Master HAP - Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

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Statistical Language Models

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Statistical NLP

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Broad multidisciplinary area

- Linguistics to provide models of language
- Psychology to provide models of cognitive processes
- Information theory to provide models of communication
- Mathematics & Statistics to provide tools to analyze and acquire such models
- Computer Science to implement computable models

Problems of the traditional approach (1)

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- Language Acquisition:
 Children try and discard syntax rules progressively
- Language Change:
 Language changes along time (ale vs. eel, while as Adv vs. Noun, near as Prep vs. Adj)
- Language Variation: Dialect continuum (e.g. Inuit)
- Language is a collection of statistical distributions:
 Weights for rules (phonetic, syntactic, etc) change when learning, along time, between communities...

Problems of the traditional approach (2)

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- Structural ambiguity
 Our company is training workers
 Our problem is training workers
 Our product is training wheels
- Scalability: scaling up from small and domain specific applications
- Practicallity: Time costly to build systems with good coverage
- Brittleness: understanding metaphors
- Reasoning: Requires world knowledge and common sense knowledge ⇒ learning

How Statistics helps

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- Disambiguation: Stochastic grammars. John walks
- Degrees of grammaticality
- Naturalness: strong tea, powerful car
- Structural preferences:
 The emergency crews hate most is domestic violence
- Error tolerance:

 We sleeps Thanks for all you help
- Learning on the fly:
 One hectare is a hundred ares
 The are a of I
- Lexical Acquisition.

Zipf's Laws (1929)

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- Word frequency is inversely proportional to its rank (speaker/hearer minimum effort) $f \sim 1/r$
- Number of senses is proportional to frequency root $m \sim \sqrt{f}$
- $lue{}$ Frequency of intervals between repetitions is inversely proportional to the length of the interval $F\sim 1/I$
- Random generated languages satisfy Zipf's laws
- Frequency based approaches are hard, since most words are rare
 - Most common 5% words account for about 50% of a text
 - 90% least common words account for less than 10% of the text
 - Almost half of the words in a text occurr only once

Usual Objections

Stochastic models are for engineers, not for scientists

- Approximation to handle information impractical to collect in cases where initial conditions cannot be exactly determined (e.g. as queue theory models dynamical systems).
- If the system is not deterministic (i.e. has emergent properties), an stochastic account is more insightful than a reductionistic approach (e.g. statistical mechanics)

Chomsky's heritage: Statistics can not capture NL structure

- Techniques to estimate probabilities of unseen events.
- Chomsky's criticisms can be applied to Finite State, N-gram or Markov models, but not to all stochastic models.

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Conclusions

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- Statistical methods are relevant to language acquisition, change, variation, generation and comprehension.
- Pure algebraic methods are inadequate for understanding many important properties of language, such as the measure of goodness that allows to identify the correct parse among a large candidate set.
- The focus of computational linguistics has been up to now on technology, but the same techniques promise progress at unanswered questions about the nature of language.

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Basics

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Random variable: Function on a stochastic process.

$$X:\Omega\longrightarrow\mathcal{R}$$

- Continuous and discrete random variables.
- Probability mass (or density) function, Frequency function: p(x) = P(X = x).

Discrete R.V.:
$$\sum_{x} p(x) = 1$$

Continuous R.V:
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$$

- Distribution function: $F(x) = P(X \le x)$
- Expectation and variance, standard deviation

$$E(X) = \mu = \sum_{x} xp(x)$$

 $VAR(X) = \sigma^2 = E((X - E(X))^2) = \sum_{x} (x - \mu)^2 p(x)$

Joint and Conditional Distributions

- Joint probability mass function: p(x, y)
- Marginal distribution:

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y} p(x, y)$$

 $p_Y(y) = \sum_{x} p(x, y)$ $p_{X|Y}(x \mid y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_Y(y)}$

Simplified Polynesian. Sequences of C-V syllabes: Two random variables C,V

P(C,V)	р	t	k		$P(p \mid i) = ?$
а	1/16		1/16	1/2	. ,
i	1/16	3/16	0	1/4	$P(a \mid t \lor k)$
u	0	3/16	1/16	1/4	$P(a \lor i \mid p)$
	1/8	3/4	1/8		

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Samples and Estimators

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Random samples

■ Sample variables:

Sample mean:
$$\bar{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Sample variance:
$$s_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{\mu}_n)^2$$
.

