Introduction to Probabilistic Models for Information Retrieval

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Objectives

- · Highlight influential work on probabilistic models for IR
- Provide a working understanding of the probabilistic techniques through a set of common implementation tricks
- Establish relationships between the popular approaches: stress common ideas, explain differences
- Outline issues in extending the models to interactive, cross-language, multi-media

Outline

- Recap of probability theory
- Probability ranking principle
- Classical probabilistic model
 - Binary Independence Model
 - 2-Poisson model and BM25
 - feedback methods
- Language modeling approach
 - overview and design decisions
 - estimation techniques
 - synonymy and CLIR

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Recap of Probability Theory

- Random variables and event spaces
 - sample space, events, and probability axioms
 - random variables and probability distributions
- Conditional probabilities and Bayes rule
- Independence and conditional independence
- Dealing with data sparseness
 - pairwise and mutual independence
 - dimensionality reduction and its perils
 - symmetry and exchangeability

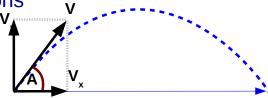
What's a probability?

- Means many things to many people
 - inherent physical property of a system
 - · ... a coin toss comes up heads
 - (asymptotic) frequency of something happening
 - · ... Red Sox win against Yankees
 - subjective belief that something will happen
 - ... the sun will rise tomorrow
- Laplace: "common sense reduced to numbers"
 - a very good substitute for scientific laws, when your scientific method can't handle the complexity

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Coin-tossing example

- Toss a coin, determine how far it will land?
 - Newtonian physics: solve equations
 - Force * dt / Mass → velocity V
 - 2 * G / (V * sin(Angle)) \rightarrow time T
 - T * V * cos (Angle) \rightarrow distance X



- Probability / statistics: count coincidences
 - · a gazillion throws, varying angle A, distance X
 - count how often we see X for a given A ,,, conditional P(X|A)
- Why would we ever do that?
 - lazy, expensive, don't really understand what's going on...
 - · can capture hidden factors that are difficult to account for
 - air resistance, effect of coin turning, wind, nearby particle accelerator...

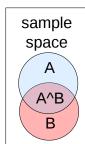
Outcomes and Events

- Sample and Event Spaces:
 - sample space: all possible **outcomes** of some experiment
 - event space: all possible sets of outcomes (power-set**)
- Examples:
 - toss a coin, measure how far it lands
 - outcome: e.g. coin lands at exactly 12.34567m (uncountably many)
 - event: range of numbers, coin landed between 12m and 13m
 - toss a coin twice, record heads / tails on each toss
 - sample space: {HH, HT, TH, TT} only four possible outcomes
 - event space: {{}, {HH}, {HT}..., {HH,HT}, {HH,TH}..., {HH,HT,TH}..., }
 - {HH,HT} = event that a head occurred on the first toss
 - {HH,HT,TH} = event that a head occurred on at least one of the tosses

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Probabilities

- Probability = how frequently we expect an event
 - e.g. fair coin \rightarrow P(H) = P(T) = $\frac{1}{2}$
 - assigned to events, not outcomes:
 - i.e. P(H) really means P({H}), but notation {} frequently dropped
- Probabilities must obey rules:
 - for any event: 0 <= P(event) <= 1
 - P(sample space) = 1 ... some outcome must occur
 - for any events A,B: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A \cap B)$
 - $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if events don't overlap (e.g. {HH, HT}+{TT})
 - Σ_{outcome} P({outcome}) = 1 ... additivity over sample space



Random Variables

- RV = a function defined over sample space
 - compute some property / feature of an outcome, e.g.:
 - X: coin toss distance, truncated to nearest imperial unit

