# Probability Estimation 

D. De Cao R. Basili<br>Corso di Web Mining e Retrieval<br>a.a. 2008-9

May 19, 2009

## Outline

- Laplace Estimator
- Good-Turing
- Backoff


## The Sparse Data Problem

There is a major problem with the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) process for training the parameters of an N -gram model.
But because any corpus is limited, some perfectly acceptable English word sequences are bound to be missing from it.

## The Sparse Data Problem

There is a major problem with the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) process for training the parameters of an N -gram model.
But because any corpus is limited, some perfectly acceptable English word sequences are bound to be missing from it.

## Under Markov assumption

$$
P(W)=P\left(w_{1}\right) \cdot P\left(w_{2}, w_{1}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot P\left(w_{i+1}, w_{i}\right)
$$

But what if we have never before seen $w_{i} w_{i+1}$ in string $W$ ? The MLE estimate $P\left(w_{i+1} \mid w_{i}\right)$ is:

$$
\frac{C\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}=\frac{0}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}=0 \quad \text { So } P(W)=0
$$

## The Sparse Data Problem

There is a major problem with the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) process for training the parameters of an N -gram model.
But because any corpus is limited, some perfectly acceptable English word sequences are bound to be missing from it.

## Under Markov assumption

$$
P(W)=P\left(w_{1}\right) \cdot P\left(w_{2}, w_{1}\right) \cdot \ldots \cdot P\left(w_{i+1}, w_{i}\right)
$$

But what if we have never before seen $w_{i} w_{i+1}$ in string $W$ ?
The MLE estimate $P\left(w_{i+1} \mid w_{i}\right)$ is:

$$
\frac{C\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}=\frac{0}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}=0 \quad \text { So } P(W)=0
$$

## Solution

Develop a model which decreases probability of seen events and allows the occurrence of previously unseen n-grams (a.k.a. Discounting methods)

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

Estimate probabilities $P$ assuming that each unseen word type actually occurred once.

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

Estimate probabilities $P$ assuming that each unseen word type actually occurred once. Then if we have $N$ events and $V$ possible words instead of

$$
P(w)=\frac{o c c(w)}{N}
$$

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

Estimate probabilities $P$ assuming that each unseen word type actually occurred once. Then if we have $N$ events and $V$ possible words instead of

$$
P(w)=\frac{o c c(w)}{N}
$$

we estimate:

$$
P_{\text {addone }}(w)=\frac{\operatorname{occ}(w)+1}{N+V}
$$

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

What about bigram?

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

What about bigram?
MLE:

$$
P\left(w_{i+1} \mid w_{i}\right)=\frac{C\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}
$$

## Add-One Smooting (Laplace Estimator)

What about bigram?
MLE:

$$
P\left(w_{i+1} \mid w_{i}\right)=\frac{C\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)}{C\left(w_{i}\right)}
$$

Laplace Smooting:

$$
P^{*}\left(w_{i+1} \mid w_{i}\right)=\frac{C\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)+1}{C\left(w_{i}\right)+V}
$$

## Example of bigram count

|  | i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | 5 | 827 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| want | 2 | 0 | 608 | 1 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 1 |
| to | 2 | 0 | 4 | 686 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 211 |
| eat | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 16 | 2 | 42 | 0 |
| chinese | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 82 | 1 | 0 |
| food | 15 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| lunch | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| spend | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## Example of bigram count

|  | i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | 5 | 827 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| want | 2 | 0 | 608 | 1 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 1 |
| to | 2 | 0 | 4 | 686 | 2 | 0 | 6 | 211 |
| eat | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 16 | 2 | 42 | 0 |
| chinese | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 82 | 1 | 0 |
| food | 15 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| lunch | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| spend | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Total word occurrence:

| i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2533 | 927 | 2417 | 746 | 158 | 1093 | 341 | 278 |

## Example of bigram probabilities

|  | i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | .002 | .33 | 0 | .0036 | 0 | 0 | 0 | .00079 |
| want | .0022 | 0 | .66 | .0011 | .0065 | .0065 | .0054 | .0011 |
| to | .00083 | 0 | .0017 | .28 | .00083 | 0 | .0025 | .087 |
| eat | 0 | 0 | .0027 | 0 | .021 | .0027 | .056 | 0 |
| chinese | .0063 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | .52 | .0063 | 0 |
| food | .014 | 0 | .014 | 0 | .00092 | .0037 | 0 | 0 |
| lunch | .0059 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | .0029 | 0 | 0 |
| spend | .0036 | 0 | .0036 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## Example of bigram count - Laplace smooting

|  | i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | 6 | 828 | 1 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| want | 3 | 1 | 609 | 2 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 2 |
| to | 3 | 1 | 5 | 687 | 3 | 1 | 7 | 212 |
| eat | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 17 | 3 | 43 | 1 |
| chinese | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 83 | 2 | 1 |
| food | 16 | 1 | 16 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| lunch | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| spend | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