- Law of Large Numbers: as n increases, $\bar{\mu}_n$ and s_n^2 converge to μ and σ^2
- Estimators: Sample variables used to estimate real parameters.

Finding good estimators: MLE

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Choose the alternative that maximizes the probability of the observed outcome.
- $\blacksquare \bar{\mu}_n$ is a MLE for E(X)
- s_n^2 is a MLE for σ^2
- Data sparseness problem. Smoothing techniques.

P(a,b)	dans	en	à	sur	au-cours-de	pendant	selon	
in	0.04	0.10	0.15	0	0.08	0.03	0	0.40
on	0.06	0.25	0.10	0.15	0	0	0.04	0.60
total	0.10	0.35	0.25	0.15	0.08	0.03	0.04	1.0

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Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

Choose the alternative that maximizes the entropy of the obtained distribution, maintaining the observed probabilities.

Observations:

$$p(en \lor \grave{a}) = 0.6$$

P(a,b)	dans	en	à	sur	au-cours-de	pendant	selon	
in			0.15		0.04	0.04	0.04	
on	0.04	0.15	0.15	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	
total								1.0
		0	.6					

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Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

Choose the alternative that maximizes the entropy of the obtained distribution, maintaining the observed probabilities.

Observations:

$$p(en \lor \grave{a}) = 0.6; \qquad p((en \lor \grave{a}) \land in) = 0.4$$

P(a,b)	dans	en	à	sur	au-cours-de	pendant	selon	
in	0.04	0.20	0.20	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	
on	0.04	0.10	0.10	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	
total								1.0
	0.6							

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Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

Choose the alternative that maximizes the entropy of the obtained distribution, maintaining the observed probabilities.

Observations:

$$p(en \lor \grave{a}) = 0.6;$$
 $p((en \lor \grave{a}) \land in) = 0.4;$ $p(in) = 0.5$

P(a,b)	dans	en	à	sur	au-cours-de	pendant	selon	
in	0.02	0.20	0.20	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.5
on	0.06	0.10	0.10	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	
total								1.0
		0	.6					

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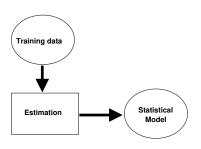
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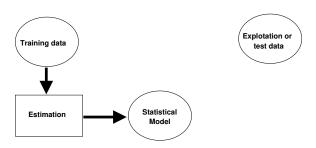
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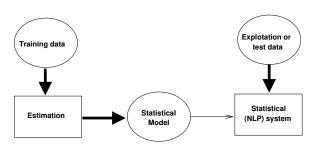
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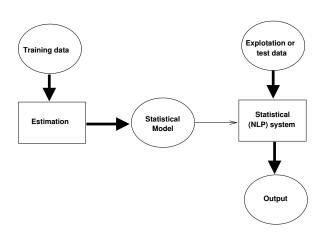
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Prediction Models & Similarity Models

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Markovian Models

- Prediction Models: Able to predict probabilities of future events, knowing past and present.
- Similarity Models: Able to compute similarities between objects (may predict, too).
 - Compare feature-vector/feature-set represented objects.
 - Compare distribution-vector represented objects
 - Used to group objects (clustering, data analysis, pattern discovery, ...)
 - If objects are "present and past" situations, computing similarities may be used as a prediction (memory-based ML techniques).

Similarity Models

Example: Document representation

- Documents are represented as vectors in a high dimensional \Re^N space.
- Dimensions are word forms, lemmas, NEs, ...
- Values may be either binary or real—valued (count, frequency, ...)

