

Building Our First Neural LM

CSCI 601-471/671 (NLP: Self-Supervised Models)

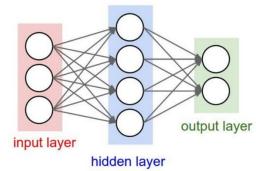
https://self-supervised.cs.jhu.edu/sp2025/

Logistics Reminders

- Quiz 1: next Tuesday
 - During the class (~1:15 mins)
 - All on paper
 - Closed-book (no formula sheet)
 - Content: everything we discuss before the class (before this slide)



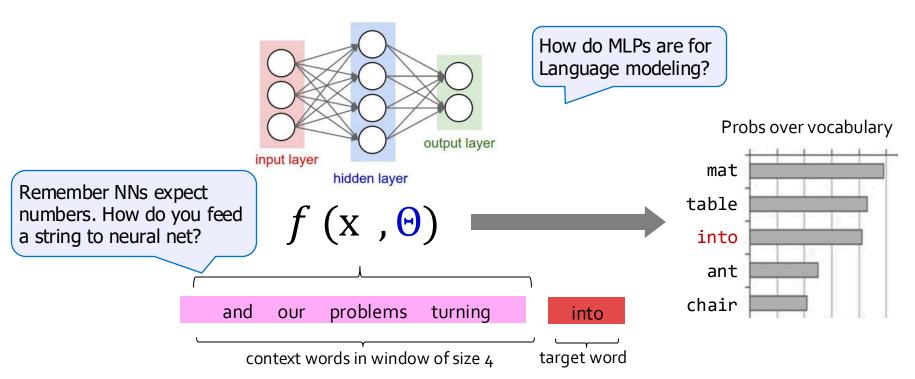
Recap: Neural Nets



- A powerful function-approximation tool.
- Can be trained efficiently via Backpropagation.
- Out focus here: how to use NNs for language modeling.



Big Picture: Language Modeling + NNs





Building First Neural LMs

- 1. Fixed-window neural language models
- 2. Atomic units of language

Chapter goal: Get more comfortable with thinking about the role of neural networks in modeling distribution of language.



Feeding Text to Neural LMs

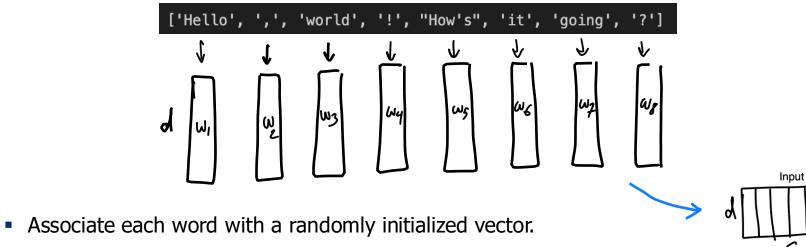


Feeding Text to Neural Nets

- Neural Nets expect numbers.
- How do you turn numbers into numbers?



Feeding Text to Neural Nets

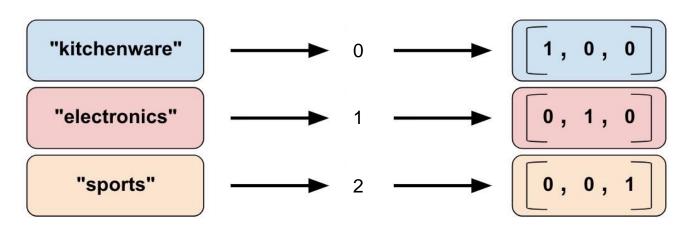


- Pass the vector as input to the model.
- One can initialize these vectors with more informative values (e.g. Word2Vec).
 - Not used in practice.



Feeding Text to Neural Net: In Practice

- In practice this is implemented in this way:
 - 1. Turn each word into a unique index
 - 2. Map each index into a one-hot vector





Feeding Text to Neural Net: In Practice

- In practice this is implemented in this way:
 - 1. Turn each word into a unique index
 - Map each index into a one-hot vector
 - 3. Lookup the corresponding word embedding via matrix multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 1 & 9 \\ 6 & 5 & 4 & 0 \\ 7 & 1 & 6 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 4 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$
Hidden layer output

Embedding Weight Matrix

Note, this embedding matrix is a trainable parameter of the model.

