CS 224N Default Final Project:  
Building a QA system (IID SQuAD track)  

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1 Overview

In the default final project, you will explore deep learning techniques for question answering on the Stanford Question Answering Dataset (SQuAD) [1]. The project is designed to enable you to dive right into deep learning experiments without spending too much time getting set up. You will have the chance to implement current state-of-the-art techniques and experiment with your own novel designs. This year’s project will use the updated version of SQuAD, named SQuAD 2.0 [2], which extends the original dataset with unanswerable questions.

This year the default final project consists of two tracks. In the IID SQuAD track, you will be building a QA system for the SQuAD dataset, and in the Robust QA track, you will be building a QA system that is robust to domain shifts. Note that for the IID SQuAD track, you are not allowed to use pre-trained transformer models while you are allowed (and encouraged) to do so in the Robust QA track.

1.1 Question Answering

In the task of reading comprehension or question answering, a model will be given a paragraph, and a question about that paragraph, as input. The goal is to answer the question correctly. From a research perspective, this is an interesting task because it provides a measure for how well systems can ‘understand’ text. From a more practical perspective, these systems (Figure 1) have been extremely useful for better understanding any piece of text, and serving information need of humans.

As an example, consider the SQuAD dataset. The paragraphs in SQuAD are from Wikipedia. The questions and answers were crowdsourced using Amazon Mechanical Turk. There are around 150k questions in total, and roughly half of the questions cannot be answered using the provided paragraph (this is new for SQuAD 2.0). However, if the question is answerable, the answer is a chunk of text taken directly from the paragraph. This means that SQuAD systems don’t have to generate the answer text – they just have to select the span of text in the paragraph that answers the question (imagine your model has a highlighter and needs to highlight the answer). Below is an example of a ⟨question, context, answer⟩ triple. To see more examples, you can explore the dataset on the website https://rajpurkar.github.io/SQuAD-explorer/explore/v2.0/dev/.

In fact, in the official dev and test set, every answerable SQuAD question has three answers provided – each answer from a different crowd worker. The answers don’t always completely agree, which is partly why ‘human performance’ on the SQuAD leaderboard is not 100%. Performance is measured via two metrics: Exact Match (EM) score and F1 score.

- **Exact Match** is a binary measure (i.e. true/false) of whether the system output matches the ground truth answer exactly. For example, if your system answered a question with ‘Einstein’ but the ground truth answer was ‘Albert Einstein’, then you would get an EM score of 0 for that example. This is a fairly strict metric!

- **F1** is a less strict metric – it is the harmonic mean of precision and recall\(^1\). In the ‘Einstein’ example, the system would have 100% precision (its answer is a subset of the ground truth answer) and 50% recall (it only included one out of the two words in the ground truth output), thus a F1 score of \( \frac{2 \times \text{precision} \times \text{recall}}{\text{precision} + \text{recall}} = \frac{2 \times 50 \times 100}{100 + 50} = 66.67\% \).

- When evaluating on the dev or test sets, we take the maximum F1 and EM scores across the three human-provided answers for that question. This makes evaluation more forgiving.

\(^1\)Read more about F1 here: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/F1_score](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/F1_score)
Figure 1: Google’s question answering system is able to answer arbitrary questions and is an extremely useful tool for serving information needs

– for example, if one of the human annotators did answer ‘Einstein’, then your system will get 100% EM and 100% F1 for that example.

Finally, the EM and F1 scores are averaged across the entire evaluation dataset to get the final reported scores.

1.2 This project

The goal of this project is to produce a question answering system that works well on SQuAD. We have provided code for preprocessing the data and computing the evaluation metrics, and code to train a fully-functional neural baseline. Your job is to improve on this baseline.

In Section 5, we describe several models and techniques that are commonly used in high-performing SQuAD models – most come from recent research papers. We provide these suggestions to help you get started implementing better models. They should all improve over the baseline if implemented correctly (and note that there is usually more than one way to implement something correctly).

Though you’re not required to implement something original, the best projects will pursue some form of originality (and in fact may become research papers in the future). Originality doesn’t necessarily have to be a completely new approach – small but well-motivated changes to existing models are very valuable, especially if followed by good analysis. If you can show quantitatively and qualitatively that your small but original change improves a state-of-the-art model (and even better, explain what particular problem it solves and how), then you will have done extremely well.

Like the custom final project, the default final project is open-ended – it will be up to you to figure out what to do. In many cases there won’t be one correct answer for how to do something – it will take experimentation to determine which way is best. We are expecting you to exercise the judgment and intuition that you’ve gained from the class so far to build your models.

For more information on grading criteria, see Section 7.
2 Getting Started

For this project, you will need a machine with GPUs to train your models efficiently. For this, you have access to Azure, similarly to Assignments 4 and 5 – remember you can refer to the Azure Guide and Practical Guide to VMs linked on the class webpage. As before, remember that Azure credit is charged for every minute that your VM is on, so it’s important that your VM is only turned on when you are actually training your models.

We advise that you develop your code on your local machine (or one of the Stanford machines, like rice), using PyTorch without GPUs, and move to your Azure VM only once you’ve debugged your code and you’re ready to train. We advise that you use GitHub to manage your codebase and sync it between the two machines (and between team members) – the Practical Guide to VMs has more information on this.

When you work through this Getting Started section for the first time, do so on your local machine. You will then repeat the process on your Azure VM. Once you are on an appropriate machine, clone the project Github repository with the following command:

```
git clone https://github.com/minggg/squad.git
```

This repository contains the starter code and the version of SQuAD that we will be using. We encourage you to git clone our repository, rather than simply downloading it, so that you can easily integrate any bug fixes that we make to the code. In fact, you should periodically check whether there are any new fixes that you need to download. To do so, navigate to the squad directory and run the git pull command.

