# Foundations of Natural Language Processing Lecture 5 <br> N-gram language models 

Alex Lascarides
informadántics

## Recap

- Last time, we talked about corpus data and some of the information we can get from it, like word frequencies.
- For some tasks, like sentiment analysis, word frequencies alone can work pretty well (though can certainly be improved on).
- For other tasks, we need more.
- Today: we consider sentence probabilities: what are they, why are they useful, and how might we compute them?


## Intuitive interpretation

- "Probability of a sentence" = how likely is it to occur in natural language
- Consider only a specific language (English)
- Not including meta-language (e.g. linguistic discussion)
$\mathrm{P}($ the cat slept peacefully $)>\mathrm{P}($ slept the peacefully cat $)$
$\mathrm{P}($ she studies morphosyntax $)>\mathrm{P}($ she studies more faux syntax $)$


## Language models in NLP

- It's very difficult to know the true probability of an arbitrary sequence of words.
- But we can define a language model that will give us good approximations.
- Like all models, language models will be good at capturing some things and less good for others.
- We might want different models for different tasks.
- Today, one type of language model: an N -gram model.


## Spelling correction

Sentence probabilities help decide correct spelling. mis-spelled text
$\downarrow$
possible outputs
best-guess output
(Error model)
no much effect
so much effort
no much effort
not much effort
(Language model)
$\downarrow$
not much effort

## Automatic speech recognition

Sentence probabilities help decide between similar-sounding options. speech input
$\downarrow \quad$ (Acoustic model)
possible outputs
She studies morphosyntax
She studies more faux syntax
She's studies morph or syntax
$\downarrow \quad$ (Language model)
best-guess output
She studies morphosyntax

## Machine translation

Sentence probabilities help decide word choice and word order. non-English input
$\downarrow \quad$ (Translation model)
possible outputs
(Language model)
best-guess output
She is going home
She is going house
She is travelling to home
To home she is going

She is going home

## LMs for prediction

- LMs can be used for prediction as well as correction.
- Ex: predictive text correction/completion on your mobile phone.
- Keyboard is tiny, easy to touch a spot slightly off from the letter you meant.
- Want to correct such errors as you go, and also provide possible completions. Predict as you are typing: ineff...
- In this case, LM may be defined over sequences of characters instead of (or in addition to) sequences of words.


## But how to estimate these probabilities?

- We want to know the probability of word sequence $\vec{w}=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}$ occurring in English.
- Assume we have some training data: large corpus of general English text.
- We can use this data to estimate the probability of $\vec{w}$ (even if we never see it in the corpus!)


## Probability theory vs estimation

- Probability theory can solve problems like:
- I have a jar with 6 blue marbles and 4 red ones.
- If I choose a marble uniformly at random, what's the probability it's red?


## Probability theory vs estimation

- Probability theory can solve problems like:
- I have a jar with 6 blue marbles and 4 red ones.
- If I choose a marble uniformly at random, what's the probability it's red?
- But often we don't know the true probabilities, only have data:
- I have a jar of marbles.
- I repeatedly choose a marble uniformly at random and then replace it before choosing again.
- In ten draws, I get 6 blue marbles and 4 red ones.
- On the next draw, what's the probability I get a red marble?
- First three facts are evidence.
- The question requires estimation theory.


## Notation

- I will often omit the random variable in writing probabilities, using $P(x)$ to mean $P(X=x)$.
- When the distinction is important, I will use
- $P(x)$ for true probabilities
- $\hat{P}(x)$ for estimated probabilities
- $P_{\mathrm{E}}(x)$ for estimated probabilities using a particular estimation method $E$.
- But since we almost always mean estimated probabilities, I may get lazy later and use $P(x)$ for those too.


## Example estimation: M\&M colors

What is the proportion of each color of M\&M?

- In 48 packages, I find ${ }^{1} 2620 \mathrm{M} \& M \mathrm{M}$, as follows:

| Red | Orange | Yellow | Green | Blue | Brown |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 372 | 544 | 369 | 483 | 481 | 371 |

- How to estimate probability of each color from this data?

[^0]
## Relative frequency estimation

- Intuitive way to estimate discrete probabilities:

$$
P_{\mathrm{RF}}(x)=\frac{C(x)}{N}
$$

where $C(x)$ is the count of $x$ in a large dataset, and
$N=\sum_{x^{\prime}} C\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ is the total number of items in the dataset.

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- $\mathrm{M} \& \mathrm{M}$ example: $P_{\mathrm{RF}}($ red $)=\frac{372}{2620}=.142$
- This method is also known as maximum-likelihood estimation (MLE) for reasons we'll get back to.


