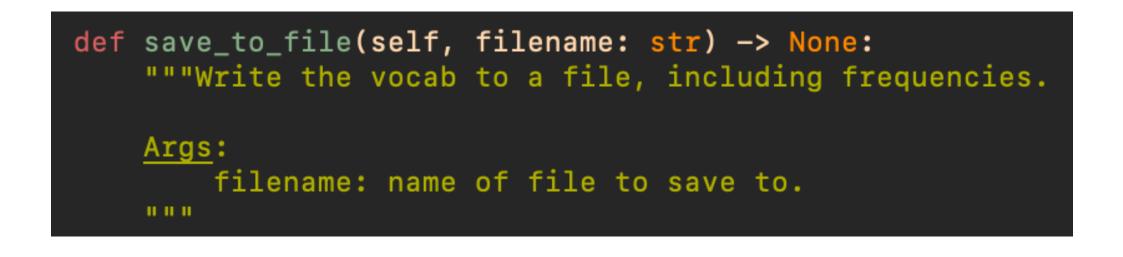






Announcements

- max_size: not including special tokens like <unk> (cf lines 43-44 in vocabulary.py)
- Python 3.9:
 - The code makes heavy use of type hinting
 - Improves readability / future-proofing
 - Works well with code completers, static type checkers like <u>mypy</u>
 - Including native type hinting for many data structures, which is new to 3.9
 - So be sure to run in the environment we provide, which includes 3.9







Announcements

- Developing locally:
 - Download `requirements.txt` from our dropbox
 - `conda create name 575j python=3.9`
 - `conda activate 575j`
 - `pip install -r requirements.txt`
 - patas

• This should give you a local environment that matches the one we provide on



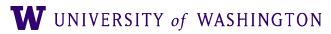




Today's Plan

Word Vectors

- Machine Learning Terminology / Notation
- Gradient Descent







Word Vectors, Intro







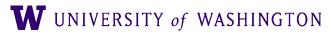
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 - Everybody likes tezgüino.







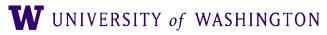
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 - Everybody likes *tezgüino*.
 - *Tezgüino* makes you drunk.
 - We make *tezgüino* from corn.
- Tezquino; corn-based alcoholic beverage. (From Lin, 1998a)







• How can we represent the "company" of a word?







- How can we represent the "company" of a word?
- How can we make similar words have similar representations?







Why use word vectors?

- With words, a feature is a word identity
 - Feature 5: 'The previous word was "terrible"
 - requires exact same word to be in training and test
 - One-hot vectors:
 - "terrible": [0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 ... 0]
 - Length = size of vocabulary
 - All words are as different from each other
 - e.g. "terrible" is as different from "bad" as from "awesome"







Why use word vectors?

- With embeddings (= vectors):
 - Feature is a word vector
 - "The previous word was vector [35,22,17, ...]"
 - Now in the test set we might see a similar vector [34,21,14, ...]
 - We can generalize to similar but unseen words!









- A vector is a list of numbers
- Each number can be thought of as representing a "dimension"



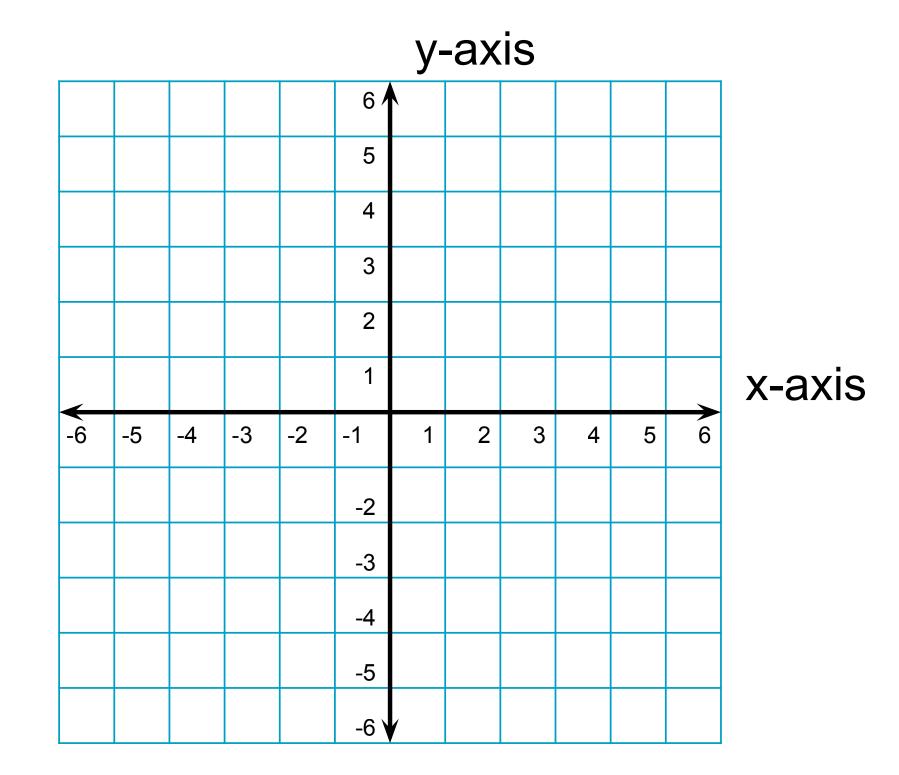








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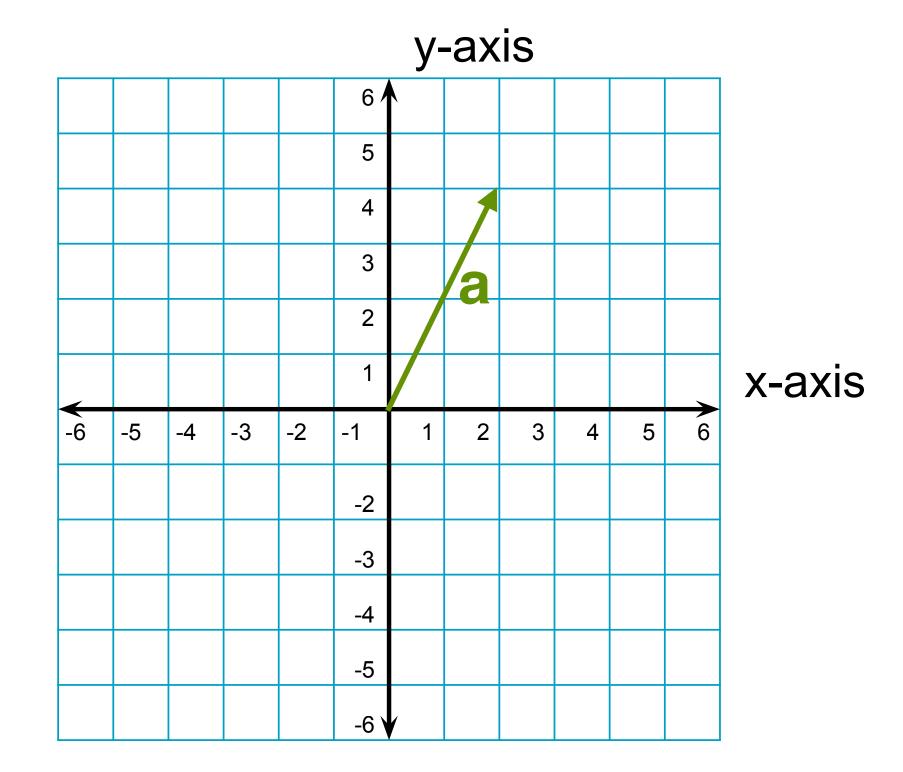








- A vector is a list of numbers
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 - $\vec{a} = \langle 2, 4 \rangle$



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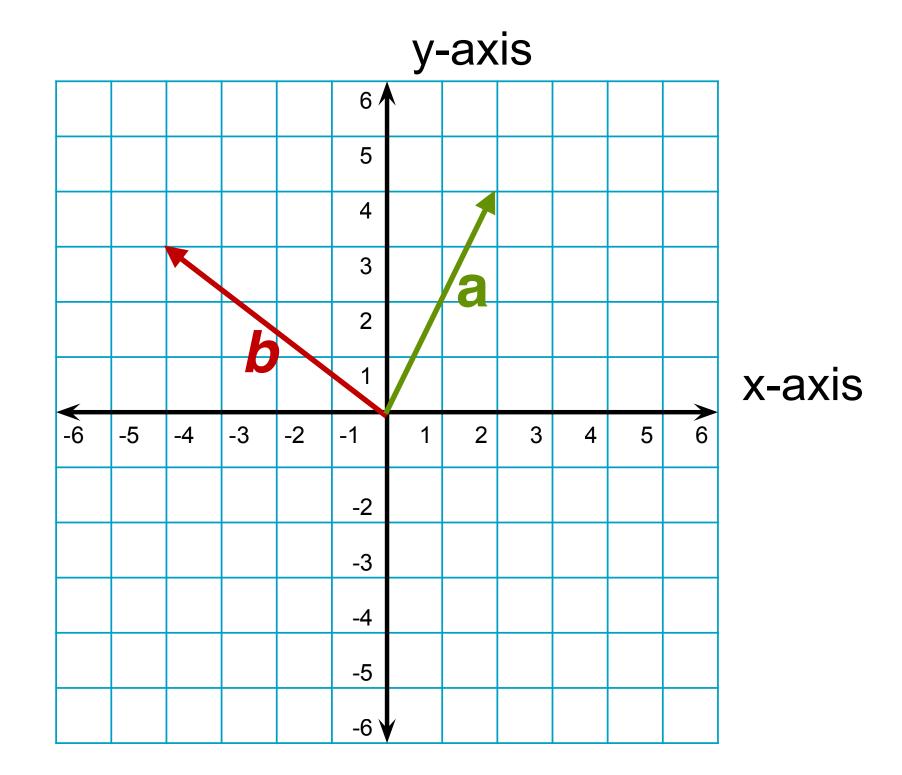