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\vec{x}^T = [x_1 \dots x_N]$ $|\vec{x}| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i^2}$

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Prediction Models

Example: Noisy Channel Model (Shannon 48)



NLP Applications

Appl.	Input	Output	p(i)	p(o i)
MT	L word	M word	p(L)	Translation
	sequence	sequence		model
OCR	Actual text	Text with	prob. of	model of
		mistakes	language text	OCR errors
PoS	PoS tags	word	prob. of PoS	p(w t)
tagging	sequence	sequence	sequence	
Speech	word	speech	prob. of word	acoustic
recog.	sequence	signal	sequence	model

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Inference & Modeling

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Markovian Models

- Using data to infer information about distributions
 - Parametric / non-parametric estimation
 - Finding good estimators: MLE, MEE, ...
- Example: Language Modeling (Shannon game), N-gram models.
- Predictions based on past behaviour
 - \blacksquare Target / classification features \to Independence assumptions
 - Equivalence classes (bins).Granularity: discrimination vs. statistical reliability

N-gram models

- Predicting the next word in a sequence, given the *history* or *context*. $P(w_n \mid w_1 \dots w_{n-1})$
- Markov assumption: Only *local* context (of size n-1) is taken into account. $P(w_i \mid w_{i-n+1} \dots w_{i-1})$
- bigrams, trigrams, four-grams (n = 2, 3, 4). Sue swallowed the large green <?>
- Parameter estimation (number of equivalence classes)
- Parameter reduction: stemming, semantic classes, PoS, ...

Model	Parameters
bigram	$20,000^2 = 4 \times 10^8$
trigram	$20,000^3 = 8 \times 10^{12}$
four-gram	$20,000^4 = 1.6 \times 10^{17}$

Language model sizes for a 20,000 words vocabulary

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MLE Overview

Estimate the probability of the target feature based on observed data. The prediction task can be reduced to having good estimations of the *n*-gram distribution:

$$P(w_n \mid w_1 \dots w_{n-1}) = \frac{P(w_1 \dots w_n)}{P(w_1 \dots w_{n-1})}$$

■ MLE (Maximum Likelihood Estimation)

$$P_{MLE}(w_1 ... w_n) = \frac{C(w_1 ... w_n)}{N}$$

 $P_{MLE}(w_n \mid w_1 ... w_{n-1}) = \frac{C(w_1 ... w_n)}{C(w_1 ... w_{n-1})}$

- No probability mass for unseen events
- Unsuitable for NLP
- Data sparseness, Zipf's Law

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Notation

■ $C(w_1 ... w_n)$: Observed occurrence count for n-gram $w_1 ... w_n$.

■ $C_A(w_1 ... w_n)$: Observed occurrence count for n-gram $w_1 ... w_n$ on data subset A.

■ N: Number of observed n-gram occurrences

$$N = \sum_{w_1...w_n} C(w_1...w_n)$$

- \blacksquare N_k : Number of classes (n-grams) observed k times.
- N_k^A : Number of classes (n-grams) observed k times on data subset A.
- B: Number of equivalence classes or bins (number of potentially observable n-grams).

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Smoothing 1 - Adding Counts

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■ Laplace's Law (adding one)

$$P_{LAP}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{C(w_1 \dots w_n) + 1}{N + B}$$

- For large values of *B* too much probability mass is assigned to unseen events
- Lidstone's Law

$$P_{LID}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{C(w_1 \dots w_n) + \lambda}{N + B\lambda}$$

- Usually $\lambda = 0.5$, Expected Likelihood Estimation.
- Equivalent to linear interpolation between MLE and uniform prior, with $\mu = N/(N + B\lambda)$,

$$P_{LID}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \mu \frac{C(w_1 \dots w_n)}{N} + (1 - \mu) \frac{1}{B}$$

Smoothing 2 - Discounting Counts

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Absolute Discounting

$$P_{ABS}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{r-\delta}{N} & ext{if } r > 0 \ & & & \ rac{(B-N_0)\delta/N_0}{N} & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

Linear Discounting

$$P_{LIN}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{(1-lpha)r}{N} & if \ r > 0 \ rac{lpha}{N_0} & otherwise \end{array}
ight.$$

Smoothing 3 - Held Out Data

- *Notation:* γ stands for $w_1 \dots w_n$.
- Divide the train corpus in two subsets, A and B.

