

# CSC321 Lecture 16: Learning Long-Term Dependencies

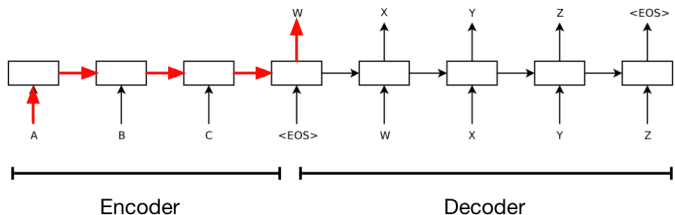
Roger Grosse

# Overview

- Yesterday, we saw how to compute the gradient descent update for an RNN using backprop through time.
- The updates are mathematically correct, but unless we're very careful, gradient descent completely fails because the gradients explode or vanish.
- The problem is, it's hard to learn dependencies over long time windows.
- Today's lecture is about what causes exploding and vanishing gradients, and how to deal with them. Or, equivalently, how to learn long-term dependencies.

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

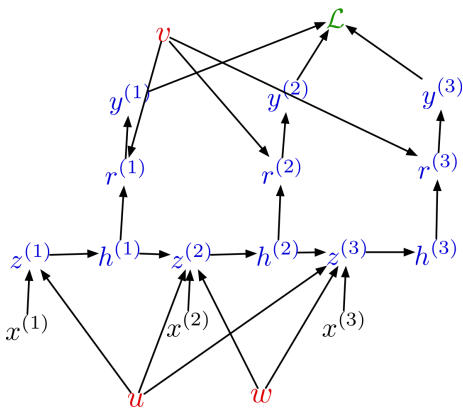
- Recall the RNN for machine translation. It reads an entire English sentence, and then has to output its French translation.



- A typical sentence length is 20 words. This means there's a gap of 20 time steps between when it sees information and when it needs it.
- The derivatives need to travel over this entire pathway.

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

Recall: backprop through time



**Activations:**

$$\bar{\mathcal{L}} = 1$$

$$\overline{y^{(t)}} = \bar{\mathcal{L}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial y^{(t)}}$$

$$\overline{r^{(t)}} = \overline{y^{(t)}} \phi'(r^{(t)})$$

$$\overline{h^{(t)}} = \overline{r^{(t)}} v + \overline{z^{(t+1)}} w$$

$$\overline{z^{(t)}} = \overline{h^{(t)}} \phi'(z^{(t)})$$

**Parameters:**

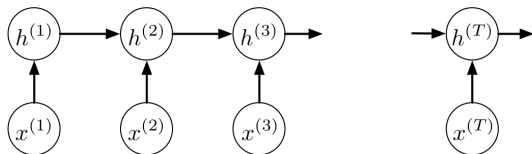
$$\bar{u} = \sum_t \overline{z^{(t)}} x^{(t)}$$

$$\bar{v} = \sum_t \overline{r^{(t)}} h^{(t)}$$

$$\bar{w} = \sum_t \overline{z^{(t+1)}} h^{(t)}$$

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

Consider a univariate version of the encoder network:



**Backprop updates:**

$$\overline{h^{(t)}} = \overline{z^{(t+1)}} w$$

$$\overline{z^{(t)}} = \overline{h^{(t)}} \phi'(z^{(t)})$$

**Applying this recursively:**

$$\overline{h^{(1)}} = \underbrace{w^{T-1} \phi'(z^{(2)}) \cdots \phi'(z^{(T)})}_{\text{the Jacobian } \partial h^{(T)} / \partial h^{(1)}} \overline{h^{(T)}}$$

**With linear activations:**

$$\partial h^{(T)} / \partial h^{(1)} = w^{T-1}$$

**Exploding:**

$$w = 1.1, T = 50 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial h^{(T)}}{\partial h^{(1)}} = 117.4$$

**Vanishing:**

$$w = 0.9, T = 50 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial h^{(T)}}{\partial h^{(1)}} = 0.00515$$

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

- More generally, in the multivariate case, the Jacobians multiply:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(T)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(T)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(T-1)}} \cdots \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(2)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}}$$

- Matrices can explode or vanish just like scalar values, though it's slightly harder to make precise.
- Contrast this with the forward pass:
  - The forward pass has nonlinear activation functions which squash the activations, preventing them from blowing up.
  - The backward pass is linear, so it's hard to keep things stable. There's a thin line between exploding and vanishing.

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

- We just looked at exploding/vanishing gradients in terms of the mechanics of backprop. Now let's think about it conceptually.
- The Jacobian  $\partial \mathbf{h}^{(T)} / \partial \mathbf{h}^{(1)}$  means, how much does  $h^{(T)}$  change when you change  $\mathbf{h}^{(1)}$ ?
- Each hidden layer computes some function of the previous hidden and the current input:

$$\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = f(\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(t)})$$

- This function gets iterated:

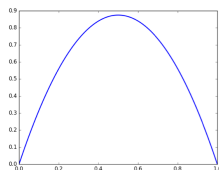
$$\mathbf{h}^{(4)} = f(f(f(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}), \mathbf{x}^{(3)}), \mathbf{x}^{(4)}).$$

- Let's study iterated functions as a way of understanding what RNNs are computing.

