CMPT-825 Natural Language Processing

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How good is a model

- So far we've seen the probability of a sentence: $P(w_0, \ldots, w_n)$
- What is the probability of a collection of sentences, that is what is the probability of a corpus
- Let $T = s_0, \ldots, s_m$ be a text corpus with sentences s_0 through s_m
- What is P(T)? Let us assume that we trained $P(\cdot)$ on some *training data*, and T is the *test data*

How good is a model

- $T = s_0, \dots, s_m$ is the text corpus with sentences s_0 through s_m
- $\bullet P(T) = \prod_{i=0}^{m} P(s_i)$
- $P(s_i) = P(w_0^i, \dots, w_n^i)$ Let W_T be the length of the text T measured in words
- Cross entropy for T: $H(T) = -\frac{1}{W_T} \log_2 P(T)$ the average number of bits needed to encode each of the W_T words in the $test\ data$ Perplexity: $PP(T) = 2^{H(T)}$

How good is a model

- Lower cross entropy values and perplexity values are better Lower values mean that the model is *better* Correlation with performance of the language model in various applications
- Performance of a language model is its cross-entropy or perplexity on test data (unseen data)
 corresponds to the number bits required to encode that data
- On various real life datasets, typical perplexity values yielded by n-gram models on English text range from about 50 to almost 1000 (corresponding to cross entropies from about 6 to 10 bits/word)

Bigram Models

• In practice:

$$P(\mathsf{Mork} \; \mathsf{read} \; \mathsf{a} \; \mathsf{book}) = P(\mathsf{Mork} \; | \; < start >) \times P(\mathsf{read} \; | \; \mathsf{Mork}) \times P(\mathsf{a} \; | \; \mathsf{read}) \times P(\mathsf{book} \; | \; \mathsf{a}) \times P(< stop > \; | \; \mathsf{book})$$

• $P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$ On unseen data, $c(w_i, w_{i-1})$ or worse $c(w_{i-1})$ could be zero

$$\sum_{w_i} \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})} = ?$$

Smoothing

- Smoothing deals with events that have been observed zero times
- Smoothing algorithms also tend to improve the accuracy of the model

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

Not just unobserved events: what about events observed once?

Add-one Smoothing

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

Add-one Smoothing:

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{1 + c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{V + c(w_{i-1})}$$

ullet Let V be the number of words in our vocabulary Remember that we *observe* only V many bigrams Assigns count of 1 to unseen bigrams

Add-one Smoothing

$$P(\mathsf{Mindy read a book}) = P(\mathsf{Mindy} \mid < start >) \times P(\mathsf{read} \mid \mathsf{Mindy}) \times P(\mathsf{a} \mid \mathsf{read}) \times P(\mathsf{book} \mid \mathsf{a}) \times P(< stop > \mid \mathsf{book})$$

Without smoothing:

$$P(\text{read} \mid \text{Mindy}) = \frac{c(\text{Mindy, read})}{c(\text{Mindy})} = 0$$

With add-one smoothing (assuming c(Mindy) = 1 but c(Mindy, read) = 0):

$$P(\text{read} \mid \text{Mindy}) = \frac{1}{V+1}$$

Additive Smoothing: (Lidstone 1920, Jeffreys 1948)

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

- Add-one smoothing works horribly in practice. Seems like 1 is too large a count for unobserved events.
- Additive Smoothing:

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{\delta + c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{(\delta \times V) + c(w_{i-1})}$$

• $0 < \delta \le 1$ Still works horribly in practice, but better than add-one smoothing.

Good-Turing Smoothing: (Good, 1953)

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

- Imagine you're sitting at a sushi bar with a conveyor belt.
- You see going past you 10 plates of tuna, 3 plates of unagi, 2 plates of salmon, 1 plate of shrimp, 1 plate of octopus, and 1 plate of yellowtail
- How likely are you to see a new kind of seafood appear: $\frac{3}{18}$
- How likely are you to see another plate of salmon: should be $<\frac{2}{18}$

Good-Turing Smoothing

- How many types of seafood (words) were seen once? Use this to predict probabilities for unseen events

 Let n_1 be the number of events that occurred once: $p_0 = \frac{n_1}{N}$
- The Good-Turing estimate states that for any n-gram that occurs r times, we should pretend that it occurs r^* times

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

Good-Turing Smoothing

- 10 tuna, 3 unagi, 2 salmon, 1 shrimp, 1 octopus, 1 yellowtail
- How likely is new data? Let n_1 be the number of items occurring once, which is 3 in this case. N is the total, which is 18.

$$p_0 = \frac{n_1}{N} = \frac{3}{18}$$

Good-Turing Smoothing

- 10 tuna, 3 unagi, 2 salmon, 1 shrimp, 1 octopus, 1 yellowtail
- How likely is *octopus*? Since c(octopus) = 1 The GT estimate is 1^* .