Note: If you use GitHub to manage your code, you must keep your repository private.

2.1 Code overview

The repository squad contains the following files:

- `args.py`: Command-line arguments for `setup.py`, `train.py`, and `test.py`.
- `environment.yml`: List of packages in the conda virtual environment.
- `layers.py`: Layers used by the models.
- `models.py`: The starter model, and any others you might add.
- `setup.py`: Downloads pretrained GloVe vectors and preprocesses the data.
- `train.py`: Top-level entrypoint for training the model.
- `test.py`: Top-level entrypoint for testing the model and generating submissions for the leaderboard.
- `util.py`: Utility functions and classes.

In addition, you will notice two directories:

- `data/`: Contains our custom SQuAD dataset, both the unprocessed JSON files, and (after running `setup.py`), all preprocessed files.
- `save/`: Location for saving all checkpoints and logs. For example, if you train the baseline with `python train.py -n baseline`, then the logs, checkpoints, and TensorBoard events will be saved in `save/train/baseline-01`. The suffix number will increment if you train another model with the same name.
2.2 Setup

Once you are on an appropriate machine and have cloned the project repository, it’s time to run the setup commands.

- Make sure you have Anaconda or Miniconda installed.
- `cd` into `squad` and run `conda env create -f environment.yml`
  - This creates a conda environment called `squad`.
- Run `source activate squad`
  - This activates the `squad` environment.
  - Note: Remember to do this each time you work on your code.
- Run `python setup.py`
  - pip install spacy, ujson
  - This downloads GloVe 300-dimensional word vectors and the SQuAD 2.0 train/dev sets.
  - This also pre-processes the dataset for efficient data loading.
  - For a MacBook Pro on the Stanford network, setup.py takes around 30 minutes total.
- (Optional) If you would like to use PyCharm, select the `squad` environment. Example instructions for Mac OS X:
  - Open the `squad` directory in PyCharm.
  - Go to PyCharm > Preferences > Project > Project interpreter.
  - Click the gear in the top-right corner, then Add.
  - Select Conda environment > Existing environment > Click ’...’ on the right.
  - Select /Users/YOUR_USERNAME/miniconda3/envs/squad/bin/python.
  - Select OK then Apply.

Once the setup.py script has finished, you should now see many additional files in `squad/data`:

- `{train,dev,test}-v2.0.json`: The official SQuAD train set, and our modified version of the SQuAD dev and test sets. See Section 3 for details. Note that the test set does not come with answers.
- `{train,dev,test}_{eval,meta}.json`: Tokenized training and dev set data.
- `glove.840B.300d/glove.840B.300d.txt`: Pretrained GloVe vectors. These are 300-dimensional embeddings trained on the CommonCrawl 840B corpus. See more information here: https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/.
- `{word,char}_emb.json`: Word and character embeddings, where we kept only the words and characters that appear in the training set. This trimming process is common practice to reduce the size of the embedding matrix and free up memory for your model.
- `{word,char2idx.json`: Dictionaries mapping character and words (strings) to indices (integers) in the embedding matrices in `{word,char}_emb.json`.

If you see all of these files, then you’re ready to get started training the baseline model (see Section 4.2)! If not, check the output of setup.py for error messages, and ask for assistance on Ed if necessary.
3 The SQuAD Data

3.1 Data splits

The official SQuAD 2.0 dataset has three splits: train, dev and test. The train and dev sets are publicly available and the test set is entirely secret. To compete on the official SQuAD leaderboards, researchers submit their models, and the SQuAD team runs the models on the secret test set.

For simplicity and scalability, we are instead running our class leaderboard ‘Kaggle-style’, i.e., we release test set’s (context, question) pairs to students, and they submit their model-produced answers in a CSV file. We then compare these CSV files to the true test set answers and report scores in a leaderboard. Clearly, we cannot release the official test set’s (context, question) pairs because they are secret. Therefore in this project, we will be using custom dev and test sets, which are obtained by splitting the official dev set in half.

Given that the official SQuAD dev set contains our test set, you must make sure not to use the official SQuAD dev set in any way. You may only use our training set and our dev set to train, tune and evaluate your models. If you use the official SQuAD dev set to train, to tune or evaluate your models, or to modify your CSV solutions in any way, you are committing an honor code violation. To detect cheating of this kind, we have produced a small amount of new SQuAD 2.0 examples whose answers are not publicly available, and added them to our test set – your relative performance on these examples, compared to the rest of our test set, would reveal any cheating. If you always use the provided GitHub repository and setup.py script to set up your SQuAD dataset, and don’t use the official SQuAD dev set at all, you will be safe.

To summarize, we have the following splits:

- **train** (129,941 examples): All taken from the official SQuAD 2.0 training set.
- **dev** (6078 examples): Roughly half of the official dev set, randomly selected.
- **test** (5915 examples): The remaining examples from the official dev set, plus hand-labeled examples.

From now on we will refer to these splits as ‘the train set’, ‘the dev set’ and ‘the test set’, and always refer to the official splits as ‘the official train set’, ‘the official dev set’, and ‘the official test set’.

You will use the train set to train your model and the dev set to tune hyperparameters and measure progress locally. Finally, you will submit your test set solutions to a class leaderboard, which will calculate and display your scores on the test set – see Section 6 for more information.

3.2 Terminology

The SQuAD dataset contains many (context, question, answer) triples\textsuperscript{2} – see an example in Section 1.1. Each context (sometimes called a passage, paragraph or document in other papers) is an excerpt from Wikipedia. The question (sometimes called a query in other papers) is the question to be answered based on the context. The answer is a span (i.e. excerpt of text) from the context.

