

# Language Modelling: Smoothing and Model Complexity

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COMP-550

Fall 2018

J&M Ch 6.3 (1st ed); J&M Ch 4.5 (2nd ed)

# Outline

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Review of last class

Justification of MLE probabilistically

Overfitting and unseen data

Dealing with unseen data

- Interpolation
- Good-Turing smoothing

# Language Modelling

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Predict the next word given some context

*Mary had a little \_\_\_\_\_*

- *lamb*            GOOD
- *accident*        GOOD?
- *very*            BAD
- *up*              BAD

# N-grams

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Make a **conditional independence assumption** to make the job of learning the probability distribution easier.

- Context = the previous N-1 words

Common choices: N is between 1 and 3

**Unigram** model

$$P(w_N|C) = P(w_N)$$

**Bigram** model

$$P(w_N|C) = P(w_N|w_{N-1})$$

**Trigram** model

$$P(w_N|C) = P(w_N|w_{N-1}, w_{N-2})$$

# Deriving Parameters from Counts

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Simplest method: count N-gram frequencies, then divide by the total count

e.g.,

**Unigram:**  $P(\text{cats}) = \text{Count}(\text{cats}) / \text{Count}(\text{all words in corpus})$

**Bigram:**  $P(\text{cats} \mid \text{the}) = \text{Count}(\text{the cats}) / \text{Count}(\text{the})$

**Trigram:**  $P(\text{cats} \mid \text{feed the}) = ?$

These are the **maximum likelihood estimates (MLE)**.

# Cross Entropy

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Entropy is the minimum number of bits needed to communicate some message, *if we know what probability distribution the message is drawn from.*

**Cross entropy** is for when we don't know.

e.g., language is drawn from some true distribution, the language model we train is an approximation of it

$$H(p, q) = - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i \log_2 q_i$$

$p$ : “true” distribution

$q$ : model distribution

# Estimating Cross Entropy

When evaluating our LM, we assume the test data is a good representative of language drawn from  $p$ .

Original:

$$H(p, q) = - \sum_{i=1}^k p_i \log_2 q_i$$

Estimate:

$$H(p, q) = - \frac{1}{N} \log_2 q(w_1 \dots w_N)$$

True language  
distribution, which  
we don't have  
access to.

Language model  
under evaluation

Size of test corpus  
in number of tokens

The words in the  
test corpus

# Perplexity

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Cross entropy gives us a number in bits, which is sometimes hard to read. Perplexity makes this easier.

$$\text{Perplexity}(p, q) = 2^{H(p, q)}$$



# Warm-Up Exercise

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Evaluate the given unigram language models using perplexity:

A B C B B

## Model 1

$$P(A) = 0.3$$

$$P(B) = 0.4$$

$$P(C) = 0.3$$

## Model 2

$$P(A) = 0.4$$

$$P(B) = 0.5$$

$$P(C) = 0.1$$

$$\text{Perplexity}(p, q) = 2^{H(p, q)}$$

$$H(p, q) = -\frac{1}{N} \log_2 q(w_1 \dots w_N)$$

# Why MLE?

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Why is using relative frequencies of events in the training set a reasonable thing to do?

Why is it called maximum likelihood estimation?

Are there other choices for estimating model parameters?

# What is Maximum Likelihood?

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Find the model parameters that maximize the likelihood of (i.e., the probability of generating) the training corpus,  $X$ .

Find  $\theta^{MLE}$  s.t.  $P(X; \theta^{MLE})$  is maximized

## In language modelling:

- Words are random variables that are drawn from a categorical probability distribution
- For a given context, they are i.i.d. (independently, and identically distributed)

# Categorical Random Variables

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1-of-K discrete outcomes, each with some probability

e.g., coin flip, die roll, draw a word from a language model

Probability of a training corpus,  $C = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  :

$$\begin{aligned} K = 2: P(C; \theta) &= \prod_{n=1}^N P(x_n; \theta) \\ &= \theta^{N_1} (1 - \theta)^{N_0} \end{aligned}$$

Can similarly extend for  $K > 2$

Notes:

- When  $K=2$ , it is called a Bernoulli distribution
- Sometimes incorrectly called a multinomial distribution, which is something else

# Maximizing Quantities

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Calculus to the rescue!