■ Define:
$$T_r^{AB} = \sum_{\gamma: C_A(\gamma) = r} C_B(\gamma)$$

■ Held Out Estimator

$$P_{HO}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{T_{C_A(\gamma)}^{AB}}{N_{C_A(\gamma)}^A} \times \frac{1}{N}$$

Cross Validation (deleted estimation)

$$P_{DEL}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \frac{T_{C_A(\gamma)}^{AB} + T_{C_B(\gamma)}^{BA}}{N_{C_A(\gamma)}^A + N_{C_B(\gamma)}^B} \times \frac{1}{N}$$

Cross Validation (Leave-one-out)

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Combining Estimators

$$P_{LI}(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) =$$

$$= \lambda_1 P_1(w_n) + \lambda_2 P_2(w_n \mid w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P_3(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1})$$

General Linear Interpolation

Simple Linear Interpolation

$$P_{LI}(w_n \mid h) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i(h) P_i(w \mid h_i)$$

Katz's Backing-off

$$P_{BO}(w_i \mid w_{i-n+1} \dots w_{i-1}) = \begin{cases} (1 - d_{w_{i-n+1} \dots w_{i-1}}) \frac{C(w_{i-n+1} \dots w_i)}{C(w_{i-n+1} \dots w_{i-1})} \\ & \text{if } C(w_{i-n+1} \dots w_i) > k \\ \alpha_{w_{i-n+1} \dots w_{i-1}} P_{BO}(w_i \mid w_{i-n+2} \dots w_{i-1}) \\ & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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MEM Overview

- Maximum Entropy: alternative estimation technique.
- Able to deal with different kinds of evidence
- ME principle:

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NLP

- Do not assume anything about non-observed events.
- Find the most uniform (maximum entropy, less informed) probability distribution that matches the observations.
- Example:

Observations

p(a,b)	0	1		p(a, b)				p(a,b)			
Х	?	?		×	0.5	0.1		×	0.3	0.2	
у	?	?									
total	0.6		1.0	total	0.6		1.0	total	0.6		1.0
			•								

One possible p(a, b)

Max.Entropy p(a, b)

ME Modeling

- Observed facts are constraints for the desired model p.
 - Constraints take the form of feature functions:

$$f_i: \varepsilon \to \{0,1\}$$

■ The desired model must satisfy the constraints:

$$E_p(f_i) = E_{\widetilde{p}}(f_i) \ \forall i$$

where:

$$E_p(f_i) = \sum p(x)f_i(x)$$
 expectation of model p .

$$E_{\widetilde{p}}(f_i) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \widetilde{p}(x) f_i(x)$$
 observed expectation.

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Example

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Markovian Models References Example:

$$\varepsilon = \{x, y\} \times \{0, 1\}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
p(a, b) & 0 \\
\hline
x & ? \\
y & ? \\
\hline
total & 0.6
\end{array}$$

- Observed fact: p(x, 0) + p(y, 0) = 0.6
- Encoded as a constraint: $E_p(f_1) = 0.6$ where:

1.0

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Probability Model

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■ There is an infinite set *P* of probability models consistent with observations:

$$P = \{ p \mid E_p(f_i) = E_{\widetilde{p}}(f_i), \ \forall i = 1 \dots k \}$$

Maximum entropy model

$$p^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{p \in P} H(p)$$

$$H(p) = -\sum_{x \in \varepsilon} p(x) \log p(x)$$

Conditional Probability Model

■ For NLP applications, we are usually interested in conditional distributions P(A|B), thus:

$$E_{\widetilde{p}}(f_j) = \sum_{a,b} \widetilde{p}(a,b) f_j(a,b)$$

$$E_p(f_j) = \sum_{a,b} \widetilde{p}(b)p(a \mid b)f_j(a,b)$$

Maximum entropy model

$$p^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{p \in P} H(p)$$

$$H(p) = H(A \mid B) = -\sum_{a,b} \widetilde{p}(b)p(a \mid b) \log p(a \mid b)$$

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Parameter Estimation

Example: Maximum entropy model for translating in to French

No constraints

P(x)	dans	en	à	au-cours-de	pendant	
	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	
total						1.0

■ With constraint p(dans) + p(en) = 0.3

P(x)	dans	en	à	au-cours-de	pendant	
	0.15	0.15	0.233	0.233	0.233	
total	0.	.3				1.0

■ With constraints p(dans) + p(en) = 0.3; $p(en) + p(\grave{a}) = 0.5$...Not so easy!

