

Natural Language Processing (NLP)

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What is Natural Language

- Refers to the languages that humans use naturally to communicate with each other.
- Such as English, Spanish, Chinese, Hindi, and thousands of others.
- Evolve naturally over time and are governed by complex rules of grammar, syntax, and semantics.
- Can be in spoken, written or sign form.



Key Features of Natural Language

Human-Centric

- Used for everyday communication among humans.
- Developed organically without formal engineering.

Ambiguity

- Words and sentences can have multiple meanings depending on context.
- Example: "I saw his duck" (Could mean the bird or an action).

Complexity

- Governed by rules of grammar and syntax that vary across languages.
- Includes nuances like tone, intonation, and stress in spoken forms.



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Key Features of Natural Language

Context-Dependence

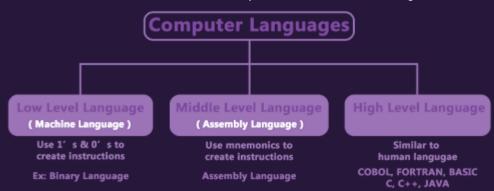
- Meaning often depends on context, shared knowledge, and cultural norms.
- Example: "Can you pass the salt?" is often a polite request, not a literal inquiry about ability.

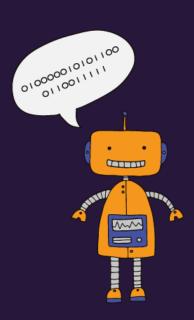
Dynamic Evolution

- Vocabulary, usage, and grammar rules change over time.
- Example: The addition of words like "selfie" or "emoji" to modern dictionaries.

Computer Language

- Computers fundamentally understand machine language, which is a low-level language consisting of binary code (0s and 1s).
- This binary system represents the on/off states of electrical signals within a computer's hardware.
- Programming languages bridge human and computer languages by abstracting complexities, enabling humans to communicate instructions to computers more easily.



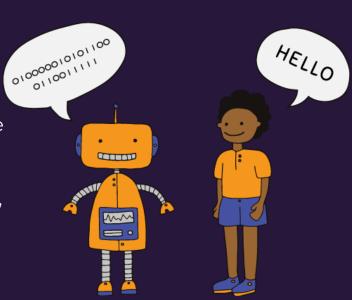


Difference

Aspect	Natural Language	Computer (Machine) Language	Programming Language
Purpose	Communication between humans.	Direct communication with computer hardware.	Communication between humans and computers.
Structure	Flexible, less rigid; allows for ambiguity.	Rigid and low-level (binary code).	Structured with strict rules and syntax.
Readability	Easy for humans to understand and use.	Not possible for humans to read and understand.	Human-readable but requires technical knowledge.
Syntax	Varies with context, culture, and grammar.	Binary code, highly specific to machine architecture.	Defined rules and grammar for structured code.
Complexity	Complex and evolving over time.	Simple but complex to work with manually.	Varies from simple (Python) to complex (C++)
Execution	Not directly executable by machines.	Directly executed by machine (hardware).	Needs to be compiled/interpreted into machine code.
Flexibility	Very flexible and ambiguous.	Not flexible; strictly defined by the machine architecture.	Flexible but constrained by syntax rules.
Learning Curve	Easy for native speakers to learn.	Very difficult for humans to directly work with.	Moderate to high, depending on the language.
Error Tolerance	Tolerates errors like typos and slang.	No tolerance for errors; needs to be exact.	Limited error tolerance, strict syntax rules.

Natural Language Processing

- Branch of artificial intelligence that focuses on enabling computers to understand, interpret, process, and generate human language in a meaningful way.
- Allows machines to interact with human language (natural language) rather than relying solely on structured programming languages.
- NLP employs techniques like Rule-Based approch, Machine Learning, and Deep Learning to perform several tasks.



Major Types of NLP Problems

- Text Classification
- Text Generation
- Named Entity Recognition (NER)
- Machine Translation
- Question Answering (QA)
- Text Summarization
- Speech-to-Text & Text-to-Speech
- Text Similarity

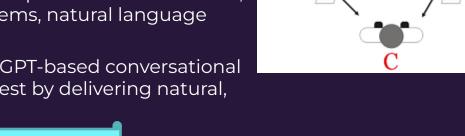
NLP History

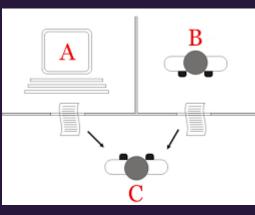
- The history of Natural Language Processing (NLP) begins with the desire to create systems that allow humans to communicate with machines using natural language.
- NLP was "born" in the 1950s when early attempts were made to enable computers to process human language.
- Major developments in this era include
 - Turing Test
 - Noam Chomsky's Grammar

Turing Test

Loebner Prize

- Proposed by Alan Turing, the test aimed to determine if a machine could exhibit human-like intelligence in conversation.
- This idea directly inspired the development of early conversational systems like chatbots (e.g., ELIZA) and set the vision for creating machines capable of understanding and generating natural language.
- The Turing Test emphasised the importance of interaction, driving research in dialogue systems, natural language understanding, and semantics.
- Advanced NLP systems, such as GPT-based conversational models, aim to pass the Turing Test by delivering natural, context-aware responses.





