Natural Language Processing (CSE 517): Cotext Models

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Thanks to David Mimno for comments.

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Quick Review

A language model is a probability distribution over \mathcal{V}^{\dagger} .

Typically p decomposes into probabilities $p(x_i | h_i)$.

▶ We considered n-gram, class-based, log-linear, and neural language models.

Today: probabilistic models that relate a word and its **cotext** (the linguistic environment of the word).

► This might help us learn to represent words, contexts, or both.

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- 2. the words that occur within a small "window" around i (e.g., x_{i-2} , x_{i-1} , x_{i+1} , x_{i+2} , or maybe the sentence containing i) \longrightarrow distributional semantics
- 3. a sentence known to be a translation of the one containing $i \longrightarrow {\rm translation \ models}$

Topic Models

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- Let $\mathcal{Z} = \{1, \ldots, k\}$ be a set of "topics" or "themes" that will help us capture the interdependence of words in a document.
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 - ► Usually these are not named or characterized in advance; they are just *k* different values with no *a priori* meaning.
- ▶ We'll start with a classical topic model, then turn to probabilistic ones.

The Term-Document Matrix

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times C}$ contain statistics of association between words in \mathcal{V} and C documents. N is the total number of word tokens.

Tiny example, three documents:

- ▶ yes , we have no bananas
- ▶ say yes for bananas
- ▶ no bananas , we say

	1	2	3
,	1	0	1
bananas	1	1	1
for	0	1	0
have	1	0	0
no	1	0	1
say	0	1	1
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Count matrix:
$$[\mathbf{A}]_{v,c} = c_{\boldsymbol{x}_c}(v)$$

Association Score

What we really want here is some way to get at "surprise."

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Intuition: consider the ratio of *observed* frequency $(c_{\boldsymbol{x}_c}(v))$ to "chance" under independence $(\frac{c_{\boldsymbol{x}_1:C}(v)}{N} \cdot \ell_c)$.

A common starting point is positive **pointwise mutual information**:

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{v,c} = \left[\log \frac{c_{\boldsymbol{x}_c}(v)}{\frac{c_{\boldsymbol{x}_{1:C}}(v)}{N} \cdot \ell_c}\right]_+ = \left[\log \frac{N \cdot c_{\boldsymbol{x}_c}(v)}{c_{\boldsymbol{x}_{1:C}}(v) \cdot \ell_c}\right]_+$$

From our example:

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathrm{bananas},1} = \log \frac{15 \cdot 1}{3 \cdot 6} \approx -0.18 \rightarrow 0$$

 $[\mathbf{A}]_{\mathrm{for},2} = \log \frac{15 \cdot 1}{1 \cdot 4} \approx 1.32$

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A Nod to Information Theory

Pointwise mutual information for two random variables A and B:

$$\mathsf{PMI}(a,b) = \log \frac{p(A=a,B=b)}{p(A=a) \cdot p(B=b)}$$
$$= \log \frac{p(A=a \mid B=b)}{p(A=a)}$$
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The average mutual information is given by:

$$\mathsf{MI}(A,B) = \sum_{a,b} p(A = a, B = b) \cdot \mathrm{PMI}(a,b)$$

This comes from information theory; it is the amount of information each r.v. offers about the other.

(Recall Shannon entropy; that's the amount of information in a single random variable.)

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Notes:

If a word v appears with nearly the same frequency in every document, its row [A]_{v,*} will be all nearly zero.

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- One way to think about PMI: it's telling us where a unigram model is most wrong.
- We could use A as M (though d is usually much smaller than C) ...

Topic Models: Latent Semantic Indexing/Analysis (Deerwester et al., 1990)

LSI/A seeks to solve:

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{X} imes C} pprox \mathbf{\hat{A}} = \mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{X} imes d} imes \mathop{\mathrm{diag}}_{d imes d} (\mathbf{s}) imes \mathbf{C}_{d imes C}^{ op}$$

where ${\bf M}$ contains embeddings of words, ${\bf C}$ contains embeddings of documents.

$$[\mathbf{A}]_{v,c} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{d} [\mathbf{v}_v]_i \cdot [\mathbf{s}]_i \cdot [\mathbf{c}_c]_i$$

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This can be solved by applying singular value decomposition to A, then truncating to d dimensions.

