# DT2118

# Speech and Speaker Recognition

Language Modelling

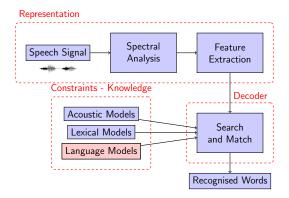
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# Components of ASR System



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# Why do we need language models?

Bayes' rule:

$$P(\mathsf{words}|\mathsf{sounds}) = \frac{P(\mathsf{sounds}|\mathsf{words})P(\mathsf{words})}{P(\mathsf{sounds})}$$

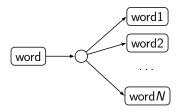
where

*P*(words): *a priori* probability of the words (Language Model)

We could use non informative priors (P(words) = 1/N), but...

# **Branching Factor**

- ▶ if we have N words in the dictionary
- ► at every word boundary we have to consider *N* equally likely alternatives
- ▶ N can be in the order of millions



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Ambiguity		Notes
"ice cream" vs "I scream"		
/aiskii:m/		
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Language Models in ASR		Notes
We want to:		
<ol> <li>limit the branching factor in the recognition network</li> </ol>		
<ol><li>augment and complete the acoustic probabilities</li></ol>		
<ul> <li>we are only interested to know if the sequence</li> </ul>		
of words is <b>plausible</b> grammatically or not  ▶ this kind of grammar is <b>integrated</b> in the		
recognition network <b>prior to decoding</b>		
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Language Models in Dialogue Systems		Notes
<ul><li>we want to assign a class to each word (noun, verb, attributeparts of speech)</li></ul>		
<ul> <li>parsing is usually performed on the output of a speech recogniser</li> </ul>		
The grammar is used twice in a Dialogue System!!		
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M 11: ACD		
Language Models in ASR		Notes
► small vocabulary: often <b>formal</b> grammar		
<ul><li>specified by hand</li><li>example: loop of digits as in the HTK exercise</li></ul>		
<ul> <li>large vocabulary: often stochastic grammar estimated from data</li> </ul>		
Colimated HOIII data		

# Formal Language Theory

grammar: formal specification of permissible

structures for the language

parser: algorithm that can analyse a sentence

and determine if its structure is compliant with the grammar

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# Chomsky's formal grammar

Noam Chomsky: linguist, philosopher, ...

$$G = (V, T, P, S)$$

where

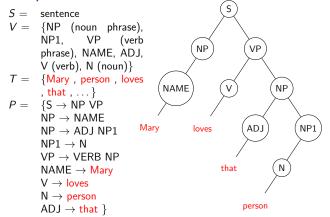
V: set of non-terminal constituents T: set of terminals (lexical items)

P: set of production rules

S: start symbol

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# Example



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# Chomsky's hierarchy

Greek letters: sequence of terminals or

non-terminals

Upper-case Latin letters: single non-terminal Lower-case Latin letters: single terminal

Tunas	Constraints	Automata
Types	Constraints	Automata
Phrase structure	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ . This is the most general	Turing ma-
grammar	grammar	chine
Context-sensitive	length of $\alpha \leq$ length of $\beta$	Linear
grammar		bounded
Context-free	$A \rightarrow \beta$ . Equivalent to $A \rightarrow w, A \rightarrow$	Push down
grammar	BC	
Regular grammar	$A \rightarrow w, A \rightarrow wB$	Finite-state