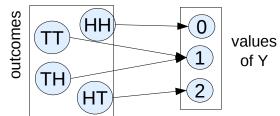
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- X(0.023) = "inch", X(0.8) = "yard", X(1500.1) = "mile", ...
```

- Y: number of heads observed during two coin tosses
 - Y(HH) = 2, Y(HT) = Y(TH) = 1, Y(TT) = 0
- RVs ... capital letters, their values ... lowercase
- Central notion in probabilistic approaches:
 - very flexible and convenient to work with:
 - can map discrete outcomes to numeric, and back
 - often describe everything in terms of RVs (forget sample space)

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Random Variables and Probabilities

- RVs usually deterministic (counting, rounding)
- What they operate on (outcomes) is probabilistic
 - probability RV takes a particular value is defined by the probabilities of outcomes that lead to that value:
 - P(Y=2) = P(two heads in two tosses) = P ({HH})
 - $P(Y=1) = P(exactly one head) = P({HT}) + P({TH})$
 - P(X="foot") = P(distance rounds to "foot") = P(0.1 < distance < 0.5)
- In general: $P(X=x) = \sum_{\text{outcome : } X(\text{outcome}) = x} P(\{\text{outcome}\})$



Random Variables Confusion

- Full RV notation is tedious
 - frequently shortened to list just variables, or just values:
 - $P(X_1 = X_1, X_2 = X_2, Y = y) \rightarrow P(X_1, X_2, Y)$
 - P(X₁=yard, W₂=mile) → P(yard,mile)
- Fine, as long as clear what RVs mean:
 - for 2 coin-tosses P("head") can mean:
 - P(head on the first toss) = P({HH}) + P({HT})
 - $P(a \text{ head was observed}) = P({HH}) + P({HT}) + P({TH})$
 - P(exactly one head observed) = P({HT}) + P({TH})
 - these mean different things, can't be interchanged
- In general: clearly define the domain for each RV.

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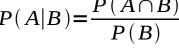
Types of Random Variables

- Completely determined by domain (types of output)
- Discrete: RV values = finite or countable
 - ex: coin tossing, dice-rolling, counts, words in a language
 - additivity: $\sum_{x} P(x) = 1$
 - P(X = x) is a sensible concept
- Continuous: RV values are real numbers
 - ex: distances, times, parameter values for IR models
 - additivity: $\int_{x} p(x)dx=1$
 - P(X = x) is always zero, p(x) is a "density" function
- Singular RVs ... never see them in IR

Conditional Probabilities

• P(A | B) ... probability of event A happening assuming we know B happened

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$





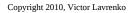
population size: 10,000,000

- number of scientists: 10,000

- Nobel prize winners: 10 (1 is an engineer)

- P(scientist) = 0.001

P(scientist | Nobel prize) = 0.9



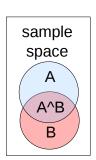
Bayes Rule

A way to "flip" conditional probabilities:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- Example:
 - P(scientist | Nobel prize) = 0.9
 - P(Nobel prize) = 10^{-6} , P(scientist) = 10^{-3}
 - P(Nobel prize | scientist) = $0.9 * 10^{-6} / 10^{-3} = 0.0009$
- Easy to derive (definition of conditional probabilities):

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} \times \frac{P(A)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$



Chain Rule and Independence

- Chain Rule: a way to decompose joint probabilities
 - directly from definition of conditionals
 - exact, no assumptions are involved

$$P(X_1...X_n) = P(X_1|X_2...X_n) P(X_2|X_3...X_n) ... P(X_n)$$

- Independence:
 - X and Y are independent (don't influence each other)
 - coin example: distance travelled and whether it's H or T
 - · probably doesn't hold for very short distances
 - mutual independence: multiply probabilities (cf. Chain rule):

$$P(X_1...X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i)$$

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Conditional Independence

- Variables X and Y may be dependent
 - but all influence can be explained by another variable Z

• X: you go to the beach

go to beach

- Y: you get a heatstroke
- Z: the weather is hot

X and Y are independent if we know Z

hot weather —

heatstroke

(icycle melts)

- if we other is but be statustic investigations of boo
- if weather is hot, heatstroke irrespective of beach

$$P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z) P(Y|Z)$$

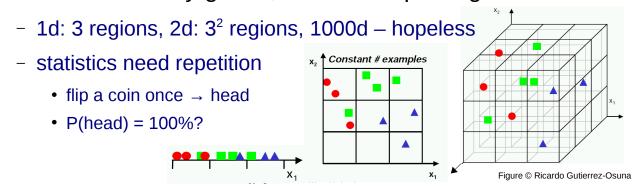
- if Z is unknown, X and Y are dependent

$$P(X,Y) = \sum_{z} P(X|Z=z) P(Y|Z=z) P(Z=z)$$

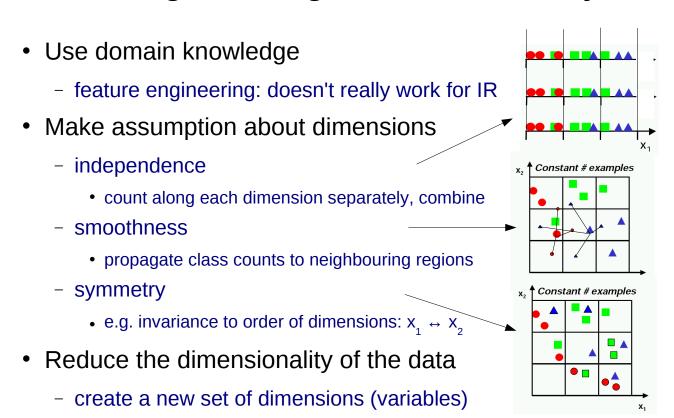
· Don't mix conditional and mutual independence

Curse of dimensionality

- Why do we need to assume independence?
- · Probabilistic models based on counting
 - count observations (documents)
 - of different classes (relevant / non-relevant)
 - along different regions of space (words)
- · As dimensionality grows, fewer dots per region



Dealing with high dimensionality



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Models in Information Retrieval

- Mathematical formalism for processes:
 - formulation: information need → query
 - indexing: documents → index terms
 - retrieval: query + corpus → search results
- Over the following variables
 - documents (D), queries (Q), relevance (R)
 - user, task, context, search history, click rate, ...
- Usually involve abstract analogy
 - document is an urn containing words
 - query is a logical formula that needs to be "proved"
 - user is a greedy memory-less random process

Probability Ranking Principle

- Robertson (1977)
 - "If a reference retrieval system's response to each request is a ranking of the documents in the collection in order of decreasing probability of relevance to the user who submitted the request,
 - where the probabilities are estimated as accurately as possible on the basis of whatever data have been made available to the system for this purpose,
 - the overall effectiveness of the system to its user will be the best that is obtainable on the basis of those data."
- Basis for most probabilistic approaches to IR

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Let's dissect the PRP

- rank documents ... by probability of relevance
 - P (relevant | document)
- estimated as accurately as possible
 - $_{-}$ P $_{\rm est}$ (relevant | document) $_{-}$ P $_{\rm true}$ (rel | doc) in some way
- based on whatever data is available to system
 - $_{-}$ P $_{\rm est}$ (relevant | document, query, context, user profile, ...)
- best possible accuracy one can achieve with that data
 - recipe for a perfect IR system: just need P_{est} (relevant | ...)
 - strong stuff, can this really be true?

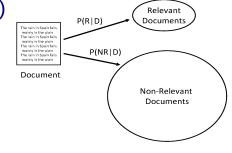
Probability of relevance

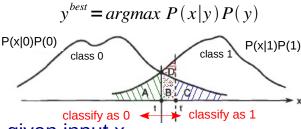
- What is: P_{true} (relevant | doc, qry, user, context) ?
 - isn't relevance just the user's opinion?
 - user decides relevant or not, what's the "probability" thing?
- "user" does not mean the human being
 - doc, gry, user, context ... representations
 - · parts of the real thing that are available to the system
 - typical case: P_{true} (relevant | document, query)
 - query: 2-3 keywords, user profile unknown, context not available
 - · whether document is relevant is uncertain
 - depends on the factors which are not available to our system
 - think of P_{true} (rel | doc,qry) as proportion of all unseen users/contexts/...
 for which the document would have been judged relevant

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IR as classification

- For a given query, documents fall into two classes
 - relevant (R=1) and non-relevant (R=0)
 - compute P(R=1|D) and P(R=0|D)
 - retrieve if P(R=1|D) > P(R=0|D)
- Related to Bayes error rate
 - if P(x|0) P(0) > P(x|1) P(1)then class 0 otherwise 1





- no way to do better than Bayes given input x
 - input x does not allow us to determine class any better

