An Introduction to Attention, Transformers, GPT-x, BERT, and ViT

# Transformers

In deep learning, attention is a term used to describe a computational mechanism that allows the network to enhance important parts of the data and diminish other parts. What is important is learned by the attention mechanism from the data and its context.

Attention mechanisms were essentially tacked on to the existing network architectures starting around 2014.

But in 2017, a new fully attention-based architecture was introduced called a **Transformer**. It was built for Machine Translation, but was quickly adapted to other NLP tasks.

This new architecture would give rise to jaw-dropping advances in NLP, begin to dominate in Computer Vision, and allow for the emergence of multi-modal networks combining text, images, video, audio, etc.

# The Transformer

Vaswani et al. 2017

## Attention is All You Need: Transformer



Vaswani et al. 2017

## Transformer

The Transformer is originally designed as an encoder + decoder for machine translation, e.g., translating French to English.

The loss is standard cross entropy loss with teacher forcing:

$$L(\theta) = -\sum_{t=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(w_t^B | w_{1:M}^A, w_{1:t-1}^B)$$

where  $p_{\theta}$  is the model,

 $w_{1:M}^A$  are words  $w_1^A, \ldots, w_M^A$  in the source language,

 $w_{1:N}^B$  are words  $w_1^B, \ldots, w_M^B$  in the target language

## Transformer: Encoders + Decoders



## Transformer: Self-Attention



## Transformer: Encoders + Decoders



## Transformer: Encoders + Decoders



## Transformer: Encoder + Decoder





#### Transformer: Inputs Words Mapped to Vectors



Before going into the network words are tokenized and mapped to vectors.

























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$$\mathbf{z}_{1} = \frac{e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{1} \mathbf{k}_{1}^{T}} \mathbf{v}_{1} + e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{1} \mathbf{k}_{2}^{T}} \mathbf{v}_{2}}{e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{1} \mathbf{k}_{1}^{T}} + e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{1} \mathbf{k}_{2}^{T}}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{z}_{2} = \frac{e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{2} \mathbf{k}_{1}^{T}} \mathbf{v}_{1} + e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{2} \mathbf{k}_{2}^{T}} \mathbf{v}_{2}}{e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{2} \mathbf{k}_{1}^{T}} + e^{\beta \mathbf{q}_{2} \mathbf{k}_{2}^{T}}}$$

where 
$$\beta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_k}}$$

He often considered his memories as traffic on the congested NYC avenues, with his days at Columbia like a truck painted red with all horns blaring.



For each input word, we get a composite vector that combines representations from all words in the sequence through "self-attention."



We got here using a single attention "head" and the parameters that define it in the matrices  $W^Q$ ,  $W^K$ , and  $W^V$ .







## 1) Concatenate all the attention heads Z<sub>0</sub> Z<sub>1</sub> Z<sub>2</sub> Z<sub>3</sub> Z<sub>4</sub> Z<sub>5</sub> Z<sub>6</sub> Z<sub>7</sub>

2) Multiply with a weight matrix W<sup>o</sup> that was trained jointly with the model

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3) The result would be the Z matrix that captures information from all the attention heads. We can send this forward to the FFNN



1) This is our 2) We embed input sentence\* each word\*

d 3) Split into 8 heads. We multiply X or R with weight matrices 4) Calculate attention using the resulting Q/K/V matrices

5) Concatenate the resulting Z matrices, then multiply with weight matrix W<sup>o</sup> to produce the output of the layer



\* In all encoders other than #0, we don't need embedding. We start directly with the output of the encoder right below this one











. . .

 $Z_7$ 

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#### Input embeddings also have positional encodings



#### Positional encoding is naturally a fcn of position

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} p_1(t) \\ p_2(t) \\ p_3(t) \\ \vdots \\ p_d(t) \end{bmatrix} \overset{d \text{ is embedding dimension}}{\checkmark}$$

t is the position of the word in the sequence

Transformers use sinusoidal position encodings

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(\omega_1 t) \\ \cos(\omega_1 t) \\ \sin(\omega_2 t) \\ \cos(\omega_2 t) \\ \vdots \\ \sin(\omega_{d/2} t) \\ \cos(\omega_{d/2} t) \\ \cos(\omega_{d/2} t) \end{bmatrix}_{dx1} \text{ where } \omega_k = \frac{1}{10000^{\frac{2k}{d}}}$$

t is the position of the word in the sequence

Transformers use sinusoidal position encodings

Frequency decreases with increasing k

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(\omega_1 t) \\ \cos(\omega_1 t) \\ \sin(\omega_2 t) \\ \cos(\omega_2 t) \\ \vdots \\ \sin(\omega_{d/2} t) \\ \cos(\omega_{d/2} t) \\ \cos(\omega_{d/2} t) \end{bmatrix}_{dx1} \text{ where } \omega_k = \frac{1}{10000^{\frac{2k}{d}}}$$