Feeding Text to Neural Net: PyTorch

Initialize a random embedding matrix

Indices corresponding to input units (tokens)

Embeddings corresponding to the inputs

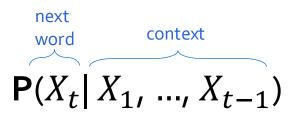
```
# an Embedding module containing 10 tensors of size 3
n, d = 10, 3
embedding = nn.Embedding(n, d)
# a batch of 2 samples of 4 indices each
input = torch.LongTensor([[1, 2, 4, 5], [4, 3, 2, 9]])
embedding(input)
tensor([[-0.0251, -1.6902, 0.7172],
         [-0.6431, 0.0748, 0.6969],
         [1.4970, 1.3448, -0.9685],
         [-0.3677, -2.7265, -0.1685]],
        [[1.4970, 1.3448, -0.9685],
        [ 0.4362, -0.4004, 0.9400],
         [-0.6431, 0.0748, 0.6969],
```



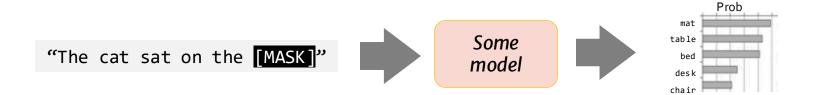
Fixed-Window MLP Language Models



Recap: LMs

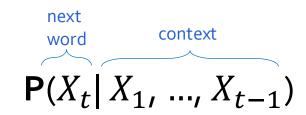


Directly we train models on "conditionals":





Recap: Counting



How do we estimate these probabilities? Let's just count!

P(mat | the cat sat on the) =
$$\frac{\text{count("the cat sat on the mat")}}{\text{count("the cat sat on the")}}$$

<u>Challenge:</u> Increasing n makes sparsity problems worse. Typically, we can't have n bigger than 5.

Some partial solutions (e.g., smoothing and backoffs) though still an open problem.



Recap Summary

Language Models (LM): distributions over language

N-gram: language modeling via counting

- Challenge with large N's: sparsity problem many zero counts/probs.
- Challenge with small N's: not very informative and lack of long-range dependencies.



From Counting (N-Gram) to Neural Models

- Probabilistic n-gram models of text generation [Jelinek+ 1980's, ...]
 - Applications: Speech Recognition, Machine Translation
- "Shallow" statistical/neural language models (2000's) [Bengio+ 1999 & 2001, ...]

NeurIPS 2000

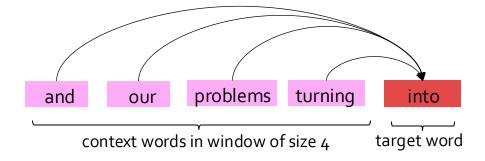
A Neural Probabilistic Language Model

Yoshua Bengio, Réjean Ducharme and Pascal Vincent

Département d'Informatique et Recherche Opérationnelle Centre de Recherche Mathématiques Université de Montréal Montréal, Québec, Canada, H3C 3J7 {bengioy,ducharme,vincentp}@iro.umontreal.ca

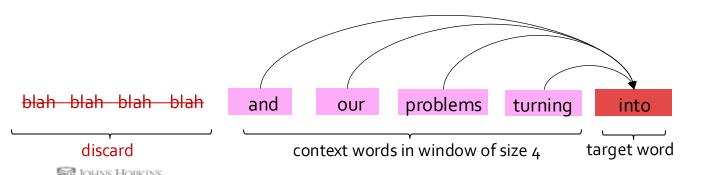


- Given the embeddings of the context, predict the word on the right side.
 - Dropping the right context for simplicity -- not a fundamental limitation.





- Given the embeddings of the context, predict the word on the right side.
 - Dropping the right context for simplicity -- not a fundamental limitation.
- Discard anything beyond its context window



- Given the embeddings of the context, predict a target word on the right side.
 - Dropping the right context for simplicity -- not a fundamental limitation.

