

Statistical Processing of Natural Language

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Model Estimation: Maximum Likelihood vs. Maximum Entropy

Master HAP - Euskal Herriko Unibertsitatea

1 Introduction

■ Basics

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

Statistical NLP

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

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)

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- 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)

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- Structural ambiguity

Our company is training workers

Our problem is training workers

Our product is training wheels

Parker saw Mary

The a are of I

- 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 \Rightarrow learning

How Statistics helps

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- 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)

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- Word frequency is inversely proportional to its rank (speaker/hearer minimum effort) $f \sim 1/r$
- Number of senses is proportional to frequency root $m \sim \sqrt{f}$
- 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 occur only once

Usual Objections

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

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.

Conclusions

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- 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.

1 Introduction

■ Basics

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Basics

Introduction

Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

- 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: $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$
- 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:

$$p_X(x) = \sum_y p(x, y) \quad p_{X|Y}(x | y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_Y(y)}$$
$$p_Y(y) = \sum_x p(x, y)$$

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

| P(C,V) | p | t | k | |
|--------|------|------|------|-----|
| a | 1/16 | 3/8 | 1/16 | 1/2 |
| i | 1/16 | 3/16 | 0 | 1/4 |
| u | 0 | 3/16 | 1/16 | 1/4 |
| | 1/8 | 3/4 | 1/8 | |

$$P(p | i) = ?$$
$$P(a | t \vee k) = ?$$
$$P(a \vee i | p) = ?$$

Introduction
Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Samples and Estimators

- 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.

Introduction

Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Finding good estimators: MLE

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Choose the alternative that maximizes the probability of the observed outcome.
- $\bar{\mu}_n$ 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 |

Introduction
Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

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

Observations:

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

| $P(a, b)$ | dans | en | à | sur | au-cours-de | pendant | selon | |
|-----------|------|--------------------------------------|------|------|-------------|---------|-------|-----|
| in | 0.04 | 0.15 | 0.15 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | |
| on | 0.04 | 0.15 | 0.15 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | |
| total | | $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}$ 0.6 | | | | | | 1.0 |

Introduction

Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

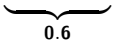
Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

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

Observations:

$$p(en \vee \grave{a}) = 0.6; \quad p((en \vee \grave{a}) \wedge in) = 0.4$$

| $P(a, b)$ | 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 |

Introduction
Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Finding good estimators: MEE

Maximum Entropy Estimation (MEE)

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

Observations:

$$p(en \vee \grave{a}) = 0.6; \quad p((en \vee \grave{a}) \wedge in) = 0.4; \quad p(in) = 0.5$$

| $P(a, b)$ | 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 | | $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}$ 0.6 | | | | | | 1.0 |

Introduction

Basics

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

- Overview
- Prediction & Similarity Models
- Statistical Inference of Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Overview

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

- Overview
- Prediction & Similarity Models
- Statistical Inference of Models for NLP


3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Statistical models for NLP



Training data

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

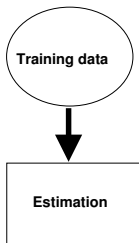
Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Statistical models for NLP



Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

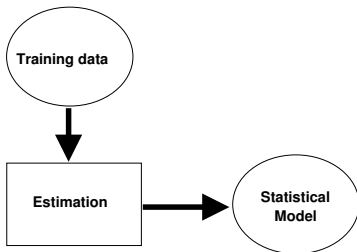
Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Statistical models for NLP



Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

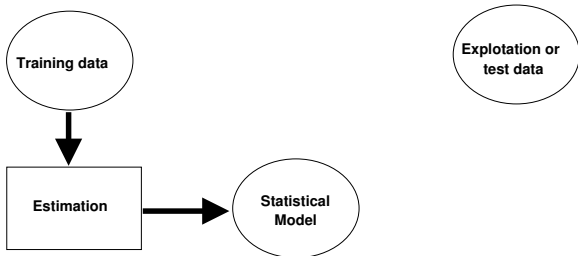
Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Statistical models for NLP



Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

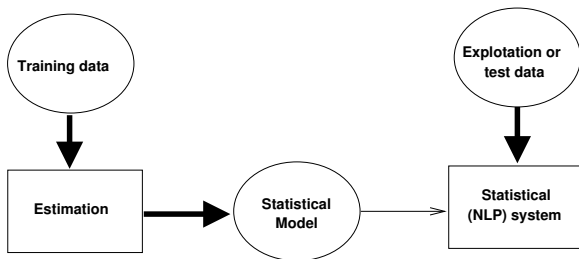
Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Statistical models for NLP



Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

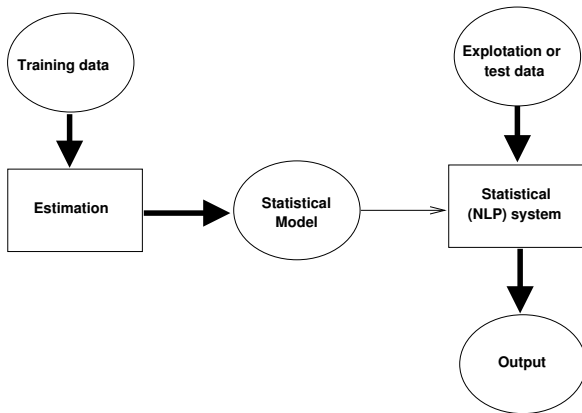
Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Statistical models for NLP



Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Overview

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

- Overview
- Prediction & Similarity Models
- Statistical Inference of Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Prediction &
Similarity
Models

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Prediction Models & Similarity Models

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Prediction & Similarity Models

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

- 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 \mathbb{R}^N space.
- Dimensions are word forms, lemmas, NEs, ...
- Values may be either binary or real-valued (count, frequency, ...)

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Prediction &
Similarity
Models

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Prediction Models

Example: Noisy Channel Model (Shannon 48)



NLP Applications

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

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Prediction & Similarity Models

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

- Overview
- Prediction & Similarity Models
- Statistical Inference of Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Statistical
Inference of
Models for NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Inference & Modeling

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Statistical
Inference of
Models for NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

- 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
 - Target / classification features → 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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Statistical
Inference of
Models for NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Overview
- Smoothing & Estimator Combination

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical Models for NLP

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Overview

Maximum Entropy Modeling

Markovian Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

■ Overview

■ Smoothing & Estimator Combination

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

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)

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

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Overview

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

■ Overview

■ Smoothing & Estimator Combination

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Notation

- $C(w_1 \dots w_n)$: Observed occurrence count for n-gram $w_1 \dots w_n$.
- $C_A(w_1 \dots w_n)$: Observed occurrence count for n-gram $w_1 \dots w_n$ on data subset A .
- N : Number of observed n-gram occurrences

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

- 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).

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Smoothing 1 - Adding Counts

- **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 $\mu = N/(N + B\lambda)$,

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Smoothing 2 - Discounting Counts

■ Absolute Discounting

$$P_{ABS}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \begin{cases} \frac{r-\delta}{N} & \text{if } r > 0 \\ \frac{(B-N_0)\delta/N_0}{N} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

■ Linear Discounting

$$P_{LIN}(w_1 \dots w_n) = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-\alpha)r}{N} & \text{if } r > 0 \\ \frac{\alpha}{N_0} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

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)

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Combining Estimators

■ Simple Linear Interpolation

$$\begin{aligned} P_{LI}(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) &= \\ &= \lambda_1 P_1(w_n) + \lambda_2 P_2(w_n \mid w_{n-1}) + \lambda_3 P_3(w_n \mid w_{n-2}, w_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

■ General 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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Smoothing &
Estimator
Combination

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

- Overview
- Building ME Models
- Application to NLP

5 Markovian Models

6 References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

- Overview
- Building ME Models
- Application to NLP

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Overview

Markovian
Models

References

MEM Overview

- Maximum Entropy: alternative estimation technique.
- Able to deal with different kinds of evidence
- ME principle:
 - Do not assume anything about non-observed events.
 - Find the most uniform (maximum entropy, less informed) probability distribution that matches the observations.

