

Engineering Part IIB: Module 4F11

Speech and Language Processing

Lecture 7 : Statistical Language Models

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Statistical Speech Recognition

The aim of speech recognition is to find the word string, \mathbf{W} , such that it maximises $P(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{O})$ where \mathbf{O} is the observed acoustic data.

$$P(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{O}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{O}|\mathbf{W})P(\mathbf{W})}{p(\mathbf{O})}$$

$p(\mathbf{O}|\mathbf{W})$ obtained from the acoustic model
 $P(\mathbf{W})$ obtained from the language model (LM)
 $p(\mathbf{O})$ normalising factor

$p(\mathbf{O})$ is independent of the word sequence, so does not affect the choice of most probable word sequence.

The LM should model:

- syntactic structure;
- semantic information;

of natural language. Language models are also used for optical character recognition, and machine translation (see later in course), ...



Language Modelling: General Principles

For the sequence of words:

$$\mathbf{W} = w(1), w(2), \dots, w(k-1)$$

Terminology:

$w(k)$ will refer to the k th word in a sequence of words.

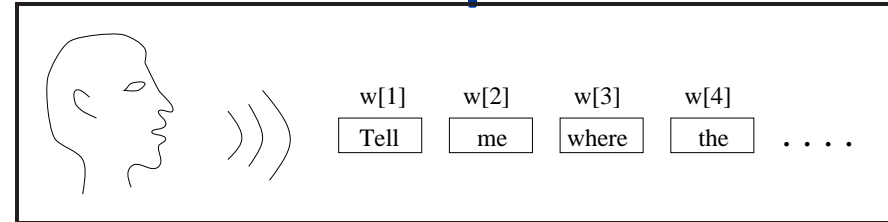
w_i will refer to the i th word in the vocabulary.

The LM computes probability of this word sequence, $P(\mathbf{W})$, (however unlikely). It should make speech recognition simpler by reducing the probability of highly unlikely word sequences.

The language model also gives a measure of **task complexity**. For example

- telephone numbers: a digit may be followed by any other digit (10);
- English: equivalent to *on average* followed by about 32 words.

This is related to *entropy*. Language models are more normally described by their **perplexity** (or average branching factor).



Perplexity

The perplexity (PP) is related to the entropy (H) of the language model

$$PP = 2^H \quad \text{or} \quad H = \log_2 PP$$

The probability of a word sequence is often decomposed into the product of word-prediction conditional probabilities:

$$P(w(1)w(2) \dots w(M)) = \prod_{k=1}^M P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1))$$

The entropy of this sequence is (letting $M \rightarrow \infty$ to obtain a good estimate)

$$H = \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \log_2 P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1))$$



The **perplexity** is given by

$$\begin{aligned} PP &= \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \left(P(w(1)w(2) \dots w(M))^{-\frac{1}{M}} \right) \\ &= \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \left(\prod_{k=1}^M P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1)) \right)^{-\frac{1}{M}} \end{aligned}$$

In practice, will only have S sequences of words on which to estimate the entropy of the language model. The entropy is

$$H = -\frac{1}{\sum_{s \in S} M_s} \left(\sum_{s \in S} \sum_{k=1}^{M_s} \log_2 P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1)) \right)$$

When we compute the perplexity using this over a corpus of test sentences, we get the **Test Set Perplexity** which is the value normally quoted.



Simple Example

If the probability of a word occurring is independent of all previous words then

$$P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1)) = P(w(k))$$

In this case, compute the perplexity directly from the LM (vocab size V) as

$$H = - \sum_{i=1}^V P(w_i) \log_2 P(w_i)$$

Note the limiting cases:

- all words equally likely: $H = - \sum_i \frac{1}{V} \log_2 \frac{1}{V} = \log_2 V$ $PP = 2^{\log_2 V} = V$
- only one word possible: $P(w_i) = \begin{cases} 1, i = i' \\ 0, i \neq i' \end{cases}$
 $H = 0$, hence $PP = 1$



Word Start/End Symbols

Two special symbols are usually added to the vocabulary

- sentence start symbol $\langle s \rangle$
- sentence end symbol $\langle /s \rangle$

These model the fact that sentences are of finite length, and that the position in a sentence is relevant for computing word probabilities.