Noam Chomsky's Grammar

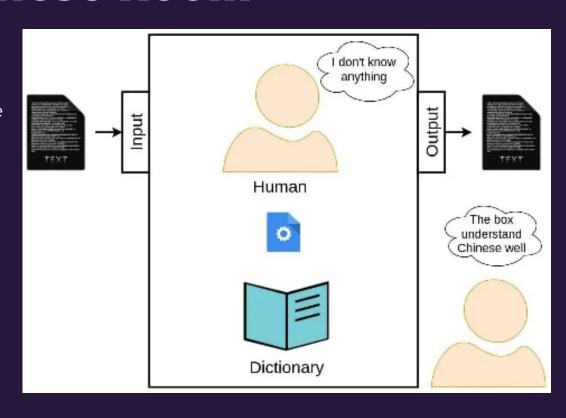
- Defined a formal framework to describe the structure of natural languages.
- Classified formal languages (e.g., regular, context-free) foundational for computational linguistics.
- Enabled the development of algorithms to analyse sentence structures, essential for NLP tasks.
- Proposed a shared underlying structure for all human languages, aiding multilingual NLP.
- Early NLP systems like machine translation and syntax analysers relied on his theories.
- Rule-based approach to describe the structure of a language.

Georgetown-IBM Experiment

- First Public Demonstration of Machine Translation (1954).
- Involved translation of Russian sentences into English using IBM's IBM 701 computer.
- The translation system used a rule-based word-for-word approach, which focused on matching Russian words with English equivalents.
- Input: 60 sentences of Russian text from the UN (United Nations) and scientific papers.
- Output: English translations displayed on a screen.
- The demonstration created significant excitement in the field of computational linguistics and artificial intelligence.

Chinese Room

- Introduced by philosopher John Searle in 1980.
- Challenges the claims of the Turing Test and the notion that machines can "understand" language in the same way humans do.
- Focuses on the distinction between syntax and semantics.
- Argues that machines should understand the meaning behind language, not just follow rules.



Statistical & Machine Learning

- In the 1980s and 1990s, researchers shifted from rule-based systems to Data-Driven approaches.
- The increased availability of computational power and large text corpora facilitated the development of statistical methods such as Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) and Decision Trees.
- IBM's Candide project (1988) introduced statistical methods into machine translation, leading to the development of Statistical Machine Translation (SMT).
- ◆ The 1990s saw the development of part-of-speech (POS) tagging.
- This period also saw progress in identifying and classifying named entities (NER).

Neural Networks & Deep

Learning

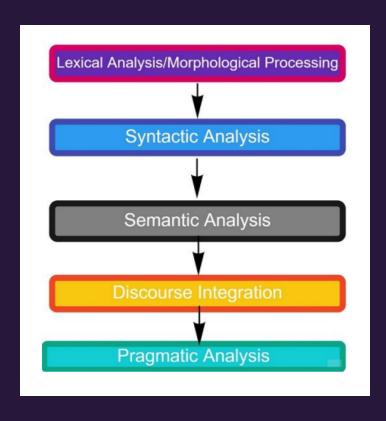
Neural networks, explored in the 1980s, gained NLP prominence in the 2000s with deep learning advancements.

- The breakthrough came in 2013 with Word2Vec by Tomas Mikolov at Google, using neural networks to map words to high-dimensional vectors, improving word semantics by capturing contextual relationships.
- RNNs, introduced in the 1980s, gained popularity in the 2000s for handling sequence data, especially in language modeling and machine translation, marking a significant shift in NLP tasks.
- ◆ LSTM networks, developed in the 1990s, addressed the vanishing gradient problem in RNNs and became widely used in NLP tasks with longer sequences, like speech recognition and text generation.

Transformer Models

- In 2017, the Transformer architecture by Vaswani et al. revolutionized NLP by using the attention mechanism, enabling parallel word processing and better capturing long-range dependencies, outperforming RNNs and LSTMs.
- In 2018, Google's BERT model set new performance benchmarks on various NLP tasks. BERT's bidirectional approach to reading text (considering both left and right context) significantly improved tasks like question answering and sentiment analysis.
- Models like GPT-2 (2019) and GPT-3 (2020) by OpenAI advanced text generation, using the Transformer architecture to create coherent, context-aware paragraphs, and became widely used in chatbots and content generation.
- The pretraining-finetuning paradigm, popularized by models like BERT, GPT, and RoBERTa, allowed for more efficient training on large text corpora and specialized finetuning for specific NLP tasks.

Types of Analysis involved in NLP



Lexical Analysis

- The first phase is lexical analysis/morphological processing. In this phase, the sentences, paragraphs are broken into tokens.
- These tokens are the smallest unit of text. It scans the entire source text and divides it into meaningful lexemes.
- For example, The sentence "He goes to college." is divided into
 ['He', 'goes', 'to', 'college', '.'].
- There are five tokens in the sentence. A paragraph may also be divided into sentences.

Lexical Analysis

TEXT

A paragraph is a distinct section of writing covering one topic. A paragraph will usually contain more than one sentence. A paragraph starts on a new line. Sometimes, paragraphs are indented or numbered. ... It will have detail sentences in the middle and end with a concluding sentence.

SENTENCE DETECTION

['A paragraph is a distinct section of writing covering one topic.',

'A paragraph will usually contain more than one sentence.',

'A paragraph starts on a new line. Sometimes, paragraphs are indented or numbered.',

'It will have detail sentences in the middle and end with a concluding sentence.']

Lexical Analysis

- Tokenization: The process of splitting text into individual tokens (words, punctuation marks, numbers, etc.).
- Lexical Categories: Tokens are classified into different categories, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (known as parts of speech).
- **Normalization**: Standardizing tokens by converting them to a consistent form (e.g., lowercasing, stemming, or lemmatization).

"Running" \rightarrow "run" or "runn", "Better" \rightarrow "bett".

"Running" \rightarrow "run", "Better" \rightarrow "good".

