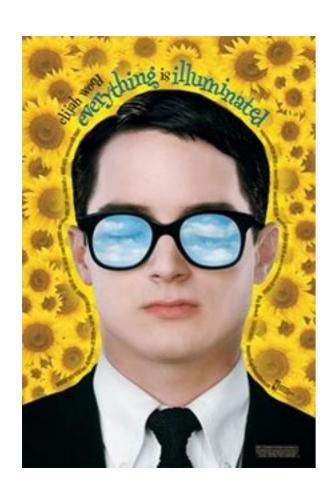
### Language Models



January 28, 2014

#### Still no MT??

- Today we will talk about models of p(sentence)
- The rest of this semester will deal with
   p(translated sentence | input sentence)
- Why do it this way?
  - Conditioning on more stuff makes modeling more complicated. That is: p(sentence) is easier than p(translated sentence | input sentence).
  - Language models are arguably the most important models in statistical MT



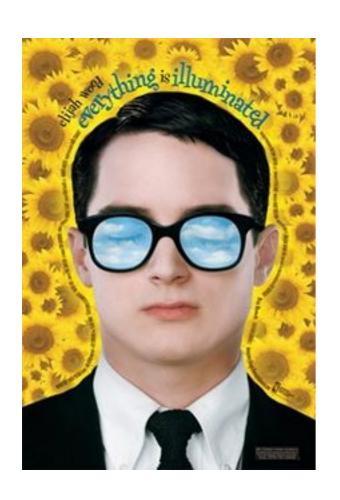
My legal name is Alexander Perchov.



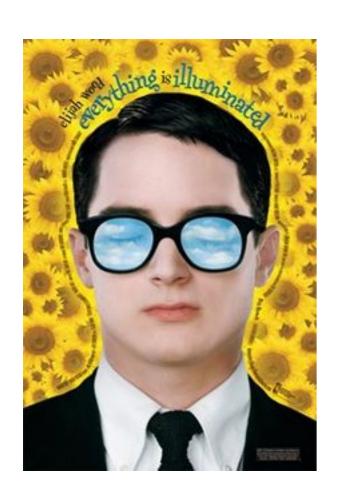
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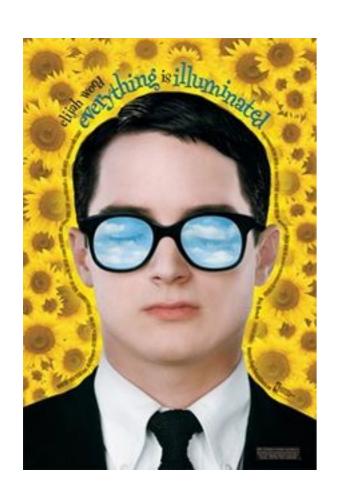
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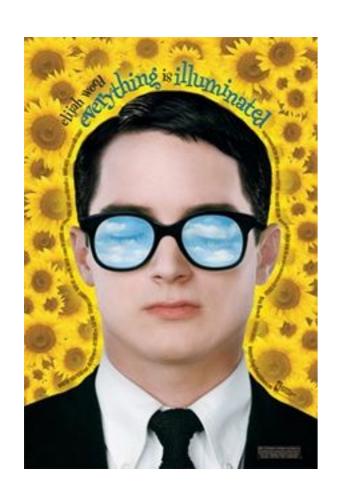
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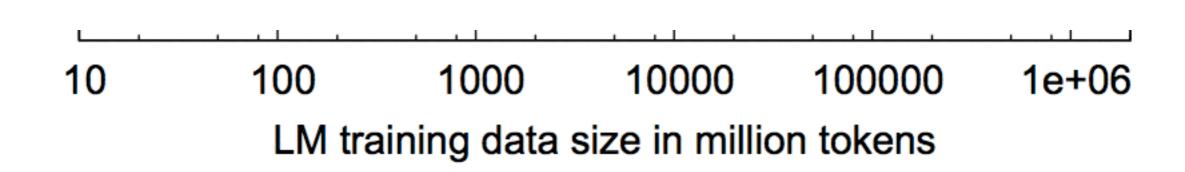
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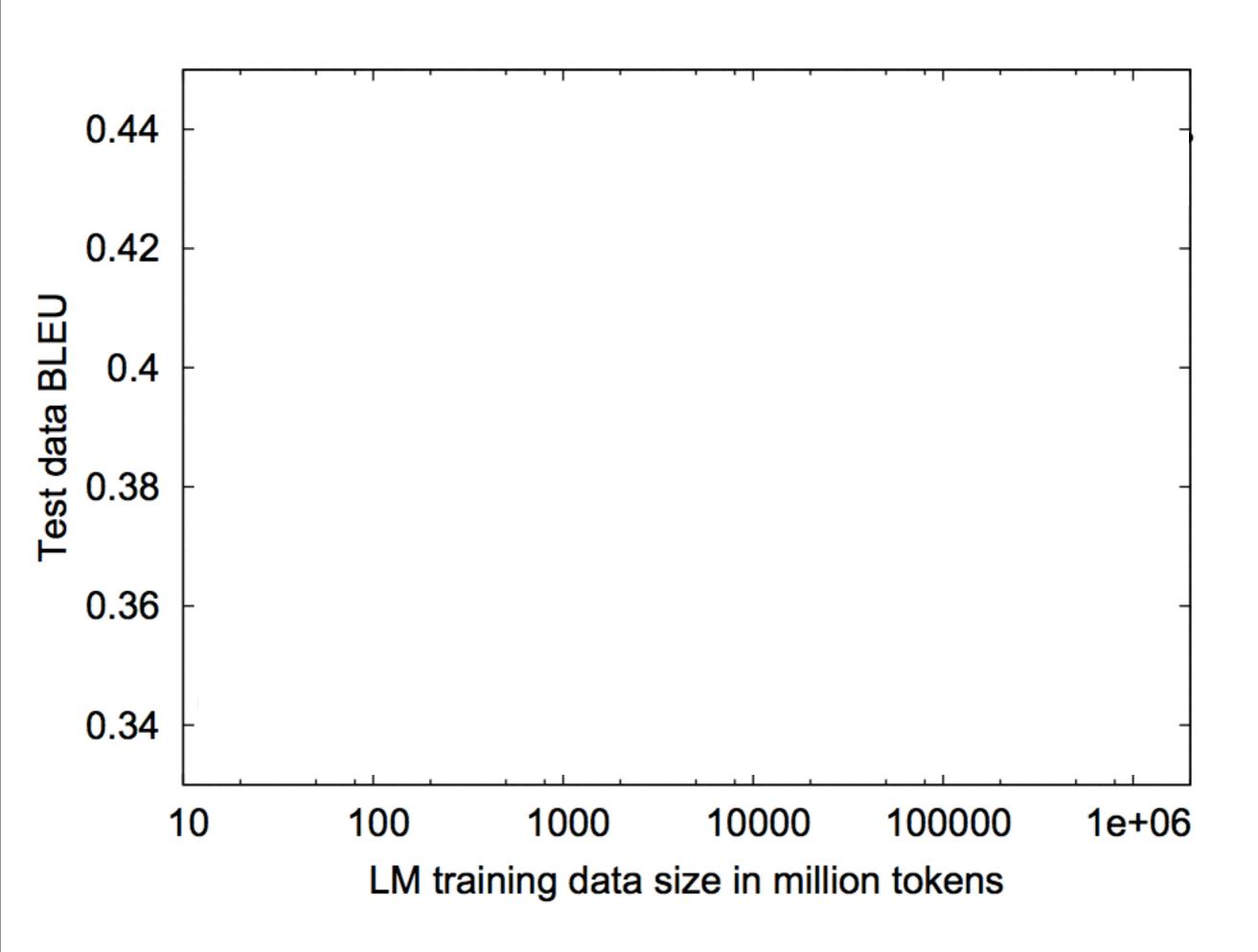