Optimality of PRP

- Retrieving a set of documents:
 - PRP equivalent to Bayes error criterion
 - optimal wrt. classification error
- Ranking a set of documents: optimal wrt:
 - precision / recall at a given rank
 - average precision, etc.
- Need to estimate P(relevant | document, query)
 - many different attempts to do that
 - Classical Probabilistic Model (Robertson, Sparck-Jones)
 - · also known as Binary Independence model, Okapi model
 - very influential, successful in TREC (BM25 ranking formula)

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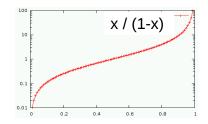
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Classical probabilistic model

- Assumption A0:
 - relevance of D doesn't depend on any other document
 - made by almost every retrieval model (exception: cluster-based)
- Rank documents by P(R=1|D)
 - R = {0,1} ... Bernoulli RV indicating relevance
 - D ... represents content of the document
- · Rank-equivalent:

$$P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{P(R=1|D)}{P(R=0|D)} = \frac{P(D|R=1) P(R=1)}{P(D|R=0) P(R=0)}$$



- Why Bayes? Want a generative model.
 - P (observation | class) sometimes easier with limited data
 - note: P(R=1) and P(R=0) don't affect the ranking

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Generative and Discriminative

- A complete probability distribution over documents
 - defines likelihood for any possible document *d* (observation)
 - P(relevant) via P(document):

$$P(R|d) \propto P(d|R) P(R)$$

- can "generate" synthetic documents
 - will share some properties of the original collection
- Not all retrieval models do this
 - possible to estimate P(R|d) directly
 - e.g. log-linear model





Probabilistic model: assumptions

- Want P(D|R=1) and P(D|R=0)
- Assumptions:
 - A1: D = $\{D_{w}\}$... one RV for every word w
 - Bernoulli: values 0,1 (word either present or absent in a document)
 - A2: D_{w} ... are mutually independent given R
 - blatantly false: presence of "Barack" tells you nothing about "Obama"
 - · but must assume something: D represents subsets of vocabulary
 - without assumptions: 10⁶! possible events
 - allows us to write:

$$P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{P(D|R=1)}{P(D|R=0)} = \frac{\prod_{w} P(D_{w}|R=1)}{\prod_{w} P(D_{w}|R=0)}$$

Observe: identical to the Naïve Bayes classifier

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Probabilistic model: assumptions

- Define: $p_w = P(D_w=1|R=1)$ and $q_w = P(D_w=1|R=0)$
- Assumption A3 : $P(\vec{0}|R=1)=P(\vec{0}|R=0)$
 - empty document (all words absent) is equally likely to be observed in relevant and non-relevant classes
- Result:

$$P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \prod_{w \in D} \left(\frac{p_{w}}{q_{w}}\right) \prod_{w \notin D} \left(\frac{1-p_{w}}{1-q_{w}}\right) / \prod_{w} \left(\frac{1-p_{w}}{1-q_{w}}\right) = \prod_{w \in D} \frac{p_{w}(1-q_{w})}{q_{w}(1-p_{w})}$$

- dividing by 1: no effect

$$\frac{P(\vec{0}|R=1)}{P(\vec{0}|R=0)} = 1$$

- provides "natural zero"
- practical reason: final product only over words present in D
 - fast: small % of total vocabulary + allows term-at-a-time execution

Estimation (with relevance)

- Suppose we have (partial) relevance judgments:
 - $-N_1 \dots$ relevant, $N_0 \dots$ non-relevant documents marked
 - word w observed in N₁(w), N₀(w) docs
 - P(w) = % of docs that contain at least one mention of w
 - includes crude smoothing: avoids zeros, reduces variance

$$p_{w} = \frac{N_{1}(w) + 0.5}{N_{1} + 1.0} \qquad q_{w} = \frac{N_{0}(w) + 0.5}{N_{0} + 1.0}$$

- What if we don't have relevance information?
 - no way to count words for relevant / non-relevant classes
 - things get messy...

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Example (with relevance)

- relevant docs: D_1 = "a b c b d", D_2 = "a b e f b"
- non-relevant: D_3 = "b g c d", D_4 = "b d e", D_5 = "a b e g"

- word: a b c d e f g h
$$N_1(w)$$
: 2 2 1 1 1 1 0 0 $N_1 = 2$ $N_0(w)$: 1 3 1 2 2 0 2 $N_0 = 3$ $N_0(w)$: 1 3 1 5/3 1.5/3 1.5/3 1.5/3 0.5/3 0.5/3 $N_0 = 3$ $N_0(w)$: 1.5/4 1.5/4 2.5/4 0.5/4 0.5/4 0.5/4

- new document $D_6 = \text{"b g h"}$:

$$P(R=1|D_6) \stackrel{\textit{rank}}{=} \prod_{w \in D_6} \frac{p_w(1-q_w)}{q_w(1-p_w)} = \frac{\frac{2.5}{3} \cdot (1-\frac{3.5}{4}) \cdot \frac{0.5}{3} \cdot (1-\frac{2.5}{4}) \cdot \frac{0.5}{3} \cdot (1-\frac{0.5}{4})}{\frac{3.5}{4} \cdot (1-\frac{2.5}{3}) \cdot \frac{2.5}{4} \cdot (1-\frac{0.5}{3}) \cdot \frac{0.5}{4} \cdot (1-\frac{0.5}{3})} = \frac{1.64}{13.67}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{copyright 2010, Victor Lavrenko}}{\text{only words}}$$

Estimation (no relevance)

- Assumption A4: $p_w = q_w if w \notin Q$
 - if the word is not in the guery, it is equally likely to occur in relevant and non-relevant populations
 - practical reason: restrict product to query document overlap
- Assumption A5: $p_w = 0.5 if w \in Q$
 - a query word is equally likely to be present and absent in a randomly-picked relevant document (usually $p_{w} \ll 0.5$)
 - practical reason: $\mathbf{p}_{_{\mathbf{w}}}$ and (1- $\mathbf{p}_{_{\mathbf{w}}}\!$) cancel out
- Assumption A6: $q_w \approx N_w/N$
 - non-relevant set approximated by collection as a whole
 - very reasonable: most documents are non-relevant

• Result:
$$P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \prod_{w \in D} \frac{p_w(1-q_w)}{q_w(1-p_w)} = \prod_{w \in D \cap Q} \frac{1-q_w}{q_w} = \prod_{w \in D \cap Q} \frac{N-N_w+0.5}{N_w+0.5}$$

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Example (no relevance)

- documents:
$$D_1$$
 = "a b c b d", D_2 = "b e f b", D_3 = "b g c d", D_4 = "b d e", D_5 = "a b e g", D_6 = "b g h"

word: a b c d e f g h
$$N(w)$$
: 2 6 2 3 3 1 3 1 $N = 6$

- query: Q = "a c h"

$$P(R=1|D_1) \stackrel{rank}{=} \prod_{w \in Q \cap D_1} \frac{N - N_w + 0.5}{N_w + 0.5} = \frac{4.5}{2.5} \cdot \frac{4.5}{2.5} \qquad P(R=1|D_4) \stackrel{rank}{=} 1$$
 Ranking: Only words present in both D & Q
$$P(R=1|D_2) \stackrel{rank}{=} 1 \qquad P(R=1|D_5) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{4.5}{2.5}$$

$$P(R=1|D_5) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{4.5}{2.5}$$

$$P(R=1|D_6) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{5.5}{1.5}$$

$$P(R=1|D_6) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{5.5}{1.5}$$

$$P(R=1|D_6) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{5.5}{1.5}$$

$$P(R=1|D_6) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{5.5}{1.5}$$

Probabilistic model (review)

- Probability Ranking Principle: best possible ranking
- Assumptions: $P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \prod_{w \in D} \frac{p_w}{q_w} \prod_{w \notin D} \frac{1-p_w}{1-q_w} = \prod_{w \in D \cap Q} \frac{N-N_v}{N_v}$
 - A0: relevance for document in isolation
 - A1: words absent or present (can't model frequency)
 - A2: all words mutually independent (given relevance)
 - A3: empty document equally likely for R=0,1

- A4: non-query words cancel out

efficiency

- A5: query words: relevant class doesn't matter
- A6: non-relevant class ~ collection as a whole
- estimate p_w , q_w w/out relevance observations

How can we improve the model?

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Modeling word dependence

- Classical model assumes all words independent
 - blatantly false, made by almost all retrieval models
 - the most widely criticized assumption behind IR models
 - should be able to do better, right?
- Word dependence models
 - details in part II of the tutorial
 - preview: (van Rijsbergen, 1977)
 - · structure dependencies as maximum spanning tree
 - each word depends on its parent (and R)