Take derivative and set to 0.

**Trick:** maximize the log likelihood instead (math works out better)

- This is okay because log is a monotonically increasing function, so it doesn't affect the location of the maximum.

# MLE Derivation for a Bernoulli

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Maximize the log likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned}\log P(C; \theta) &= \log(\theta^{N_1} (1 - \theta)^{N_0}) \\ &= N_1 \log \theta + N_0 \log(1 - \theta)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{d\theta} \log P(C; \theta) &= \frac{N_1}{\theta} - \frac{N_0}{1 - \theta} = 0 \\ \frac{N_1}{\theta} &= \frac{N_0}{1 - \theta}\end{aligned}$$

Solve this to get:

$$\theta = \frac{N_1}{N_0 + N_1}$$

Or,

$$\theta = \frac{N_1}{N}$$

# MLE Derivation for a Categorical

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The above generalizes to the case where  $K > 2$ .

Let's do the derivation!

Parameters are now  $\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_{K-1}$

Counts are now  $N_0, N_1, N_2, \dots, N_{K-1}$

**Note:** Need to add a constraint that  $\sum_{i=0}^{K-1} \theta_i = 1$  to ensure that the parameters specify a probability distribution.

Use the method of Lagrange multipliers

# Steps

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1. Gather a large, representative training corpus
2. Learn the parameters from the corpus to build the model
3. **Once the model is fixed, use the model to evaluate on testing data**



# Overfitting

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MLE often gives us a model that is too good of a fit to the training data. This is called **overfitting**.

- Words that we haven't seen
- The probabilities of the words and N-grams that we have seen are not representative of the true distribution.

But when testing, we evaluate the LM *on unseen data*. Overfitting lowers performance.

# Out Of Vocabulary (OOV) Items

Suppose we train a LM on the WSJ corpus, which is about economic news in 1987 – 1989. What probability would be assigned to *Brexit*?

In general, we know that there will be many words in the test data that are not in the training data, no matter how large the training corpus is.

- Neologisms, typos, parts of the text in foreign languages, etc.
- Remember Zipf's law and the long tail

# Explicitly Modelling OOV Items

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During training:

- Pick some frequency threshold
- All vocabulary items that occur less frequently are replaced by an <UNK>
- Now, treat <UNK> as another vocabulary item

During testing:

- Any unseen words are called <UNK>

# Smoothing

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Training corpus does not have all the words

- Add a special <UNK> symbol for unknown words

Estimates for infrequent words are unreliable

- Modify our probability distributions

**Smoothe** the probability distributions to shift probability mass to cases that we haven't seen before or are unsure about

# MAP Estimation

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Smoothing means we are no longer doing MLE. We now have some **prior belief** about what the parameters should be like: **maximum a posteriori** inference

MLE:

Find  $\theta^{MLE}$  s.t.  $P(X; \theta^{MLE})$  is maximized

MAP:

Find  $\theta^{MAP}$  s.t.  $P(X; \theta^{MAP})P(\theta^{MAP})$  is maximized

# Add- $\delta$ Smoothing

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Modify our estimates by adding a certain amount to the frequency of each word. (sometimes called **pseudocounts**)

e.g., unigram model

$$P(w) = \frac{\text{Count}(w) + \delta}{|Lexicon| * \delta + |Corpus|}$$

**Pros:** simple

**Cons:** not the best approach; how to pick  $\delta$ ? Depends on sizes of lexicon and corpus

When  $\delta = 1$ , this is called **Laplace discounting**

# Example

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Suppose we have a LM with a vocabulary of 20,000 items.

In the training corpus, we see donkey 10 times.

- Of these, in 5 times it was followed by the word kong.
- In the other 5 times, it was followed by another word.

What is the MLE estimate of  $P(\textit{kong} | \textit{donkey})$ ?

What is the Laplace estimate of  $P(\textit{kong} | \textit{donkey})$ ?

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5/10

What is the Laplace estimate of  $P(\textit{kong} | \textit{donkey})$ ?

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# Interpolation

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In an N-gram model, as N increases, data sparsity (i.e., unseen or rarely seen events) becomes a bigger problem.

In an **interpolation**, use a lower N to mitigate the problem.