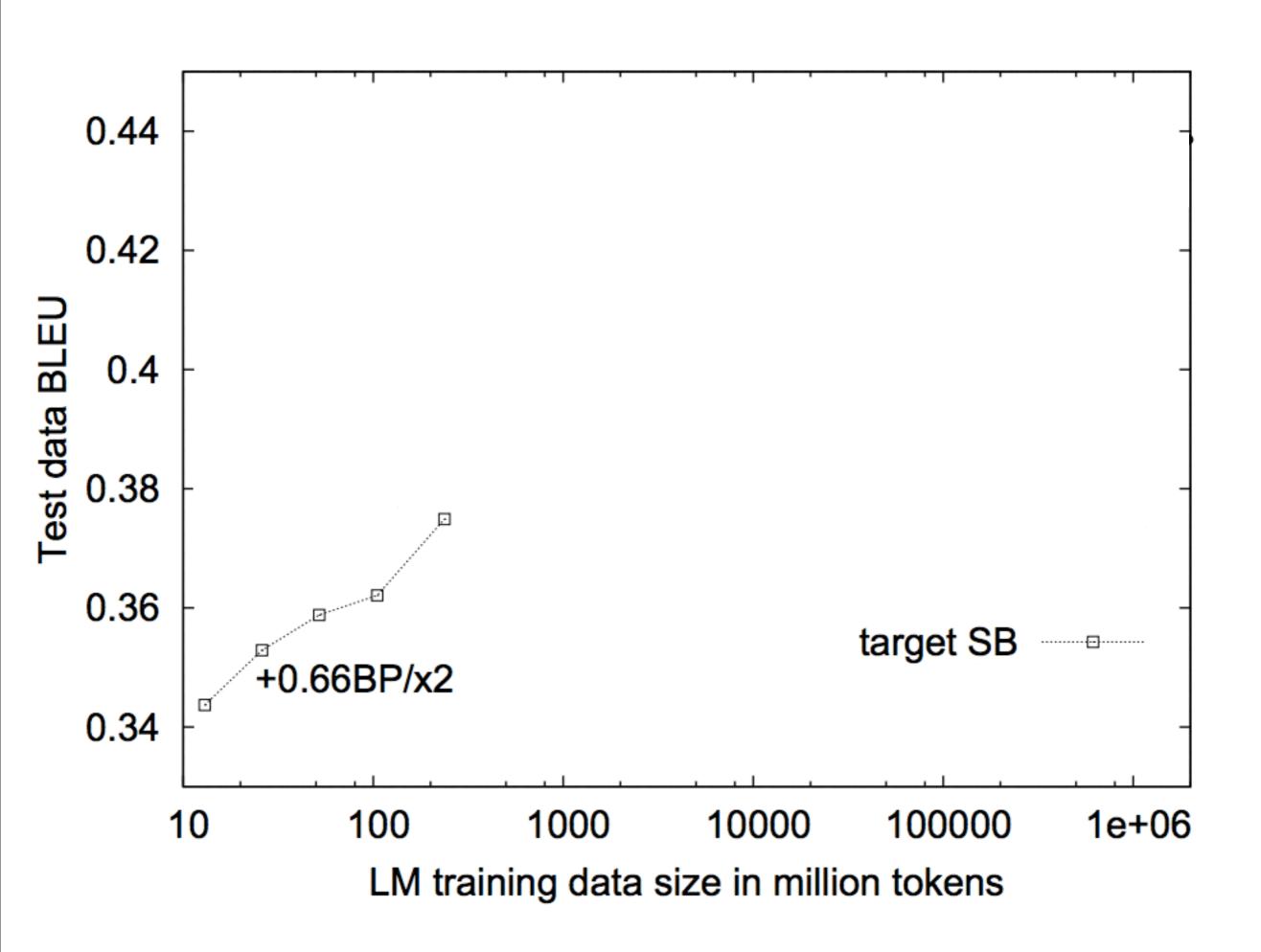
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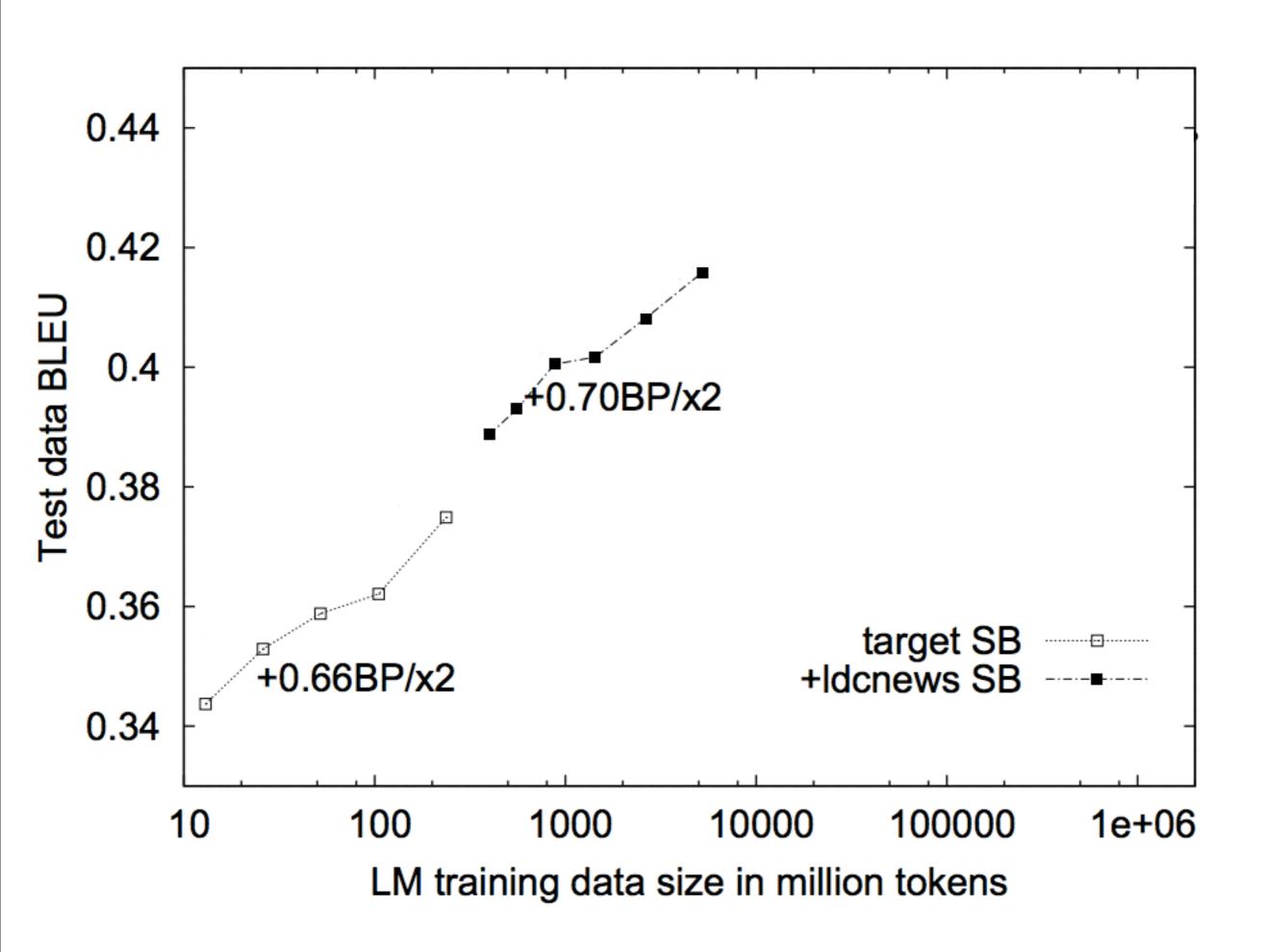