```
P("he likes to wink and drink pink ink")
= P(likes) * P(to|likes) * P(wink|likes) * P(and|to)
* P(drink|likes) * P(he|drink) * P(pink|drink) * P(ink|pink)
```

Why dependency models fail

- Word independence constantly criticized
 - blatantly wrong assumption about language
 - numerous attempts to model dependency
 - never a consistent improvement
- Language Modeling Framework
 - dependency models address wrong problem
 - · focus on surface form of the string
 - we are dealing with already well-formed strings
- Classical Probabilistic Framework
 - does not in fact assume word independence

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BIR doesn't assume independence

$$\frac{P_{R=1}(\vec{d})}{P_{R=0}(\vec{d})} = \prod_{v} \frac{P_{1}(d_{v})}{P_{0}(d_{v})} \times \prod_{v} \frac{k_{1}(v)}{k_{0}(v)} = \prod_{v} \frac{P_{1}(d_{v}|d_{\pi(v)})}{P_{0}(d_{v}|d_{\pi(v)})}$$
 independence will not affect ranking if
$$\sum_{v} \log \frac{P_{1}(d_{v},d_{\pi(v)})}{P_{1}(d_{v})P_{1}(d_{\pi(v)})} \sim \sum_{v} \log \frac{P_{0}(d_{v},d_{\pi(v)})}{P_{0}(d_{v})P_{0}(d_{\pi(v)})}$$
 aggregate dependence between word and parent in the relevant class

Sufficient condition: proportional interdependence

the **total** amount of interdependence among **all** words in a document is approximately the same under R=1 and R=0

Meaning of Independence

- Independence:
 - seeing "subprime" doesn't affect chances of seeing "loan"
- Linked Dependence:
 - seeing "subprime" increases chance of seeing "loan"
 - by the same amount under R=1 and R=0
 - reasonable... unless topic is financial crisis
- Proportional Interdependence:
 - "subprime" increases chance of "loan"
 - can be more co-dependent in relevant class
 - as long as offset by other word sets under R=0
 - "world cup" more co-dependent in non-relevant class

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Probabilistic model (review)

Probability Ranking Principle: best possible ranking

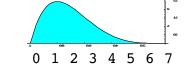
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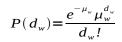
How can we improve the model?

Modeling word frequencies

- Want to model TF (empirically useful) $P(R=1|D) \stackrel{rank}{=} \prod_{w \in D} \frac{P(d_w|R=1)}{P(d_w|R=0)}$
 - A1': assume D_w=d_w... # times word w occurs in document D
 - estimate P(d_w|R): e.g. "obama" occurs 5 times in a rel. doc
 - naive: separate prob.for every outcome: $p_{w,1}$, $p_{w,2}$, $p_{w,3}$, ...
 - many outcomes → many parameters (BIR had only one p_w)
 - "smoothness" in the outcomes: d_w =5 similar to d_w =6, but not d_w =1
 - parametric model: assume d_w ~ Poisson
 - single parameter m_w... expected frequency



- problem: Poisson a poor fit to observations
 - does not capture bursty nature of words



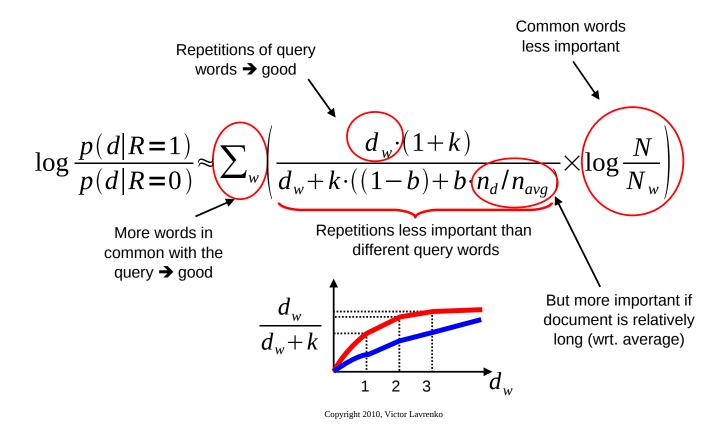
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Two-Poisson model [Harter]

- Idea: words generated by a mixture of two Poissons
 - "elite" words for a document: occur unusually frequently
 - "non-elite" words occur as expected by chance
 - document is a mixture: $P(d_w) = P(E=1) \frac{\exp^{-\mu_{1,w}} \mu_{1,w}^{d_w}}{d_w!} + P(E=0) \frac{\exp^{-\mu_{0,w}} \mu_{0,w}^{d_w}}{d_w!}$
 - estimate $m_{0,w}$, $m_{1,w}$, P(E=1) by fitting to data (max. likelihood)
- Problem: need probabilities conditioned on relevance
 - · "eliteness" not the same as relevance
 - Robertson and Sparck Jones: condition eliteness on R=0, R=1
 - final form has too many parameters, and no data to fit them...
 - same problem that plagued BIR

BM25: an "approximation" to conditioned 2-Poisson
$$\frac{p_{w}(d_{w})q_{w}(0)}{q_{w}(d_{w})p_{w}(0)} \approx \exp\left[\frac{d_{w}\cdot(1+k)}{d_{w}+k\cdot((1-b)+b\cdot n_{d}/n_{avg})} \times \log\frac{N}{N_{w}}\right]$$

BM25: an intuitive view



Example (BM25)

- documents:
$$D_1$$
 = "a b c b d", D_2 = "b e f b", D_3 = "b g c d", D_4 = "b d e", D_5 = "a b e g", D_6 = "b g h h"

- query:
$$Q = ach n$$
, assume $k = 1$, $b = 0.5$

- word: a b c d e f g h
$$N(w)$$
: 2 6 2 3 3 1 3 1 $N = 6$

$$\log \frac{p(D_1|R=1)}{p(D_1|R=0)} \approx 2 \times \left(\frac{1 \cdot (1+1)}{1+1 \cdot (0.5+0.5 \cdot 5/4)} \times \log \frac{6+1}{2+0.5} \right)$$

$$\log \frac{p(D_6|R=1)}{p(D_6|R=0)} \approx \left(\frac{2 \cdot (1+1)}{2+1 \cdot (0.5+0.5 \cdot 4/4)} \times \log \frac{6+1}{1+0.5}\right)$$

Summary: probabilistic model

- Probability Ranking Principle
 - ranking by P(R=1|D) is optimal
- Classical probabilistic model
 - words: binary events (relaxed in the 2-Poisson model)
 - words assumed independent (not accurate)
 - numerous attempts to model dependence, all without success
- Formal, interpretable model
 - explicit, elegant model of relevance (if observable)
 - very problematic if relevance not observable
 - authors resort to heuristics, develop BM25

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Outline

- Recap of probability theory
- · Probability ranking principle
- Classical probabilistic model
 - Binary Independence Model
 - 2-Poisson model and BM25
 - feedback methods
- Language modeling approach
 - overview and design decisions
 - estimation techniques
 - synonymy and feedback

What is a Language Model?

- Probability distribution over strings of text
 - how likely is a given string (observation) in a given "language"
 - for example, consider probability for the following four strings
 - English: $p_1 > p_2 > p_3 > p_4$

