

ETAL 2023: École d'été en Traitement Automatique des Langues at CIRM: Centre International de Rencontres Mathématiques Luminy, Marseille, June 12-16, 2023

Conférence invitée, June 13, 2023:

Speech & Language Technology (NLP): Past, Present and Future

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This Lecture



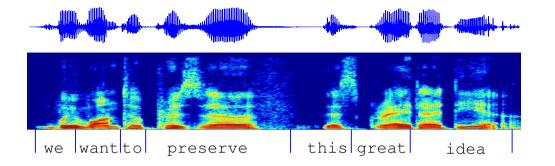
- my personal experience (1978-2023)
- my personal interpretation:
 - unifying framework: probabilistic models and Bayes decison theory
 - formal framework: mathematics (CIRM: rencontres mathématiques!)
 - deep learning is just one out of many machine learning approaches
 - experience: 'more data help'
- my personal messages:
 - success of data-driven approaches
 - NLP and AI: moving from rule-based to data-driven approaches
 - things started 40 years ago, not in 2013!
 - evolution from small to large language models





Speech & Language Technology: Sequence-to-Sequence Processing

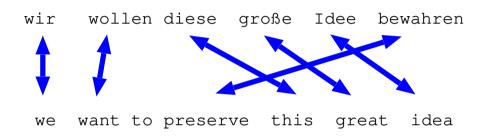
Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) (speech signal processing)



Handwriting Recognition (HWR) (text image processing)



Machine Translation (MT) (symbol or text processing)

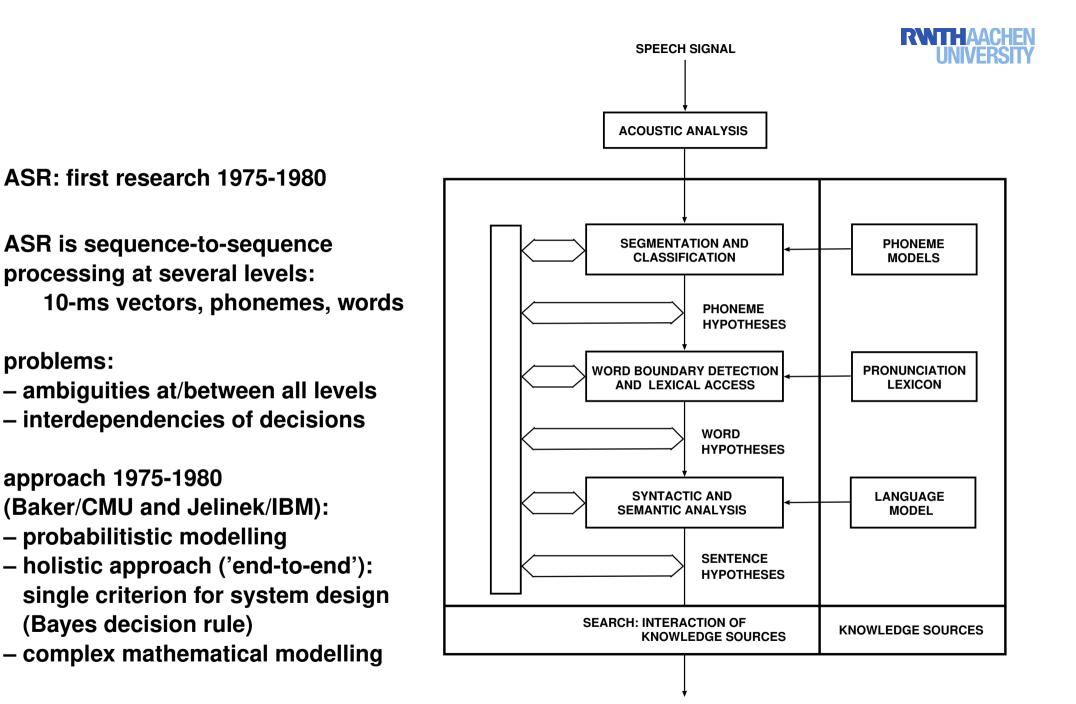


common characteristics:

- use of a 'small' language model (LM) to generate smooth fluent text (syntax, semantics, context)
- generative aspect of LM: unlike other
 NLP tasks (POS/synt./semant. labels, ...)
- LM is learned from text only (without annotation, unsup. mode, pre-training)

note: this is how (small) language models started (1980 - 2000)