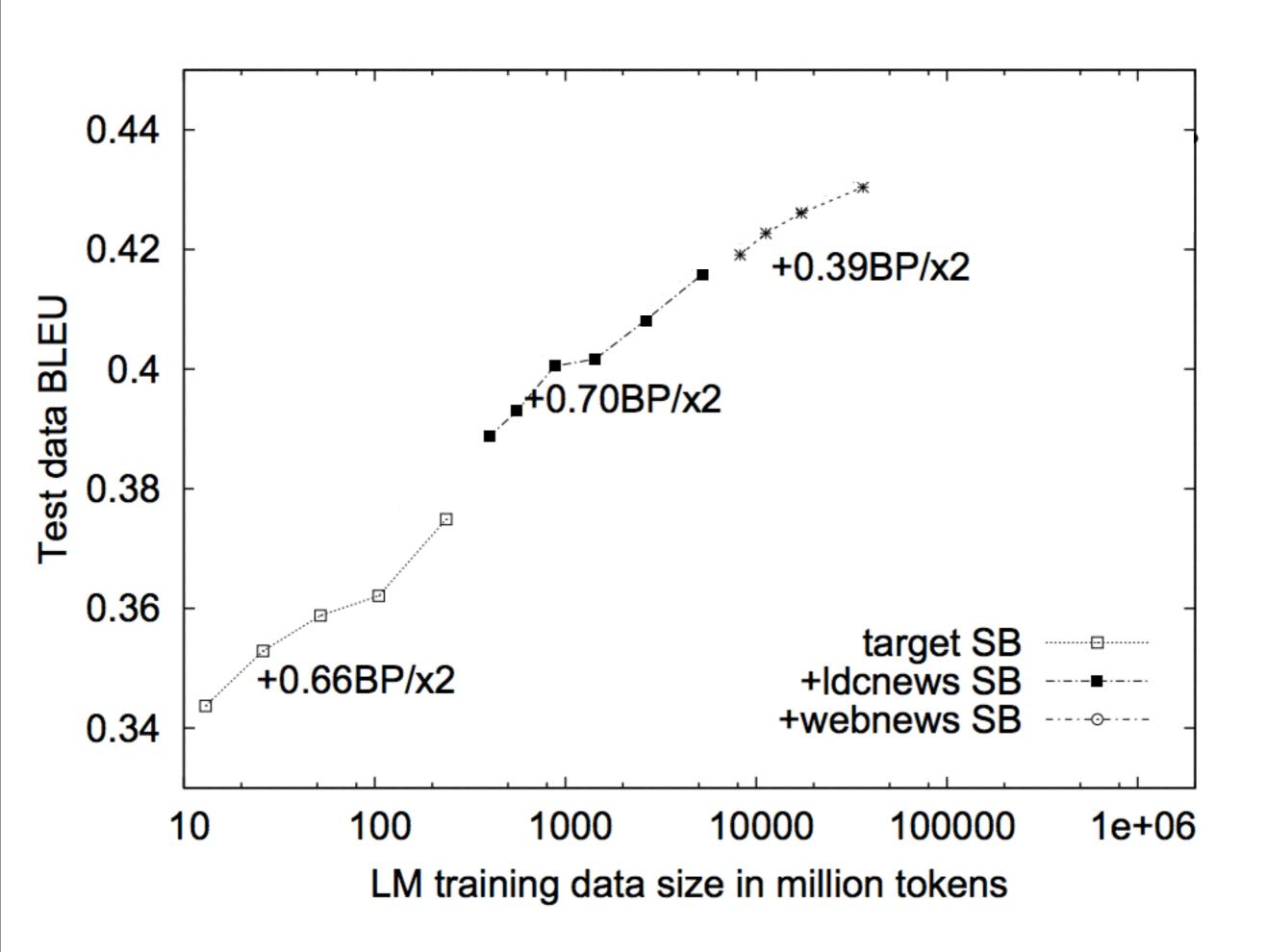
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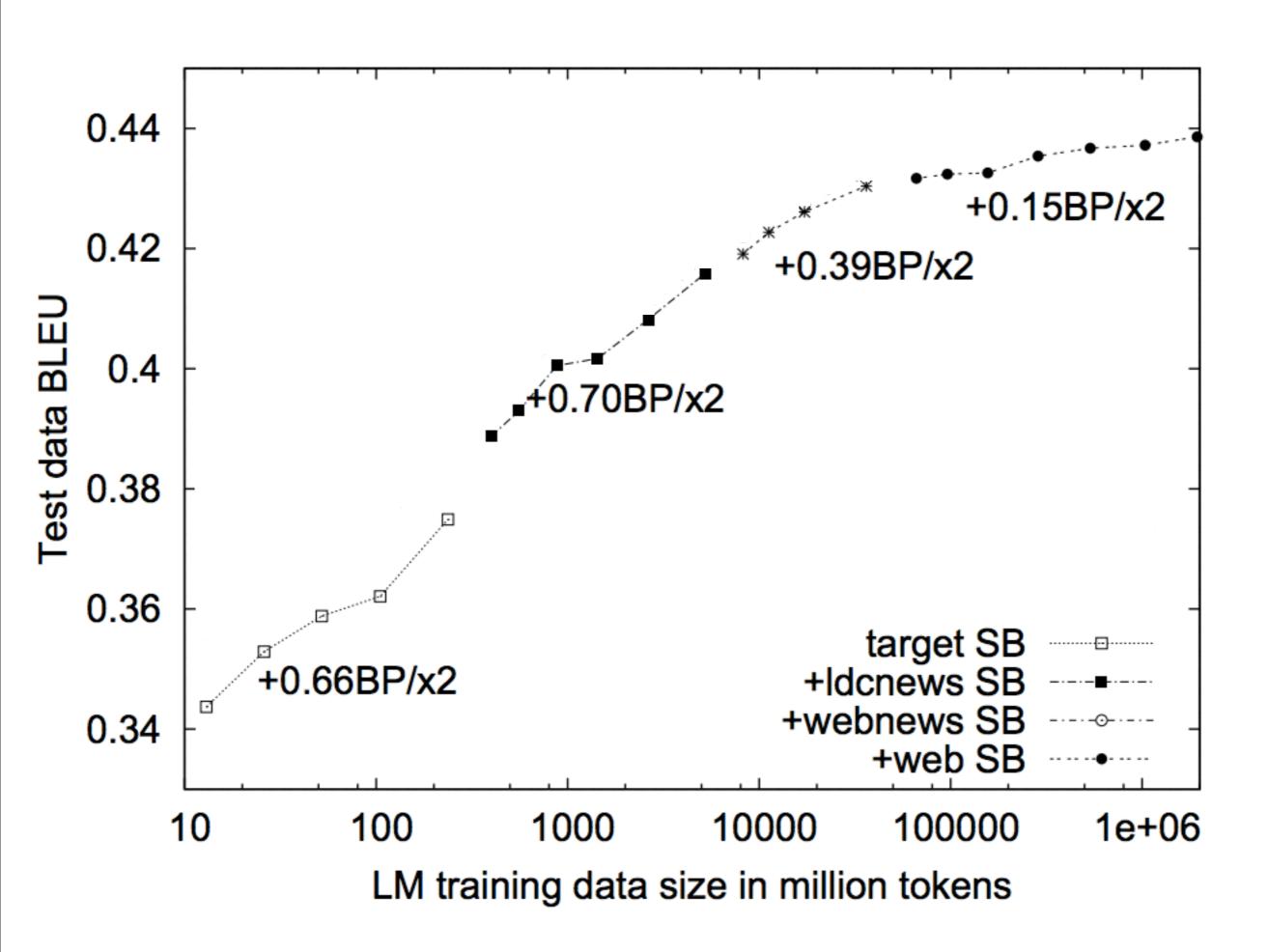












