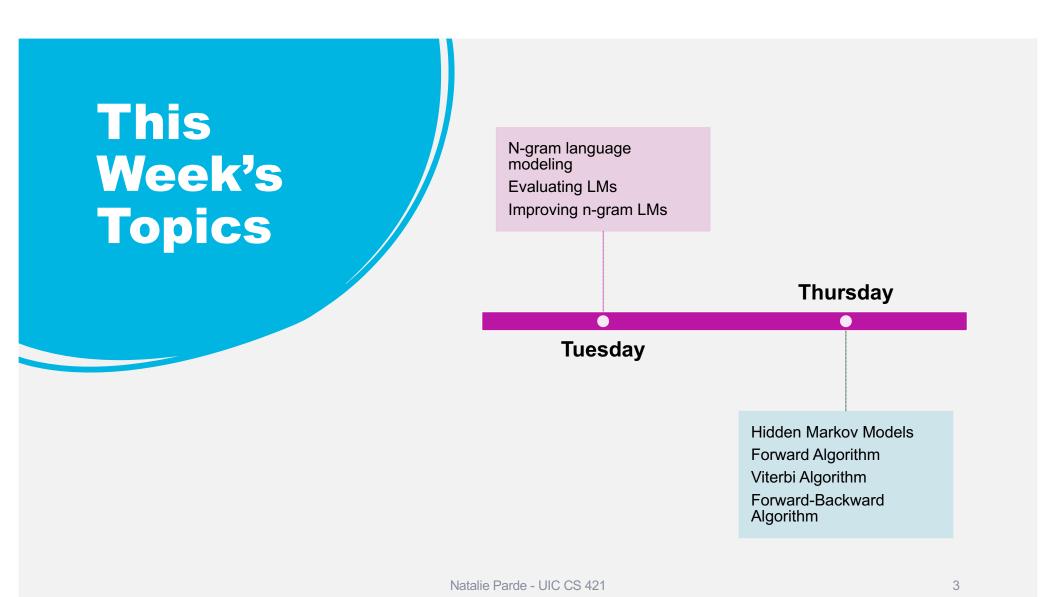


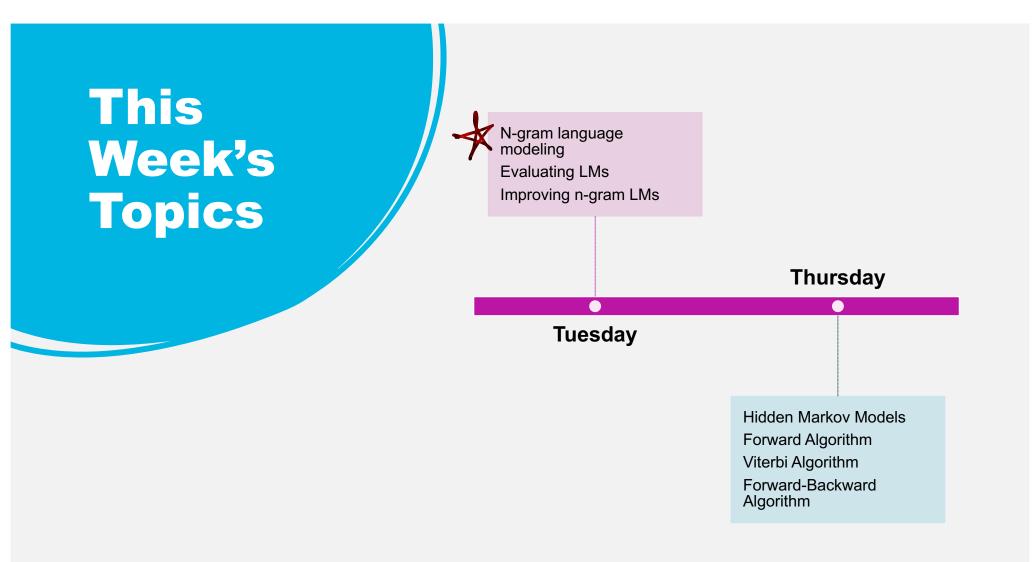
N-Gram Language Models

Language is inherently contextual.

2

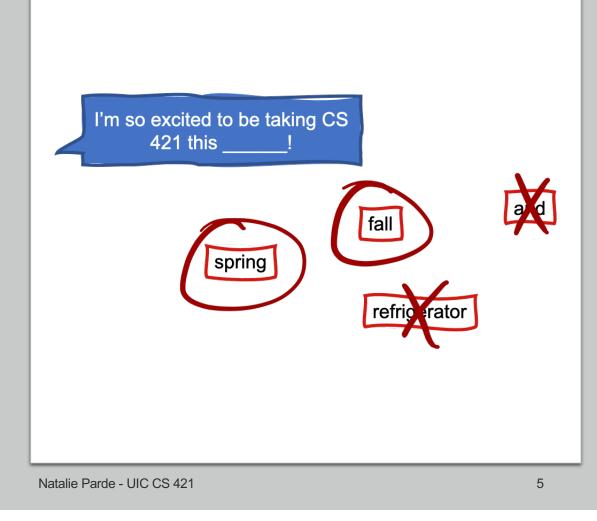
- Words or characters in language are dependent upon one another!
- Sequence modeling allows us to make use of sequential information in language
- What are some ways we can model sequences?
 - Language models
 - Hidden Markov models





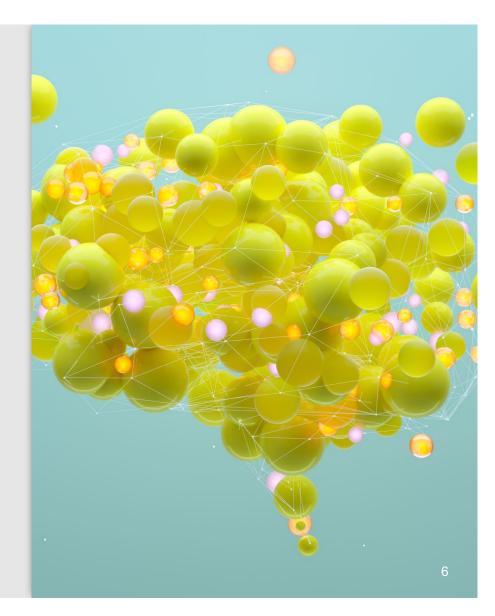
Language Modeling

 Learning how to effectively predict the likelihood of word or character sequences in a language



Why is language modeling useful?

- Helps identify words in noisy, ambiguous input
 - Speech recognition or autocorrect
- Helps generate natural-sounding language
 - Machine translation or image captioning
- In contemporary NLP, language modeling forms the basis of most approaches
 - Language representation



Language models bootstands bootstands many forms!

+

0

- Better with small datasets:
 - N-gram language models
- More sophisticated
 - Neural language models

N-Grams

- Sequences of a predefined item type within a language
 - $N \rightarrow Size$ of the sequence
 - -gram → Greek-derived suffix meaning "what is written"
- First use of the term appears to be in the late 1940s
 - A Mathematical Theory of Communication, by Claude Shannon: <u>https://people.math.harvard.edu/~ctm/home/</u> <u>text/others/shannon/entropy/entropy.pdf</u>

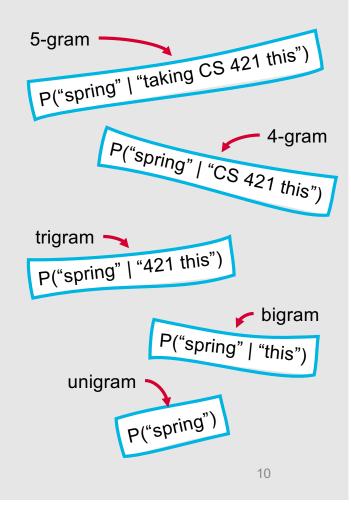
N-grams can be words, characters, or any other type of item in your language.

N-grams are interesting!

N-grams are interesting!

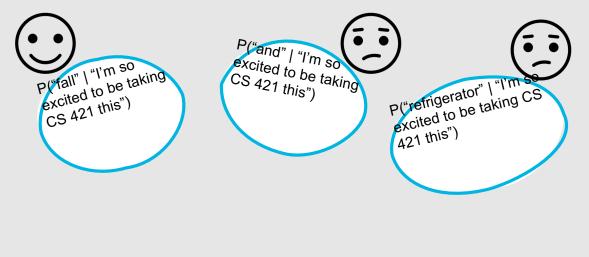
Special N-Grams

- Most higher-order (n>3) ngrams are simply referred to using the value of n
 - 4-gram
 - 5-gram
- However, lower-order ngrams are often referred to using special terms:
 - Unigram (1-gram)
 - Bigram (2-gram)
 - Trigram (3-gram)



N-Gram Language Models

- Goal: Predict P(word|history)
 - P("spring" | "I'm so excited to be taking CS 421 this")



Probabilities for n-gram language models come from corpus frequencies.

- Intuition:
 - 1. Take a large corpus
 - 2. Count the number of times you see the history
 - 3. Count the number of times the specified word follows the history

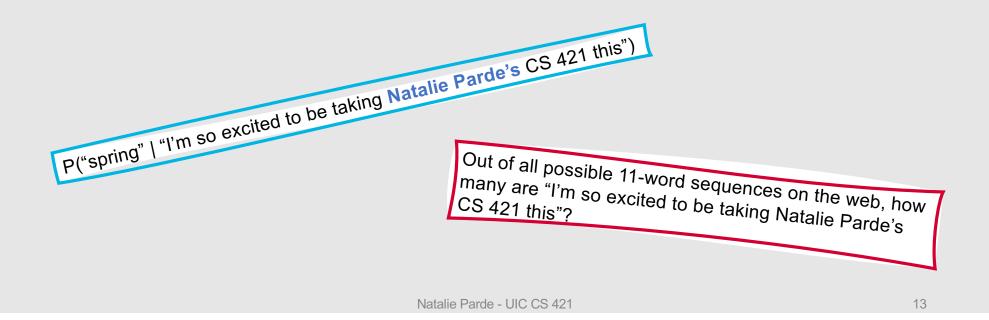
P("spring" | "I'm so excited to be taking CS 421 this")

= C("I'm so excited to be taking CS 421 this spring") / C("I'm so excited to be taking CS 421 this")



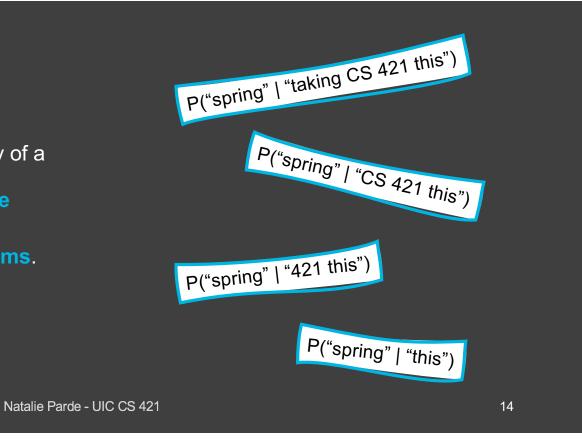
However, we don't necessarily want to consider our *entire* history.

- What if our history contains uncommon words?
- What if we have limited computing resources?



Better way of estimating P(word|history)

- Instead of computing the probability of a word given its entire history, approximate the history using the most recent few words.
- We do this using fixed-length n-grams.

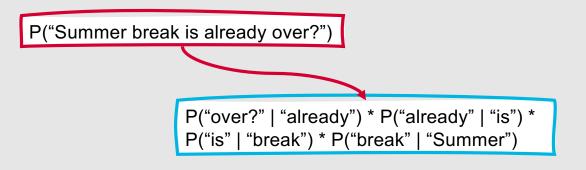


N-gram models follow the Markov assumption.

- We can predict the probability of some future unit without looking too far into the past
 - **Bigram language model:** Probability of a word depends only on the previous word
 - Trigram language model: Probability of a word depends only on the two previous words
 - N-gram language model: Probability of a word depends only on the n-1 previous words

More formally....

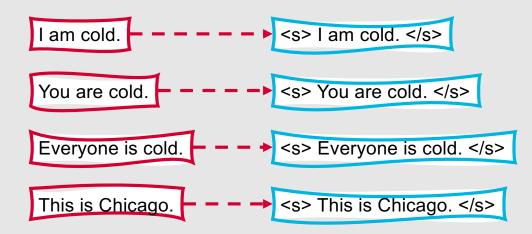
- $P(w_k | w_1^{k-1}) \approx P(w_k | w_{k-N+1}^{k-1})$
- We can then multiply these individual word probabilities together to get the probability of a word sequence
 - $P(w_1^n) \approx \prod_{k=1}^n P(w_k | w_{k-N+1}^{k-1})$

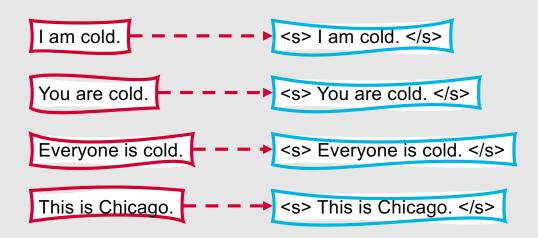


 To compute ngram gram probabilities, we can use maximum likelihood estimation.

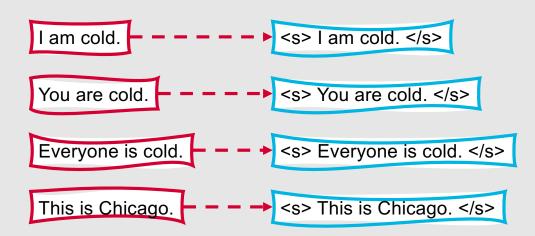
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 (MLE): N-gram frequency counts,
 normalized to a 0-1 range
 - $P(w_n | w_{n-1}) =$
 - # of occurrences of the bigram w_{n-1} w_n, divided by
 - # of occurrences of the unigram w_{n-1}





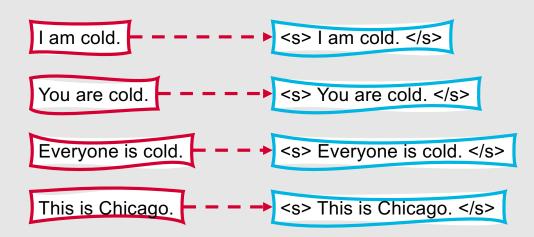


Bigram	Frequency
<s> </s>	1
l am	1
am cold.	1
cold.	3
is Chicago.	1
Chicago.	1



Bigram	Freq.
<s> </s>	1
lam	1
am cold.	1
cold.	3
is Chicago.	1
Chicago.	1

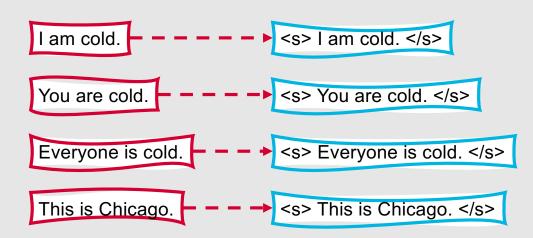
Unigram	Freq.
<\$>	4
I	1
am	1
cold.	3
Chicago.	1
	4



Bigram	Freq.
<s> </s>	1
lam	1
am cold.	1
cold.	3
is Chicago.	1
Chicago.	1

Unigram	Freq.
<\$>	4
I	1
am	1
cold.	3
Chicago.	1
	4

P("I" | "<s>") = C("<s> I") / C("<s>") = 1 / 4 = 0.25

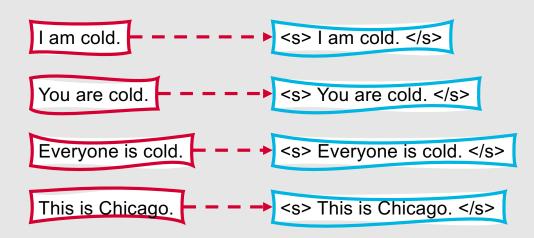


Bigram	Freq.
<s> </s>	1
lam	1
am cold.	1
cold.	3
is Chicago.	1
Chicago.	1

Unigram	Freq.
<\$>	4
I	1
am	1
cold.	3
Chicago.	1
	4

P("I" | "<s>") = C("<s> I") / C("<s>") = 1 / 4 = 0.25

P("</s>" | "cold.") = C("cold. </s>") / C("cold.") = 3 / 3 = 1.00



Bigram	Freq.
<s> </s>	1
lam	1
am cold.	1
cold.	3
is Chicago.	1
Chicago.	1

Unigram	Freq.
<s></s>	4
I	1
am	1
cold.	3
Chicago.	1
	4

$$P("I" | "~~") = C("~~I") / C("~~") = 1 / 4 = 0.25~~~~~~$$

$$P("" | "cold.") = C("cold. ") / C("cold.") = 3 / 3 = 1.00$$

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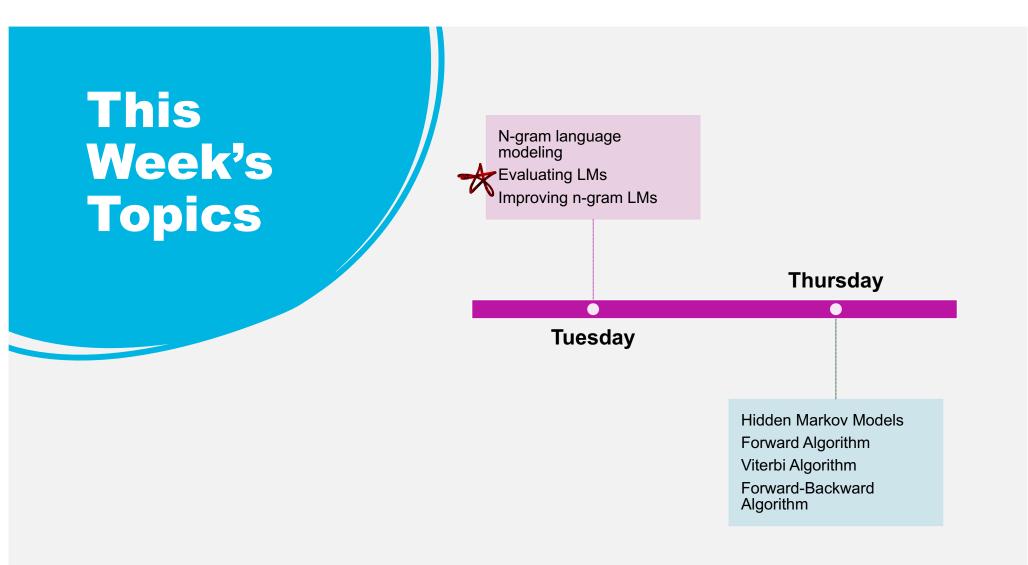
<text>

- Syntactic information
 - Do nouns often follow verbs?
 - Do verbs usually follow specific unigrams?
- Task-relevant information
 - Is it likely that virtual assistants will hear the word "I" in a user's input?
- Cultural or sociological information
 - What phrases are common in articles written by university professors? (How does that vary from phrases in articles written by undergraduate students?)