Stop-words: Common words that are removed from text before it's analyzed.
 They are removed because they don't add much meaning to the text.

Syntactic Analysis/Parsing

- The second phase is Syntactic analysis. In this phase, the sentence is checked whether it is wellformed or not.
- The word arrangement is studied and a syntactic relationship is found between them. It is checked for word arrangements and grammar.
- For example, the sentence "Mohan is goes not him" is rejected by the syntactic parser.

Syntactic Analysis/Parsing

- Phrase Structure: This refers to the way words are grouped into phrases, such as noun phrases (NP), verb phrases (VP), etc.
- **Syntactic Tree**: The structure that visually represents the syntactic relations of words in a sentence, where each node represents a part of the sentence (word or phrase).
- Grammar Rules: These are the formal rules (often context-free grammar) used to define the syntactic structure. For example:
 - S → NP VP (A sentence is a noun phrase followed by a verb phrase)
 - NP → Det N (A noun phrase consists of a determiner and a noun)

Semantic Analysis

- The third phase is Semantic Analysis. In this phase, the sentence is checked for the literal meaning of each word and their arrangement together.
- For example, The sentence "Delhi goes to him" will get rejected by the semantic analyzer because it doesn't make sense.
- E.g.. "colorless green idea." This would be rejected by the Symantec analysis as colorless Here; green doesn't make any sense.

Discourse Analysis

- Discourse analysis focuses on understanding the structure and meaning of larger units of text or speech (beyond individual sentences). It deals with how the components of a text fit together to convey meaning..
- For example, the word "that" in the sentence "He wanted that" depends upon the prior discourse context.
- Coherence: Understanding how different sentences logically flow and contribute to the overall meaning of a discourse.
- Anaphora and Reference: Anaphora refers to the use of pronouns or other linguistic elements that refer back to something mentioned earlier in the discourse.
- Discourse Structure: Identifying the larger structure of a discourse, such as the introduction, body, and conclusion, or argumentation structure.

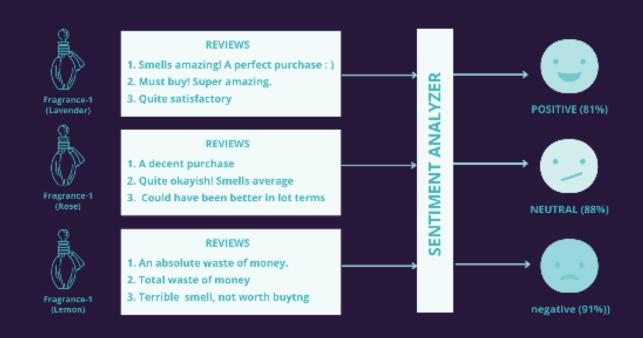
Pragmatic Analysis

- It examines how language is used in practice, including the speaker's intentions, social context, and implied meaning.
- The Goal is to interpret the meaning behind a sentence or phrase in a given context, beyond the literal meaning.
- **Speech Acts**: Analyzing the intent behind an utterance, such as requesting, promising, or questioning (e.g., "Can you open the window?" is a request, not just a question).
- Implicature: Understanding what is implied but not explicitly stated (e.g., "I'm running late" could imply that the speaker may need the listener's help or understanding).
- Contextual Understanding: Understanding the broader social and situational context in which language is used to determine meaning.

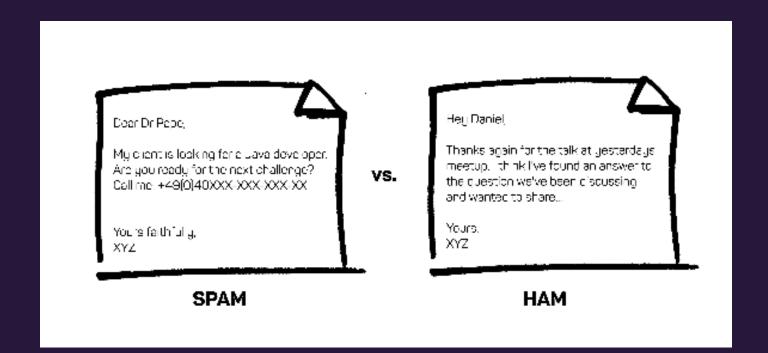
Popular use cases of NLP

- Sentiment Analysis
- Spam Detection
- Resume Mining
- Chatbots
- Social Media Moderation:
 - Hate Speech Detection
 - Offensive Language Detection
 - Cyberbulling Detection
 - Profane Content Detection
 - Hostility Detection

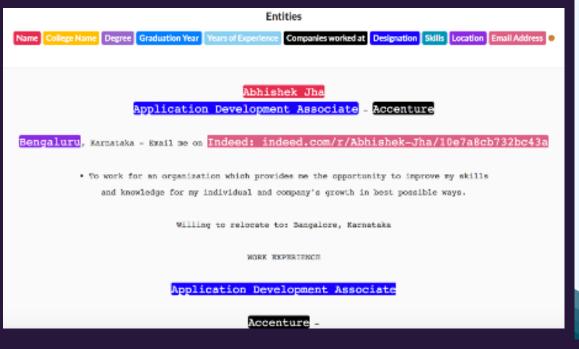
Sentiment Analysis



Spam Detection



Resume Mining



MODEL DEVELOPMENT AND OPTIMIZATION

- Developed and optimized advanced NLP models for sentiment analysis that improved product review classification accuracy by 25%, significantly enhancing user experience.
- Engineered a machine learning pipeline for real-time language translation services, achieving a 30% reduction in response time and expanding the tool's usability in high-stakes communication.