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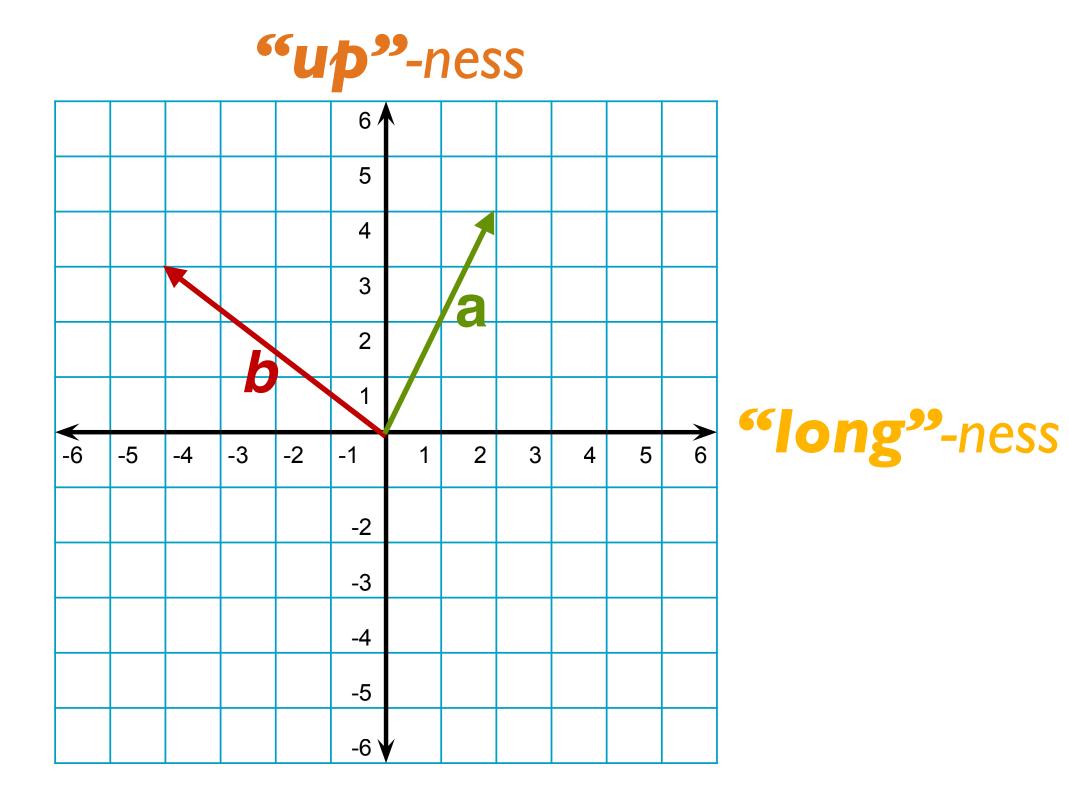








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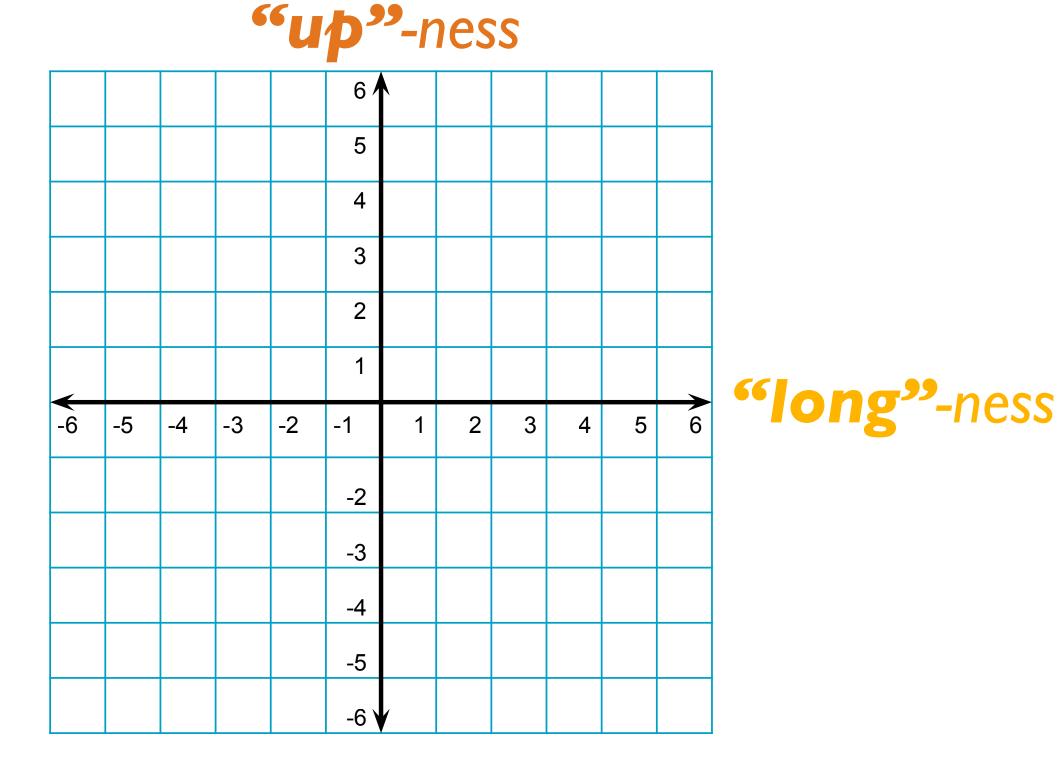


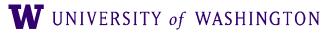


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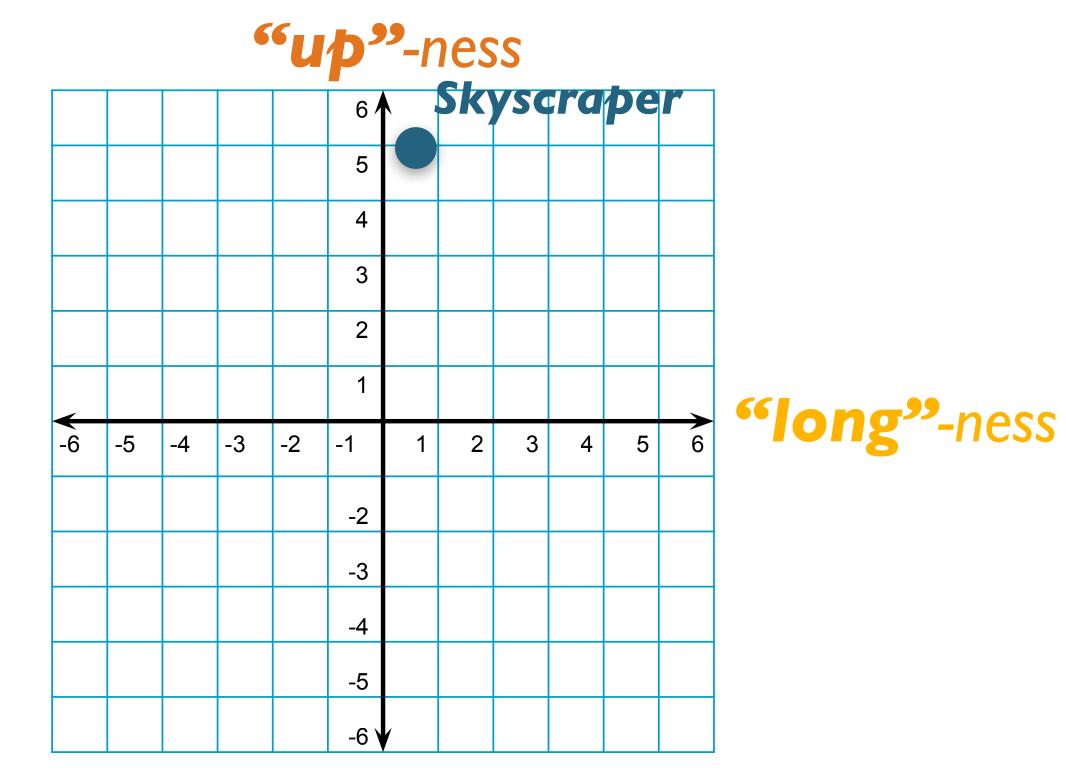