#### Transformers use sinusoidal position encodings

$$\mathbf{p}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \sin(\omega_1 t) \\ \cos(\omega_1 t) \\ \sin(\omega_2 t) \\ \cos(\omega_2 t) \\ \vdots \\ \sin(\omega_{d/2} t) \\ \cos(\omega_{d/2} t) \end{bmatrix}_{dx1}$$

Each  $\mathbf{p}(t)$  samples the same family of sinsusoidal fcns

#### Sinusoidal Position Encodings



Each row is a positional encoding for a given position *t* 

#### Residual Connections and Layer Normalizations


## Residual Connections and Layer Normalizations



## Residual Connections and Layer Normalizations



The outputs of the self-attention and ffnn layers are normalized.

## Residual Connections and Layer Normalizations



### Transformer: Encoders and Decoders





#### Decoding time step: 1 (2) 3 4 5 6



# Generative Pre-Training Transformer

Radford et al. 2018

## GPT-x: Generative Pre-Training Transformer



## GPT-x: Generative Pre-Training Transformer



## Causal Language Model

Consider a text sample as **sequence of words/tokens**  $w_1, \ldots, w_n$ , a causal language model  $p_{\theta}$  computes cross entropy loss as:

$$L(\theta) = -\sum_{t=1}^{N} \log p_{\theta}(w_t | w_1, \dots, w_{t-1})$$

## GPT-x: Next Word Prediction



## GPT-x: Masked Self-Attention

#### Masked Self-Attention 80% 20% 0% 0% score = = = softmax k<sub>1</sub> k<sub>2</sub> -00 -00 х Х Q2 X3 $\mathbf{X}_1$ X<sub>2</sub> $X_4$

## GPT-3: Training Data

Datasets	Quantity (Tokens)	Weight in Training Mix	Epochs elapsed when training for 300 BN tokens
Common Crawl (filtered)	410 BN	60%	0.44
WebText2	19 BN	22%	2.90
Books1	12 BN	8%	1.90
Books2	55 BN	8%	0.43
Wikipedia	3 BN	3%	3.40

## GPT-3: Training Data Samples

Text: Second Law of Robotics: A robot must obey the orders given it by human beings



## GPT-3: Loss Computation



## GPT-3: Loss Computation

# $L(\theta) = -\log p_{\theta}(\langle obey \rangle | \langle a \rangle, \langle robot \rangle, \langle must \rangle)$

Uses standard cross-entropy loss: negative log likelihood of the correct token/word

## GPT-3: Model Variants

Model Name	$n_{ m params}$	$n_{ m layers}$	$d_{ m model}$	$n_{ m heads}$	$d_{ m head}$	Batch Size	Learning Rate
GPT-3 Small	125M	12	768	12	64	0.5M	$6.0 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 Medium	350M	24	1024	16	64	0.5M	$3.0 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 Large	760M	24	1536	16	96	0.5M	$2.5 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 XL	1.3B	24	2048	24	128	1 <b>M</b>	$2.0 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 2.7B	2.7B	32	2560	32	80	1M	$1.6 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 6.7B	6.7B	32	4096	32	128	2M	$1.2 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 13B	13.0B	40	5140	40	128	2M	$1.0 imes10^{-4}$
GPT-3 175B or "GPT-3"	175.0B	96	12288	96	128	3.2M	$0.6 imes 10^{-4}$

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## GPT-3: Open AI API

https://openai.com/api/

# BERT:

#### Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

Devlin et al. 2019

## BERT: **B**idirectional **E**ncoder **R**epresentations from **T**ransformers



## BERT: Masked Language Model

- Designed to pre-train deep bidirectional representations from unlabeled text by jointly conditioning on both left and right context in all layers.
- Trained using a 'Masked Language Model' (MLM) pretraining objective.
- MLM training is followed by training on 'Next Sentence Prediction' (NSP) task.