```
P_1 = P(\text{``a quick brown dog''})
```

P₂ = P("dog quick a brown")

 $P_3 = P(\text{"un chien quick brown"})$

 $P_4 = P(\text{"un chien brun rapide"})$

- ... depends on what "language" we are modeling
- in most of IR we will have $p_1 == p_2$
- for some applications we will want p₃ to be highly probable

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Language Modeling Notation

Make explicit what we are modeling:

```
M ... represents the language we're trying to model
```

s ... "observation" (strings of tokens / words)

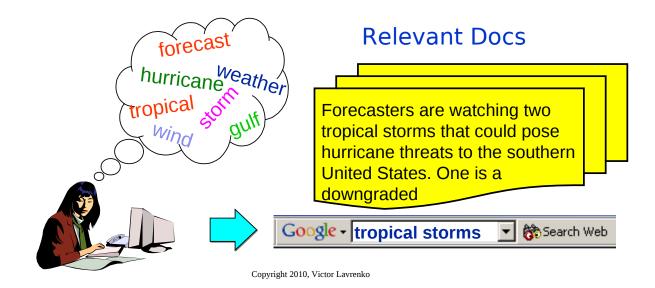
P(s|M) ... probability of observing "s" in language M

- M can be thought of as a "source" or a generator
 - a mechanism that can produce strings that are legal in M
 P(s|M) ... probability of getting "s" during repeated random sampling from M

How can we use LMs in IR?

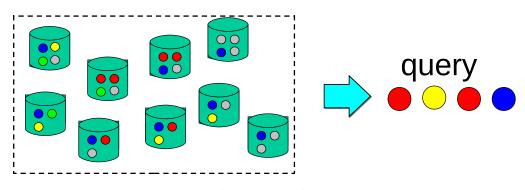
Use LMs to model the process of query generation:

- user thinks of some relevant document
- picks some keywords to use as the query



Retrieval with Language Models

- Each document D in a collection defines a "language"
 - all possible sentences the author of D could have written
 - P(s|M_D) ... probability that author would write string "s"
 - intuition: write a billion variants of D, count how many times we get "s"
 - · language model of what the author of D was trying to say
- Retrieval: rank documents by P(q|M_D)
 - probability that the author would write "q" while creating D



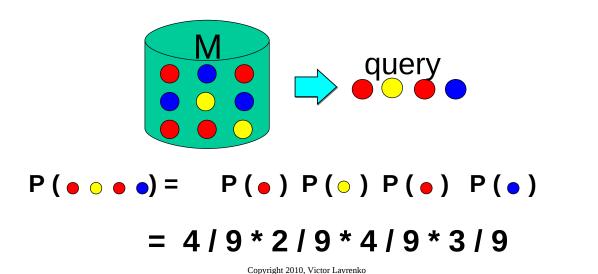
Major issues in applying LMs

- What kind of language model should we use?
 - Unigram or higher-order models?
 - Multinomial or multiple-Bernoulli?
- How can we estimate model parameters?
 - maximum likelihood and zero frequency problem
 - discounting methods: Laplace, Lindstone and Good-Turing estimates
 - interpolation methods: Jelinek-Mercer, Dirichlet prior, Witten-Bell
 - leave-one-out method
- · Ranking methods
 - query likelihood / document likelihood / model comparison

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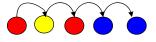
Unigram Language Models

- words are "sampled" independently of each other
 - metaphor: randomly pulling out words from an urn (w. replacement)
 - joint probability decomposes into a product of marginals
 - estimation of probabilities: simple counting

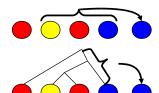


Higher-order Models

- Unigram model assumes word independence
 - cannot capture surface form: P("brown dog") == P("dog brown")
- Higher-order models
 - n-gram: condition on preceding words:



– cache: condition on a window (cache):

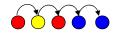


- grammar: condition on parse tree
- Are they useful?
 - no improvements from n-gram, grammar-based models
 - some research on cache-like models (proximity, passages, etc.)
 - parameter estimation is prohibitively expensive

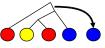
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Why unigram models?

- Higher-order LMs useful in other areas
 - n-gram models: critical in speech recognition



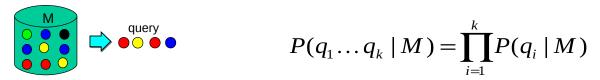




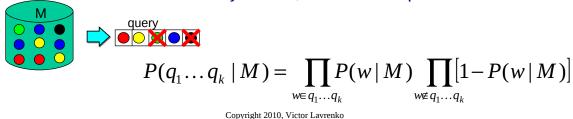
- IR experiments: no improvement over unigram
 - unigram assumes word independence, intuitively wrong
 - no conclusive reason, still subject of debate
- Possible explanation: solving a non-existent problem
 - higher-order language models focus on surface form of text
 - ASR / MT engines must produce well-formed, grammatical utterances
 - in IR all utterances (documents, queries) are already grammatical
- What about phrases?
 - bi-gram: O(v²) parameters, there are better ways

Multinomial or multiple-Bernoulli?

- Most popular model is the multinomial:
 - fundamental event: what word is in the i'th position in the sample?
 - observation is a sequence of events, one for each token in the sample



- · Original model is multiple-Bernoulli:
 - fundamental event: does the word w occur in the sample?
 - observation is a set of binary events, one for each possible word



Multinomial or multiple-Bernoulli?

- Two models are fundamentally different
 - entirely different event spaces ("word" means different things)
 - both assume word independence (though it has different meanings)
 - have different estimation methods (though appear very similar)
- Multinomial
 - accounts for multiple word occurrences in the query (primitive)
 - well understood: lots of research in related fields (and now in IR)
 - possibility for integration with ASR/MT/NLP (same event space)
- Multiple-Bernoulli
 - arguably better suited to IR (directly checks presence of query terms)
 - provisions for explicit negation of query terms ("A but not B")
 - no issues with observation length

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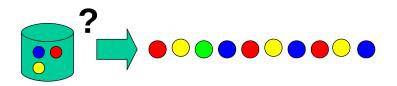
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Estimation of Language Models

- Usually we don't know the model M
 - but have a sample of text representative of that model
 - estimate a language model from that sample
- Maximum likelihood estimator:
 - count relative frequency of each word

The Zero-frequency Problem

- Suppose some event (word) not in our sample D
 - model will assign zero probability to that event
 - and to any set of events involving the unseen event
- Happens very frequently with language (Zipf)
- It is incorrect to infer zero probabilities
 - especially when dealing with incomplete samples



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Counts vs. Probabilities

- Have a biased coin: P(``heads'' = p)
 - flip a coin several times \rightarrow get sequence of heads / tails
 - try to recover *p* from these observations

0 / 0, **p** = ???

4 / 5, **p** = 0.80

1 / 1, **p** = 1.00

17 / 20, p = 0.85

2/2, p = 1.00

72 / 100, **p** = 0.72

- Same problem with language-models (n-faced coins)
 - document is an observation (word counts)
 - "sampled" from urn with unknown frequencies
 - i.e. contents of the author's mind while writing

Simple Discounting Methods

- Laplace correction:
 - add 1 to every count, normalize
 - problematic for large vocabularies
- Lindstone correction:
 - add a small constant ε to every count, re-normalize
- Absolute Discounting
 - subtract a constant ε , re-distribute the probability mass

P (•) =
$$(1 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$$

(•) = $(1 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$
(•) = $(1 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$
(•) = $(1 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$
(•) = $(0 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$
(•) = $(0 + \varepsilon) / (3+5\varepsilon)$

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Good-Turing Estimation

- Leave-one-out discounting
 - remove some word, compute $P(D|M_D)$
 - repeat for every word in the document
 - iteratively adjusting ε to maximize $P(D|M_D)$