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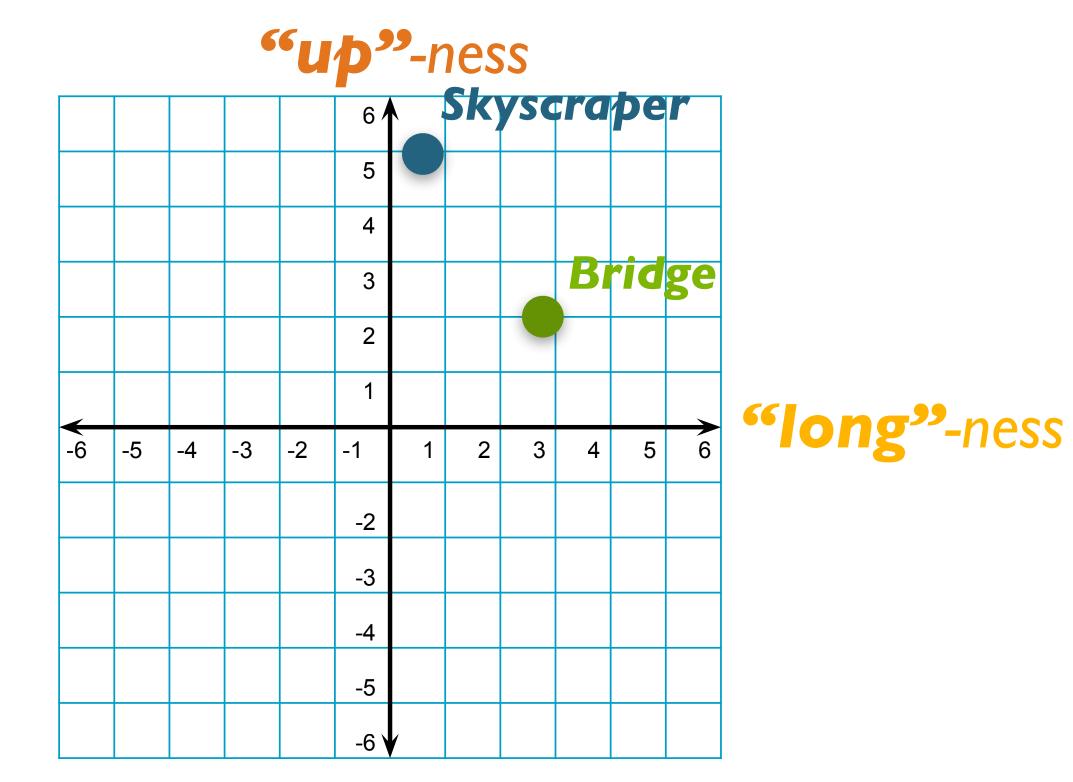








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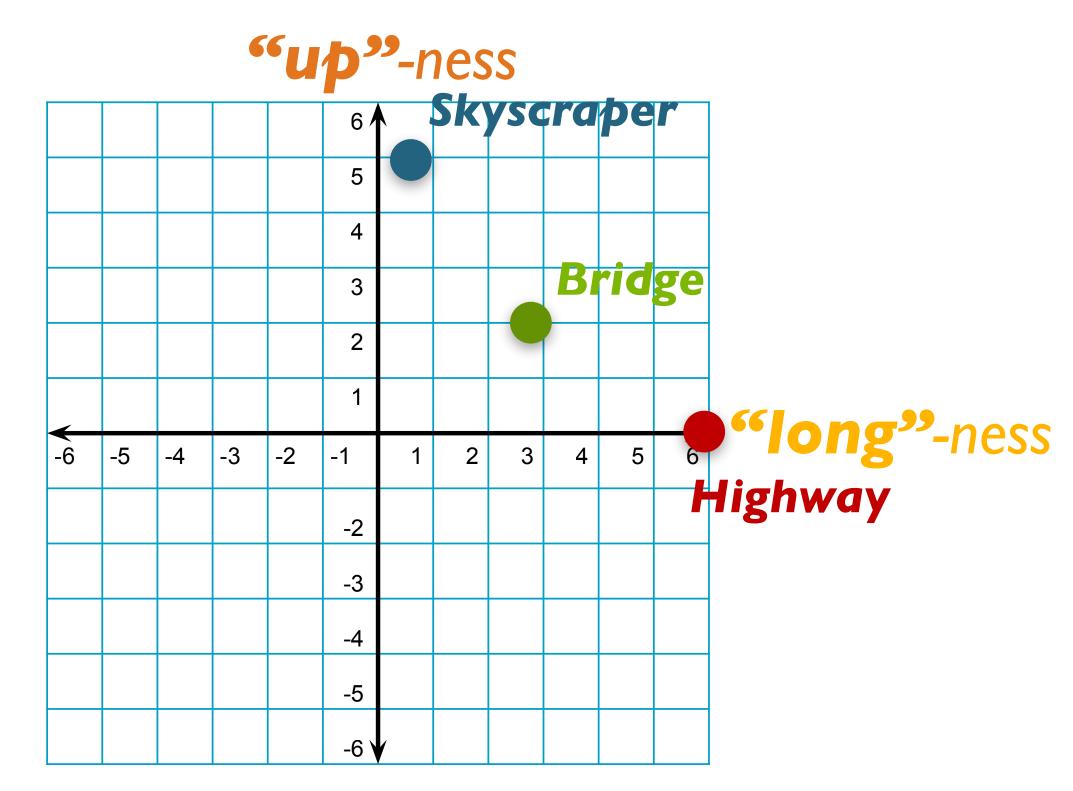








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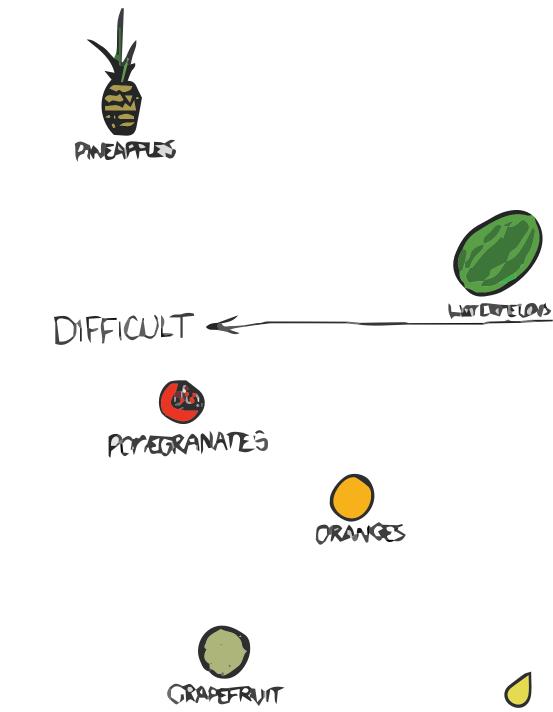


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TASTY PEACHES SEELED GRAPES STRA REARIES SEEDLESS BLUEBERRIES (HERRIES FEARS PLLINS GREEN -> EASY RED BANANAS TOMATCES LEMOUS V UNTASTY

xkcd.com/388











• A vector's length is equal to the square root of the dot product with itself

$\operatorname{length}(x) = \|x\| = \sqrt{x} \cdot x$

Vector Length







Vector Distances: Manhattan & Euclidean

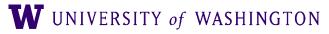
• Manhattan Distance

• (Distance as cumulative horizontal + vertical moves)

• Euclidean Distance

• Both are too sensitive to extreme values

$$d_{\text{manhattan}}(x, y) = \sum_{i} |x_{i} - y_{i}|$$
$$d_{\text{euclidian}}(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i} (x_{i} - y_{i})^{2}}$$