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Parameter estimation

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Exponential models. (Lagrange multipliers optimization) $\frac{1}{a} \prod_{b=1}^{k} \frac{f_i(a,b)}{a} > 0$

$$p(a \mid b) = \frac{1}{Z(b)} \prod_{j=1}^{k} \alpha_j^{f_j(a,b)} \qquad \alpha_j > 0$$

$$Z(b) = \sum_{a} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i^{f_i(a,b)}$$

also formuled as

$$p(a \mid b) = \frac{1}{Z(b)} \exp(\sum_{j=1}^{k} \lambda_j f_j(a, b))$$

$$\lambda_i = \ln \alpha_i$$

- Each model parameter weights the influence of a feature.
- Optimal parameters (ME model) can be computed with:
 - GIS. Generalized Iterative Scaling(Darroch & Ratcliff 72)
 - IIS. Improved Iterative Scaling (Della Pietra et al. 96)
 - LM-BFGS. Limited Memory BFGS (Malouf 03)

Improved Iterative Scaling (IIS)

Input: Feature functions $f_1 \dots f_n$, empirical distribution $\widetilde{p}(a,b)$

Output: λ_i^* parameters for optimal model p^*

Start with $\lambda_i = 0$ for all $i \in \{1 \dots n\}$

Repeat

For each $i \in \{1 \dots n\}$ do

let $\Delta \lambda_i$ be the solution to

$$\sum_{\substack{a,b\\\lambda_i\leftarrow\lambda_i+\Delta\lambda_i}} \widetilde{p}(b)p(a\mid b)f_i(a,b)\exp(\Delta\lambda_i\sum_{j=1}^n f_j(a,b)) = \widetilde{p}(f_i)$$

end for

Until all λ_i have converged

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Application to NLP Tasks

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- Speech processing (Rosenfeld 94)
- Machine Translation (Brown et al 90)
- Morphology (Della Pietra et al. 95)
- Clause boundary detection (Reynar & Ratnaparkhi 97)
- PP-attachment (Ratnaparkhi et al 94)
- PoS Tagging (Ratnaparkhi 96, Black et al 99)
- Partial Parsing (Skut & Brants 98)
- Full Parsing (Ratnaparkhi 97, Ratnaparkhi 99)
- Text Categorization (Nigam et al 99)

PoS Tagging (Ratnaparkhi 96)

■ Probabilistic model over $H \times T$

$$h_i = (w_i, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2}, w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}, t_{i-1}, t_{i-2})$$

$$f_j(h_i,t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \emph{if suffix}(w_i) = \inf \wedge t = exttt{VBG} \ 0 & \emph{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

- Compute $p^*(h, t)$ using GIS
- Disambiguation algorithm: beam search

$$p(t \mid h) = \frac{p(h, t)}{\sum_{t' \in T} p(h, t')}$$

$$p(t_1 \ldots t_n \mid w_1 \ldots w_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(t_i \mid h_i)$$

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Text Categorization (Nigam et al 99)

■ Probabilistic model over $W \times C$

$$d=(w_1,w_2\ldots w_N)$$

$$f_{w,c'}(d,c) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{N(d,w)}{N(d)} & \textit{if } c = c' \\ 0 & \textit{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

- Compute $p^*(c \mid d)$ using IIS
- Disambiguation algorithm: Select class with highest

$$P(c \mid d) = \frac{1}{Z(d)} exp(\sum_{i} \lambda_{i} f_{i}(d, c))$$

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MEM Summary

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Advantages

- Teoretically well founded
- Enables combination of random context features
- Better probabilistic models than MLE (no smoothing needed)
- General approach (features, events and classes)

Disadvantages

- Implicit probabilistic model (joint or conditional probability distribution obtained from model parameters).
- High computational cost of GIS and IIS.
- Overfitting in some cases.

