Language modeling-II

Lectures: Anton Alekseev, Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg NRU ITMO, St Petersburg, 2018



N-gram model

Model:

$$P(x_1,...x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | x_{i-N+1}...x_{i-1})$$

one has to add N - 1 terms «begin» ^ and «end» \$ from both sides (padding)

We can estimate the probability like that

$$P(x_{i}|x_{i-N+1}...x_{i-1}) = \frac{Count(x_{i-N+1}...x_{i-1}x_{i})}{Count(x_{i-N+1}...x_{i-1})}$$

 $P(x_i|x_{i-1}) = Count(x_i, x_{i-1})Count(x_{i-1})$

• E.g. for bigrams:

P(hello, i, love, you) =

 $= P(hello|^{)}P(i|hello)P(love|i)P(you|love)P(\$|you)$

Plan

1. Intuition

2. N-gram modeling

- 3. Language models quality evaluation
- 4. Zeros and smoothing
 - a. Kneser-Ney smoothing
 - Libraries
 - Datasets

reminder: Quality evaluation techniques

• Extrinsic

Checking quality by inducing the model into a bigger useful task (machine translation, spelling correction, ...). If the target metric (where the money is: translators work time, editor's time, clicks count, earned money, etc.) goes up, **the model has become better**

• Intrinsic

Evaluation for the poor when we need estimates when extrinsic evaluation is too expensive or when one doesn't want the results to be related to some specific application (if the model is universal to certain extent); also a metric that shows us how 'good' the model is

reminder: Quality evaluation: data splitting



- 1. TRAIN training model
- 2. DEV evaluating quality + analyzing errors + tuning hyperparameters
- 3. TEST blind quality evaluation: looking at quality metric ONLY + not too often, so as not to overfit

Model quality evaluation

- The larger the probability of the test text, the closer the model is to life
- Perplexity inverse probability of the text normalized by words sequence length

$$PP(W) = P(x_1...x_N)^{-\frac{1}{N}} = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{P(x_1...x_N)}} = \sqrt[N]{\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^N P(x_i|x_1...x_{i-1})}}$$

It is evident that less is better.

To those who know some information theory, the formula may seem familiar:

$$PP(W) = P(x_1...x_N)^{-\frac{1}{N}} = e^{-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N \log P(x_i|x_1...x_{i-1})}$$

Quality evaluation: example

Training on 38M tokens Testing on 1.5M Dataset: Wall Street Journal

	1-gram	2-gram	3-gram
Perplexity	962	170	109

из Martin/Jurafsky

Plan

- 1. Intuition
- 2. N-gram modeling
- 3. Language models quality evaluation
- 4. Zeros and smoothing
 - a. Kneser-Ney smoothing
 - Libraries
 - Datasets

Generalization capability discussion

- There is no such *perfect* corpus where all possible n-grams occur at least once!
- The model we have described returns P(x,...) = 0 when run on the text that contains at least one ngram that was not present in train set
- Evident enough, the model must generalize (and not just encode with non-zeros what was present in the train set)

a very natural solution is to convert zeros to small values

 Also: words we haven't met before (OOV = out of vocabulary) can be replaced with some universal substitutes, e.g.
 <UNKNOWN>/'part-of-speech'/'frequential bucket'

Laplacian smoothing (add-one smoothing)

 Let us imagine that all n-grams in concern occur in the text one more time. Then we can re-estimate the probabilities like that (bigrams example)

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

イロト イロト イヨト 一日

where V would save probabilities from not being equal to 1 when summed. What does it equal to?