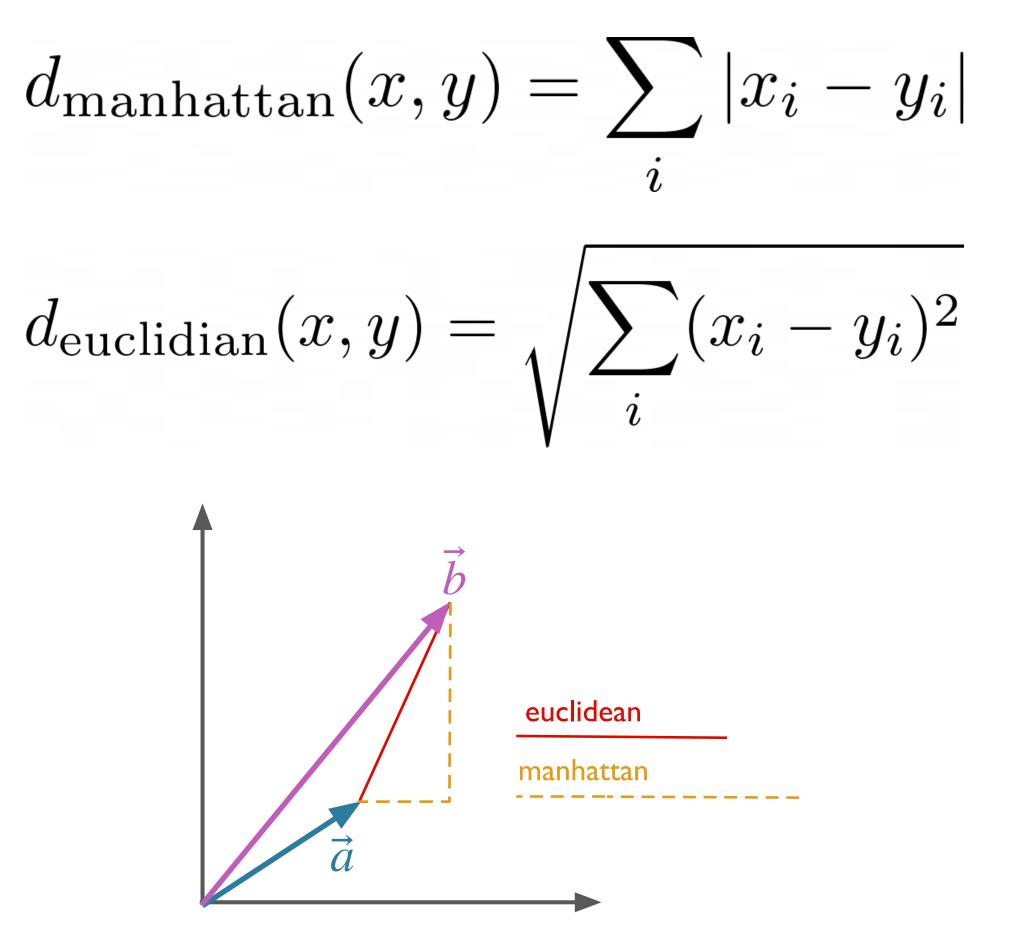
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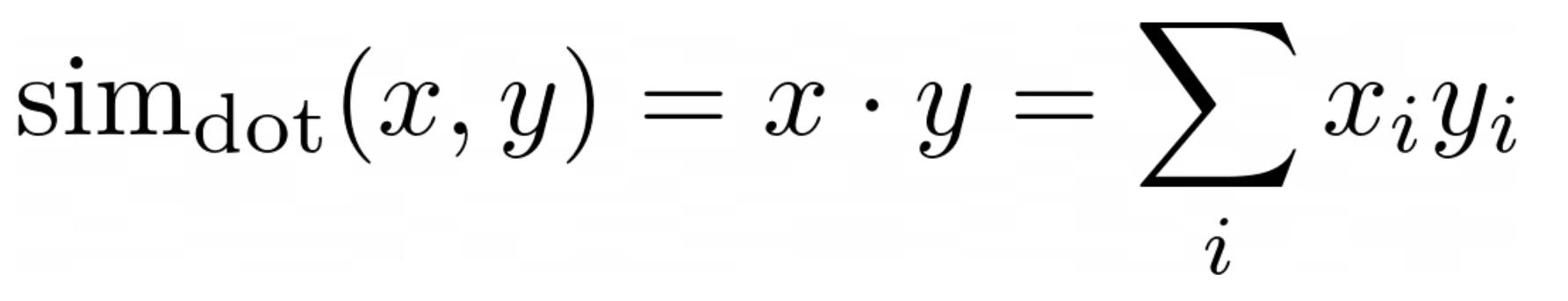
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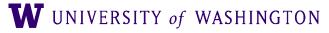




Vector Similarity: Dot Product

- Produces real number scalar from product of vectors' components
- Gives higher similarity to longer vectors





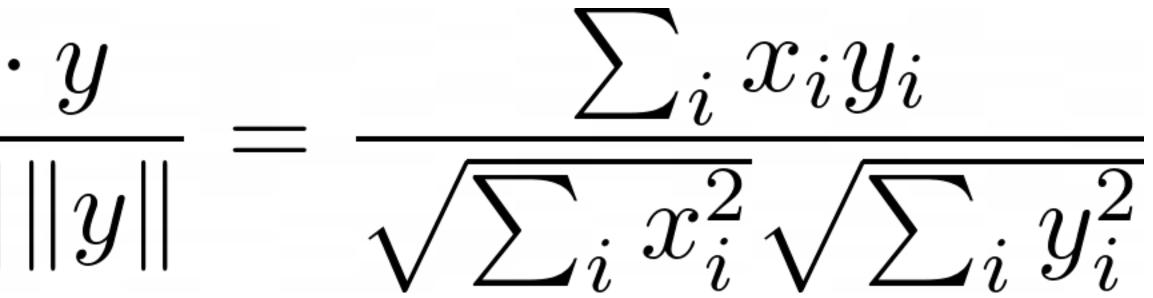




Vector Similarity: Cosine

- If you normalize the dot product for vector magnitude...
- ...result is same as cosine of angle between the vectors

 $\operatorname{sim}_{\operatorname{cosine}}(x, y) = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \|y\|}$

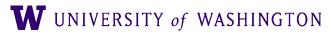








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- Word represented by context feature vector
 - Many alternatives for vector









- Represent 'company' of word such that similar words will have similar representations
 - 'Company' = context
- Word represented by context feature vector
 - Many alternatives for vector
- Initial representation:
 - 'Bag of words' feature vector
 - Feature vector length N, where N is size of vocabulary
 - $f_i + = 1$ if word_i within window size w of word

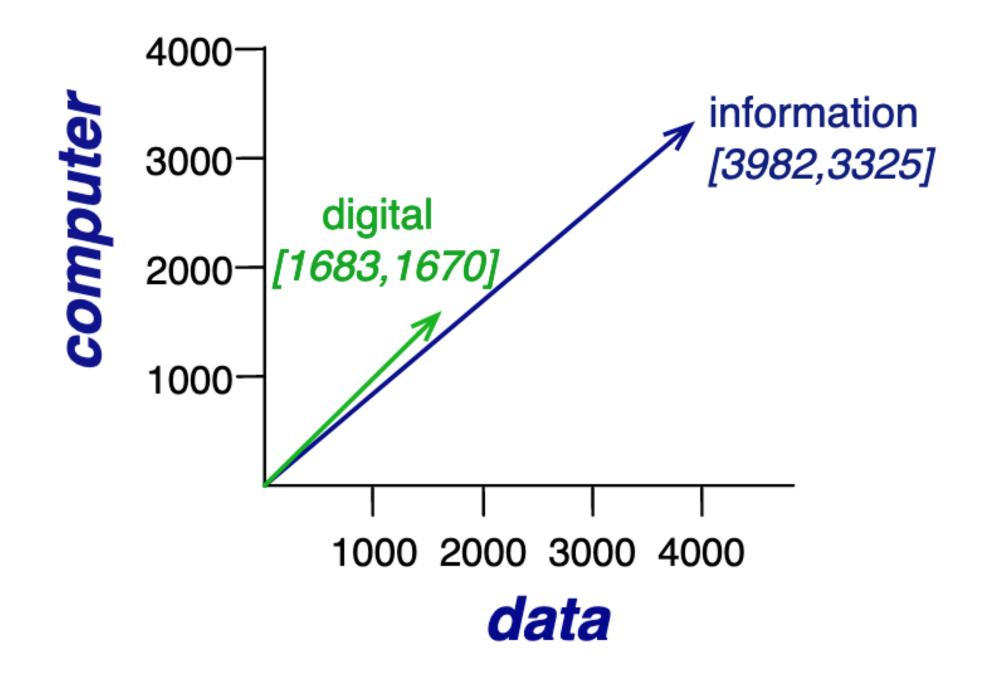








	aardvark	•••	computer	data	result	pie	sugar	•••
cherry	0		2	8	9	442	25	
strawberry	0	•••	0	0	1	60	19	•••
digital	0		1670	1683	85	5	4	
information	0		3325	3982	378	5	13	•••





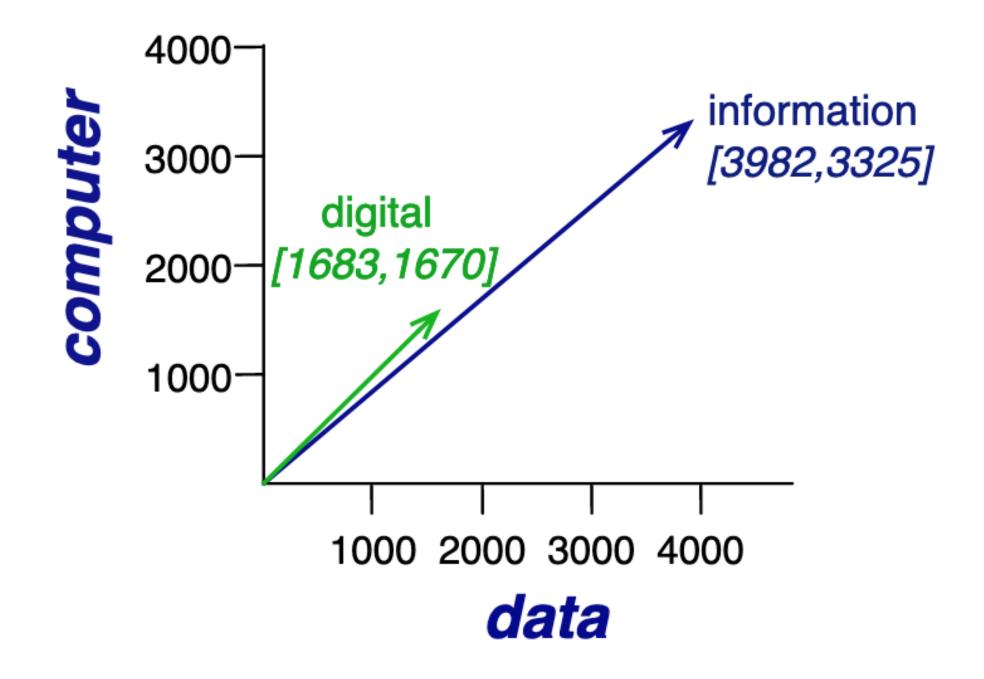




- Usually re-weighted, with e.g. tf-idt ppmi
- Still sparse
- Very high-dimensional: IVI