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Graphical Models

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Generative models:

- Bayes rule ⇒ independence assumptions.
- Able to *generate* data.

Conditional models:

- No independence assumptions.
- Unable to generate data.

Most algorithms of both kinds make assumptions about the nature of the data-generating process, predefining a fixed model structure and only acquiring from data the distributional information.

Usual Statistical Models in NLP

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Generative models:

- Graphical: HMM (Rabiner 1990), IOHMM (Bengio 1996).
 Automata-learning algorithms: No assumptions about model structure. VLMM (Rissanen 1983), Suffix Trees (Galil & Giancarlo 1988), CSSR (Shalizi & Shalizi 2004).
- Non-graphical: Stochastic Grammars (Lary & Young 1990)

Conditional models:

- Graphical: discriminative MM (Bottou 1991), MEMM (McCallum et al. 2000), CRF (Lafferty et al. 2001).
- Non-graphical: Maximum Entropy Models (Berger et al 1996).

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[Visible] Markov Models

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■ $X = (X_1, ..., X_T)$ sequence of random variables taking values in $S = \{s_1, ..., s_N\}$

- Markov Properties
 - Limited Horizon:

$$P(X_{t+1} = s_k \mid X_1, \dots, X_t) = P(X_{t+1} = s_k \mid X_t)$$

■ Time Invariant (Stationary):

$$P(X_{t+1} = s_k \mid X_t) = P(X_2 = s_k \mid X_1)$$

■ Transition matrix:

$$a_{ij} = P(X_{t+1} = s_j \mid X_t = s_i); \quad a_{ij} \ge 0, \ \forall i, j; \ \sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{ij} = 1, \ \forall i$$

■ Initial probabilities (or extra state s_0):

$$\pi_i = P(X_1 = s_i); \quad \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i = 1$$

MM Example

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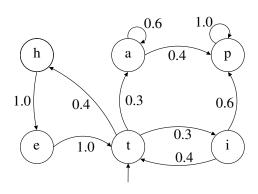
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Sequence probability:

$$P(X_1,...,X_T) = = P(X_1)P(X_2 \mid X_1)P(X_3 \mid X_1X_2)...P(X_T \mid X_1...X_{T-1}) = P(X_1)P(X_2 \mid X_1)P(X_3 \mid X_2)...P(X_T \mid X_{T-1}) = \pi_{X_1} \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} a_{X_tX_{t+1}}$$

Hidden Markov Models (HMM)

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States and Observations

■ Emission Probability:

$$b_{ik} = P(O_t = k \mid X_t = s_i)$$

- Used when underlying events probabilistically generate surface events:
 - PoS tagging (hidden states: PoS tags, observations: words)
 - ASR (hidden states: phonemes, observations: sound)
 - ...
- Trainable with unannotated data. Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm.
- arc-emission vs state-emission

Example: PoS Tagging

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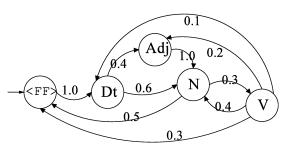
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Emission probabilities . the this cat kid eats runs fish fresh little big <FF> 1.0 Dt 0.6 0.4 N 0.6 0.1 0.3 V 0.7 0.3 Adi 0.3 0.3 0.4

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HMM Fundamental Questions

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Markovian Models HMM Fundamental Questions

- Q1. Observation probability (decoding): Given a model $\mu = (A, B, \pi)$, how we do efficiently compute how likely is a certain observation? That is, $P_{\mu}(O)$
- **Q2. Classification:** Given an observed sequence O and a model μ , how do we choose the state sequence (X_1, \ldots, X_T) that best explains the observations?
- Q3. Parameter estimation: Given an observed sequence O and a space of possible models, each with different parameters (A, B, π) , how do we find the model that best explains the observed data?

