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INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING

APPLICATIONS OF MACHINE LEARNING TO
LANGUAGE MODELING

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Statistical language modelling

- Goal: Model the joint distribution of words in a sentence.
- Such a model can be used to
 - predict the next word given several preceding ones
 - arrange bags of words into sentences
 - assign probabilities to documents
- Applications: speech recognition, machine translation, information retrieval.
- Most statistical language models are based on the Markov assumption:
 - The distribution of the next word depends on only n words that immediately precede it.
 - This assumption is clearly wrong but useful – it makes the task much more tractable.

n-gram models

- *n*-gram models are simply conditional probability tables for $P(w_n|w_{1:n-1})$.
 - estimated by counting *n*-tuples of words and normalizing
 - smoothing the estimates is essential for good performance
 - many different smoothing methods exist
- *n*-gram models are the most widely used statistical language models due to their simplicity and excellent performance.
- Curse of dimensionality: number of model parameters is exponential in *n*.

Training n -gram models

- Let $\#s$ be the number of times a sequence of words s occurs in the training set.

- Then we can estimate a trigram model as follows:

$$P(w_3|w_1, w_2) = \frac{\#w_1w_2w_3}{\#w_1w_2}$$

- Problem: if $w_3w_2w_1$ does occur in the training set, it is assigned zero probability.
- That's bad – the model does not generalize to new word triples!
- One solution: smooth the trigram estimates by interpolating them with the bigram estimates

$$P(w_3|w_1, w_2) = \lambda \times \frac{\#w_1w_2w_3}{\#w_1w_2} + (1 - \lambda) \times \frac{\#w_2w_3}{\#w_2}$$

- Can also smooth with the unigram estimates and the uniform distribution.

Why n -gram models are hopeless for large n

- n -gram models don't take advantage of the fact that some words are used in similar ways.
- Suppose you know that words *snow* and *rain* are used in similar ways, as are *Monday* and *Tuesday*.
- If you are told that the following sentence is probable:
 - *It's going to rain on Monday.*
- Then you can infer that the following sentence is also probable:
 - *It's going to snow on Tuesday.*
- n -gram models cannot generalize this way because all words are treated as arbitrary symbols, with each word being equally (dis)similar to all others.
- Using distributed representations for words allows similarity between words to be captured.

Distributed representations

- Estimation of high-dimensional discrete distributions from data is hard.
 - the number of parameters is exponential
 - no a priori smoothness constraint on parameters / probabilities
- Estimation of distributions over continuous spaces is easier due to automatic smoothing.
- Idea: map discrete inputs to continuous vectors and learn a smooth function that maps them to probability distributions.
- Used for language modelling with neural nets and Bayes nets.