Т	Γ.	
		2

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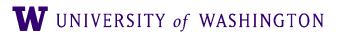




Gradient Descent











- Given: a dataset $D = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
 - $x_i \in X$: input for i-th example
 - $y_i \in Y$: output for i-th example





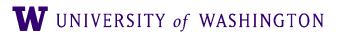


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 - $x_i \in X$: input for i-th example
 - $y_i \in Y$: output for i-th example
- For example:
 - Sentiment analysis:
 - Input: bag of words representation of "This movie was great."
 - Output: 4 [on a scale 1-5]
 - Language modeling:
 - Input: "This movie was"
 - Output: "great"

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 - $x_i \in X$: input for i-th example
 - $y_i \in Y$: output for i-th example
- Goal: learn a function $f: X \to Y$ which:
 - "Does well" on the given data D
 - Generalizes well to unseen data

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Parameterized Functions

- A learning algorithm searches for a function f amongst a space of possible functions
- Parameters define a family of functions
 - θ : general symbol for parameters
 - $\hat{y} = f(x; \theta)$: input x, parameters θ ; model/function output \hat{y}
- Example: the family of linear functions f(x) = mx + b
 - $\theta = \{m, b\}$
- Later: neural network architecture defines the family of functions









Loss Minimization

- General form of optimization problem
- $\mathscr{L}(\hat{Y}, Y)$: loss function ("objective function");
 - How "close" are the model's outputs to the true outputs
 - $\ell(\hat{y}, y)$: local (per-instance) loss, averaged over training instances
 - More later: depends on the particular task, among other things
- View the loss as a function of the model's parameters

$$\mathscr{L}(\theta) := \mathscr{L}(\hat{Y},$$

$$\mathscr{L}(\hat{Y}, Y) = \frac{1}{|Y|} \sum_{i} \mathscr{L}(\hat{y}(x_i), y_i)$$

$Y) = \mathscr{L}(f(X; \theta), Y)$





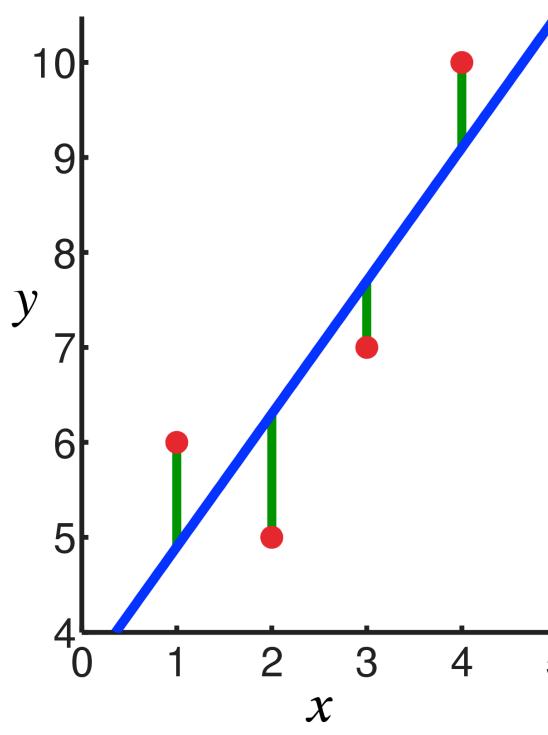
Loss Minimization

• The optimization problem:

$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \mathscr{L}(\theta)$

• Example: (least-squares) linear regression • $\ell(\hat{y}, y) = (\hat{y} - y)^2$

$$m^*, b^* = \arg\min_{m,b} \sum_{i} ((mx_i + b) - y_i)^2$$



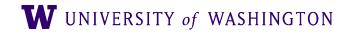
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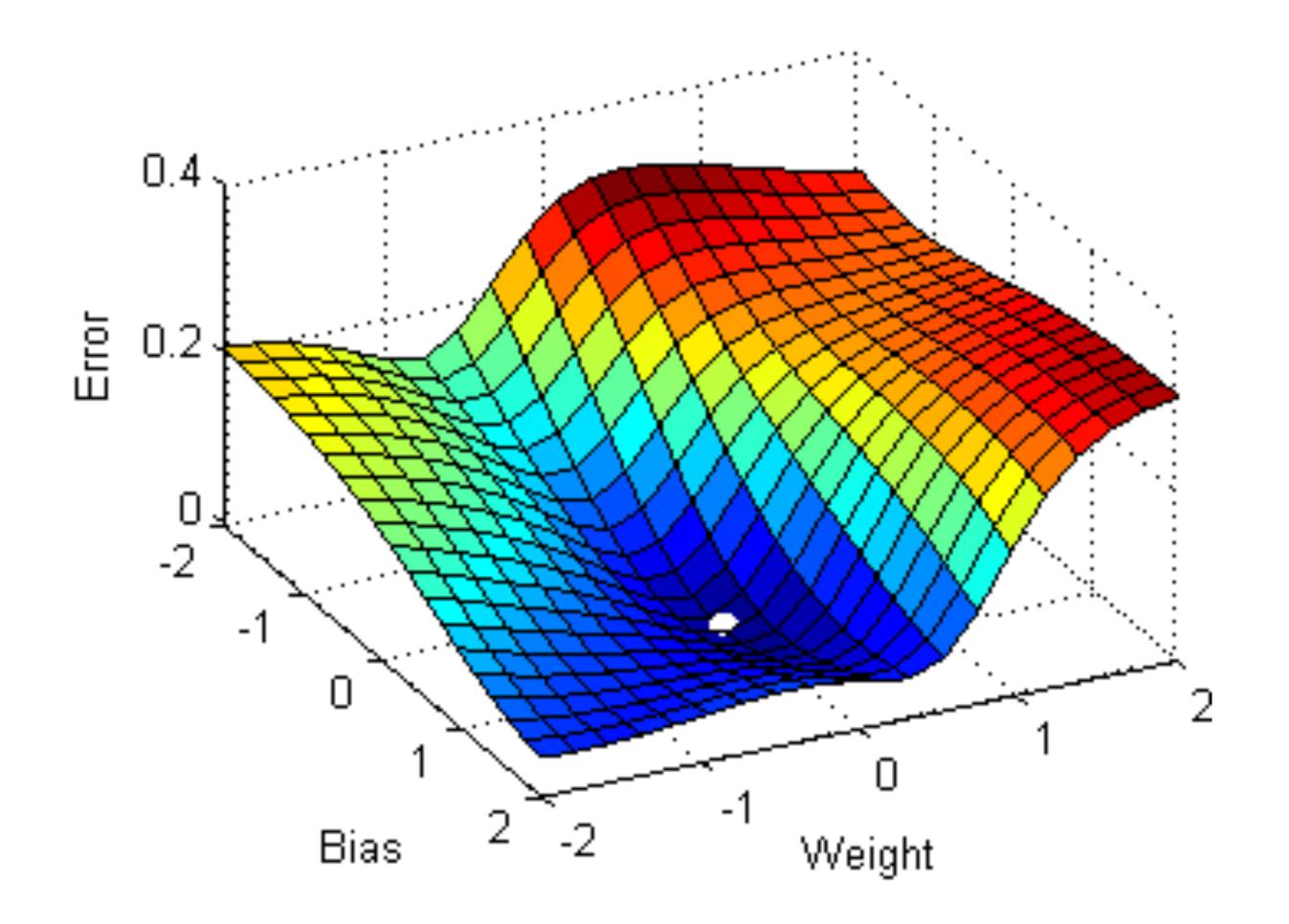