Question 1. Observation probability

- Let $O = (o_1, ..., o_T)$ observation sequence.
- For any state sequence $X = (X_1, ..., X_T)$, we have:

$$P_{\mu}(O \mid X) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P_{\mu}(o_{t} \mid X_{t})$$

= $b_{X_{1}o_{1}} b_{X_{2}o_{2}} \dots b_{X_{T}o_{T}}$

$$P_{\mu}(X) = \pi_{X_1} a_{X_1 X_2} a_{X_2 X_3} \dots a_{X_{T-1} X_T}$$

$$P_{\mu}(O) = \sum_{X} P_{\mu}(O, X) = \sum_{X} P_{\mu}(O \mid X) P_{\mu}(X)$$

$$= \sum_{X_{1} = X_{T}} \pi_{X_{1}} b_{X_{1}o_{1}} \prod_{t=2}^{T} a_{X_{t-1}X_{t}} b_{X_{t}o_{t}}$$

- Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(TN^T)$
- Dynammic Programming: Trellis/lattice. $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$



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Q1. Observation Probability

Trellis

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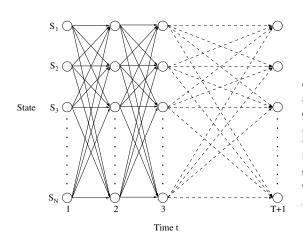
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> Q1. Observation Probability

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Fully connected where one HMM can move from any state to any other at each step. A node $\{s_i, t\}$ of the trellis stores information about state sequences include which $X_t = i$.

Forward & Backward computation

Forward procedure $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$

We store $\alpha_i(t)$ at each trellis node $\{s_i, t\}$.

$$\alpha_i(t) = P_{\mu}(o_1 \dots o_t, X_t = i)$$
 Probability of emmiting $o_1 \dots o_t$ and reach state s_i at time t .

- **1** Inicialization: $\alpha_i(1) = \pi_i b_{io_1}$; $\forall i = 1...N$
- 2 Induction: $\forall t: 1 \leq t < T$ $\alpha_j(t+1) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i(t) a_{ij} b_{jo_{t+1}}; \quad \forall j = 1 \dots N$

3 Total:
$$P_{\mu}(O) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i(T)$$

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Forward computation

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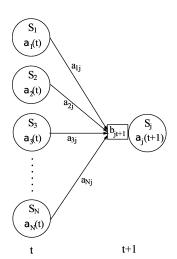
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> Q1. Observation Probability

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Closeup of the computation of forward probabilities at one node. The forward probability $\alpha_j(t+1)$ is calculated by summing the product of the probabilities on each incoming arc with the forward probability of the originating node.

Forward & Backward computation

Backward procedure $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$

We store $\beta_i(t)$ at each trellis node $\{s_i, t\}$.

$$eta_i(t) = P_{\mu}(o_{t+1} \dots o_T \mid X_t = i)$$
 Probability of emmiting $o_{t+1} \dots o_T$ given we are in state s_i at time t .

- **1** Inicialization: $\beta_i(T) = 1 \quad \forall i = 1 \dots N$
- 2 Induction: $\forall t: 1 \leq t < T$ $\beta_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^N a_{ij} b_{jo_{t+1}} \beta_j(t+1) \qquad \forall i = 1 \dots N$

3 Total:
$$P_{\mu}(O) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \pi_{i} b_{io_{1}} \beta_{i}(1)$$

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Forward & Backward computation

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Combination

$$P_{\mu}(O, X_t = i) = P_{\mu}(o_1 \dots o_{t-1}, X_t = i, o_t \dots o_T)$$

= $\alpha_i(t)\beta_i(t)$

$$P_{\mu}(O) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i(t) \beta_i(t) \quad \forall t : 1 \leq t \leq T$$

Forward and Backward procedures are particular cases of this equation when t=1 and t=T respectively.