- $\blacktriangleright~{\bf M}$ contains left singular vectors of ${\bf A}$
- \blacktriangleright C contains right singular vectors of ${\bf A}$
- s are singular values of A; they are nonnegative and conventionally organized in decreasing order.

Truncated Singular Value Decomposition

SVD:



truncated at k:



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A Nod to Linear Algebra

For (not truncated) singular value decomposition $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{M} \times \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{s}) \times \mathbf{C}^{\top}$:

- ► The columns of M form an orthonormal basis, M are eigenvectors of AA^T, with eigenvalues s².
- ► The columns of C form an orthonormal basis, C are eigenvectors of A^TA, with eigenvalues s².

If some elements of ${\bf s}$ are zero, then ${\bf A}$ is "low rank."

Approximating \mathbf{A} by truncating \mathbf{s} equates to a "low rank approximation."

LSI/A Example d = 2



	1	2	3
,	1	0	1
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have	1	0	0
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Words and documents in two dimensions.

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Understanding LSI/A

- ▶ Mapping words and documents into the same *k*-dimensional space.
- Bag of words assumption (Salton et al., 1975): a document is nothing more than the distribution of words it contains.
- Distributional hypothesis (Harris, 1954; Firth, 1957): words are nothing more than the distribution of contexts (here, documents) they occur in. Words that occur in similar contexts have similar meanings.
- ► A is sparse and noisy; LSI/A "fills in" the zeroes and tries to eliminate the noise.
 - ▶ It finds the best rank-k approximation to **A**.

Probabilistic Topic Models

As a language model, LSI/A is kind of broken.

 \blacktriangleright It assumes the elements of ${\bf A}$ are the result of Gaussian noise.

Hofmann (1999) proposed instead to model the probability distribution $p(\mathbf{X}_c = \mathbf{x}_c \mid c)$, for each document c in the corpus C.

• This is a particular kind of *conditional* language model.

Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis

(Hofmann, 1999)

Given a corpus $\mathcal C,$ for every $c\in\mathcal C {:}$

$$p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid c) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \{1, \dots, k\}^{\ell}} p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \mid c)$$
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \mid c) = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p(z_i \mid c) \cdot p(x_i \mid z_i)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \gamma_{z_i \mid c} \ \theta_{x_i \mid z_i}$$

Parameters:

$$\blacktriangleright \quad \gamma_{z|c}, \; \forall z \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall c \in \mathcal{C}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \theta_{v|z}, \ \forall v \in \mathcal{V}, \forall z \in \{1, \dots, k\}$$

There is no closed form for the MLE!

"Graphical Model" Depiction of PLSA



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If we knew which topic each word token belonged to (i.e., which unigram distribution generated it), we could use relative frequency estimation.

If we knew the parameters γ and θ , we could infer the topic of each word (i.e., which unigram distribution generated it).

"Soft Counts"

Assume for the moment a single document c of length ℓ .

When we estimated unigram language models, everything relied on counts of words.

Here, if we knew the counts of every word in every topic in every document, then we'd have a closed form MLE.

$$\hat{\gamma}_{z|c} = \frac{c(z,*)}{\ell}$$
$$\hat{\theta}_{v|z} = \frac{c(z,v)}{c(z,*)}$$

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"Soft Counts"

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$$\hat{\gamma}_{z|c} = \frac{c(z,*)}{\ell}$$
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Instead, we will replace counts with "soft counts."

$$\hat{\gamma}_{z|c} = \frac{\tilde{c}(z,*)}{\ell}$$
$$\hat{\theta}_{v|z} = \frac{\tilde{c}(z,v)}{\tilde{c}(z,*)}$$

Many ways to understand it. Today, we'll stick with a simple one.

Start with arbitrary (e.g., random) parameter values. Alternate between two steps:

- ► E step: calculate the posterior distribution over each latent variable.
- ► M step: treat the posteriors as soft counts, and re-estimate the model. Doing this is a kind of hill-climbing on the likelihood of the *observed* data.