Context-free and regular grammars are used in practice

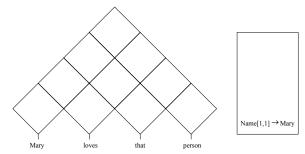
Are languages context-f	ree?		Notes
Mostly true, with exceptions			
Swiss German: "das mer d'chind em Hans aastriiche"	s es huus lönd häfte		
Word-by-word: "that we the children Han paint"	s the house let help		
Translation: "that we let the children h	nelp Hans paint the		
house"		16 / 56	
Parsers			Notes
<ul><li>assign each word in a set speech</li></ul>	ntence to a <i>part of</i>		
► originally developed for p	programming languages	5	
<ul><li>(no ambiguities)</li><li>only available for context</li></ul>	t-free and regular		
grammars			
top-down: start with S a you reach the words (ter		I	
<ul> <li>bottom-up: start with the way up until you reach S</li> </ul>	ne words and work your		
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Example: Top-down pai	rser		Notes
Parts of speech	Rules	_	
S NP VP NAME VP	$S  o NP  VP \ NP  o NAME$		
Mary VP	$NAME \to \mathbf{Mary}$		
Mary V NP Mary loves NP	$VP \rightarrow V NP$ $V \rightarrow loves$		
Mary loves ADJ NP1	$NP \to ADJ \; NP1$		
Mary loves that NP1 Mary loves that N	$ADJ  o that \ NP1  o N$		
Mary loves that person	$N \rightarrow person$		
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Example: Bottom-up pa			Notes
Parts of speech  Mary loves that person	Rules	-	
NAME loves that person	$NAME \to Mary$		
NAME V that person	$V \rightarrow loves$		
NAME V ADJ person	ADJ  o that		
NAME V ADJ N NP V ADJ N	$N  o \operatorname{person} \ NP  o NAME$		
NP V ADJ NP1	NP1  o N		
NP V NP	$NP \to ADJ \; NP1$		
NP VP	$VP \to V \; NP$		
S	$S \to NP \; VP$		

# Top-down vs bottom-up parsers

- ► Top-down characteristics:
  - + very predictive
  - $+ \ \, {\sf only \ consider \ grammatical \ combinations}$
  - predict constituents that do not have a match in the text
- Bottom-up characteristics:
  - + check input text only once
  - $+ \ \ \mathsf{suitable} \ \mathsf{for} \ \mathsf{robust} \ \mathsf{language} \ \mathsf{processing}$
  - may build trees that do not lead to full parse
- ▶ All in all, similar performance

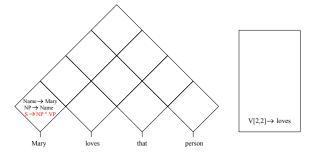
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# Chart parsing (dynamic programming)



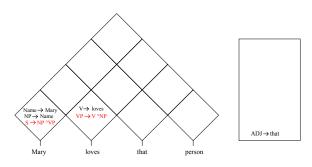
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# Chart parsing (dynamic programming)



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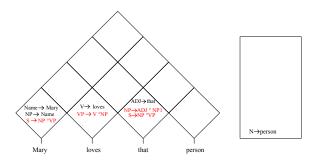


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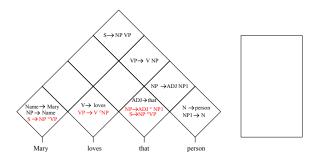
# Chart parsing (dynamic programming)



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Notes

# Chart parsing (dynamic programming)



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# Notes

# Stochastic Language Models (SLM)

- 1. formal grammars lack coverage (for general domains)
- 2. spoken language does not follow strictly the grammar

Model sequences of words statistically:

$$P(W) = P(w_1 w_2 \dots w_n)$$

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# Notes

# Probabilistic Context-free grammars (PCFGs)

Assign probabilities to generative rules:

$$P(A \rightarrow \alpha | G)$$

Then calculate probability of generating a word sequence  $w_1w_2...w_n$  as probability of the rules necessary to go from S to  $w_1w_2...w_n$ :

$$P(S \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_n | G)$$

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# Training PCFGs

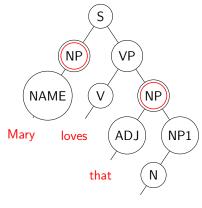
If annotated corpus, Maximum Likelihood estimate:

$$P(A \to \alpha_j) = \frac{C(A \to \alpha_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} C(A \to \alpha_i)}$$