- Example:

| $p(a, b)$ | 0 | 1 | |
|-----------|-----|-----|--|
| x | ? | ? | |
| y | ? | ? | |
| total | 0.6 | 1.0 | |

Observations

| $p(a, b)$ | 0 | 1 | |
|-----------|-----|-----|--|
| x | 0.5 | 0.1 | |
| y | 0.1 | 0.3 | |
| total | 0.6 | 1.0 | |

One possible $p(a, b)$

| $p(a, b)$ | 0 | 1 | |
|-----------|-----|-----|--|
| x | 0.3 | 0.2 | |
| y | 0.3 | 0.2 | |
| total | 0.6 | 1.0 | |

Max. Entropy $p(a, b)$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Overview

Markovian
Models

References

ME Modeling

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

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

- The desired model must satisfy the constraints:

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

where:

$$E_p(f_i) = \sum_{x \in \varepsilon} p(x) f_i(x) \quad \text{expectation of model } p.$$

$$E_{\tilde{p}}(f_i) = \sum_{x \in \varepsilon} \tilde{p}(x) f_i(x) \quad \text{observed expectation.}$$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Overview

Markovian
Models

References

Example

- Example:

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

| $p(a, b)$ | 0 | 1 |
|-----------|-----|-----|
| x | ? | ? |
| y | ? | ? |
| total | 0.6 | 1.0 |

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

where:

- $f_1(a, b) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b = 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $E_p(f_1) = \sum_{(a,b) \in \{x,y\} \times \{0,1\}} p(a, b) f_1(a, b)$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Overview

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

- Overview
- Building ME Models
- Application to NLP

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

Probability Model

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

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

- Maximum entropy model

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

Conditional Probability Model

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

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

$$E_p(f_j) = \sum_{a,b} \tilde{p}(b) p(a|b) f_j(a,b)$$

- Maximum entropy model

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

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 $p(dans) + p(en) = 0.3$; $p(en) + p(à) = 0.5$
...Not so easy !

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

Parameter estimation

- Exponential models. (Lagrange multipliers optimization)

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

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

- also formulated as

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

$$\lambda_j = \ln \alpha_j$$

- 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)

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

Improved Iterative Scaling (IIS)

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

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

$$\sum_{a,b} \tilde{p}(b) p(a | b) f_i(a, b) \exp(\Delta\lambda_i \sum_{j=1}^n f_j(a, b)) = \tilde{p}(f_i)$$

$$\lambda_i \leftarrow \lambda_i + \Delta\lambda_i$$

end for

Until all λ_i have converged

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling
Building ME
Models

Markovian
Models

References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Application to
NLP

Markovian
Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

- Overview
- Building ME Models
- Application to NLP

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Application to NLP Tasks

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Application to
NLP

Markovian
Models

References

- 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 $H \times T$

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

$$f_j(h_i, t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \text{suffix}(w_i) = \text{ing} \wedge t = \text{VBG} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Application to
NLP

Markovian
Models

References

Text Categorization (Nigam et al 99)

- Probabilistic model over $W \times C$

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

$$f_{w,c'}(d, c) = \begin{cases} \frac{N(d,w)}{N(d)} & \text{if } c = c' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

$$P(c | d) = \frac{1}{Z(d)} \exp\left(\sum_i \lambda_i f_i(d, c)\right)$$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Application to
NLP

Markovian
Models

References

MEM Summary

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Application to
NLP

Markovian
Models

References

■ 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.

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

- Markov Models and Hidden Markov Models
- HMM Fundamental Questions
 - Q1. Observation Probability
 - Q2. Best State Sequence
 - Q3. Parameter Estimation

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

Graphical Models

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

- **Generative models:**

- Bayes rule \Rightarrow 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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

■ 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).

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

- Markov Models and Hidden Markov Models
- HMM Fundamental Questions
 - Q1. Observation Probability
 - Q2. Best State Sequence
 - Q3. Parameter Estimation

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Markov Models
and Hidden
Markov Models

References

[Visible] Markov Models

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

- 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:

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

- Initial probabilities (or extra state s_0):

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

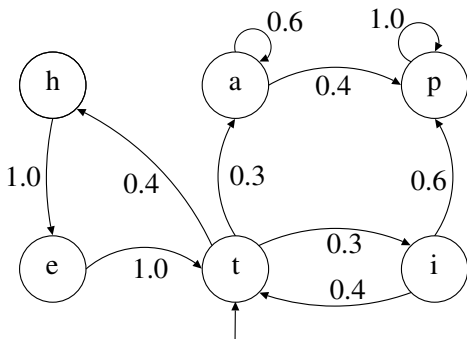
Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Markov Models
and Hidden
Markov Models