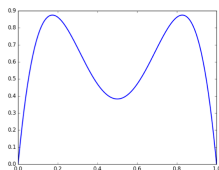
# Iterated Functions

- Iterated functions are complicated. Consider:

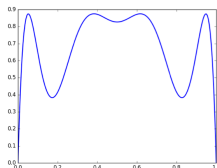
$$f(x) = 3.5x(1 - x)$$



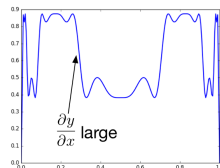
$y = f(x)$



$y = f(f(x))$



$y = f(f(f(x)))$



$y = \underbrace{f \circ \dots \circ f}_6(x)$



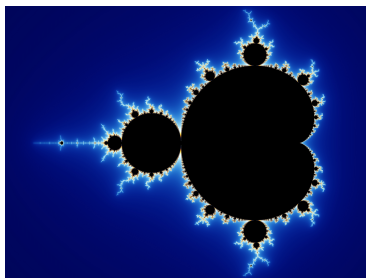
# Iterated Functions

## An aside:

- Remember the Mandelbrot set? That's based on an iterated quadratic map over the complex plane:

$$z_n = z_{n-1}^2 + c$$

- The set consists of the values of  $c$  for which the iterates stay bounded.



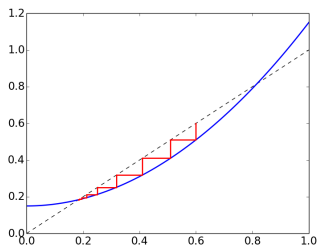
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# Iterated Functions

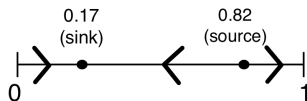
Consider the following iterated function:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t^2 + 0.15.$$

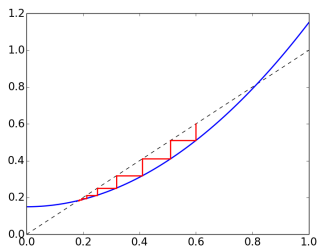
We can determine the behavior of repeated iterations visually:



The behavior of the system can be summarized with a **phase plot**:



# Iterated Functions

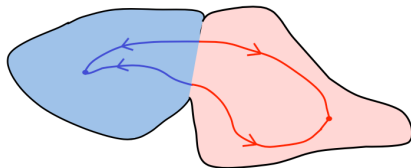


Some observations:

- Fixed points of  $f$  correspond to points where  $f$  crosses the line  $x_{t+1} = x_t$ .
- Fixed points with  $f'(x_t) > 1$  correspond to sources.
- Fixed points with  $f'(x_t) < 1$  correspond to sinks.

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

- Let's imagine an RNN's behavior as a dynamical system, which has various attractors:

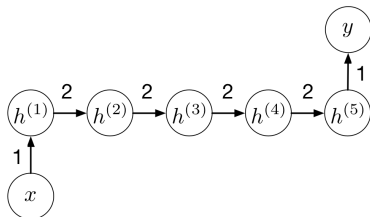


– Geoffrey Hinton, Coursera

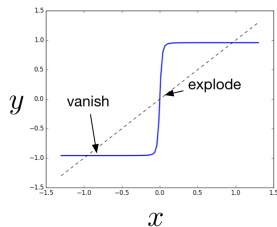
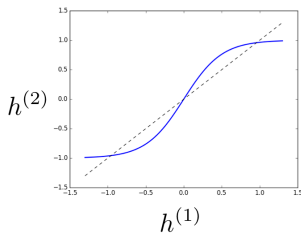
- Within one of the colored regions, the gradients vanish because even if you move a little, you still wind up at the same attractor.
- If you're on the boundary, the gradient blows up because moving slightly moves you from one attractor to the other.

# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

- Consider an RNN with tanh activation function:

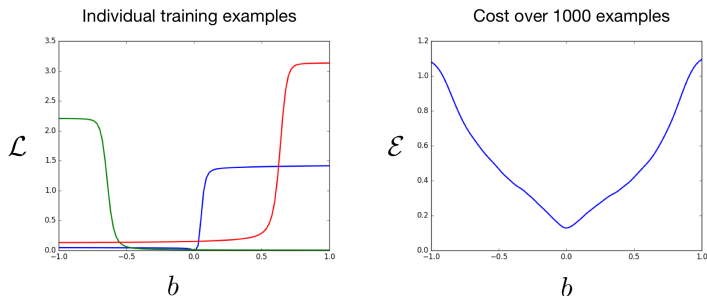


- The function computed by the network:



# Why Gradients Explode or Vanish

- Cliffs make it hard to estimate the true cost gradient. Here are the loss and cost functions with respect to the bias parameter for the hidden units:



- Generally, the gradients will explode on some inputs and vanish on others. In expectation, the cost may be fairly smooth.