 - increase if word occurs once, decrease if more than once
- · Good-Turing estimate
 - derived from leave-one-out discounting, but closed-form
 - if a word occurred *n* times, its "adjusted" frequency is:

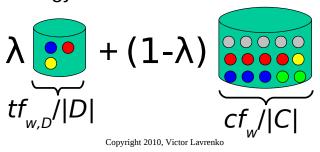
$$n^* = (n+1) E \{\#_{n+1}\} / E \{\#_n\}$$

- probability of that word is: n*/N*
- $E\{\#_n\}$ is the "expected" number of words with n occurrences
- $E\{\#_n\}$ very unreliable for high values of n



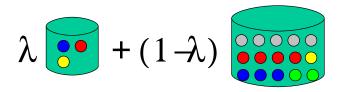
Interpolation Methods

- Problem with all discounting methods:
 - discounting treats unseen words equally (add or subtract ε)
 - some words are more frequent than others
- Idea: use background probabilities
 - "interpolate" ML estimates with General English expectations
 - reflects expected frequency of words in "average" document
 - in IR applications, plays the role of IDF
- 2-state HMM analogy



"Jelinek-Mercer" Smoothing

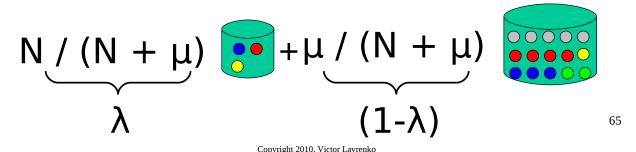
- Correctly setting λ is very important
- Start simple:
 - set λ to be a constant, independent of document, query
- Tune to optimize retrieval performance
 - optimal value of λ varies with different databases, queries, etc.



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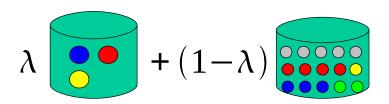
"Dirichlet" Smoothing

- Problem with Jelinek-Mercer:
 - longer documents provide better estimates
 - could get by with less smoothing
- Make smoothing depend on sample size
- Formal derivation from Bayesian (Dirichlet) prior on LMs
- Currently best out-of-the-box choice for short queries
 - parameter tuned to optimize MAP, needs some relevance judgments



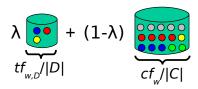
Leave-one-out Smoothing

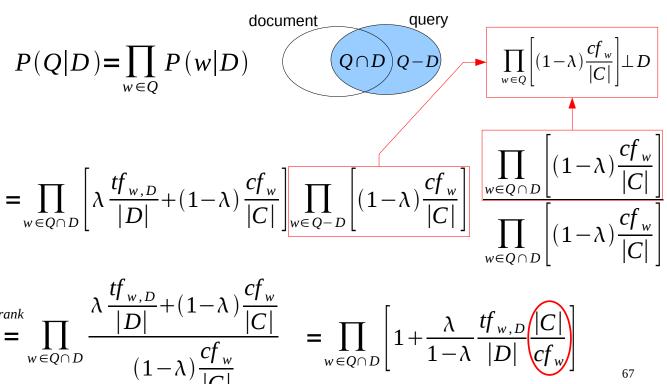
- Re-visit leave-one-out idea:
 - Randomly remove some word from the example
 - Compute the likelihood for the original example, based on λ
 - Repeat for every word in the sample
 - Adjust λ to maximize the likelihood
- Performs as well as well-tuned Dirichlet smoothing
 - does not require relevance judgments for tuning the parameter



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IDF-like role of smoothing

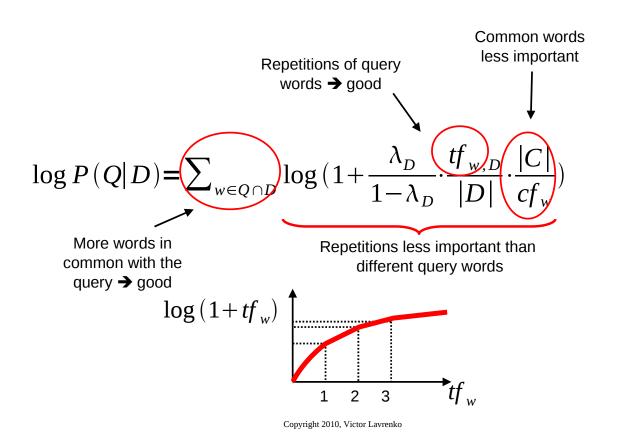




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LMs: an intuitive view

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Variations of the LM Framework

- Query-likelihood: P(Q|M_D)
 - probability of observing query from the document model M_D
 - difficult to incorporate relevance feedback, expansion, operators
- Document-likelihood: P(D|M_o)
 - estimate relevance model M_q using text in the query
 - compute likelihood of observing document as a random sample
 - strong connections to classical probabilistic models: P(D|R)
 - ability to incorporate relevance, interaction, query expansion
- Model comparison: D ($M_{\odot} || M_{D}$)
 - estimate both document and query models
 - measure "divergence" between the two models
 - best of both worlds, but loses pure probabilistic interpretation

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Language Models and PRP

- Relevance not explicitly part of LM approach
- [Lafferty & Zhai, 2003]: it's implicitly there:

- PRP:
$$P(R=1|D,Q) \stackrel{rank}{=} \frac{P(R=1|D,Q)}{P(R=0|D,Q)} = \frac{P(D,Q|R=1)P(R=1)}{P(D,Q|R=0)P(R=0)}$$

- Bayes' rule, then chain rule:

$$. = \frac{P(Q|D,R=1) P(D|R=1) P(R=1)}{P(Q|D,R=0) P(D|R=0) P(R=0)}$$

- Bayes' rule again:

$$. = \frac{P(Q|D, R=1)}{P(Q|D, R=0)} \cdot \frac{P(R=1|D)}{P(R=0|D)}$$

- Assumption:

 $=\frac{P(Q|D,R=1)}{P(Q|R=0)} \cdot \frac{P(R=1|D)}{P(R=0|D)}$

• R=1: Q drawn from D (LM)

 $\stackrel{rank}{=} P(Q|D) \cdot \frac{P(R=1|D)}{P(R=0|D)}$

• R=0: Q independent of D

odds ratio assumed to be 1

Summary: Language Modeling

- Formal mathematical model of retrieval
 - based on simple process: sampling query from a document urn
 - assumes word independence, higher-order LMs unsuccessful
 - cleverly avoids pitfall of the classical probabilistic model
- At a cost: no notion of relevance in the model
 - relevance feedback / query expansion unnatural
 - "augment the sample" rather than "re-estimate model"
 - can't accommodate phrases, passages, Boolean operators
 - extensions to LM overcome many of these problems
 - · query feedback, risk minimization framework, LM+BeliefNet, MRF
- Active area of research

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Outline

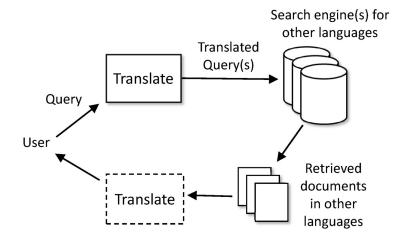
- Recap of probability theory
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 - synonymy and cross-language

Cross-language IR

- Cross-language Information Retrieval (CLIR)
 - accept queries / questions in one language (English)
 - find relevant information in a variety of other languages
- Why is this useful?
 - Ex1: research central banks' response to financial crisis
 - · dozens of languages, would like to formulate a single query
 - can translate retrieved web-pages into English
 - Ex2: Topic Detection and Tracking (TDT)
 - identify new events (e.g. "5.9 earthquake in El-Salvador on Nov.15")
 - group together all stories discussing the event, regardless of language
 - · note: no query to start with
- Good domain to show slightly advanced LMs

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Typical CLIR architecture



Translating the queries

- Translating documents usually infeasible
- Query translation: ambiguous process
 - query as a sentence: may produce odd results
 - not a well-formed utterance, ok for "phrase" queries
 - word-for-word: multiple candidate translations
 - environment → environnement, milieu, atmosphere, cadre, conditions
 - protection → garde, protection, preservation, defense, racket
 - agency → agence, action, organisme, bureau
- How to combine translations?
 - single bag of words: bad idea
 - combinations / hypotheses
 - · How many? How to assign weights?

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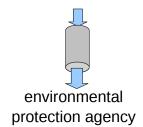
Language modeling view of CLIR

- Don't translate, model query generation
- Metaphor: user is really foreign
 - contemplates relevant documents
 - writes query in the foreign language
 - sends it over a noisy channel
 - · query arrives "garbled" into English
- Using metaphor for retrieval:
 - language model for every foreign document
 - what foreign queries could be generated from $\mathbf{D}_{_{\!\mathsf{F}}}$
 - translation model for the noisy channel
 - how foreign queries are "garbled" into English
- Rank documents by P (Q_{English} | D_{Foreign})

environnement agence milieu garde bureau defense



agence de protection de l'environnement



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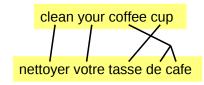
Language modeling approach

- Translation model: set of probabilities P(e|f)
 - probability that French word "f" translates to English word "e"
 - e.g. P("environment" | "milieu") = 1/4, P("agency" | "agence") = 1/2, etc.