## Example of bigram probabilities - Laplace smooting

|  | i | want | to | eat | chinese | food | lunch | spend |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i | .0015 | .21 | .00025 | .0025 | .00025 | .00025 | .00025 | .00075 |
| want | .0013 | .00042 | .26 | .00084 | .0029 | .0029 | .0025 | .00084 |
| to | .00078 | .00026 | .0013 | .18 | .00078 | .00026 | .0018 | .055 |
| eat | .00046 | .00046 | .0014 | .00046 | .0078 | .0014 | .02 | .00046 |
| chinese | .0012 | .00062 | .00062 | .00062 | .00062 | .052 | .0012 | .00062 |
| food | .0063 | .00039 | .0063 | .00039 | .00079 | .002 | .00039 | .00039 |
| lunch | .0017 | .00056 | .00056 | .00056 | .00056 | .0011 | .00056 | .00056 |
| spend | .0012 | .00058 | .0012 | .00058 | .00058 | .00058 | .00058 | .00058 |

## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique


## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique
- Cons:
- Probability of frequent n-grams is underestimated


## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique
- Cons:
- Probability of frequent n-grams is underestimated
- Probability of rare (or unseen) n-grams is overestimated


## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique
- Cons:
- Probability of frequent n-grams is underestimated
- Probability of rare (or unseen) n-grams is overestimated
- Therefore, too much probability mass is shifted towards unseen n-grams


## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique
- Cons:
- Probability of frequent n-grams is underestimated
- Probability of rare (or unseen) n-grams is overestimated
- Therefore, too much probability mass is shifted towards unseen n-grams
- All unseen n-grams are smoothed in the same way


## Consideration

- Pro:
- Very simple technique
- Cons:
- Probability of frequent n-grams is underestimated
- Probability of rare (or unseen) n-grams is overestimated
- Therefore, too much probability mass is shifted towards unseen n-grams
- All unseen n -grams are smoothed in the same way
- Using a smaller added-count improves things but only some


## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Basic idea:

use the count of things you've seen once to help estimate the count of things you've never seen.

## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Basic idea:

use the count of things you've seen once to help estimate the count of things you've never seen. Word or N -gram (or any event) that occurs once is called a singleton.

## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Basic idea:

use the count of things you've seen once to help estimate the count of things you've never seen. Word or N -gram (or any event) that occurs once is called a singleton. In order to compute the frequency of singletons, we'll need to compute $N_{c}$, the number of event that occur $c$ times. (Assumes that all item are binomially distributed.)

- Let $N_{r}$ the number of items that occur $r$ times.


## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Basic idea:

use the count of things you've seen once to help estimate the count of things you've never seen. Word or N -gram (or any event) that occurs once is called a singleton. In order to compute the frequency of singletons, we'll need to compute $N_{c}$, the number of event that occur $c$ times. (Assumes that all item are binomially distributed.)

- Let $N_{r}$ the number of items that occur $r$ times.
- $N_{r}$ can be used to provide a better estimate of $r$, given the binomial distribution.


## Good-Turing smoothing

The Good-Turing formula provides another way to smooth probabilities.

## Basic idea:

use the count of things you've seen once to help estimate the count of things you've never seen. Word or N -gram (or any event) that occurs once is called a singleton. In order to compute the frequency of singletons, we'll need to compute $N_{c}$, the number of event that occur $c$ times. (Assumes that all item are binomially distributed.)

- Let $N_{r}$ the number of items that occur $r$ times.
- $N_{r}$ can be used to provide a better estimate of $r$, given the binomial distribution.
- the adjusted frequency $r^{*}$ is than:

$$
r^{*}=(r+1) \frac{N_{r+1}}{N_{r}}
$$

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen.

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.
revisited Good-Turing
In practice, the general discounted estimate $c^{*}$ is not used for all counts $c$.

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.

## revisited Good-Turing

In practice, the general discounted estimate $c^{*}$ is not used for all counts $c$. First, large counts (where $c>k$ for some threshold $k$ ) are assumed to be reliable.

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.

## revisited Good-Turing

In practice, the general discounted estimate $c^{*}$ is not used for all counts $c$. First, large counts (where $c>k$ for some threshold $k$ ) are assumed to be reliable. Katz (1987) suggests setting $k$ at 5.