Which type of ngram is best?

- In general, the highest-order value of *n* that your data can support
- Sparsity increases with order, and sparse feature vectors are not very useful when training statistical models
- Make sure that your dataset is large enough to handle your selected n-gram size
- We can usually determine this by running experiments on the same data with different n-gram sizes and figuring out which size leads to the best results
- For a deep dive into statistical power in NLP experiments, check out the following paper:
 - With Little Power Comes Great Responsibility, by Dallas Card et al.: <u>https://aclanthology.org/2020.emnlp-main.745/</u>





We've learned how to build ngram language models, but how do we evaluate them?

- Two types of evaluation paradigms:
 - Extrinsic
 - Intrinsic
- Extrinsic evaluation: Embed the language model in an application, and compute changes in task performance
- Intrinsic evaluation: Measure the quality of the model, independent of any application

Perplexity

- Intrinsic evaluation metric for language models
- Perplexity (PP) of a language model on a test set is the inverse probability of the test set, normalized by the number of words in the test set



More formally....



- $PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2...w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1...w_{i-1})}}$
 - Where *W* is a test set containing words *w*₁, *w*₂, ..., *w*_n
 - History size depends on n-gram size
 - $P(w_i|w_{i-1})$ vs $P(w_i|w_{i-2}w_{i-1})$, etc.
- Higher conditional probability of a word sequence \rightarrow lower perplexity
 - Minimizing perplexity = maximizing test set probability according to the language model

Training Set		
Word	Frequency	
CS	10	
421	10	
Statistical	10	
Natural	10	
Language	10	
Processing	10	
University	10	
of	10	
Illinois	10	
Chicago	10	

Training Set		
Word	Frequency	
CS	10	
421	10	
Statistical	10	
Natural	10	
Language	10	
Processing	10	
University	10	
of	10	
Illinois	10	
Chicago	10	

Test String

CS 421 Statistical Natural Language Processing University of Illinois Chicago

Training Set		
Word	Frequency	
CS	10	
421	10	
Statistical	10	
Natural	10	
Language	10	
Processing	10	
University	10	
of	10	
Illinois	10	
Chicago	10	

Test String

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$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

Training Set			
Word	Frequency		
CS	10		
421	10		
Statistical	10		
Natural	10		
Language	10		
Processing	10		
University	10		
of	10		
Illinois	10		
Chicago	10		

Test String

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$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

Training Set				
Word		Fred	quency	
CS		10		
421		10	5	
Statistica	I	10		
Natural		10		
Language	e	10		
Processir	ng	10		
University	/	10		
of		10		
Illinois		10		
Chicago		10		

Test String

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$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

P("CS") = C("CS") / C(<all unigrams>) = 10/100 = 0.1 P("421") = C("421") / C(<all unigrams>) = 10/100 = 0.1

Training Set				
Word	Frequency	P(Word)		
CS	10	0.1		
421	10	0.1		
Statistical	10	0.1		
Natural	10	0.1		
Language	10	0.1		
Processing	10	0.1		
University	10	0.1		
of	10	0.1		
Illinois	10	0.1		
Chicago	10	0.1		

Test String

CS 421 Statistical Natural Language Processing University of Illinois Chicago

$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

Training Set								
Word	Nord Frequency P(Word)							
CS	10	0.1						
421	10	0.1						
Statistical	10	0.1						
Natural	10	0.1						
Language	10	0.1						
Processing	10	0.1						
University	10	0.1						
of	10	0.1						
Illinois	10	0.1						
Chicago	10	0.1						

Test String

CS 421 Statistical Natural Language Processing University of Illinois Chicago

$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

PP("CS 421 Statistical Natural Language Processing University of Illinois Chicago")

Training Set						
Word	Frequency	P(Word)				
CS	1					
421	1					
Statistical	1					
Natural	1					
Language	1					
Processing	1					
University	1					
of	1					
Illinois	1					
Chicago	91					

Test String

Illinois Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago

$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

Training Set								
Word	Word Frequency P(Word)							
CS	1	0.01						
421	1	0.01						
Statistical	1	0.01						
Natural	1	0.01						
Language	1	0.01						
Processing	1	0.01						
University	1	0.01						
of	1	0.01						
Illinois	1	0.01						
Chicago	91	0.91						

Test String

Illinois Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago

$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

Training Set						
Word	Frequency	P(Word)				
CS	1	0.01				
421	1	0.01				
Statistical	1	0.01				
Natural	1	0.01				
Language	1	0.01				
Processing	1	0.01				
University	1	0.01				
of	1	0.01				
Illinois	1	0.01				
Chicago	91	0.91				

Training Sat

Test String

Illinois Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago

$$PP(W) = \sqrt[n]{\frac{1}{P(w_1w_2\dots w_n)}} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{P(w_i|w_1\dots w_{i-1})}}$$

PP("Illinois Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago Chicago ")



Perplexity can be used to compare different language models.

Which language model is best?

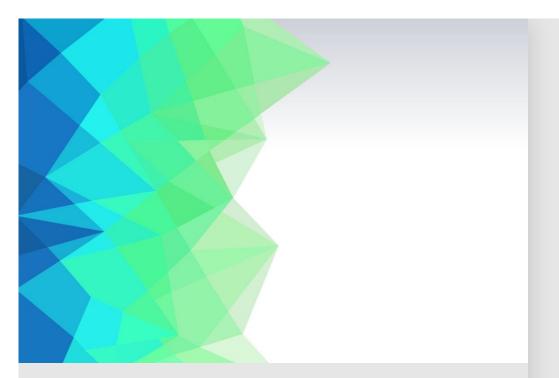
- Model A: Perplexity = 962
- Model B: Perplexity = 170
- Model C: Perplexity = 109



Perplexity can be used to compare different language models.

Which language model is best?

- Model A: Perplexity = 962
- Model B: Perplexity = 170
 Model C: Perplexity = 109



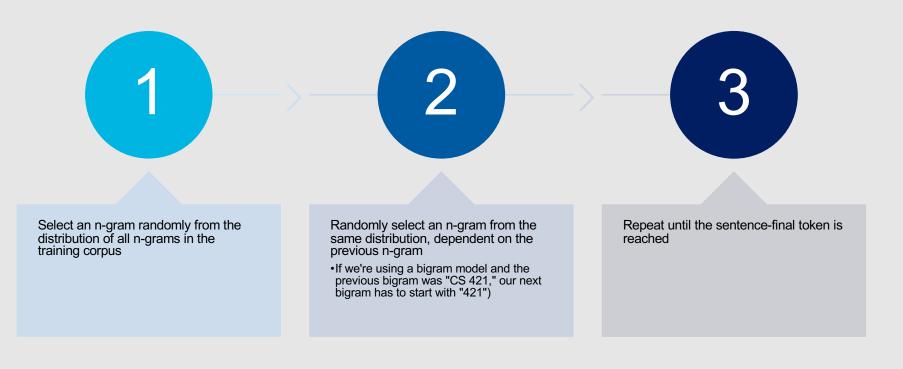
What kind of perplexity scores are state-of-theart language models reaching?

- Depends on the dataset
- Recently, as low as:
 - ~10 on WikiText-103: <u>https://paperswithcode.com/sota/</u> <u>language-modelling-on-wikitext-</u> <u>103</u>
 - ~20-30 on Penn Treebank (Word Level): <u>https://paperswithcode.com/sota/</u> <u>language-modelling-on-penn-</u> <u>treebank-word</u>

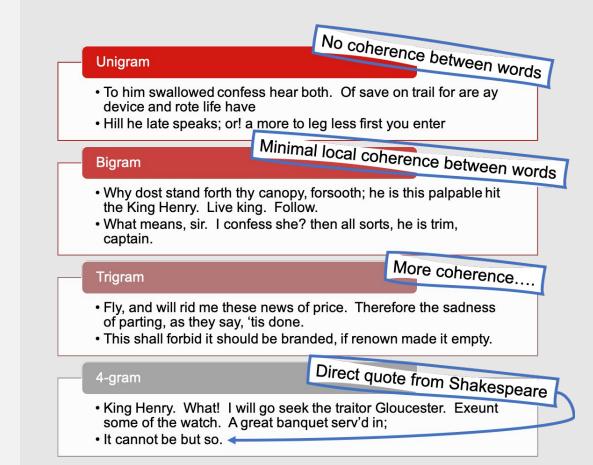
A cautionary note....

- Improvements in perplexity do not guarantee improvements in task performance!
- However, the two are often correlated (and perplexity is quicker and easier to check)
- Strong language model evaluations also include an extrinsic evaluation component

How can we generate text using an ngram language model?



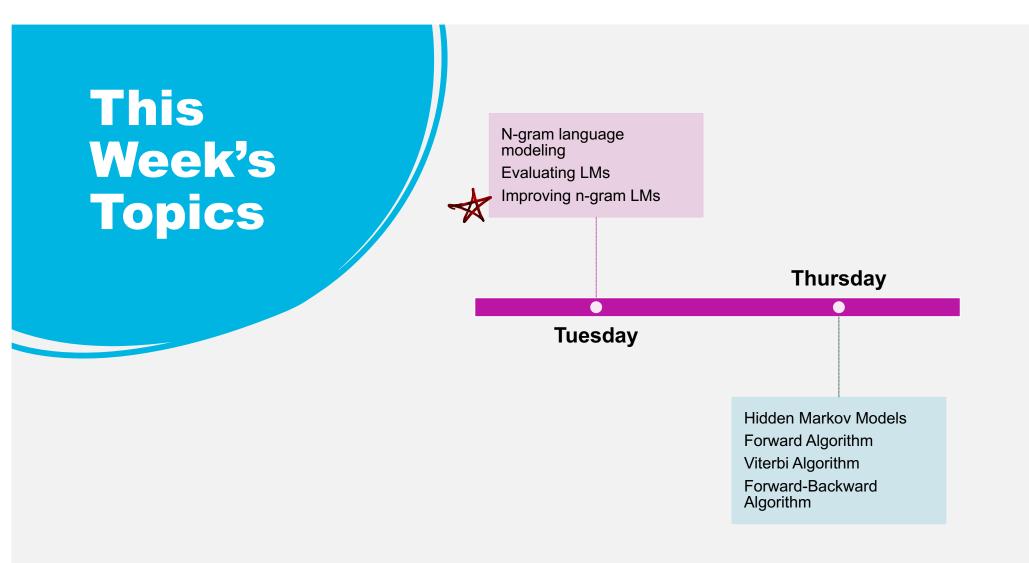
N-gram size affects generation output!



Why were we generating verbatim Shakespeare text with a 4gram language model?

0

- The corpus of all Shakespearean text is relatively small (by modern NLP standards)
- This means higher-order n-gram matrices are sparse:
 - Only five possible continuations for "It cannot be but" ("that," "I," "he," "thou," and "so")
 - Probability for all other continuations is assumed to be zero



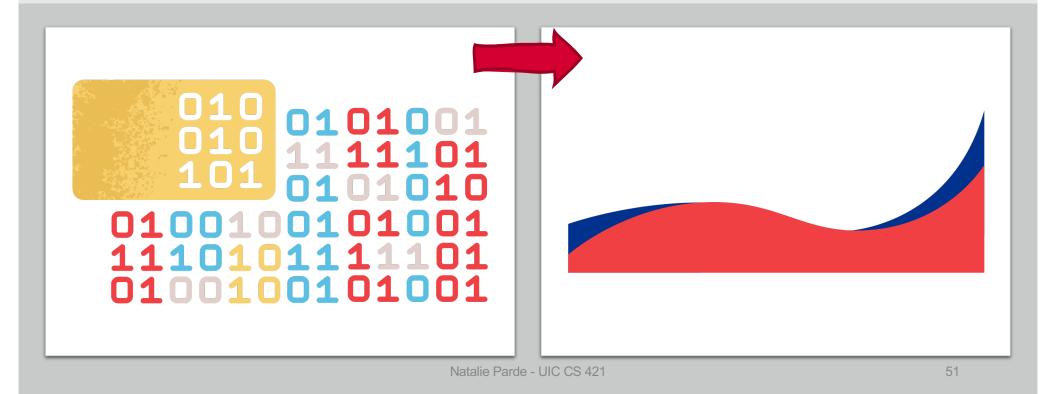
"Zero" probabilities create challenges for language models.

- Zero probabilities occur in two different scenarios:
 - Unknown words (out-of-vocabulary words)
 - Known words in unseen contexts
- Language is varied and often unpredictable – few combinations are *truly* impossible
- Zero probabilities also interfere with perplexity calculations

Modeling Unknown Words

- Add a pseudoword <UNK> to the vocabulary
- Then....
 - Option A:
 - Choose a fixed words list
 - · Convert any words not in that list to <UNK>
 - · Estimate the probabilities for <UNK> like any other word
 - Option B:
 - Replace all words occurring fewer than n times with <UNK>
 - Estimate the probabilities for <UNK> like any other word
 - Option C:
 - · Replace the first occurrence of each word with <UNK>
 - Estimate the probabilities for <UNK> like any other word
- Beware: If <UNK> ends up with a high probability (e.g., because you have a small vocabulary), your language model will have artificially lower perplexity!
 - Make sure to compare to other language models using the same vocabulary to avoid gaming this metric

We can handle known words in previously unseen contexts by applying smoothing techniques.



Smoothing

- Taking a bit of the probability mass from more frequent events and giving it to unseen events.
 - · Sometimes also called "discounting"
- Many different smoothing techniques:
 - Laplace (add-one)
 - Add-k
 - Stupid backoff
 - Kneser-Ney

Bigram	Frequency	Bigram	Frequency
CS 421	8	CS 421	7
CS 590	5	CS 590	5
CS 594	2	CS 594	2
CS 521	0 😢	CS 521	1 🖊 🕰

Laplace Smoothing

- Add one to all n-gram counts before they are normalized into probabilities
- Not the highest-performing technique, but a useful baseline
 - Practical method for other text classification tasks

•
$$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \rightarrow P_{\text{Laplace}}(w_i) = \frac{c_i+1}{N+V}$$

Corpus	Statist	tics:
--------	---------	-------

Unigram	Frequency
Chicago	4
is	8
cold	6
hot	0

	•
Frequency	
2	
4	
0	
0	
	2 4

	<u> </u>					
) (Unigram	Frequency	Bigram	Frequency	
	(Chicago	4	Chicago is	2	
Corpus Statistics:	ר ו ו	S	8	is cold	4	
	C	cold	6	is hot	0	
	ł	not	0		0	
	l	Unigram	Probability	Bigram	Probability	
	C	Chicago	$\frac{4}{18} = 0.22$	Chicago is		
$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N}$				is cold		
N N	$\boldsymbol{1}$	S	$\frac{8}{18} = 0.44$	is hot		
	c	cold	$\frac{6}{18} = 0.33$			
	ł	not	$\frac{0}{18} = 0.00$			
	C	Natalie Parde	- UIC CS 421		5	55

	(
		Unigram	Frequency	Bigram	Frequency
		Chicago	4	Chicago is	2
Corpus Statistics:	-≺	is	8	is cold	4
		cold	6	is hot	0
		hot	0		0
		-			
	(Unigram	Probability	Bigram	Probability
		Chicago	$\frac{4}{18} = 0.22$	Chicago is	$\frac{2}{4} = 0.50$
$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N}$	\prec	is	$\frac{8}{18} = 0.44$	is cold	$\frac{4}{8} = 0.50$
		cold	$\frac{6}{18} = 0.33$	is hot	$\frac{0}{8} = 0.00$
		hot	$\frac{0}{18} = 0.00$		
		Natalie Par	de - UIC CS 421		56

	6		_	D	-
		Unigram	Frequency	Bigram	Frequency
		Chicago	4	Chicago is	2
Corpus Statistics:	≺	is	8	is cold	4
		cold	6	is hot	0
		hot	0		0
		Unigram	Probability	Bigram	Probability
		Chicago		Chicago is	
<i>c</i> , <i>c</i> , <i>c</i> , <i>t</i> ,	J	is		is cold	
$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \rightarrow P_{\text{Laplace}}(w_i) = \frac{c_i+1}{N+V}$	1	cold		is hot	
		hot			
		Natalie Pare	de - UIC CS 421		57

	(_		
		Unigram	Frequency		Bigram	Frequency
		Chicago	4+1		Chicago is	2+1
Corpus Statistics:	\prec	is	8+1		is cold	4+1
		cold	6+1		is hot	0+1
		hot	0+1			0+1
		Unigram	Probability		Bigram	Probability
		Chicago			Chicago is	
<i>c</i> , <i>c</i> , ± 1	J	is			is cold	
$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \rightarrow P_{\text{Laplace}}(w_i) = \frac{c_i+1}{N+V}$	$\boldsymbol{\boldsymbol{1}}$	cold			is hot	
		hot				
			rde - UIC CS 421			58

	5	Unigram	Frequency	Bigram	Frequency
Corpus Statistics:		Chicago	4+1	Chicago is	2+1
		is	8+1	is cold	4+1
		cold	6+1	is hot	0+1
		hot	0+1		0+1
$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \rightarrow P_{\text{Laplace}}(w_i) = \frac{c_i+1}{N+V}$		Unigram	Probability	Bigram	Probability
		Chicago	$\frac{5}{22} = 0.23$	Chicago is	
	J	ie	$\frac{9}{22} = 0.41$	is cold	
	1	is		is hot	
		cold	$\frac{7}{22} = 0.32$		
		hot	$\frac{1}{22} = 0.05$		
			e - UIC CS 421		59

	Corpu	s Statistics:	
/	Bigram	Frequency	
	Chicago Chicago	0+1	\mathbf{i}
	Chicago is	2+1	
	Chicago cold	0+1	
	Chicago hot	0+1	
	$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \to P_{\text{Laplace}}$	$_{ce}(w_i) = \frac{c_i + 1}{N + V}$	

Unigram	Frequency
Chicago	4
is	8
cold	6
hot	0

Unigram	Probability
Chicago	$\frac{5}{22} = 0.23$
is	$\frac{9}{22} = 0.41$
cold	$\frac{7}{22} = 0.32$
hot	$\frac{1}{22} = 0.05$

Bigram	Frequency	
Chicago is	2+1	
is cold	4+1	
is hot	0+1	
	0+1	
		\langle

Bigram	Probability	
Chicago is	$\frac{3}{4+4} = \frac{3}{8} = 0.38$	
is cold	$\frac{5}{8+4} = \frac{5}{12} = 0.42$	
is hot	$\frac{1}{8+4} = \frac{1}{12} = 0.08$	

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Probabilities: Before and After

Bigram	Probability
Chicago is	$\frac{2}{4} = 0.50$
is cold	$\frac{4}{8} = 0.50$
is hot	$\frac{0}{8} = 0.00$
Bigram	Probability
Chicago is	$\frac{3}{8} = 0.38$
is cold	$\frac{5}{12} = 0.42$
is hot	$\frac{1}{12} = 0.08$

Add-K Smoothing

- Moves a bit less of the probability mass from seen to unseen events
- Rather than adding one to each count, add a fractional count (e.g., 0.5 or 0.01)

•
$$P(w_i) = \frac{c_i}{N} \rightarrow P_{\text{Add}-K}(w_i) = \frac{c_i+k}{N+kV}$$

• $P(w_n|w_{n-1}) = \frac{c(w_{n-1}w_n)}{c(w_{n-1})} \rightarrow P_{\text{Add}-K}(w_n|w_{n-1}) = \frac{\frac{c(w_{n-1}w_n)+k}{c(w_{n-1})+kV}}{c(w_{n-1})+kV}$

• This smoothing technique is more customizable: the value *k* can be optimized on a portion of the dataset

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Add-K smoothing is useful for some tasks, but still tends to be suboptimal for language modeling.