\textsuperscript{2}As described in Section 1.1, the dev and test sets actually have three human-provided answers for each question. But the training set only has one answer per question.
4 Training the Baseline

As a starting point, we have provided you with the complete code for a baseline model, which uses deep learning techniques you learned in class. In this section we will describe the baseline model and show you how to train it.

4.1 Baseline Model

The baseline model is based on Bidirectional Attention Flow (BiDAF) \[3\]. The original BiDAF model uses learned character-level word embeddings in addition to the word-level embeddings. Unlike the original BiDAF model, our implementation does not include a character-level embedding layer. It may be a useful preliminary exercise to extend the baseline model to match the original BiDAF model (i.e. ‘BiDAF-No-Answer (single model)’) baseline score in last place on the official SQuAD 2.0 leaderboard, although we you should aim higher for your final project goal. (See Section 5 for an explanation of how one might add character-level embeddings.)

In model.py, you will see that BiDAF follows the high-level structure outlined in the sections below. Throughout let $N$ be the length of the context, let $M$ be the length of the question, let $D$ be the embedding size, and let $H$ be the hidden size of the model.

Embedding Layer (\texttt{layers.Embedding})

Given some input word indices $w_1, \ldots, w_k \in \mathbb{N}$, the embedding layer performs an embedding lookup to convert the indices into word embeddings $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^D$. This is done for both the context and the question, producing embeddings $c_1, \ldots, c_N \in \mathbb{R}^D$ for the context and $q_1, \ldots, q_M \in \mathbb{R}^D$ for the question.

In the embedding layer, we further refine the embeddings with the following two step process:

1. We project each embedding to have dimensionality $H$: Letting $W_{\text{proj}} \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times D}$ be a learnable matrix of parameters, each embedding vector $v_i$ is mapped to $h_i = W_{\text{proj}} v_i \in \mathbb{R}^H$.

2. We apply a Highway Network \[4\] to refine the embedded representation. Given an input vector $h_i$, a one-layer highway network computes

$$g = \sigma(W_g h_i + b_g) \in \mathbb{R}^H$$
$$t = \text{ReLU}(W_t h_i + b_t) \in \mathbb{R}^H$$
$$h_i' = g \odot t + (1 - g) \odot h_i \in \mathbb{R}^H,$$

where $W_g, W_t \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times H}$ and $b_g, b_t \in \mathbb{R}^H$ are learnable parameters ($g$ is for ‘gate’ and $t$ is for ‘transform’). We use a two-layer highway network to transform each hidden vector $h_i$, which means we apply the above transformation twice, each time using distinct learnable parameters.

Encoder Layer (\texttt{layers.RNNEncoder})

The encoder layer takes the embedding layer’s output as input and uses a bidirectional LSTM \[5\] to allow the model to incorporate temporal dependencies between timesteps of the embedding layer’s output. The encoded output is the RNN’s hidden state at each position:

$$h_i'_{\text{fwd}} = \text{LSTM}(h_{i-1}', h_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H$$
$$h_i'_{\text{rev}} = \text{LSTM}(h_{i+1}', h_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H$$
$$h_i' = [h_i'_{\text{fwd}}; h_i'_{\text{rev}}] \in \mathbb{R}^{2H}.$$

Note in particular that $h_i'$ is of dimension $2H$, as it is the concatenation of forward and backward hidden states at timestep $i$.

---

3 A word index is an integer that tells you which row (or column) of the embedding matrix contains the word’s embedding. The word2idx dictionary maps words to their indices.
Attention Layer (layers.BiDAFAttention)

The core part of the BiDAF model is the bidirectional attention flow layer, which we will describe here. The main idea is that attention should flow both ways – from the context to the question and from the question to the context.

Assume we have context hidden states \(c_1, \ldots, c_N \in \mathbb{R}^{2H}\) and question hidden states \(q_1, \ldots, q_M \in \mathbb{R}^{2H}\). We compute the similarity matrix \(S \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}\), which contains a similarity score \(S_{ij}\) for each pair \((c_i, q_j)\) of context and question hidden states.

\[
S_{ij} = w^\text{sim}_i[c_i; q_j; c_i \circ q_j] \in \mathbb{R}
\]

Here, \(c_i \circ q_j\) is an elementwise product and \(w^\text{sim} \in \mathbb{R}^{6H}\) is a weight vector. In the starter code, the get_similarity_matrix method of the layers.BiDAFAttention class is a memory-efficient implementation of this operation. We encourage you to walk through the implementation of get_similarity_matrix and convince yourself that it indeed computes the similarity matrix as described above.

Since the similarity matrix \(S\) contains information for both the question and context, we can use it to normalize across either the row or the column in order to attend to the question or context, respectively.

First, we perform Context-to-Question (C2Q) Attention. We take the row-wise softmax of \(S\) to obtain attention distributions \(\bar{S}\), which we use to take weighted sums of the question hidden states \(q_j\), yielding C2Q attention outputs \(a_i\). In equations, this is:

\[
\bar{S}_{i,:} = \text{softmax}(S_{i,:}) \in \mathbb{R}^M \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}
\]

\[
a_i = \sum_{j=1}^M \bar{S}_{i,j} q_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2H} \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}.
\]

Next, we perform Question-to-Context(Q2C) Attention. We take the softmax of the columns of \(S\) to get \(\bar{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}\), where each column is an attention distribution over context words. Then we multiply with \(\bar{S}\) into \(\bar{S}\), and use the result to take weighted sums of the hidden states \(c_j\) to get the Q2C attention output:

\[
\bar{S}_{:,j} = \text{softmax}(\bar{S}_{:,j}) \in \mathbb{R}^N \quad \forall j \in \{1, \ldots, M\}
\]

\[
S' = \bar{S} \bar{S}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}
\]

\[
b_i = \sum_{j=1}^N S'_{i,j} c_j \in \mathbb{R}^{2H} \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}.
\]

Lastly, for each context location \(i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}\) we obtain the output \(g_i\), of the bidirectional attention flow layer by combining the context hidden state \(c_i\), the C2Q attention output \(a_i\), and the Q2C attention output \(b_i\):

\[
g_i = [c_i; a_i; c_i \circ a_i; c_i \circ b_i] \in \mathbb{R}^{8H} \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}
\]

where \(\circ\) represents elementwise multiplication.