The language model is thus trained on sequences of the form

$$\langle s \rangle, w(1), w(2), \dots, w(M), \langle /s \rangle$$

- $P(\langle s \rangle) = 0$ except at the start of each sentence, i.e. $w(0)$, when it is $= 1$
- $P(\langle /s \rangle)$ can be used to compute the average sentence length, this is $w(M+1)$

$$\text{average sentence length} = \frac{1}{P(\langle /s \rangle)}$$



N-Gram Language Models

The probability of a word sequence may be expressed as

$$P(w(1) \dots w(M+1)) = \prod_{k=1}^{M+1} P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1))$$

The LM is required to estimate $P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1))$ for any word sequence. For any reasonable size of vocabulary this is impractical to model directly.

It is usual to restrict the size of the **history** to the previous $N - 1$ words. This is the *N*-**gram** language model. Thus

$$P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1)) \approx P(w(k)|w(k-N+1) \dots w(k-1))$$

Most frequently used are the unigram ($N = 1$), bigram ($N = 2$) and trigram ($N = 3$), and 4-gram LMs. We need to make N as large as possible consistent with the ability to estimate the parameters from available training data.



N-Grams (cont)

For the trigram, $N = 3$.

$$P(w(k)|w(1) \dots w(k-1)) \approx P(w(k)|w(k-2)w(k-1))$$

As with the acoustic model training the LM parameters are estimated using techniques based on *maximum likelihood* training.

The basic estimation is to use relative frequencies to estimate probabilities. Therefore to estimate the probability of a particular trigram it is necessary to find the “count” (frequency of occurrence) of triple $w_i w_j w_k$ in the training data and then

$$\hat{P}(w_k|w_i, w_j) = \frac{f(w_i, w_j, w_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^V f(w_i, w_j, w_k)} = \frac{f(w_i, w_j, w_k)}{f(w_i, w_j)}$$

where $f(a, b, c, \dots)$ = number of times that the word sequence (*event*) “a b c ...” occurs in the training data. This relative frequency approach is the ML estimate of the N -gram parameters.



N-Gram Advantages

N-grams are popular as

- they can be computed from real data
- they guarantee full coverage of all word sequences
- they simultaneously encode syntax, semantics and pragmatics
- they concentrate on very local dependencies
- they are very simple to compute during recognition - essentially a single table lookup
- they work!



Example N -Gram Generation

The longer the context of an N -gram, then at least in principle (subject to problems of parameter estimation), the more accurate is the model. This can be illustrated by generating example sentences from N -gram models (viewed as a Markov source). Jurafsky & Martin give some examples from N -Gram LMs trained on the complete works of Shakespeare (867k word tokens with punctuation treated as separate words):

Unigram :

Will rash been and by I the me loves gentle me not slavish page, the and hour;
ill let

Bigram What means, sir. I confess she? then all sorts, he is trim, captain.

Trigram Sweet prince, Fallstaff shall die. Harry of Monmouth's grave.

4-gram Enter Leonato's brother Antonio, and the rest, but seek the weary beds
of people sick.



Issues with N -Grams

The major issue is how to obtain **robust** estimates of the probabilities. For a vocabulary of V , there are V^N parameters to estimate. If $V = 640000$

- **Trigram**: $64000^3 = 2.62144 \times 10^{14}$ **4-gram**: $64000^4 = 1.67772 \times 10^{19}$

The ML estimate is found from counts. Considering the trigram case:

- $f(w_i, w_j, w_k)$ will be zero for many word triples (& word-pairs). According to the language model this word sequence could *never* occur!
- if $f(w_i, w_j)$ is small, the ML estimate of $\hat{P}(w_i|w_j, w_k)$ will be unreliable.

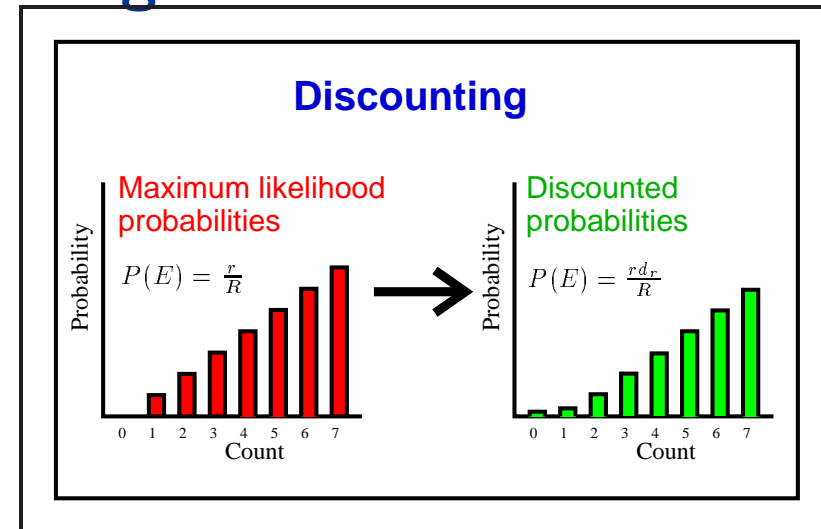
There are two (linked) aspects to current solutions:

- a) find ways of estimating each N -gram probability using *discounting* to allow for events not seen in training.
- b) use a more general distribution for unobserved N -grams *interpolation* or *backing-off*



Discounting

Assign some probability “mass” to unseen events. Probability estimates have sum-to-one constraints i.e. $\sum_{k=1}^V \hat{P}(w_k|w_i, w_j) = 1$. We can use relative-frequency based estimates if we **discount** (reduce) the counts of the seen events.



Therefore the N -gram estimate is modified to be

$$\hat{P}(w_k|w_i, w_j) = d(f(w_i, w_j, w_k)) \frac{f(w_i, w_j, w_k)}{f(w_i, w_j)}$$

where $d(r)$ is a *discount coefficient*. The amount by which the maximum likelihood estimate is altered depends on the frequency of the N -gram.

Example Discounting Schemes

- **Good Turing:** a popular form of discounting. This estimate assumes that the total probability (mass) for *all* events that did not occur in the training set is the same as the total observed probability (mass) for all events that occurred once. Hence $d(r)$ reduces the counts of the events that did occur so that a suitable amount of extra probability mass is available to distribute to the events that didn't occur in training. The overall effect is to employ a discounting formula

$$d(r) = \frac{(r + 1)n_{r+1}}{r n_r}$$

where n_r is the number of N -grams occurring r times.

- **Absolute discounting:** here

$$d(r) = (r - b)/r$$

Typically $b = n_1/(n_1 + 2n_2)$. The discounting is applied to all counts. This is, of course, equivalent to simply subtracting the constant b from each count.



Backing Off

When N -grams cannot be estimated reliably because the count $f(w_i, w_j, \dots)$ is too small, a more general distribution, normally based on an $(N - 1)$ -gram is used instead. E.g.

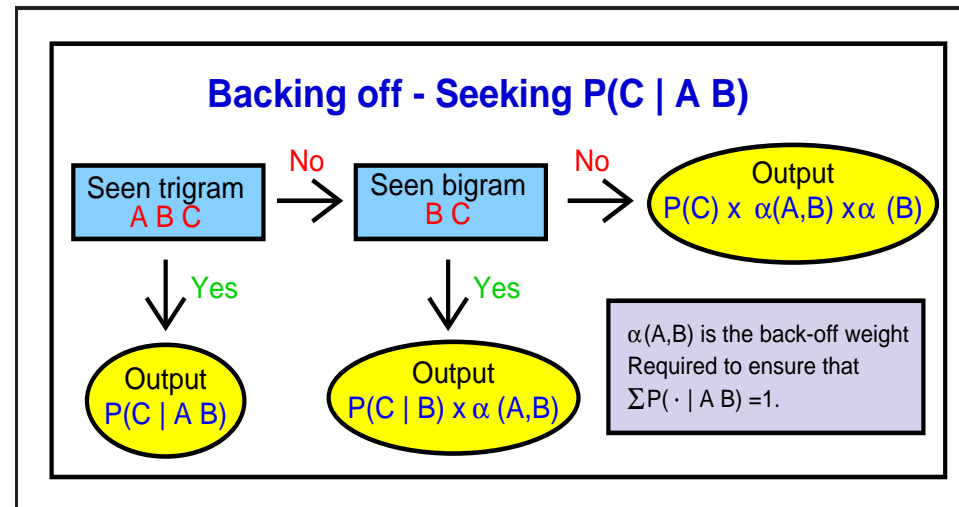
$$\hat{P}(w_j|w_i) = \begin{cases} d(f(w_i, w_j)) \frac{f(w_i, w_j)}{f(w_i)} & \text{if } f(w_i, w_j) > C \\ \alpha(w_i) \hat{P}(w_j) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$\alpha(w_i)$ is the *back-off* weight, it is chosen to ensure that

$$\sum_{j=1}^V \hat{P}(w_j|w_i) = 1$$

and C is the N -gram cut-off point (i.e. only N -grams that occur more frequently than this are retained in the final model). The value of C also controls the size of the resulting language model. For trigrams this results in the following form:





Here “Seen” means that the counts of the trigram, or bigram, exceed the cut-off point. This value may be set separately for the bigrams and trigrams.

