# CS 6501 Natural Language Processing

Statistical Language Modeling

Yangfeng Ji

September 10, 2018

Department of Computer Science University of Virginia



# Overview

- 1. Basic Probability
- 2. Language Modeling: Motiviting examples
- 3. Language Modeling: Formulation
- 4. Parameter Estimation
- 5. Evaluation
- 6. Resources

# Basic Probability

# Quick Review of Probability

- Event space in this class, usually discrete
  - ightharpoonup notations:  $\mathfrak{X}, \mathcal{Y}$
  - ightharpoonup example:  $\mathcal{Y} = \{\text{positive}, \text{negative}\}$
- Random variables
  - ▶ notations: *X*, *Y*
  - example: document label
- ► Typical statement: random variable X takes value  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  with probability P(X = x), or in shorthand, P(x)
- ightharpoonup P(X) and P(x)

# Quick Review of Probability (II)

- ightharpoonup Conditional probability P(Y|X)
- ▶ Joint probability P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y|X) = P(Y)P(X|Y)
- ► Independence  $P(X, Y) = P(X) \cdot P(Y)$  if  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$

# **Probability Estimation**

#### Notations

- ightharpoonup P(X): true probability of X
- ightharpoonup Q(X): estimated probability of X
  - ▶ In some literature, it is  $\hat{P}(X)$

# Probability Estimation

#### Notations

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#### Probability estimation

$$P(X = x) \approx Q(X = x) = \frac{c(x)}{N}$$
 (1)

where N is the number of total experiments and c(x) is the number of experiments with outcome x.

In lab? (
$$X$$
) Yes Yes No Yes No Yes No

- Event space  $\mathfrak{X} = \{\text{Yes}, \text{No}\}$
- ► *P*(*X*):

$$P(X = Yes) = \frac{5}{8} = 0.625$$
 (2)

- Event space  $(\mathfrak{X}, \mathcal{Y})$  {(Yes,Sunny), (No, Sunny), (Yes, Rain), (No, Rain)}
- ► *P*(*X*, *Y*)

$$P(\text{Yes}|\text{Sunny}) = \frac{3}{4} = 0.75$$
  
 $P(\text{Yes}|\text{Rain}) = \frac{2}{4} = 0.5$  (2)

In lab? $(X)$	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No
Weather $(Y)$	Sunny	Rain	Rain	Sunny	Sunny	Sunny	Rain	Rain
Time $(Z)$	9AM	2PM	12PM	9AM	9AM	2PM	2PM	11PM

```
In lab? (X)
              Yes
                             No
                                     Yes
                                              No
                                                      Yes
                                                              Yes
                                                                      No
                      Yes
Weather (Y)
             Sunny
                     Rain
                             Rain
                                    Sunny
                                             Sunny
                                                     Sunny
                                                             Rain
                                                                     Rain
 Time (Z)
             9AM
                     2PM
                            12PM
                                     9AM
                                             9AM
                                                      2PM
                                                             2PM
                                                                    11PM
```

- ▶ Requires more data for P(X|Y,Z)
- ► Even for P(X) and P(X|Y): more data, more reliable estimation

Language Modeling: Motiviting

examples

# Motiviting Example (I): Speech recognition

I saw a van vs. eyes awe of an

[Jurafsky, 2018]

# Motiviting Example (II): Machine translation

Measure the quality of a sentence in machine translation

Chinese	晚饭去哪里吃?					
Word by word	Dinner go where eat?					
Google translate	Where do you go for dinner?					

A score function  $\Psi(x)$  in MT:

 $\Psi(\text{Where do you go for dinner?}) > \Psi(\text{Dinner go where eat?})$ 

# Motiviting Example (III): Word prediction

How to predict the next word, given a half sentence?

#### Example

Bob gave Tina the burger, because she was \_\_\_\_\_

 $\Psi(x|{\sf Bob}$  gave Tina the burger, because she was)

- 1. study
- 2. hungry
- 3. sleepy
- 4. ...

A model agnostic to syntactic/semantic information.

#### How to Model a Sentence?

Use a probability function over a sentence with words  $x = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$ 

$$P(X = x)$$

- ► Random variables/vector *X*
- ightharpoonup Event space  $\mathfrak{X}$

Language Modeling: Formulation

# The Language Modeling Problem

ightharpoonup Finite vocabulary  ${\mathcal V}$ 

```
\mathcal{V} = \{\text{the,a,student,computer,with}\dots\}
```

[Collins, 2017]

# The Language Modeling Problem

ightharpoonup Finite vocabulary  ${\mathcal V}$ 

```
\mathcal{V} = \{\text{the,a,student,computer,with}\dots\}
```

- Event space: infinite set of strings,  $\mathcal{V}^+$ 
  - ▶ the
  - a
  - a student
  - ▶ a student with a computer
  - **.** . . .