RECOGNIZED SENTENCE



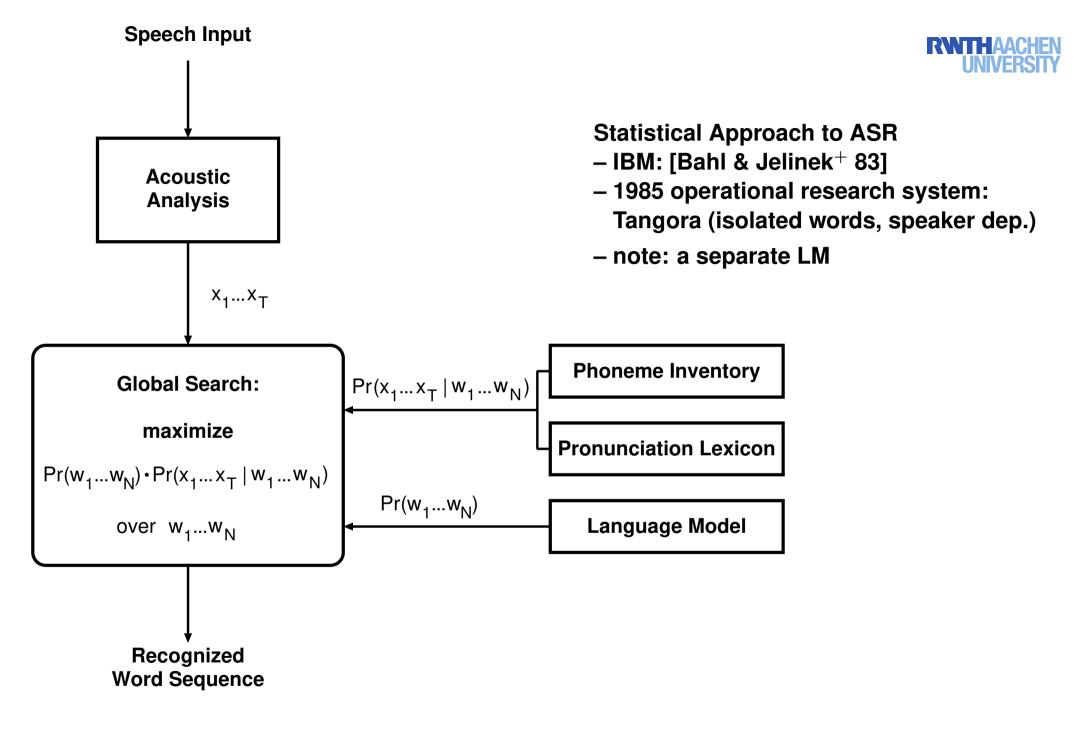


modelling: probability distributions/data-driven approaches with

10-msec vectors:
$$x_1^T=x_1...x_t...x_T$$
 $x_t\in {
m I\!R}^D$
word string: $w_1^N=w_1...w_n...w_N$

- ullet consider joint generative model: $p(w_1^N, x_1^T) = p(w_1^N) \cdot p(x_1^T | w_1^N)$
- language model $p(w_1^N)$: based on word trigram counts, learned from text only $[w_1^N]$
- ullet acoustic (-phonetic) model $p(x_1^T|w_1^N)$: learned from annotated audio $[x_1^T,w_1^N]$
 - generative hidden Markov model:
 - discrete models/VQ, Gaussians, Gaussian mixtures, ...
 - structure: first-order dependence and mathematically nice
 - training: ('efficient') EM algorithm with sort of closed-form solutions
- clear difference to general machine learning:
 - well-known for isolated events (no context) (x, c) : $x \to c = c(x)$ class posterior p(c|x) better than generative model p(x|c)
 - sequence-to-sequence problem: time alignment and language model context
- decoding/generation: Bayes decision rule (simplified form)
 - = use single criterion and avoid local decisions









ASR at Philips: Research Hamburg/Aachen and BU Dictation Systems Vienna:

- 1k-word continuous speech recognition: research prototype SPICOS 1984-1989 (German BMBF): Siemens, Philips, German universities
- 10k-word continuous speech recognition: commercial Philips product
 - speaker dep., DP beam search and dynamic search space, real-time on Motorola 68020
 - presentation at Eurospeech 1993: medical text dictation

speech translation at RWTH Aachen: research prototypes

- Verbmobil 1993-2000 (German BMBF): appointment scheduling/limited domain, German-English, 8k words
- TC-STAR 2004-2007: domain: speeches given in EU parliament
 - challenge: MT robust wrt ASR errors \rightarrow data-driven methods
 - approach to MT: phrase-based approach
 - first research prototype for unlimited domain and real-life data
 fully automatic, not real time
 - without deep learning!
 - partners: KIT Karlsruhe, RWTH, CNRS Paris, UPC Barcelona, IBM-US Research, ...

more research prototypes: GALE, BOLT, BABEL, QUAERO, EU-Bridge, Translectures, ERC along with DARPA/NIST/project evaluations





- steady improvement of data-driven methods: HMMs with Gaussians and mixtures, phonetic CART, statistical trigram language model, speaker adaptation, sequence discriminative training, ANNs
- methodology in ASR since 1990: standard public data: TIMIT, RM/1k, WSJ/5k, WSJ/20k, NAB/64k, Switchboard/tel., Librispeech, TED-Lium
- 1993-2000 NIST/DARPA: comparative evaluation of operational systems:
 - virtually all systems: generative HMMs and refinements
 - 1994 Robinson: hybrid HMM with RNN (singularity!)

alternative concepts (with less success):

- 1985-93: criticism about data-driven approach/machine learning
 - acoustic model: too many parameters and saturation effect
 - concept of rule-based AI: acoustic-phonetic expert systems
 - language model: similar criticism (linguistic grammars)
- SVM (support vector machines): never competitive in ASR (ASR requires decisions in context!)





- 1987 [Bourlard & Wellekens 87]: MLP and ASR
- 1988 [Waibel & Hanazawa⁺ 88]: phoneme recognition by TDNN (convol.NNs!)
- 1989 [Bourlard & Wellekens 89, Morgan & Bourlard 90]:
 - ANN outputs: can be interpreted as class posteriors
 - hybrid HMM: use ANN for frame label posteriors
- 1989 [Bridle 89]: softmax ('Gaussian posterior') for normalized ANN outputs
- 1991 [Bridle & Dodd 91] backpropagation for HMM discriminative training at word level
- 1993 [Haffner 93]: sum over label-sequence posterior probabilities in hybrid HMMs (sequence discriminative training)
- 1994 [Robinson 94]: RNN in hybrid HMM (operational system, DARPA evaluations)
- 1997 [Fontaine & Ris⁺ 97, Hermansky & Ellis⁺ 00]: tandem HMM: use ANN for feature extraction in a Gaussian HMM
- 2009 Graves: CTC for handwriting recognition (operational system, ICDAR competition 2009)





hybrid HMM: ANN-based feature extraction + Gaussian posterior + HMM

- 2009 [Graves 09]: CTC good results on LSTM RNN for handwriting task
- 2010 [Dahl & Ranzato⁺ 10]: improvement in phone recognition on TIMIT
- 2011 [Seide & Li⁺ 11, Dahl & Yu⁺ 12]: Microsoft Research
 - fully-fledged hybrid HMM
 - 30% rel. WER reduction on Switchboard 300h
- since 2012: other teams confirmed reductions of WER by 20% to 30%

