Lexicon and Language Model

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Automatic Speech Recognition – ASR Lecture 10 15 February 2018

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• Acoustic model $P(X \mid Q)$

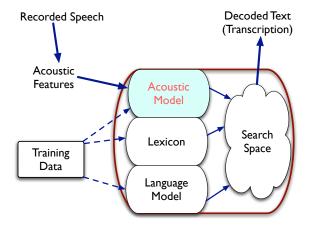
Probability of the acoustics given the phone states: context-dependent HMMs using state clustering, phonetic decision trees, etc.

Pronunciation model P(Q | W) Probability of the phone states given the words; may be as simple a dictionary of pronunciations, or a more complex model

• Language model P(W)Probability of a sequence of words. Typically an *n*-gram

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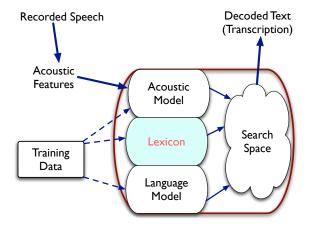
HMM Speech Recognition



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- Words and their pronunciations provide the link between sub-word HMMs and language models
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 - Provide the pronunciation of the pronunciation (s) of each word

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- Constructing a dictionary involves
 - Selection of the words in the dictionary—want to ensure high coverage of words in test data
 - ② Representation of the pronunciation(s) of each word
- Explicit modelling of pronunciation variation

Out-of-vocabulary (OOV) rate

- OOV rate: percent of word tokens in test data that are not contained in the ASR system dictionary
- Training vocabulary requires pronunciations for *all* words in training data (since training requires an HMM to be constructed for each training utterance)
- Select the recognition vocabulary to minimize the OOV rate (by testing on development data)
- Recognition vocabulary may be different to training vocabulary
- Empirical result: each OOV word results in 1.5–2 extra errors (>1 due to the loss of contextual information)

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Multilingual aspects

- Many languages are morphologically richer than English: this has a major effect of vocabulary construction and language modelling
- Compounding (eg German): decompose compound words into constituent parts, and carry out pronunciation and language modelling on the decomposed parts
- Highly inflected languages (eg Arabic, Slavic languages): specific components for modelling inflection (eg factored language models)
- Inflecting and compounding languages (eg Finnish)
- All approaches aim to reduce ASR errors by reducing the OOV rate through modelling at the morph level; also addresses data sparsity

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Single and multiple pronunciations

- Words may have multiple pronunciations:
 - Accent, dialect: tomato, zebra global changes to dictionary based on consistent pronunciation variations
 - Phonological phenomena: handbag/ h ae m b ae g I can't stay / [ah k ae n s t ay]
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 - Global transform based on speaker characteristics
 - Context-dependent pronunciation models, encoding of phonological phenomena

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- This seems to imply many pronunciations per word, including:
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- **BUT** state-of-the-art large vocabulary systems average about 1.1 pronunciations per word: most words have a single pronunciation

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Consistency vs Fidelity

- Empirical finding: adding pronunciation variants can result in reduced accuracy
- Adding pronunciations gives more "flexibility" to word models and increases the number of potential ambiguities—more possible state sequences to match the observed acoustics

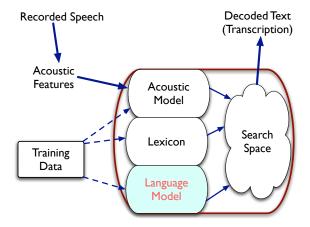
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- Speech recognition uses a consistent rather than a faithful representation of pronunciations
- A consistent representation requires only that the same word has the same phonemic representation (possibly with alternates): the training data need only be transcribed at the word level
- A faithful phonemic representation requires a detailed phonetic transcription of the training speech (much too expensive for large training data sets)

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Current topics in pronunciation modelling

- Automatic learning of pronunciation variations or alternative pronunciations for some words e.g. learning probability distribution over possible pronunciations generated by grapheme-to-phoneme models
 - Automatic learning of pronunciations of new words based on an initial seed lexicon
- Joint learning of the inventory of subword units and the pronunciation lexicon
- Sub-phonetic / articulatory feature model
- Grapheme-based modelling: model at the character level and remove the problem of pronunciation modelling entirely

