N-grams

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Tokenization is splitting text into individual words or **tokens** Multiple challenges:

▶ Different delimiters: spaces, punctuation

Contractions: "can't" → "can not"

► Special cases: dates, numbers, URLs, hashtags, email addresses

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Input

"Natural language processing enables computers to understand human language."

Tokenized output

Natural, language, processing, enables, computers, to, understand, human, language, .

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Input

"Dr. Smith's email, dr.smith@example.com, isn't working since 01/02/2023; try reaching out at (555) 123-4567 in San Francisco."

Tokenized output

Dr., Smith's, email, "dr.smith@example.com, "isn't, working, since, 01/02/2023, ;, try, reaching, out, at, (, 555,), 123-4567, in, San Francisco.

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Rule-based approach

Use predefined rules, like splitting by spaces or punctuation using regular expressions

Machine learning approach

Learn from data to handle complex cases, e.g., using Byte-Pair Encoding subword tokenization

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What is a language model?

A language model is a probabilistic model that:

- computes the **probability of a sequence of words** S $P(S) = P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$
- computes the **probability of an upcoming word** $P(w_5|w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4)$

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For example, for speech recognition: P(I saw a van) >> P(eyes awe of an)

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How to compute P(S)?

Definition of conditional probabilities:

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

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

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Applying the **chain rule** to multiple variables:

$$P(A, B, C, D) = P(A)P(B|A)P(C|A, B)P(D|A, B, C)$$

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Applying the chain rule to compute the joint probability of words in a sentence:

$$P(I \text{ am Gustave}) = P(I)P(am|I)P(Gustave|I \text{ am})$$

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How to estimate these probabilities?

Can we just count and divide?

```
P(\text{processing}|I \text{ am Gustave, I love natural language}) = \frac{\text{Count}(I \text{ am Gustave, I love natural language processing})}{\text{Count}(I \text{ am Gustave, I love natural language})}
```

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How to estimate these probabilities?

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```
P(processing|I am Gustave, I love natural language) = 

Count(I am Gustave, I love natural language processing)
Count(I am Gustave, I love natural language)
```

→ We'll never see enough data for estimating long sentences

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N-grams are Markov models

Markov assumption uses a limited context window to approximate P(processing|I am Gustave, I love natural language)

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P(processing) Unigram

P(processing|language) Bigram

P(processing|natural language) Trigram

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 \rightarrow Language has long-distance dependencies, therefore n-grams are insufficient models of language

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Example: estimating bigram probabilities

Estimation using
$$P(w_i|w_{i-1}) = \frac{\operatorname{count}(w_i,w_{i-1})}{\operatorname{count}(w_{i-1})}$$

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Example: estimating bigram probabilities

Estimation using
$$P(w_i|w_{i-1}) = \frac{\operatorname{count}(w_i, w_{i-1})}{\operatorname{count}(w_{i-1})}$$

- <s> I am Gustave </s>
- <s> Gustave I am </s>
- <s> I love natural language processing </s>

$$P(I|am) = \frac{\text{count}(I, am)}{\text{count}(am)} = \frac{2}{3}$$

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How to evaluate performance?

We calculate probabilities on a training set and evaluate on the unseen test set

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We want a language model (LM) that best predicts the test set

Therefore, a good LM assigns a higher probability to the test set than another LM $\,$

If the test set has n tokens, then $P(\text{test set}) = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)$

 $P_{\text{good LM}}(\text{test set}) > P_{\text{bad LM}}(\text{test set})$

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Perplexity

Probability depends on the number of tokens, the longer the text, the smaller the probability

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 \rightarrow We normalize by the number of tokens to have a metric per token:

Perplexity(test set) =
$$(w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)^{-\frac{1}{N}}$$

Perplexity is the inverse probability of the test set, normalized by the length

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Minimizing perplexity is the same as maximizing probability

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Practical issues

Due to **unknown words**, bigrams with zero probability drop sentence probabilities to zero and prevent us from calculating perplexity

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ightarrow Add-1 smoothing pretends we saw each word one more time than we did

$$P(w_i|w_{i-1}) = \frac{\text{count}(w_i, w_{i-1}) + 1}{\text{count}(w_{i-1}) + V}$$

where V is the vocabulary size

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To avoid underflow, every computation is performed in log space

$$\log(p_1 \times p_2 \times p_3) = \log(p_1) + \log(p_2) + \log(p_3)$$

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Better n-grams using backoff or interpolation methods

Backing off through progressively shorter context models under certain conditions. For example, use trigram if $count(w_i, w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}) > 0$, otherwise use bigram.

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Backing off through progressively shorter context models under certain conditions. For example, use trigram if $count(w_i, w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}) > 0$, otherwise use bigram.

Interpolation methods train individual models for different n-gram orders and then interpolate them together.

$$\hat{P}(w_n|w_{n-2},w_{n-1}) = \lambda_1 P(w_n|w_{n-2},w_{n-1}) + \lambda_2 P(w_n|w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P(w_n)$$

where
$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_i = 1$$

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From n-gram to neural network language models

Neural network language models solve major problems with n-grams

- ➤ The number of parameters increases exponentially as the n-gram order increases
- ▶ N-grams have no way to generalize from training to test set

Neural language models instead **project words into a continuous space** in which words with similar contexts have similar representations

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How to represent word meaning?

Word meaning as a point in a multidimensional space

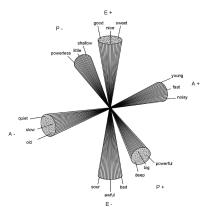


Figure: A three-dimensional affective space of connotative meaning by Osgood et al. (1957)

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How to represent word meaning?

Defining meaning by linguistic distribution

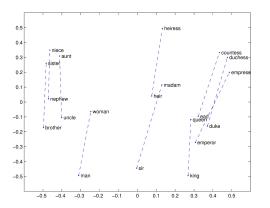
The meaning of a word is its use in a language, Ludwig Wittgenstein (1953)

If A and B have almost identical environments (words around them), then they are synonyms, Zellig Harris (1954)

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How to represent word meaning?

Word meaning as a point in a multidimensional space + Defining meaning by linguistic distribution = **Defining meaning as a point in a multidimensional space based on linguistic distribution**



The meaning of a word is a vector called an embedding

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Components of a machine learning classifier

- A feature representation of the input x
- ► A classification function that computes the estimated class
- ► An objective function for learning (e.g., cross-entropy loss)
- ► An algorithm for optimizing the objective function (e.g., stochastic gradient descent)

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