tandem HMM: ANN-based feature extraction + generative Gaussian + HMM

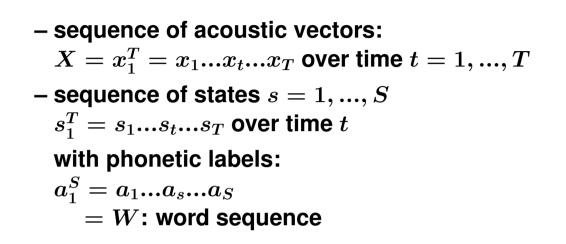
- 2006 [Stolcke & Grezl⁺ 06]: cross-domain and cross-language portability
- 2007 [Valente & Vepa⁺ 07]: 8% rel. WER reduction on LVCSR
- 2011 [Tüske & Plahl⁺ 11]: 22% rel. WER reduction on LVCSR/QUAERO

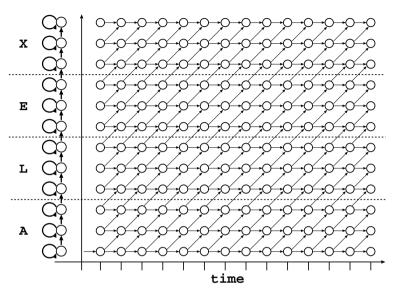
experimental observation for hybrid and tandem HMM: progress by using *deep* MLPs





Finite-State Transducer: Hidden Markov Model (similar: CTC and RNN-Transducer)





• classical HMM: generative model for input sequence x_1^T :

$$q_artheta(x_1^T|W=a_1^S) = \sum_{s_1^T} \prod_t q_artheta(s_{t+1}|s_t,a_{s_t}) \cdot q_artheta(x_t|a_{s=s_t})$$

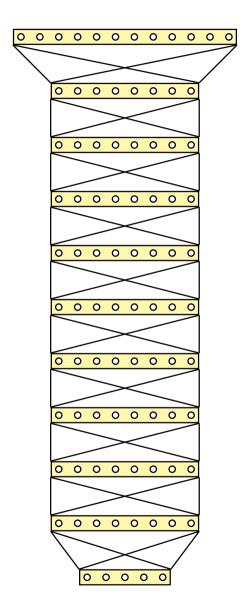
• hybrid HMM: discriminative model for output sequence a_1^S using $q(x_t|a_s) = q(a_s|x_t) \cdot q(x_t)/q(a_s)$:

$$q_artheta(W=a_1^S|x_1^T)=\sum_{s_1^T}\prod_t q_artheta(s_{t+1}|s_t,a_{s_t})\cdot q_artheta(a_{s=s_t}|x_t)$$

[Bourlard & Wellekens 89] machine learning point-of-view: it is much(!) easier to model $q_{\vartheta}(a_s|x_t)$ than $q_{\vartheta}(x_t|a_s)$







question: what is different now after 30 years?

answer: we have learned how to (better) handle a complex numerical optimization problem:

- more powerful hardware (e. g. GPUs)
- empirical recipies for optimization: practical experience and heuristics, e.g. layer-by-layer pretraining
- result: we are able to handle more complex architectures (deep MLP, RNN, attention, transformer, etc.)

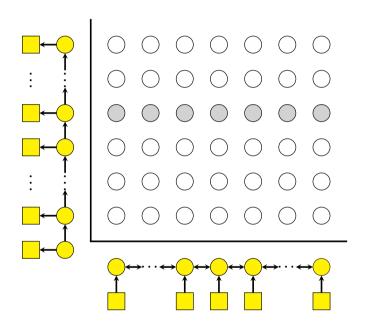
my interpretation: 2022's most advanced ASR systems:

- = sophisticated feature extraction/representation
 - + softmax (= Gaussian posterior)



common properties:

- input: acoustic encoder: representation/state vectors $h_t = h_t(x_1^T), t = 1, ..., T$
- output: (phoneme) labels $a_s, s = 1, ..., S$ with/without integrated language model



representation/state vectors h_t :

- deep MLP: finite window

- self-attention (transformer)

– RNN and LSTM-RNN

similar: output string

• (cross-) attention: direct factorization:

$$egin{aligned} p(a_1^S|x_1^T) &=& \prod_s p(a_s|a_0^{s-1},x_1^T) = \prod_s p(a_s|a_{s-1},r_{s-1},c_s) \ c_s &:=& \sum_t p(t|a_0^{s-1},x_1^T) \cdot h_t \end{aligned}$$

with context vector c_s and output state vector r_s

criticism for ASR: lack of strict monotonicity and localization

• finite-state transducer (post. HMM, CTC, RNN-T, ...): introduce hidden paths and then factorize:

$$egin{aligned} p(a_1^S|x_1^T) &= \sum_{s_1^T} \; pigg(s_1^T,a_1^S|h_1^T(x_1^T)igg) \ &= \sum_{s_1^T} \; \prod_t pigg(s_{t+1},y_t=a_{s_t}\Big|s_t,a_0^{s_t-1},h_1^T(x_1^T)igg) \end{aligned}$$

details: RWTH papers at ICASSP and Interspeech



H. Ney: NLP - Past, Present, Future ©RWTH 13-Jun-23

Sequence-to-Sequence Processing: Transformer Approach (Google [Vaswani & Shazeer⁺ 17])

