Probability and Structure in Natural Language Processing

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Two Meanings of "Structure"

- Yesterday: structure of a graph for modeling a collection of random variables together.
- Today: linguistic structure.
 - Sequence labelings (POS, IOB chunkings, ...)
 - Parse trees (phrase-structure, dependency, ...)
 - Alignments (word, phrase, tree, ...)
 - Predicate-argument structures
 - Text-to-text (translation, paraphrase, answers, ...)

A Useful Abstraction?

- I think so.
- Brings out commonalities:
 - Modeling formalisms (e.g., linear models with features)
 - Learning algorithms (lectures 3-4)
 - Generic inference algorithms
- Permits sharing across a wider space of problems.
- Disadvantage: hides engineering details.

Familiar Example: Hidden Markov Models

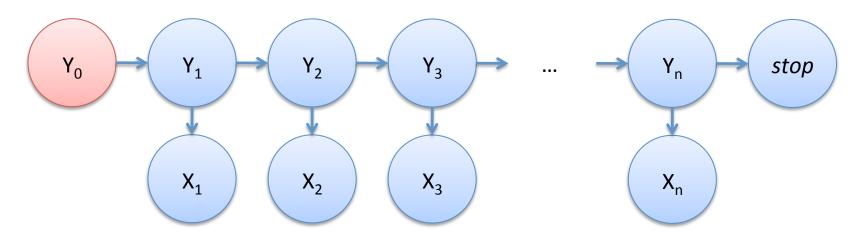
- X and Y are both sequences of symbols
 - X is a sequence from the vocabulary Σ
 - \mathbf{Y} is a sequence from the state space Λ

$$p(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{Y} = \boldsymbol{y}) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid y_i) p(y_i \mid y_{i-1})\right) p(stop \mid y_n)$$

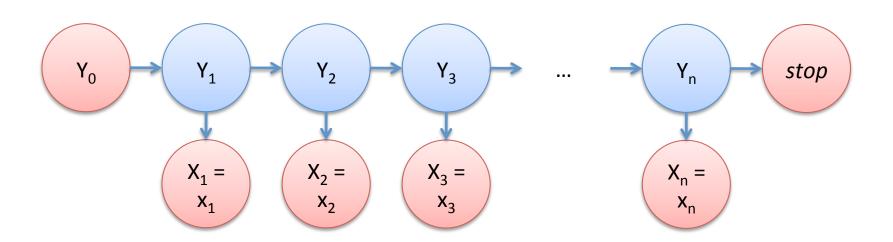
- Parameters:
 - Transitions p(y' | y)
 - including p(stop | y), p(y | start)
 - Emissions p(x | y)

• The joint model's independence assumptions are easy to capture with a Bayesian network.

$$p(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid y_i) p(y_i \mid y_{i-1})\right) p(stop \mid y_n)$$

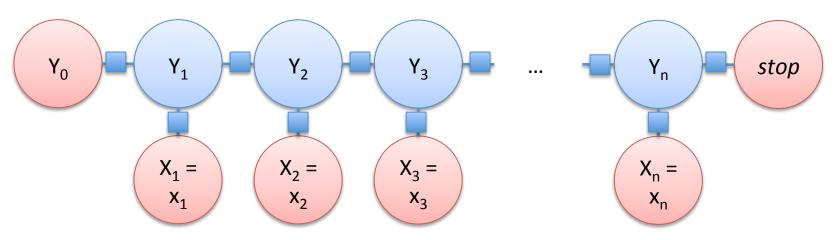


 The usual inference problem is to find the most probable value of Y given X = x.



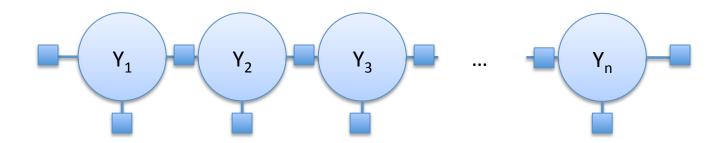
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Factor graph:



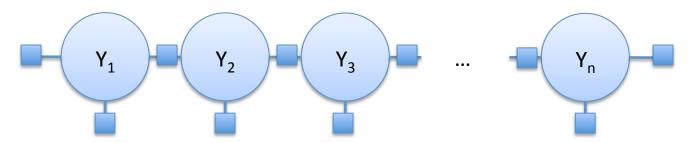
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 Factor graph after reducing factors to respect evidence:

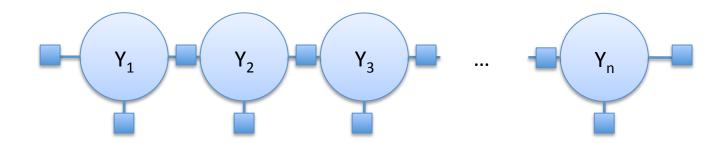


 The usual inference problem is to find the most probable value of Y given X = x.

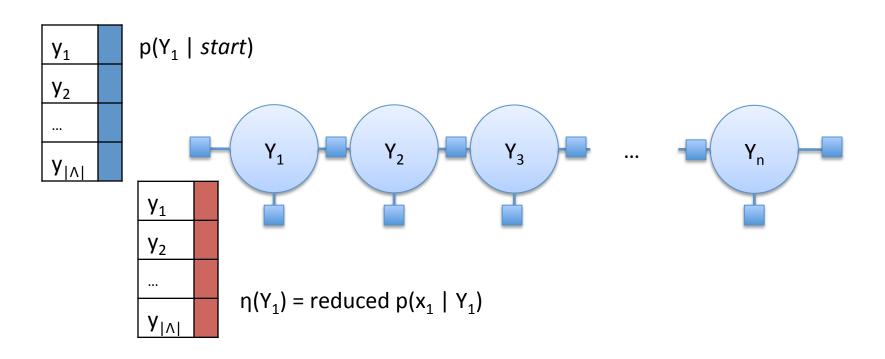
Clever ordering should be apparent!