If non-annotated corpus: **inside-outside algorithm** (similar to HMM training, forward-backward)

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# Independence assumption



person

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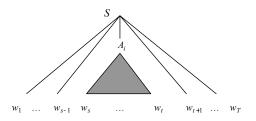
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# Inside-outside probabilities

Chomsky's normal forms:  $A_i o A_m A_n$  or  $A_i o w_l$ 

$$inside(s, A_i, t) = P(A_i \Rightarrow w_s w_{s+1} \dots w_t)$$

$$outside(s, A_i, t) = P(S \Rightarrow w_1 \dots w_{s-1} A_i w_{t+1} \dots w_T)$$



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# Notes

Probabilistic Context-free grammars:limitations

- probabilities help sorting alternative explanations, but
- still problem with coverage: the production rules are hand made

$$P(A \rightarrow \alpha | G)$$

1	Votes				
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# N-gram Language Models Notes Flat model: no hierarchical structure $P(\mathbf{W}) = P(w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n)$ $= P(w_1)P(w_2|w_1)P(w_3|w_1,w_2)\cdots P(w_n|w_1,w_2\ldots,w_{n-1})$ $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_{i-1})$ Approximations: $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i)$ (Unigram) $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i|w_{i-1})$ (Bigram) (Trigram) $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i|w_{i-2}, w_{i-1})$ $P(w_i|w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i|w_{i-N+1}, \dots, w_{i-1})$ (N-gram) Example (Bigram) Notes P(Mary, loves, that, person) =P(Mary | < s >) P(loves | Mary) P(that | loves)P(person|that)P(</s>|person)N-gram estimation (Maximum Likelihood) Notes Problem: data sparseness N-gram estimation example Notes John read her book I read a different book John read a book by Mulan $P(\mathsf{John}|<\mathsf{s}>)$ $= \frac{c(\mathsf{John},\mathsf{read})}{c(\mathsf{John})}$ P(read|John) $=\frac{C(read,a)}{}$ P(a|read)c(read) P(book|a) $=\frac{1}{2}$ $P(</s>|book) = \frac{c(book, <)}{c^{1/s}}$ $P(\mathsf{John},\mathsf{read},\mathsf{a},\mathsf{book}) =$ $P(\mathsf{John}|<\mathsf{s}>)P(\mathsf{read}|\mathsf{John})P(\mathsf{a}|\mathsf{read})\cdots$

P(book|a)P(</s>|book) = 0.148

 $P(Mulan, read, a, book) = P(Mulan | < s >) \cdots = 0$ 

# N-gram Smoothing Notes Problem: Many very possible word sequences may have been observed in zero or very low numbers in the training data Leads to extremely low probabilities, effectively disabling this word sequence, no matter how strong the acoustic evidence is Solution: smoothing produce more robust probabilities for unseen data at the cost of modelling the training data slightly worse Simplest Smoothing technique Notes Instead of ML estimate $P(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\ldots,w_{i-1}) = \frac{C(w_{i-N+1},\ldots,\ldots)}{\sum_{w_i} C(w_{i-N+1},\ldots,w_{i-1},w_i)}$ $1 + C(w_{i-N+1}, \ldots, w_{i-1}, w_i)$ $P(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\ldots,w_{i-1}) = \frac{1+C(w_{i-N+1},\ldots,w_{i-1},w_i)}{\sum_{w_i} (1+C(w_{i-N+1},\ldots,w_{i-1},w_i))}$ prevents zero probabilities but still very low probabilities N-gram simple smoothing example Notes 1: John read her book Corpus: 2: I read a different book 3: John read a book by Mulan $P(\mathsf{John}|<\mathsf{s}>)$ $=\frac{1+C(\mathsf{John},\mathsf{read})}{\cdot\cdot\cdot}$ P(read|John) $P(Mulan| < s >) = \frac{1+C(< s >, Mulan)}{11+C(< s >)}$ P(John, read, a, book) = $P(\mathsf{John}|<\mathsf{s}>)P(\mathsf{read}|\mathsf{John})P(\mathsf{a}|\mathsf{read})\cdots$ P(book|a)P(</s>|book) = 0.00035(0.148) $P(Mulan | < s >) P(read | Mulan) P(a | read) \cdots$ P(Mulan, read, a, book) =P(book|a)P(</s>|book) = 0.000084(0)Interpolation vs Backoff smoothing Notes Interpolation models: ▶ Linear combination with lower order n-grams Modifies the probabilities of both nonzero and zero count n-grams Backoff models: Use lower order n-grams when the requested n-gram has zero or very low count in the training data Nonzero count n-grams are unchanged ▶ Discounting: Reduce the probability of seen n-grams and distribute among unseen ones

