Language Modeling

CS 335: Introduction to Large Language Models Abdul Samad, Fisal Alvi Habib University

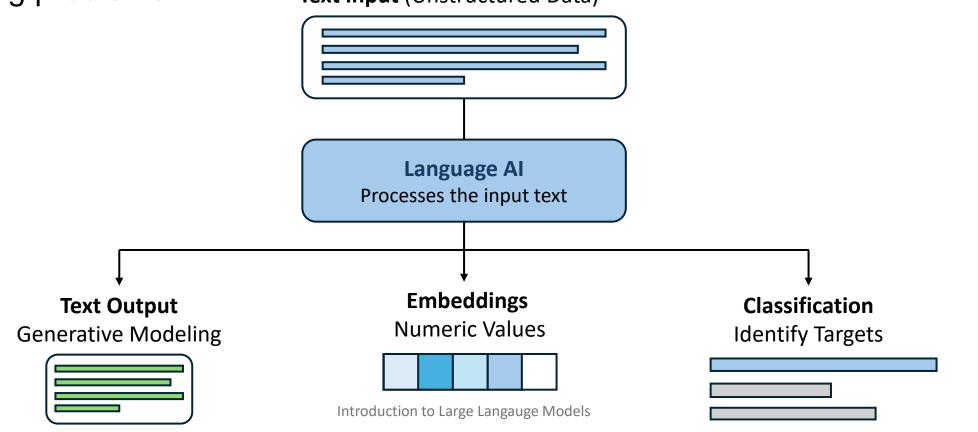
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Language AI (NLP)

• Language AI refers to a subfield of AI that focuses on developing technologies capable of understanding, processing, and generating human language.

 Language AI can often be used interchangeably with natural language processing (NLP) with continued success of machine learning methods in tackling language processing problems
 Text Input (Unstructured Data)



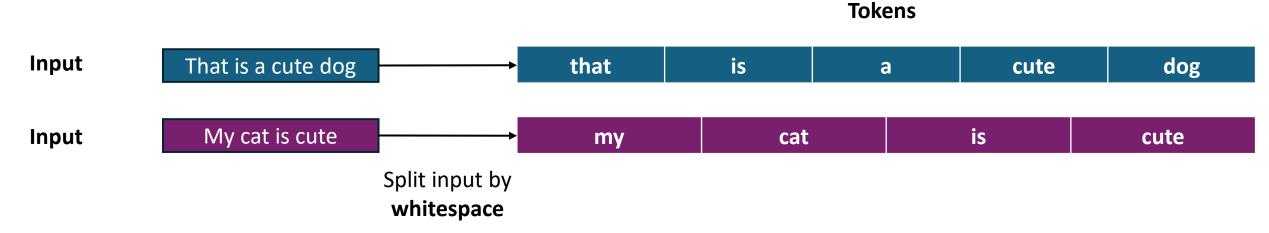
Language Al

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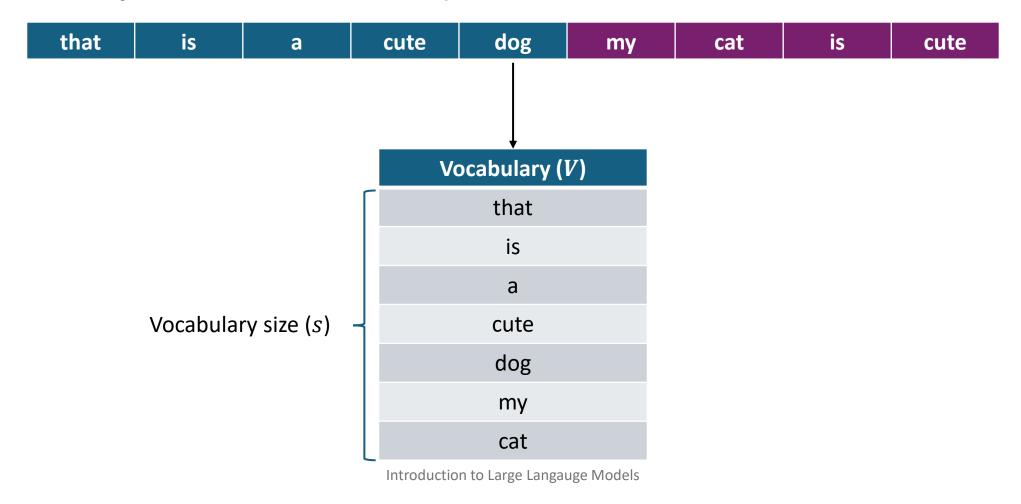
- Supervised Learning: Given a collection of labeled examples (each x paired with y) learn a function from x to y.
- Language tasks commonly tackled in supervised setting:
 - **Sentiment analysis:** map a product review to a sentiment label (positive or negative)
 - Question-answering: given a question about a document, provide the location of the answer within the document
 - Textual entailment: given two sentences identify whether the first sentence entails or contradicts the second one
 - Machine translation: given a sentence in a source language, produce a translation of that sentence in a target language.