- Language model of a French document: P(f|D_)
 - probability of observing "f": $P(\text{milieu}|D_F) = \frac{tf_{\text{milieu},D_F}}{|D_F|}$
- Combine into noisy-channel model:
 - prob. of sampling f and translating to e: $P(e, f|D_F) = P(e|f)P(f|D_F)$
 - many different foreign words can translate to e
 - total probability of observing e: $P(e|D_F) = \sum_f P(e|f)P(f|D_F)$



Translation probabilities

- How to estimate P(e|f)?
- $f \rightarrow e$ dictionary: assign equal likelihoods to all translations
 - agence → agency:1/5, bureau:1/5, branch:1/5, office:1/5, service:1/5
- e → f dictionary: use Bayes rule, collection frequency
 - agency → agence:¼, action:¼, organisme:¼, bureau:¼
 - P(agency|agence) = P(agence|agency) * P(agency) / P(agence)
- parallel corpus:
 - set of parallel sentences {E,F} such that E is a translation of F
 - simple co-occurrence: how many times e,f co-occur: $P(e|f) = \frac{|(E,F):e \in E \land f \in F|}{|F:f \in F|}$
 - IBM translation model 1:
 - alignment: links between English, French words
 - count how many times e,f are aligned
 - iterative (EM) solution



CLIR: putting it all together

Rank documents by

$$P(e_{1...k}|D_F) = \prod_{i=1}^k \left(\lambda_D \sum_f P(e_i|f) P(f|D_F) + (1-\lambda_D) P(e_i) \right)$$

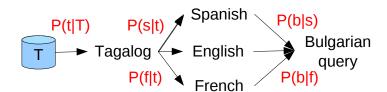
Important issues:

probability of seeing query word e during random sampling from D_r

- translation probabilities ignore context
 - · one solution: treat phrases as units, but there's a better way
- vocabulary coverage extremely important
 - use as many dictionaries / lexicons / corpora as possible
- morphological analysis crucial for Arabic, Slavic, etc.
- no coverage for proper names → transliterate:
 - Qadafi, Kaddafi, Qathafi, Gadafi, Qaddafy, Quadhaffi, al-Qaddafi, ...
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Triangulated translation

- Translation models need bilingual resources
 - dictionaries / parallel corpora
 - not available for every language pair (Bulgarian → Tagalog)
- Idea: use resource-rich languages as interlingua:
 - map Tagalog → Spanish, then Spanish → Bulgarian
 - use multiple intermediate languages, assign weights
- Results slightly exceed direct bilingual resource



Summary: CLIR

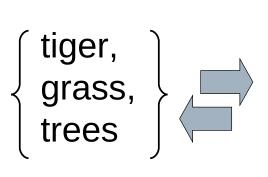
- Queries in one language, documents in another
 - real task, at least for intelligence analysts
 - translate query to foreign language, retrieve, translate results
- Language modelling approach:
 - probabilistic way to deal with uncertainty in translations
 - effective: 75-95% of mono-lingual performance
 - translation probabilities: based on dictionary, parallel corpus
- Triangulated translation for resource-poor languages
- Translation model: very general idea
 - synonyms: English → English translation

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Content-based Image Search

Image Annotation / Retrieval Task

- Given a collection of un-labeled images
 - annotation: assign relevant keywords to images
 - retrieval: find images relevant to a given query
- Learn to associate sets of words with pictures





Annotation vs. Retrieval

- NOTE: related but not equivalent problems
 - can have good retrieval with bad annotation
 - half the words assigned to each image are wrong
 - 80% of queries (all but "city") will have perfect precision









city, tiger

city, iguana

city, bear

city, zebra

Language-modeling Approach

- Query is a bag of words: {tiger,grass,trees}
- Convert every image to a bag of word-like units



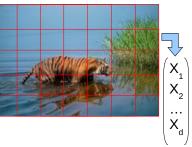




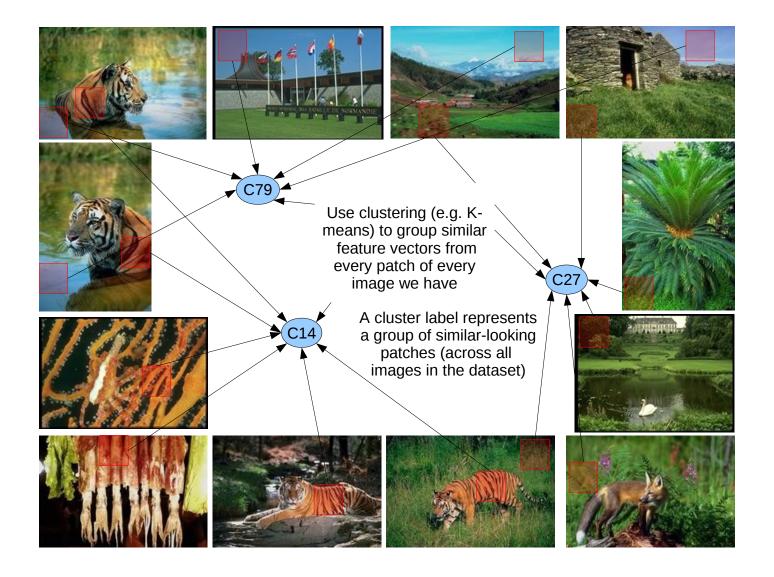
- Reduces to cross-language retrieval problem
 - given a query in English: "tiger grass"
 - match documents written in foreign (visual) "words"
- Main issues:
 - how do we define / compute these visual words?
 - is the cross-language retrieval model sufficient?

Converting Image to "Words"

- Convert into a set of discrete "features"
 - break image into a set of patches
 - "grassy", "watery", "tigery" patches
 - captures different objects in image
 - extract features for each patch
 - reflect visual appearance of a patch
 - relative position, color histogram, texture filters
 - replace feature vector with a discrete label
 - meaningful label (e.g. "grass") needs human annotations
 - clustering: group feature vector with other, similar vectors







Cluster Numbers as Visual "Words"

- After clustering:
 - every patch of every image falls into some cluster.
 - all similar-looking patches fall into the same cluster
 - cluster id says something about patches that fall into it
 - "C27" \rightarrow green, vertically-textured
- Use cluster ids as "words"
 - D={ 4 x "C14", 7 x "C27", 24 x "C79", 0 x everything else}
 - similar to controlled vocabulary / category codes

"C14"

- discrete, content-bearing, Zipfian distribution
- sometimes called "vis-terms" or "visual words"

Retrieving Images

Converted:





4 x "C14", 7 x "C27", 24 x "C79"

- Want to query with "tiger", not "C14"
 - use LMs to "translate" English queries into vis-terms
 - rank images by probability they "generate" query:

$$P(e_{1...k}|I) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(\lambda_{I} \sum_{v} P(e_{i}|v) P(v|I) + (1-\lambda_{I}) P(e_{i}) \right)$$
probability that one of the

visterms present in the image "translates" to query word e.

need two components:

- P(v|I) ... document model based on counts of vis-terms
- P(q|v) ... model for associating words q with visterms v

Translating Visterms to Words

- No dictionaries
- Parallel corpora (manually-tagged images)
 - e.g.: Corel, Pascal VOC, TRECVid, LabelMe
 - pre-process \rightarrow get paired sets: $\{v_1...v_n, e_1...e_m\}$
 - extract translation pairs P(e|v)

visterms

- co-occurrence model (direct count): $P(e|v) = \frac{|I:e \in E_I, v \in V_I|}{|I:v \in V_I|}$
 - problem: will associate "tiger" with C14 and C27 and C79
- IBM translation model 1
 - uses EM to align "tiger" → C14, "grass" → C27, etc.
- problem: visterms don't map to words 1-1
 - in isolation does not "translate" to anything

Set-to-Set Translation

- - · don't try to break it into pairs: model holistically
 - joint probability of a set of tags w. a set of visterms
 - cross-media relevance model:

$$P(e_{1}...e_{m},v_{1}...v_{n}) = \sum_{E,V} \prod_{i} P(e_{i}|E) \cdot \prod_{j} P(v_{j}|V) \cdot P(E,V)$$

$$\text{query or candidate testing image} \quad \text{training image}$$

- note: can't just count: $\{e_1...e_m, v_1...v_n\}$
- Annotate with set of tags: $arg max_{e_1...e_m} P(e_1...e_m, v_1...v_n)$
- Rank images by: $P(e_1...e_m|v_1...v_n) = \frac{P(e_1...e_m,v_1...v_n)}{P(v_1...v_n)}$

Summary: CBIR

- Task: associate image content with keywords
 - · annotate new images with tags automatically
 - retrieve unlabeled images using keyword queries
- Convert image to vis-terms
 - segment into patches, group into clusters
 - cluster id = "word" reflecting visual appearance