Laplacian smoothing (add-one smoothing)

So,

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

- If we sum over w_i, we'll see that V should be the cardinality of unigrams set, otherwise P couldn't be called probability.
- Doesn't work well (to much useful weight is transferred to zeros!)
- The Fix for the poor:

$$P(w_i|w_{i-1}) = \frac{Count(w_i, w_{i-1}) + \alpha}{Count(w_i) + \alpha V}$$

Backoff and interpolation

- No occurrences of «somewhat young specialist», yet a few «young specialist» bigrams (if none unigram «specialist»)
- One can use probabilities of smaller n ngrams for computing estimates of probabilities for target ones with zero counts. This is called **backoff**.
- Every n-gram probability can be treated as a weighed sum of probabilities of ngrams it contains: n-1-grams, n-2-grams, etc.This is called interpolation.

 $\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{w}_{i}|\boldsymbol{w}_{i-2}\boldsymbol{w}_{i-1}) = \lambda_{2}\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{w}_{i}|\boldsymbol{w}_{i-2}\boldsymbol{w}_{i-1}) + \lambda_{1}\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{w}_{i}|\boldsymbol{w}_{i-1}) + \lambda_{0}\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{w}_{i})$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} \lambda_i = 1$$

 λ weights are tuned on the separate held out dev set, may depend on different contexts.

- choose bigrams, counts of which equal to
 k in the train set
- look at their counts in the held out set

We'll see that difference is ~ **constant**! (excluding rare n-grams in both sets)

The intuition is that since we have good estimates already for the very high counts, a small discount d won't affect them much. It will mainly modify the smaller counts, for which we don't necessarily trust the estimate anyway

Hence let us remember the shift d = 0.75 for all the n-grams or 0.75 for **2...9** and 0.5 for **1**

Bigram count in	Bigram count in		
training set	heldout set		
0	0.0000270		
1	0.448		
2	1.25		
3	2.24		
4	3.23		
5	4.21		
6	5.23		
7	6.21		
8	7.21		
9	8 26		

$$P_{\text{AbsoluteDiscounting}}(w_i \mid w_{i-1}) = \frac{c(w_{i-1}, w_i) - d}{c(w_{i-1})} + \lambda(\overset{\checkmark}{w_{i-1}})P(w)$$
unigram

d - absolute discount



- Why should we interpolate? Which n-grams are rare guests?
- "Despite he begged for ____"
 "stockings"? "Lanka"? -- different yet equally frequent
- Idea: the larger the cardinality of set of n-grams that contain the word, the more useful for interpolation this word is
- Intuition: should we consider 'Francisco' as a filler for this particular 'gap' if it usually goes **only after the word 'San'?**

• Idea: the larger the cardinality of set of n-grams containing the word, the more useful for interpolation this word (hopefully) is

$$P_{CONTINUATION}(w) = \frac{\left| \{w_{i-1} : c(w_{i-1}, w) > 0\} \right|}{\left| \{(w_{j-1}, w_j) : c(w_{j-1}, w_j) > 0\} \right|}$$

Kneser-Ney smoothing: final formula

$$P_{\text{KN}}(w_i|w_{i-1}) = \frac{\max(C(w_{i-1}w_i) - d, 0)}{C(w_{i-1})} + \lambda(w_{i-1})P_{\text{CONTINUATION}}(w_i)$$

Lambda helps to preserve properties of probabilities distributing the 'weight' between ngrams correctly

$$\lambda(w_{i-1}) = \frac{d}{\sum_{v} C(w_{i-1}v)} |\{w : C(w_{i-1}w) > 0\}|$$

There is a recursive formula for ngrams for any **n** (see Martin-Jurafsky, Chapter 4)

Summary: which is the best?

Philip Koehn's slides

Evaluation

Evaluation of smoothing methods:

Perplexity for language models trained on the Europarl corpus

Smoothing method	bigram	trigram	4-gram
 Good-Turing	96.2	62.9	59.9
 Witten-Bell	97.1	63.8	60.4
Modified Kneser-Ney	95.4	61.6	58.6
Interpolated Modified Kneser-Ney	94.5	59.3	54.0

See the literature

Plan

- 1. Intuition
- 2. N-gram modeling
- 3. Language models quality evaluation
- 4. Zeros and smoothing
 - a. Kneser-Ney-smoothing
 - Libraries
 - Datasets

Tools

nltk has some LM-related code (nltk.models)

Here's what Moses can use (open source SMT engine)

Language Models in Moses

The language model should be trained on a corpus that is suitable to the domain. If the although using additional training data is often beneficial.

