

• From the earliest linguistic traditions (Yaska and Panini 5th C. BCE, Aristotle 4th C. BCE), the idea that words can be classified into grammatical categories o part of speech, word classes, POS, POS tags

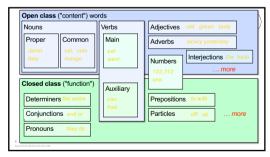
• 8 parts of speech attributed to Dionysius Thrax of Alexandria (c. 1st C. BCE): o noun, verb, pronoun, preposition, adverb, conjunction, participle, article

• These categories are relevant for NLP today.

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Part-of-Speech Tagging

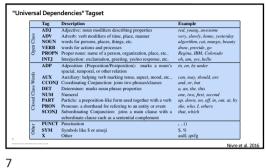
• Assigning a part-of-speech to each word in a text.

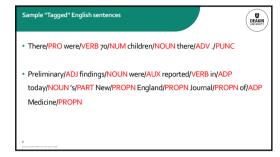
• Words often have more than one POS.

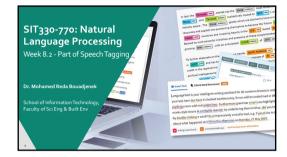
• book:

○ VERB: (Book that flight)

○ NOUN: (Hand me that book).

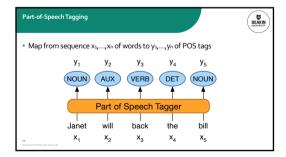






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Can be useful for other NLP tasks
 Parsing: POS tagging can improve syntactic parsing
 MT: reordering of adjectives and nouns (say from Spanish to English)
 Sentiment or affective tasks: may want to distinguish adjectives or other POS
 Text-to-speech (how do we pronounce "lead" or "object"?)

 Or linguistic or language-analytic computational tasks
 Need to control for POS when studying linguistic change like creation of new words, or meaning shift
 Or control for POS in measuring meaning similarity or difference

Roughly 15% of word types are ambiguous
Hence 85% of word types are unambiguous
Janet is always PROPN, heattantly is always ADV
But those 15% tend to be very common.
So -60% of word tokens are ambiguous
E.g., back
earnings growth took a back/ADJ seat
a small building in the back/NOUN
a clear majority of senators back/VERB the bill
enable the country to buy back/PART debt
I was twenty-one back/ADV then

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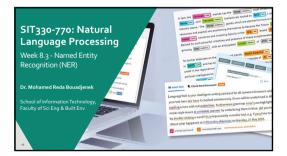




Standard algorithms for POS tagging

Supervised Machine Learning Algorithms:
Hidden Markov Models
Conditional Random Fields (CRF)/ Maximum Entropy Markov Models (MEMM)
Neural sequence models (RNNs or Transformers)
Large Language Models (like BERT), finetuned
All required a hand-labeled training set, all about equal performance (g7% on English)
All make use of information sources we discussed
Via human created features: HMMs and CRFs
Via representation learning: Neural LMs

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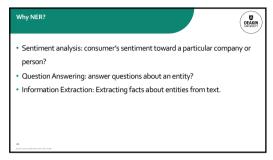




The task of named entity recognition (NER):
of ind spans of text that constitute proper names
o tag the type of the entity.

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1) Segmentation

In POS tagging, no segmentation problem since each word gets one tag.

In NER we have to find and segment the entities!

Type ambiguity

IPER Washington| was born into slavery on the farm of James Burroughs.

IORG Washington| went up 2 games to 1 in the four-game series.

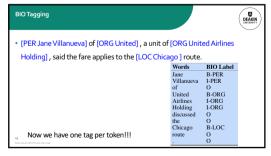
Blair arrived in [LOC Washington] for what may well be his last state visit.

In June. [GPE Washington] passed a primary seatbelt law.

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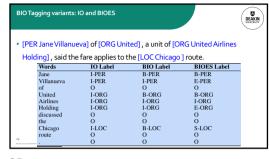
How can we turn this structured problem into a sequence problem like POS tagging, with one label per word?

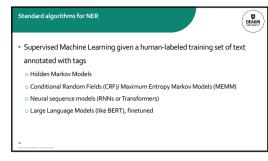
 [PER Jane Villanueva] of [ORG United], a unit of [ORG United Airlines Holding], said the fare applies to the [LOC Chicago] route.



BIO Tagging DEAKIN UNIVERSITY B: token that begins a span Words BIO Label I: tokens inside a span Jane B-PER Villanueva I-PER O O: tokens outside of any span B-ORG United Airlines I-ORG # of tags (where n is #entity types): Holding I-ORG discussed the Chicago n B tags, B-LOC n I tags total of 2n+1

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SIT330-770: Natural
Language Processing
Week 8.4. – Hidden Markov Model
(HMM) Part-of-Speech Tagging

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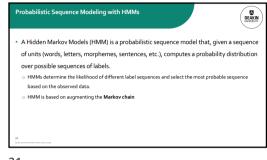
A Markov chain is a model that describes the probabilities of sequences of random variables or states, where each state can take on values from a predefined set.

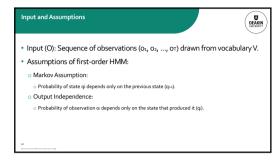
 It operates on the principle that future predictions depend solely on the current state, with no consideration of previous states except through the current one.

 Markov chains can represent various scenarios, such as predicting weather patterns or word sequences.