2. DATA ANALYSIS AND PROCESSING

 Automated the extraction and preprocessing of unstructured text data from multiple sources, saving the team over 15 hours per week and improving the dataset quality for training.

2°7 COLLABORATION AND LEADERSHIP

 Coordinated with the software engineering team to integrate NLP technologies into the company's existing platforms, enhancing feature sets and user engagement by 50%.

M. RESEARCH AND INNOVATION

 Conducted pioneering research on the application of transformer models in detecting take news, contributing to a 35% improvement in detection accuracy and establishing a company-wide standard for content verification.

Action Verb Task or Project Metric or Result

ML/ DL compatible data

- Anything that can be converted into numbers, we can apply ML/DL to it.
- ML/DL models operate on numerical data as inputs. Converting data into numbers makes it compatible with mathematical computations used in algorithms.
- Examples Across Domains:
 - Text: Words can be converted into numerical vectors (e.g., word embeddings like Word2Vec, BERT).
 - o **Images**: Images are represented as pixel intensity values in matrices.
 - Audio: Sound is transformed into numerical waveforms or spectrograms.
 - Video: Frames (images) and audio are combined into numerical sequences.
 - **Tabular Data**: Structured data, like spreadsheets, is already in numerical form or can be encoded (e.g., one-hot encoding for categorical data).

Text to Numbers

- One-Hot Encoding
- Bag of Words
- ◆ TF-IDF
- GloVe
- Word2Vec
- Transformer based

One-Hot Encoding

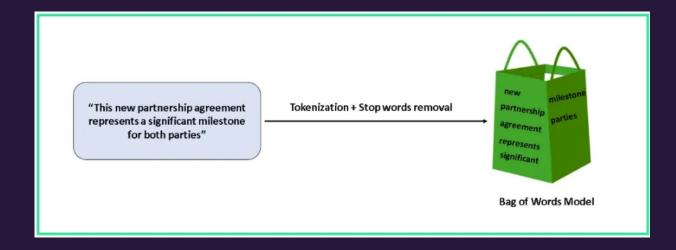
- It is a technique used to convert categorical data (such as words or characters) into numerical vectors that can be used by machine learning models. In NLP, one-hot encoding is often applied to represent words in a vocabulary.
- Create a Vocabulary: Identify all unique words in the dataset.
 - For the text "I love NLP", the vocabulary is
 - ["I", "love", "NLP"]
- Assign an Index: Assign each word a unique index.
 - Example:
 - "|" → O
 - "love" → 1
 - "NLP" → 2

One-Hot Encoding

- **Create Vectors**: Represent each word as a binary vector with the same length as the vocabulary.
 - The index corresponding to the word is marked as 1.
 - o All other indices are marked as 0.
 - o Example:
 - "I" → [1, O, O]
 - "love" → [0, 1, 0]
 - "NLP" → [0, 0, 1]

Bag of Words (BoW)

- It is a fundamental text representation technique in NLP.
- It converts text into numerical vectors based on word frequency, disregarding grammar, word order, and semantics.
- It focuses solely on the occurrence of words in a given document or corpus.



Bag of Words (BoW)

- Text Preprocessing
 - Tokenize the text into words.
 - Convert text to lowercase.
 - Remove punctuation, stopwords, and special characters.
- Create a Vocabulary
 - List all unique words in the entire corpus.
- Generate Vectors
 - For each document, create a vector indicating the frequency of each word in the vocabulary.
 - If a word is absent, its frequency is 0.

Bag of Words (BoW)

Corpus:

- "He is a good boy."
- "She is a good girl."
- "Boys and girls are good."

Step 1: Text Preprocessing

- **Remove Stopwords**: Remove common words like "he," "is," "a," "and," etc.
- Stemming: Reduce words to their root form (e.g., "boys" → "boy," "girls" →
 "girl").

Processed Sentences:

- "good boy"
- o "good girl"
- "boy girl good"

Bag of Words (BoW)

- Step 2: Create Vocabulary
 - Extract unique words: ["good", "boy", "girl"].
- Step 3: Generate Frequency Matrix

Word	good	boy	girl
Sentence 1	1	1	0
Sentence 2	1	0	1
Sentence 3	1	1	1

- This table represents the Bag of Words matrix for the given corpus.
- ◆ There exist several variation on Bag of Word approach.

- It stands for Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency.
- It is a statistical measure used in Natural Language Processing (NLP) to evaluate the importance of a word in a document relative to a collection (or corpus) of documents.
- It combines two components: Term Frequency (TF) and Inverse Document Frequency (IDF).

- Term Frequency (TF)
 - o Measures how frequently a term appears in a document.
- ◆ Formula:

$$ext{TF} = rac{ ext{Number of times a word appears in the document}}{ ext{Total number of words in the document}}$$

- Inverse Document Frequency (IDF)
 - Measures how unique or rare a word is across all documents.
 - Words that occur in many documents (e.g., "the," "is") get lower scores,
 while rare words get higher scores.

$$IDF = \log \left(\frac{Total\ number\ of\ documents}{Number\ of\ documents\ containing\ the\ word} \right)$$

Corpus:

- "He is a good boy."
- o "She is a good girl."
- o "Boys and girls are good."
- Vocabulary: ["good", "boy", "girl"]
- Compute Term Frequencies (TF)

Word	Sentence 1: "good boy"	Sentence 2: "good girl"	Sentence 3: "boy girl good"
good	$\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$	$\frac{1}{2}=0.5$	$\frac{1}{3} pprox 0.33$
boy	$\frac{1}{2}=0.5$	0	$\frac{1}{3} pprox 0.33$
girl	0	$\frac{1}{2} = 0.5$	$rac{1}{3}pprox 0.33$