## MLE for sentences?

Can we use MLE to estimate the probability of $\vec{w}$ as a sentence of English? That is, the prob that some sentence $S$ has words $\vec{w}$ ?

$$
P_{\mathrm{MLE}}(S=\vec{w})=\frac{C(\vec{w})}{N}
$$

where $C(\vec{w})$ is the count of $\vec{w}$ in a large dataset, and $N$ is the total number of sentences in the dataset.

## Sentences that have never occurred

the Archaeopteryx soared jaggedly amidst foliage
vs
jaggedly trees the on flew

- Neither ever occurred in a corpus (until I wrote these slides).
$\Rightarrow C(\vec{w})=0$ in both cases: MLE assigns both zero probability.
- But one is grammatical (and meaningful), the other not.
$\Rightarrow$ Using MLE on full sentences doesn't work well for language model estimation.


## The problem with MLE

- MLE thinks anything that hasn't occurred will never occur $(P=0)$.
- Clearly not true! Such things can have differering, and non-zero, probabilities:
- My hair turns blue
- I ski a black run
- I travel to Finland
- And similarly for word sequences that have never occurred.


## Sparse data

- In fact, even things that occur once or twice in our training data are a problem. Remember these words from Europarl?
cornflakes, mathematicians, pseudo-rapporteur, lobby-ridden, Lycketoft, UNCITRAL, policyfor, Commissioneris, 145.95

All occurred once. Is it safe to assume all have equal probability?

- This is a sparse data problem: not enough observations to estimate probabilities well simply by counting observed data. (Unlike the M\&Ms, where we had large counts for all colours!)
- For sentences, many (most!) will occur rarely if ever in our training data. So we need to do something smarter.


## Towards better LM probabilities

- One way to try to fix the problem: estimate $P(\vec{w})$ by combining the probabilities of smaller parts of the sentence, which will occur more frequently.
- This is the intuition behind $\mathbf{N}$-gram language models.


## Deriving an N -gram model

- We want to estimate $P\left(S=w_{1} \ldots w_{n}\right)$.
- Ex: $P(S=$ the cat slept quietly).
- This is really a joint probability over the words in $S$ : $P\left(W_{1}=\right.$ the, $W_{2}=$ cat, $W_{3}=$ slept,$\ldots W_{4}=$ quietly $)$.
- Concisely, $P$ (the, cat, slept, quietly) or $P\left(w_{1}, \ldots w_{n}\right)$.


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- Concisely, $P$ (the, cat, slept, quietly) or $P\left(w_{1}, \ldots w_{n}\right)$.
- Recall that for a joint probability, $P(X, Y)=P(Y \mid X) P(X)$. So, $P($ the, cat, slept, quietly $)=P($ quietly|the, cat, slept $) P($ the, cat, slept $)$
$=P$ (quietly $\mid$ the, cat, slept $) P($ slept $\mid$ the, cat $) P($ the, cat $)$
$=P($ quietly $\mid$ the, cat, slept $) P($ slept $\mid$ the, cat $) P($ cat $\mid$ the $) P($ the $)$


## Deriving an N -gram model

- More generally, the chain rule gives us:

$$
P\left(w_{1}, \ldots w_{n}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots w_{i-1}\right)
$$

- But many of these conditional probs are just as sparse!
- If we want $P$ (I spent three years before the mast)...
- we still need $P$ (mast $\mid$ spent three years before the).


## Deriving an N -gram model

- So we make an independence assumption: the probability of a word only depends on a fixed number of previous words (history).
- trigram model: $P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots w_{i-1}\right) \approx P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)$
- bigram model: $P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots w_{i-1}\right) \approx P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1}\right)$
- unigram model: $P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots w_{i-1}\right) \approx P\left(w_{i}\right)$
- In our example, a trigram model says
$-P($ mast $\mid I$ spent three years before the $) \approx P($ mast $\mid$ before the $)$


## Trigram independence assumption

- Put another way, trigram model assumes these are all equal:
- $P$ (mast $\mid I$ spent three years before the)
- $P$ (mast $\mid I$ went home before the)
- $P$ (mast|I saw the sail before the)
- $P$ (mast|l revised all week before the)
because all are estimated as $P$ (mast|before the)
- Not always a good assumption! But it does reduce the sparse data problem.


## Estimating trigram conditional probs

- We still need to estimate $P$ (mast|before, the): the probability of mast given the two-word history before, the.
- If we use relative frequencies (MLE), we consider:
- Out of all cases where we saw before, the as the first two words of a trigram,
- how many had mast as the third word?