[Collins, 2017]

# The Language Modeling Problem (II)

We need a probability distribution *P* that satisfies

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{V}^+} P(x) = 1 \tag{2}$$

where

$$P(x) \ge 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{V}^+ \tag{3}$$

# **Example Sentences**

```
P({\rm the})~=~10^{-12} P({\rm a})~=~10^{-11} P({\rm a~student})~=~10^{-13} P({\rm a~student~with~a~telescope})~=~10^{-15}
```

#### Question

How to learn 
$$P(X = x)$$
?

#### A Naive Method

- ► We have *M* training examples/sentences
- For any sentence x, c(x) is the number of the sentence x in the training set
- ► A naive estimate

$$P(x) = \frac{c(x)}{M} \tag{4}$$

#### Probabilistic Framework

#### Reconsider the probabilistic framework:

► A sequence of random variables

$$X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N\}.$$

- Each random variable  $X_i$  can take any value in a finite set  $\mathcal{V}$
- Our goal: compute

$$P(X = x) = P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_N = x_N)$$
 (5)

# Conditional Probability

$$P(X_{1} = x_{1}, X_{2} = x_{2}, ..., X_{n} = x_{n})$$

$$= P(X_{1} = x_{1}) \cdot P(X_{2} = x_{2} | X_{1} = x_{1}) \cdot \cdot \cdot$$

$$P(X_{n} = x_{n} | X_{1:n-1} = x_{1:n-1})$$

$$= P(X_{1} = x_{1}) \prod_{i=2}^{N} P(X_{i} = x_{i} | X_{1:i-1} = x_{1:i-1})$$
(6)

# **Assumption**

The probability of next word only depends a few preceding words

- a student
- ▶ a student with a student

### First-order Markov Processes

The probability of  $X_i$  only depends on  $X_{i-1}$ :

$$P(X_i = x_i | X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1})$$
(7)

Example

$$P(\text{computer}|\text{a student with a}) = P(\text{student}|\text{a})$$
 (8)

## First-order Markov Processes

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(7)

Example

$$P(\text{computer}|\text{a student with a}) = P(\text{student}|\text{a})$$
 (8)

Overall

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_N = x_N)$$

$$= P(X_1 = x_1) \prod_{i=2}^{N} P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1})$$
(9)

## Questions

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_N = x_N)$$

$$= P(X_1 = x_1) \prod_{i=2}^{N} P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1})$$
(10)

Two questions

$$P(X_1 = x_1)$$

# Questions

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_N = x_N)$$

$$= P(X_1 = x_1) \prod_{i=2}^{N} P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1})$$
(10)

#### Two questions

- ►  $P(X_1 = x_1)$
- Compare the following two examples
  - a student with confidence vs.

a student with a

### The START Token

#### Examples

- ► START a student
- START a student with a computer

Now, 
$$P(X_1 = x_1)$$
 becomes

$$P(X_1 = x_1 | X_0 = \mathsf{START}) \tag{11}$$

Additional benefit: unified mathematical formulation

# The STOP Token

#### Examples

- START a student with confidence STOP
- START a student with a STOP

Now, add one more to the conditional probability chain

$$P(\mathsf{STOP}|X_N = x_N) \tag{12}$$

#### The STOP Token

#### Examples

- START a student with confidence STOP
- START a student with a STOP

Now, add one more to the conditional probability chain

$$P(\mathsf{STOP}|X_N = x_N) \tag{12}$$

A way to handle variable length sentences.

# Bi-gram Language Models: Example Sentence

$$P(\mathsf{START} \ \mathsf{a} \ \mathsf{student} \ \mathsf{STOP}) = P(\mathsf{a}|\mathsf{START})$$
 
$$\cdot P(\mathsf{student}|\mathsf{a}) \qquad (13)$$
 
$$\cdot P(\mathsf{STOP}|\mathsf{student})$$

### Generic Framework

Bi-gram language model with  $x_0 = START$  and  $x_N = STOP$ 

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_N = x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1})$$
(14)

Parameter Estimation

# Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE)

$$Q(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = \frac{c(x_{i-1}, x_i)}{c(x_{i-1})}$$
(15)

Example

$$Q(a|START) = \frac{c(START \ a)}{c(START)}$$
 (16)

# Probability Table

	$\mid X_i = a \mid X_i = man$	$\mid \cdots \mid X_i = STOP$
$X_{i-1} = START$		
$X_{i-1} = a$		
$X_{i-1} = man$		
:		