#### Language Models Matter

- Language models play the role of ...
  - a judge of grammaticality
  - a judge of semantic plausibility
  - an enforcer of stylistic consistency
  - a repository of knowledge (?)

# What is the probability of a sentence?

- Requirements
  - Assign a probability to every sentence (i.e., string of words)

# What is the probability of a sentence?

- Requirements
  - Assign a probability to every sentence (i.e., string of words)

$$\sum_{\mathbf{e} \in \Sigma^*} p_{\mathrm{LM}}(\mathbf{e}) = 1$$

$$p_{\mathrm{LM}}(\mathbf{e}) \ge 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{e} \in \Sigma^*$$

# Why do we want to estimate the probability of a sentence?

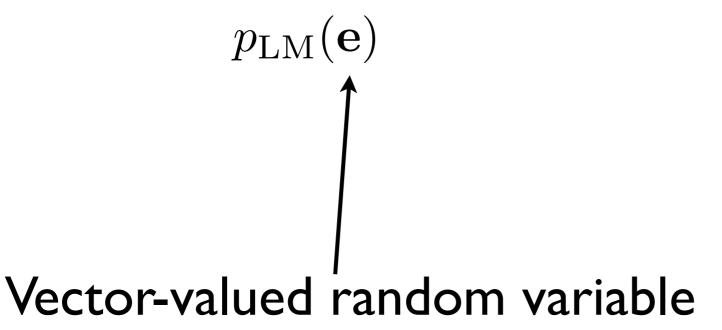
 Goal: Assign a higher probability to good sentences in English

 $p_{LM}$ (the house is small) >  $p_{LM}$ (small the is house)

translations of German Haus: home, house ...

 $p_{LM}(I \text{ am going home}) > p_{LM}(I \text{ am going house})$ 

### n-gram LMs



#### n-gram LMs

$$p_{LM}(\mathbf{e}) = p(e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_{\ell})$$

$$\approx p(e_1) \times$$

$$p(e_2 \mid e_1) \times$$

$$p(e_3 \mid e_1, e_2) \times$$

$$p(e_4 \mid e_1, e_2, e_3) \times$$

$$\dots \times$$

$$p(e_{\ell} \mid e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{\ell-2}, e_{\ell-1})$$

#### Chain rule

The chain rule is derived from a repeated application of the definition of conditional probability:



#### Conditional Independence

$$p(a, b, c) = p(a \mid b, c)p(b, c)$$
$$= p(a \mid b, c)p(b \mid c)p(c)$$

"If I know B, then C doesn't tell me about A"

$$p(a \mid b, c) = p(a \mid b)$$

$$p(a, b, c) = p(a \mid b, c)p(b, c)$$

$$= p(a \mid b, c)p(b \mid c)p(c)$$

$$= p(a \mid b)p(b \mid c)p(c)$$

# Is the Markov assumption valid for Language?

- the old man are/is
- the pictures are/is
- The old man in the pictures is my dad.

#### n-gram LMs

$$p_{\text{LM}}(\mathbf{e}) = p(e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_{\ell}) \qquad p_{\text{LM}}(\mathbf{e}) = p(e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_{\ell})$$

$$\approx p(e_1) \times \qquad \approx p(e_1) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_2 \mid e_1) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_2 \mid e_1) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_3 \mid e_1, e_2) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_3 \mid e_1, e_2) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_4 \mid e_1, e_2, e_3) \times \qquad \qquad p(e_4 \mid e_1, e_2, e_3) \times \qquad \qquad \cdots \times \qquad \qquad \cdots \times \qquad \qquad \cdots \times \qquad \qquad p(e_{\ell} \mid e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{\ell-2}, e_{\ell-1}) \qquad p(e_{\ell} \mid e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{\ell-2}, e_{\ell-1})$$

Which do you think is better? Why?