Learning: (Stochastic) Gradient Descent





Gradient Descent: Basic Idea

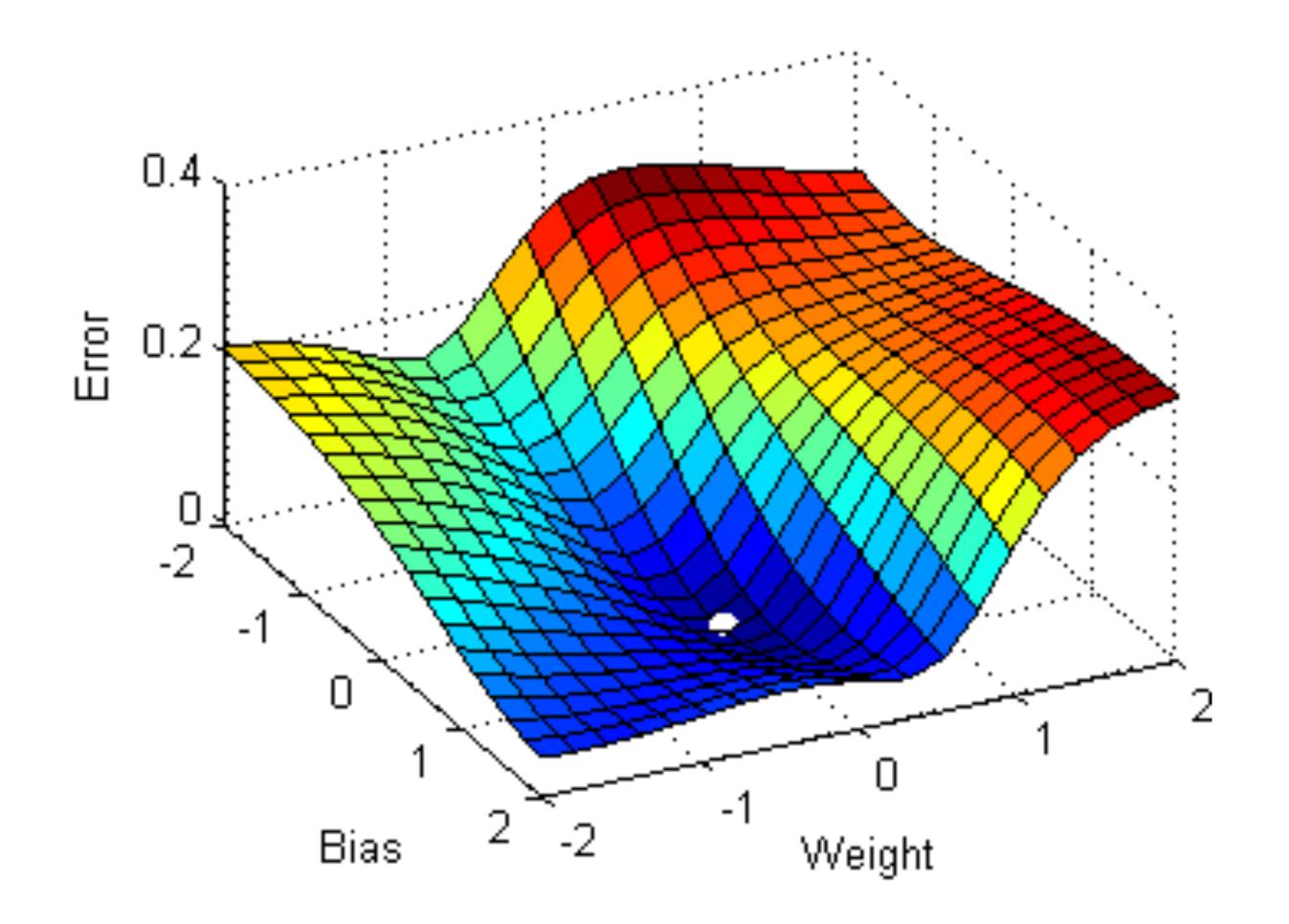








Gradient Descent: Basic Idea









Gradient Descent: Basic Idea

- The gradient of the loss w/r/t parameters tells which direction in parameter space to "walk" to make the loss smaller (i.e. to improve model outputs)
- Guaranteed to work in linear model case
 - Can get stuck in local minima for non-linear functions, like NNs
 - More precisely: if loss is a *convex* function of the parameters, gradient descent is guaranteed to find an optimal solution. For non-linear functions, the loss will generally *not* be convex.





Derivatives

output changes with respect to a change in the input variable

• The derivative of a function of one real variable measures how much the









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output changes with respect to a change in the input variable

$$f(x) = x^2 + 35x + 12$$
$$\frac{df}{dx} = 2x + 35$$

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Derivatives

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$$\frac{f(x) = e^x}{dx} = e^x$$









with respect one of those variables, with the others held constant.







with respect one of those variables, with the others held constant.

 $f(x, y) = 10x^3y^2 + 5xy^3 + 4x + y$







with respect one of those variables, with the others held constant.

$$f(x, y) = 10x^3y^2 + 5xy^3 + 4x + y$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 30x^2y^2 + 5y^3 + 4$$







with respect one of those variables, with the others held constant.

$$f(x, y) = 10x^{3}y^{2} + 5xy^{3} + 4x + y$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 30x^{2}y^{2} + 5y^{3} + 4$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 20x^{3}y + 15xy^{2} + 1$$





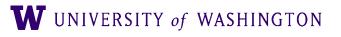








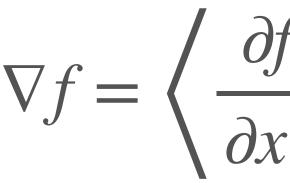
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 $\nabla f = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right\rangle$ $f(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2$ $\nabla f = \langle 8x, 2y \rangle$







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> $\nabla f = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \right\rangle$ f(x, y) ∇f

• The gradient is perpendicular to the *level curve* at a point

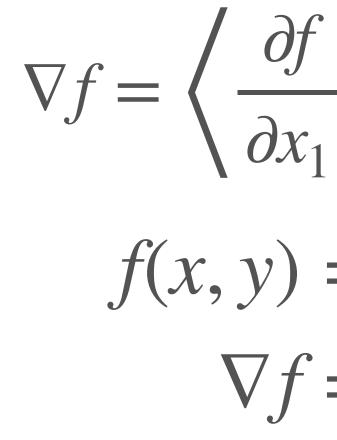
$$f_{1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{2}}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n}} / \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n}} /$$







derivatives



- The gradient is perpendicular to the *level curve* at a point
- The gradient points in the direction of greatest rate of increase of f

Gradient

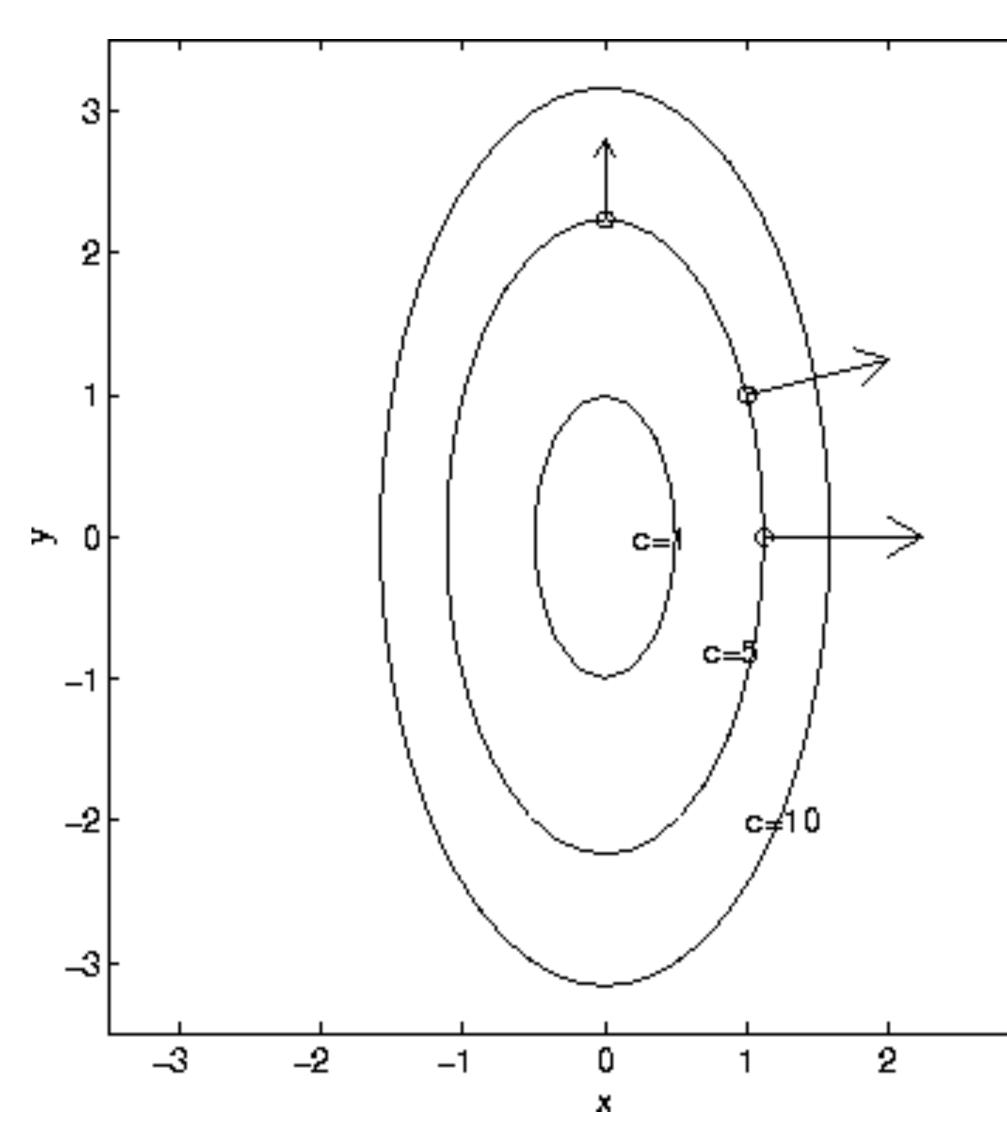
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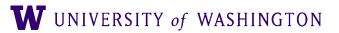