- Other smoothing techniques?
 - **Backoff:** Use the specified n-gram size to estimate probability if its count is greater than 0; otherwise, *backoff* to a smaller-size n-gram until you reach a size with non-zero counts
 - Interpolation: Mix the probability estimates from multiple n-gram sizes, weighing and combining the n-gram counts



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Katz Backoff

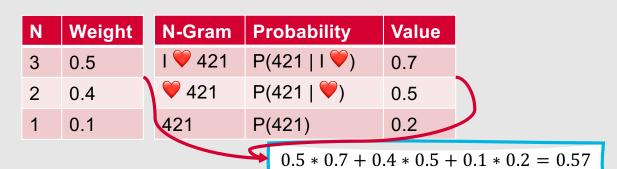
- Incorporate a function $\dot{\alpha}$ to distribute probability mass to lower-order n-grams
- Rely on a discounted probability P* if the n-gram has non-zero counts
- Otherwise, recursively back off to the Katz probability for the (n-1)-gram —

•
$$P_{BO}(w_n | w_{n-N+1}^{n-1}) = \begin{cases} P^*(w_n | w_{n-N+1}^{n-1}), & \text{if } c(w_{n-N+1}^n) > 0 \\ \alpha(w_{n-N+1}^{n-1}) P_{BO}(w_n | w_{n-N+2}^{n-1}), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

+

0

Interpolation



Linear interpolation

- $P'(w_n|w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) = \lambda_1 P(w_n|w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) + \lambda_2 P(w_n|w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P(w_n)$ • Where $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$
 - where $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$

Conditional interpolation

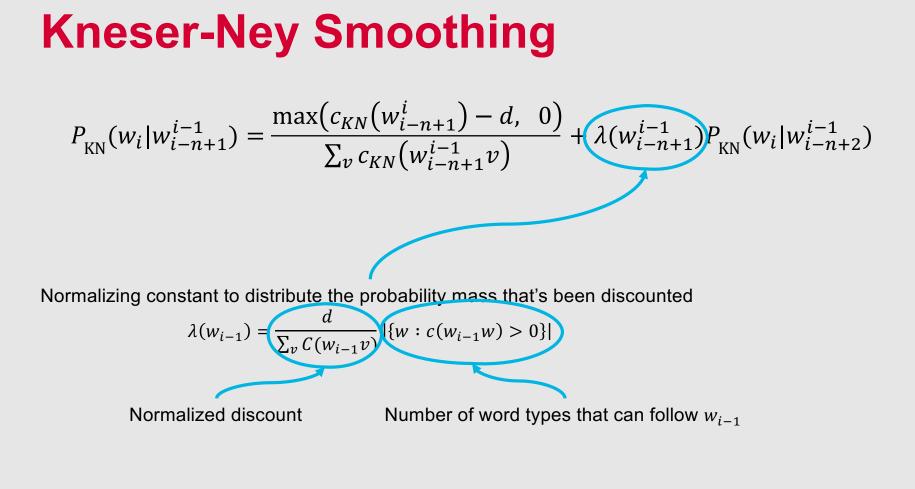
• $P'(w_n|w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) = \lambda_1(w_{n-2}^{n-1})P(w_n|w_{n-2}w_{n-1}) + \lambda_2(w_{n-2}^{n-1})P(w_n|w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3(w_{n-2}^{n-1})P(w_n)$

N-Gram	Probability	Value	Weight
I 💛 421	P(421 I 💛)	0.7	0.5
l / 421	P(421 I 🜲)	0.7	0.1

Context-conditioned weights

- Objective: Capture the intuition that although some lower-order n-grams are frequent, they are mainly *only frequent in specific contexts*
 - tall nonfat decaf peppermint
 - "york" is a more frequent unigram than "mocha" in most datasets, but it's mainly frequent when it follows the word "new"
- Creates a unigram model that estimates the probability of seeing the word *w* as a novel continuation, in a new unseen context
 - Based on the number of different contexts in which *w* has already appeared

$$P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}) = \frac{\max(c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^i) - d, 0)}{\sum_{v} c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}v)} + \lambda(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1})P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+2}^{i-1})$$



$$P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}) = \frac{\max(c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^i) - d, 0)}{\sum_{\nu} c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}\nu)} + \lambda(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1})P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+2}^{i-1})$$

Normalizing constant to distribute the probability mass that's been discounted

Regular count for the highest-order n-gram, or the number of unique single word contexts for lower-order n-grams

$$P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}) = \frac{\max(c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^i) - d, 0)}{\sum_{\nu} c_{\rm KN}(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1}\nu)} + \lambda(w_{i-n+1}^{i-1})P_{\rm KN}(w_i|w_{i-n+2}^{i-1})$$

Normalizing constant to distribute the probability mass that's been discounted

Regular count for the highest-order n-gram, or the number of unique single word contexts for lower-order n-grams

Discounted n-gram probability ... when the recursion terminates, unigrams are interpolated with the uniform distribution (ε = empty string)

$$P_{KN}(w) = \frac{\max(c_{KN}(w) - d, 0)}{\sum_{w'} c_{KN}(w')} + \lambda(\varepsilon) \frac{1}{V}$$

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Stupid Backoff

- Doesn't even try to make the language model a true probability distribution ^(c) (so doesn't discount higher-order probabilities)
- If a higher-order n-gram has a zero count, backs off to a lowerorder n-gram, weighted by a fixed weight

•
$$S(w_i|w_{i-k+1}^{i-1}) = \begin{cases} \frac{c(w_{i-k+1}^i)}{c(w_{i-k+1}^{i-1})} & \text{if } c(w_{i-k+1}^i) > 0\\ \lambda S(w_i|w_{i-k+2}^{i-1}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Terminates in the unigram, which has the probability:

•
$$S(w) = \frac{c(w)}{N}$$

Generally, 0.4 works well (Brants et al., 2007)

Summary: Language Modeling with N-Grams

- N-grams: Sequences of *n* items (e.g., characters or words)
- Language models: Statistical models of language based on observed word or character cooccurrences
- N-gram probabilities can be computed using maximum likelihood estimation
- Language models can be intrinsically evaluated using perplexity
- Unknown words can be handled using <UNK> tokens
- Known words in unseen contexts can be handled using smoothing

Hidden Markov Models



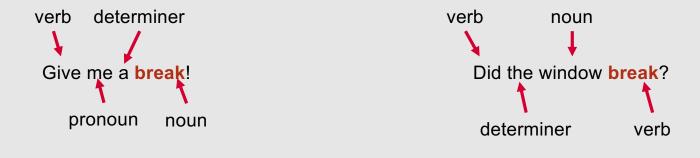
Sequence Labeling

- N-gram language modeling is one way to model sequences of language input
- We can also perform **sequence labeling** by assigning labels to individual tokens or spans of tokens given a longer input string



Sequence Labeling

• Objective: Find the label for the next item, based on the labels of other items in the sequence.



Why perform sequence labeling?

- In document-level text classification, models assume that the individual datapoints being classified are disconnected and independent
- Many NLP problems do not satisfy this assumption! Instead, they involve
 - Interconnected, mutually dependent decisions
 - Each of which resolve different ambiguities

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Example Sequence Labeling Applications

- Named entity recognition
- Semantic role labeling

person

organization

Natalie Parde works at the University of Illinois at Chicago and lives in Chicago, Illinois.

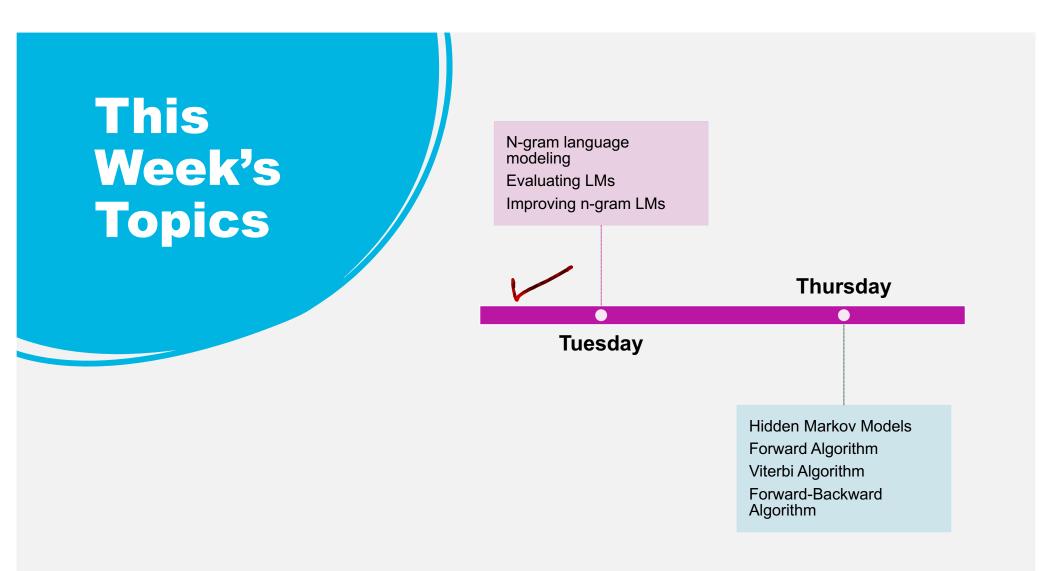
location

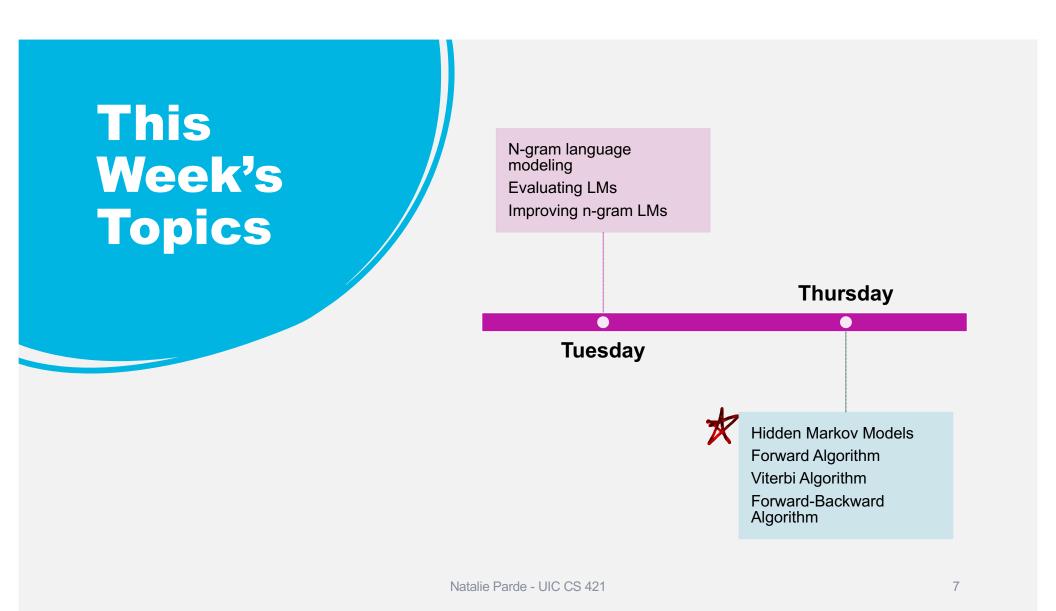
agent

source destination

Natalie drove for 15 hours from **Dallas** to **Chicago** in her hail-damaged **Honda Accord**.

instrument





Probabilistic Sequence Models

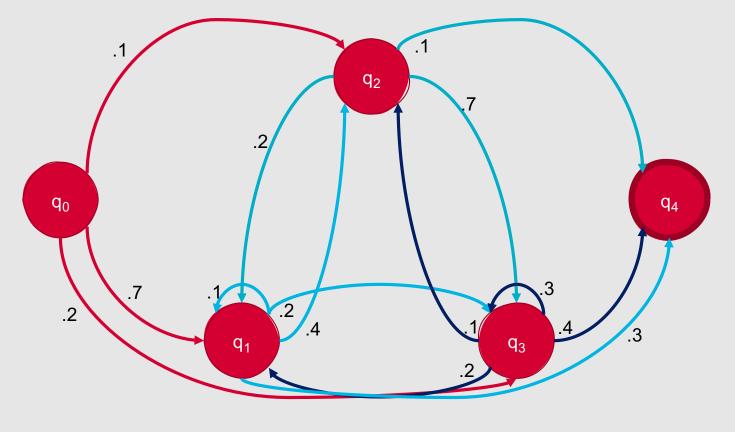
- We can perform multiple, interdependent classifications to address a greater problem using probabilistic sequence models
- Models that build upon principles used to develop finite state automata are known as hidden Markov models
- Hidden Markov models are **probabilistic generative models for sequences** that make predictions based on an underlying set of **hidden states**

What are Markov Models?

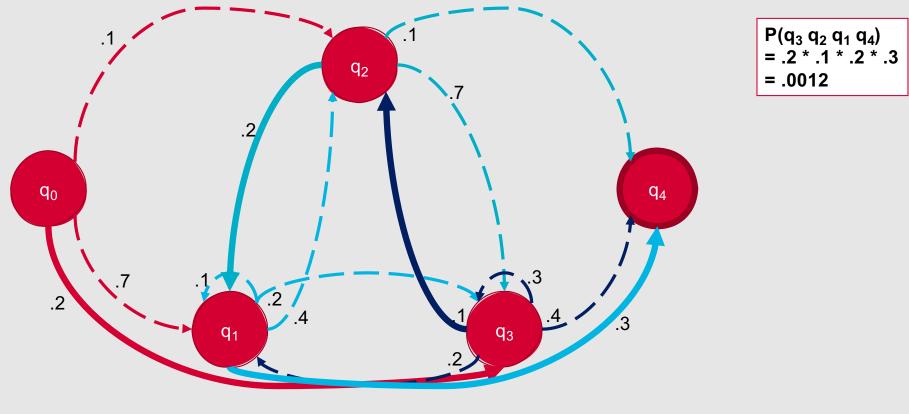
• Finite state automata with probabilistic state transitions

- Markov Property: The future is independent of the past, given the present.
 - In other words, the next state only depends on the current state ... it is independent of previous history.
- Also referred to as Markov Chains

Sample Markov Model



Sample Markov Model

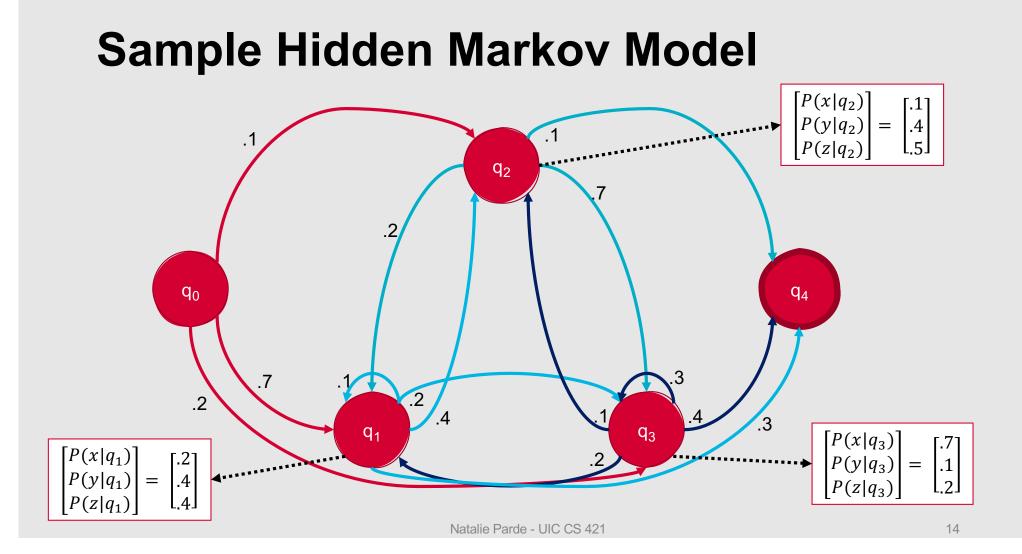


Hidden Markov Models

- Markov models that assume an underlying set of hidden (unobserved) states in which the model can be
- Assume probabilistic transitions between states over time
- Assume probabilistic generation of items (e.g., tokens) from states