A Markov chain computes probabilities for sequences of observable events.
 But often, the events of interest are hidden.
 Example: Part-of-speech tags in text—hidden because we don't observe them directly.
 Solution: Hidden Markov Model (HMM) handles both observed and hidden events.
 HMMs augment Markov chains

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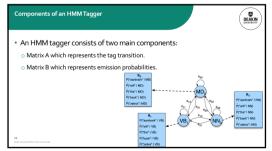


SIT330-770: Natural Language Processing
Week 8.5 – The components of an HMM tagger

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The A Matrix - Transition Probabilities

• The A matrix encapsulates the tag transition probabilities, P(t|t-1), which express how likely a tag follows its predecessor.

• Example:

• The advanced we'n "will" commonly precedes the base form of a verb (VB), as in "will racer", leading to a high transition probability.

• These probabilities are derived using maximum MLE by counting tag occurrences in a labeled corpus.

• Calculating Transition Probabilities:

• In the W51 corpus example, the modal verb tag (MD) is observed 13,124 times.

• Out of these, MD transitions to a base verb (VB) 10,471 times.

• Using MLE, we estimate P(VB)MD) = C(MD, VB) / C(MD) = 10,471/13,124 = 0.80.

The B Matrix - Emission Probabilities

• The B matrix contains emission probabilities, P(w|ti), which quantify the likelihood of a word being tagged with a specific tag.

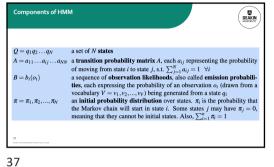
• Emission Probability Calculation

• To calculate emission probabilities, we count how often a word occurs with a particular tag in a corpus.

• For instance, the MD tag associated with the word 'will' occurs 4,046 times in the WSJ corpus.

• Hence, P(will|MD) is calculated as C(MD, will) / C(MD) = 4,046 / 13,124 = 0.31.

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Week 8.6 - HMM tagging as decoding

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Decoding with Hidden Markov Models



- Decoding is the process of determining the most probable sequence of hidden states (tags) based on observed data.
- o Given a sequence of observations $O = o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T$, decoding aims to find the most probable sequence of states $O = q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T$
- The input is an HMM \(\mathcal{A} = (A, B)\), with \(\mathcal{A}\) being the transition probabilities and \(\mathcal{B}\) the
 emission probabilities.

$$\hat{t}_{1:n} = \underset{t_1...t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(t_1...t_n | w_1...w_n)$$

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Decoding with Hidden Markov Models (i) $\hat{f}_{1:n} = \underset{t_1 \dots t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(t_1 \dots t_n | w_1 \dots w_n) \qquad \underset{\text{* most likely sequence}}{\underbrace{\operatorname{MAPA}^{n \text{-maximum a posterior"}}_{\text{* most likely sequence}}}$ $\hat{f}_{1:n} = \underset{t_1 \dots t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{P(w_1 \dots w_n | t_1 \dots t_n) P(t_1 \dots t_n)}{P(w_1 \dots w_n)} \qquad \underset{\text{Expers note}}{\underbrace{\operatorname{Expers note}}}$ $\hat{f}_{1:n} = \underset{t_1 \dots t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(w_1 \dots w_n | t_1 \dots t_n) P(t_1 \dots t_n) \qquad \underset{\text{Expers note}}{\underbrace{\operatorname{Comprise}}}$

Peccoding with Hidden Markov Models (ii) $\hat{I}_{1:n} = \underset{n}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(w_1...w_n|t_1...t_n) P(t_1...t_n)$ + HMM taggers make two further simplifying assumptions.

• The probability of a word appearing depends only on its own tag and is independent of neighboring words and tags: $P(w_1...w_n|t_1...t_n) \approx \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i|t_i)$ • The second assumption, the ougram assumption, is that the probability of a tag is dependent only on the previous tag, rather than the entire tag sequence; $P(t_1...t_n) \approx \prod_{i=1}^n P(t_i|t_{i-1})$

Decoding with Hidden Markov Models (iii)

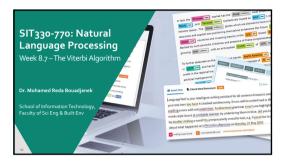


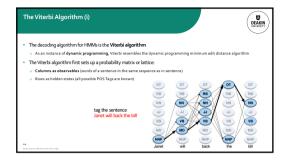
 Plugging the simplifying assumptions results in the following equation for the most probable tag sequence from a bigram tagger:

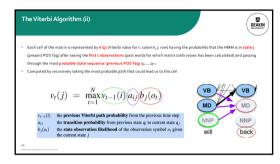
$$\hat{t}_{1:n} = \underset{t_1 \dots t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(t_1 \dots t_n | w_1 \dots w_n) \approx \underset{t_1 \dots t_n}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\operatorname{emission transition}}{P(w_i | t_i)} \underbrace{P(t_i | t_{i-1})}$$

 The two parts correspond neatly to the B emission probability and A transition probability that we defined previously!

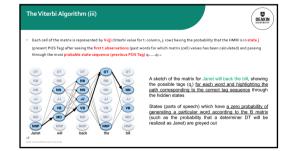
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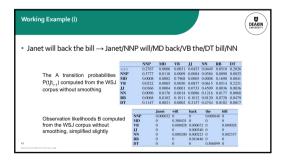


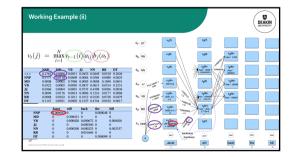




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