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

• To compute 1^* , we need $n_1 = 3$ and $n_2 = 1$

$$1^* = 2 \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$$

• What happens when $n_r = 0$?

Simple Backoff Smoothing: incorrect version

$$P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

- In add-one or Good-Turing: $P(\text{the} \mid \text{string}) = P(\text{Fonz} \mid \text{string})$
- If $c(w_i, w_{i-1}) = 0$, then use $P(w_{i-1})$ (back off)
- Works for trigrams: back off to bigrams and then unigrams
- Works better in practice, but probabilities get mixed up (unseen bigrams, for example will get higher probabilities than seen bigrams)

Backoff Smoothing: Jelinek-Mercer Smoothing

$$P_{ML}(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_i, w_{i-1})}{c(w_{i-1})}$$

- $P_{JM}(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \lambda P_{ML}(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) + (1 \lambda)P_{ML}(w_i)$ where, $0 \le \lambda \le 1$
- Notice that P_{JM} (the | string) > P_{JM} (Fonz | string) as we wanted
- Jelinek-Mercer (1980) describe an elegant form of this **interpolation**:

$$P_{JM}(n \text{gram}) = \lambda P_{ML}(n \text{gram}) + (1 - \lambda)P_{JM}(n - 1 \text{gram})$$

• What about $P_{JM}(w_i)$?

$$P_{JM}(n \text{gram}) = \lambda P_{ML}(n \text{gram}) + (1 - \lambda)P_{JM}(n - 1 \text{gram})$$

- Different methods for finding the values for λ correspond to variety of different smoothing methods
 - Katz Backoff (include Good-Turing with Backoff Smoothing)

$$P_{\textit{katz}}(y \mid x) = \begin{cases} \frac{c^*(xy)}{c(x)} & \text{if } c(xy) > 0\\ \alpha(x)P_{\textit{katz}}(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Deleted Interpolation (Jelinek, Mercer) compute λ values from **held-out** data

$$P_{JM}(n \text{gram}) = \lambda P_{ML}(n \text{gram}) + (1 - \lambda)P_{JM}(n - 1 \text{gram})$$

- ullet Witten-Bell smoothing use the n-1gram model when the ngram model has too few unique words in the ngram context
- Absolute discounting (Ney, Essen, Kneser)

$$P_{abs}(y \mid x) = \begin{cases} \frac{c(xy) - D}{c(x)} & \text{if } c(xy) > 0\\ \alpha(x) P_{abs}(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$P_{JM}(n \text{gram}) = \lambda P_{ML}(n \text{gram}) + (1 - \lambda)P_{JM}(n - 1 \text{gram})$$

- Kneser-Ney smoothing
 P(Francisco | eggplant) > P(stew | eggplant)
 - Francisco is common, so interpolation gives $P(Francisco \mid eggplant)$ a high value
 - But Francisco occurs in few contexts (only after San)
 - stew is common, and occurs in many contexts
 - Hence weight the interpolation based on number of contexts for the word using discounting

$$P_{JM}(n\text{gram}) = \lambda P_{ML}(n\text{gram}) + (1 - \lambda)P_{JM}(n - 1\text{gram})$$

- Modified Kneser-Ney smoothing (Chen and Goodman)
 multiple discounts for one count, two counts and three or more counts
- Generalized search (Powell search) or the Expectation-Maximization algorithm

Trigram Models

Revisiting the trigram model:

$$P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_n) = P(w_1) \times P(w_2 \mid w_1) \times P(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) \times P(w_4 \mid w_2, w_3) \times ... P(w_i \mid w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}) ... \times P(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, ..., w_{n-1})$$

- ullet Notice that the length of the sentence n is variable
- What is the event space?

The stop symbol

- Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and the language be Σ^* so $L = \{\epsilon, a, b, aa, bb, ab, bb \dots\}$
- Consider a unigram model: P(a) = P(b) = 0.5
- P(a) = 0.5, P(b) = 0.5, $P(aa) = 0.5^2 = 0.25$, P(bb) = 0.25 and so on.
- But P(a) + P(b) + P(aa) + P(bb) = 1.5 !! $\sum_{w} P(w) = 1$

The stop symbol

- What went wrong? No probability for $P(\epsilon)$
- Add a special stop symbol:

$$P(a) = P(b) = 0.25$$

 $P(stop) = 0.5$

• P(stop) = 0.5, $P(a \text{ stop}) = P(b \text{ stop}) = 0.25 \times 0.5 = 0.125$, $P(aa \text{ stop}) = 0.25^2 \times 0.5 = 0.03125$ (now the sum is no longer greater than one)

The stop symbol

• With this new stop symbol we can show that $\sum_w P(w) = 1$ Notice that the probability of any sequence of length n is $0.25^n \times 0.5$ Also there are 2^n sequences of length n

$$\sum_{w} P(w) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^{n} \times 0.25^{n} \times 0.5$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 0.5^{n} \times 0.5 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 0.5^{n+1}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 0.5^{n} = 1$$