#### n-gram LMs

$$p_{LM}(\mathbf{e}) = p(e_1, e_2, e_3, \dots, e_{\ell})$$

$$\approx p(e_1) \times$$

$$p(e_2 \mid e_1) \times$$

$$p(e_3 \mid e_1, e_2) \times$$

$$p(e_4 \mid e_1, e_2, e_3) \times$$

$$\cdots \times$$

$$p(e_{\ell} \mid e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{\ell-2}, e_{\ell-1})$$

$$= p(e_1 \mid \text{START}) \times \prod_{i=2}^{\ell} p(e_i \mid e_{i-1}) \times p(\text{STOP} \mid e_{\ell})$$

#### START my friends call me Alex STOP

 $p(\texttt{my} \mid \texttt{START}) \times p(\texttt{friends} \mid \texttt{my}) \\ p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{friends}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{Alex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex}) \\ p(\texttt{my} \mid \texttt{START}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{Mex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex}) \\ p(\texttt{my} \mid \texttt{START}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{Mex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{Mex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{Mex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \\ p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{call}) \times p(\texttt{ca$ 

#### START my friends dub me Alex STOF

 $p(\texttt{my} \mid \texttt{START}) \times p(\texttt{friends} \mid \texttt{my}) \times p(\texttt{dub} \mid \texttt{friends}) \times p(\texttt{me} \mid \texttt{dub}) \times p(\texttt{Alex} \mid \texttt{me}) \times p(\texttt{STOP} \mid \texttt{Alex})$ 

These sentences have many terms in common.

#### Categorical Distributions

A categorical distribution characterizes a random event that can take on exactly one of K possible outcomes.

(nb. we often call these "multinomial distributions")

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p_1 & \text{if } x = 1\\ p_2 & \text{if } x = 2\\ \dots & p_i \ge 0 \end{cases} \forall i$$

$$p_K & \text{if } x = K\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$p(\cdot)$$

Outcome	Þ
the	0.3
and	0.1
said	0.04
says	0.004
of	0.12
why	0.008
Why	0.0007
restaurant	0.00009
destitute	0.0000064

Probability tables like this are the workhorses of language (and translation) modeling.

#### $p(\cdot \mid \text{some context})$

Outcome	þ
the	0.6
and	0.04
said	0.009
says	0.00001
of	0.1
why	0.1
Why	0.00008
restaurant	0.0000008
destitute	0.0000064

#### $p(\cdot \mid \text{other context})$

Outcome	þ
the	0.01
and	0.01
said	0.003
says	0.009
of	0.002
why	0.003
Why	0.0006
restaurant	0.2
destitute	0.1

 $p(\mid \text{some context}) p(\cdot \mid \text{in})$   $p(\mid \text{other context}) p(\cdot \mid \text{the})$ 

Outcome	P
the	0.6
and	0.04
said	0.009
says	0.00001
of	0.1
why	0.1
Why	0.00008
restaurant	0.0000008
destitute	0.0000064

Outcome	þ
the	0.01
and	0.01
said	0.003
says	0.009
of	0.002
why	0.003
Why	0.0006
restaurant	0.2
destitute	0.1

#### LM Evaluation

- Extrinsic evaluation: build a new language model, use it for some task (MT, ASR, etc.)
- Intrinsic: measure how good we are at modeling language

We will use perplexity to evaluate models

Given: 
$$\mathbf{w}, p_{\mathrm{LM}}$$

$$\mathrm{PPL} = 2^{\frac{1}{|\mathbf{w}|} \log_2 p_{\mathrm{LM}}(\mathbf{w})}$$

$$0 < \mathrm{PPL} < \infty$$

### Perplexity

- Generally fairly good correlations with machine translation quality for n-gram models
- Perplexity is a generalization of the notion of branching factor
  - How many choices do I have at each position?
- State-of-the-art English LMs have PPL of ~100 word choices per position
- ullet A uniform LM has a perplexity of  $|\Sigma|$
- Humans do much better
- ... and bad models can do even worse than uniform!

# Whence parameters? Estimation.

$$p(x \mid y) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)}$$

$$\hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x) = \frac{\text{count}(x)}{N}$$

$$\hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x,y) = \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N}$$

$$\hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x \mid y) = \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N} \times \frac{N}{\text{count}(y)}$$

$$= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{\text{count}(y)}$$

$$\hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(\texttt{call} \mid \texttt{friends}) = \frac{\text{count}(\texttt{friends call})}{\text{count}(\texttt{friends})}$$

### MLE & Perplexity

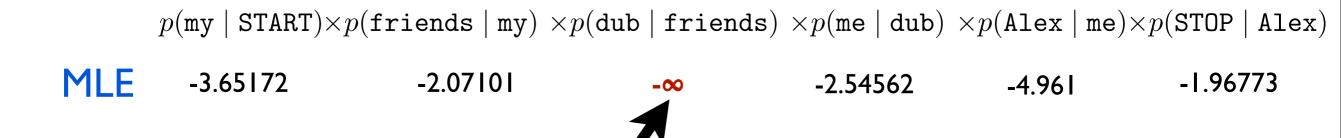
- What is the lowest (best) perplexity possible for your model class?
- Compute the MLE!
- Well, that's easy...