# BERT: Pre-training Data

- BooksCorpus (800M Words)
- English Wikipedia (2500M Words)

# BERT: Masked LM

- 15% of the words in the input sequence are masked randomly.
- A chosen token to be masked, is masked with the following tokens:
  - [MASK] 80% of the time.
  - Random Token 10% of the time.
  - Same Token 10% of the time.
- Trained with Cross-Entropy loss.

## BERT



## **BERT: Next Sentence Prediction**

- Sentence A and B chosen as sentence pair.
- Sentence pairs separated by [SEP] fed to the network.
- 50% of the time B is the actual next sentence that follows
   A. Labeled as 'IsNext'.
- 50% of the time it is a random sentence. Labeled as 'NotNext'.

## **BERT:** Architecture



Figure 1: Overall pre-training and fine-tuning procedures for BERT. Apart from output layers, the same architectures are used in both pre-training and fine-tuning. The same pre-trained model parameters are used to initialize models for different down-stream tasks. During fine-tuning, all parameters are fine-tuned. [CLS] is a special symbol added in front of every input example, and [SEP] is a special separator token (e.g. separating questions/answers).

# **BERT:** Architecture

#### BERT (Base)

- 12 Transformer Blocks (L=12)
- 768 dim. Hidden Embed. Size (H=768)
- 12 Self-Attention Heads (A=12)
- 110M parameters

# **BERT: Input Representation**



Figure 2: BERT input representation. The input embeddings are the sum of the token embeddings, the segmentation embeddings and the position embeddings.

# **BERT: Feature Extraction**

- We can extract features from intermediate layers of the model.
- Although fine-tuning is recommended, features can be used without training.
- Model returns token-level features.

# Variants of BERT

I've enjoyed preparing these slides, but I'm running out of time.

Maybe I could get a Large Language Model (LLM) like OpenAI's ChatGPT to explain the variants of BERT...

# ChatGPT on Variants of BERT

#### Let's ask ChatGPT about variants of the BERT model:

What are the many different variants of the large language model BERT?

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BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) is a language model that was developed by researchers at Google in 2018. It has since been improved and extended by the research community, leading to the development of many different variants of the original BERT model. Some of the most commonly used variants of BERT include BERT-Large, BERT-Base, and BERT-Base Uncased. 2

#### Asking ChatGPT more directly in follow up question:



Are there other variants like RoBERTa and if so could you list them?



Yes, there are other variants of BERT that have been developed by the research community, such as RoBERTa (Robustly Optimized BERT Pretraining Approach), ALBERT (A Lite BERT), and ELECTRA (Efficiently Learning an Encoder that Classifies Tokens Accurately). These variants of BERT have been designed to improve upon the original BERT model in various ways, such as by reducing the amount of training data required, increasing the model's efficiency, or improving its performance on certain tasks.

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#### Asking ChatGPT for more detail on RoBERTa vs. BERT:

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What is the difference between BERT and RoBERTa?



BERT and RoBERTa are both large language models that use the Transformer architecture  $\bigcirc$   $\bigtriangledown$  to process and generate text. However, there are several differences between the two models. BERT is a general-purpose language model that can be fine-tuned for a variety of natural language processing tasks, such as sentiment analysis and question answering. RoBERTa, on the other hand, is a variant of BERT that was specifically designed to improve performance on these tasks.

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One of the main differences between BERT and RoBERTa is that RoBERTa was trained on a larger dataset and for a longer time than BERT, which makes it more accurate and more effective at natural language processing tasks. Additionally, RoBERTa uses a different training objective than BERT, which helps the model better capture the relationships between words in a sentence. These differences make RoBERTa a more powerful and effective language model than BERT for many natural language processing tasks.

#### ChatGPT previous answer was vague, pressing for details:

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How does RoBERTa's training objective differ from BERT's?

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The training objective is the function that a machine learning model is trying to optimize during training. In the case of BERT and RoBERTa, both models are trained to maximize the likelihood of predicting the correct word in a sentence, given the words that come before and after it. However, the specific details of how this objective is implemented differ between the two models.

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One of the main differences between BERT and RoBERTa's training objectives is that RoBERTa is trained using a larger dataset and for a longer time than BERT, which allows the model to better capture the relationships between words in a sentence. Additionally, RoBERTa uses a technique called dynamic masking, which randomly masks a different number of words in each training example. This makes the model more robust and allows it to better capture the meaning of longer sequences of words. These differences in the training objective help RoBERTa to perform better on natural language processing tasks than BERT.