# Simple Interpolation

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e.g., combine trigram, bigram, unigram models

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{P}(w_t|w_{t-2}, w_{t-1}) &= \lambda_1 P^{MLE}(w_t|w_{t-2}, w_{t-1}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_2 P^{MLE}(w_t|w_{t-1}) \\ &\quad + \lambda_3 P^{MLE}(w_t)\end{aligned}$$

Need to set  $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$  so that the overall sum is a probability distribution

How to select  $\lambda_i$ ? Compare different values on your development set!

# Good-Turing Smoothing

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A more sophisticated method of modelling unseen events (usually N-grams)

Remember Zipf's lessons

- We shouldn't adjust all words/N-grams uniformly.
- The frequency of a word or N-gram is related to its rank—we should be able to model this!
- Unseen N-grams should behave a lot like N-grams that only occur once in a corpus
- N-grams that occur a lot should behave like other N-grams that occur a lot.

# Count of Counts

Let's build a histogram to count how many events occur a certain number of times in the corpus.

Event frequency	# events with that frequency
1	$f_1 = 3993$
2	$f_2 = 1292$
3	$f_3 = 664$
...	...

- For some event in bin  $f_c$ , that event occurred  $c$  times in the corpus;  $c$  is the numerator in the MLE.
- **Idea:** re-estimate  $c$  using  $f_{c+1}$

# Good-Turing Smoothing Defined

Let  $N$  be total number of observed event-tokens,  $w_c$  be an event that occurs  $c$  times in the training corpus.

$$N = \sum_i f_i \times i$$

$$P(UNK) = f_1 / N \quad \leftarrow \text{Note that this is for all unseen events}$$

$$\text{Then: } c^* = \frac{(c+1)f_{c+1}}{f_c}$$

$$P(w_c) = c^* / N \quad \leftarrow \text{Note that this is for one event that occurs } c \text{ times}$$

## Example:

Let  $N$  be 100,000.

Word frequency	# word-types
1	$f_1 = 3,993$
2	$f_2 = 1,292$
3	$f_3 = 664$
...	...

$$\begin{aligned} P(UNK) &= 3993 / 100000 \\ &= 0.03993 \\ &\text{(for all unseen events)} \\ &\text{(Divide by total estimated} \\ &\text{number of unseen word} \\ &\text{types.)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_1^* &= 2 * 1292 / 3993 \\ &= 0.647 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_2^* &= 3 * 664 / 1292 \\ &= 1.542 \end{aligned}$$

# Exercises

Suppose we have the following counts:

Word	ship	pass	camp	frock	soccer	mother	tops
Freq	5	3	2	2	1	1	1

Give the MLE and Good-Turing estimates for the probabilities of:

- any unknown word
- *soccer*
- *camp*
- *pass*

$$N = \sum_i f_i \times i$$

$$c^* = \frac{(c+1)f_{c+1}}{f_c}$$

$$P(UNK) = f_1 / N$$

$$P(w_c) = c^* / N$$

# Good-Turing Refinement

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As seen above, simple Good-Turing fails for higher values of  $c$ , because  $f_{c+1}$  is often 0.

**Solution:** Estimate  $f_c$  as a function of  $c$

- We'll assume that a linear relationship exists between  $\log c$  and  $\log f_c$
- Use linear regression to learn this relationship:  
$$\log f_c^{LR} = a \log c + b$$
- For lower values of  $c$ , we continue to use  $f_c$ ; for higher values of  $c$ , we use our new estimate  $f_c^{LR}$ .

# Model Selection

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We now have very many slightly different versions of the model (with different **hyperparameters**). How to decide between them?

Recall from last class: use a **development / validation set**

## Procedure:

1. Train one or more models on the training set
2. Test (repeatedly, if necessary) on the dev/val set; choose a final hyperparameter setting/model
3. Test the final model on the final testing set (once only)

Steps 1 and 2 can be structured using cross-validation



# Model Complexity Trade-Offs

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In general, there is a trade-off between:

- model expressivity; i.e., what trends you could capture about your data with your model
- how well it generalizes to data

If you use a highly expressive model (e.g., high values of  $N$  in  $N$ -gram modelling), it is much easier to overfit, and you need to do smoothing. OTOH, if your model is too weak, your performance will suffer as well.