#### START my friends call me Alex STOP

MLE

$$p(\text{my} \mid \text{START}) \times p(\text{friends} \mid \text{my}) \times p(\text{call} \mid \text{friends}) \times p(\text{me} \mid \text{call}) \times p(\text{Alex} \mid \text{me}) \times p(\text{STOP} \mid \text{Alex})$$
-3.65172 -2.07101 -3.32231 -0.271271 -4.961 -1.96773

#### START my friends dub me Alex STOP



MLE assigns probability zero to unseen events

#### Zeros

- Two kinds of zero probs:
  - Sampling zeros: zeros in the MLE due to impoverished observations
  - Structural zeros: zeros that should be there. Do these really exist?
- Just because you haven't seen something, doesn't mean it doesn't exist.
- In practice, we don't like probability zero, even if there is an argument that it is a structural zero.

the a 's are nearing the end of their lease in oakland

# Smoothing

Smoothing an refers to a family of estimation techniques that seek to model important general patterns in data while avoiding modeling noise or sampling artifacts. In particular, for language modeling, we seek

$$p(\mathbf{e}) > 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{e} \in \Sigma^*$$

We will assume that  $\Sigma$  is known and finite.

# Add-I Smoothing

$$\begin{split} p(x \mid y) &= \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x) &= \frac{\text{count}(x)}{N} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x,y) &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x \mid y) &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N} \times \frac{N}{\text{count}(y)} \\ &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y) + 1}{\text{count}(y) + V} \end{split}$$

# What's wrong with this?

$$\begin{split} p(x\mid y) &= \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x) &= \frac{\text{count}(x)}{N} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x,y) &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N} \\ \hat{p}_{\text{MLE}}(x\mid y) &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{N} \times \frac{N}{\text{count}(y)} \\ &= \frac{\text{count}(x,y)}{\text{count}(y)} + \mathbf{I} \end{split}$$

# Add- $\alpha$ Smoothing

- Add α<<I</li>
- An optimal α can be analytically derived so that it gives an appropriate weight to unseen n-grams
- Simplest possible smoother
- But it doesn't work well for language models

#### Interpolation

"Mixture of MLEs"

$$\hat{p}( ext{dub} \mid ext{my friends}) = \lambda_3 \hat{p}_{ ext{MLE}}( ext{dub} \mid ext{my friends}) \ + \lambda_2 \hat{p}_{ ext{MLE}}( ext{dub} \mid ext{friends}) \ + \lambda_1 \hat{p}_{ ext{MLE}}( ext{dub}) \ + \lambda_0 rac{1}{|\Sigma|}$$

Where do the lambdas come from?

# Discounting

Discounting adjusts the frequencies of observed events downward to reserve probability for the things that have not been observed.

Note  $f(w_3 | w_1, w_2) > 0$  only when  $count(w_1, w_2, w_3) > 0$ 

We introduce a discounted frequency:

$$0 \le f^*(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) \le f(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2)$$

The total discount is the zero-frequency probability:

$$\lambda(w_1, w_2) = 1 - \sum_{w'} f^*(w' \mid w_1, w_2)$$

#### Back-off

#### Recursive formulation of probability:

$$\hat{p}_{\text{BO}}(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) = \begin{cases} f^*(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) & \text{if } f^*(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) > 0 \\ \alpha_{w_1, w_2} \times \lambda(w_1, w_2) \times \hat{p}_{\text{BO}}(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

"Back-off weight"

Question: how do we discount?

#### Witten-Bell Discounting

Let's assume that the probability of a zero off can be estimated as follows:

abcabcabxabccababxc

$$\lambda(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}) \propto |+|+|=\mathbf{3}$$
 
$$t(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}) = |\{x: \mathrm{count}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b},x)>0\}|$$
 
$$\lambda(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b}) = \frac{t(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b})}{\mathrm{count}(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b})+t(\mathtt{a},\mathtt{b})}$$

$$f^*(\mathbf{c} \mid \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{\mathrm{count}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c})}{\mathrm{count}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) + t(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})}$$

#### Example: spite v. constant

- spite and constant both appear in the Europarl corpus 993 times
- spite only has 9 words that follow it (979 times it was followed by of because it is used in the phrase in spite of)
- constant has 415 words that follow it: and (42 times), concern (27 times), pressure (26 times), plus long tail including 268 that only appear once
- How likely is it that we'll see a previously unseen bigram that starts with spite v. constant?

# Example: spite v. constant

$$t(spite) = 9$$

$$\lambda(spite) = t(spite) / (count(spite) + t(spite))$$

$$\lambda(spite) = 9/(9+993) = .00898$$

$$t(constant) = 415$$
 
$$\lambda(constant) = t(constant) / (constant) constant) + t(constant)$$
 
$$\lambda(constant) = 415/(415+993) = .29474$$

Previously unseen bigrams starting with spite are multiplied by a smaller value and are therefore less likely

# Kneser-Ney Discounting

- State-of-the-art in language modeling for 15 years
- Two major intuitions
  - Some contexts have lots of new words
  - Some words appear in lots of contexts
- Procedure
  - Only register a lower-order count the first time it is seen in a backoff context
  - Example: bigram model
    - "San Francisco" is a common bigram
    - But, we only count the unigram "Francisco" the first time we see the bigram "San Francisco" - we change its unigram probability