PLSA: M Step

Each word x_i is fractionally assigned to every topic z with value $\tilde{c}_c(z, x_i)$.

$$\hat{\gamma}_{z|c} = \frac{\tilde{c}_c(z)}{\ell_c} = \frac{\sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \tilde{c}_c(z, v)}{\ell_c}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_{v|z} = \frac{\sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \tilde{c}_c(z, v)}{\sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \tilde{c}_c(z)} = \frac{\sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \tilde{c}_c(z, v)}{\sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \tilde{c}_c(z, v)}$$

Note that the θ parameters are shared across C; all of the documents influence our beliefs about the others through θ .

PLSA: E Step

Assume we have the parameters:

- $\blacktriangleright \quad \gamma_{z|c}, \; \forall z \in \{1, \dots, k\}, \forall c \in \mathcal{C}$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \theta_{v|z}, \ \forall v \in \mathcal{V}, \forall z \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

Calculate, for every $c \in C$, for every word x_i in c, its "membership" to every topic:

$$p(Z_i = z \mid x_i, c) = \frac{p(x_i, z \mid c)}{\sum_{z'} p(x_i, z' \mid c)}$$
$$= \frac{p(z \mid c) \cdot p(x_i \mid z)}{\sum_{z'} p(z' \mid c) \cdot p(x_i \mid z')}$$
$$= \frac{\gamma_{z|c} \cdot \theta_{x_i|z}}{\sum_{z'} \gamma_{z'|c} \cdot \theta_{x_i|z'}}$$

Each word gets to vote on topics; it can spread its vote fractionally across \mathcal{Z} , but the votes sum to 1.

These get summed into soft counts:

$$\tilde{c}_c(z,v) = \sum_{i:x_i=v} p(Z_i = z \mid x_i, c)$$

EM for PLSA



Red indicates what is operated on in each step; everything else is held fixed

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Expectation Maximization

Very general technique for learning with *incomplete data*. It's been invented over and over in different fields.

Requires that you specify a generative model with two kinds of variables: **observed** (here, documents and words in each document), and **latent** (here, topic for each word).

Like gradient ascent for neural networks, we are (usually) optimizing a non-convex function. Many tricks exist to try to cope with that.

In NLP, often associated with unsupervised learning. We will see it again!

Remarks

- Like LSI/A, PLSA "squeezes" the relationship between words and contexts (documents) through topics.
- A document is now characterized as a *mixture* of corpus-universal topics (each of which is a unigram model).
- Topic mixtures can be incorporated into language models; see lyer and Ostendorf (1999), for example.
- Compared to LSI/A: PLSA is more interpretable (e.g., LSI/A can give negative values!).
- PLSA cannot assign probability to a text not in C; it only defines conditional distributions over words given texts in C.
- The next model overcomes this problem by adding another level of randomness: γ becomes a random variable, not a parameter.

Latent Dirichlet Allocation

(Blei et al., 2003)

Widely used today.

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \int_{\boldsymbol{\gamma}} \sum_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \{1,...,k\}^{\ell}} p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) \ d\boldsymbol{\gamma}$$
 $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \operatorname{Dir}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}(\boldsymbol{\gamma}) \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \gamma_{z_i} \ \theta_{x_i|z_i}$

Parameters:

- $\blacktriangleright \ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^k_{>0}$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \boldsymbol{\theta}_{*|z} \in \triangle^V, \ \forall z \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

There is no closed form for the MLE!

"Being Bayesian"

This is another topic that could warrant an entire quarter (e.g., http://homepages.inf.ed.ac.uk/scohen/bayesian)

A summary of the Bayesian philosophy in NLP:

- Because we have finite data, we should be uncertain about every estimated model parameter.
- Bayes' rule gives us a way to manage that uncertainty, if we can define a prior distribution over model parameters.
- ► Inference is a "simple matter" of estimating posterior distributions.
 - ▶ But exact inference is almost never tractable, so we need approximations.
 - There are many of these, and they tend to be expensive.
 - Some of them look like EM, some don't.

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