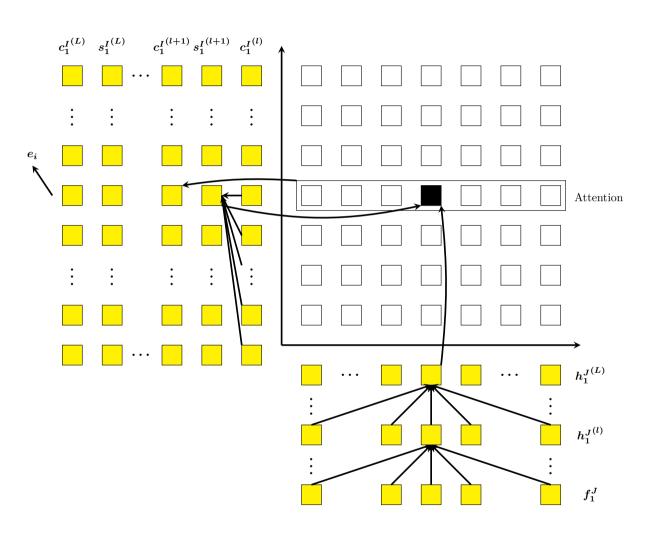
designed for a 'two-dim.' problem with input and output sequences:

- keep the cross-attention between output and input as in RNN attention [Bahdanau & Cho⁺ 15]
- for input and output sequence: replace RNN structure by *self-attention*,
 - i. e. pair-wise associations

2020 OpenAI: transformer GPT-3:

96 layers, each with 12.288 nodes
96 attention heads
in total: 175 Bio parameters

use LM concept for MT: 1 rather than 2 sequences 2013 [Kaltenbrenner & Blunsom 13] 2014 [Sutskever & Vinyals⁺ 14] today: most successful with GPTs







Machine Translation (MT): History



statistical approaches were controversial in MT (and other NLP tasks):

• 1969 Chomsky:

... the notion 'probability of a sentence' is an entirely useless one, under any known interpretation of this term.

- result: strict dichotomy until (around) 2000:
 - speech = spoken language: signals, subsymbolic, machine learning
 - language = written text: symbols, grammars, rule-based AI
- until 2000: mainstream approach was rule-based
 - result: huge human effort required in practice
 - problems: coverage and consistency of rules
- 1989-93: IBM Research: statistical approach to MT 1994: key people (Mercer, Brown) left for a hedge fund
- 1996-2002 RWTH: improvements beyond IBM's approach: HMM alignments, log-linear modelling, phrases as basic units
- around 2004: from singularity to mainstream
 F. Och (and more RWTH PhD students) joined Google
 2008: service Google Translate
- since 2014: neural MT (unlike count-based MT): attention mechanism [Bahdanau & Cho⁺ 15]



Unifying Framework: Statistical Decision Theory and Bayes Decision Rule



- so far: historical review of ASR (along with MT) and ANNs covering a variety of ANN models and training criteria
- what about training criteria?

(e. .g. cross-entropy, seq.disc. training, min. Bayes risk, expected loss, ...)

ultimate justification should be based on performance

- consequence: re-visit Bayes decision rule und its framework
- example: textbook by Duda & Hart 1973, pp. 11-16
- originally not explicitly meant for ASR or string processing
- what is not well covered in textbooks or papers:
 - mathematical relation between training criteria and loss function/performance
 - practical implications for training criteria

references, mostly RWTH:

[Ney 03, Schlüter & Scharrenbach⁺ 05, Xu & Povey⁺ 10, Schlüter & Nussbaum⁺ 11], [Schlüter & Nussbaum⁺ 12, Schlüter & Nussbaum-Thom⁺ 13, Schlüter & Beck⁺ 19]



Bayes Decision Theory and Machine Learning (Puristic Mathematical View)



simplified notation: input string $x = x_1^T$ and output string $c = c_1^N$

- define performance criterion: loss function $L[\tilde{c},c]$, e. g. edit distance (WER) in ASR
- *true* Bayes decision rule:

theoretical assumption for guaranteed optimal performance: use TRUE (unknown) posterior distribution pr(c|x) of the input data:

general loss:
$$x \to c_*(x) := \arg\min_c \left\{ \underbrace{\sum_{\tilde{c}} pr(\tilde{c}|x) \cdot L[\tilde{c},c]}_{expected loss} \right\}$$

• pseudo Bayes decision rule:

replace pr(c|x by a MODEL $p_{\vartheta}(c|x)$ to generalize to unseen input x:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{general loss:} & x \to c_\vartheta(x) := \arg\min_c \Big\{ \sum_{\tilde{c}} \ p_\vartheta(\tilde{c}|x) \cdot L[\tilde{c},c] \Big\} \\ & \text{0/1 loss:} & x \to c_\vartheta(x) := \arg\max_c \Big\{ \ p_\vartheta(c|x) \Big\} \end{array}$$

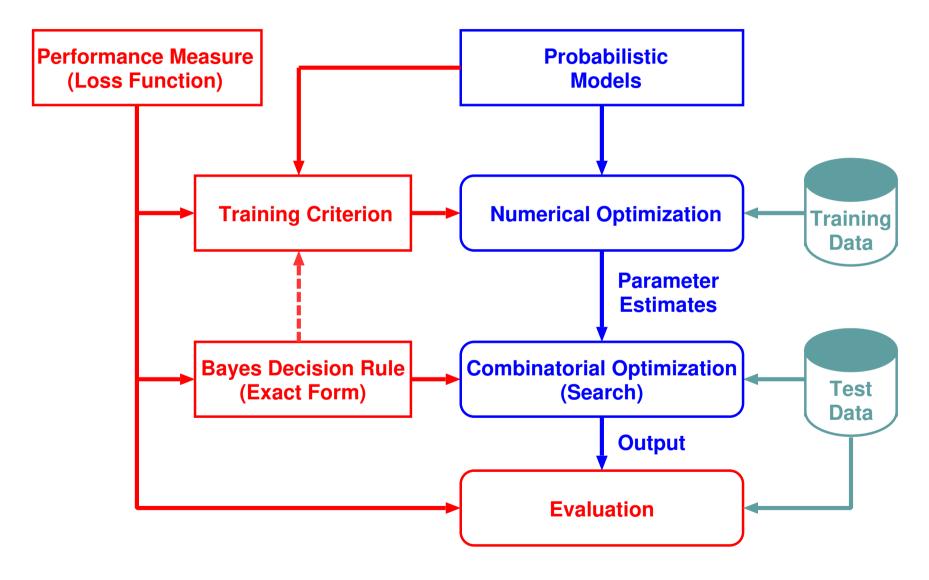
textbooks: 0/1 loss widely used, i. e. optimal for minimum string error