Bag of Words

- Our history of Language AI starts with a technique called bag-of-words, a method for representing unstructured text.
- Bag-of-words works as follows: let's assume that we have two sentences for which we want to create numerical representations. The first step of the bag-ofwords model is tokenization, the process of splitting up the sentences into individual words or subwords (tokens).
- The most common method for tokenization is by splitting on a whitespace to create individual words.



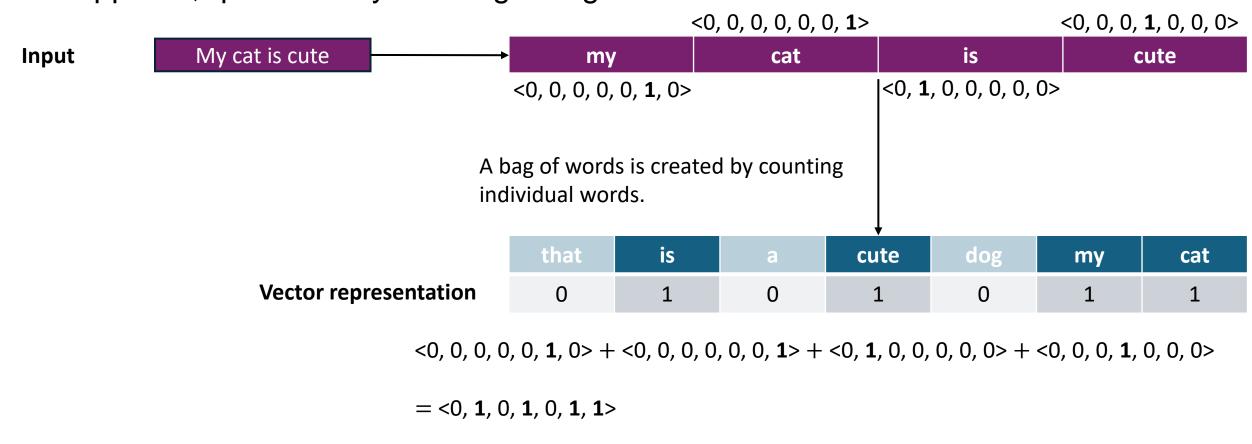
- Bag of Words
 - After tokenization, we combine all unique words from each sentence to create a
 vocabulary that we can use to represent the sentences.



- Bag of Words
 - One-hot Encoding: Each token in the vocabulary is assigned an index. The corresponding numerical representation of the token is a vector of dimension *V* with a value of 1 at the position corresponding to the token's index in the vocabulary, while all other positions are set to 0.

		Vocabulary (\emph{V})	
Vocabulary size (s)	0	that	< 1 , 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0>
	1	is	
	2	a	<0, 0, 1 , 0, 0, 0, 0>
	3	cute	<0, 0, 0, 1 , 0, 0, 0>
	4	dog	
	5	my	
	6	cat	<0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1>

- Bag of Words
 - Using our vocabulary, we simply count how often a word in each sentence appears, quite literally creating a bag of words



- Word Embedding
 - Given some text, create a representation of that text (usually real-valued vectors) that capture its linguistic properties (syntax, semantics)

Word	dim0	dim1	dim2	dim3
today	0.35	-1.3	2.2	0.003
cat	-3.1	-1.7	1.1	-0.56
sleep	0.55	3.0	2.4	-1.2
watch	-0.09	0.8	-1.8	2.9

vector representation of "today"

 Word2Vec, GloVe, FastText are popular algorithms used to generate word embeddings.

Word Embedding

Size of Embeddings:

Smaller embeddings (e.g., 50-100 dimensions): Capture basic word relationships, faster to train, suitable for simple tasks.

Larger embeddings (e.g., 300-1000+ dimensions): Capture more detailed semantic features, better for complex language understanding.

Syntax Level:

Captures grammatical relationships and word usage patterns.