Performance with varying N

Experiments on a broadcast news (BN) transcription task with a LM trained on 230MW (million words) of broadcast news transcriptions, newswire texts and acoustic transcriptions. Test on a BN data sets: BNeval97.

Recogniser uses an HTK state-clustered triphone HMM system (with unsupervised test-set adaptation) and a 65k word language model of various N . (HMMs trained with ML estimation with 140hrs data).

Lang Model Type	Perplexity BNeval97	% WER BNeval97
bigram	240	21.3
trigram	159	18.0
4-gram	147	17.3

- Most gain is from bigram to trigram
- Different test sets have different word error rates independent of perplexity
- PP change is a reasonable predictor of WER change e.g. a reduction of 39% in PP leads 19% in WER.

The results quoted above were generated in 1997. The best BN systems now have a WER less than 10% by using more advanced acoustic model parameter estimation and modelling techniques; more acoustic training data; and also well over a billion words of language model training data.



Interpolation

In backing off, the **longest history** that is felt to be reliable is used. Alternatively *all* N -grams can be smoothed together with appropriate weights.

Estimate the trigram by linear combination of trigram, bigram and unigram counts:

$$\hat{P}(w_k|w_i, w_j) = \lambda_3 \frac{f(w_i, w_j, w_k)}{f(w_i, w_j)} + \lambda_2 \frac{f(w_j, w_k)}{f(w_j)} + \lambda_1 \frac{f(w_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^V f(w_i)}$$

where $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 1$ to ensure a valid distribution.

- if trigram is rare, mainly use bigram and unigram frequencies i.e. $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \lambda_3$
- if trigram is common, mainly use trigram frequencies i.e. $\lambda_3 > \lambda_2 > \lambda_1$

The λ values will normally be shared for example over e.g. all trigrams with particular count ranges.

If ML estimation is used to get the λ 's the most complex N -gram would always be chosen (think about it). Instead *deleted interpolation* is commonly used.



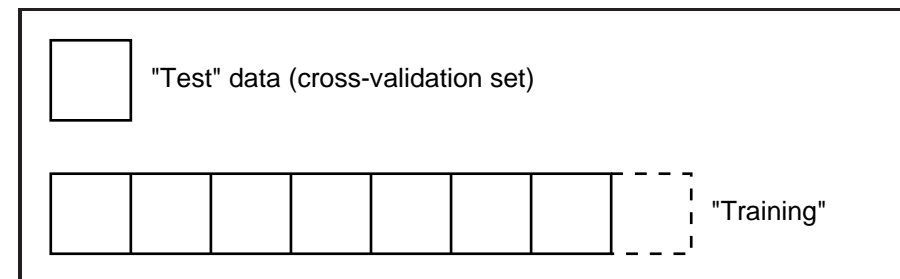
Deleted Interpolation

Divide the data into blocks and choose λ values to maximise the likelihood of deleted (or held-out) blocks of data. E.g. if the training data is divided into just 2 parts

1. (a) Data 1 $\longrightarrow \hat{P}(w_k | w_i, w_j)$ in terms of unknown λ 's
2. (b) Data 2 $\longrightarrow P(\text{Data 2}) = \prod_i \hat{P}(w(i) | w(i-2), w(i-1))$
3. (c) Choose λ 's to maximise $\log P(\text{Data 2})$

The key idea is that the λ values are chosen to maximise ability to predict unseen data. However, above method wastes data - so divide data into several blocks and rotate a the deleted block.

Now maximise $\sum_{i=1}^M \log P(\text{Data } i)$
 It can be shown that $\log P(\text{Data } i)$ is *convex* with respect to the unknown parameters λ .



Summary

- Language Models are a key component in large vocabulary speech recognition systems
- Reduce the equivalent average number of word choices by several orders of magnitude
- Normally simple models based on N -**grams** are used
- Base prediction on previous $N-1$ words. Typically $N = 1 \dots 4$.
- Need to deal with data **sparseness**: most N -grams don't occur in training data
- Two methods discussed:
 1. Use a combination of **discounting** and **backoff**
 2. Interpolation between different N -gram orders
- Can control N -gram size with the amount of back-off used.