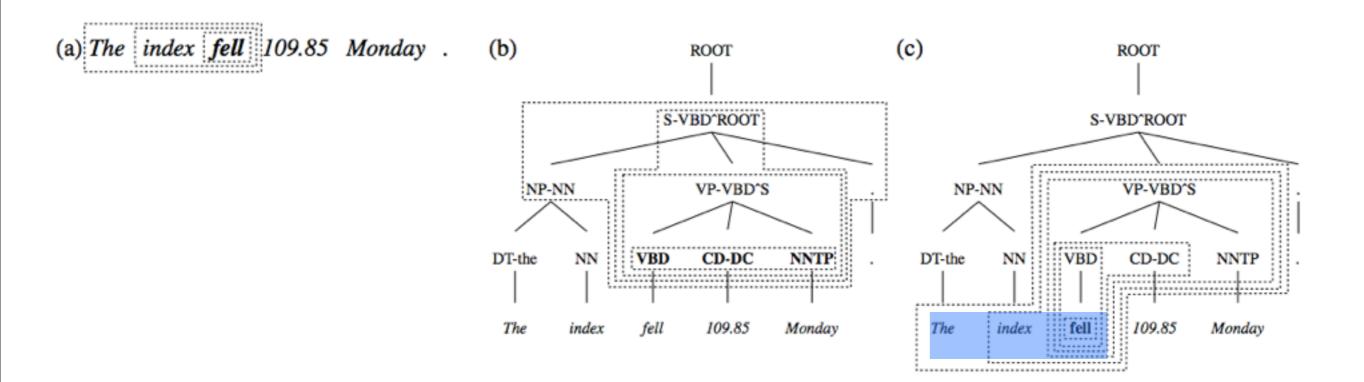
#### Other Formulations

N-gram class-based language models

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} p(c_i \mid c_{i-n+1}, \dots, c_{i-1}) \times p(w_i \mid c_i)$$

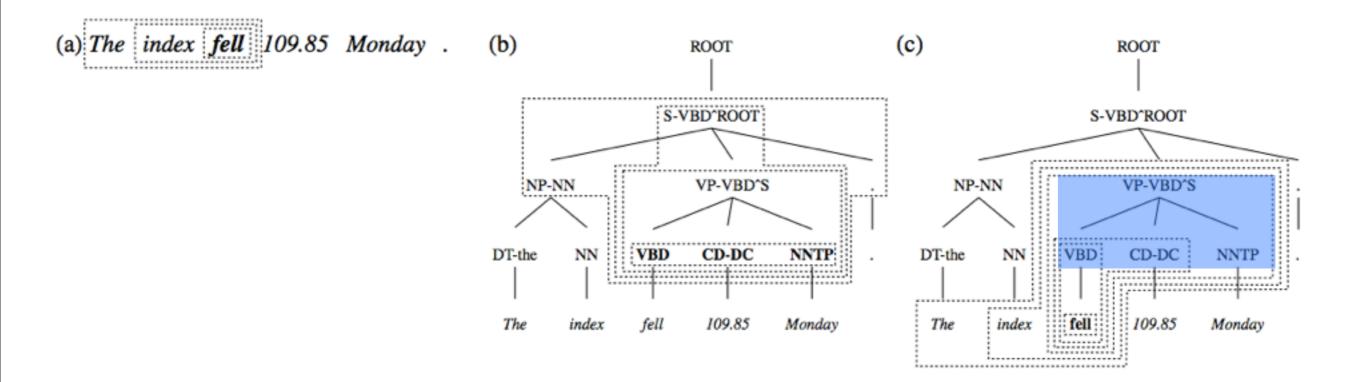
# Pauls & Klein (2012)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{w}) = p(\boldsymbol{\tau}) \times p(\mathbf{w} \mid \boldsymbol{\tau})$$



# Pauls & Klein (2012)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{w}) = p(\boldsymbol{\tau}) \times p(\mathbf{w} \mid \boldsymbol{\tau})$$



# Google (2007)

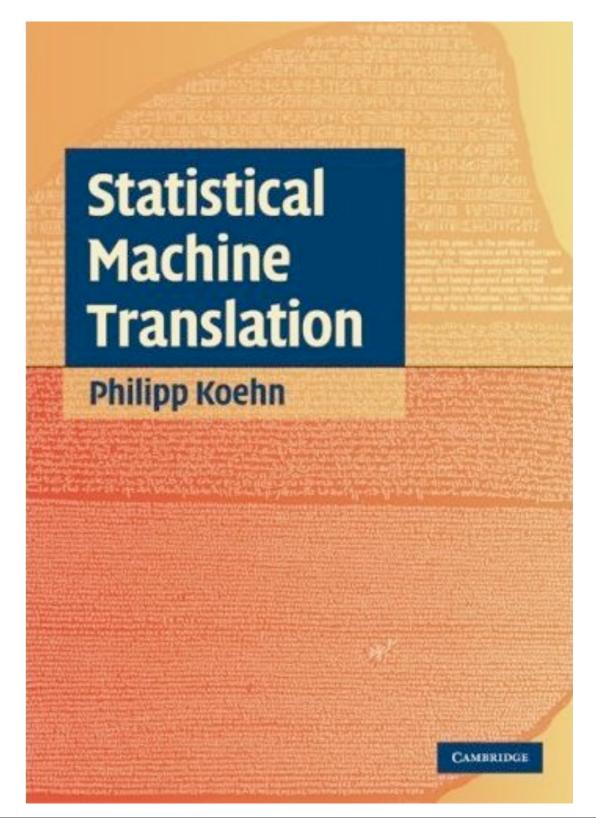
- "Stupid backoff"
- A simpler method than Kneser Ney smoothing, that is easier to estimate using MapReduce
- Approaches the same level of performance on tasks like MT when using large amounts of data

# Summary

- n-gram language models are the standard method for estimating the probability of sentences for MT and for ASR
- Although the Markov assumption does not hold for language, it allows us to easily estimate probabilities by counting sequences of words in data
- Since data is finite, sparse counts are still a problem even when dealing with n-grams instead of sentences
- Smoothing is the most common solution.

#### Questions?

Please read Chapter 7
from the textbook for
more information on
language models



#### Announcements

- Please sign up for a "language in 10 minutes" presentation slot
- If you are having problems with Assignment I, go to Jonny's office hours tomorrow at 2pm