References

MM Example



Sequence probability:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, \dots, X_T) &= \\ &= P(X_1)P(X_2 | X_1)P(X_3 | X_1X_2) \dots P(X_T | X_1 \dots X_{T-1}) \\ &= P(X_1)P(X_2 | X_1)P(X_3 | X_2) \dots P(X_T | X_{T-1}) \\ &= \pi_{X_1} \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} a_{X_t X_{t+1}} \end{aligned}$$

Hidden Markov Models (HMM)

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Markov Models
and Hidden
Markov Models

References

- States and Observations

- Emission Probability:

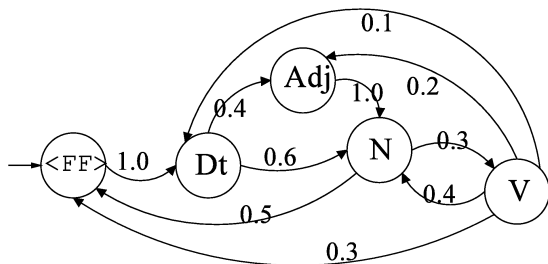
$$b_{ik} = P(O_t = k \mid X_t = s_i)$$

- 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



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 | | | | |
| Adj | | | | | | | | | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 |

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Markov Models
and Hidden
Markov Models

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

■ Markov Models and Hidden Markov Models

■ HMM Fundamental Questions

- Q1. Observation Probability
- Q2. Best State Sequence
- Q3. Parameter Estimation

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

HMM
Fundamental
Questions

References

HMM Fundamental Questions

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

HMM
Fundamental
Questions

References

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

$$\begin{aligned} P_\mu(O | X) &= \prod_{t=1}^T P_\mu(o_t | X_t) \\ &= b_{X_1 o_1} b_{X_2 o_2} \dots b_{X_T o_T} \end{aligned}$$

- $P_\mu(X) = \pi_{X_1} a_{X_1 X_2} a_{X_2 X_3} \dots a_{X_{T-1} X_T}$
- $$\begin{aligned} P_\mu(O) &= \sum_X P_\mu(O, X) = \sum_X P_\mu(O | X) P_\mu(X) \\ &= \sum_{X_1 \dots X_T} \pi_{X_1} b_{X_1 o_1} \prod_{t=2}^T a_{X_{t-1} X_t} b_{X_t o_t} \end{aligned}$$
- Complexity: $\mathcal{O}(TN^T)$
- Dynamic Programming: Trellis/lattice. $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

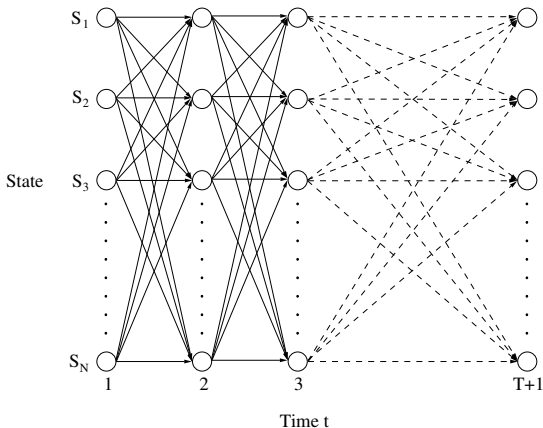
Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

Trellis



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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

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 emitting $o_1 \dots o_t$ and reach state s_i at time t .

1 Initialization: $\alpha_i(1) = \pi_i b_{io_1}; \quad \forall i = 1 \dots N$

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

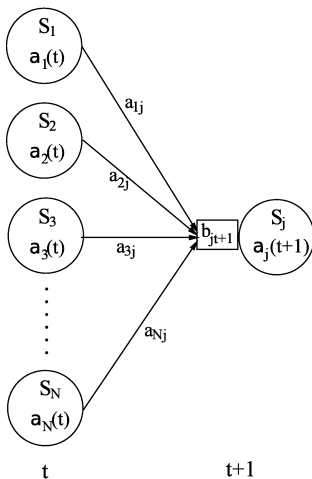
Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

Forward computation



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.