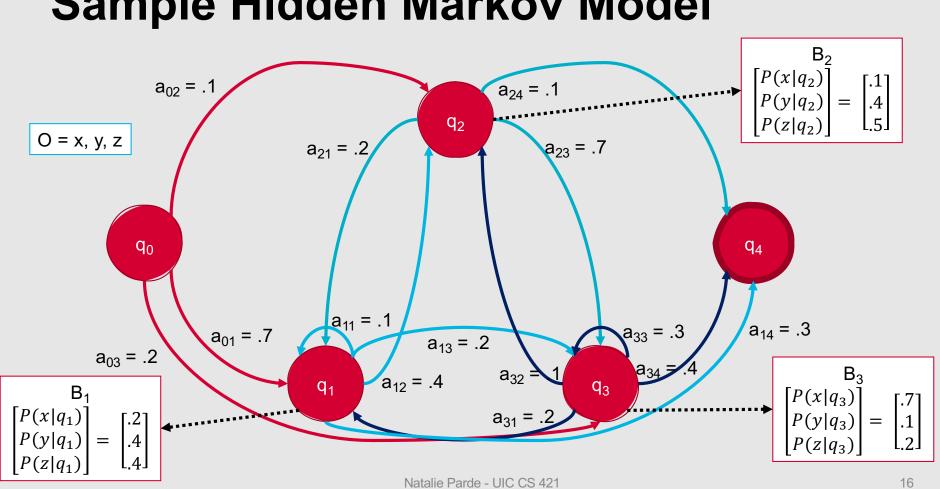
Formal Definition

- A Hidden Markov Model can be specified by enumerating the following properties:
 - The set of states, Q
 - A sequence of observation likelihoods, *B*, also called emission probabilities, each expressing the probability of an observation being generated from a state *i*
 - A start state, q_0 , and final state, q_F , that are not associated with observations

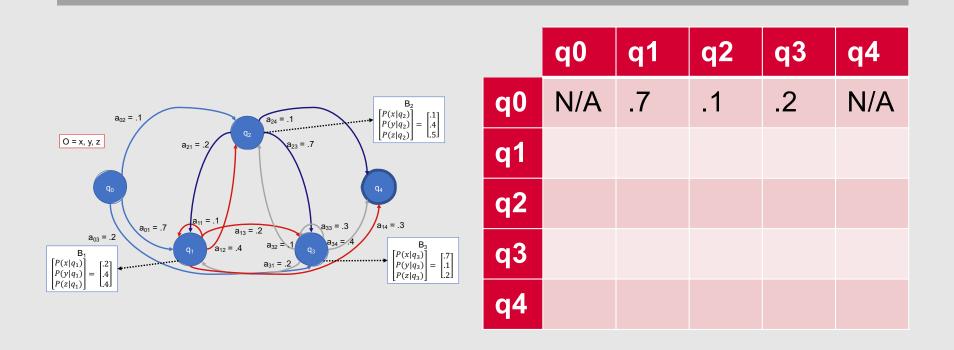


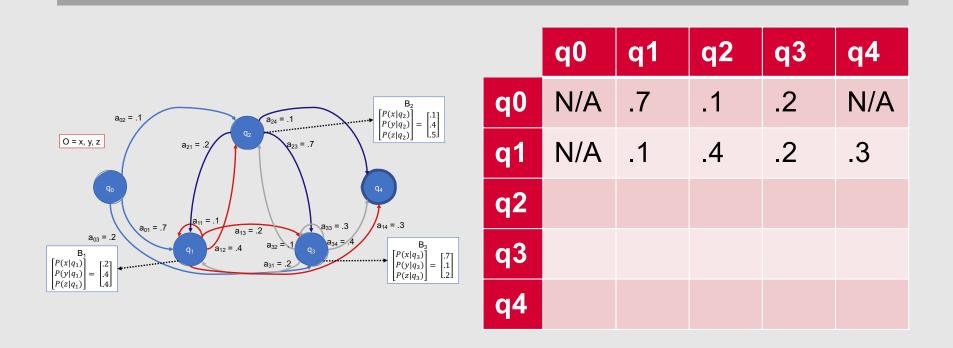
Formal Definition

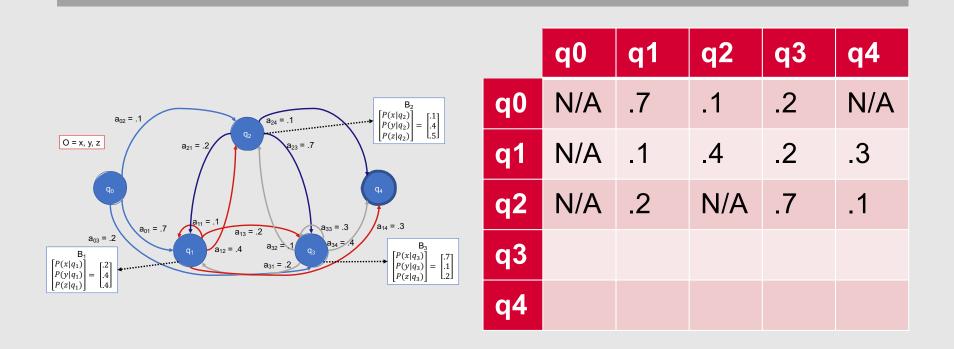
- A Hidden Markov Model can be specified by enumerating the following properties:
 - The set of states, Q
 - A sequence of observation likelihoods, *B*, also called emission probabilities, each expressing the probability of an observation o_t being generated from a state *i*
 - A start state, *q*₀, and final state, *q*_F, that are not associated with observations, together with transition probabilities out of *q*₀ and into *q*_F
 - A transition probability matrix, *A*, where each a_{ij} represents the probability of moving from state *i* to state *j*, such that ∑ⁿ_{j=1} a_{ij} = 1 ∀*i*
 - A sequence of T observations, **O**, each drawn from a vocabulary V = v_1 , v_2 , ..., v_V

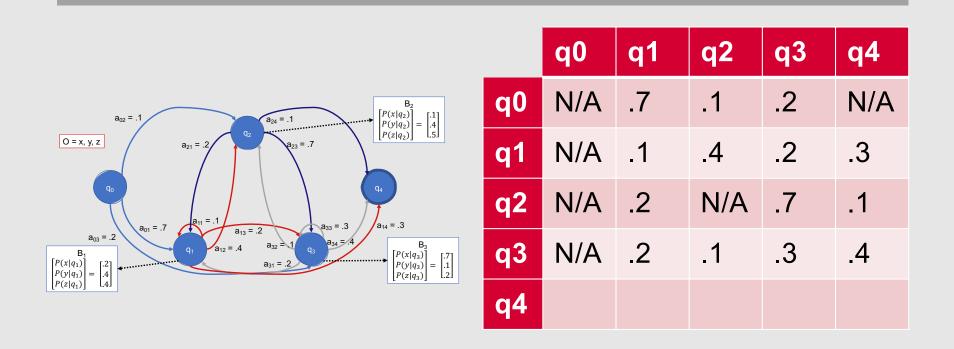


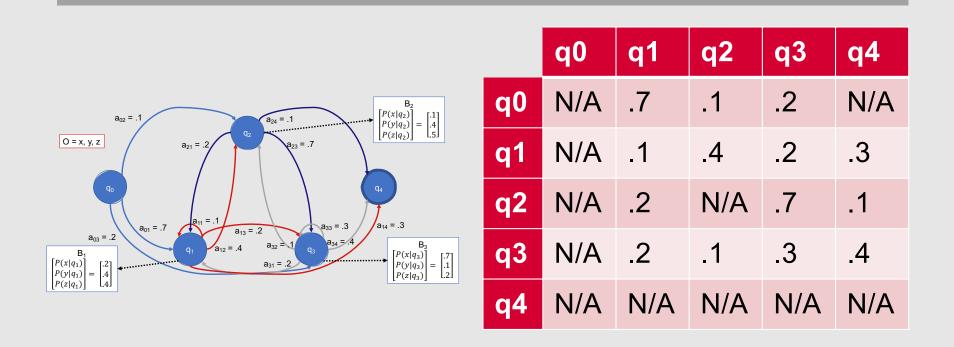
Sample Hidden Markov Model











HMMs can also be used for probabilistic text generation!

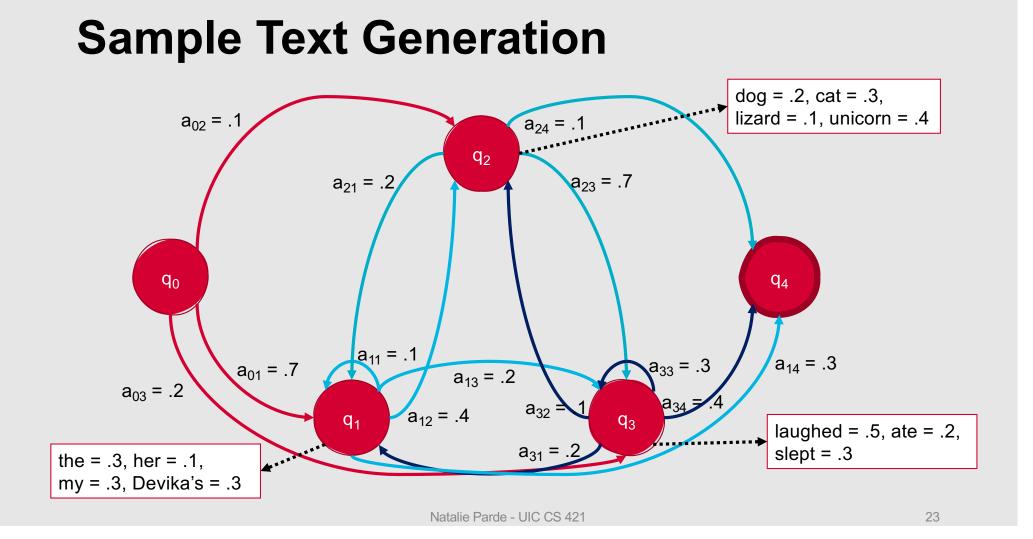
 More generally, you can use an HMM to generate a sequence of T observations: O = o₁, o₂, ..., o_T

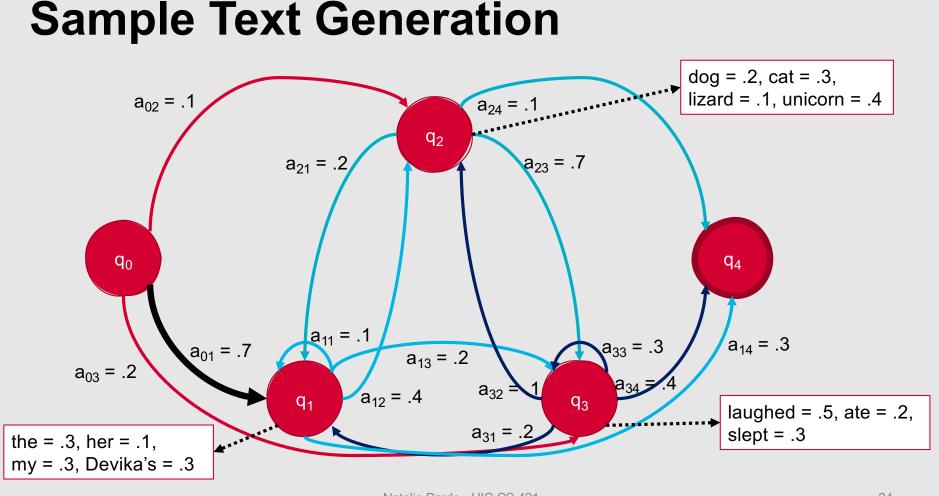
Begin in the start state

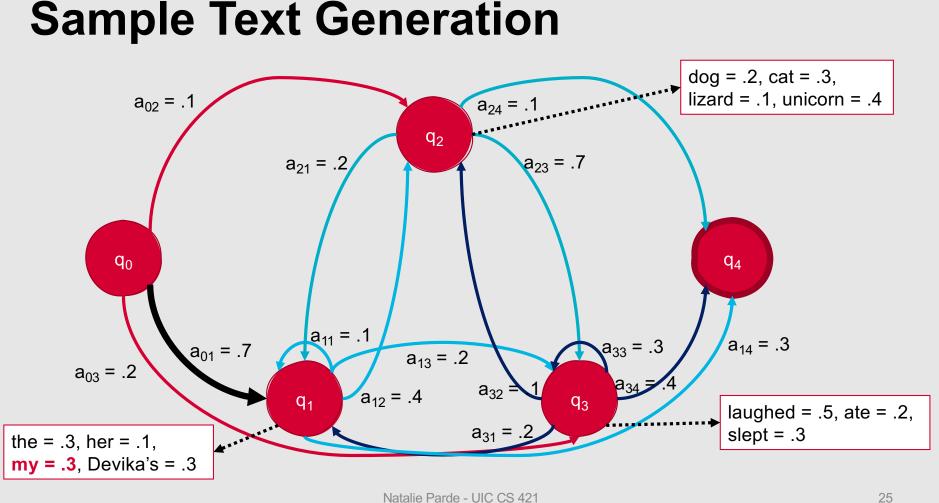
For t in [0, ..., T]:

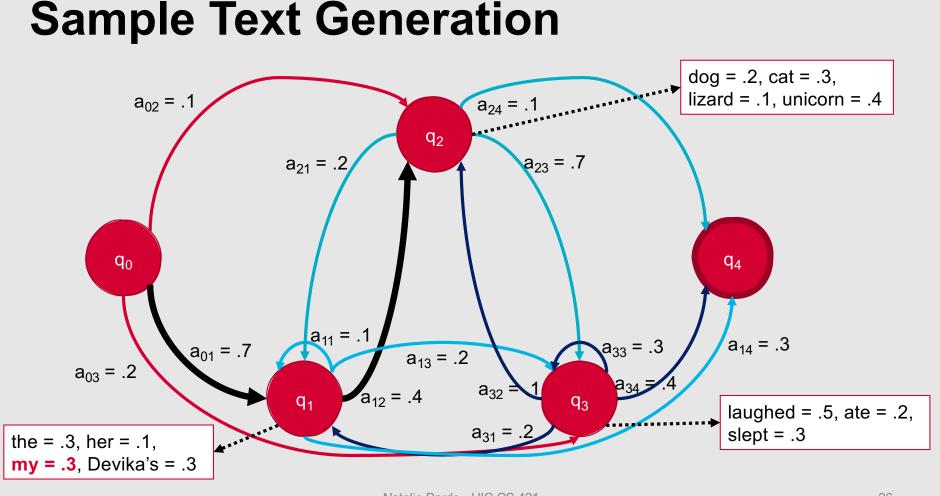
Randomly select a new state based on the transition distribution for the current state

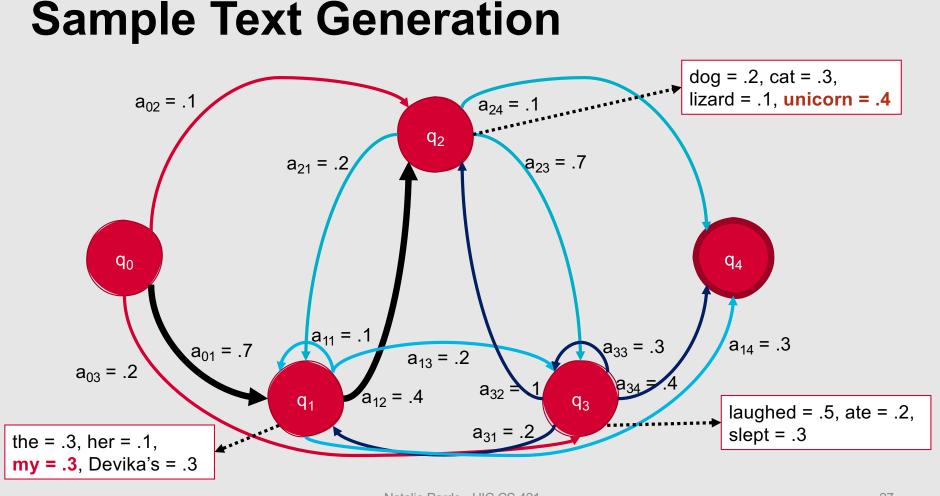
Randomly select an observation from the new state based on the observation distribution for that state

