Statistical Natural Language Processing Sequence learning

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University of Tübingen Seminar für Sprachwissenschaft

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x (input) y (output) Spam detection document spam or not Sentiment analysis product review sentiment Medical diagnosis patient data diagnosis Credit scoring financial history loan decision

Some (typical) machine learning applications

The cases (input-output) pairs are assumed to be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.).

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Structured prediction

In many applications, the i.i.d. assumption is wrong

	x (input)	y (output)
POS tagging	word sequence	POS sequence
Parsing	word sequence	parse tree
OCR	image (array of pixels)	sequences of letters
Gene prediction	genome	genes

Structured/sequence learning is prevalent in NLP.

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Sequence learning in NLP: examples

tokenization

The ${\tt U.N.}$ is the largest intergovernmental

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Sequence learning in NLP: examples

named-entity recognition



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Sequence learning in NLP: examples

part of speech tagging

Time flies an arrow DET NOUN PUNC NOUN VERB (ADP)

- · In all of the examples,
 - word/character-label pairs are not independent of each
 - we want to get the best label sequence not the best label for each word independently

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In this lecture ...

- Hidden Markov models (HMMs)
- A short note on graphical probabilistic models
- Alternatives to HMMs (briefly): HMEM / CRF

... and later

· Recurrent neural networks

Markov chains

A Markov chain is a process where probability of an event depends only on the previous event(s).

A Markov chain is defined by,

- A set of states $Q = \{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$
- A special start state q₀
- A transition probability matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{01} & a_{02} & \dots & a_{0n} \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where a_{ij} is the probability of transition from state i to

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Markov chains

calculating probabilities

Given a sequence of events (or states), $q_1, q_2, \dots q_t$,

• In a first-order Markov chain probability of an event qt is

$$P(q_t|q_1,\ldots,q_{t-1}) = P(q_t|q_{t-1})$$

- Sometimes this equality is just an assumption (as in n-gram models)
- In higher order chains, the dependence of history is extended, e.g., second-order Markov chain:

$$P(q_t|q_t,...,q_{t-1}) = P(q_t|q_{t-2},q_{t-1})$$

A relevant example of a Markov Chain is n-gram language models (coming soon).

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Hidden/latent variables

- In many machine learning problems we want to account for unobserved/unobservable *latent* or *hidden* variables
- Some examples
 - 'personality' in many psychological data
 - 'topic' of a text
 - 'socio-economic class' of a speaker
- Latent variables make learning difficult: since we cannot observe them, how do we set the parameters?

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Learning with hidden variables

An informal/quick introduction to the EM algorithm

- The EM algorithm (or its variants) is used in many machine learning models with latent/hidden variables
- 1. Randomly initialize the parameters
- 2. Iterate until convergence:

E-step compute likelihood of data data, given the parameters M-step re-estimate the parameters using the predictions based on the E-step

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Hidden Markov models (HMM)

• HMMs are like Markov chains: probability of a state depends only a limited history of previous states

$$P(q_t|q_1,\ldots,q_{t-1}) = P(q_t|q_{t-1})$$

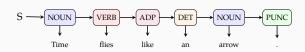
- Unlike Markov chains, state sequence is hidden, they are not the observations
- \bullet At every state q_t , an HMM \it{emits} an output, o_t , whose probability depends only on the associated hidden state
- Given a state sequence $q=q_1,\dots,q_T,$ and the corresponding observation sequence $o=o_1,\dots,o_T,$

$$P(\mathbf{o}, \mathbf{q}) = p(q_1) \left[\prod_{t=1}^{T} P(q_t | q_{t-1}) \right] \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(o_t | q_t)$$

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Example: HMMs for POS tagging



- The tags are hidden
- · Probability of a tag depends on the previous tag
- Probability of a word at a given state depends only on the current tag

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HMMs: formal definition

An HMM is defined by

- A set of state $Q = \{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$
- The set of possible observations $V = \{\nu_1, \dots, \nu_m\}$
- A transition probability matrix