- principal questions:
 - optimality: is it preserved when replacing pr(c|x by $p_{artheta}(c|x)$?
 - exact loss function: how much does it matter ? in training/testing ?
 - what are suitable training criteria for learning $p_{artheta}(c|x)$?





Unifying View: Bayes Decision Theory and Machine Learning (Why are we doing what we are doing?)







mathematical analysis (omitting details):

- optimality of pseudo Bayes decision rule: yes analysis: distinguish expected loss (error rate) for true and pseudo Bayes rules
- type of loss in Bayes decision rule:
 - compare 0/1 loss with general loss $L[ilde{c},c]$
 - identical results for metric loss function (e.g. edit distance)

if $\max_c p_artheta(c|x) \geq 0.5$

- training criteria:
 - can be derived from expected loss
 - can be formulated as a function of model $p_{artheta}(c|x)$
 - training in practice: HUGE numerical optimization problem (many shortcuts and approximations beyond CE training)



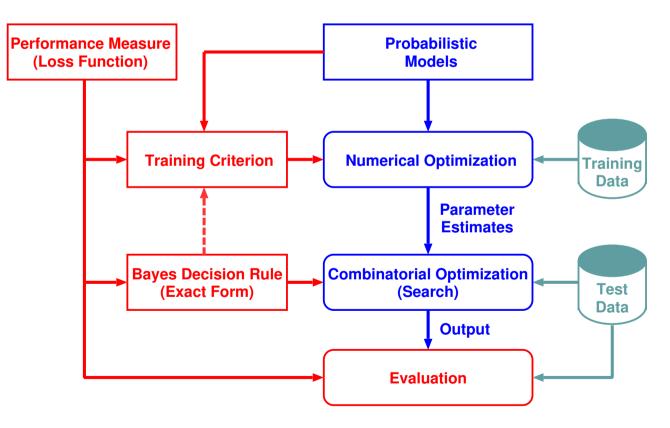
Statistical Decision Theory for NLP: Where do we stand ?



- exact loss function:
 - not so important in testing
 - more important in training
- probabilistic models:
 - are most important: caused progress 1980-2023
 - dependencies and synchronization between input/output strings
 - often (e. g. ASR): separate LM
- training criterion:
 - is important
 - depends on prob. models
- numerical optimization:
 - hard math. problem
 - all variants of backpropagation
 - important in practice (1990 vs. 2022!)
- decision rule: search/generation: today's models: more important for low-accuracy conditions

this lecture:

- statistical decision theory defines a perfect framework
- its principles go beyond NLP and ANN







• complete model for [input,output] pair $[x_1^T, W = a_1^S]$ consists of language model (LM) and acoustic (-phonetic) model (AM):

$$p_artheta(W|x_1^T):=rac{q_artheta^lpha(W)\cdot q_artheta^eta(W=a_1^S|x_1^T)}{\sum_{ ilde W}\, q_artheta^lpha(ilde W)\cdot q_artheta^eta(ilde W= ilde a_1^S|x_1^T)}$$

with model parameters ϑ (and exponents α, β)

• motivation: the log-linear combination mimicks the generative approch:

$$p_artheta(W|x_1^T) := rac{p_artheta(x_1^T,W)}{\sum_{ ilde W} p_artheta(x_1^T, ilde W)} \ = \ rac{p_artheta(W) \cdot p_artheta(x_1^T|W)}{\sum_{ ilde W} p_artheta(X_1^T, ilde W)}$$

- language model $q_{\vartheta}(W)$ learned from text data only (without annotation) (e. g. 100 Mio words)
- acoustic model (AM): finite-state transducer (CTC, RNN-T, post.HMM, ...):

$$q_artheta(W=a_1^S|x_1^T)=\sum_{s_1^T}\prod_t q_artheta(s_{t+1}|s_t,a_{s_t})\cdot q_artheta(a_{s=s_t}|x_1^T)$$

learned from (manually) transcribed audio data (e. g. 500 hours = 5 Mio words)



Acoustic Model: Training Criterion and Procedure



0

suitable training criterion for (audio, text) pairs $[X_r, W_r], r = 1, ..., R$:

$$\max_{artheta} \left\{ \sum_r \log \, p_{artheta}(W_r|X_r)
ight\} \qquad \qquad p_{artheta}(W|X) \ = \ rac{q^lpha(W) \cdot q^eta_{artheta}(W|X)}{\sum_{ ilde W} q^lpha(ilde W) \cdot q^eta_{artheta}(ilde W|X)}$$

numerical optimization problem in training:

- ignore denominator: simplified baseline
 - effect: decoupling of AM and LM advantage: independent training of AM and LM
 - variants for AM training: full sum or best path/Viterbi (frame-wise CE) note: EM framework still works for neural HMM
- keep denominator: *sequence discriminative training*
 - 0/1 loss: errors at sequence level (IBM 1986: MMI) (see above: training criterion)
 - exact loss (e. g. WER): errors at symbol level in sequence context variants in ASR: Povey's phoneme/symbol error, sMBR, ... result: LM affects training of AM!

denominator: how to approximate it?