# Interpolation vs Backoff smoothing

Interpolation models:

$$P_{\text{smooth}}(w_{i}|w_{i-N+1},...,w_{i-1}) = \lambda \underbrace{P_{\text{ML}}(w_{i}|w_{i-N+1},...,w_{i-1})}_{N-1} + \underbrace{(1-\lambda)P_{\text{smooth}}(w_{i}|w_{i-N+2},...,w_{i-1})}_{N-1}$$

Backoff models:

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathsf{smooth}}(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\dots,w_{i-1}) &= \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha \\ \overbrace{P(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\dots,w_{i-1})}^{N} & \text{if } C(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\dots,w_{i-1}) > 0 \\ \gamma \\ \overbrace{P_{\mathsf{smooth}}(w_i|w_{i-N+2},\dots,w_{i-1})}^{N-1} & \text{if } C(w_i|w_{i-N+1},\dots,w_{i-1}) = 0 \end{array} \right. \end{split}$$

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# Deleted interpolation smoothing

Recursively interpolate with n-grams of lower order: if  $\mathsf{history}_n = w_{i-n+1}, \dots, w_{i-1}$ 

$$P_l(w_i|\text{history}_n) = \lambda_{\text{history}_n} P(w_i|\text{history}_n) + (1 - \lambda_{\text{history}_n}) P_l(w_i|\text{history}_{n-1})$$

- ▶ hard to estimate  $\lambda_{history_a}$  for every history
- cluster into moderate number of weights

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Backoff smoothing

Use  $P(w_i|\text{history}_{n-1})$  only if you lack data for  $P(w_i|\text{history}_n)$ 

# Notes

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# Good-Turing estimate

- Partition n-grams into groups depending on their frequency in the training data
- Change the number of occurrences of an n-gram according to

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

where r is the occurrence number,  $n_r$  is the number of n-grams that occur r times

# Notes

# Katz smoothing Notes based on Good-Turing: combine higher and lower order n-grams For every N-gram: 1. if count r is large (> 5 or 8), do not change it 2. if count r is small but non-zero, discount with $\approx r^*$ 3. if count r = 0, reassign discounted counts with lower order N-gram $C^*(w_{i-1}, w_i) = \alpha(w_{i-1})P(w_i)$ Kneser-Ney smoothing: motivation Notes Background ▶ Lower order n-grams are often used as backoff model if the count of a higher-order n-gram is too low (e.g. unigram instead of bigram) Problem ▶ Some words with relatively high unigram probability only occur in a few bigrams. E.g. $\ensuremath{\text{Francisco}},$ which is mainly found in $\ensuremath{\text{San}}$ Francisco. However, infrequent word pairs, such as New Francisco, will be given too high probability if the unigram probabilities of New and Francisco are used. Maybe instead, the Francisco unigram should have a lower value to prevent it from occurring in other contexts. I can't see without my reading... Kneser-Ney intuition Notes If a word has been seen in many contexts it is more likely to be seen in new contexts as well. instead of backing off to lower order n-gram, use continuation probability Example: instead of unigram $P(w_i)$ , use $P_{CONTINUATION}(w_i) = \frac{|\{w_{i-1} : C(w_{i-1}w_i) > 0\}|}{\sum_{w_i} |\{w_{i-1} : C(w_{i-1}w_i) > 0\}|}$ I can't see without my reading...glasses Class N-grams Notes 1. Group words into semantic or grammatical 2. build n-grams for class sequences: $P(w_i|c_{i-N+1}...c_{i-1}) = P(w_i|c_i)P(c_i|c_{i-N+1}...c_{i-1})$ rapid adaptation, small training sets, small models works on limited domains