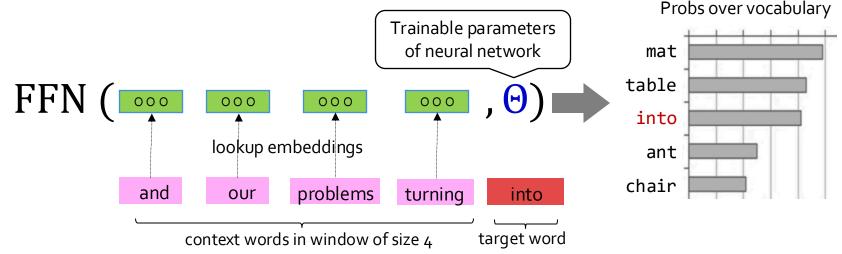
Training this model is basically optimizing its parameters ⊕ such that it assigns

high probability to the target word. Probs over vocabulary Trainable parameters of neural network mat table 000 000 000 into lookup embeddings ant chair problems turning and our into target word context words in window of size 4



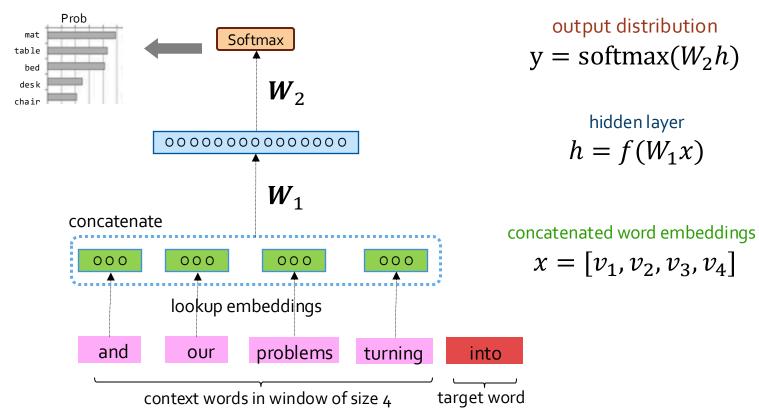
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- This is actually a pretty good model!
- It will also lay the foundation for the future models (e.g., transformers, ...)
- But first we need to figure out how to train neural networks!





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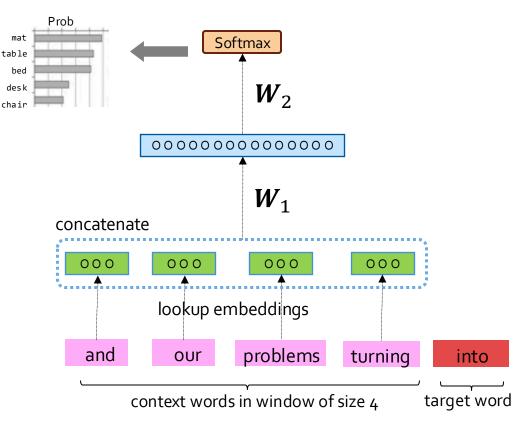


A Fixed-Window Neural LM: Compared to N-Grams

Improvements over n-gram LM:

- Tackles the sparsity problem
- Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n)) n being the window size.

	n	valid.	test.
MLP10	6	104	109
Back-off KN	3	121	127
Back-off KN	4	113	119
Back-off KN	5	112	117





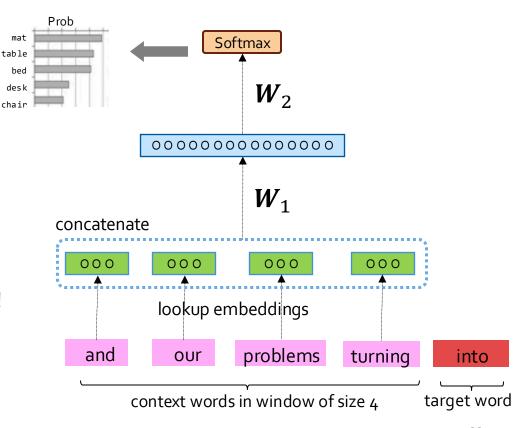
A Fixed-Window Neural LM: Compared to N-Grams

Improvements over n-gram LM:

- Tackles the sparsity problem
- Model size is O(n) not O(exp(n)) n being the window size.