Our decoder works with the following language models:

- SRI language modeling toolkit, which is freely available.
- the IRST language modeling toolkit, which is freely available and open source.
- the RandLM language modeling toolkit, which is freely available and open source.
- the KenLM language modeling toolkit, which is included in Moses by default.
- the <u>DALM language modeling toolkit</u>, which is freely available and open source.
- the OxLM language modeling toolkit, which is freely available and open source.
- the NPLM language modeling toolkit, which is freely available and open source.

Datasets

- *Huge unlabeled texts collection for your specific task
- Datasets for tasks that use LM, e.g. WMT
- Google NGrams
- National corpora (e.g. НКРЯ), OpenCorpora

йодистый	1936	95	43
йодистый	1937	133	43
йодистый	1938	82	40
йодистый	1939	75	29
йодистый	1940	125	40
йодистый	1941	108	24
йодистый	1942	9	4
йодистый	1943	11	8
йодистый	1944	25	11
йодистый	1945	42	20
йодистый	1946	83	27
йодистый	1947	164	46
йодистый	1948	103	55
NORMETHIN	1040	100	11

Частоты словоформ и словосочетаний

Вы можете скачать архивы с текстовыми файлами, содержащими частот При подсчёте учитывался регистр букв, а также знаки препинания. Общий объём корпуса – 192689044 словоформы.

<u>zip-архив</u> (0) 400
<u> zip-архив (</u> Частотные спи	иски
<u>zip-архив</u> (Тип n-граммы:	Учёт регистра:
<u>zip-архив</u> (О все	. все
zip-архив (^{© униграммы (1 слово)}	🔘 с учётом
 биграммы (2 слова) триграммы (3 слова) 	🔘 без учёта
	<u>zip-архив</u> (<u>Zip-архив</u> (<u>Zip-архив</u> (Тип n-граммы: <u>Zip-архив</u> (© все <u>zip-архив</u> (© все <u>zip-архив</u> (© униграммы (1 слово) © биграммы (2 слова) © тиграммы (3 слова)

File format: Each of the files below is compressed *tab*-separated data. In Version 2 each line has the following format:

ngram TAB year TAB match_count TAB volume_count NEWLINE

As an example, here are the 3,000,000th and 3,000,001st lines from the a file of the English 1-grams (googlebooks-eng-all-1gram-20120701-a.gz):

	cumvallate	1978	335	91	
Тип токенов:	cumvallate	1979	261	91	
• все					
только слова	только слова line tells us that in 1978, the word "circumvallate" (which means d with a rampart or other fortification", in case you were wondering)				
не только слова					case you were wondering)
	335 times ov	verall, in	91 disti	nct books o	of our sample.

LM lectures takeaways

- We have discussed machine learning models evaluation
- We've learnt how to estimate word sequence probabilities using a practical mainstream method

Sources and recommendations

Slides are heavily based on Jurafsky/Martin book and Daniel Jurafsky's course slides + a few peeks at P. Braslavsky's course were taken

Recommended:

- Martin-Jurafsky, edition 3, chapter 4
- "Statistical Machine Translation" Philip Koehn

Language modeling

Lectures: Anton Alekseev, Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg NRU ITMO, St Petersburg, 2018

Markov models, information theory and why we care about it all

Anton Alekseev, Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg NRU ITMO,

NRU ITMO, St Petersburg, 2018 anton.m.alexeyev+itmo@gmail.com

Plan for today: theory and applications

1. Markov chains

- a. Language models
- b. Keywords extraction and other applications

2. Elements of information theory

- a. Information
 - i. Collocations extraction
 - ii. One weird trick to estimate sentiment
- b. Entropy
 - i. Connection between entropy and perplexity