classes can be rule-based or data-driven

# Combining PCFGs and N-grams Notes Only N-grams: Meeting at three with Zhou Li Meeting at four PM with Derek P(Zhou|three, with) and P(Derek|PM, with))N-grams + CFGs: Meeting {at three: TIME} with {Zhou Li: NAME} Meeting {at four PM: TIME} with {Derek: NAME} P(NAME|TIME, with)Adaptive Language Models Notes conversational topic is not stationary topic stationary over some period of time build more specialised models that can adapt in **Techniques** Cache Language Models ► Topic-Adaptive Models Maximum Entropy Models Cache Language Models Notes 1. build a full static n-gram model 2. during conversation accumulate low order 3. interpolate between 1 and 2 Topic-Adaptive Models Notes 1. cluster documents into topics (manually or data-driven) 2. use information retrieval techniques with current recognition output to select the right 3. if off-line run recognition in several passes

# Maximum Entropy Models

Instead of linear combination:

- 1. reformulate information sources into constraints
- 2. choose maximum entropy distribution that satisfies the constraints

Constraints general form:

$$\sum_X P(X)f_i(X) = E_i$$

Example: unigram

$$f_{w_i} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } w = w_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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# Language Model Evaluation

- Evaluation in combination with Speech Recogniser
  - ▶ hard to separate contribution of the two
- ► Evaluation based on probabilities assigned to text in the training and test set

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# Information, Entropy, Perplexity

Information:

$$I(x_i) = \log \frac{1}{P(x_i)}$$

Entropy:

$$H(X) = E[I(X)] = -\sum_{i} P(x_i) \log P(x_i)$$

Perplexity:

$$PP(X) = 2^{H(X)}$$

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# Perplexity of a model

We do not know the "true" distribution  $p(w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ . But we have a model  $m(w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ . The cross-entropy is:

$$H(p,m) = -\sum_{w_1,\ldots,w_n} p(w_1,\ldots,w_n) \log m(w_1,\ldots,w_n)$$

Cross-entropy is upper bound to entropy:

$$H \leq H(p, m)$$

The better the model, the lower the cross-entropy and the lower the perplexity (on the same data)

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# Test-set Perplexity

Estimate the distribution  $p(w_1, ..., w_n)$  on the training data Evaluate it on the test data

$$H = -\sum_{w_1,\ldots,w_n \in \mathsf{test}} p(w_1,\ldots,w_n) \log p(w_1,\ldots,w_n)$$

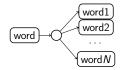
$$PP = 2^H$$

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Notes

# Perplexity and branching factor

Perplexity is roughly the geometric mean of the branching factor



Shannon: 2.39 for English letters and 130 for

English words Digit strings: 10

n-gram English: 50–1000

Wall Street Journal test set: 180 (bigram) 91

(trigram)

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# Performance of N-grams

Models	Perplexity	Word Error Rate
Unigram Katz	1196.45	14.85%
Unigram Kneser-Ney	1199.59	14.86%
Bigram Katz	176.31	11.38%
Bigram Kneser-Ney	176.11	11.34%
Trigram Katz	95.19	9.69%
Trigram Kneser-Ney	91.47	9.60%

Wall Street Journal database Dictionary: 60 000

words

Training set: 260 000 000 words

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