Example: "run" and "runs" may have similar embeddings based on their syntactic role.

Semantics Level:

Captures the meaning and context of words.

Example: "king" and "queen" having similar embeddings due to related meanings.

Self Supervised Learning

Given a collection of just text (no extra labels), create labels out of the text and use them for representation learning or generating text.

- Language Modelling: given the beginning of a sentence or document, predict the next word
- Masked Language Modelling: given an entire document with some words or spans masked out, predict the missing words

• The classic definition of a language model (LM) is a probability distribution over sequences of tokens. Suppose we have a vocabulary V of a set of tokens. A language model p assigns each sequence of tokens $x_1, ..., x_L \in V$ a probability (a number between 0 and 1):

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_L).$$

• The probability intuitively tells us how "good" a sequence of tokens is. For example, if the vocabulary is $V = \{\text{ate, ball, cheese, mouse, the}\}$, the language model might assign:

```
p(\text{the, mouse, ate, the, cheese}) = 0.02, p(\text{the, cheese, ate, the, mouse}) = 0.01, p(\text{mouse, the, the, cheese, ate}) = 0.0001.
```

Goal: Compute the probability of a sentence or a sequence of tokens

$$p(x_{1:L}) = p(x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_L)$$

Related Task: Probability of an upcoming word

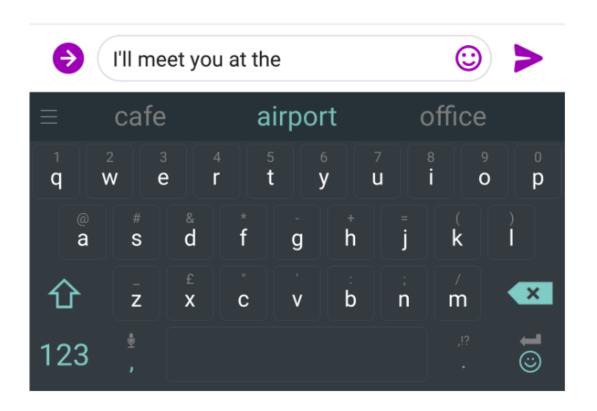
$$p(x_4|x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

A model that computes either of these

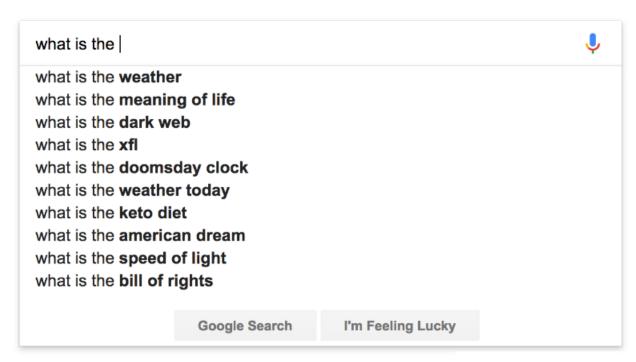
 $p(x_{1:L})$ or $p(x_4|x_1,x_2,x_3)$ is called a Language Model (LM)

Language models assign a probability to a piece of text

You use Language Models every day!







• How to compute $p(x_{1:L})$

p(the, mouse, ate, the, cheese)

Let's rely on the chain rule of probability

$$p(x_{1:L}) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_1,x_2)\cdots p(x_L|x_{1:L-1}) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} p(x_i|x_{1:i-1})$$

For example:

```
p(\text{the, mouse, ate, the, cheese}) = p(\text{the})
p(\text{mouse | the})
p(\text{ate | the, mouse})
p(\text{the | the, mouse, ate})
p(\text{cheese | the, mouse, ate, the}).
```

• In particular, $p(x_i | x_{1:i-1})$ is a **conditional probability distribution** of the next token x_i given the previous tokens $x_{1:i-1}$.

Prefix sequence

- How to estimate these probabilities
 - Count?

```
p(\text{cheese} | \text{the, mouse, ate, the}) = \frac{\text{count(the mouse ate the cheese)}}{\text{count(the mouse ate the)}}
```

NO!! We will never see enough data for accurately estimating these

- How to estimate these probabilities
 - Count?