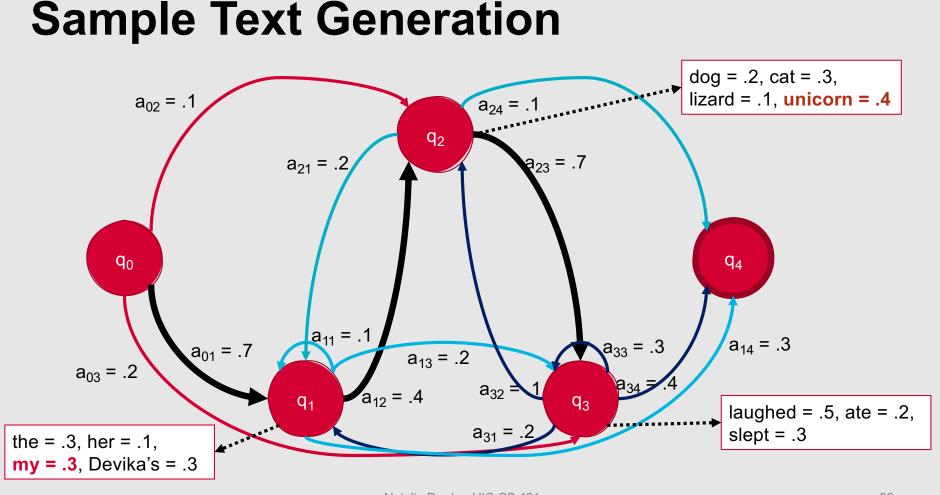


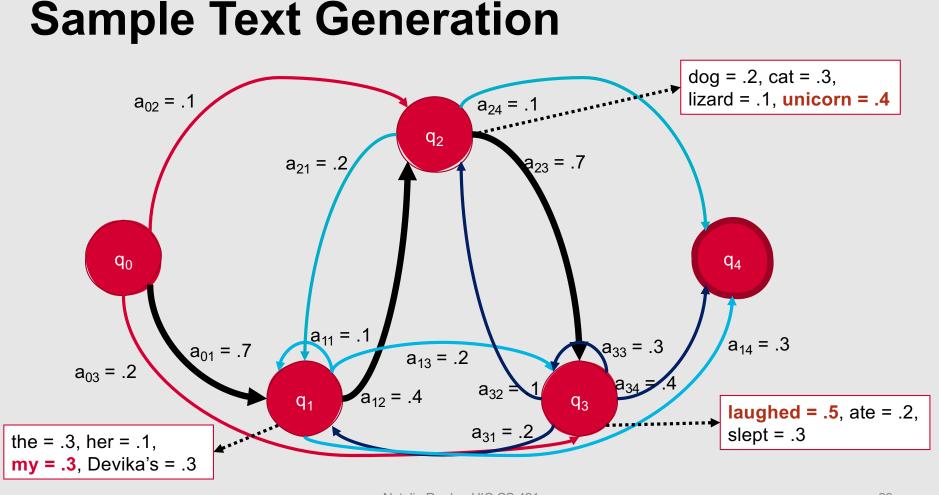


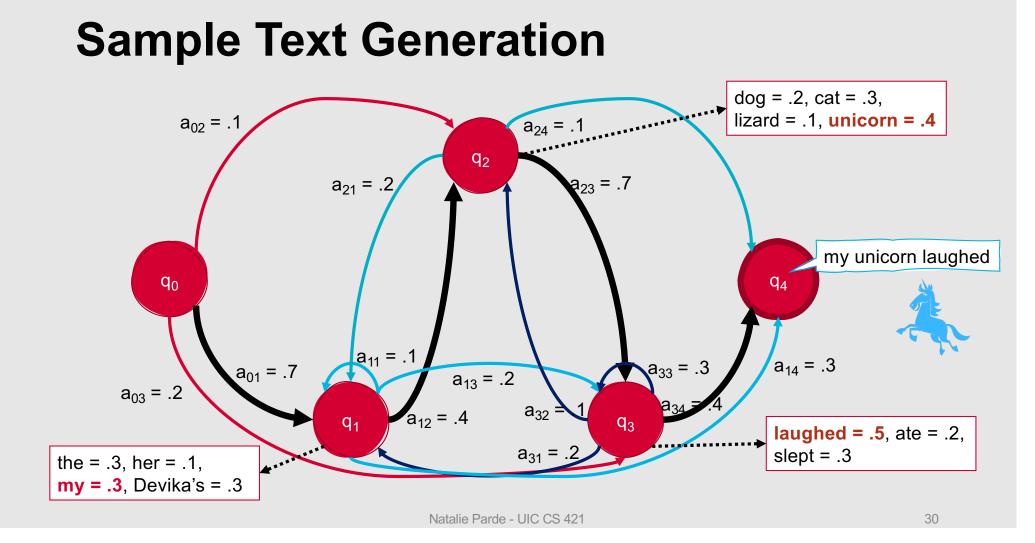






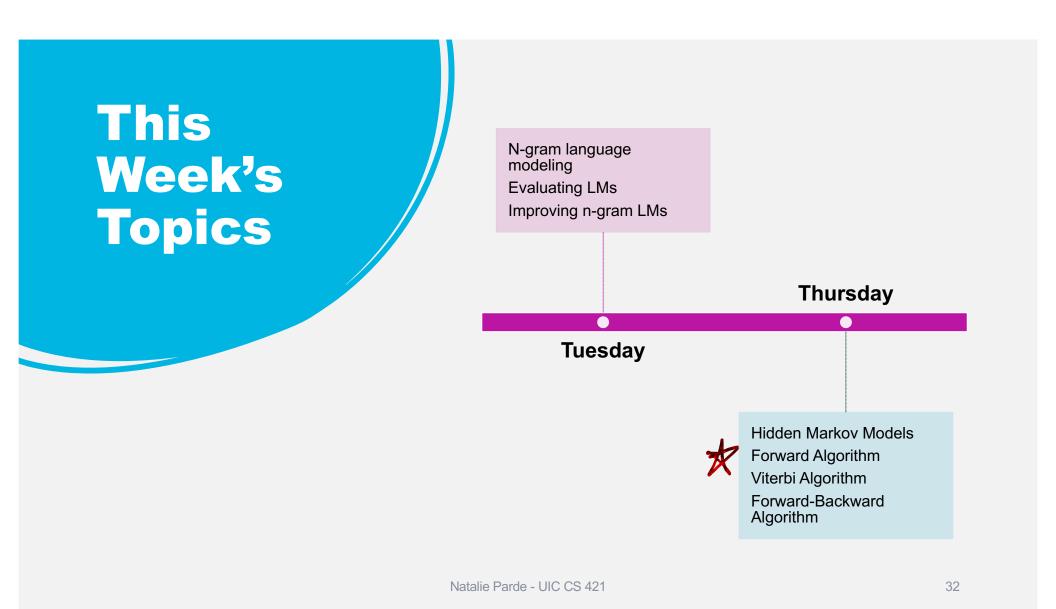






Three Fundamental HMM Problems

- Observation Likelihood: How likely is a particular observation sequence to occur?
- Decoding: What is the best sequence of hidden states for an observed sequence?
 - What is the best sequence of labels for our test data?
- Learning: What are the transition probabilities and observation likelihoods that best fit the observation sequence and HMM states?
 - How do we empirically fit our training data?

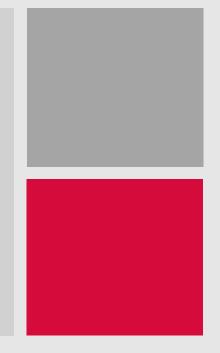


Observation Likelihood

- Given a sequence of observations and an HMM, what is the probability that this sequence was generated by the model?
- Useful for two tasks:
 - Sequence
 classification
 - Selecting the most likely sequence

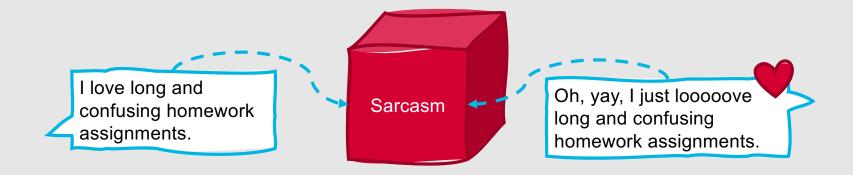
Sequence Classification

- Assuming an HMM is available for every possible class, what is the most likely class for a given observation sequence?
 - Which HMM is most likely to have generated the sequence?



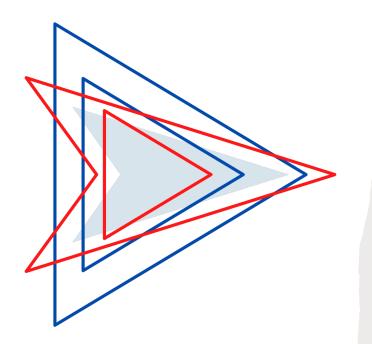
Most Likely Sequence

• Of two or more possible sequences, which one was most likely generated by a given HMM?



How can we compute the observation likelihood?

- Naïve Solution:
 - Consider all possible state sequences, Q, of length T that the model, λ , could have traversed in generating the given observation sequence, O
 - Compute the probability of a given state sequence from A, and multiply it by the probability of generating the given observation sequence for that state sequence
 - $P(O,Q \mid \lambda) = P(O \mid Q, \lambda) * P(Q \mid \lambda)$
 - Repeat for all possible state sequences, and sum over all to get $P(O \mid \lambda)$
- But, this is computationally complex!
 - O(TN^T)



How can we compute the observation likelihood?

- Efficient Solution:
 - Forward Algorithm: Dynamic programming algorithm that computes the observation likelihood by summing over the probabilities of all possible hidden state paths that could generate the observation sequence.
 - Implicitly folds each of these paths into a single forward trellis
- Why does this work?
 - Markov assumption (the probability of being in any state at a given time *t* only relies on the probability of being in each possible state at time *t*-1)
- Works in O(TN²) time!

How does the forward algorithm work?

- Let $\alpha_i(j)$ be the probability of being in state *j* after seeing the first *t* observations, given your HMM λ
- $\alpha_i(j)$ is computed by summing over the probabilities of every path that could lead you to this cell
 - $\alpha_i(j) = P(o_1, o_2 \dots o_t, q_t = j | \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_{t-1}(i) \alpha_{ij} b_j(o_t)$
 - $\alpha_{t-1}(i)$: The previous forward path probability from the previous time step
 - a_{ij} : The transition probability from previous state q_i to current state q_j
 - $b_j(o_t)$: The state observation likelihood of the observed item o_t given the current state j

Note the distinction between alpha (α) and a $(\alpha)!$

Formal Algorithm

create a probability matrix forward[N+2,T]

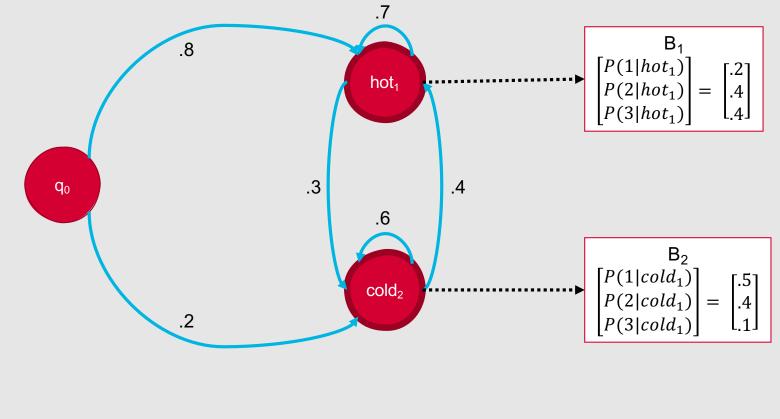
for each state q in [1, ..., N] do: forward[q,1] $\leftarrow a_{0,q} * b_q(o_1)$ for each time step t from 2 to T do: for each state q in [1, ..., N] do: forward[q,t] $\leftarrow \sum_{q'=1}^{N} forward[q',t-1] * a_{q',q} * b_q(o_t)$ forwardprob $\leftarrow \sum_{q=1}^{N} forward[q,T]$

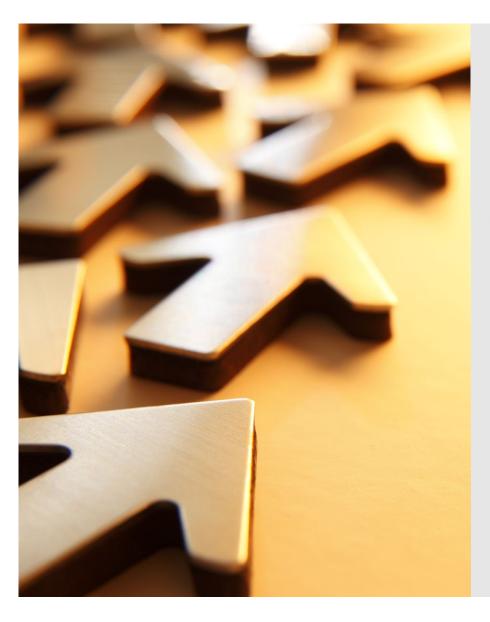
Sample Problem

- You're trying to solve a problem that relies on you knowing which days it was hot and cold in Chicago during the summer of 1924
- Unfortunately, you have no official records of the weather in Chicago for that summer, although you're trying to model some key weather patterns from that year using an HMM
- You do have one promising lead: You find a detailed diary tracking how many ice cream cones the author of that diary ate on each day
- You decide to focus on a three-day sequence:
 - Day 1: 3 ice cream cones
 - Day 2: 1 ice cream cone
 - Day 3: 3 ice cream cones
- Your first task is to determine whether your current HMM does a good job at modeling this sequence





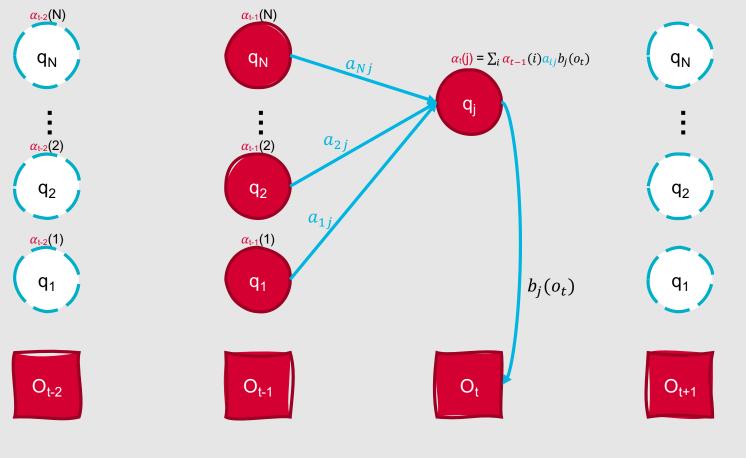


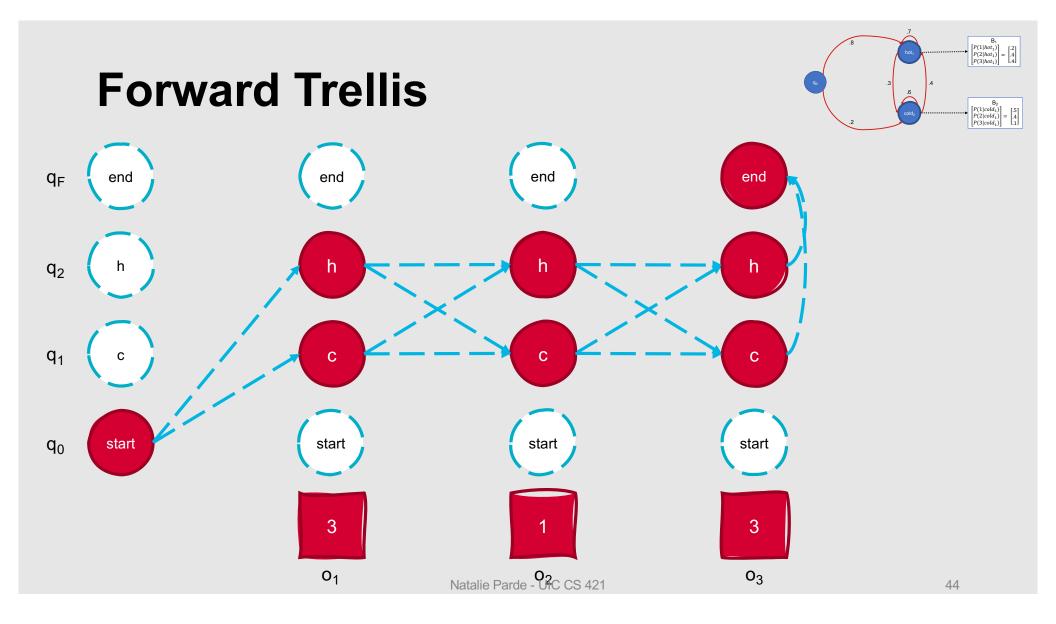


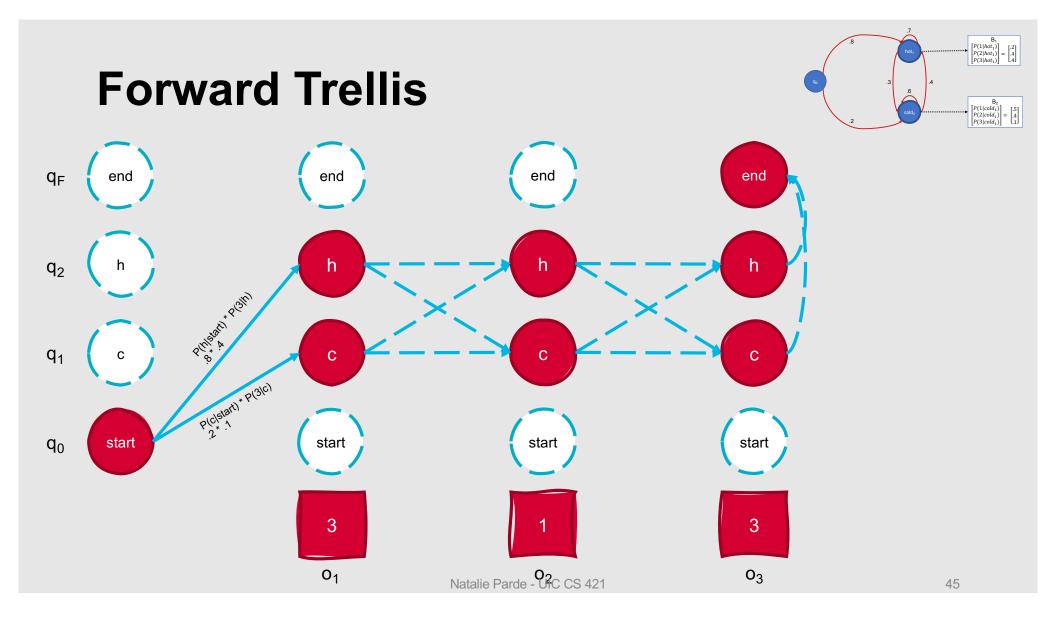
Forward Trellis

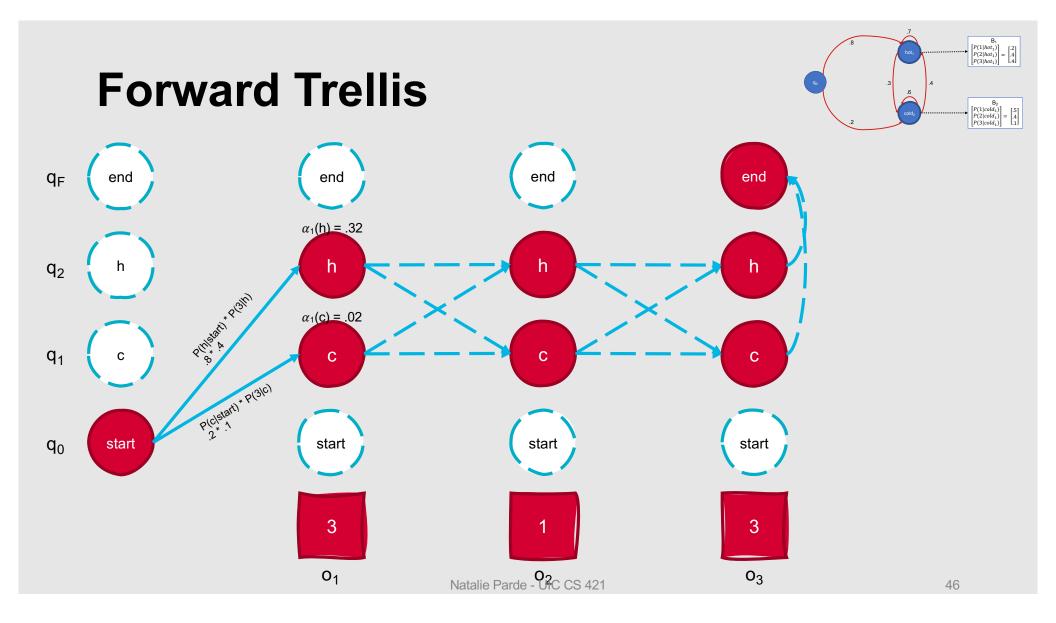
- Incorporates all the information you'll need to implement the forward algorithm
 - Observations
 - Transition probabilities
 - State observation likelihoods
 - Forward probabilities from earlier observations