Remaining problems:

- Fixed window is too small
- Enlarging window enlarges W Window can never be large enough!
- It's not deep enough to capture nuanced contextual meanings





A Fixed-Window Neural LM: Going Deeper

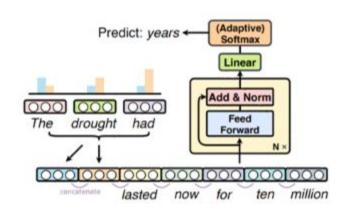
Revisiting Simple Neural Probabilistic Language Models

Simeng Sun and Mohit Iyyer

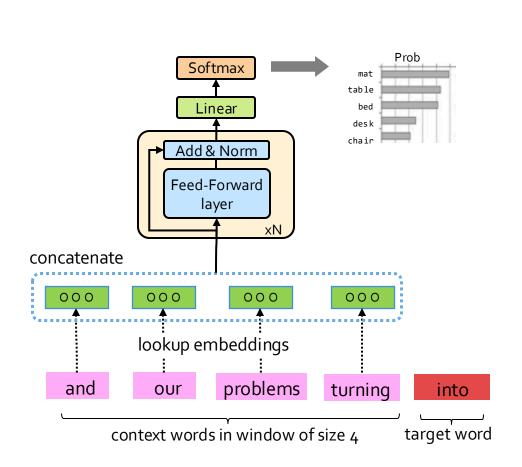
College of Information and Computer Sciences
University of Massachusetts Amherst
{simengsun, miyyer}@cs.umass.edu

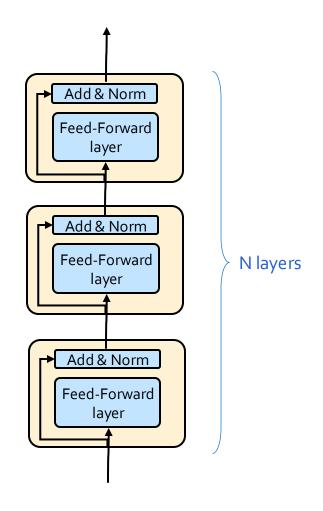
Abstract

Recent progress in language modeling has been driven not only by advances in neural architectures, but also through hardware and optimization improvements. In this paper, we revisit the neural probabilistic language model (NPLM) of Bengio et al. (2003), which simply concatenates word embeddings within a fixed window and passes the result through a feed-forward network to predict the next word

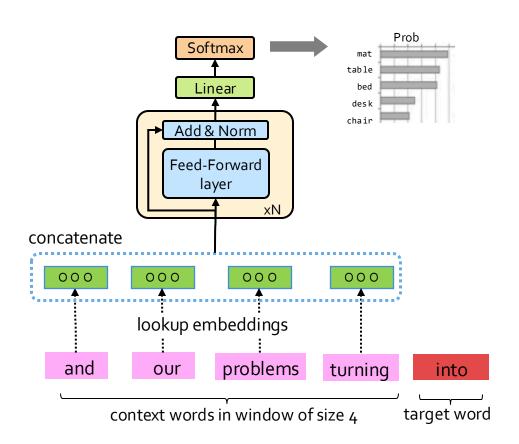


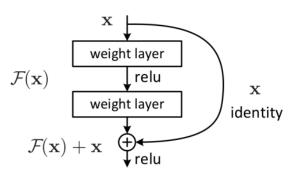






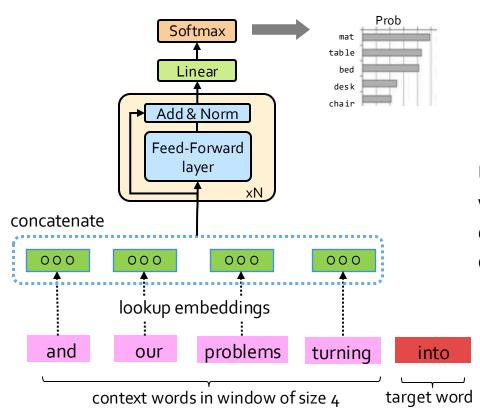
[Sun and lyyer 2021]