Modeling Layer (layers.RNNEncoder)

The modeling layer is tasked with refining the sequence of vectors after the attention layer. Since the modeling layer comes after the attention layer, the context representations are conditioned on the question by the time they reach the modeling layer. Thus the modeling layer integrates temporal information between context representations conditioned on the question. Similar to the Encoder layer, we use a bidirectional LSTM. Given input vectors \(g_i \in \mathbb{R}^{8H}\), the modeling layer computes

\[
m_{i,\text{fwd}} = \text{LSTM}(m_{i-1}, g_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H
\]

\[
m_{i,\text{rev}} = \text{LSTM}(m_{i+1}, g_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H
\]

\[
m_i = [m_{i,\text{fwd}}; m_{i,\text{rev}}] \in \mathbb{R}^{2H}.
\]

The modeling layer differs from the encoder layer in that we use a one-layer LSTM in the encoder layer, whereas we use a two-layer LSTM in the modeling layer.
Output Layer (layers.BiDAFOutput)

The output layer is tasked with producing a vector of probabilities corresponding to each position in the context: \(p_{\text{start}}, p_{\text{end}} \in \mathbb{R}^N\). As the notation suggests, \(p_{\text{start}}(i)\) is the predicted probability that the answer span starts at position \(i\), and similarly \(p_{\text{end}}(i)\) is the predicted probability that the answer span ends at position \(i\). (See the ‘Predicting no-answer’ section below for details on no-answer predictions).

Concretely, the output layer takes as input the attention layer outputs \(g_1, \ldots, g_N \in \mathbb{R}^H\) and the modeling layer outputs \(m_1, \ldots, m_N \in \mathbb{R}^H\). The output layer applies a bidirectional LSTM to the modeling layer outputs, producing a vector \(m'_i\) for each \(m_i\) given by

\[
\begin{align*}
    m'_{i,\text{fwd}} &= \text{LSTM}(m'_{i-1}, m_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H \\
    m'_{i,\text{rev}} &= \text{LSTM}(m'_{i+1}, m_i) \in \mathbb{R}^H \\
    m'_i &= [m'_{i,\text{fwd}}; m'_{i,\text{rev}}] \in \mathbb{R}^{2H}.
\end{align*}
\]

Now let \(G \in \mathbb{R}^{8H \times N}\) be the matrix with columns \(g_1, \ldots, g_N\), and let \(M, M' \in \mathbb{R}^{2H \times N}\) similarly be matrices with columns \(m_1, \ldots, m_N\) and \(m'_1, \ldots, m'_N\), respectively. To finally produce \(p_{\text{start}}\) and \(p_{\text{end}}\), the output layer computes

\[
p_{\text{start}} = \text{softmax}(W_{\text{start}}G; M) \quad p_{\text{end}} = \text{softmax}(W_{\text{end}}G; M'),
\]

where \(W_{\text{start}}, W_{\text{end}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times 10H}\) are learnable parameters. In the code, notice that the softmax operation uses the context mask, and we compute all probabilities in log-space for numerical stability and because the \texttt{F.nll_loss} function expects log-probabilities.

Training Details

Loss Function

Our loss function is the sum of the negative log-likelihood (cross-entropy) loss for the start and end locations. That is, if the gold start and end locations are \(i \in \{1, \ldots, N\}\) and \(j \in \{1, \ldots, N\}\) respectively, then the loss for a single example is:

\[
\text{loss} = -\log p_{\text{start}}(i) - \log p_{\text{end}}(j)
\]

During training, we average across the batch and use the Adadelta optimizer [6] to minimize the loss.

Inference Details

Discretized Predictions

At test time, we discretize the soft predictions of the model to get start and end indices. We choose the pair \((i, j)\) of indices that maximizes \(p_{\text{start}}(i) \cdot p_{\text{end}}(j)\) subject to \(i \leq j\) and \(j - i + 1 \leq L_{\text{max}}\), where \(L_{\text{max}}\) is a hyperparameter which sets the maximum length of a predicted answer. We set \(L_{\text{max}}\) to 15 by default. Code can be found in the \texttt{discretize} function in \texttt{util.py}.

Predicting no-answer

To allow our model to make no-answer predictions, we adopt an approach that was originally introduced in Section 5 of [7]. In particular, we prepend a OOV (Out of Vocabulary) token to the beginning of each context. The model outputs \(p_{\text{start}}\) and \(p_{\text{end}}\) soft-predictions as usual, so no adaptation is needed within the model. When discretizing a prediction, if \(p_{\text{start}}(0) \cdot p_{\text{end}}(0)\) is greater than any predicted answer span, the model predicts no-answer. Otherwise the model predicts the highest probability span as usual. We keep the same NLL loss function.

Intuitively, this approach allows the model to predict a per-example confidence score that the question is unanswerable. If the model is highly confident that there is no answer, we predict no answer. In all cases the model continues to predict the most likely span if that answer exists.
Exponential Moving Average of Parameters

As recommended in the BiDAF paper, we use an exponentially weighted moving average of the model parameters during evaluation (with decay rate 0.999). Intuitively, this is similar to using an ensemble of multiple checkpoints sampled from one training run. The details can be found in the util.EMA class, and you will notice calls to ema.assign and ema.resume in train.py. It is worth experimenting with removing the exponential moving average or changing the decay rate when you train your own models.