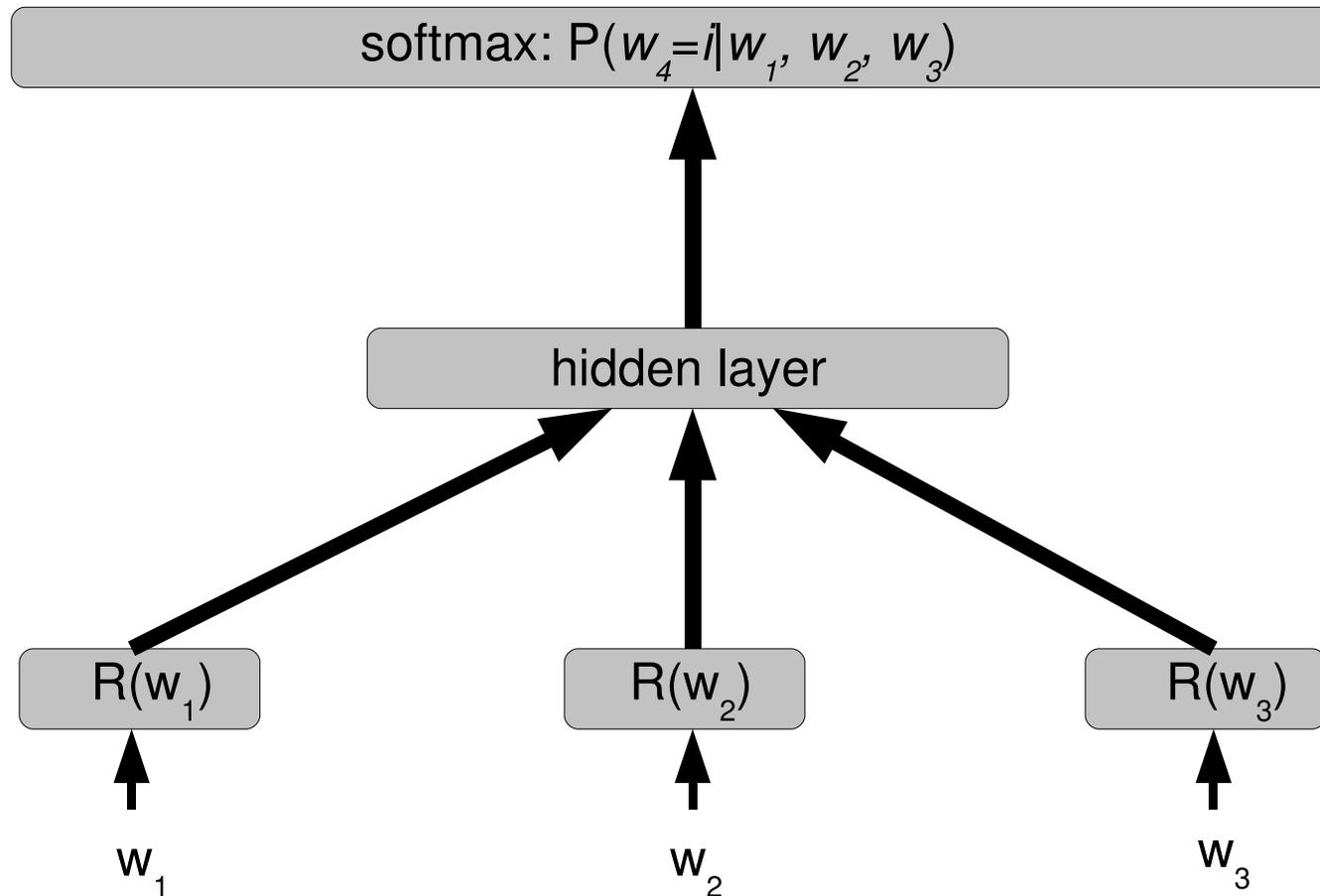
Distributed / neural language models

- A number of neural probabilistic language models based on distributed representations have been proposed.
- Common approach:
 - Represent each word with a real-valued feature vector
 - Represent the context by the sequence of the context word feature vectors
 - Train a neural network to output the distribution for the next word from the context representation.
 - Learn word feature vectors jointly with other neural net parameters
- Neural language models can outperform n -gram language models, especially when little training data is available.
- Main drawback: very long training and testing times.

Neural Probabilistic Language Model (Bengio et al., 2000)

- The original and still the most popular neural language model.
- A lookup table is used to map context words to feature vectors.
- Architecture: 1-hidden layer neural net
 - Input: sequence of the context word feature vectors.
 - Output: distribution over the next word (softmax over words).
- Outperforms n -gram models on small (~ 1 M words) datasets.
- For better results, predictions of a NPLM are interpolated with those of an n -gram model.

Neural Probabilistic Language Model



Log-bilinear model (Mnih & Hinton, 2007)

- The LBL model is similar to the NPLM, but is simpler and slightly faster.
 - Does not have non-linearities.
- Given the context $w_{1:n-1}$, the LBL model predicts the representation for the next word w_n by linearly combining the representations for the context words:

$$\hat{r} = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} C_i r_{w_i}$$

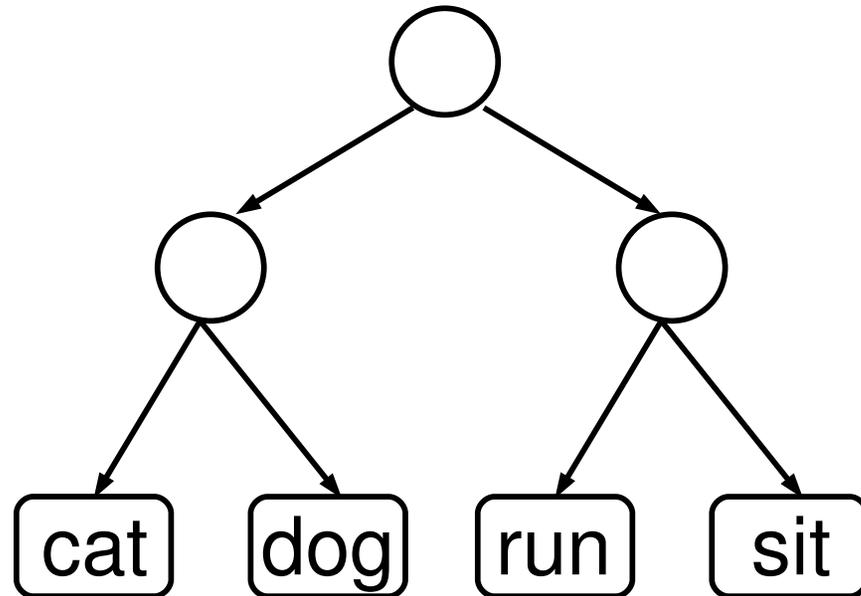
- Then the distribution for the next word is computed based on the similarity between the predicted representation and the representations of all words in the vocabulary:

$$P(w_n = w | w_{1:n-1}) = \frac{\exp(\hat{r}^T r_w)}{\sum_j \exp(\hat{r}^T r_j)}$$

Structuring the vocabulary

- Computing the probability of the given word being the next word requires considering all N words in the vocabulary.
 - Need to normalize over all words because the space of words is unstructured.
- Idea (due to Bengio): Organize words in the vocabulary into a (somewhat balanced) binary tree and exploit its structure to speed up normalization.
 - Construct a binary tree over words
 - * words are associated with leaf nodes
 - * one word per leaf
 - Predicting the next word: replace one N -way decision by a sequence of $O(\log N)$ two-way decision.
 - * Can achieve exponential speedup!