Compute Inverse Document Frequencies (IDF)

$$IDF = \log \left(\frac{\text{Total Documents (3)}}{\text{Number of Documents Containing the Word}} \right)$$

Word	Document Count	IDF
good	3	$\log\left(\frac{3}{3}\right) = 0$
boy	2	$\log\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \approx 0.18$
girl	2	$\log\left(rac{3}{2} ight)pprox0.18$

- Compute TF-IDF
 - o Multiply the TF values by the corresponding IDF values

Word	Sentence 1	Sentence 2	Sentence 3		
good	$0.5 \times 0 = 0$	$0.5 \times 0 = 0$	$0.33 \times 0 = 0$		
boy	$0.5\times0.18=0.09$	$0 \times 0.18 = 0$	$0.33\times0.18\approx0.06$		
girl	$0 \times 0.18 = 0$	$0.5\times0.18=0.09$	$0.33\times0.18\approx0.06$		

- Practice question:
 - o Document 1 (D1): "The cat sat on the mat."
 - Document 2 (D2): "The dog sat on the mat."
 - o Document 3 (D3): "The cat and the dog are friends."
 - Document 4 (D4): "Cats and dogs love to play on the mat."

- Preprocessing:
 - o Tokenize,
 - o Lowercase,
 - Remove Punctuation
 - Stop Words
- D1: ["cat", "sat", "mat"]
- D2: ["dog", "sat", "mat"]
- D3: ["cat", "dog", "friend"]
- D4: ["cat", "dog", "love", "play", "mat"]

Term-frequency $TF = \frac{Number\ of\ times\ a\ word\ appears\ in\ the\ document}{T}$ Total number of words in the document

Word	D1 TF	D2 TF	D3 TF	D4 TF
cat	1/3 ≈ 0.33	0	1/3 ≈ 0.33	1/5 = 0.2
dog	0	1/3 ≈ 0.33	1/3 ≈ 0.33	1/5 = 0.2
sat	1/3 ≈ 0.33	1/3 ≈ 0.33	0	0
mat	1/3 ≈ 0.33	1/3 ≈ 0.33	0	1/5 = 0.2
friend	0	0	1/3 ≈ 0.33	0
love	0	0	0	1/5 = 0.2
play	0	0	0	1/5 = 0.2

Inverse document frequency

Word	Docs Containing Word	IDF
cat	3	log(4/3) ≈ 0.13
dog	3	log(4/3) ≈ 0.13
sat	2	log(4/2) ≈ 0.17
mat	3	log(4/3) ≈ 0.13
friend	1	log(4/1) ≈ 0.60
love	1	log(4/1) ≈ 0.60
play	1	log(4/1) ≈ 0.60

◆ TF x IDF

Word	D1 TF-IDF	D2 TF-IDF	D3 TF-IDF	D4 TF-IDF
cat	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0x0.13= 0	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0.2x0.13 = 0.03
dog	0x0.13= 0	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0.2x0.13 = 0.03
sat	0.33x0.17= 0.06	0.33x0.17= 0.06	0x0.17= 0	0x0.17 = 0
mat	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0.33x0.13= 0.04	0x0.13 = 0	0.2x0.13 = 0.03
friend	0x0.60= 0	0x0.60 = 0	0.33x0.60= 0.20	0x0.60 = 0
love	0x0.60= 0	0x0.60 = 0	0x0.60 = 0	0.2x0.60 = 0.12
play	0x0.60= 0	0x0.60 = 0	0x0.60 = 0	0.2x0.60 = 0.12

- Vector representation
- ◆ D1: [0.04, 0, 0.06, 0.04, 0, 0, 0]
- ◆ D2: [0, 0.04, 0.06, 0.04, 0, 0, 0]
- ◆ D3: [0.04, 0.04, 0, 0, 0.20, 0, 0]
- ◆ D4: [0.03, 0.03, 0, 0.03, 0, 0.12, 0.12]

Document Similarity

- Measures how similar two text documents are in terms of content.
- Used in NLP for tasks like information retrieval, plagiarism detection, and recommendation systems.
- Can be computed using various methods such as Cosine Similarity, Jaccard similarity, and Euclidean distance.
- Uses documents as vectors for comparison.

- Measures the cosine of the angle between two document vectors in a multidimensional space.
- Ranges between 0 and 1:
 - o **1** → Documents are identical.
 - o **0** → Documents are completely different.
- Computed as:

$$\cos(heta) = rac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{||\mathbf{A}|| imes ||\mathbf{B}||}$$



- A and B are document vectors.
- IIAII and IIBII are vector magnitudes.

- D1 and D2 similarity:
- Compute the Dot Product
 - D1·D2=
 (0.04×0)+(0×0.04)+(0.06×0.06)+(0.04×0.04)+(0×0)+(0×0)+(0×0)
 =0+0+0.0036+0.0016+0+0+0
 =0.0052
- Compute the Magnitude of Each Vector:

$$||D1|| = \sqrt{(0.04)^2 + (0)^2 + (0.06)^2 + (0.04)^2 + (0)^2 + (0)^2 + (0)^2} ||D2|| = \sqrt{(0)^2 + (0.04)^2 + (0.06)^2 + (0.04)^2 + (0)^2 + (0)^2 + (0)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{0.0016 + 0 + 0.0036 + 0.0016 + 0 + 0 + 0}$$

$$= \sqrt{0.0068} \approx 0.0825$$

$$= \sqrt{0.0068} \approx 0.0825$$

Compute Cosine Similarity

$$egin{aligned} \cos(heta) &= rac{D1 \cdot D2}{||D1|| imes ||D2||} \ &= rac{0.0052}{(0.0825 imes 0.0825)} \ &= rac{0.0052}{0.0068} \ &pprox 0.7647 \end{aligned}$$