4.2 Train the baseline

Before starting to train the baseline on your VM, consider opening a new session with tmux or some other session manager. This will make it easier for you to leave your model training for a long time, then retrieve the session later. For more information about TMUX, see the Practical tips for final projects document.

To start training the baseline, run the following commands:

```
source activate squad # Activate the squad environment
python train.py -n baseline # Start training
```

After some initialization, you should see the model begin to log information like the following:

```
20\%|### | 26112/129941 [02:53<09:48, 176.40it/s, NLL=6.54, epoch=1]
```

You should see the loss – shown as NLL for negative log-likelihood – begin to drop. On a single Azure NC6 instance, you should expect training to take about 22 minutes per epoch. Note that the starter code will automatically use more than one GPU if your machine has more available.

You should also see that there is a new directory under save/train/baseline-01. This is where you can find all data relating to this experiment. In particular, you will (eventually) see:

- **log.txt**: A record of all information logged during training. This includes a complete printout of the arguments at the very top, which can be useful when trying to reproduce results.
- **events.out.tfevents.***: These files contain information (like the loss over time), which our code has logged so it can be visualized by TensorBoard.
- **step_N.pth.tar**: These are checkpoint files, that contain the weights of the model at checkpoints which achieved the highest validation metrics. The number N corresponds to how many training iterations had been completed when the model was saved. By default a checkpoint is saved every 50,000 iterations, but you can save checkpoints more frequently by changing the eval_steps flag.
- **best.pth.tar**: The best checkpoint throughout training. The metric used to determine which checkpoint is ‘best’ is defined by the metric_name flag. Typically you will load this checkpoint for use by test.py, which you can do by setting the load_path flag.

4.3 Tracking progress in TensorBoard

We strongly encourage you to use TensorBoard, as it will enable you to get a much better view of your experiments. To use TensorBoard, run the following command from the squad directory:

```
tensorboard --logdir save --port 5678 # Start TensorBoard
```

If you are training on your local machine, now open http://localhost:5678/ in your browser. If you are training on a remote machine (e.g. Azure), then run the following command on your local machine:

```
ssh -N -f -L localhost:1234:localhost:5678 <user>@<remote>
```
where `<user>@<remote>` is the address that you `ssh` to for your remote machine. Then on your local machine, open `http://localhost:1234/` in your browser.

You should see TensorBoard load with plots of the loss, AvNA, EM, and F1 for both train and dev sets. EM and F1 are the official SQuAD evaluation metrics, and AvNA is a useful metric we added for debugging purposes. In particular, AvNA stands for **Answer vs. No Answer** and it measures the classification accuracy of your model when only considering its answer (any span predicted) vs. no-answer predictions.

The dev plots may take some time to appear because they are logged less frequently than the train plots. However, you should see training set loss decreasing from the very start. Here is the view after training the baseline model for 25 epochs:

In particular, over 3 million iterations we find that:

- The train loss continues to improve throughout
- The dev loss begins to rise around 2M iterations (overfitting)
- The dev AvNA reaches about 65, the dev F1 reaches about 58, and the dev EM score reaches around 55.
- Although the dev NLL improves throughout the training period, the dev EM and F1 scores initially get worse at the start of training, before then improving. We elaborate on this point below.

Regarding the last bullet point, this does not necessarily indicate a bug, but rather can be explained because we directly optimize the NLL loss, not F1 or EM: Early in training, the NLL is quickly reduced by always predicting no-answer. Since roughly half of the SQuAD examples are no-answer, a model predicting all no-answer will get close to 50% AvNA. In addition, the SQuAD 2.0 metrics define F1 and EM for no-answer examples to be 1 if the model predicts no answer and 0 otherwise. If we assume the model gets 0 F1 and EM on answerable examples, this results in a mean F1/EM score of roughly 50% very early in training.

We advise you to reproduce this experiment, i.e., train the baseline and obtain results similar to those we report above. This will give you something to compare your improved models against. In particular, TensorBoard will plot your new experiments overlaid with your baseline experiment – this will enable you to see how your improved models train over time, compared to the baseline.

4.4 Inspecting Output

During training you will also notice a tab in TensorBoard labeled **Text**. Try clicking on this tab and you should see output similar to the following:
Viewing these examples can be extremely helpful to debug your model, understand its strengths and weaknesses, and as a starting point for your analysis in your final report.
5 More SQuAD Models and Techniques

From here, the project is open-ended! As explained in Section 1.2, in this section we provide you with an overview of models, model families, and other common techniques that are used in high-performing SQuAD systems. Your job is to read about some of these models and techniques, understand them, choose some to implement, carefully train them, and analyze their performance – ultimately building the best SQuAD system you can. Implementation is an open-ended task: there are multiple valid implementations of a single model, and sometimes a paper won’t even provide all the details – requiring you to make some decisions by yourself. To learn more about project expectations and grading, see Section 7.

5.1 Character-level Embeddings

*Appears in: Bidirectional Attention Flow for Machine Comprehension [3]*

As we learnt in lectures and Assignment 5, character-level embeddings allow us to condition on the internal structure of words (this is known as morphology), and better handle out-of-vocabulary words – these are advantages compared to lookup-based word embeddings. As mentioned in Section 4.1, the original BiDAF model includes a character-level embedding layer using character-level convnets. You could alternatively try other kinds of subword modeling mentioned in lectures.

The starter code is designed to make it straightforward to add character-level word embeddings. In particular, you will notice that the `util.SQuAD` class returns character indices, and these are loaded in `train.py` and `test.py`.