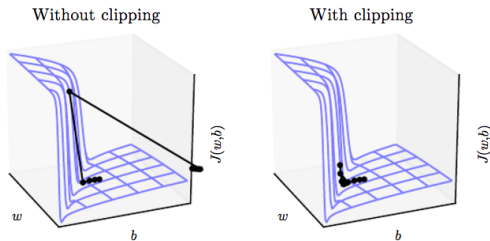
# Keeping Things Stable

- One simple solution: **gradient clipping**
- Clip the gradient  $\mathbf{g}$  so that it has a norm of at most  $\eta$ :

if  $\|\mathbf{g}\| > \eta$ :

$$\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \frac{\eta \mathbf{g}}{\|\mathbf{g}\|}$$

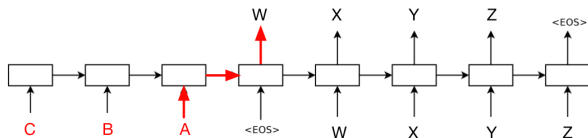
- The gradients are biased, but at least they don't blow up.



— Goodfellow et al., *Deep Learning*

# Keeping Things Stable

- Another trick: reverse the input sequence.



- This way, there's only one time step between the first word of the input and the first word of the output.
- The network can first learn short-term dependencies between early words in the sentence, and then long-term dependencies between later words.



# Keeping Things Stable

- Really, we're better off redesigning the architecture, since the exploding/vanishing problem highlights a conceptual problem with vanilla RNNs.
- The hidden units are a kind of memory. Therefore, their default behavior should be to keep their previous value.
  - I.e., the function at each time step should be close to the identity function.
  - It's hard to implement the identity function if the activation function is nonlinear!
- If the function is close to the identity, the gradient computations are stable.
  - The Jacobians  $\partial \mathbf{h}^{(t+1)} / \partial \mathbf{h}^{(t)}$  are close to the identity matrix, so we can multiply them together and things don't blow up.

# Keeping Things Stable

- Identity RNNs
  - Use the ReLU activation function
  - Initialize all the weight matrices to the identity matrix
- Negative activations are clipped to zero, but for positive activations, units simply retain their value in the absence of inputs.
- This allows learning much longer-term dependencies than vanilla RNNs.
- It was able to learn to classify MNIST digits, input as sequence one pixel at a time!

Le et al., 2015. A simple way to initialize recurrent networks of rectified linear units.

# Long-Term Short Term Memory

- Another architecture which makes it easy to remember information over long time periods is called Long-Term Short Term Memory (LSTM)
  - What's with the name? The idea is that a network's activations are its short-term memory and its weights are its long-term memory.
  - The LSTM architecture wants the short-term memory to last for a long time period.
- It's composed of memory cells which have controllers saying when to store or forget information.



# Long-Term Short Term Memory

- In each step, we have a vector of memory cells  $\mathbf{c}$ , a vector of hidden units  $\mathbf{h}$ , and vectors of input, output, and forget gates  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{o}$ , and  $\mathbf{f}$ .
- There's a full set of connections from all the inputs and hidden units to the input and all of the gates:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{i}_t \\ \mathbf{f}_t \\ \mathbf{o}_t \\ \mathbf{g}_t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma \\ \sigma \\ \sigma \\ \tanh \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{W} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{y}_t \\ \mathbf{h}_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{c}_t = \mathbf{f}_t \circ \mathbf{c}_{t-1} + \mathbf{i}_t \circ \mathbf{g}_t$$

$$\mathbf{h}_t = \mathbf{o}_t \circ \tanh(\mathbf{c}_t)$$

- Exercise: show that if  $\mathbf{f}_{t+1} = 1$ ,  $\mathbf{i}_{t+1} = 0$ , and  $\mathbf{o}_t = 0$ , the gradients for the memory cell get passed through unmodified, i.e.

$$\overline{\mathbf{c}}_t = \overline{\mathbf{c}}_{t+1}.$$

# Long-Term Short Term Memory

- Sound complicated? ML researchers thought so, so LSTMs were hardly used for about a decade after they were proposed.
- In 2013 and 2014, researchers used them to get impressive results on challenging and important problems like speech recognition and machine translation.
- Since then, they've been one of the most widely used RNN architectures.
- There have been many attempts to simplify the architecture, but nothing was conclusively shown to be simpler and better.
- You never have to think about the complexity, since frameworks like TensorFlow provide nice black box implementations.

# Long-Term Short Term Memory

Visualizations:

<http://karpathy.github.io/2015/05/21/rnn-effectiveness/>