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.

## revisited Good-Turing

In practice, the general discounted estimate $c^{*}$ is not used for all counts $c$. First, large counts (where $c>k$ for some threshold $k$ ) are assumed to be reliable. Katz (1987) suggests setting $k$ at 5.
Thus we define:

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

## Good-Turing smoothing

## bigram

In case of bigram events Good-Turing assumes we know $N_{0}$, the number of bigrams we haven't seen. We know this because given a vocabulary size of $V$, the total number of bigrams is $V^{2}$, hence $N_{0}$ is $V^{2}$ minus all the bigrams we have seen.

## revisited Good-Turing

In practice, the general discounted estimate $c^{*}$ is not used for all counts $c$. First, large counts (where $c>k$ for some threshold $k$ ) are assumed to be reliable. Katz (1987) suggests setting $k$ at 5.
Thus we define:

$$
\begin{gathered}
c^{*}=c \text { for } c>k \\
c^{*}=\frac{(c+1) \frac{N_{c+1}}{N_{c}}-c \frac{(k+1) N_{k+1}}{N_{1}}}{1-\frac{(k+1) N_{k+1}}{N_{1}}}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Good-Turing smoothing - Example

| AP Newswire |  |  | Berkeley Restaurant |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | ---: | :---: |
| $c$ (MLE) | $N_{c}$ | $c(\mathrm{GT})$ | $c(\mathrm{MLE})$ | $N_{c}$ | $c(\mathrm{GT})$ |
| 0 | $74,671,100,000$ | 0.0000270 | 0 | $2,081,496$ | 0.002553 |
| 1 | $2,018,046$ | 0.446 | 1 | 5315 | 0.533960 |
| 2 | 449,721 | 1.26 | 2 | 1419 | 1.357294 |
| 3 | 188,933 | 2.24 | 3 | 642 | 2.373832 |
| 4 | 105,668 | 3.24 | 4 | 381 | 4.081365 |
| 5 | 68,379 | 4.22 | 5 | 311 | 3.781350 |
| 6 | 48,190 | 5.19 | 6 | 196 | 4.500000 |

Bigram frequencies and Good-Turing re-estimations from the 22 million AP bigrams from Church and Gale (1991), and from the Berkeley Restaurant corpus of 9332 sentences

## Backoff - Key idea

- Why are we treating all novel events as the same?


## Backoff - Key idea

- Why are we treating all novel events as the same?
- $p$ (zygote I see the) vs. $p$ (baby I see the)
- Suppose both trigrams have zero count


## Backoff - Key idea

- Why are we treating all novel events as the same?
- $p$ (zygote $\mid$ see the $)$ vs. $p$ (baby $\mid$ see the)
- Suppose both trigrams have zero count
- baby beats zygote as a unigram


## Backoff - Key idea

- Why are we treating all novel events as the same?
- $p$ (zygote I see the) vs. $p$ (baby I see the)
- Suppose both trigrams have zero count
- baby beats zygote as a unigram
- the baby beats the zygote as a bigram


## Backoff - Key idea

- Why are we treating all novel events as the same?
- $p$ (zygote $\mid$ see the) vs. $p$ (baby I see the)
- Suppose both trigrams have zero count
- baby beats zygote as a unigram
- the baby beats the zygote as a bigram
- Shouldn't see the baby beat see the zygote?


## Backoff smoothing

## Key idea

If a n-gram $w_{i-n}, \ldots w_{i}$ is not in the training data, combine different order N -gram by linearly interpolating all the models.

## Backoff smoothing

## Key idea

If a n-gram $w_{i-n}, \ldots w_{i}$ is not in the training data, combine different order N -gram by linearly interpolating all the models.

## In trigram

Estimate the trigram probability as $P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)$ by mixing together the unigram, bigram, and trigram probabilities, each weighted by a $\lambda$ :

$$
\widehat{P}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)=\lambda_{1} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)+\lambda_{2} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1}\right)+\lambda_{3}\left(w_{i}\right)
$$

such that the $\lambda \mathrm{s}$ sum to 1 :

$$
\sum_{i} \lambda_{i}=1
$$

## Backoff smoothing

## Key idea

If a n-gram $w_{i-n}, \ldots w_{i}$ is not in the training data, combine different order N -gram by linearly interpolating all the models.