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p(\text{cheese | the, mouse, ate, the}) = \frac{\text{count(the mouse ate the cheese)}}{\text{count(the mouse ate the)}}
```

- NO!! We will never see enough data for accurately estimating these
- Markov Assumption

```
p(\text{cheese} | \text{the, mouse, ate, the}) \approx p(\text{cheese} | \text{the})
p(\text{cheese} | \text{the, mouse, ate, the}) \approx p(\text{cheese} | \text{ate the})
```

How to estimate these probabilities

Instead of starting from 1 we start from some i-k

$$p(x_{1:L}) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} p(x_i|x_{i-k:i-1}) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} p(x_i|x_{i-k}\cdots x_{i-1})$$

• In other words, we approximate each component in the product (cheese | the, mouse, ate, the) $\approx p$ (cheese | mouse ate the)

N-gram Models

• In an **n-gram model**, the prediction of a token x_i only depends on the last i - k words where k = n - 1:

$$p(x_i \mid x_{1:i-1}) = p(x_i \mid x_{i-(n-1):i-1}).$$

• For example, a trigram (n = 3) model would define:

p(cheese | the, mouse, ate, the) = p(cheese | ate, the).

 These probabilities are computed based on the number of times various n-grams (e.g., ate the mouse and ate the cheese) occur in a large corpus of text

N-gram Models

• Example: Estimating Bi-gram probabilities

$$p(x_i|x_{i-1}) = \frac{p(x_{i-1}, x_i)}{p(x_{i-1})}$$

• Text:

"<s>I am Sam</s><s>Sam I am</s><s>I do not like green eggs and toast</s>"

$$p(||~~) = \frac{2}{3}~~$$
 $p(||~~) = \frac{1}{3}~~$ $p(||~~) = \frac{1}{3}~~$ $p(|| $p(|| $p(||$$$

N-gram Models

• Fitting n-gram models to data is extremely **computationally cheap** and scalable. As a result, n-gram models were trained on massive amount of text. For example, <u>Brants et al. (2007)</u> trained a 5-gram model on 2 trilling tokens for machine translation. In comparison GPT-3 was trained on only 300 billion tokens. However, an n-gram model was fundamentally limited. Imagine the prefix:

Stanford has a new course on large language models. It will be taught by _____

• If *n* is too small, then the model will be incapable of capturing long-range dependencies, and the next word will not be able to depend on **Stanford**. However, if *n* is too big, it will be *statistically infeasible* to get good estimates of the probabilities (almost all reasonable sequences show up 0 times even in "huge" corpora):

Count(Stanford, has, a, new, course, on, large, language, models) = 0

Generation

- As defined, a large language model p takes a sequence and returns a probability to assess its goodness. We can also generate a sequence given a language model.
- to generate an entire sequence $x_{1:L}$ from a language model p, we sample one token at a time given the tokens generated so far:

for
$$i = 1, ..., L$$
:
 $x_i \sim p(x_i | x_{1:i-1})^{1/T}$,

where $T \ge 0$ is a **temperature** parameter that controls how much randomness we want from the language model:

- \circ T = 0: deterministically choose the most probable token x_i at each position i
- \circ T = 1: sample "normally" from the pure language model
- $\circ T = \infty$: sample from a uniform distribution over the entire vocabulary V

Generation

Conditional generation

we can perform conditional generation by specifying some prefix sequence $x_{1:L}$ (called a **prompt**) and sampling the rest $x_{i+1:L}$ (called the **completion**). For example, generating with T=0 produces:

If we change the temperature to T = 1, we can get more variety, for example, its house and my homework.

Evaluation

- How good is our model?
 - A good LM prefers real sentences:
 - Assigns higher probability to "real" or "frequently observed" sentences.
 - Assigns lower probability to "word salad" or "rarely observed" sentences.

Evaluation

- How good is our model?
 - A good LM prefers real sentences:
 - Assigns higher probability to "real" or "frequently observed" sentences.
 - Assigns lower probability to "rarely observed" sentences.
 - We train parameters of our model on a training set.
 - We test the model's performance on data we haven't seen. An **evaluation metric** tells us how well our model does on the **test set**.

Evaluation

- Evaluation Metric: Perplexity
 - Perplexity is the inverse probability of the test set, normalized by the number of words

$$PP(x_{1:L}) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{L}\sum_{i=1}^{L} -\log\left(\frac{1}{p(x_i|x_{1:i-1})}\right)\right)$$

• Minimizing Perplexity is the same as maximizing the probability of the test set, therefore, the lower the perplexity the better the model.

References

- Jurafsky, D., & Martin, J. H. Speech and Language Processing. Stanford University
- Stanford University. CS324 Large Language Models. Course materials.
- https://jalammar.github.io/illustrated-word2vec/