Review: evaluating n-gram models

- Best evaluation for an N-gram
  - Put model A in a speech recognizer
  - Run recognition, get word error rate (WER) for A
  - Put model B in speech recognition, get word error rate for B
  - Compare WER for A and B
  - In-vivo evaluation
Difficulty of in-vivo evaluations

• In-vivo evaluation
  • Very time-consuming

• Instead: perplexity
Perplexity

- Perplexity is the probability of the test set (assigned by the language model), normalized by the number of words:
  \[ PP(W) = \frac{1}{\sqrt[N]{P(w_1 w_2 \ldots w_N)}} \]

- Chain rule:
  \[ PP(W) = \sqrt[N]{\prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{P(w_i | w_1 \ldots w_{i-1})}} \]

- For bigrams:
  \[ PP(W) = \sqrt[N]{\prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{P(w_i | w_{i-1})}} \]

- Minimizing perplexity is the same as maximizing probability
  - The best language model is one that best predicts an unseen test set
Lesson 1: the perils of overfitting

- N-grams only work well for word prediction if the test corpus looks like the training corpus
  - In real life, it often doesn’t
  - We need to train robust models, adapt to test set, etc
Lesson 2: zeros or not?

- **Zipf’s Law:**
  - A small number of events occur with high frequency
  - A large number of events occur with low frequency

- **Resulting Problem:**
  - You might have to wait an arbitrarily long time to get valid statistics on low frequency events
  - Our estimates are sparse! No counts exist for the vast bulk of things we want to estimate!

- **Solution:**
  - **Estimate** the likelihood of unseen N-grams
Smoothing is like Robin Hood:
Steal from the rich, give to the poor (probability mass)

- We often want to make predictions from sparse statistics:

  \[ P(w \mid \text{denied the}) \]
  - 3 allegations
  - 2 reports
  - 1 claims
  - 1 request
  - 7 total

- Smoothing flattens spiky distributions so they generalize better

  \[ P(w \mid \text{denied the}) \]
  - 2.5 allegations
  - 1.5 reports
  - 0.5 claims
  - 0.5 request
  - 2 other
  - 7 total

- Very important all over NLP, but easy to do badly!

Slide from Dan Klein
Laplace smoothing

- Also called “add-one smoothing”
- Just add one to all the counts!

- MLE estimate: \( P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \)

- Laplace estimate: \( P_{\text{Laplace}}(w_i) = \frac{c_i + 1}{N + V} \)

- Reconstructed counts: \( c_i^* = (c_i + 1) \frac{N}{N + V} \)
## Laplace smoothed bigram counts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>i</th>
<th>want</th>
<th>to</th>
<th>eat</th>
<th>chinese</th>
<th>food</th>
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Laplace-smoothed bigrams

\[ P^*(w_n | w_{n-1}) = \frac{C(w_{n-1}w_n) + 1}{C(w_{n-1}) + V} \]

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>chinese</th>
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<td>0.0012</td>
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<td>0.00058</td>
<td>0.00058</td>
<td>0.00058</td>
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</table>
Reconstituted counts

\[ c^*(w_{n-1}w_n) = \frac{[C(w_{n-1}w_n) + 1]}{C(w_{n-1}) + V} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>i</th>
<th>want</th>
<th>to</th>
<th>eat</th>
<th>chinese</th>
<th>food</th>
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<td>238</td>
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<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.16</td>
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</table>
Note big change to counts

- C(“want to”) went from 609 to 238!
- P(to|want) from .66 to .26!
- Discounted by $d = c^* / c$
  - d for “chinese food” = .10!!! A 10x reduction
  - This means Laplace is a blunt instrument
  - Could use more fine-grained method (add-k)

- Laplace smoothing not often used for N-grams, as we have much better methods
- Despite its flaws, Laplace (add-k) is however still used to smooth other probabilistic models in NLP, especially
  - For pilot studies
  - In domains where the number of zeros isn’t so huge.
Exercise

Hey, I just met you, And this is crazy,
But here’s my number, So call me, maybe?

It’s hard to look right, At you baby,
But here’s my number, So call me, maybe?

• Using a unigram model and Laplace smoothing (+1)
  • Calculate $P(\text{“call me possibly”})$
  • Assume a vocabulary based on the above, plus the word “possibly”

• Now instead of $k=1$, set $k=0.01$
  • Calculate $P(\text{“call me possibly”})$
Better discounting algorithms

• Intuition: use the count of things we’ve seen once to help estimate the count of things we’ve never seen

• Intuition in many smoothing algorithms:
  • Good-Turing
  • Kneser-Ney
  • Witten-Bell
Good-Turing: Josh Goodman intuition

- Imagine you are fishing
  - There are 8 species in the lake: carp, perch, whitefish, trout, salmon, eel, catfish, bass

- You catch:
  - 10 carp, 3 perch, 2 whitefish, 1 trout, 1 salmon, 1 eel = 18 fish

- How likely is it the next species is *new* (catfish or bass)?
  - 3/18

- And how likely is it that the next species is another trout?
  - Must be less than 1/18
Good-Turing Counts

- \( N[x] \) is the frequency-of-frequency-\( x \)
  - So for the fish: \( N[10]=1, N[1]=3 \), etc.