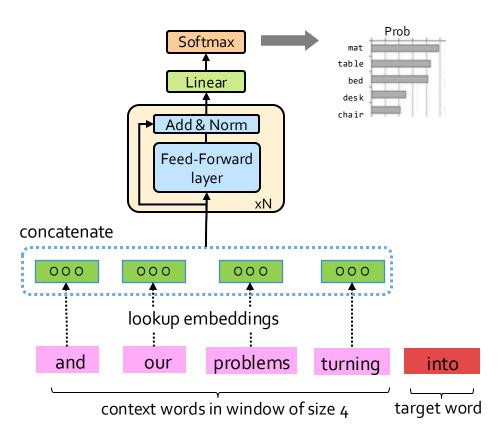


Uses residual connections (<u>He et al. 2016</u>)

— "information highways" between layers.
(we saw them in the earlier chapter)

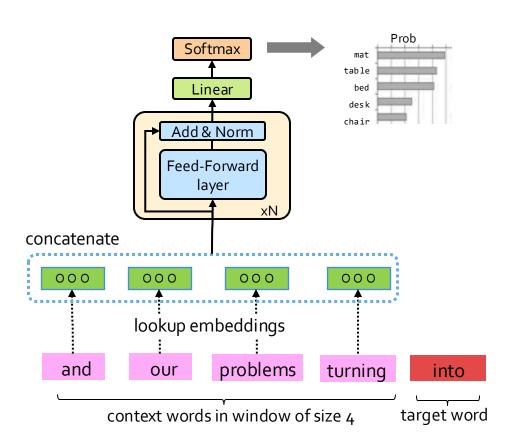


Uses layer normalization (<u>Ba et al. 2016</u>) which reduces variance across different data/batches and makes the optimization easier/faster.



Use "dropout" to avoid overfitting.

Use ADAM optimizer (<u>Kingma & Ba, 2017</u>), a variant of Stochastic Gradient Descent.



Model	# Params	Val. perplexity
Transformer	148M	25.0
NPLM-old	$32M^2$	216.0
NPLM-old (large)	$221M^3$	128.2
NPLM 1L	123M	52.8
NPLM 4L	128M	38.3
NPLM 16L	148 M	31.7
- Residual connections	148 M	660.0
- Adam, + SGD	148 M	418.5
- Layer normalization	148 M	33.0

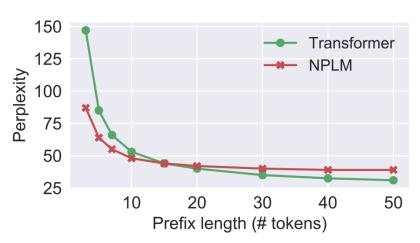
Table 1: NPLM model ablation on WIKITEXT-103.

Takeaways:

- Depth helps
- Residual connections are important
- Adam works (here) better than SGD

Prob Softmax table Linear bed desk chair Add & Norm Feed-Forward layer xΝ concatenate 000 000 000 000 lookup embeddings problems turning and into our context words in window of size 4 target word

Effect of window size:



Fixed-WindowLM (NPLM) is better than the **Transformer** (will see them in 2 weeks!) with short prefixes but worse on longer ones.

What Changed from N-Gram LMs to Neural LMs?

- What is the source of Neural LM's strength?
- Why sparsity is less of an issue for Neural LMs?
- Answer: In n-grams, we treat all prefixes independently of each other! (even those that are semantically similar)

```
students opened their ___

pupils opened their ___

scholars opened their ___

undergraduates opened their ___

students turned the pages of their ___

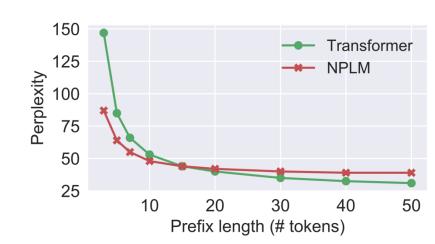
students attentively perused their ___
```

Neural LMs are able to share information across these semantically-similar prefixes and overcome the sparsity issue.



Summary

- Language Modeling (LM), a probabilistic model of language
- N-gram models (~1980 to early 2000's)
 - Difficult to scale to large n's
- Fixed-window Neural LM: first of many LMs we will see in this class
 - Stronger than n-gram LMs
 - But still fail at capturing longer contexts
- **Next:** other architectural alternatives.

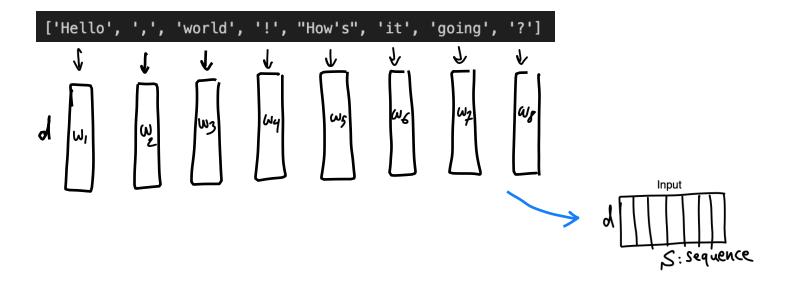




Atomic Units of Language



What is the right level of granularity for breaking up a sentence into vectors?





The cat sat on the mat.

The cat sat on the mat.

```
words split based on white space?
```

```
BOS, The, cat, sat, on, the, mat, ., EOS
```

characters?

```
BOS, T, h, e, SPACE, c, a, t, SPACE, s, ...
```

bytes??!

The cat sat on the mat.

words split based on white space?

DUS

chara

BOS

Which one should we use as the atomic building blocks for modeling language?

bytes??!

Cost of Using Word Units

- What happens when we encounter a word at test time that we've never seen in our training data?
 - o Loquacious: Tending to talk a great deal; talkative.
 - Omnishambles: A situation that has been mismanaged, due to blunders and miscalculations.
 - o COVID-19: was unseen until 2020!
 - Acknowleadgement: incorrect spelling of "Acknowledgement"
- What about relevant words?: "dog" vs "dogs"; "run" vs "running"
- We would need a very large vocabulary to capture common words in a language.
 - Very large vocabulary size makes training difficult
- What happens with words that we haven't seen before?
 - With word level tokenization, we have no way of understanding an unseen word!
 - Also, not all languages have spaces between words like English!



Cost of Using Character Units

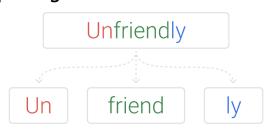
- What if we use characters?
- Pro:
 - (1) small vocabulary, just the number of unique characters in the training data.
 - (2) fewer out-of-vocabulary tokens
- Cost: much longer input sequences
 - As we discussed, modeling long-range dependences is very challenging.
 - Representing long sequences is computationally costly.

```
\rightarrow
\rightarrow
\rightarrow
\rightarrow
                 27
\rightarrow
\rightarrow
                 28
                  37
\rightarrow
                  256
\rightarrow
```

```
\rightarrow
             and
            was
                      \rightarrow
            with
            that
malapropism
                             170,000
```

Subword Tokenization: A Middle Ground

- Breaks words into smaller units that are indicative of their morphological construction.
 - Developed for machine translation (Sennrich et al. 2016)
- Subword tokenization is the best of both worlds
 - Common words are preserved in the vocabulary
 - Less common words are broken down into sub-words.
 - This handles the problem of unseen words and large vocabulary size
- Dominantly used in modern language models (BERT, T5, GPT, ...)
- Relies on a simple algorithm called Byte Pair Encoding (Gage, 1994)





```
from transformers import AutoTokenizer
tokenizer = AutoTokenizer.from pretrained("bert-base-cased")
sequence = "Using a Transformer network is simple"
print(tokenizer.tokenize(sequence))
['Using', 'a', 'Transform', '##er', 'network', 'is', 'simple']
print(tokenizer.convert tokens to ids(tokens))
[7993, 170, 13809, 23763, 2443, 1110, 3014]
tokenizer = AutoTokenizer.from pretrained("albert-base-v1")
sequence = "Using a Transformer network is simple"
print(tokenizer.tokenize(sequence))
['_using', '_a', '_transform', 'er', '_network', '_is', '_simple']
```