- word hypothesis lattice
- simplifed language model (lattice-free MMI, Povey 2016)

history: Bahl/IBM 1986, Normandin 1991, Valtchev 1996, Povey 2002/16, Heigold 2005/12





reconsider training criterion for (audio, ctext) pairs $[X_r, W_r], r = 1, ..., R$:

$$\max_{artheta} \Big\{ \sum_r \log \, p_{artheta}(W_r|X_r) \Big\} \qquad \qquad p_{artheta}(W|X) := rac{q^lpha(W) \cdot q^eta_{artheta}(W|X)}{\sum_{ ilde W} q^lpha(ilde W) \cdot q^eta_{artheta}(ilde W|X)}$$

terminology: What does end-to-end mean?

- training criterion: a single global criterion for optimum performance, independent of model structure
- monolithic structure of a model:

simplicity/elegance of programming? what about adequacy/performance?

remarks:

- ASR: training of acoustic model and language model:
 - transcribed audio: 500 hours = 5 Mio words
 - text (from press, books, internet,...): 100 Mio words and more
- end-to-end concept:
 - for training and search/generation: yes
 - (? and robustness/easiness of training)
 - for the structure: can it reflect the training data situation?



Effect of AM, Training Criterion and LM (Tüske et al. RWTH 2017)



QUAERO task, English Eval 2013:

broadcast news/conversations, podcasts, TED lectures

Word error rates [%] on QUAERO English Eval 2013 (PP: perplexity of LM = power of LM \cong effective vocab.size)

Acoustic Model (AM): hybrid HMM			Language Model (LM)	
Туре		Training Criterion	Count PP=131.1	Count + ANN PP=92.0
Gaussian mixtures		max.lik.	20.7	
		seq.disc. training	19.2	16.1
Neural Net	FF MLP	frame-wise CE	11.6	
		seq.disc. training	10.7	9.0
	LSTM RNN	frame-wise CE	10.6	
		seq.disc. training	9.8	8.2

observations:

- improvements by acoustic ANNs: 50% relative
- improvement by language model ANN: 15% relative
- total improvements by deep learning: 60% relative (from 19.2% to 8.2%)





Neural Language Modelling [Sundermeyer et al.; RWTH 2012, 2015]

- important principle (undervalued!):
 - move away from count-based statistics for categorial random variables
 - instead: word/symbol embeddings and operations in a high-dim. vector space
- interpolation of TWO models (2015): count model (3 Bio words) + ANN model (60 Mio words)
- details and refinements:
 - use of word classes for softmax in output layer
 - unlimited history of RNN: requires re-design of ASR search
- perplexity (PP) and word error (WER) rate on test data (QUAERO)

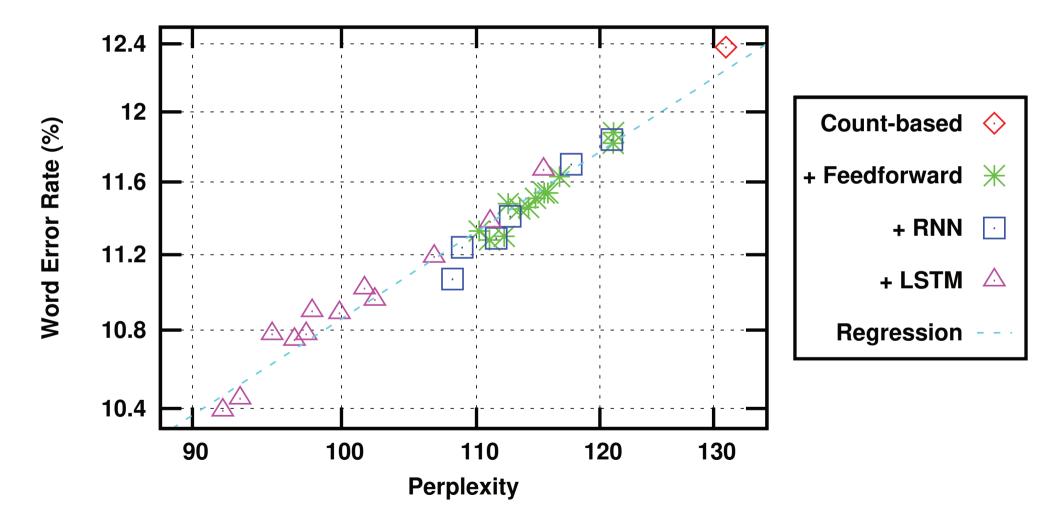
models	PP	WER[%]
count model	131.2	12.4
+ 10-gram MLP	112.5	11.5
+ Recurrent NN	108.1	11.1
+ LSTM-RNN	96.7	10.8
+ 10-gram MLP with 2 layers	110.2	11.3
+ LSTM-RNN with 2 layers	92.0	10.4

- improvements achieved:
 - perplexity: 30% reduction: from 131 to 92
 - WER: 15% reduction: from 12.4% to 10.4%