5.2 Coattention

*Appears in: Dynamic Coattention Networks [8]*

The Dynamic Coattention Network is another high-performing SQuAD model. One of its two main contributions is the Coattention Layer, which, like BiDAF, involves a two-way attention between the context and the question. However, unlike Bidirectional Attention Flow, Coattention involves a second-level attention computation – i.e., attending over representations that are themselves attention outputs. Here, we describe the Coattention Layer, which could be substituted into the baseline in place of the basic Attention Layer.

Assume we have context hidden states \( c_1, \ldots, c_N \in \mathbb{R}^l \) and question hidden states \( q_1, \ldots, q_M \in \mathbb{R}^l \). First, we apply a linear layer with tanh nonlinearity to the question hidden states to obtain projected question hidden states \( q'_1, \ldots, q'_M \):

\[
q'_j = \tanh(W_q j + b) \in \mathbb{R}^l \quad \forall j \in \{1, \ldots, M\}
\]

where \( W \) is a weight matrix and \( b \) is a bias vector. Next, add *sentinel vectors* \( c_\emptyset \in \mathbb{R}^l \) and \( q_\emptyset \in \mathbb{R}^l \) (which are trainable parameters of the model) to both the context and question states. This gives us \( \{c_1, \ldots, c_N, c_\emptyset\} \) and \( \{q'_1, \ldots, q'_M, q_\emptyset\} \). Next, we compute the affinity matrix \( L \in \mathbb{R}^{(N+1) \times (M+1)} \), which contains the affinity scores \( L_{ij} \) for each pair \((c_i, q'_j)\) of context and question hidden states:

\[
L_{ij} = c_i^T q'_j \in \mathbb{R}
\]

Next, we use the affinity matrix \( L \) to compute attention outputs for both directions. For the Context-to-Question (C2Q) Attention, we obtain C2Q attention outputs \( a_i \):

\[
a^i = \text{softmax}(L_{i,:}) \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}
\]

\[
a_i = \sum_{j=1}^{M+1} a_j^i q'_j \in \mathbb{R}^l
\]

For the Question-to-Context (Q2C) Attention, we obtain Q2C attention outputs \( b_j \):

\[
4\text{The purpose of the sentinel vectors is to make it possible to attend to none of the provided hidden states. See the paper for more details.}
\]
\[ \beta^j = \text{softmax}(L_{:,j}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N+1} \]
\[ b_j = \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} \beta^j_i c_i \in \mathbb{R}^l \]

Next, we use the C2Q attention distributions \( \alpha^i \) to take weighted sums of the Q2C attention outputs \( b_j \). This gives us second-level attention outputs \( s_i \):
\[ s_i = \sum_{j=1}^{M+1} \alpha^i_j b_j \in \mathbb{R}^l \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \]

Finally, we concatenate the second-level attention outputs \( s_i \) with the first-level C2Q attention outputs \( a_i \), and feed the sequence through a bidirectional LSTM. The resulting hidden states \( u_i \) of the biLSTM are known as the coattention encoding. This is the overall output of the Coattention Layer.

\[ \{u_1, \ldots, u_N\} = \text{biLSTM}([s_1; a_1], \ldots, [s_N; a_N]) \]

### 5.3 Conditioning End Prediction on Start Prediction

*Appears in: Match-LSTM and Answer Pointer [9]*

Our baseline predicts the start location and the end location independently, given the final layer’s activations \( b' \). Instead, you could build a model that conditions the probability distribution for the end location on the start location probability distribution.

The Answer Pointer component of the ‘Match-LSTM with Answer Pointer’ model\(^5\) does this. The Answer Pointer is similar to the decoder component of a sequence-to-sequence model, like we saw in lectures. However, it is a Pointer Network, meaning that on each timestep, instead of outputting a probability distribution over a vocabulary (like a NMT decoder), it outputs a probability distribution over locations in the context (i.e. locations it could point to). Suppose we have a set of representations \( h_{r1}, \ldots, h_{rN} \in \mathbb{R}^l \), one for each context location. The Answer Pointer is a RNN that is run for exactly two timesteps. On the first timestep, the Answer Pointer hidden state attends to \( h_{r1}, \ldots, h_{rN} \), producing an attention distribution \( \beta_s \in \mathbb{R}^N \) and an attention output \( a_s \in \mathbb{R}^l \). We use \( \beta_s \) as \( p_{\text{start}} \), the probability distribution for the start location. On the second timestep, the attention output \( a_s \) is used as input to the Answer Pointer RNN (this is how \( p_{\text{end}} \) depends on \( p_{\text{start}} \)). Then we use the new Answer Pointer hidden state to attend to \( h_{r1}, \ldots, h_{rN} \), producing an attention distribution \( \beta_e \in \mathbb{R}^N \) which we use as \( p_{\text{end}} \).

You could implement a system like this to replace the Output Layer of our baseline. You could additionally read the Match-LSTM and Answer Pointer paper to learn about the other techniques used in the model (for example, the Match-LSTM component).

### 5.4 Span Representations

*Appears in: Dynamic Chunk Reader [10]*

The SQuAD task can be phrased as the task of determining the joint probability distribution
\[ P(t_{\text{start}}, t_{\text{end}} \mid \text{context, question}) \]

where \( t_{\text{start}} \) and \( t_{\text{end}} \) are random variables corresponding to the start and end locations of the true answer span. The majority of SQuAD models (including our baseline) calculate this as the product of the probabilities of the start and end positions:
\[ P(t_{\text{start}}, t_{\text{end}} \mid \text{context, question}) = P(t_{\text{start}} \mid \text{context, question})P(t_{\text{end}} \mid \text{context, question}) \]

---

\(^5\)When reading the paper, focus on the Boundary Model (described here), not the Sequence Model.
As an alternative approach, you could build a model that directly computes the probability of each possible span. This is what the Dynamic Chunk Reader (DCR) does. The DCR model first obtains a list of candidate spans. This can be done, for example, by enumerating all possible spans of text up to \( n \) tokens long.\(^6\)