## In trigram

Estimate the trigram probability as $P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)$ by mixing together the unigram, bigram, and trigram probabilities, each weighted by a $\lambda$ :

$$
\widehat{P}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)=\lambda_{1} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1} w_{i-2}\right)+\lambda_{2} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1}\right)+\lambda_{3}\left(w_{i}\right)
$$

such that the $\lambda \mathrm{s}$ sum to 1 :

$$
\sum_{i} \lambda_{i}=1
$$

$\lambda$ is the confidence weight for the longer n-gram.

## Backoff smoothing

How estimate $\lambda$ ?

## Backoff smoothing

How estimate $\lambda$ ?

- In general $\lambda \mathrm{s}$ are learned from a held-out corpus.


## Backoff smoothing

How estimate $\lambda$ ?

- In general $\lambda \mathrm{s}$ are learned from a held-out corpus.
- We can do this choosing the $\lambda$ values which maximize the likelihood of the held-out corpus.


## Backoff smoothing

How estimate $\lambda$ ?

- In general $\lambda \mathrm{s}$ are learned from a held-out corpus.
- We can do this choosing the $\lambda$ values which maximize the likelihood of the held-out corpus.
- One way is to use the Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm.


## Backoff smoothing - Katz backoff

## Katz backoff variant

It is a version of backoff algorithm that uses Good-Turing discounting as well.

## Backoff smoothing - Katz backoff

## Katz backoff variant

It is a version of backoff algorithm that uses Good-Turing discounting as well.
In this model, if the $N$-gram we need has zero counts, we approximate it by baking off to the $(N-1)$-gram.

## Backoff smoothing - Katz backoff

## Katz backoff variant

It is a version of backoff algorithm that uses Good-Turing discounting as well.
In this model, if the $N$-gram we need has zero counts, we approximate it by baking off to the $(N-1)$-gram. We continue baking off until we reach a history that has some counts:

$$
P_{\text {katz }}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right)= \begin{cases}P^{*}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right) & \text { if } C\left(w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right)>0 \\ \alpha\left(w_{i-(N-1) 1}^{i-1}\right) P_{\mathrm{katz}}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-2)}^{i-1}\right) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Backoff smoothing - Katz backoff

## Katz backoff variant

It is a version of backoff algorithm that uses Good-Turing discounting as well.
In this model, if the $N$-gram we need has zero counts, we approximate it by baking off to the $(N-1)$-gram. We continue baking off until we reach a history that has some counts:

$$
P_{\text {katz }}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right)= \begin{cases}P^{*}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right) & \text { if } C\left(w_{i-(N-1)}^{i-1}\right)>0 \\ \alpha\left(w_{i-(N-1) 1}^{i-1}\right) P_{\text {katz }}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-(N-2)}^{i-1}\right) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

trigram version of Katz backoff

$$
P_{\mathrm{katz}}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2} w_{i-1}\right)= \begin{cases}P^{*}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-2} w_{i-1}\right) & \text { if } C\left(w_{i-2} w_{i-1} w_{i}\right)>0 \\ \alpha\left(w_{i-1} w_{i}\right) P^{*}\left(w_{i} \mid w_{i-1}\right) & \text { else if } C\left(w_{i-1} w_{i}\right)>0 \\ \alpha\left(w_{i}\right) P^{*}\left(w_{i}\right) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Katz backoff

Consideration

- Katz backoff gives us a better way to distribute the probability mass among unseen trigram events, by relying on information from unigram and bigram


## Katz backoff

## Consideration

- Katz backoff gives us a better way to distribute the probability mass among unseen trigram events, by relying on information from unigram and bigram
- We use discounting to tell us how much total probability mass to set aside for all the events we haven't seen, and backoff to tell us how to distribute this probability.


## Katz backoff

## Consideration

- Katz backoff gives us a better way to distribute the probability mass among unseen trigram events, by relying on information from unigram and bigram
- We use discounting to tell us how much total probability mass to set aside for all the events we haven't seen, and backoff to tell us how to distribute this probability.
- Why do we need $\alpha$ values?


## Katz backoff

## Consideration

- Katz backoff gives us a better way to distribute the probability mass among unseen trigram events, by relying on information from unigram and bigram
- We use discounting to tell us how much total probability mass to set aside for all the events we haven't seen, and backoff to tell us how to distribute this probability.
- Why do we need $\alpha$ values? Because without $\alpha$ weights, the result of equation would not be a true probability!

$$
\sum_{i} P\left(w_{i} \mid w_{j} w_{k}\right)=1
$$

## References

- SPEECH and LANGUAGE PROCESSING, Jurafsky \& Martin, Chapter 4 - N-Grams
- Katz, S. M. (1987). Estimation of probabilities from sparse data for the language model component of a speech recogniser. IEEE Transactions on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing

