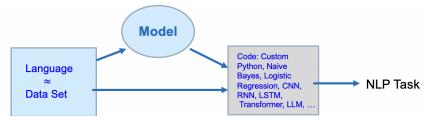
Language Models, Bag-of-Words, N-grams, Skip-Grams

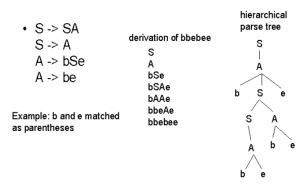
1. Language Models

- a. A Language Model is a simplified representation of a language which facilitates an NLP task, where
 - i. A language (potentially infinite) is approximated by a (finite) data set; and
 - ii. The model is a set of (simplified) assumptions about the language, embodied by the algorithms and data structures of your program.



iii.

- b. NLP systems rely on models to capture knowledge of about a language, and as a representation for texts which facilitate an NLP task.
 - i. Example: Context-Free Grammars (Chomsky, Backus-Naur)



ii.

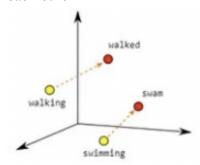
- 2. Language Modeling: Word Representations
 - a. Before diving into the subject of Language Models, let's prepare a bit by talking about an essential component of language modeling...
 - b. Last time we discussed how to represent characters, as integer ASCII codes in the range [0 .. 127]. But how do we represent words?
 - c. Bad idea: word = sequence of ASCII codes
 - d. Why is this bad?
 - i. Variable length (every word length has to be the same, which leads to having lots of after the word) \rightarrow ex) dog
 - ii. Information contains confusing correspondences:
 - 1. "to" very similar to "too" "dog" same chars as "god"
 - e. (Neural networks will find these difficult to learn.)

- f. There are two principal representations, both based on constant-length arrays (or vectors).
- g. One-Hot Encoding

i.

Color	Red	Green	Blue
Red	1	0	0
Green	 0	1	0
Blue	0	0	1
Green	0	1	0

h. Word Embedding (we'll do these in a few weeks) – putting words that are similar close to each other



- i. We generically call sequences/lists/arrays by the standard term vector. For simplicity, we foten write them as Python lists here
- 3. Language Modeling: One-Hot Encoding for Words
 - a. Basic Idea of One-Hot Encoding:
 - i. Create a vocabulary list of length N of all distinct words in the text (the ordering is fixed but arbitrary).
 - ii. The representation of the kth word in the list is an array/vector of N integers, with a 0 in every position except for a single1 in position k.
 - iii. Example: "John likes to watch movies. Mary likes movies too."

Vocabulary list: ["John", "likes", "Mary", "movies", "to", "too", "watch"]
$$i_{V.}$$
 0 1 2 3 4 5 6

One-Hot Encodings:

"movies"
$$\implies$$
 [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0] "likes" \implies [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]

vi. Plus:

V.

- 1. Vectors have same length
- 2. Spelling is completely irrelevant
- vii. Minus
 - 1. Very long vectors (typically 10,000 or more) → can eliminate many words that do not matter much for later

- 4. Language Models: Bag-of-Words
 - a. Examples of Models: Bag of Words (BOW)
 - i. The BOW model represents a text (sentence, sequence of words, entire corpus) as a multiset (bag) of all words in the text, i.e, just the vocabulary, no information about order of words!
 - 1. Useful in classification (Spam Vs Ham)
 - ii. Text: "John likes to watch movies. Mary likes movies too."

```
Vocabulary list: ["John", "likes", "Mary", "movies", "to", "too", "watch"]

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

BOW model of text: [1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1
```

- iii.
- iv. The multiplicity (frequency) of words do not really matter
 - 1. Ex) "The movie is bad bad bad" is similar to "The movie is bad"
- v. Do this for large number of data
- vi. Alternate BOW representations
 - 1. We might only consider the presence (0/1) of a word, not its frequency (as if "Set of Words")
 - 2. Since most BOW vectors are sparce, we might want to store them as a dictionary
 - 3. { "John" : 1, "likes" : 2, "to" : 1, "watch" : 1, "movies" : 2, "Mary" : 1, "too" : 1 }
- vii. What is the relationship between One-Hot Encodings and a BOW model?
 - 1. The BOW model of a text is the array sum of the one-hot encodings

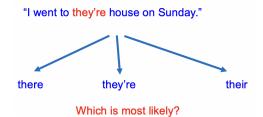
```
"John"
               [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]
"likes"
                [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]
"to"
                [0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0]
                [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1]
"watch"
"movies"
                [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0]
"Mary"
                [0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0]
"likes"
                [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0]
"movies"
                [0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0]
"too"
                [0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0]
                [1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 1, 1]
```

- b. Reducing words
 - i. Very common words such as "the" "an"
 - ii. Very uncommon words

2.

- 5. Language Models: Probabilistic Language Models
 - a. Probabilistic Language Model: Assign a probability to text components (letters, words, sentences,)

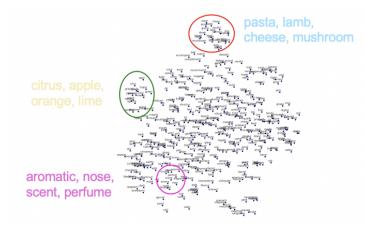
- b. This is very useful to work with the ambiguous nature of human languages, and very amenable to computation:
 - i. "Given K choices for some ambiguous input, choose the most probable one."



- i. Which one appears the most in the corpus? If you feed wrong corpus, you will get wrong
- 6. Language Models: Vector Space Language Models
 - a. Vector space models use a vector in M-dimensional space to represent
 - i. Words

c.

- ii. Sentences
- iii. Texts



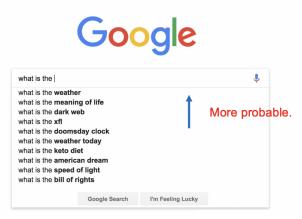
- c. This is the current SOTA ("Stage Of The Art") for language modeling. → very useful computation since words that are similar are close to each other
- 7. Probabilistic Language Models

b.

- a. Main Idea of PLMs: Assign a probability to a sequence of words. Why?
 - i. Some words are more probable than others
- b. Machine Translation:
 - i. EX)Translating from Japanese to English and there are two options
 - ii. P(high winds tonight) > P(large winds tonight)
 - 1. Look for every occurrence of those words in the corpus
- c. Spelling Correction:
 - i. The office is about fifteen minuets from my house
 - ii. P(about fifteen minutes from) > P(about fifteen minutes from)

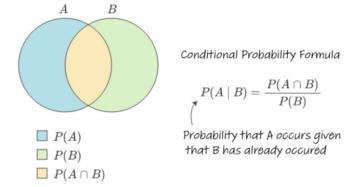
- d. Speech Recognition:
 - i. P(I saw a van) >> P(eyes awe of an)
 - ii. Could be any sequence and length of words (corpus might not have enough examples to capture all the data)
- e. Summarization, Q&A, etc.
- f. The main task: compute the probability of a sentence or sequence of words:
 - i. P(W) = P(w1,w2,w3,w4,w5...wn)
 - ii. Words might not occur or occur → handle later
- g. Subtask: compute the conditional probability of the next word
 - i. P(w5 | w1,w2,w3,w4) "The weather is?"
- h. A model that computes either of these: P(W) or P(wn | w1,w2...wn-1) is called a probabilistic language model (often, just "language model").

You have seen these before!



- i.
- j. It is possible to apply this framework to any sequence (predicting the next sequence given a sequence)
 - i. Letters in a word
 - ii. Pitches in a melody
 - iii. Phonemes in a voice signal
 - iv. Sentences in a paragraph
 - v. Topics in a discourse.
- k. The amount of data is very significant because we need to consider all the likelihoods
- 1. How to compute P(W)?
 - i. How to compute this joint probability
 - 1. P(I went to their house on Sunday)
 - ii. Intuition: let's rely on the Chain Rule of Probability
- 8. Calculating Probabilities
 - a. Recall the definition of conditional probabilities
 - i. P(A|B) = P(B,A) / P(B)
 - ii. Rewriting: P(B,A) = P(B) * P(A|B)

iii. For this LM, we will think of B,A as a sequence: B happens, then A happens. Thus, P(A|B) = "given that B has happened, what is the probablity that A happens"?



- b.
- c. More variables:

i.
$$P(A,B,C,D) = P(A) \times P(B|A) \times P(C|A,B) \times P(D|A,B,C)$$

d. General Chain Rule:

i.
$$P(x1,x2,x3,...,xn) = P(x1) \times P(x2|x1) \times P(x3|x1,x2) \times ... \times P(xn|x1,...,xn-1)$$

- . The Chain Rule applied to compute joint probability of words in sentence:
 - i. "I went to their house on Sunday."

$$P(w_1 w_2 ... w_n) = \prod_{1 \le i \le n} P(w_i | w_1 w_2 ... w_{i-1})$$

ii.

i.

iii. P(I went to their house on Sunday.) =

P(I)
$$\times$$
 P(went | I) \times P(to | I went) \times P(their | I went to)

- \times P(house | I went to their) \times P(on | I went to their house)
- x P(Sunday | I went to their house on)
- f. How to estimate these probabilities?
- g. Could we just count and divide?

P(Sunday | I went to their house on) =

Count(I went to their house on Sunday)

Count(I went to their house on)

- ii. Not realistic
- iii. In an infinite set of sentences, the probability of any distinct sequence of words is 0. So a data set is a small sample which hopefully represents the essential features of the language.
- iv. But realistic data sets never have enough sample sequences, and sequences might be very long or simply not exist in your data.

- h. Markov Assumption: Finite history!
- i. Only consider N-1 words of left context, for some fixed N.
- j. So, if N = 2, "I went to their house on Sunday" becomes
 - i. I went

went to

to their

their house

house on

on Sunday

- k. If N = 3, "I went to their house on Sunday" becomes
 - i. I went to

went to their

to their house

their house on

house on Sunday

- 1. Terminology: An N-Gram is a sequence of N contiguous words from the data set.
 - i. unigram = 1-gram
 - ii. bigram = 2-gram
 - iii. trigram = 3-gram, etc
- m. Markov Assumption: Only consider N-1 words of left context.
- n. Thus, for a sequence of length M,

$$P(w_1 w_2 ... w_M) \approx \prod_{N < i < M - N} P(w_i | w_{i-N+1} ... w_{i-1})$$

Bigram Example (N = 2)

o.

p.

P(<s> I went to their house on Sunday </s>)=
P(I | <s>) × P(went | I) × P(to | went) × P(their | to)
× P(house | their) × P(on | house)
x P(Sunday | on) x P(</s> | Sunday)

i. <s> is where the sentence begins, so you lose the information that the start of the sentence is "I"

$$P(I | < s >) \approx \frac{C(< s > I)}{C(< s >)}$$

 $P(\text{went} | I) \approx \frac{C(I \text{ went})}{C(I)}$

q. Note that this calculation involves finding the number of occurrences of an N-gram and of an (N-1)-gram (the prefix)!

$$P(\text{ went } | < s > I) = \frac{C(< s > I \text{ went })}{C(< s > I)}$$
$$P(\text{ to } | \text{ I went }) = \frac{C(\text{ I went to })}{C(\text{ I went })}$$

r.

- s. In trigram, the beginning of the sentence has no length
 - i. Start with bigram for once \rightarrow go trigram
- t. Similarly, when doing pentagram,
 - i. Unigram \rightarrow bigram \rightarrow trigram \rightarrow etc.. \rightarrow pentagram
- u. Remarks: This is almost trivial to code after you have separated your text into words and sentences.
- v. For small N, it will be reasonably efficient.
- w. BUT, it does NOT capture the recursive/nesting structure inherent in complex sentences:
 - i. My friend Bill, who went to the same high school that I did –Pennsbury, which is in Fairless Hills in PA—lives in his car, and he called me yesterday (or the day before, I forget).
- x. Example

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_{i-1}, w_i)}{c(w_{i-1})} \begin{tabular}{ll} ~~& l am Sam~~ & s> Sam I am & s> Sam I am & s> I do not like green eggs and ham & s> I do not like green eggs and ham & like green eggs and ham &$$

i.

- 9. Generative Language Models
 - a. A clever feature of this model is that it can easily generate sentences.
 - b. For bigrams, after calculating the probability of all bigrams appearing in the data.

ii. Pick a probable bigram w1 w2

iii. ... etc. ...

iv. End when you generate a bigram wk </s>

- c. You may not want to always choose the most likely, or you will not be able to generate many sentences! → it will always generate the same sentence
- d. So choose randomly from the probability distribution of next words.