Next, the DCR model builds a representation for each of these candidate spans (or chunks). Suppose that we have a sequence (over context locations) of representations \( \{ b_i, b_1, \ldots, b_N, b_N \} \), which we obtained as the forwards and backwards hidden states from a bidirectional RNN encoder (note we have not explained what the input to this bidirectional RNN was). To represent the candidate chunk from position \( i \) to position \( k \), the DCR takes the concatenation \( [ b_i; b_k ] \). Once you’ve obtained these fixed-size representations for each candidate chunk, you can implement a simple softmax-based Output Layer similar to the one in our baseline - but instead it will produce a probability distribution over candidate chunks (instead of two distributions over context context locations). If you choose to implement this model, you will need to think about how you will build the chunk representations from the \( \{ b_i, b_k \} \). If you implement this model, think about the advantages and disadvantages of this approach, and comment on them in your writeup. How scalable is this model to longer pieces of text? What is the complexity of enumerating and processing all possible chunks? Can you make this model more efficient?

5.5 Self-attention

*Appears in: R-Net: Machine Reading Comprehension with Self-Matching Networks*\(^7\)

Self-attention is a phrase that can have slightly different meanings depending on the setting. In a RNN-based language model, self-attention often means that the hidden state \( h_t \) attends to all the previous hidden states so far \( h_1, \ldots, h_{t-1} \). In a context where you are encoding some text length \( n \), self-attention might mean that \( h_t \) attends to all the hidden states \( h_1, \ldots, h_n \) (even including itself). Transformers are built on a kind of self-attention. The main idea of self-attention is that the query vector is from the same set as the set of value vectors.

R-Net is a simple but high-performing SQuAD model that has both a Context-to-Question attention layer (similar to our baseline), and a self-attention layer (which they call Self-Matching Attention). Both layers are simple applications of additive attention (as described in lectures). The R-Net paper is one of the easier ones to understand.

5.6 Transformers

*Appears in: QANet: Combining Local Convolution with Global Self-Attention for Reading Comprehension* \(^{11}\)

QANet adapts ideas from the Transformer \(^{12}\) and applies them to question answering, doing away with RNNs and replacing them entirely with self-attention and convolution. The main component of the QANet model is called an Encoder Block. The Encoder Block draws inspiration from the Transformer: The two modules are similar in their use of positional encoding, residual connections, layer normalization, self-attention sublayers, and feed-forward sublayers. However, an Encoder Block differs from the Transformer in its use of stacked convolutional sublayers, which use depthwise-separable convolution to capture local dependencies in the input sequence. Prior to BERT, QANet had state-of-the-art performance for SQuAD 1.1. We will have a whole lecture to learn about Transformers in week 7.

5.7 Transformer-XL

*Original paper: Transformer-XL: Language Modeling with Longer-Term Dependency* \(^{13}\)

The motivation for Transformer-XL is to allow Transformers to learn longer-term dependencies (similar to the motivation for LSTMs vs vanilla RNNs). Transformer-XL achieves this goal by using a segment-level recurrence mechanism. Note that the authors report improved performance on

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\(^6\)If you implement this model you should consult your histogram of answer lengths in order to select a sensible value for \( n \).

both long and short sequences. Thus even for question answering, where the attention mechanism can consider the entire context at once, we might expect to see performance gains over vanilla Transformers. One idea would be to adapt ideas from Transformer-XL to the QANet architecture.

5.8 Reformers

*Original paper: Reformers: The Efficient Transformer [14]*

Going further, most recent model Reformers is designed to handle 1 million words in context windows, while using only 16GB of memory. It combines two techniques: locality-sensitive hashing to reduce the sequence-length complexity as well as reversible residual layers to reduce storage requirements. One idea is to find relevant text from the Internet, append to context (original excerpt from Wikipedia), and process it with Reformers.

5.9 Additional input features

*Appears in: Reading Wikipedia to Answer Open-Domain Questions (aka DrQA) [15]*

Although Deep Learning is able to learn end-to-end without the need for feature engineering, it turns out that using the right input features can still boost performance significantly. For example, the DrQA model significantly boosts performance on SQuAD by including some simple but useful input features (for example, a word in the SQuAD context passage is represented not only by its word vector, but is also tagged with features representing its frequency, part-of-speech tag, named entity type, etc.). If you implement a model like this, reflect on the tradeoff between feature engineering and end-to-end learning, and comment on it in your report.

5.10 More models and papers

The models and techniques we have presented here are far from exhaustive. There are many published papers on SQuAD, some of which can be found on the SQuAD leaderboard, and others via searching online – there may be new ones that we haven’t seen yet! In addition, there is lots of deep learning research on question answering and reading comprehension tasks other than SQuAD (see the Question Answering lecture for inspiration, or look online at lists of other QA datasets*). These papers may contain interesting ideas that you can apply to SQuAD.

5.11 Other improvements

There are many other things besides architecture changes that you can do to improve your performance. The suggestions in this section are mostly quick to implement, but it will take time to run the necessary experiments and draw the necessary comparisons. Remember that we will be grading your experimental thoroughness, so do not neglect the hyperparameter search!

- **Regularization.** The baseline code uses dropout. Experiment with different values of dropout and different types of regularization.

- **Sharing weights.** The baseline code uses the same RNN encoder weights for both the context and the question. This can be useful to enrich both the context and the question representations. Are there other parts of the model that could share weights? Are there conditions under which it’s better to not share weights?

- **Word vectors.** By default, the baseline model uses 300-dimensional pre-trained GloVe embeddings to represent words, and these embeddings are held constant during training. You can experiment with other sizes or types of word embeddings, or try retraining or fine-tuning the embeddings.