♦ For D1 and D3

Step 1: Calculate the dot product ${f D1}\cdot{f D3}$

$$\mathbf{D1} \cdot \mathbf{D3} = (0.04 \times 0.04) + (0 \times 0.04) + (0.06 \times 0) + (0.04 \times 0) + (0 \times 0.20) + (0 \times 0) + (0 \times 0)$$

$$= 0.0016$$

Step 2: Calculate the magnitudes $\|\mathbf{D1}\|$ and $\|\mathbf{D3}\|$

$$\|\mathbf{D1}\| = \sqrt{(0.04^2) + (0^2) + (0.06^2) + (0.04^2) + (0^2) + (0^2) + (0^2)} = \sqrt{0.0016 + 0 + 0.0036 + 0.0016} = \sqrt{0.0068} \approx 0.0825$$

$$\|\mathbf{D3}\| = \sqrt{(0.04^2) + (0.04^2) + (0^2) + (0^2) + (0^2) + (0^2) + (0^2) + (0^2)} = \sqrt{0.0016 + 0.0016 + 0 + 0 + 0.04} = \sqrt{0.0432} \approx 0.2078$$

Step 3: Calculate the cosine similarity

Cosine Similarity =
$$\frac{0.0016}{(0.0825 \times 0.2078)} \approx \frac{0.0016}{0.0171} \approx 0.0937$$

Document Classification

 Document classification is the process of assigning predefined categories (e.g., sports, politics, spam, non-spam) to text documents using NLP techniques.

Applications:

- Spam detection (spam vs. non-spam emails)
- Sentiment analysis (positive, negative, neutral)
- News categorization (sports, politics, business, etc.)
- Legal document classification (contracts, policies, etc.)

Common Algorithms for Classification:

- Naïve Bayes
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- Logistic Regression
- Deep Learning (LSTMs, Transformers)

- The Naïve Bayes classifier is a probabilistic algorithm used for classification tasks.
- It is based on Bayes' Theorem.
- It is called "naïve" because it assumes that the features are independent of each other.
- This is often not true in real-world scenarios (specially for words in text classification)

Bayes' Theorem

- Named after the Reverend Thomas Bayes.
- Bayes' Theorem is derived using the definition of conditional probability
- Conditional probability is known as the possibility of an event or outcome happening, based on the existence of a previous event or outcome.

The **conditional probability** of event A given event B is:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

Similarly, the **conditional probability** of event B given event A is:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

Bayes' Theorem

• From the last equations, we can express the joint probability $P(A \cap B)$ P(A \cap B) in two ways:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

 $P(A \cap B) = P(B|A)P(A)$

• Since both are equal to $P(A \cap B)P(A \cap B)$, we equate them:

$$P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

• Rearranging to solve for P(A|B)P(A|B)

$$P(A|B) = rac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

Bayes' Theorem

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

P(A|B) (Posterior Probability): Probability of event A occurring given that B has already occurred.

P(B|A) (Likelihood): Probability of event B occurring given that A is true.

P(A) (Prior Probability): Initial probability of event A before considering B.

P(B) (Evidence): Total probability of event B, across all possible cases.

- We want to classify a document D (with features/words w1, w2,...,wn) into a class C
- ◆ According to Bayes' Theorem, the probability of class C given the document D can be expressed as:

$$P(C|w_1,w_2,\ldots,w_n) = rac{P(w_1,w_2,\ldots,w_n|C)\cdot P(C)}{P(w_1,w_2,\ldots,w_n)}$$

Where:

- $P(C|w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$ is the **posterior probability**: the probability that the document D belongs to class C, given the words in the document.
- $P(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n | C)$ is the **likelihood**: the probability of the words appearing in the document given that it belongs to class C.
- P(C) is the **prior probability**: the probability that a document belongs to class C without considering the words.
- $P(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ is the **evidence**: the total probability of observing the words in the document. This is often ignored in Naïve Bayes because it's constant for all classes.

- The key assumption in Naïve Bayes is conditional independence.
- It assumes that the words (features) in the document are independent of each other, given the class C.
- This simplifies the likelihood term:

$$P(w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n | C) = P(w_1 | C) \cdot P(w_2 | C) \cdot \cdots \cdot P(w_n | C)$$

• The formula becomes:

$$P(C|w_1,w_2,\ldots,w_n) = rac{P(w_1|C)\cdot P(w_2|C)\cdots P(w_n|C)\cdot P(C)}{P(w_1,w_2,\ldots,w_n)}$$

Spam Classification example:

Email	Label
"win lottery now"	Spam
"lottery ticket free"	Spam
"meeting at office now"	Not Spam
"office work is pending"	Not Spam

- We want to classify the new message:
 - o "free lottery now"

Using bag of word approach:

Email No.	win	lottery	now	ticket	free	meeting	at	office	is	work	pending	Label
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Spam
2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Spam
3	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	Not Spam
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	Not Spam

- For example message we have: "free", "lottery", "now"
- We need to find 2 probabilities:
 - P(Spam | Message) = P(Spam | "free", "lottery", "now")
 - P(Not Spam | Message) = P(Spam | "free", "lottery", "now")

```
P(Spam I "free", "lottery", "now") \propto P(\operatorname{Spam}) \times P(\operatorname{free}|\operatorname{Spam}) \times P(\operatorname{lottery}|\operatorname{Spam}) \times P(\operatorname{now}|\operatorname{Spam})
```