- Use language models as in CLIR: $P(e_1 | v_1)$
 - translation pairs P(e|v) ... co-occurrence, EM
 - better way: joint probabilities (relevance model)

Practical Suggestions

Use a Toolkit

- Lemur (C++): www.lemurproject.org
 - use the Indri engine
- Terrier (Java): www.terrier.org
- Zettair (C): www.seg.rmit.edu.au/zettair
- Parallel (experimental):
 - Galago (Java): www.galagosearch.org
 - uses TupleFlow, used in Croft's new textbook
 - Ivory (Java): www.umiacs.umd.edu/~jimmylin/ivory
 - uses Hadoop/Cloud, new project
- Lucene, Xapian, etc.: production, not research

Compute Everything in Log-Space

- IR models have lots of variables (words, docs)
 - independence => products of 1000s of probabilities
 - probabilities are very small numbers (must add up to 1)
 - easy to "overflow" floating point precision:
 - smallest non-zero value: 10⁻³⁸ (single), 10⁻³⁰⁸ (double)
 - overflows after ~1000 words, storing lots of zeroes
 - ratios won't save you: $\frac{P(d|R=1)}{P(d|R=0)} = \prod_{v} \frac{P(d_{v}|R=1)}{P(d_{v}|R=0)}$
- Take log of everything
 - turns 10⁻³⁸ into -38

$$\log P(\vec{d}|R=1) = \log \prod_{\nu} P(d_{\nu}|R=1) = \sum_{\nu} \log P(d_{\nu}|R=1)$$

Log-sum-exp Trick

- Your model has a product inside a summation
 - applies to most mixture models
 - how to compute in log-space?

$$\log\left[\sum_{a}\prod_{b}P_{a,b}\right] \ = \ \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\log\prod_{b}P_{a,b}\right)\right]$$

$$= \ \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}\right)\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}\right)\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}+A-A\right)\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}+A-A\right)\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}+A\right)e^{-A}\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}+A\right)e^{-A}\right]$$

$$= \log\left[\sum_{a}\exp\left(\sum_{b}\log P_{a,b}+A\right)e^{-A}\right]$$

Compute over the D-Q Overlap

Models often involve entire doc /qry/vocabulary

• BIR:
$$P(\vec{d}|R=1) = \prod_{v} P(d_v|R=1) = \prod_{v \in d} r_v \prod_{v \notin d} (1-r_v)$$

• LM: $P(q|d) = \prod_{v \in q} P(v|d)$
words in gry

- Very expensive to compute for every document
- Doesn't fit the way most toolkits work
 - don't call Similarity(Q,D) for every D in the corpus
 - retrieval scores computed from inverted indices
 - will pass only terms that occur both in D and in Q

Retrieval with Inverted Indices

- Initialize array to hold all partial scores
- For each query term
 - fetch inverted list from disk
 - update partial score of each document
- Extract result set (non-zero)

partial scores

10 * #(thing) + 2 * #(pink) + #(ink)

pink \rightarrow 4:1 5:1 • 2 0 0 0 2 2

ink \rightarrow 3:1 4:1 5:1 0 0 1 3 3

thing \rightarrow 3:1 • 10 0 0 11 3 3

Computing over D-Q Overlap

Re-work to go over overlapping terms

$$\begin{split} P(\vec{d}|R=1) &= \prod_{v \in d} r_v \times \prod_{v \notin d} (1-r_v) \times \prod_{v \in d} \frac{1-r_v}{1-r_v} \\ &= \prod_{v \in d} r_v \times \prod_v (1-r_v) \ / \ \prod_{v \in d} (1-r_v) \\ &= \prod_{v \in d} \frac{r_v}{1-r_v} \times \prod_v (1-r_v) \end{split}$$

- Log: $\log P(\vec{d}|R=1) = \sum_{v \in d} \log \frac{r_v}{1-r_v} + \sum_v \log(1-r_v)$
 - inner product of doc and model
 - constants can be pre-computed
- $= \vec{d} \cdot \vec{\rho} + \sum_{v} \log (1 r_{v})$ dot
 product
 constant: doesn't depend on *d*,
 doesn't affect ranking

"model" vector $\rho_{v} = \log \frac{r_{v}}{1 - r_{v}}$

- Note for MapReduce:
 - some constants will be hard to fit into framework

Inconsistent Assumptions

- Common situation: estimate P(R|D,Q)
 - want to condition R on two sources of evidence (D,Q)
 - R,D,Q: relevance/doc/query, from/to/title, video/speech/tag...
 - don't want to condition on "complex" events (D,Q)
 - assume independence whenever convenient

$$\begin{split} P(R|D,Q) &= \frac{P(D,Q|R)P(R)}{P(D,Q)} & \text{apply Bayes' rule} \\ &= \frac{P(D|R) \cdot P(Q|R)}{P(D) \cdot P(Q)} \cdot P(R) & \text{assume D and Q are independent} \\ &= \frac{P(R|D)}{P(R)} \cdot \frac{P(R|Q)}{P(R)} \cdot P(R) & \text{Bayes' again:} \quad {}_{P(D|R)} = \frac{P(R|D)P(D)}{P(R)} \\ &= \frac{P(R|D)P(R|Q)}{P(R)} & \text{easy to work with} \end{split}$$

Data Inconsistency

- Case: users pick doc, query, judge relevance:
 - d ... one of 10 possible documents P(q)=P(d)=P(r)=0.1

P(r|q) = P(r|d) = 0.5

- *q* ... one of 10 possible queries
- relevance observed in 10% of all trials
- ... but in 50% of trials with d, or with q
- Joint events under assumptions: $Q \perp D$ and $Q \perp D \mid R$

$$P(d,q \text{ picked and judged relevant}): P(d,q,r) = P(d,q|r) P(r)$$

$$P(d,q \text{ picked in the same trial}): \\ P(d,q) = P(d) P(q) \\ P(d,q) = P(d) P(q)$$

$$= 0.1 \times 0.1 \\ = 0.010$$

$$P(d,q \text{ picked in the same trial}): \\ P(d,q) = P(d) P(q) \\ = 0.5 \times 0.1 \times 0.5 \times 0.1 / 0.1$$

$$= 0.025$$
Did we pick bad estimates?

Inconsistent Assumptions

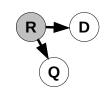
- Are the estimates to blame?
 - did we just pick inconsistent P(q), P(d), P(r)?
 - no, this is achievable in practice
- Assumed both $Q \perp D$ and $Q \perp D$ given R
 - this means either *R* is independent of *D* ... or *R* is independent of *Q*
 - · probably not what you intended
 - defeats the purpose of using both Q,D as evidence

Proof: $Q^{\perp}D$ and $Q^{\perp}D|R => Q^{\perp}R$ or $D^{\perp}R$

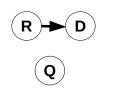
Let Q ... query D ... document D ... document D ... document D ... relevance D ... D ..

Proof (easy version)

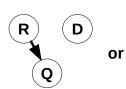
- Assumed both $Q \perp D$ and $Q \perp D$ given R
- Look at dependence diagrams:
 - conditional independence:
 P(Q,D|R) = P(Q|R) P(D|R)
 path between Q,D goes through R



mutual independence: R
 P(Q,D) = P(Q) P(D)
 no path between Q,D



or





- either no path between R,Q... or no path between R,D
- Assuming both breaks dependence on R

What does it mean?

- Can't assume independence left and right
 - · make sure assumptions don't contradict each other
- Isn't independence false anyway?
- Yes, but there's a difference:
 - false assumptions:
 - your model poorly fits observed data
 - inconsistent assumptions:
 - you don't have a model at all
 - · model violates axioms of probability theory

Checking your Model

- Inconsistency is just one of modelling errors
- Which independence assumptions made
 - do they contradict each other?
- What event spaces are you using
 - are they compatible?
 - what are the possible values of each RV?
- Does the model respect probability axioms?
 - do the marginals add up to 1 over all words / docs?
 - if can't figure out likely to be a problem

Summary: Practical Suggestions

- Use a toolkit
- Compute everything in log-space
- Log-sum-exp trick
- Compute over document-query overlap
- Check for inconsistencies in the model

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