- **Combining forward and backward states.** In the baseline, we concatenate the forward and backward hidden states from the bidirectional RNN. You could try adding, averaging or max pooling them instead.

*http://nlpprogress.com/english/question_answering.html
• **Types of RNN.** Our baseline uses a bidirectional LSTM. You could try a GRU instead – it might be faster.

• **Model size and number of layers.** With any model, you can try increasing the model size, usually at the cost of slower runtime.

• **Optimization algorithms.** The baseline uses the Adadelta optimizer. PyTorch supports many other optimization algorithms. You might also experiment with learning rate annealing. You should also try varying the learning rate.

• **Ensembling.** Ensembling almost always boosts performance, so try combining several of your models together for your final submission. However, ensembles are more computationally expensive to run.
6 Submitting to the Leaderboard

6.1 Overview

We are hosting four leaderboards on Gradescope, where you can compare your performance against that of your classmates. F1 score is the performance metric we will use to rank submissions, although both EM and F1 scores will be displayed. The leaderboards can be found at the following links:

1. Dev: TODO
2. Test: TODO

You are allowed to submit to the dev leaderboard as many times as you like, but you will only be allowed 3 successful submissions to the test leaderboard. For your final report, we will ask you to choose a single test leaderboard submission to consider for your final performance. Therefore you must make at least one submission to the test leaderboard, but be careful not to use up your test submissions before you have finished developing your best model.

Submitting to the leaderboard is similar to submitting any other assignment on Gradescope, except that your submission is a CSV file of answers on the dev/test set. You may use the starter code’s test.py script to generate a submission file of the correct format, or see lines 128-135 for example code to generate a submission file. At a high level, the submission file should look like the following:

```
Id,Predicted
001fefa37a13cdd53fd82f617,Governor Vaudreuil
00415cf9abb539fbb7989beba,May 1754
00a4cc38bd041e9a4c4e545ff,
... 
fffcaebf1e674a54ecb3c39df,1755
```

The header is required, and each subsequent row must contain two columns: the first column is a 25-digit hexadecimal ID for the question/answer example (IDs defined in {dev,test}-v2.0.json), and the second column is your predicted answer (or the empty string for no answer). The rows can be in any order. For the test leaderboard, you must submit a prediction for every example, and for the dev leaderboard, you must submit predictions for at least 95% of the examples (e.g., to allow for the default preprocessing in setup.py which throws away long examples in the dev set).

6.2 Submission Steps

Here are the concrete steps for submitting to the leaderboard:

1. Generate a submission file (e.g., by running test.py in the starter code) for either the dev or test set. Make sure to set the --split flag for test.py accordingly.
2. Save the submission file locally under the name {dev,test}_submission.csv.
3. Use the URLs above to navigate to the leaderboard. Make sure to choose the correct leaderboard for your split (DEV vs. TEST).
4. Click upload and wait for your scores. The submission output will tell you the submission EM/F1, although the leaderboard will keep scores for the submission with the highest F1 score thus far.

There should be useful error messages if anything goes wrong. If you get an error that you cannot understand, please make a post on Ed.
7 Grading Criteria

The final project will be graded holistically. This means we will look at many factors when determining your grade: the creativity, complexity and technical correctness of your approach, your thoroughness in exploring and comparing various approaches, the strength of your results, the effort you applied, and the quality of your write-up, evaluation, and error analysis. Generally, implementing more complicated models represents more effort, and implementing more unusual models (e.g. ones that we have not mentioned in this handout) represents more creativity. You are not required to pursue original ideas, but the best projects in this class will go beyond the ideas described in this handout, and may in fact become published work themselves!

There is no pre-defined F1 or EM score to ensure a good grade. Though we have run some preliminary tests to get some ballpark scores, it is impossible to say in advance what distribution of scores will be reasonably achievable for students in the provided timeframe. As in previous years, we will have to grade performance relative to the leaderboard as a whole (though, comparing only within the IID SQuAD track).

For similar reasons, there is no pre-defined rule for which of the models in Section 5 (or elsewhere) would ensure a good grade. Implementing a small number of things with good results and thorough experimentation/analysis is better than implementing a large number of things that don’t work, or barely work. In addition, the quality of your writeup and experimentation is important: we expect you to convincingly show that your techniques are effective and describe why they work (or the cases when they don’t work).

In the analysis section of your report, we want to see you go beyond the simple F1 and EM results of your model. Try breaking down the scores – for example, how does your model perform on questions that start with ‘who’? Questions that start ‘when’? Questions that start ‘why’? What are the other categories? Can you categorize the types of errors made by your model?

As with all final projects, larger teams are expected to do correspondingly larger projects. We will expect more complex things implemented, more thorough experimentation, and better results from teams with more people.
8 Honor Code

Any honor code guidelines that apply for the final project in general also apply for the default final project. Here are some guidelines that are specifically relevant to the IID SQuAD track of the default final project:

1. You **may not** use a pre-existing implementation for the SQuAD challenge as your starting point unless you wrote that implementation yourself. If you believe you have a good reason to use a pre-existing SQuAD implementation as your starting point (for example, you have a specific cutting-edge research idea that would build on the state-of-the-art), make an Ed post to get permission.

2. You are **not** allowed to use any pre-trained contextual embeddings (such as BERT, ELMO, GPT etc) for your system.

3. As described in Section 3.1, it is an honor code violation to use the official SQuAD dev set in any way.

4. You are free to discuss ideas and implementation details with other teams (in fact, we encourage it!). However, under no circumstances may you look at another CS224n team’s code, or incorporate their code into your project.

5. Do not share your code publicly (e.g., in a public GitHub repo) until after the class has finished.
References