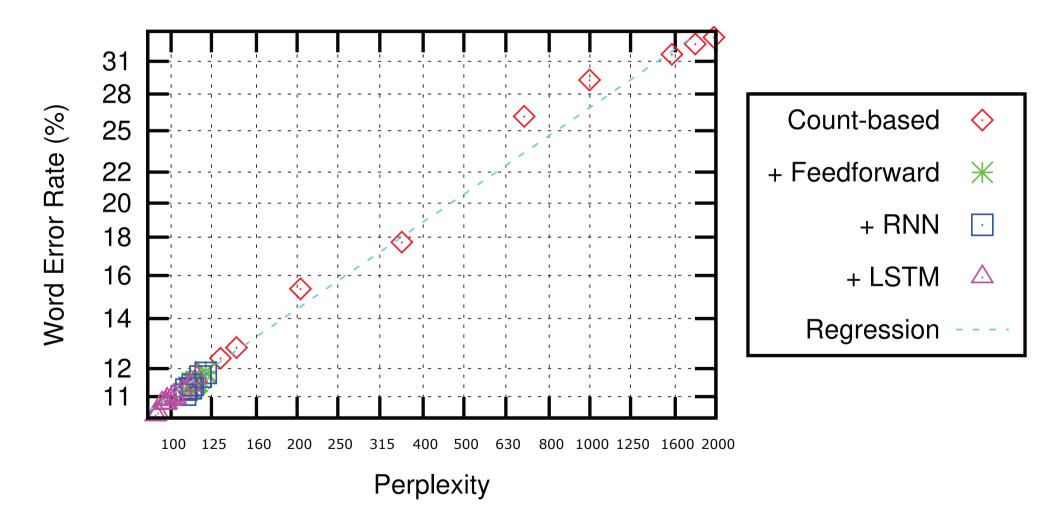
empirical law: $WER = \alpha \cdot PP^{\beta}$ with $\beta \in [0.3, 0.5]$ [Makhoul & Schwartz 94, Klakow & Peters 02]



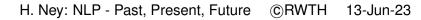




empirical law: $WER = \alpha \cdot PP^{\beta}$ open question: theoretical justification?



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early work:

- 1989 [Nakamura & Shikano 89]: English word category prediction based on neural networks.
- 1993 [Castano & Vidal⁺ 93]: Inference of stochastic regular languages through simple recurrent networks

important component in ANN-based LMs:

- word/symbol representations/embeddings: vectors in high-dim. space

- in addition to ANN structures (MLP, RNN, LSTM-RNN, transformer, ...)

since 2000 (mainly LM for ASR):

- 2000 [Bengio & Ducharme⁺ 00]: A neural probabilistic language model
- 2002 [Schwenk & Gauvain 02, Schwenk 07]: Continuous space language models
- 2010 [Mikolov & Karafiat⁺ 10]: RNN based language model
- 2012 RWTH Aachen [Sundermeyer & Schlüter⁺ 12]: LSTM-RNN for language modeling



Word Representations: Language Models and General NLP



power of LMs and word representations (spirit of *distributional semantics*): 1954 Harris: Words are similar if they appear in similar contexts. 1957 Firth: You shall know a word by the company it keeps.

 papers by [Collobert & Weston 08, Collobert & Weston⁺ 11]: 2008: A Unified Architecture for NLP: Deep Neural Networks with Multitask Learning. 2011: NLP (almost) from Scratch.

use of word vectors for formal NLP tasks:

POS/NER tagging, syntactic analysis, semantic role labeling, text classif., ...

 word vectors: (semantic) interpretations and calculations examples of relations between word vectors [Mikolov & Corrado⁺ 13]:

 $Germany - Berlin \cong France - Paris$ $king - queen \cong man - woman$

- 2013/2014: use LM concept for MT [Kaltenbrenner & Blunsom 13, Sutskever & Vinyals⁺ 14]
- since 2019: LLMs (large-scale LMs) based on GPT architecture:
 - G: generative: generate text (as opposed to formal NLP tasks)
 - P: pre-trained: based on text without any annotation
 - T: transformer: ANN structure for sequence-to-sequence processing

LLM implies: more data, more parameters (200 Bio), multi-lingual, multi-task, ...





InstructGPT introduced by OpenAI, arxiv, 04-Mar-2022: Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback.

three levels of training:

- pre-training or unsupervised training (using log perplexity):
 - training mode: raw text with no annotation
 - operation mode (surprising result !):

type of task (prompt): can be specified in plain language

(e.g. summarization, story generation, translation, ...)

full system operation is described by a triplet (in plain language!):

triplet := [prompt, input, output]

(typically used in so-called *few-shot learning/setting*)

- supervised fine-tuning:
 - training data: based on (many) triplets of the above type
 - training criterion: (log) perplexity all triplets are interpreted as a *single* sequence of text
- human feedback and reinforcement learning:
 - starting point: system is used to generate the outputs for [prompt, input] pairs
 - human evaluation and ranking
 - reinforcement learning based on human scores



Summary



40 years of building operational systems for NLP:

- success of data-driven vs. handcrafted rule-based approaches
- misconception: things started 40 years ago, not in 2013!
- persistent evolution of data-driven concepts:
 - signal-processing NLP: ASR and HWR
 - text-processing NLP:
 - □ language models for ASR (+ HWR + MT)
 - □ machine translation (MT)
 - □ large language models for NLU, e. g. Q&A, dialog management, ...
- additional success ('revolution'): symbol embeddings/vectors in contrast to symbol count statistics
- statistical decision theory:
 - unifying framework for data-driven approach and machine learning:
 - distinguish ingredients:
 - loss function, prob.model, training criterion along with numerical optimization
 - includes as a special case: ANNs and deep learning
 - most useful framework after 40 years of NLP



What about the Future?



future: what time horizon: 3, 5, 10, 20 years?

e.g. difficult prediction: ANN around 1990

short-term horizon: low-hanging fruits

- more data, more complex models, more parameters, more computation
- 1989 R. Mercer/IBM: There is no data like more data.

long-term horizon: scientific challenges:

beyond more data, we need better mathematical frameworks:

• back-propagation search:

beyond trial and error: better theory of numerical optimization

- present ANN structures
 - deep MLP, RNN, LSTM, self-embedding, transducer, transformer,...:
 - lack of principal mathematical justification: why are some structures better for modelling and learning?
- beyond ANN structures:
 - what about going beyond the present structures (matrix-vector product + nonlinearity)?
 - there is plenty of (data-driven) life outside and beyond deep learning! (but yes, it will be complex mathematical models)





- word/symbol embeddings in NLP:
 - most important concept in lieu of count-based statistics
 - widely underrated in statistics and general NLP
- open research directions: beyond *supervised* machine learning: strictly *unsupervised* machine learning,
 - i. e. absolutely no parallel (input,output) pairs