- Initial probability distribution $\pi = \{P(q_1), \dots, P(q_n)\}$
- Probability distributions of

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & b_{m2} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} b_{ij} \text{ is} \\ emitting \\ q_j \end{array}$$

 b_{ij} is the probability of emiting output o_i at state q_j

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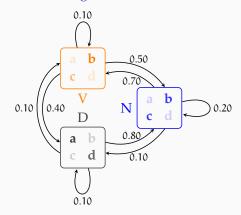
A simple example

- Three states: N, V, D
- Four possible observations: a, b, c, d

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} N & V & D \\ 0.2 & 0.7 & 0.1 \\ 0.5 & 0.1 & 0.4 \\ 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} N \\ V \\ D \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} N & V & D \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.5 \\ 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.1 \\ 0.4 & 0.3 & 0.1 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi = (0.3, 0.1, 0.6)$$

HMM transition diagram

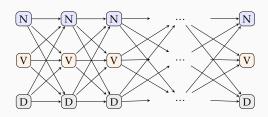


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Unfolding the states

HMM lattice (or trellis)

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HMMs: three problems

Evaluation

Calculating likelihood of a given sequence

$$P(\mathbf{o} \mid M)$$

Recognition/decoding

Calculating probability of state sequence, given an observation sequence

$$P(q \mid o; M)$$

Learning

Given observation sequences, a set of states, and (sometimes) corresponding state sequences, estimate the parameters (π, A, B) of the HMM

Assigning probabilities to observation sequences

$$P(\boldsymbol{o} \,|\, M) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{q}} P(\boldsymbol{o}, \boldsymbol{q} \,|\, M)$$

- We need to sum over an exponential number of hidden state sequences
- The solution is using a dynamic programming algorithm for each node of the trellis, store forward probabilities

$$\alpha_{t,i} = \sum_{j}^{N} \alpha_{t-1,j} P(q_i|q_j) P(o_i|q_i)$$

Assigning probabilities to observation sequences the forward algorithm

 \bullet Start with calculating all forward probabilities for $t=1\,$

$$\alpha_{1,i} = \pi_i P(o_1|q_i)$$
 for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant N$

store the α values

• For t > 1,

$$\alpha_{t,i} = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_{t-1,j} P(q_i|q_j) P(o_i|q_i) \quad \text{for } 1 \leqslant i \leqslant N, 2 \leqslant t \leqslant T$$

• Likelihood of the observation is the sum of the forward probabilities of the last step

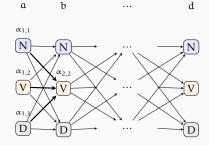
$$P(\mathbf{o}|M) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i,T}$$

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Forward algorithm

α

HMM lattice (or trellis)



 $\alpha_{1,1} = \pi_N b_{\alpha N}$

 $\alpha_{2,2} = \alpha_{1,1} \alpha_{\text{NV}} b_{\text{bV}} + \alpha_{1,2} \alpha_{\text{VV}} b_{\text{bV}} + \alpha_{1,3} \alpha_{\text{DV}} b_{\text{bV}}$

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Determining best sequence of latent variables Decoding

- We often want to know the hidden state sequence given an observation sequence, $P(\textbf{q} \mid \textbf{o}; M)$
 - For example, given a sequence of tokens, find the most likely POS tag sequence
- The problem (also the solution, the Viterbi algorithm) is very similar to the forward algorithm
- Two major differences
 - we store maximum likelihood leading to each node on the
 - we also store backlinks, the previous state that leads to the maximum likelihood

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HMM decoding problem

N

b

Learning the parameters of an HMM supervised case

- We want to estimate π , A, B
- ullet If we have both the observation sequence o and the corresponding state sequence, MLE estimate is

$$\begin{split} \pi_i &= \frac{C(q_0 \rightarrow q_i)}{\sum_k C(q_0 \rightarrow q_i)} \\ \alpha_{ij} &= \frac{C(q_i \rightarrow q_j)}{\sum_k C(q_i \rightarrow q_k)} \\ b_{ij} &= \frac{C(q_i \rightarrow o_j)}{\sum_k C(q_i \rightarrow o_k)} \end{split}$$