Tree-based factorization



- To define a distribution over leaf nodes:
 - Specify the probability of taking the left branch at each non-leaf node.
 - Then the probability of a leaf node is simply the probability of the sequence of left/right decisions that lead from the root node to the leaf node.

Approaches to tree construction

- The approach of Morin and Bengio:
 - Start with the WordNet IS-A hierarchy (which is a DAG)
 - Manually select one parent node per word
 - Use clustering to make the resulting tree binary
 - Use the NPLM model for making the left/right decisions
- Drawbacks: tree construction uses expert knowledge; the resulting model does not work as well as its non-hierarchical counterpart.
- An alternative (Mnih & Hinton, 2008):
 - Construct the word tree from data alone (no experts needed)
 - Allow each word to occur more than once in the tree
 - Use the simplified log-bilinear language model for making the left/right decisions

Hierarchical log-bilinear model (Mnih & Hinton, 2008)

- Let d be the binary string / code that encodes the sequence of left-right decisions in the tree that lead to word w .
- Each non-leaf node in the tree is given a feature vector that captures the difference between the words in its left and right subtrees.
- The probability of taking the left branch at a particular node is given by

$$P(d_i = 1 | q_i, w_{1:n-1}) = \sigma(\hat{r}^T q_i),$$

where \hat{r} is computed as in the LBL model and q_i is the feature vector for the node.

- Then the probability of word w being the next word is simply the probability of d under the binary decision model:

$$P(w_n = w | w_{1:n-1}) = \prod_i P(d_i | q_i, w_{1:n-1}).$$

Data-driven tree construction

- We would like to cluster words based on the distribution of contexts in which they occur.
- This distribution is hard to estimate and work with due to the high dimensionality of the space of contexts (the same sparsity problem n -gram models suffer from).
- To avoid this problem, we represent contexts using distributed representations and cluster words based on their *expected* context representation.
- To construct a word tree:
 1. Train a model using a random (balanced) tree over words.
 2. Compute the expected predicted representation over all occurrences of the given word.
 3. Perform hierarchical clustering on these expected representations.

Hierarchical clustering

- We “cluster” the feature vectors using top-down hierarchical clustering.
- At each step, we fit a mixture of two Gaussians with spherical covariances using EM to the current group of word representations.
- Once the mixture has been fit, we assign the words to the two components based on the mixture component responsibilities.
- We considered several splitting rules:
 - BALANCED: Sort the responsibilities and make the split to ensure a balanced tree.
 - ADAPTIVE: Assign the word to the component with the greater responsibility.
 - ADAPTIVE(ϵ): Assign the word to a component if its responsibility for the word is at least $0.5 - \epsilon$.

Dataset and evaluation

- We compared the models on the APNews dataset:
 - A collection of Associated Press news stories (16 million words)
 - Training/validation/test split: 14M/1M/1M words
- Preprocessing (Bengio):
 - convert all words to lower case
 - map all rare words and proper nouns to special symbols
 - Result: just under 18000 unique words.
- Models were compared based on the perplexity they assigned to the test set.
- Perplexity is the geometric average of $\frac{1}{P(w_n|w_{1:n-1})}$.

Random vs. non-random trees

The effect of the feature dimensionality and the tree-building algorithm on the test set perplexity of the model.

Feature dimensionality	Perplexity using a RANDOM tree	Perplexity using a BALANCED tree	Reduction in perplexity
25	191.6	162.4	29.2
50	166.4	141.7	24.7
75	156.4	134.8	21.6
100	151.2	131.3	19.9

Model evaluation

Perplexity on the test set:

Model type	Tree generating algorithm	Perplexity	Minutes per epoch
HLBL	RANDOM	151.2	4
HLBL	BALANCED	131.3	4
HLBL	ADAPTIVE	127.0	4
HLBL	ADAPTIVE(0.25)	124.4	6
HLBL	ADAPTIVE(0.4)	123.3	7
HLBL	ADAPTIVE(0.4) \times 2	115.7	16
HLBL	ADAPTIVE(0.4) \times 4	112.1	32
LBL	–	117.0	6420
KN3	–	129.8	–
KN5	–	123.2	–

- LBL and HLBL used 100D feature vectors and a context size of 5.
- KN_n is a Kneser-Ney n -gram model.

Observations

- Hierarchical distributed language models can outperform non-hierarchical models when they use sufficiently well-constructed trees over words.
 - Expert knowledge is not needed for building good trees.
 - Allowing words to occur more than once in a tree is essential for good performance.
- Even when very large trees are used, the hierarchical LBL model is more than two orders of magnitude faster than the LBL model.

THE END