- To estimate the total number of unseen species:
  - Use the number of species (words) we’ve seen once
  - \( c[0]^* = N[1] \) \hspace{1cm} \( p_0 = c[0]^*/N = N[1]/N = 3/18 \)
  - \( P_{GT}(\text{things with frequency zero in training}) = \frac{N[1]}{N} \)

- All other estimates are adjusted (down)
  \[
  c[x]^* = (x + 1) \frac{N[x + 1]}{N[x]} \hspace{1cm} P_{GT}(\text{occurred } x \text{ times}) = \frac{c[x]^*}{N}
  \]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>unseen (bass or catfish)</th>
<th>trout</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$c$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLE $p$</td>
<td>$p = \frac{0}{18} = 0$</td>
<td>$\frac{1}{18}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c^*$</td>
<td></td>
<td>$c^*(trot) = 2 \times \frac{N_2}{N_1} = 2 \times \frac{1}{3} = .67$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT $p^*_G$</td>
<td>$p^*_G(\text{unseen}) = \frac{N_1}{N} = \frac{3}{18} = .17$</td>
<td>$p^*_G(\text{trot}) = \frac{.67}{18} = \frac{1}{27} = .037$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bigram frequencies of frequencies and GT re-estimates

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<th>c (MLE)</th>
<th>(N_c)</th>
<th>(c^*) (GT)</th>
<th>c (MLE)</th>
<th>(N_c)</th>
<th>(c^*) (GT)</th>
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<td>196</td>
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Complications

- In practice, assume large counts ($c > k$ for some $k$) are reliable:

$$c^* = c \text{ for } c > k$$

- That complicates $c^*$, making it:

$$c^* = \frac{(c + 1) \frac{N_{c+1}}{N_c} - c \frac{(k+1)N_{k+1}}{N_1}}{1 - \frac{(k+1)N_{k+1}}{N_1}}, \text{ for } 1 \leq c \leq k.$$  

- Also: we assume singleton counts $c=1$ are unreliable, so treat N-grams with count of 1 as if they were count=0

- Also, need the $N_k$ to be non-zero, so we need to smooth (interpolate) the $N_k$ counts before computing $c^*$ from them
GT smoothed bigram probs

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>chinese</th>
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<th>lunch</th>
<th>spend</th>
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Backoff and Interpolation

• Don’t try to account for unseen n-grams, just backoff to a simpler model until you’ve seen it.

• Start with estimating the trigram: \( P(z \mid x, y) \)
  • but \( C(x,y,z) \) is zero!

• Backoff and use info from the bigram: \( P(z \mid y) \)
  • but \( C(y,z) \) is zero!

• Backoff to the unigram: \( P(z) \)

• How to combine the trigram/bigram/unigram info?
Backoff versus interpolation

- **Backoff**: use trigram if you have it, otherwise bigram, otherwise unigram

- **Interpolation**: always mix all three
Interpolation

• Simple interpolation

\[ \hat{P}(w_n | w_{n-1}w_{n-2}) = \lambda_1 P(w_n | w_{n-1}w_{n-2}) + \lambda_2 P(w_n | w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P(w_n) \]

\[ \sum \lambda_i = 1 \]

• Lambdas conditional on context:

\[ \hat{P}(w_n | w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) = \lambda_1 (w_{n-2}^{n-1}) P(w_n | w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) + \lambda_2 (w_{n-2}^{n-1}) P(w_n | w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 (w_{n-2}^{n-1}) P(w_n) \]
How to set the lambdas?

• Use a **held-out** corpus
• Choose lambdas which maximize the probability of some held-out data
  • I.e. fix the N-gram probabilities
  • Then search for lambda values
  • That when plugged into previous equation
  • Give largest probability for held-out set
Katz Backoff

- Use the trigram probability if the trigram was observed:
  - \( P(\text{dog} | \text{the, black}) \) if \( C(\text{“the black dog”}) > 0 \)

- “Backoff” to the bigram if it was unobserved:
  - \( P(\text{dog} | \text{black}) \) if \( C(\text{“black dog”}) > 0 \)

- “Backoff” again to unigram if necessary:
  - \( P(\text{dog}) \)
Katz Backoff

• Gotcha: You can’t just backoff to the shorter n-gram.
• Why not? It is no longer a probability distribution. The entire model must sum to one.
  • The individual trigram and bigram distributions are valid, but we can’t just combine them.

• Each distribution now needs a factor. See the book for details.
  • \( P(\text{dog}|\text{the,black}) = \alpha(\text{dog,black}) \times P(\text{dog} \mid \text{black}) \)