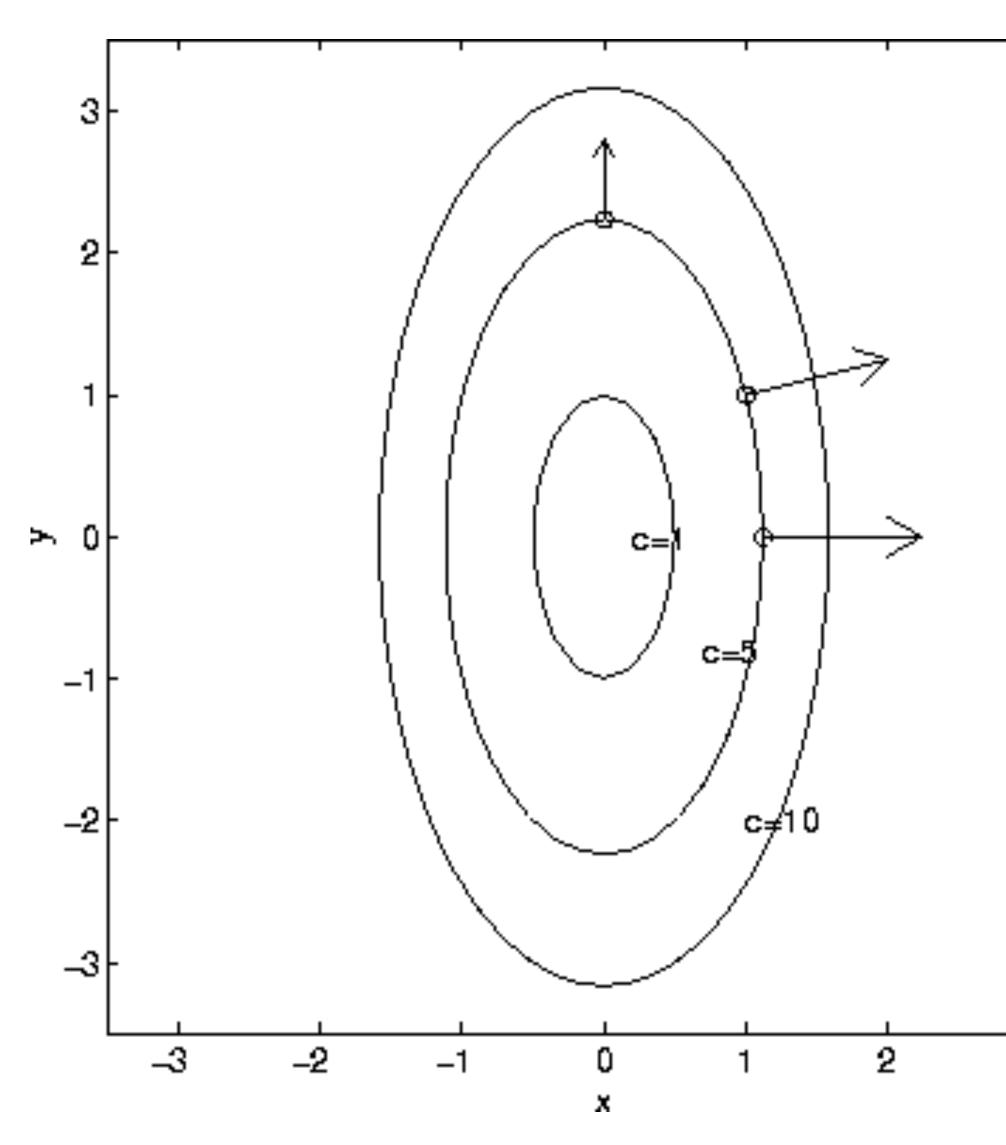
Level curves: f(x, y) = c



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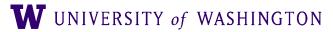






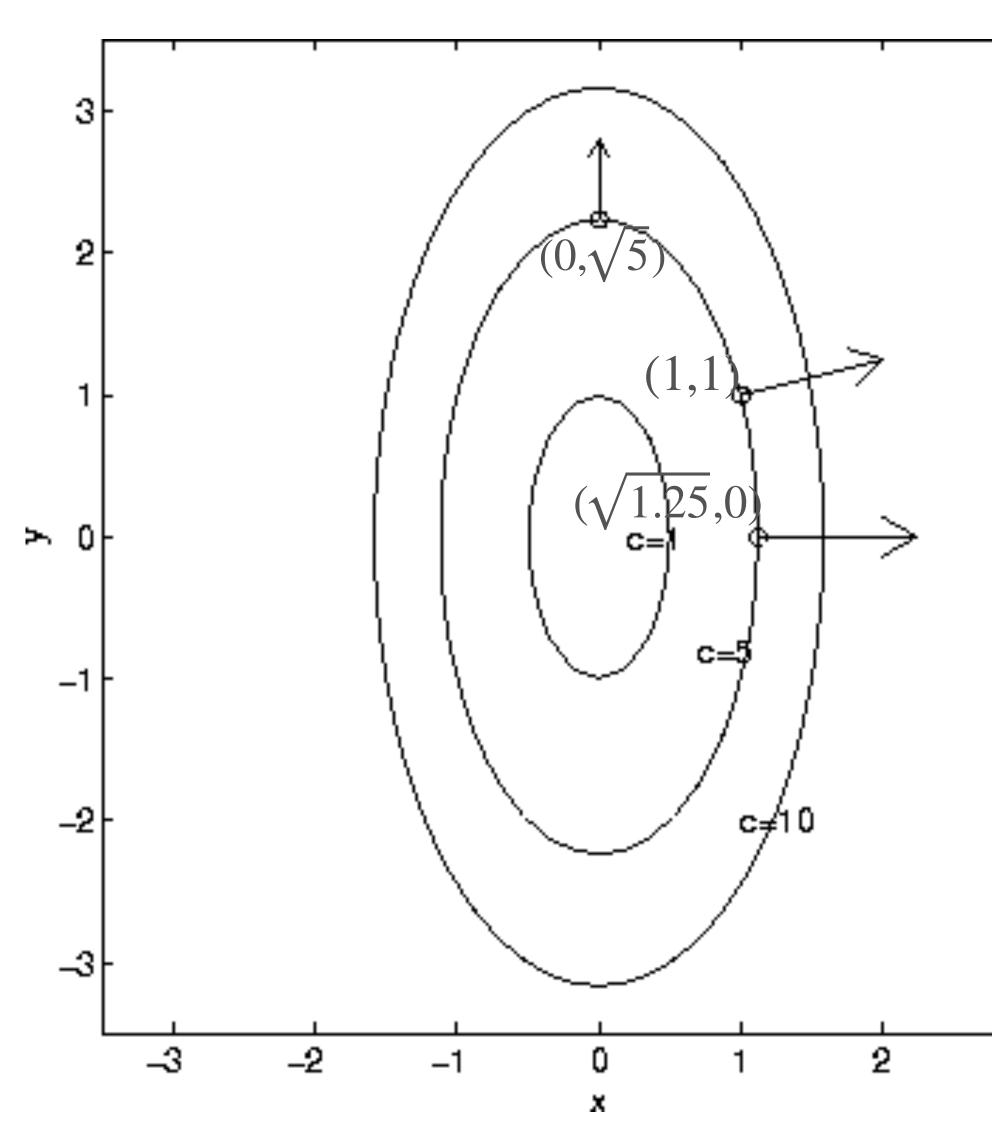
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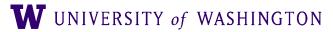