P(Not Spam I "free", "lottery", "now")

```
\propto P(\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{free}|\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{lottery}|\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{now}|\text{Not Spam})
```

- Problem will arise when a word does not appear in a class.
- This will make is conditional probability 0.
- Since the likelihood probability is the multiple of all the conditional probabilities of words present in example message, it will make net probability 0.
- To avoid this we use Laplace Smoothing:

$$P(W|C) = rac{ ext{Word Count} + 1}{ ext{Total Words in Class} + ext{Vocabulary Size}}$$

Spam Class Likelihoods

$$P(\text{free}|\text{Spam}) = \frac{1+1}{5+11} = \frac{2}{16} = 0.125$$
 $P(\text{lottery}|\text{Spam}) = \frac{2+1}{5+11} = \frac{3}{16} = 0.188$
 $P(\text{now}|\text{Spam}) = \frac{1+1}{5+11} = 0.125$

Total Spam Probability:

$$P(\mathrm{Spam}|X) \propto P(\mathrm{Spam}) \times P(\mathrm{free}|\mathrm{Spam}) \times P(\mathrm{lottery}|\mathrm{Spam}) \times P(\mathrm{now}|\mathrm{Spam})$$
= 0.5 x 0.125 x 0.188 x 0.125 = 0.00147

Not Spam Class Likelihoods

$$P(\text{free}|\text{Not Spam}) = \frac{0+1}{7+11} = \frac{1}{18} = 0.056$$

$$P(\text{lottery}|\text{Not Spam}) = \frac{0+1}{7+11} = 0.056$$

$$P(\text{now}|\text{Not Spam}) = \frac{1+1}{7+11} = 0.111$$

Total Not Spam Probability:

$$P(\text{Not Spam}|X) \propto P(\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{free}|\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{lottery}|\text{Not Spam}) \times P(\text{now}|\text{Not Spam})$$

$$= 0.5 \times 0.056 \times 0.056 \times 0.111 = 0.00017$$

- Practice example:
- "Call office now"

Email No.	win	lottery	now	ticket	free	meeting	at	office	is	work	pending	Label
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Spam
2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Spam
3	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	Not Spam
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	Not Spam

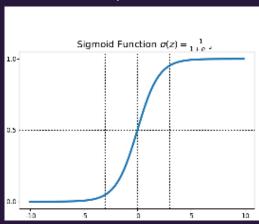
```
P(call/spam) =
= (0+1)/(5+11) = 1/16 = 0.0625
P(office/ spam) =
= (0+1)/(5+11) = 1/16 = 0.0625
P(now/spam) =
= (1+1)/(5+11) = 2/16 = 0.125
P(spam/ "call", "office", "now") ∝
= 0.5 \times 0.0625 \times 0.0625 \times 0.125
= 0.00024
                                          = 0.00035
```

```
P(call / Not spam) =
= (0+1)/(7+11) = 1/18 = 0.056
P(office/ Not spam) =
= (1+1)/(7+11) = 2/18 = 0.1111
P(now / Not spam) =
= (1+1)/(7+11) = 2/18 = 0.1111
P(Not spam/ "call", "office", "now") ∝
= 0.5 \times 0.056 \times 0.1111 \times 0.1111
```

- A supervised machine learning algorithm used for binary classification.
- Computes the probability that an input belongs to one of two classes (e.g., Spam vs. Not Spam).
- Uses the sigmoid function to convert numerical values into probabilities.

$$f(x)=rac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$

 Where x is a linear combination of the input features.



- Training Logistic Regression:
 - The model learns a function that predicts whether an email is "Spam" or "Not Spam" based on word presence.
 - It assigns weights to each word, showing its contribution to predicting spam.
 - \circ X = $(w_0+w_1x_1+w_2x_2+...+w_nx_n)$

$$P(Spam) = rac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + ... + w_n x_n)}}$$

- Sigmoid Function for Classification
 - Logistic regression applies a sigmoid function to compute a probability.

$$_{P} = rac{1}{1 + e^{-(w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + ... + w_n x_n)}}$$

where:

- w₀ is the bias term,
- $w_1, w_2, ..., w_n$ are learned weights,
- $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ are word presence values (0 or 1).
- Decision Boundary:
 - If P>0.5, the email is classified as Spam.
 - If $P \le 0.5$, it is classified as Not Spam.

- Limitations:
 - Assumes a linear relationship among the features.
 - Performance degrades with huge vocabulary sizes.
 - o Ideally designed for binary classifications only.
- How to use it for multi-class classifications?
 - One vs. Rest approach
 - One vs. one approach
 - Use SoftMax function

One vs. Rest

- Also known as One-vs-All (OvA).
- Trains one binary classifier per class while treating all other classes as a single combined class.
- The class with the highest probability is chosen as the prediction.
- How It Works:
- For N classes, train N binary classifiers:
- Each classifier distinguishes one class vs. all others.
- For a test sample, all classifiers assign probabilities.
- The class with the highest probability is the final prediction.

- Example (for 3 classes: A, B, C)
- Model 1: "A vs. (B & C)"
- Model 2: "B vs. (A & C)"
- Model 3: "C vs. (A & B)"
- Final prediction = Class with highest probability.

One vs. One approach

- Trains binary classifiers for every possible pair of classes.
- The final prediction is based on a voting system.
- How It Works:
 - For N classes, train N(N-1)/2 binary classifiers.
 - Each classifier distinguishes between two classes only.
 - o For a test sample, all classifiers vote for a class.
 - o The class that gets the most votes is the final prediction.
 - Model 1: "A vs. B"
 - Model 2: "A vs. C"
 - Model 3: "B vs. C"
 - Each classifier gives a result, and the class with the most votes is selected.