## Estimating trigram conditional probs

- So, in our example, we'd estimate

$$
P_{M L E}(\text { mast } \mid \text { before }, \text { the })=\frac{C(\text { before, the }, \text { mast })}{C(\text { before }, \text { the })}
$$

where $C(x)$ is the count of $x$ in our training data.

- More generally, for any trigram we have

$$
P_{M L E}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)=\frac{C\left(w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}, w_{i}\right)}{C\left(w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)}
$$

## Example from Moby Dick corpus

$$
\begin{aligned}
C(\text { before }, \text { the }) & =55 \\
\text { fore, } \text { the } \text { mast }) & =4
\end{aligned} \quad \frac{C(\text { before, } \text { the }, \text { mast })}{C(\text { before }, \text { the })}=0.0727
$$

- mast is the second most common word to come after before the in Moby Dick; wind is the most frequent word.
- $P_{M L E}($ mast $)$ is 0.00049 , and $P_{M L E}($ mast $\mid$ the $)$ is 0.0029 .
- So seeing before the vastly increases the probability of seeing mast next.


## Trigram model: summary

- To estimate $P(\vec{w})$, use chain rule and make an indep. assumption:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(w_{1}, \ldots w_{n}\right) & =\prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots w_{i-1}\right) \\
& \approx P\left(w_{1}\right) P\left(w_{2} \mid w_{1}\right) \prod_{i=3}^{n} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{w-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Then estimate each trigram prob from data (here, using MLE):

$$
P_{M L E}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)=\frac{C\left(w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}, w_{i}\right)}{C\left(w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)}
$$

- On your own: work out the equations for other $N$-grams (e.g., bigram, unigram).


## Practical details (1)

- Trigram model assumes two word history:

$$
P(\vec{w})=P\left(w_{1}\right) P\left(w_{2} \mid w_{1}\right) \prod_{i=3}^{n} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{w-1}\right)
$$

- But consider these sentences:

|  | $w_{1}$ | $w_{2}$ | $w_{3}$ | $w_{4}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (1) | he | saw | the | yellow |
| (2) | feeds | the | cats | daily |

- What's wrong? Does the model capture these problems?


## Beginning/end of sequence

- To capture behaviour at beginning/end of sequences, we can augment the input:

|  | $w_{-1}$ | $w_{0}$ | $w_{1}$ | $w_{2}$ | $w_{3}$ | $w_{4}$ | $w_{5}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $(1)$ | $<$ s $>$ | $<$ s $>$ | he | saw | the | yellow | $</ \mathrm{s}\rangle$ |
| $(2)$ | $<$ s $>$ | $<$ s $>$ | feeds | the | cats | daily | $</ \mathrm{s}>$ |

- That is, assume $w_{-1}=w_{0}=\langle s\rangle$ and $w_{n+1}=\langle/ \mathbf{s}\rangle$ so:

$$
P(\vec{w})=\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}\right)
$$

- Now, $P(</ \mathrm{s}\rangle \mid$ the , yellow $)$ is low, indicating this is not a good sentence.


## Beginning/end of sequence

- Alternatively, we could model all sentences as one (very long) sequence, including punctuation:
two cats live in sam 's barn . sam feeds the cats daily . yesterday, he saw the yellow cat catch a mouse . [...]
- Now, trigrams like $P(. \mid$ cats daily $)$ and $P(, \mid$. yesterday $)$ tell us about behavior at sentence edges.
- Here, all tokens are lowercased. What are the pros/cons of not doing that?


## Practical details (2)

- Word probabilities are typically very small.
- Multiplying lots of small probabilities quickly gets so tiny we can't represent the numbers accurately, even with double precision floating point.
- So in practice, we typically use negative log probabilities (sometimes called costs):
- Since probabilities range from 0 to 1 , negative log probs range from 0 to $\infty$ : lower cost $=$ higher probability.
- Instead of multiplying probabilities, we add neg log probabilities.


## Summary

- "Probability of a sentence": how likely is it to occur in natural language? Useful in many natural language applications.
- We can never know the true probability, but we may be able to estimate it from corpus data.
- $N$-gram models are one way to do this:
- To alleviate sparse data, assume word probs depend only on short history.
- Tradeoff: longer histories may capture more, but are also more sparse.
- So far, we estimated N -gram probabilites using MLE.


## Coming up next

- Weaknesses of MLE and ways to address them (more issues with sparse data).
- How to evaluate a language model: are we estimating sentence probabilities accurately?


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Data from: https://joshmadison.com/2007/12/02/mms-color-distribution-analysis/