#### What about the text-to-text T5 LLM:



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Ok, I get it. What about T5? How is T5 different from BERT?

T5 (Text-To-Text Transfer Transformer) is another large language model that was developed by researchers at Google in 2020. Like BERT, T5 uses the Transformer architecture to process and generate text, but there are several key differences between the two models.

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One of the main differences between T5 and BERT is that T5 is a general-purpose language model that can be fine-tuned for a wide range of natural language processing tasks, whereas BERT is primarily used for tasks such as sentiment analysis and question answering. This means that T5 can be used for a wider range of tasks than BERT, which makes it a more versatile and powerful language model.

Another key difference between T5 and BERT is the way they are trained. T5 is trained using a technique called transfer learning, which allows the model to learn from a large amount of unannotated text data. This makes T5 more data-efficient than BERT, which requires a large amount of labeled data to achieve good performance on natural language processing tasks. Additionally, T5 uses a different training objective than BERT, which helps the model better capture the meaning and structure of natural language. These
## Vision Transformer

Dosovitskiy et al. 2020/2021



Vision Transformer (ViT)



# ViT: Position Encodings

- The sinusoidal position encodings used for previous transformer models don't make sense for patches of images, as this encoding does a poor job at encoding the proximity of the patches.
- For ViTs the position encodings are learnt by the model instead of being imposed on the model as before.

Model	Layers	Hidden size $D$	MLP size	Heads	Params
ViT-Base	12	768	3072	12	86M
ViT-Large	24	1024	4096	16	307M
ViT-Huge	32	1280	5120	16	632M







## Multi-Modal: Vision and Language



#### Appendix A: Tokenization

### Tokenization

But how do we decide on the set of words in our vocabulary?

- What about just using characters *a/A, b/B, c/C, d/D, e/E, ....*? On their own, they don't have enough meaning...
- We could choose all unique word strings as delineated by <space>, but there are far too many of these.
- We could first strip out punctuation and then choose all unique word strings, but still too many of these.
- Consider all these variations of the same base word *love: lovely, loving, lovingly, lovers*, etc. We need to break words down into pieces—or tokens—to limit the vocabulary size.

## Byte Pair Encoding (BPE) Tokenization

But how do we decide on the set of words in our vocabulary?

- Let's start with our character set a/A, b/B, c/C, d/D, e/E, etc. as our tokens
- We can now create a new token by combining the pair of existing tokens that is most represented in the corpora.
- We repeat this process until we reach a predetermined limit on the vocabulary size (i.e., the number of unique tokens)
- Common words will get their own token and less common words will be broken down into a sequence of tokens.

#### Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE) Tokens

#### GPT-3 Codex

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

Clear Show example
Tokens Characters
116 556

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent, a new nation, conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

#### Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE) Tokens

GPT-3	Codex				
Duracell <u>Coppertop</u> AA Batteries with Power Boost Ingredients, 2 Count Pack Double A Battery with Long-lasting Power, Alkaline AA Battery for Household and Office Devices					
Clear	Show example				
<sup>Tokens</sup> 38	Characters 169				
Durac	ell Connerton	A Batteries with	Power Boost	Ingredients 2	Count

Pack Double A Battery with Long-lasting Power, Alkaline AA Battery for Household and Office Devices

## WordPiece Tokenization

WordPiece tokenization is much like BPE, but with a slightly different merge rule:

- It starts with characters a/A, b/B, c/C, d/D, e/E, etc. as tokens
- We can now create a new token by combining the pair of existing tokens with the highest score:

score =  $\frac{\text{frequency of pair}}{(\text{frequency of first token}) \times (\text{frequency of second token})}$ 

- We repeat this process until we reach a predetermined limit on the vocabulary size (i.e., the number of unique tokens)
- This vocabulary of tokens is done before the model training

#### Appendix B: Common Crawl Dataset

### Common Crawl Data

#### Common Crawl

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#### Want to use our data?

The Common Crawl corpus contains petabytes of data collected over 12 years of web crawling. The corpus contains raw web page data, metadata extracts and text extracts. Common Crawl data is stored on Amazon Web Services' Public Data Sets and on multiple academic cloud platforms across the world.

Access to the Common Crawl corpus hosted by Amazon is free. You may use Amazon's cloud platform to run analysis jobs directly against it or you can download parts or all of it.

You can search for pages in our corpus using the Common Crawl URL Index.

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