Parametric Vs Non-Parametric

- Parametric models make strong assumptions about the functional form of the relationship between input and output variables. They have a fixed number of parameters, regardless of the size of the dataset.
- Explicit training: The model tries to learn the value of parameters.
- Limited flexibility: Less flexible, constrained by the fixed number of parameters.
- Less prone to overfitting but can underfit if assumptions are incorrect.
- Example: Linear regression, Logistic regression, ANN

- Non-parametric models do not make strong assumptions about the form of the relationship between input and output variables. The number of parameters grows with the size of the dataset, allowing them to adapt to more complex patterns.
- No Explicit Training/ Implicit training: The model store & use entire dataset for prediction
- High flexibility: Can capture complex, non-linear relationships.
- More prone to overfitting, especially with limited data.
- Example: k-Nearest Neighbors, Decision tree, Random forest, SOM

Terminologies

	Definition	Examples
Field	Broad domain where Al/ML is applied.	Natural Language Processing (NLP), Computer Vision (CV), Speech Processing, Time Series Analysis.
Task/Problem	The specific type of problem to solve within a field.	Classification, Regression, Clustering, Translation, Summarization, Question/ Answering.
Approach	The method used to solve a task/problem.	Rule-Based Systems, Machine Learning (ML), Deep Learning (DL)

Document Clustering

• Text clustering is an unsupervised machine learning technique that groups similar texts together based on their content, without predefined labels.

Text Representation:

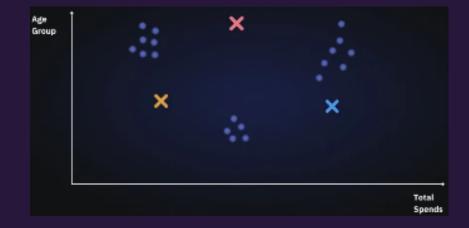
- Bag-of-Words (BoW)
- Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF)
- Word Embeddings (Word2Vec, GloVe, FastText)
- Contextual embeddings (BERT, GPT)

Techniques:

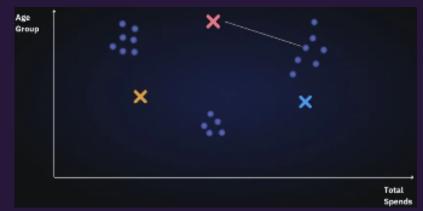
- Partition-based clustering
- Hierarchical clustering
- Density-based clustering
- Topic Modeling

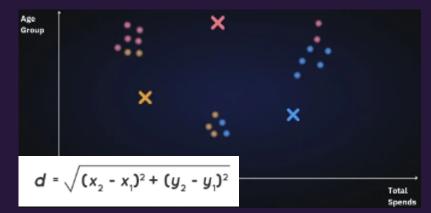
- K-Means is an unsupervised machine learning algorithm used for clustering similar data points into K groups (clusters).
- It minimizes the distance between data points and the cluster centre (centroid).
- Use case: an online store uses K-Means to group customers based on purchase frequency and spending.
- The idea is to create segments like Budget Shoppers, Frequent Buyers and Big Spenders for personalized marketing.

- Steps involved:
- Choosing the number of clusters
 The first step is to define the K
 number of clusters in which we will
 group the data. Let's select K=3.
- Initializing centroids Centroid is the center of a cluster but initially, the exact center of data points will be unknown so, we select random data points and define them as centroids for each cluster.



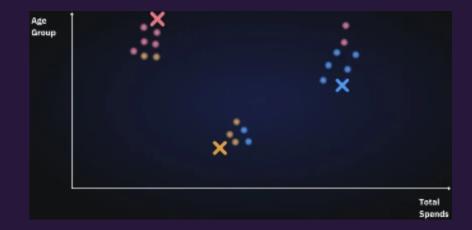
- Assign data points to the nearest cluster
 - Now that centroids are initialized, the next step is to assign data points Xn to their closest cluster centroid Ck
- In this step, we will first calculate the distance between data point X and centroid C using Euclidean Distance metric.
- And then choose the cluster for data points where the distance between the data point and the centroid is minimum.



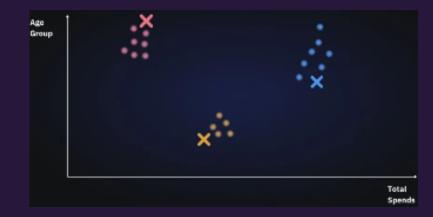


• Re-initialize centroids

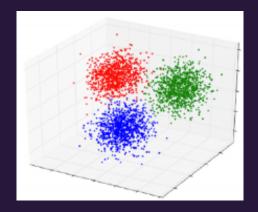
Next, we will re-initialize the centroids by calculating the average of all data points of that cluster.



Repeat last two steps
 We will keep repeating last two
 steps until we have optimal
 centroids and the assignments of
 data points to correct clusters are
 not changing anymore.



- As the number of features increases the number of dimensions also increases.
- In the case of text we have words as features (BoW).
- So vocabulary size = dimensions involved.



- How do you decide the value of k?
- In the Elbow Method, we systematically experiment with different numbers of clusters (K) ranging from 1 to 10.
- With each K value, we compute the Within-Cluster Sum of Squares (WCSS).
- When we plot WCSS against K, the resulting graph resembles an elbow.
- As we increase the number of clusters, the WCSS value begins to decrease.