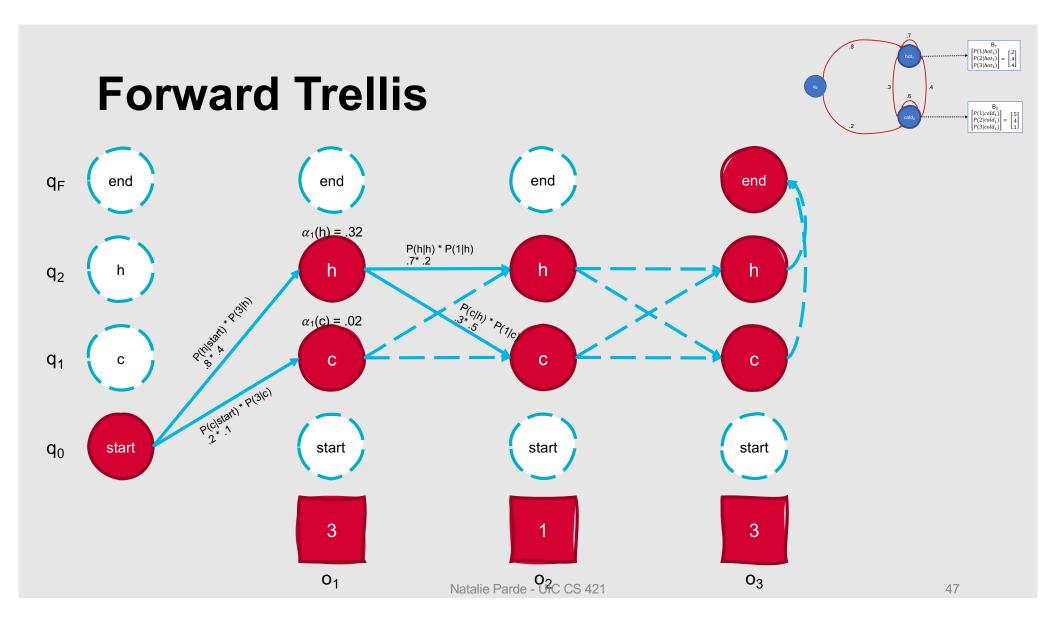


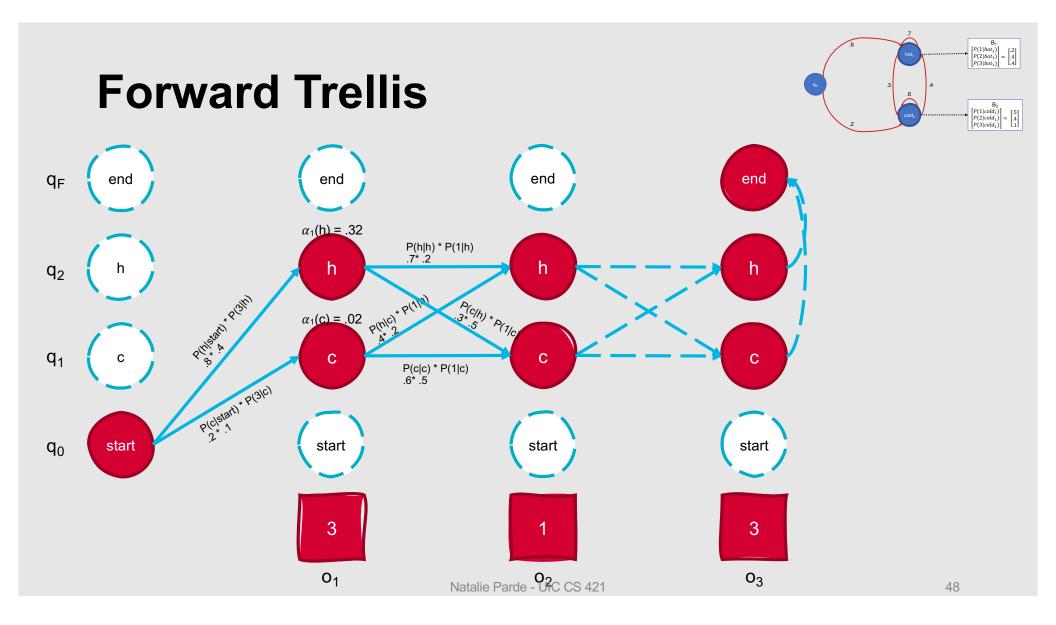


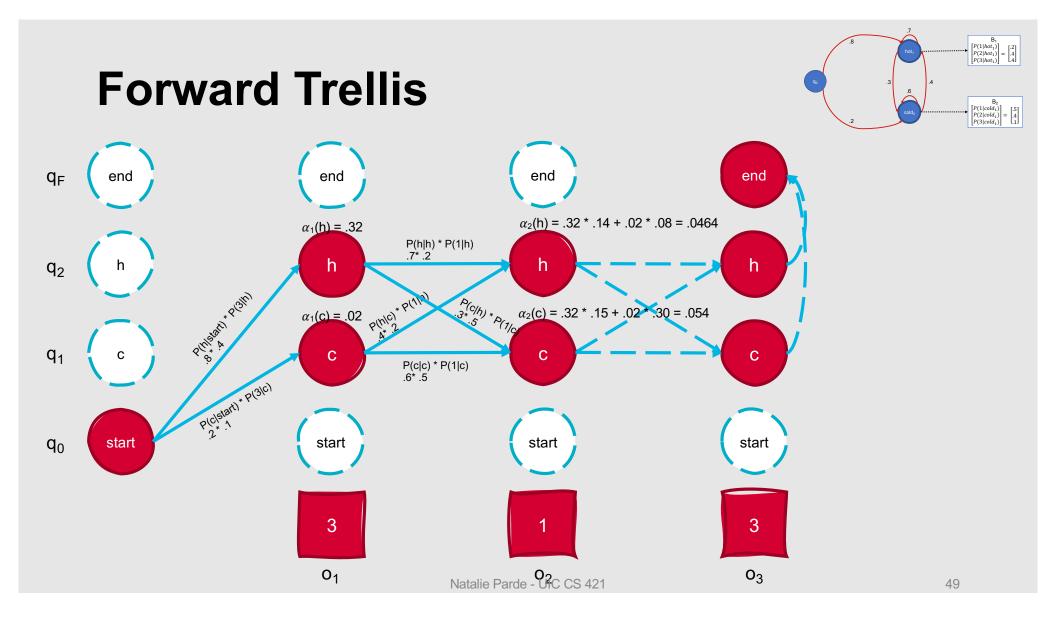


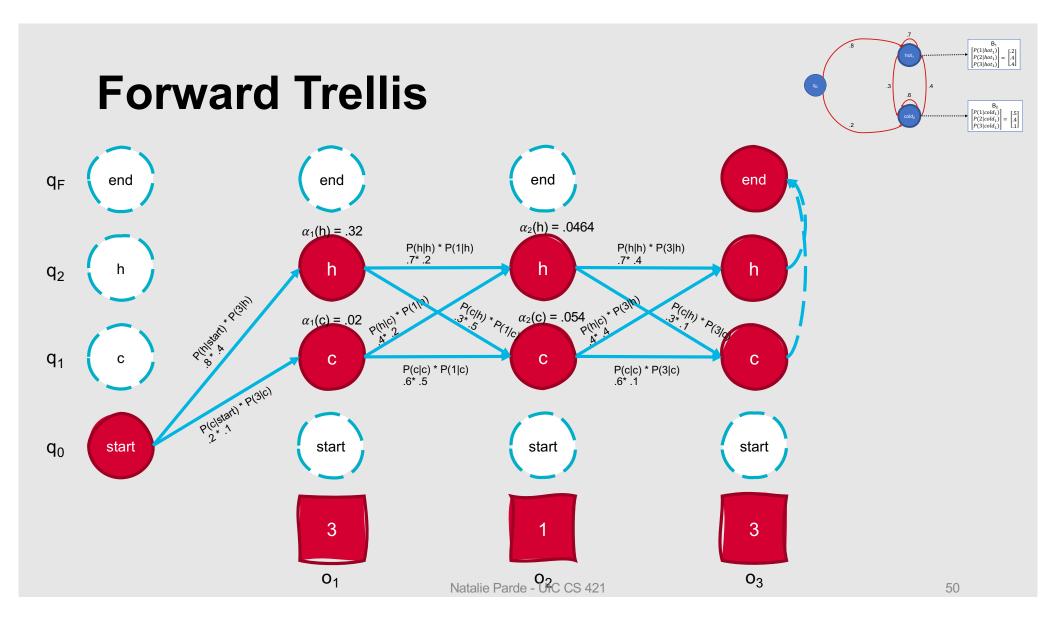


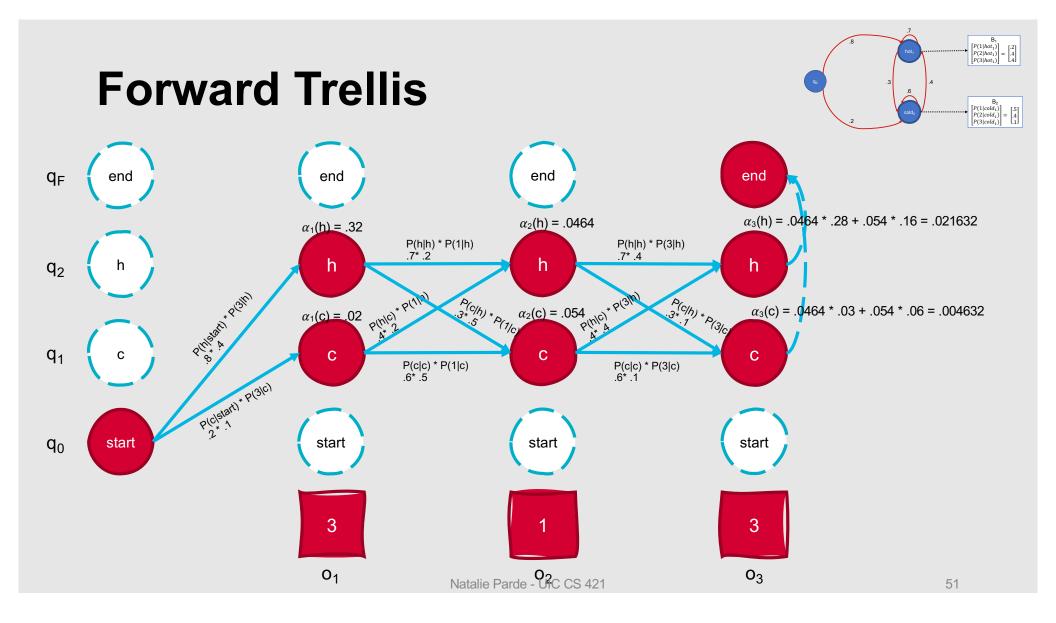


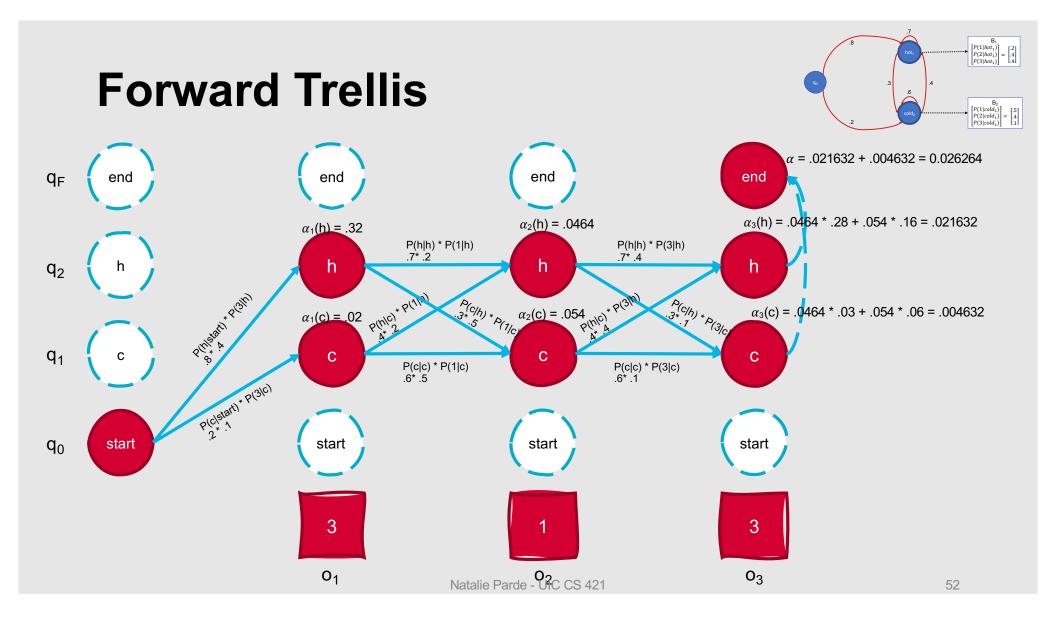






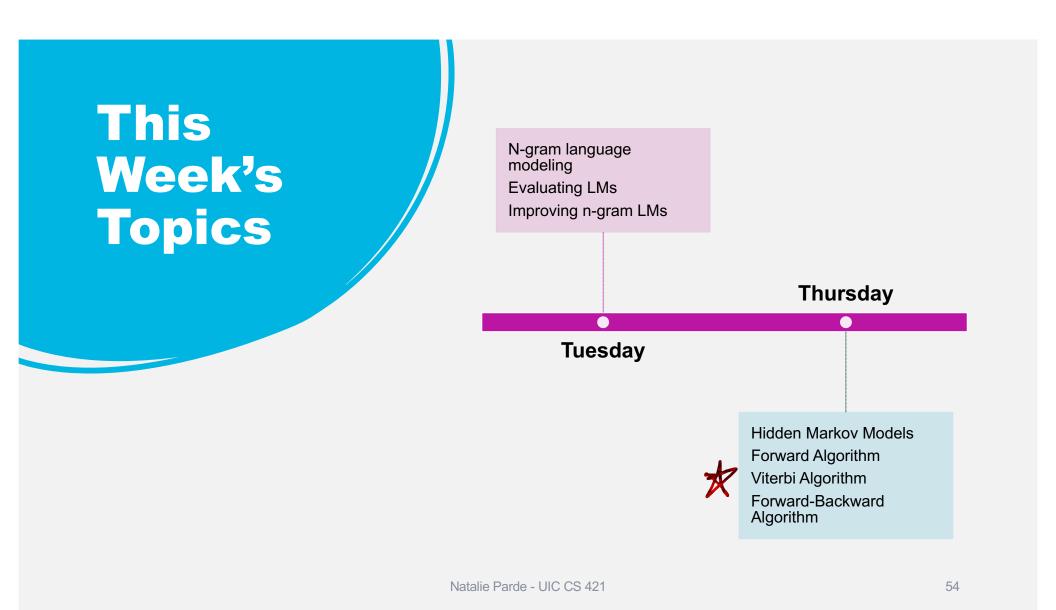






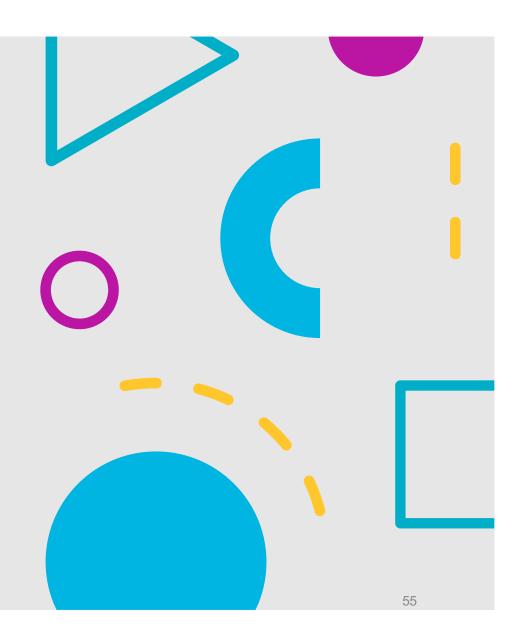
We've so far tackled one of the fundamental HMM tasks.

- What is the probability that a sequence of observations fits a given HMM?
 - Calculate using forward probabilities!
- However, there are still two remaining tasks to explore....



Decoding

- Given an observation sequence and an HMM, what is the best hidden state sequence?
 - How do we choose a state sequence that is optimal in some sense (e.g., best explains the observations)?
- Very useful for sequence labeling!



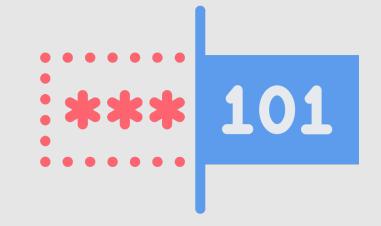
Decoding

- Naïve Approach:
 - For each hidden state sequence Q, compute P(O|Q)
 - Pick the sequence with the highest probability
- However, this is computationally inefficient!
 - O(N[⊤])

How can we decode sequences more efficiently?