GPT4's Tokenizer

```
OpenAI's large language models (sometimes referred to as GPT's) process
text using tokens, which are common sequences of characters found in a
 set of text. The models learn to understand the statistical
relationships between these tokens, and excel at producing the next
token in a sequence of tokens.
You can use the tool below to understand how a piece of text might be
tokenized by a language model, and the total count of tokens in that
piece of text.
It's important to note that the exact tokenization process varies between
models. Newer models like GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 use a different tokenizer
than our legacy GPT-3 and Codex models, and will produce different
tokens for the same input text.
Here is a math problem: 234566+64432 / (33345) * 0.1234
```



Normalization

Sentence Splitting

Tokenization

Posprocessing

- Converts text into a standard format to reduce variability.
 - Strip extra white spaces between words and sentences
 - Removing punctuations ("Hello, world!" → "Hello world")
 - Unicode normalization,
 - 0 ...



Normalization Sentence Splitting Tokenization Posprocessing

- Divides text into individual sentences.
- Uses punctuation marks (., !, ?) and language-specific rules to identify boundaries.



Normalization

Sentence Splitting

Tokenization

Posprocessing

- Splits sentences into words or subwords.
 - Hello world → [Hello, world]
 - BPE, (will discuss this in a second)



Normalization

Sentence Splitting

Tokenization

Posprocessing

- Truncate to match the maximum length of the model
- Pad all sentences in a batch to the same length
- Add special tokens: for example:
 - <UNK> (unknown word)
 - O <PAD> (padding for fixed-length sequences)

 - <EOS> (end of sentence)
- **Finally,** converts tokens into numerical IDs for model input.

₩ Uses a vocabulary (word-to-index mapping).

Byte-pair Encoding (BPE) – An Example

An algorithm for forming subword tokens based on a collection of raw text.

and there are no refueling stations anywhere one of the city's more unprincipled real state agents

Note that to do this tokenization, I need to learn it by seeing lots of text. (similar to model training)



[and, there, are, no, re, ##fueling, stations, anywhere, one, of, the, city, 's, more, un, ##princi, ##pled, real, state, agents]

Byte-pair Encoding (BPE) Training

Overview:

- We are given a large text corpus of text.
- Start by character-based tokenization.
- Repeatedly merge the most frequent adjacent tokens

```
for i in range(num_merges):
   pairs = get_stats(vocab)
   best = max(pairs, key=pairs.get)
   vocab = merge_vocab(best, vocab)
```

Doing 30k merges => vocabulary of around 30k subwords. Includes many whole words.

- Form base vocabulary of all characters that occur in the training set.
- Example:

```
Our (very fascinating (2)) training data: "jhu jhu hopkins hop hops hops"
Base vocab: h, i, j, k, n, o, p, s, u
Tokenized data: j h u j h u j h u h o p k i n s h o p h o p s h o p s
```

Does not show the word separator for simplicity.

- Count the frequency of each token pair in the data
- Example:

```
Our (very fascinating (2)) training data: "jhu jhu hopkins hop hops hops"
Base vocab: h, i, j, k, n, o, p, s, u
Tokenized data: j h u j h u j h u h o p k i n s h o p h o p s h o p s
Token pair frequencies:
```

- j+h->3
- h+u->3
- h + o -> 4
- 0 + p -> 4
- p + k -> 1
- k+i->1
- ...



- Choose the pair that occurs more, merge them and add to vocab.
- Example:

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Base vocab: h, i, j, k, n, o, p, s, u, ho

Tokenized data: j h u j h u j h u h o p k i n s h o p h o p s h o p s

Token pair frequencies:

- j+h->3
- h+u->3
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- 0 + p -> 4
- p+k->1
- k+i->1
-



- Retokenize the data
- Example:

```
Our (very fascinating (2)) training data: "jhu jhu jhu hopkins hop hops hops"

Base vocab: h, i, j, k, n, o, p, s, u, ho

Tokenized data: j h u j h u j h u ho p k i n s ho p ho p s ho p s

Token pair frequencies:
```



- Count the token pairs and merge the most frequent one
- Example:

Our (very fascinating (2)) training data: "jhu jhu hopkins hop hops hops"
Base vocab: h, i, j, k, n, o, p, s, u, ho
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Token pair frequencies:

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Token pair frequencies:

- j+h->3
- h+u->3
- hop + $k \rightarrow 1$
- hop + s -> 2
- k+i->1
- i+n->1
- n+s->1
-



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- •



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- hop + s -> 2
- k+i->1
- i+n->1
- n+s->1
- •



Limitations of Subwords

- Loss of whole word semantics
 - E.g., "Understand" -> ["Under", "stand"] -Doesn't mean "stand beneath"!
- Language Dependency: Even though subwords helps in multiple-languages it may favor the structure of one language vs the other
 - Hard to apply to languages with non-concatenative (e.g., Arabic) morphology

كتب	k-t-b	"write" (root form)
كَتَبَ	k a t a b a	"he wrote"
كَتَّبَ	k a tt a b a	"he made (someone) write"
اِكْتَتَبَ	i k ta t a b a	"he signed up"

Table 1: Non-concatenative morphology in Arabic.⁴ The root contains only consonants; when conjugating, vowels, and sometimes consonants, are interleaved with the root. The root is not separable from its inflection via any contiguous split.



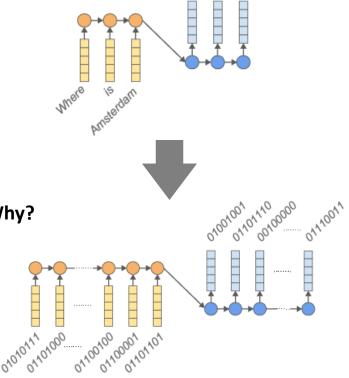
Alternatives: WordPieces

- WordPiece (Schuster & Nakajima, ICASSP 2012): merge by likelihood as measured by language model, not by frequency
 - While voc size < target:
 - 1. Build a language model over your corpus
 - 2. Merge tokens that lead to highest improvement in LM perplexity
 - Issues: What LM to use? How to make it tractable?



Alternatives: Byte Encoding

- Use byte representation of words
 - o E.g., H -> 01010111
- Vocabulary size: 2⁸=256
- Limitation:
 - Makes the sequence length 4 to 5x longer
 - At test time it is also slower to generate sentences. Why?
 - Need to generate one character at a time





Summary

• Fundamental question: what should be the atomic unit of representation?

Words: too coarse

Characters: too small

Subwords:

- A useful representational choice for language.
- Capture language morphology





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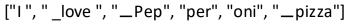




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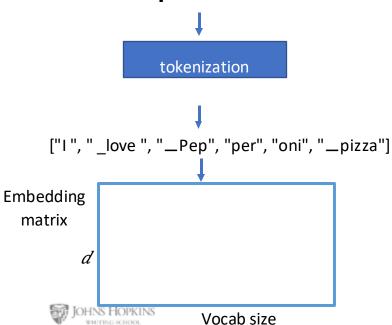


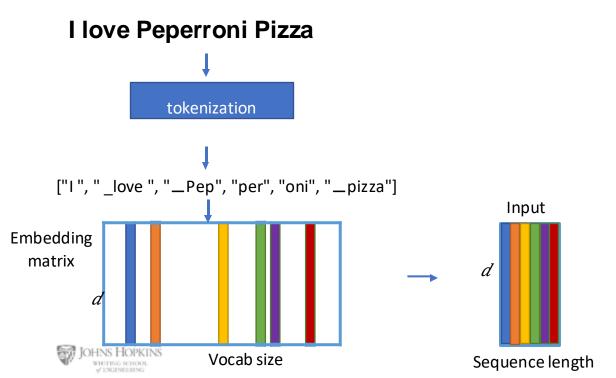




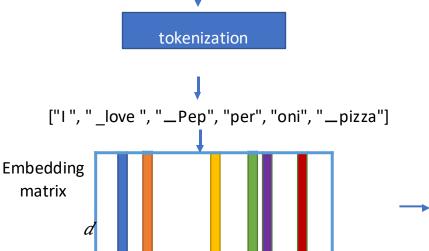


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Vocab size