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

Forward & Backward computation

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

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

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

1 Initialization: $\beta_i(T) = 1 \quad \forall i = 1 \dots N$

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

$$\beta_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} b_{j o_{t+1}} \beta_j(t+1) \quad \forall i = 1 \dots N$$

3 Total: $P_\mu(O) = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i b_{i o_1} \beta_i(1)$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

Forward & Backward computation

Combination

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\mu}(O, X_t = i) &= P_{\mu}(o_1 \dots o_{t-1}, X_t = i, o_t \dots o_T) \\ &= \alpha_i(t) \beta_i(t) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q1.
Observation
Probability

References

Question 2. Best state sequence

- Most likely path for a given observation O :

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

- Compute the best sequence with the same recursive approach than in FB: Viterbi algorithm, $\mathcal{O}(TN^2)$.

- $\delta_j(t) = \max_{X_1 \dots X_{t-1}} P_\mu(X_1 \dots X_{t-1} s_j, o_1 \dots o_t)$

Highest probability of any sequence reaching state s_j at time t after emitting $o_1 \dots o_t$

- $\psi_j(t) = \operatorname{last}(\operatorname{argmax}_{X_1 \dots X_{t-1}} P_\mu(X_1 \dots X_{t-1} s_j, o_1 \dots o_t))$

Last state (X_{t-1}) in highest probability sequence reaching state s_j at time t after emitting $o_1 \dots o_t$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q2. Best State
Sequence

References

Viterbi algorithm

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

$$\delta_j(1) = \pi_j b_{j o_1}$$

$$\psi_j(1) = 0$$

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

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

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

3 Termination: backwards path readout.

$$\hat{X}_T = \operatorname{argmax}_{1 \leq i \leq N} \delta_i(T)$$

$$\hat{X}_t = \psi_{\hat{X}_{t+1}}(t+1)$$

$$P(\hat{X}) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} \delta_i(T)$$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q2. Best State
Sequence

References

Question 3. Parameter Estimation

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q3. Parameter
Estimation

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

- 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: $P_{\hat{\mu}}(O) \geq P_{\mu}(O)$

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q3. Parameter
Estimation

References

Definitions

$$\blacksquare \gamma_i(t) = P_\mu(X_t = i \mid O) = \frac{P_\mu(X_t = i, O)}{P_\mu(O)} = \frac{\alpha_i(t)\beta_i(t)}{\sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_k(t)\beta_k(t)}$$

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

$$\blacksquare \varphi_t(i, j) = P_\mu(X_t = i, X_{t+1} = j \mid O) = \frac{P_\mu(X_t = i, X_{t+1} = j, O)}{P_\mu(O)}$$

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

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

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

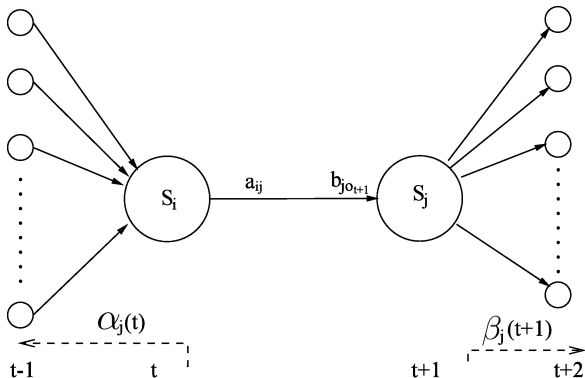
Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q3. Parameter
Estimation

References

Arc probability



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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q3. Parameter
Estimation

References

Reestimation

Iterative reestimation

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

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

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

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

Q3. Parameter
Estimation

References

1 Introduction

2 Statistical Models for NLP

3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

4 Maximum Entropy Modeling

5 Markovian Models

6 References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

References

References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

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References

Introduction

Statistical
Models for
NLP

Maximum
Likelihood
Estimation
(MLE)

Maximum
Entropy
Modeling

Markovian
Models

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