Viterbi Algorithm

- Another dynamic programming algorithm
- Uses a similar trellis to the Forward algorithm
- Viterbi time complexity: O(N²T)



Viterbi Intuition

- Goal: Compute the joint probability of the observation sequence together with the best state sequence
- So, recursively compute the probability of the most likely subsequence of states that accounts for the first *t* observations and ends in state q_i.

•
$$v_t(j) = \max_{q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{t-1}} P(q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{t-1}, o_1, \dots, o_t, q_t = q_j | \lambda)$$

- Also record backpointers that subsequently allow you to backtrace the most probable state sequence
 - $bt_t(j)$ stores the state at time *t*-1 that maximizes the probability that the system was in state q_j at time *t*, given the observed sequence

Formal Algorithm

create a path probability matrix Viterbi[N+2,T]

```
for each state q in [1, ..., N] do:

Viterbi[q, 1] \leftarrow a_{0,q} * b_q(o_1)

backpointer[q, 1] \leftarrow 0

for each time step t in [2, ..., T] do:

for each state q in [1, ..., N] do:

viterbi[q, t] \leftarrow \max_{q' \in [1, ..., N]} viterbi[q', t - 1] * a_{q',q} * b_q(o_t)

backpointer[q, t] \leftarrow \arg\max viterbi[q', t - 1] * a_{q',q} * b_q(o_t)

q' \in [1, ..., N]

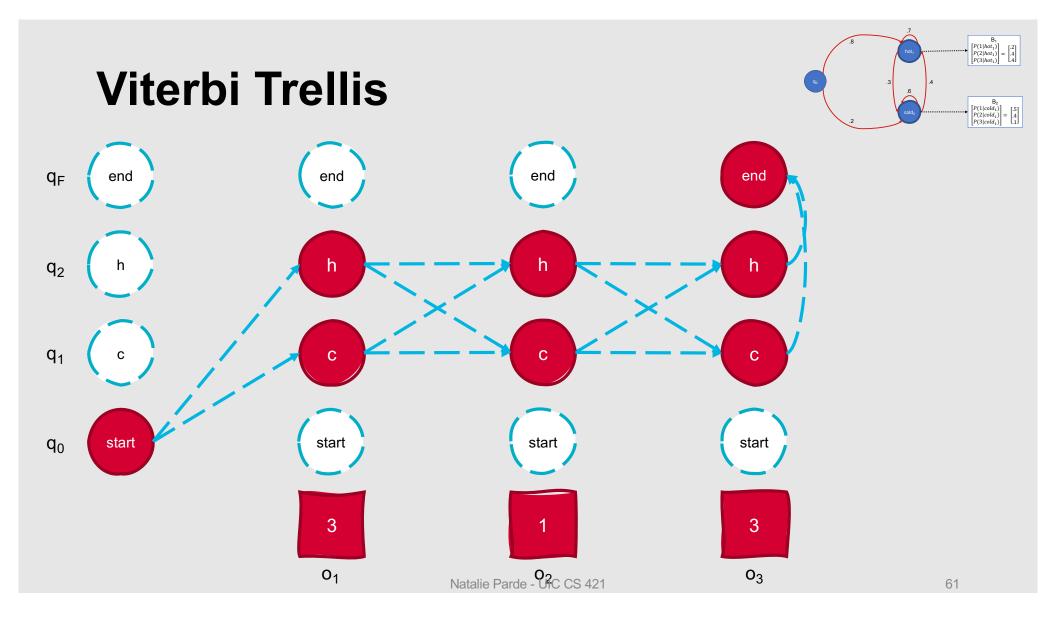
bestpathprob \leftarrow \max_{q' \in [1, ..., N]} viterbi[q', T]

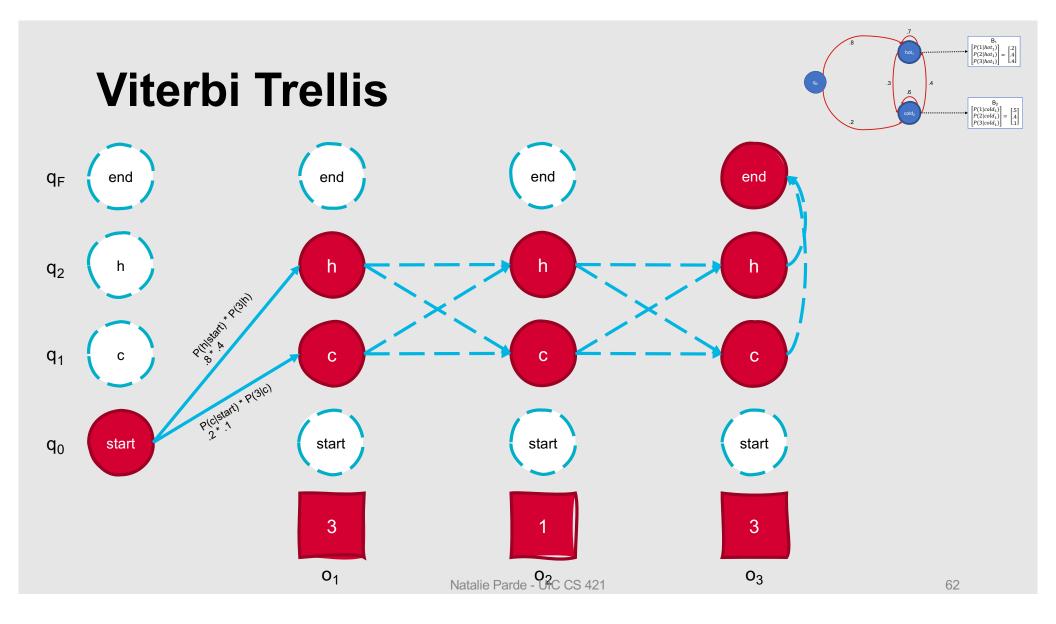
bestpathpointer \leftarrow \arg\max viterbi[q', T]

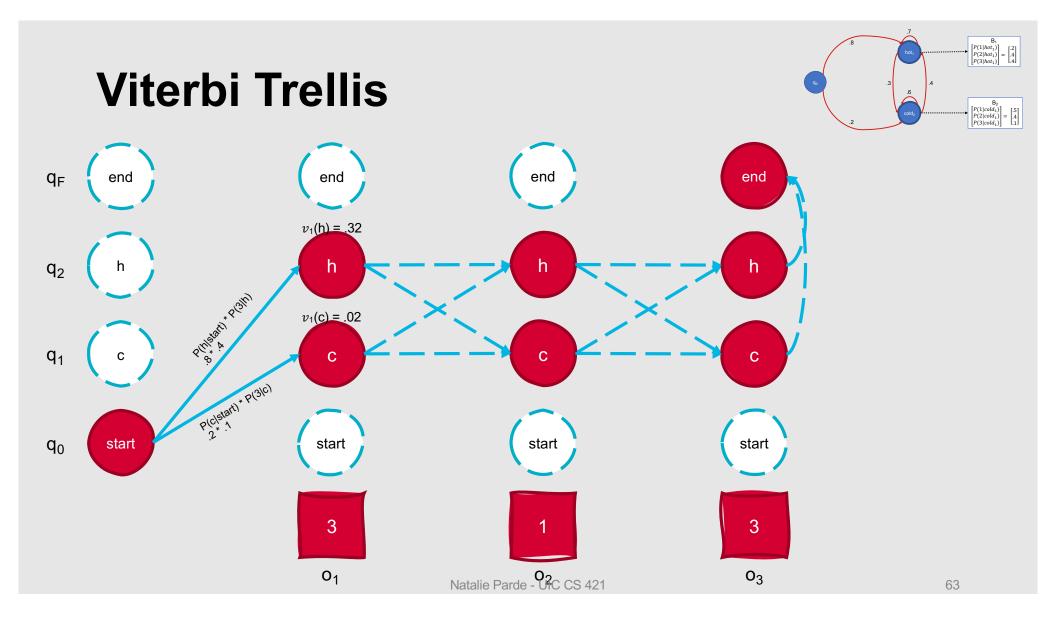
q' \in [1, ..., N]
```

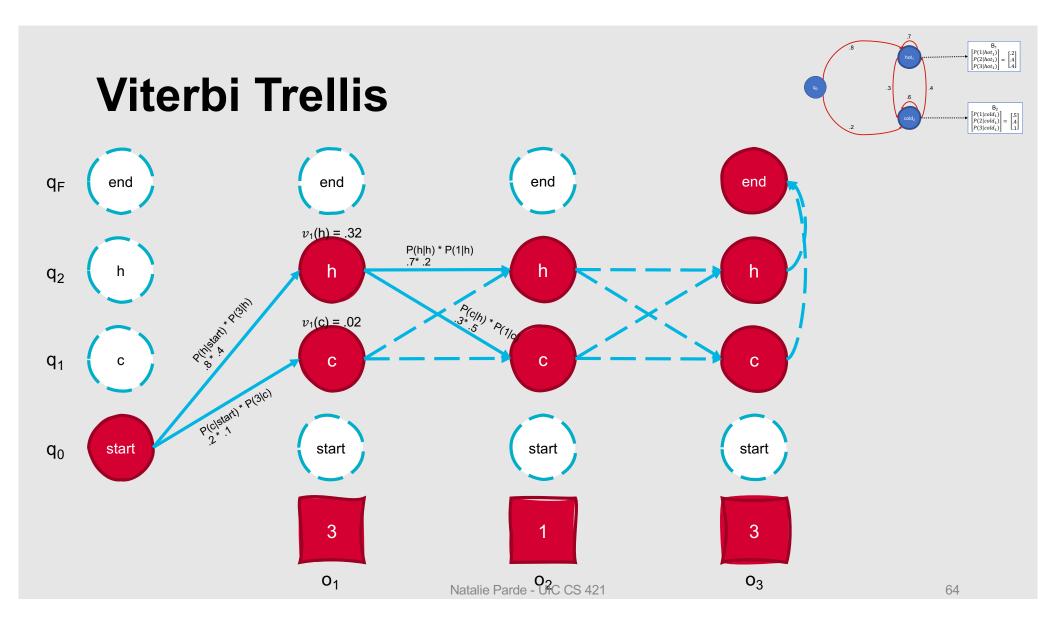
Seem familiar?

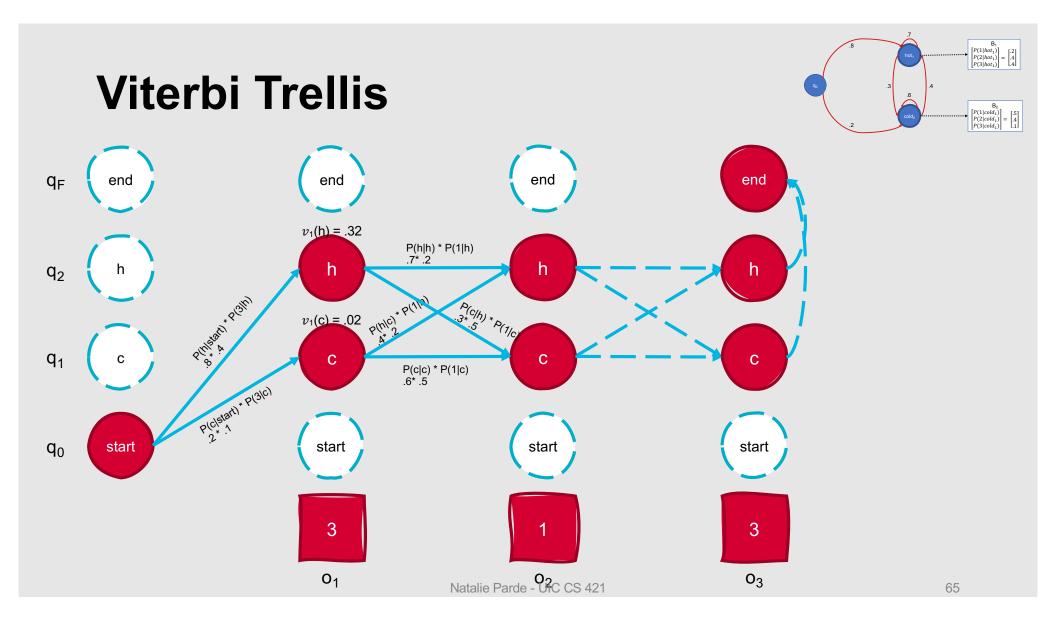
- Viterbi is basically the forward algorithm + backpointers!
- Instead of summing across prior forward probabilities, we use a max function