Question 2. Best state sequence

■ Most likely path for a given observation *O*:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{argmax} P_{\mu}(X \mid O) &= \operatorname{argmax} \frac{P_{\mu}(X, O)}{P_{\mu}(O)} \\ &= \operatorname{argmax} P_{\mu}(X, O) \quad \text{(since O is fixed)} \end{array}$$

- Compute the best sequence with the same recursive approach than in FB: Viterbi algorithm, $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$.
- $\delta_j(t) = \max_{X_1...X_{t-1}} P_\mu(X_1 \dots X_{t-1} s_j, o_1 \dots o_t)$ Highest probability of any sequence reaching state s_j at time t after emmitting $o_1 \dots o_t$

reaching state s_i at time t after emmitting $o_1 \dots o_t$

 $\psi_j(t) = \textit{last}(\mathop{\mathsf{argmax}}_{X_1 \dots X_{t-1}} P_\mu(X_1 \dots X_{t-1} s_j, o_1 \dots o_t))$ Last state (X_{t-1}) in highest probability sequence

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Q2. Best State Sequence

Viterbi algorithm

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Q2. Best State Sequence

I Initialization:
$$\forall j = 1 \dots N$$

$$\delta_j(1) = \pi_j b_{jo_1}$$

$$\psi_j(1) = 0$$

2 Induction:
$$\forall t: 1 \leq t < T$$

$$\delta_j(t+1) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} \delta_i(t) a_{ij} b_{jo_{t+1}} \quad \forall j = 1 \dots N$$

$$\psi_j(t+1) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{1 < i < N} \delta_i(t) a_{ij} \quad \forall j = 1 \dots N$$

- 3 Termination: backwards path readout.
 - $\hat{X}_T = \operatorname*{argmax}_{1 \le i \le N} \delta_i(T)$
 - $\hat{X}_t = \psi_{\hat{X}_{t+1}}(t+1)$
 - $P(\hat{X}) = \max_{1 \le i \le N} \delta_i(T)$

Question 3. Parameter Estimation

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References

Obtain model parameters (A, B, π) for the model μ that maximizes the probability of given observation O:

$$(A,B,\pi) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\mu} P_{\mu}(O)$$

Baum-Welch algorithm

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Estimation

- Baum-Welch algorithm (aka Forward-Backward):
 - 1 Start with an initial model μ_0 (uniform, random, MLE...)
 - 2 Compute observation probability (F&B computation) using current model μ .
 - 3 Use obtained probabilities as data to reestimate the model, computing $\hat{\mu}$
 - 4 Let $\mu = \hat{\mu}$ and repeat until no significant improvement.
- Iterative hill-climbing: Local maxima.
- Particular application of Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm.
- EM Property: $P_{\hat{u}}(O) \ge P_{u}(O)$

Definitions

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Probability of being at state s_i at time t given observation O.

$$=\frac{\alpha_i(t)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}\beta_j(t+1)}{\sum_{k=1}^N\alpha_k(t)\beta_k(t)}$$

probability of moving from state s_i at time t to state s_j at time t+1, given observation sequence O. Note that $\gamma_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^N \varphi_t(i,j)$

 $\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \gamma_i(t)$ Expected number of transitions from state s_i in O.

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \varphi_t(i,j)$$
 Expected number of transitions from state s_i to s_j in O .

Arc probability

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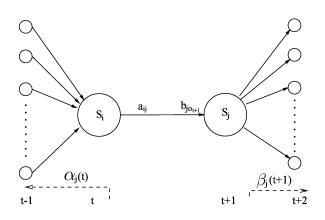
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Given an observation O, the model μ Probability $\varphi_t(i,j)$ of moving from state s_i at time t to state s_i at time t + 1 given observation O.

Reestimation

Iterative reestimation

$$\hat{\pi}_i = \frac{\text{Expected frequency in state } s_i \text{ at time } (t=1)}{s_i} = \gamma_i(1)$$

$$\hat{a}_{ij} = rac{ ext{Expected number of}}{ ext{Expected number of} \atop ext{Expected number of} \atop ext{transitions from } s_i \text{ to } s_j} = rac{\displaystyle\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} arphi_t(i,j)}{\displaystyle\sum_{T-1}^{T-1} \gamma_i(t)}$$

$$\hat{b}_{jk} = \frac{\underset{\text{emissions of } k \text{ from } s_j}{\text{Expected number of of visits to } s_j}}{\underset{\text{for instantial problem}}{\text{Expected number of of visits to } s_j} = \frac{\sum\limits_{\substack{t: 1 \leq t \leq T, \\ o_t = k}} \gamma_t(j)}{\sum\limits_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(j)}$$

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