Markov property

N-gram models we discussed earlier actually are Markov models

Markov property: conditional distribution of the next state of a stochastic process depends only on current state

 $\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1}=i_{n+1}\mid X_n=i_n,X_{n-1}=i_{n-1},\ldots,X_0=i_0)=\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1}=i_{n+1}\mid X_n=i_n)$

The process with discrete time (or a sequence of random events), that has this property is called a **Markov chain**

A simple and a well-studied probabilistic model suitable for many tasks



Markov chain

The model is entirely set by the stochastic matrix = transitions probabilities matrix

Example. Events: vowel (v), consonant (c), white**s**pace/punctuation (s) (probabilities are set at random, consider the estimation an exercise).



DEMO: ugly self-promotion: http://antonalexeev.hop.ru/markov/index.html

Markov chains

 So — Markov chain as a process is set by the matrix of transitions probabilities and probabilities of initial states

$$\pi = (p_1^{(0)}, ..., p_n^{(0)})^T$$

$$P_{trans} = \{ p_{i \to j}, \ i, j \in 1 : n, \sum_{j=1}^n p_{i \to j} = 1 \forall i \}$$

 Probability of a trajectory of length one x_i

$$p = p_i$$

of length two $x_i \rightarrow x_j$

$$\boldsymbol{p} = \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_j|\boldsymbol{x}_i) = \pi_i \boldsymbol{P}_{i,j}$$

of length three $x_i \rightarrow x_j \rightarrow x_k$

$$\boldsymbol{p} = \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_j|\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_k|\boldsymbol{x}_i,\boldsymbol{x}_j) = \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_j|\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}_k|\boldsymbol{x}_j) = \pi_i\boldsymbol{P}_{i,j}\boldsymbol{P}_{j,k}$$

Markov chains

 Evident enough, probability of trajectory of length n is computed like that

$$p(x_a, ..., x_z) = \pi_a \prod_{i=2}^{|steps|} P_{steps[i], steps[i+1]}, steps = (a, ..., z)$$

It is easy to prove that the vector of probabilities of the process to be in certain states at m-th step can be computed like that

$$\pi^{(m)} = (p_1^{(m)}, ..., p_n^{(m)}) = \pi P_{tr}^m$$

Markov chains: the limit

One can demonstrate that if $P_{trans i,j} = p_{i \rightarrow j} > 0$, there exist a single asymptotic distribution

 $\mathbf{\hat{p}} = \lim_{m \to \infty} \pi P_{trans}^m,$

and

$$\hat{\mathbf{p}} = \hat{\mathbf{p}} P_{trans}, \sum \hat{\mathbf{p}}_i = 1$$

Such distribution is called the **stationary** one.

Stationary distribution: interpretation

Suppose we are watching random [web] surfer, who moves from state to state **eternally**, making decisions where to glide using the distribution of states in the current row



http://slideplayer.com/slide/8080871/

Then each value in the vector of stationary distribution is **the fraction of total time** spent in the corresponding state

Application example №1 (previous lecture)



Application example №2: PageRank

The 'value' of the web page is defined by

- the 'value' of the pages that refer to it,
- a number of pages those pages refer to (less = better)

Let $L_{ij} = 1$ if webpage j links to webpage i (written $j \rightarrow i$), and $L_{ij} = 0$ otherwise

Also let $m_j = \sum_{k=1}^n L_{kj}$, the total number of webpages that j links to

First we define something that's almost PageRank, but not quite, because it's broken. The BrokenRank p_i of webpage i is

$$p_i = \sum_{j \to i} \frac{p_j}{m_j} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{L_{ij}}{m_j} p_j$$

http://www.stat.cmu.edu/~ryantibs/datamining/lectures/03-pr.pdf

To be continued

Markov models, information theory and why we care about it all

Anton Alekseev, Steklov Mathematical Institute in St Petersburg NRU ITMO,

NRU ITMO, St Petersburg, 2018 anton.m.alexeyev+itmo@gmail.com