HMM Speech Recognition



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Statistical language models

- Basic idea The language model is the prior probability of the word sequence *P*(*W*)
- Statistical language models: cover "ungrammatical" utterances, computationally efficient, trainable from huge amounts of data, can assign a probability to a sentence fragment as well as a whole sentence
- Until very recently **n-grams** were the state-of-the-art language model for ASR
 - Unsophisticated, linguistically implausible
 - Short, finite context
 - Model solely at the shallow word level
 - But: wide coverage, able to deal with "ungrammatical" strings, statistical and scaleable
- In an n-gram, the probability of a word depends only on the identity of that word and of the preceding n-1 words. These short sequences of n words are called n-grams.

Bigram language model

• Word sequence $\mathbf{W} = w_1, w_2, \dots, w_M$

$$P(\mathbf{W}) = P(w_1)P(w_2 \mid w_1)P(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2)$$

... $P(w_M \mid w_1, w_2, ..., w_{M-1})$

Bigram approximation—consider only one word of context:
 P(W) ≃ P(w₁)P(w₂ | w₁)P(w₃ | w₂)...P(w_M | w_{M-1})

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- Bigram approximation—consider only one word of context:
 P(W) ≃ P(w₁)P(w₂ | w₁)P(w₃ | w₂)...P(w_M | w_{M-1})
- Parameters of a bigram are the conditional probabilities $P(w_j \mid w_i)$
- Maximum likelihood estimates by counting:

$$P(w_j|w_i) \sim rac{c(w_i,w_j)}{c(w_i)}$$

where $c(w_i, w_j)$ is the number of observations of w_i followed by w_j , and $c(w_i)$ is the number of observations of w_i (irrespective of what follows)

The zero probability problem

- Maximum likelihood estimation is based on counts of words in the training data
- If a n-gram is not observed, it will have a count of 0—and the maximum likelihood probability estimate will be 0
- The zero probability problem: just because something does not occur in the training data does not mean that it will not occur
- As n grows larger, so the data grow sparser, and the more zero counts there will be

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- As n grows larger, so the data grow sparser, and the more zero counts there will be
- Solution: smooth the probability estimates so that unobserved events do not have a zero probability
- Since probabilities sum to 1, this means that some probability is redistributed from observed to unobserved n-grams

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Smoothing language models

• What is the probability of an unseen n-gram?

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- What is the probability of an unseen n-gram?
- Add-one smoothing: add one to all counts and renormalize.
 - "Discounts" non-zero counts and redistributes to zero counts
 - Since most n-grams are unseen (for large n more types than tokens!) this gives too much probability to unseen n-grams (discussed in Manning and Schütze)
- Absolute discounting: subtract a constant from the observed (non-zero count) n-grams, and redistribute this subtracted probability over the unseen n-grams (zero counts)
- Kneser-Ney smoothing: family of smoothing methods based on absolute discounting that are at the state of the art (Goodman, 2001)

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Backing off

- How is the probability distributed over unseen events?
- Basic idea: estimate the probability of an unseen n-gram using the (n-1)-gram estimate
- $\bullet~$ Use successively less context: trigram $\rightarrow~$ bigram $\rightarrow~$ unigram
- Back-off models redistribute the probability "freed" by discounting the n-gram counts

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- How is the probability distributed over unseen events?
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- Back-off models redistribute the probability "freed" by discounting the n-gram counts
- For a bigram

$$egin{aligned} & P(w_j \mid w_i) = rac{c(w_i, w_j) - D}{c(w_i)} & ext{if } c(w_i, w_j) > c \ &= P(w_j) b_{w_i} & ext{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

c is the count threshold, and D is the discount. b_{w_i} is the backoff weight required for normalization

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Interpolation

- Basic idea: Mix the probability estimates from all the estimators: estimate the trigram probability by mixing together trigram, bigram, unigram estimates
- Simple interpolation

$$\hat{P}(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) = \\\lambda_3 P(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) + \lambda_2 P(w_n \mid w_{n-1}) + \lambda_1 P(w_n)$$