- Vocab size  $|\mathcal{V}| = 10^4$
- Number of parameters  $|\mathcal{V}|^2 = 10^8 = 100M$

# Uni-gram LMs

$$P(X_i = x_i) = \frac{c(x_i)}{T} \tag{17}$$

- ► *T*: total number of the tokens in the training set
- ► The simplest language model
- ▶ Parameters:  $|\mathcal{V}|$

# Uni-gram LMs (II)

- Pros
  - Easy to understand
  - ► Cheap to learn
- Cons
  - ► Bag-of-words assumption

 $P(\text{the the the}) \gg P(\text{I want coffee})$ 

[Smith, 2018]

## N-gram LMs

Language has long-distance dependencies

### Example

Bob gave Tina the burger, because she was \_

- study
- 2. hungry
- 3. sleepy
- 4. ...

## Tri-gram LMs

$$P(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1,i-2} = x_{i-1,i-2})$$

$$= \frac{c(x_{i,i-1,i-2})}{c(x_{i-1,i-2})}$$
(18)

- ► More close to the "real" language model
- Widely used models for a long time
- Parameters:  $|\mathcal{V}|^3=10^{12}$  if  $|\mathcal{V}|=10^4$  (about 50 billion pages on the indexed, searchable Web (Washington Post, 2015).)

# Interpolation

$$\lambda_1 \cdot P(X_i) + \lambda_2 \cdot P(X_i | X_{i-1}) + \lambda_3 \cdot P(X_i | X_{i-1,i-2})$$
 (19)

- $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 1$
- $\{\lambda_j\}_{j=1}^3$  are estimated on a development data

## Evaluation

## Likelihood

► Test data: *M* sentences

$$x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_M$$

Likelihood

$$\log \prod_{m=1}^{M} P(x_m) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \log P(x_m)$$

- ► Factors
  - Number of tokens
  - ► No intuitive explanation

# Perplexity

Perplexity = 
$$2^{-\frac{1}{T}\sum_{m=1}^{M}\log P(x_m)}$$
 (20)

where *T* is the total number of words in the test data.

# Special Case

► An impossible case

$$Q(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = 1$$
 (21)

# Special Case

An impossible case

$$Q(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = 1$$
 (21)

Perplexity

Perplexity = 
$$2^{-\frac{1}{T}\sum_{k=1}^{M}\log 1}$$
  
=  $2^{0}$  (22)  
= 1

# Special Case (II)

A trivial case

$$Q(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{V}|}$$
 (23)

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► A trivial case

$$Q(X_i = x_i | X_{i-1} = x_{i-1}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{V}|}$$
 (23)

Perplexity

Perplexity = 
$$2^{-\frac{1}{T}\sum_{k=1}^{M}\log\frac{1}{|\widetilde{\gamma}|}}$$
  
=  $2^{-\frac{1}{T}(T\cdot\log\frac{1}{|\widetilde{\gamma}|})}$   
=  $2^{-\log\frac{1}{|\widetilde{\gamma}|}}$   
=  $|\mathcal{V}|$  (24)

# Typical Values of Perplexity

- $|\mathcal{V}| = 50K$
- ► A uni-gram model: Perplexity = 955
- ► A bi-gram model: Perplexity = 137
- ► A tri-gram model: Perplexity = 74

Lower is better

[Collins, 2017]

# A Few Comments on Perplexity

- Perplexity is only an intermediate measure of performance
  - e.g., lower perplexity does not mean better translation (wrt BLEU score)

# A Few Comments on Perplexity

- Perplexity is only an intermediate measure of performance
  - e.g., lower perplexity does not mean better translation (wrt BLEU score)
- Perplexity is not directly compariable even on the same test data
  - you need the exactly same input for comparison

## Resources

# Google N-gram

#### Google Books Ngram Viewer

Language	#Volumes	#Tokens
English	4,541,627	468,491,999,592
Spanish	854,649	83,967,471,303
French	792,118	102,174,681,393
German	657,991	64,784,628,286
Russian	591,310	67,137,666,353
Italian	305,763	40,288,810,817
Chinese	302,652	26,859,461,025
Hebrew	70,636	8,172,543,728

Table 1: Number of volumes and tokens for each language in our corpus. The total collection contains more than 6% of all books ever published.

[Lin et al., 2012]

### KenLM

#### **KenLM: Faster and Smaller Language Model Queries**

#### Kenneth Heafield

Carnegie Mellon University 5000 Forbes Ave Pittsburgh, PA 15213 USA heafield@cs.cmu.edu

https://github.com/kpu/kenlm

[Heafield, 2011]

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