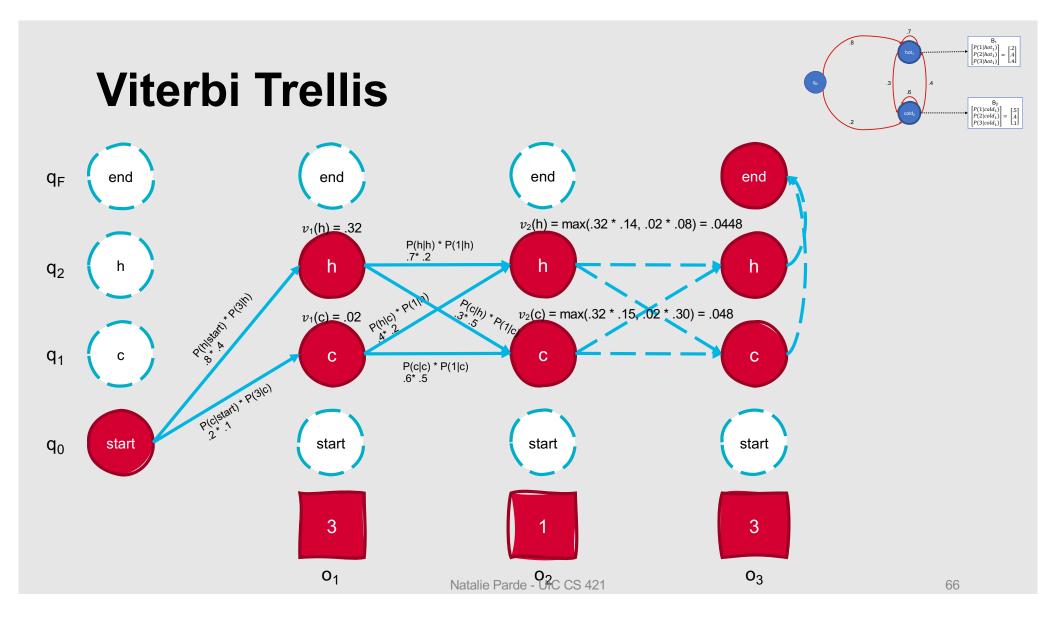


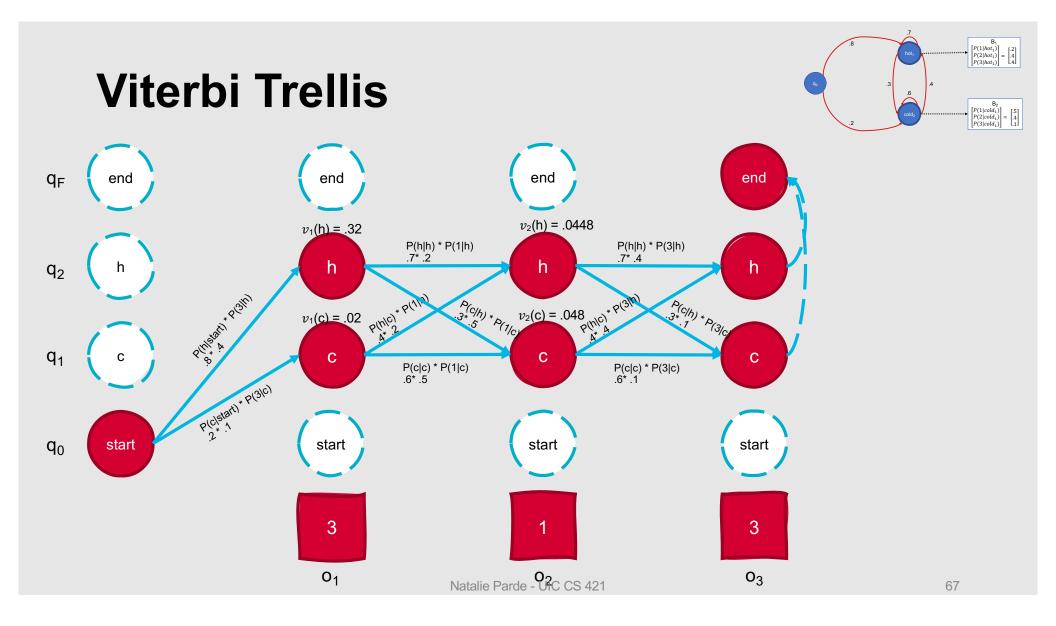


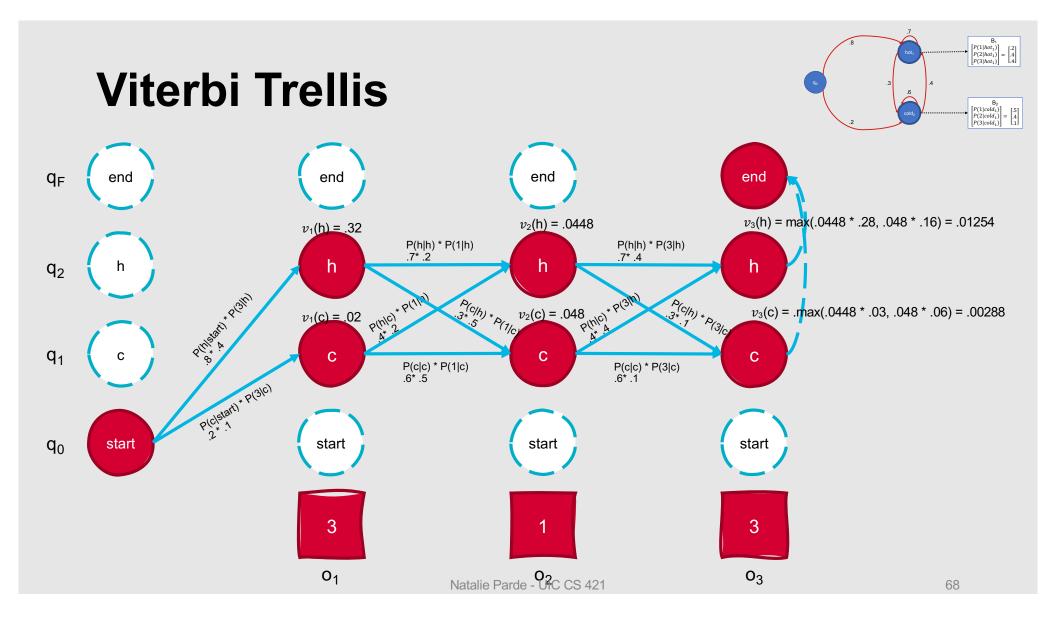


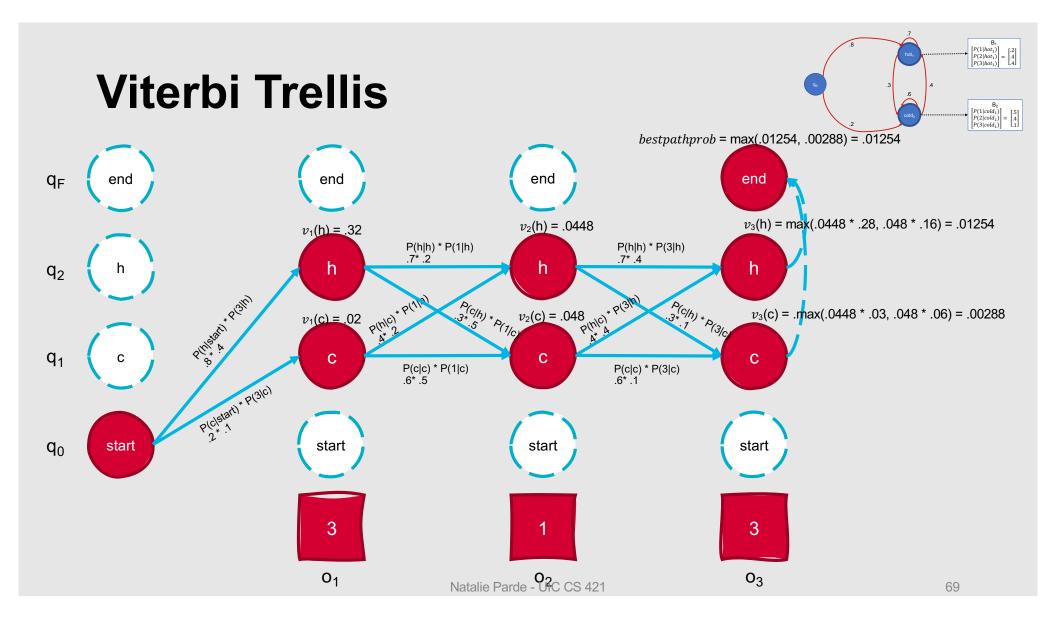


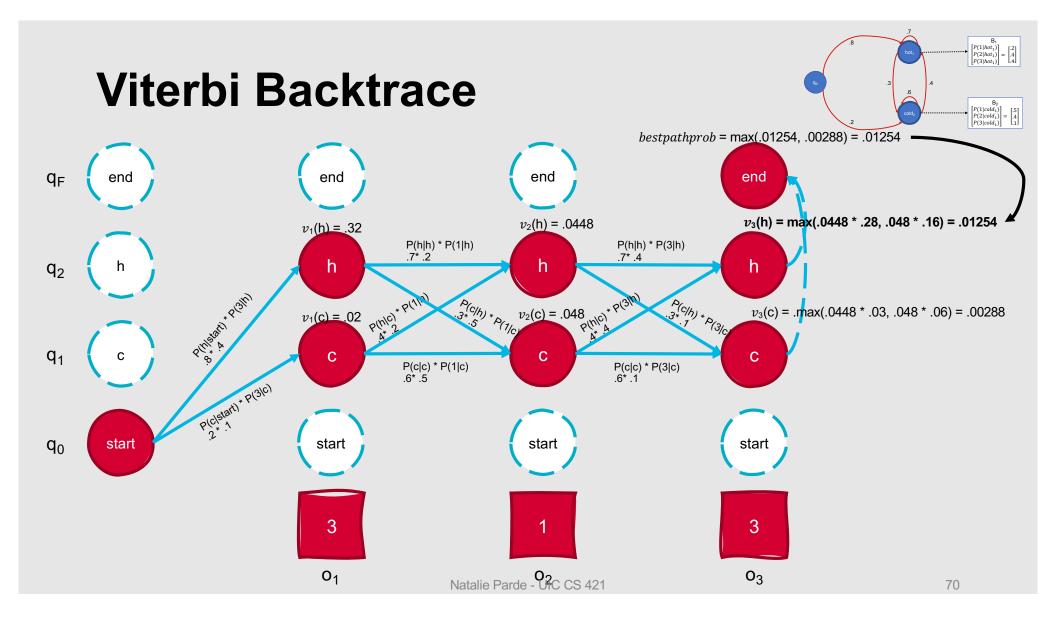


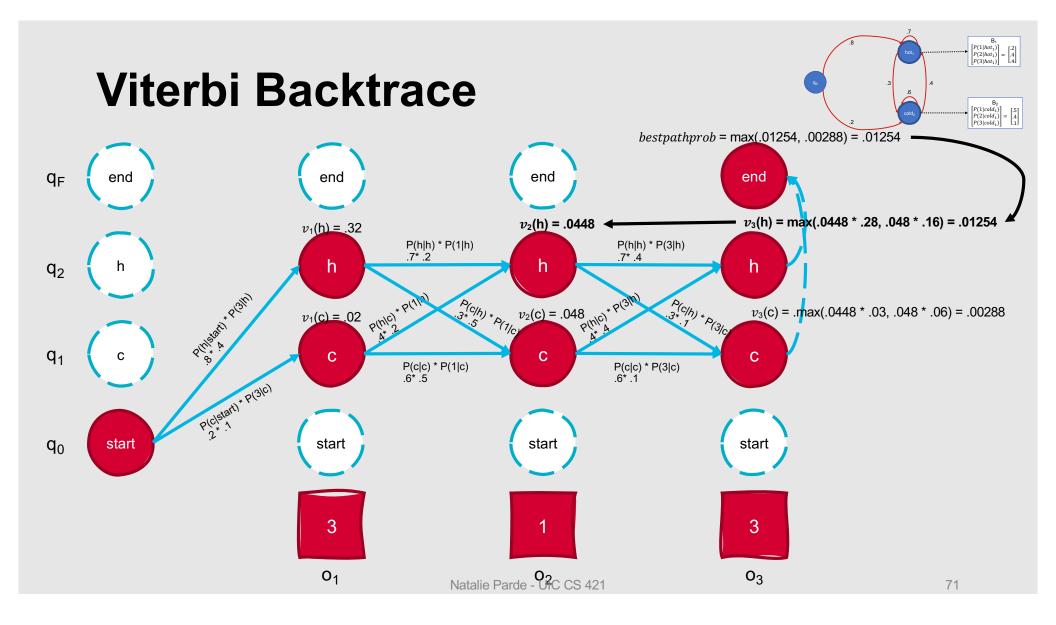


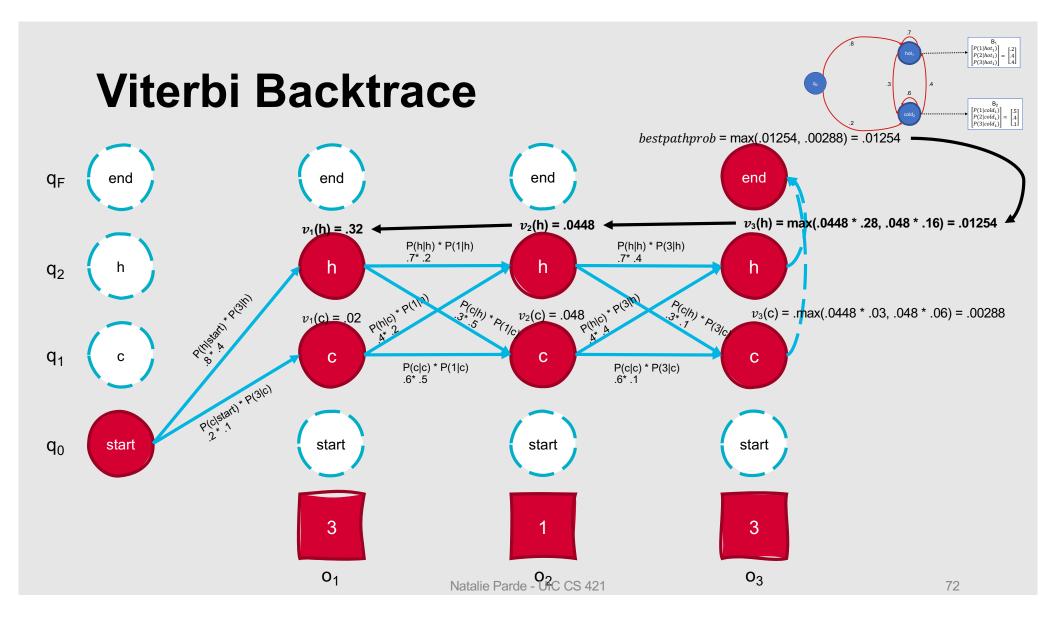


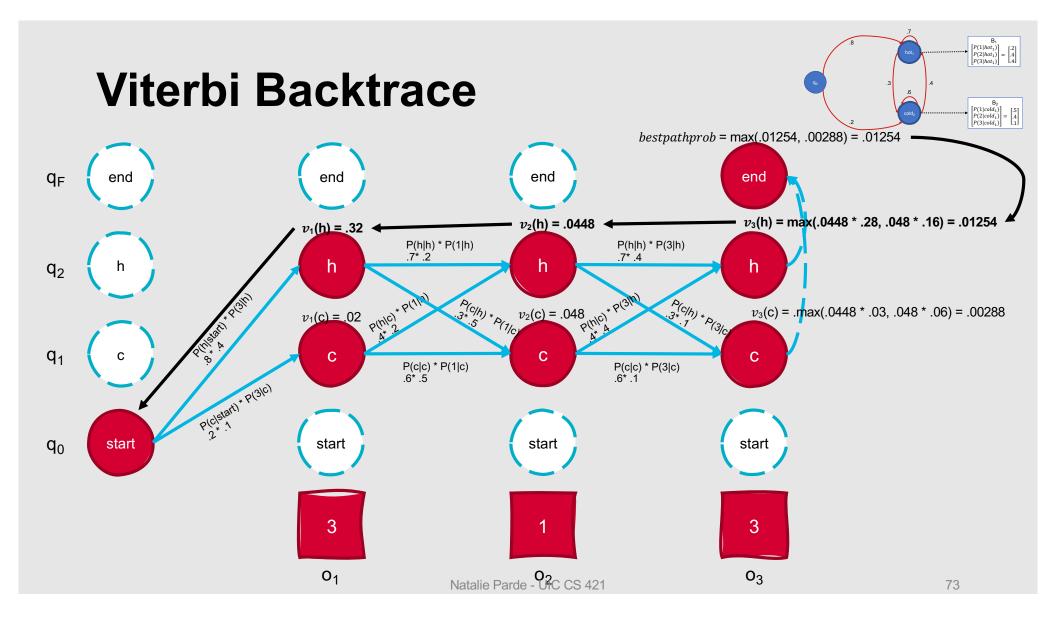












The Viterbi algorithm is used in many domains, even beyond text processing!

Speech recognition

 Given an input acoustic signal, find the most likely sequence of words or phonemes

Digital error correction

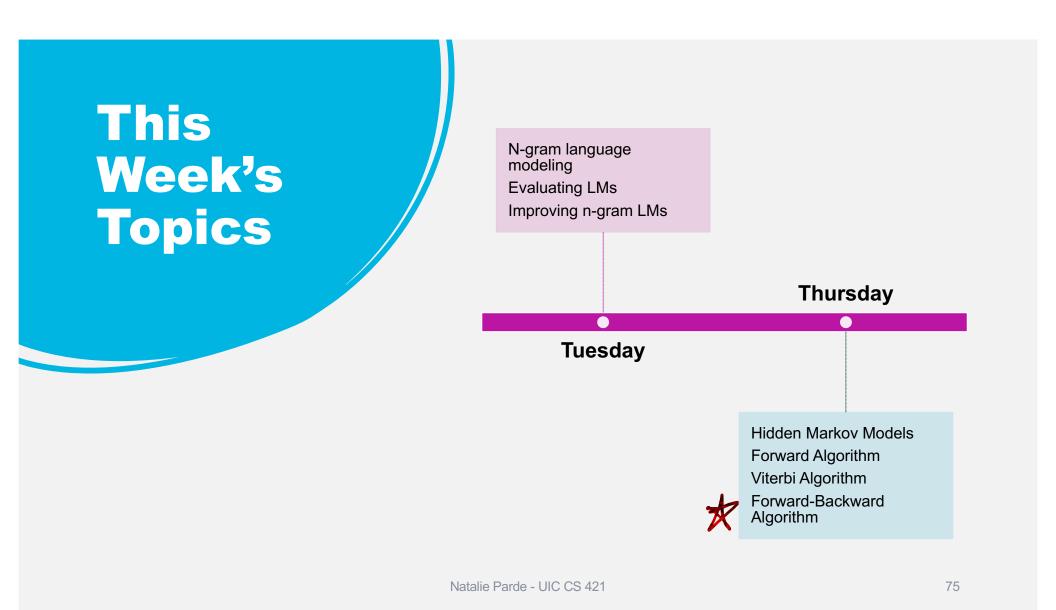
• Given a received, potentially noisy signal, determine the most likely transmitted message

Computer vision

• Given noisy measurements in video sequences, estimate the most likely trajectory of an object over time

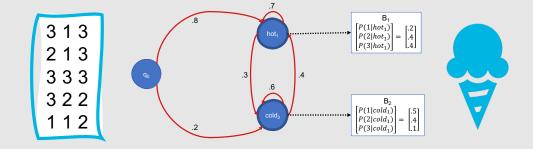
• Economics

• Given historical data, predict financial market states at certain timepoints



Finally ... how do we train HMMs?

• If we have a set of observations, can we learn the parameters (transition probabilities and observation likelihoods) directly?



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Forward-Backward Algorithm

- Special case of expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm
- Input:
 - Unlabeled sequence of observations, O
 - Vocabulary of hidden states, Q
- Output: Transition probabilities and observation likelihoods

How does the algorithm compute these outputs?

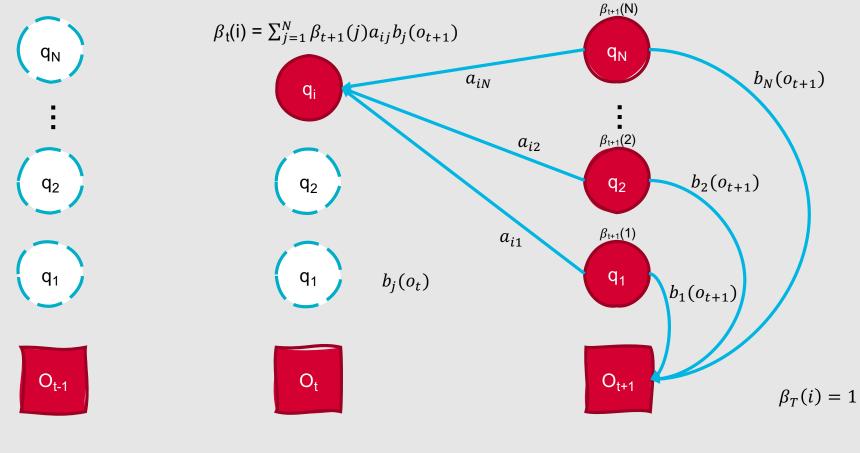
- Iteratively estimate the counts for transitions from one state to another
 - Start with base estimates for a_{ij} and b_j, and iteratively improve those estimates
- Get estimated probabilities by:
 - Computing the forward probability for an observation
 - Dividing that probability mass among all the different paths that contributed to this forward probability (backward probability)

Backward Algorithm

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- We define the backward probability as follows:
 - $\beta_t(i) = P(o_{t+1}, o_{t+2}, \dots, o_T | q_t = i, \lambda)$
 - Probability of generating partial observations from time t+1 until the end of the sequence, given that the HMM λ is in state *i* at time *t*
- Also computed using a trellis, but moves backwards instead





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For the expectation step of the forward-backward algorithm, we re-estimate transition probabilities and observation likelihoods.

- We re-estimate transition probabilities, *a_{ij}*, as follows:
 - Let $\zeta_t(i,j) = \frac{\alpha_t(i)a_{ij}b_j(o_{t+1})\beta_{t+1}(j)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_t(i)\beta_t(j)}$
 - Then, $\widehat{a_{ij}} = \frac{\text{expected \# transitions from state } i \text{ to state } j}{\text{expected \# transitions from state } i} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_t(i,j)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \xi_t(i,k)}$
 - Check out the course textbook (Appendix A) for an in-depth discussion of how the numerator and denominator above are derived!

Re-Estimating Observation Likelihood

- We re-estimate *b_i* as follows:
 - Let $\gamma_t(j) = \frac{\alpha_t(j)\beta_t(j)}{\alpha_T(q_F)}$
 - Then, $\widehat{b_j}(v_k) = \frac{\text{expected \# of times in state } j \text{ and observing symbol } v_k}{\text{expected \# of times in state } j} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \text{s.t. } o_t = v_k}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_t(j)}$

Putting it all together, we have the forward-backward algorithm!

initialize A and B
iterate until convergence:

Expectation Step compute $\gamma_t(j)$ for all t and j compute $\zeta_t(i,j)$ for all t, i, and j

Maximization Step
$$\widehat{a_{ij}} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_t(i,j)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \xi_t(i,k)}$$

$$\widehat{b_j}(v_k) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \text{S.t. } o_t = v_k}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_t(j)} \text{ for the symbol } v_k \text{ in the vocabulary}$$

Summary: Hidden Markov Models

- HMMs are probabilistic generative models for sequences
- They make predictions based on underlying hidden states
- Three fundamental HMM problems include:
 - Computing the likelihood of a sequence of observations
 - Determining the best sequence of hidden states for an observed sequence
 - Learning HMM parameters given an observation sequence and a set of hidden states
- Observation likelihood can be computed using the forward algorithm
- Sequences of hidden states can be decoded using the Viterbi algorithm
- HMM parameters can be learned using the forwardbackward algorithm