With $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$

Interpolation with coefficients conditioned on the context

$$\hat{P}(w_{n} \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) = \\\lambda_{3}(w_{n-2}, w_{n-1})P(w_{n} \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) + \\\lambda_{2}(w_{n-2}, w_{n-1})P(w_{n} \mid w_{n-1}) + \lambda_{1}(w_{n-2}, w_{n-1})P(w_{n})$$

 Set λ values to maximise the likelihood of the interpolated language model generating a *held-out* corpus (possible to use EM to do this)

Perplexity

- Measure the quality of a language model by how well it predicts a test set *W* (i.e. estimated probability of word sequence)
- Perplexity (*PP*(*W*)) inverse probability of the test set *W*, normalized by the number of words *N*

$$PP(W) = P(W)^{\frac{-1}{N}} = P(w_1w_2...w_N)^{\frac{-1}{N}}$$

• Perplexity of a bigram LM

 $PP(W) = (P(w_1)P(w_2|w_1)P(w_3|w_2)\dots P(w_N|w_{N-1}))^{\frac{-1}{N}}$

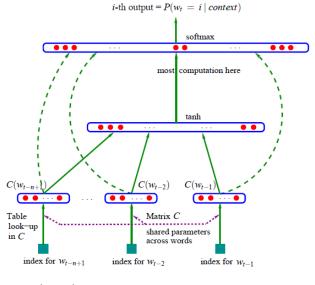
- Example perplexities for different n-gram LMs trained on Wall St Journal (38M words)
 - Unigram 962
 - Bigram 170
 - Trigram 109

Distributed representation for language modelling

- Each word is associated with a learned *distributed representation* (feature vector)
- Use a neural network to estimate the conditional probability of the next word given the the distributed representations of the context words
- Learn the distributed representations and the weights of the conditional probability estimate jointly by maximising the log likelihood of the training data
- Similar words (distributionally) will have similar feature vectors

 small change in feature vector will result in small change in
 probability estimate (since the NN is a smooth function)

Neural Probabilistic Language Model



Bengio et al (2006)

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Neural Probabilistic Language Model

- Train using stochastic gradient ascent to maximise log likelihood
- Number of free parameters (weights) scales
 - Linearly with vocabulary size
 - Linearly with context size
- Can be (linearly) interpolated with n-gram model
- Perplexity results on AP News (14M words training). |V| = 18k

model	n	perplexity
NPLM(100,60)	6	109
n-gram (KN)	3	127
n-gram (KN)	4	119
n-gram (KN)	5	117

Shortlists

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- Reduce computation by only including the *s* most frequent words at the output the *shortlist* (*S*) (full vocabulary still used for context)
- Use an n-gram model to estimate probabilities of words not in the shortlist
- Neural network thus redistributes probability for the words in the shortlist

$$P_{S}(h_{t}) = \sum_{w \in S} P(w|h_{t})$$
$$P(w_{t}|h_{t}) = \begin{cases} P_{NN}(w_{t}|h_{t})P_{S}(h_{t}) & \text{if } w_{t} \in S \\ P_{KN}(w_{t}|h_{t}) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

 In a |V| = 50k task a 1024 word shortlist covers 89% of 4-grams, 4096 words covers 97% Speech recognition results on Switchboard 7M / 12M / 27M words in domain data. 500M words background data (broadcast news) Vocab size |V| = 51k, Shortlist size |S| = 12k

WER/% in-domain words 7M 12M 27M KN (in-domain) 25.3 23.0 20.0 NN (in-domain) | 24.5 | 22.2 19.1 KN $(+b/g) \mid 24.1$ 22.3 19.3 NN $(+b/g) \mid 23.7$ 21.8 18.9

- Pronunciation dictionaries
- n-gram language models
- Neural network language models

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- Jurafsky and Martin, chapter 4
- Y Bengio et al (2006), "Neural probabilistic language models" (sections 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.6, 6.7, 6.8), Studies in Fuzziness and Soft Computing Volume 194, Springer, chapter 6. http:// link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/3-540-33486-6_6