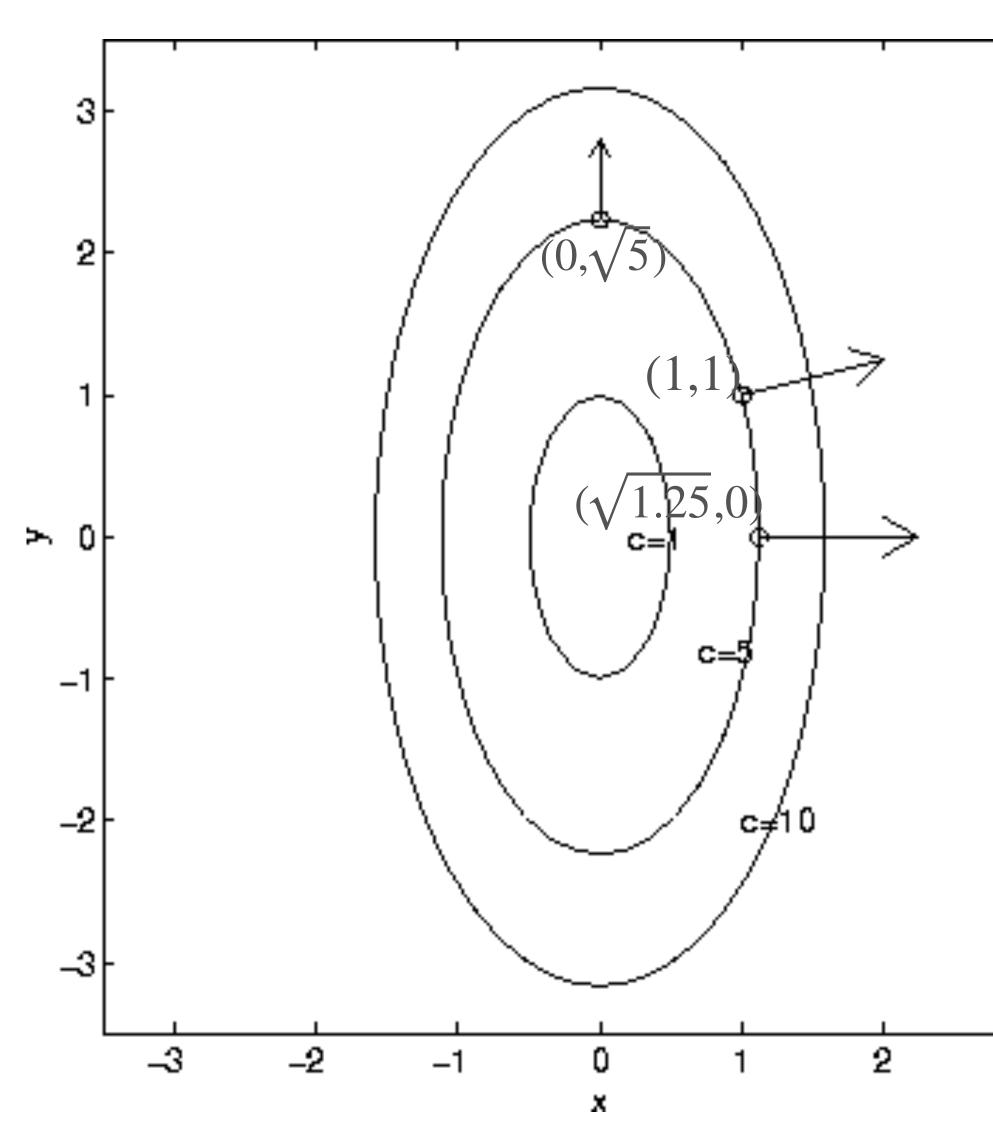
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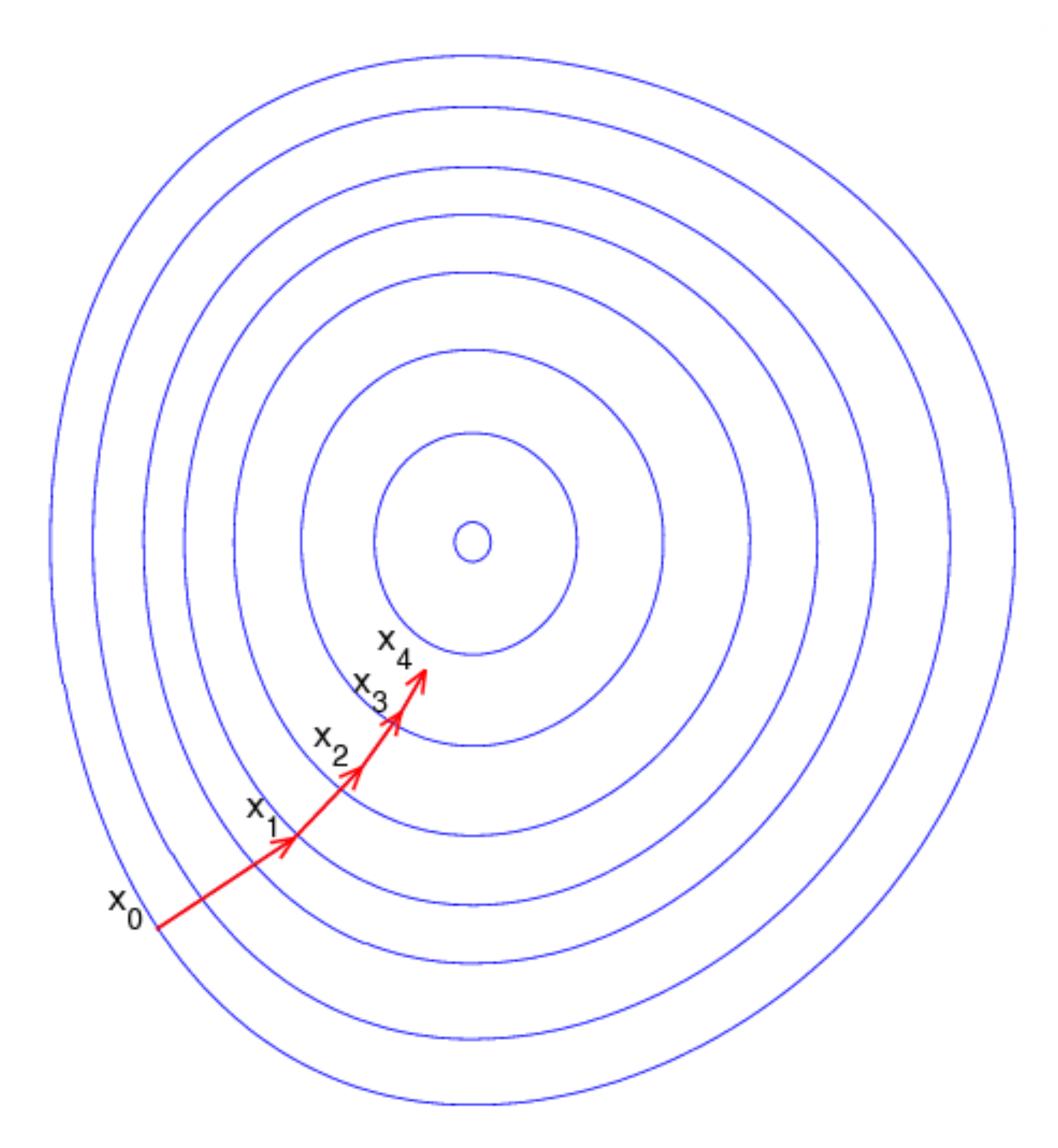
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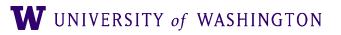
Q: what are the actual gradients at those points?





Gradient Descent and Level Curves







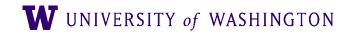




Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Initialize θ_0
- Repeat until convergence:

$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \alpha \nabla \mathscr{L}(\hat{Y}(\theta_n), Y)$





Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Initialize θ_0
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$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \alpha \nabla \mathscr{L}(\hat{Y}(\theta_n), Y)$ Learning rate





Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Initialize θ_0
- Repeat until convergence:

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n - \theta_n -$$

- High learning rate: big steps, may bounce and "overshoot" the target
- Low learning rate: small steps, smoother minimization of loss, but can be slow

$-\alpha \nabla \mathscr{L}(\hat{Y}(\theta_n), Y)$ Learning rate





Gradient Descent: Minimal Example

- Task: predict a target/true value y = 2
- "Model": $\hat{y}(\theta) = \theta$

• A single parameter: the actual guess

• Loss: Euclidean distance

$\mathscr{L}(\hat{y}(\theta), y) = (\hat{y} - y)^2 = (\theta - y)^2$



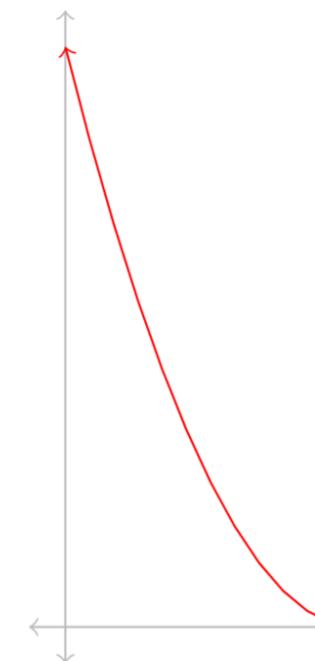




Gradient Descent: Minimal Example

 $\mathcal{L}(\theta, 2)$

A

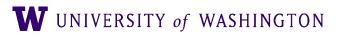


$$egin{aligned} &rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \mathcal{L}(heta, y) = 2(heta - y) \ & heta heta = heta_t - lpha \cdot rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \mathcal{L}(heta, y) \end{aligned}$$

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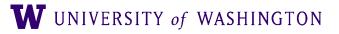








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 - Updates once per pass through the dataset
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 - Mini-batch of size 1 = single example = stochastic gradient descent
 - A *noisy estimate* of the true gradient, but works well in practice; more parameter updates
- Epoch: one pass through the whole training data







initialize parameters / build model

for each epoch:

data = shuffle(data) batches = make batches(data)

for each batch in batches:

outputs = model(batch) loss = loss fn(outputs, true outputs) compute gradients update parameters







Next Time

- Skip-Gram with Negative Sampling
 - How optimization framework applies to this problem
- Introduction of two tasks that we will use throughout the class
 - Language modeling
 - Text classification [sentiment analysis]