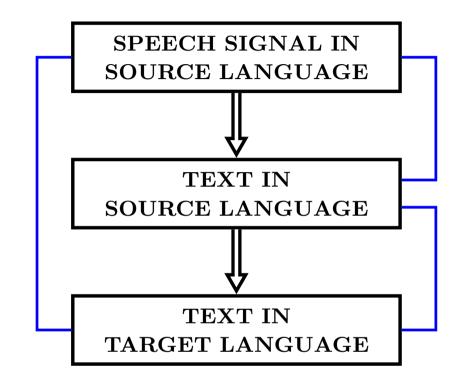


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source audio $X \rightarrow$ source text $F \rightarrow$ target text E

challenge: exploit three types of training data

- text MT: (F, E) sentence pairs (e. g. 100 Mio = 1-2 Bio words)
- ASR: (X, F) pairs (e. g. 5000 hours = 50 Mio words)
- speech-text MT: (X, E) (e. g. 1000 hours?)



Industry vs. Academia



most important contributions:

- academia:
 - general HMM framework
 - RNN-HMM [Robinson 1994]
 - RNN-CTC [Graves 2009]
 - deep learning (in the narrow sense!) [Hinton 2011]
 - cross-attention [Montreal team 2014]
- industry:
 - self-attention and transformer
 - conformer





APPENDIX: LLM and GPT



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H. Ney: NLP - Past, Present, Future ©RWTH 13-Jun-23



- large-scale language model (LLM) called *chatGPT*:
 - API introduced on 30-Nov-2022 by OpenAI
 - function: human-like conversational (text) dialog (unlimited domain)
 - CEO S. Altman: "costs are eye-watering"
 - operational loss in 2022: 540 Mio USD (416 on computing, 89 on staff)
- OpenAl's technology behind *chatGPT*:
 - baseline architecture GPT: generative pre-trained transformer
 - GPT-3: with 1.3 to 175 Bio parameters,
 - trained on 300 Bio (subword) tokens (cut-off date: June 2020)
 - InstructGPT (sibling to ChatGPT): refinement with human feedback
- other types of dialog systems:
 - limited-domain, task-oriented dialog
 - explicit dialog strategy: manually designed and coded
 - specific systems: voice command and control
 - Amazon's Alexa (loss in 2022: 10 Bio USD 12 000 employees)
 - Apple's Siri
 - Google's (Digital) Assistant



LLM and GPT: Typical Tasks



every-day NLP tasks with plain text for input and output:

• conversational dialog (with many turns):

input: *customer query/command* output: *system response*

• text summarization:

input: *full text* output: *text summary*

story generation:

input: *key words* output: *full text*

• machine translation (with bilingual training data):

input: *sentence in source language* output: *sentence in target language*

remarkable property (in contrast to formal NLP tasks):

everything is expressed in terms of plain every-day language:

- system input: formulated by the user
- type of task (prompt/instruction): specified by the user
- generated output: smooth fluent language
 (primary goal which a language model is designed for)





History: How (Small) Language Models Started (1980-2000)

(small) language models:

- introduced by IBM for ASR around 1980
 - key advantage: use of text data without annotation
 - statistics: based on counts of word trigrams (and higher order n-grams)
 - concept: sucessfully transferred from ASR to HWR and MT
- experimental conditions around 2000:
 - training: about 100 Mio running words (tokens)
 - model size: same order of magnitude
- training criterion: log perplexity (= cross-entropy), i. e. *predict next word* probability of a word sequence $w_1^N = w_1...w_n...w_N$:

$\log p_artheta(w_1^N) = \sum_{n=1}^N$	$\logp_\vartheta(w_n w_0^{n-1})$
---	----------------------------------

word sequence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
left-to-right bidir. (BERT 2018)	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•



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- OpenAI:
 - 2018 GPT-1: 0,12 Bio
 - 2019 GPT-2: 1,5 Bio
 - 2020 GPT-3: 175 Bio (train: 300 Bio)
 - 2022 InstructGPT and ChatGPT
- Google:
 - 2018 BERT: 3,3 Bio (train: 300 Bio, 40 epochs)
 - 2019 T5: 11 Bio (train: 1000 Bio)
 - 2020 Meena (for dialog): 2,6 Bio (train: 61 Bio)
 - 2022 LaMDA: 137 Bio (train: 2810 Bio)
 - 2022 PaLM: 540 Bio (train: 780 Bio)
- more LLMs:
 - 2019 BART / Meta: 0,33 Bio (train: 55 Bio, 40 epochs)
 - 2019 Megatron / Nvidia: 3,9 Bio (train: 366 Bio)
 - 2020 DialoGPT / Microsoft: 0,76 Bio (train: 10 Bio)
 - 2022 OPT / Meta: 175 Bio (train: 180 Bio)
- years 2021-2022: more than 50 LLMs recent European activities:
 - BLOOM / BigScience: 176 Bio (train: 366 Bio)
 - Luminous / Aleph Alpha (OpenGPT-X): 70 Bio (train: 588 Bio)
 - HPLT / EU project: major EU languages



Conclusions



- large-scale language models:
 - primary design goal: to generate smooth fluent text
 - approach: data, but no manual design or coding
 - dialog management: learned by data-driven approach (unlike manually designed dialog strategies)
 - (hopeful) by-product: semantic correctness
- LLMs are part of data-driven machine learning:
 - more data, more complex models, more computation
 - 1989 R. Mercer/IBM: There is no data like more data.
- re-interpretation of neural LLM: operations in high-dim. vector space:
 - used for categorical data along with symbolic reasoning
 - useful for areas beyond NLP? general concept for categorical statistics?



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END ChatGPT: From Small to Large Language Models



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