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Learning the parameters of an HMM

• Given a training set with observation sequence(s) o and state sequence q, we want to find $\theta = (\pi, A, B)$

$$\argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} P(\boldsymbol{o} \mid \boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Unlike i.i.d. case, we cannot factorize the likelihood over all observations
- · Instead we use EM
 - 1. Initialize θ
 - 2. Repeat until convergence

E-step given θ , estimate the hidden state sequence

M-step $\ \ given \ the \ estimated \ hidden \ states, use 'expected \ counts' to \ update \ \theta$

• An efficient implementation of EM algorithm is called Baum-Welch algorithm, or forward-backward algorithm

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HMM variations

- The HMMs we discussed so far are called ergodic HMMs: all α_{ij} are non-zero
- For some applications, it is common to use HMMs with additional restrictions
- A well known variant (Bakis HMM) allows only forward transitions



• The emission probabilities can also be continuous, e.g., p(q|o) can be a normal distribution

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Directed graphical models: a brief divergence

Bayesian networks

• We saw earlier that joint distributions of multiple random variables can be factorized different ways

$$P(x,y,z) = P(x)P(y|x)P(z|x,y) = P(y)P(x|y)P(z|x,y) = P(z)P(x|z)P(y|x,z)$$

- · Graphical models display this relations in graphs,
 - variables are denoted by nodes,
 - the dependence between the variables are indicated by edges
- · Bayesian networks are directed acyclic graphs







• A variable (node) depends only on its parents

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Graphical models

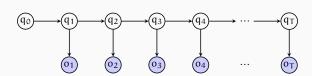
- Graphical models define models involving multiple random variables
- It is generally more intuitive (compared to corresponding mathematical equations) to work with graphical models
- In a graphical model, by convention, the observed variables are shaded
- Graphs can also be undirected, which are called Markov random fields

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HMM as a graphical model



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MaxEnt HMMs (MEMM)

- In HMMs, we model $P(q, o) = P(q)P(o \mid q)$
- • In many applications, we are only interested in P(q $\mid o),$ which we can calculate using the Bayes theorem
- But we can also model $P(q \mid o)$ directly using a maximum entropy model

$$P(q_t \mid q_{t-1}, o_t) = \frac{1}{7} e^{\sum w_i f_i(o_t, q_t)}$$

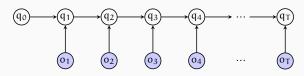
f_i are features – can be any useful feature

Z normalizes the probability distribution

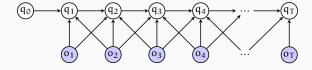
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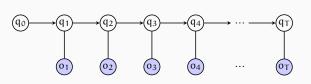
MEMMs as graphical models



We can also have other dependencies as features, for example



Conditional random fields



- A related model used in NLP is conditional random field (CRF)
- CRFs are undirected models
- CRFs also model $P(q \mid o)$ directly

$$P(q \mid \mathbf{o}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{t} f(q_{t-1}, q_t) g(q_t, o_t)$$

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Generative vs. discriminative models

- HMMs are *generative* models, they model the joint distribution
 - you can generate the output using HMMs
- MEMMs and CRFs are *discriminative* models they model the conditional probability directly
- It is easier to add arbitrary features on discriminative models
- In general: HMMs work well when the state sequence, P(q), can be modeled well

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Summary

- In many problems, e.g., POS tagging, i.i.d. assumption is wrong
- We need models that are aware of the effects of the sequence (or structure in general) in the data
- HMMs are generative sequence models:
 - Markov assumption between the hidden states (POS tags)
 - Observations (words) are conditioned on the state (tag)
- There are other sequence learning methods
 - Briefly mentioned: MEMM, CRF
 - Coming soon: recurrent neural networks

Next

Mon Unsuprevised learning

Wed Pracical session / discussion of Assignment 2 and (maybe) sample exam questions from Monday

Fri Neural networks

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