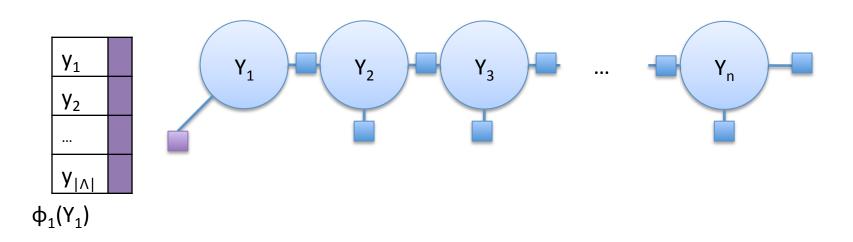
- When we eliminate Y₁, we take a product of three relevant factors.
 - p(Y₁ | start)
 - $\eta(Y_1) = \text{reduced } p(x_1 \mid Y_1)$
 - $p(Y_2 | Y_1)$



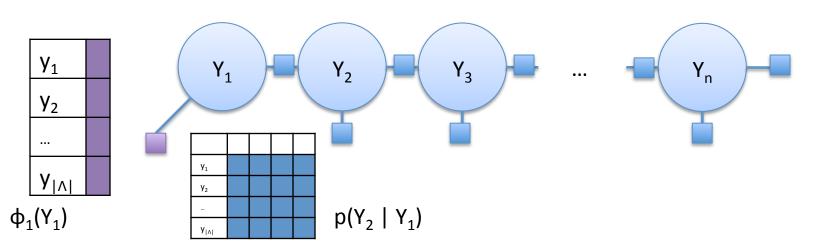
• When we eliminate Y_1 , we first take a product of two factors that only involve Y_1 .



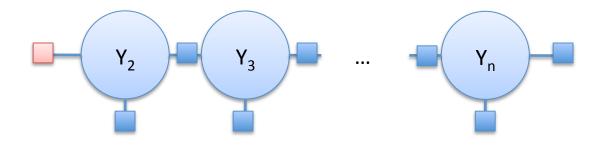
- When we eliminate Y_1 , we first take a product of two factors that only involve Y_1 .
- This is the Viterbi probability vector for Y₁.



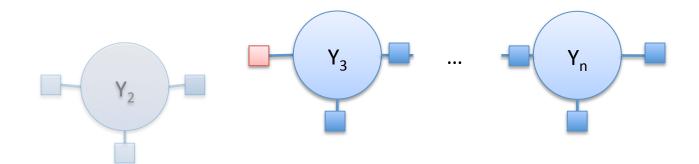
- When we eliminate Y_1 , we first take a product of two factors that only involve Y_1 .
- This is the Viterbi probability vector for Y₁.
- Eliminating Y₁ equates to solving the Viterbi probabilities for Y₂.



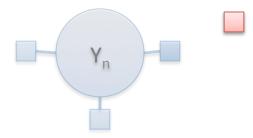
- Product of all factors involving Y₁, then reduce.
 - $\phi_2(Y_2) = \max_{y \in Val(Y_1)} (\phi_1(y) \times p(Y_2 \mid y))$
 - This factor holds Viterbi probabilities for Y₂.



- When we eliminate Y₂, we take a product of the analogous two relevant factors.
- Then reduce.
 - $\phi_3(Y_3) = \max_{y \in Val(Y_2)} (\phi_2(y) \times p(Y_3 \mid y))$

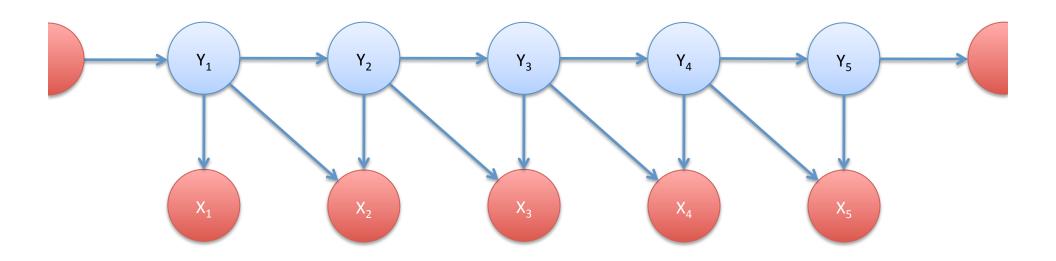


- At the end, we have one final factor with one row, ϕ_{n+1} .
- This is the score of the best sequence.
- Use backtrace to recover values.

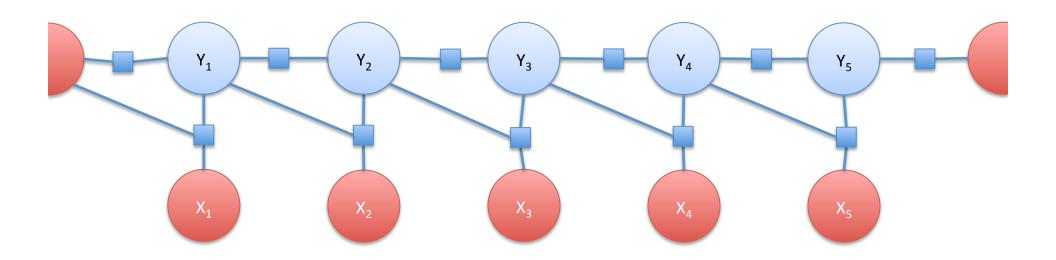


Why Think This Way?

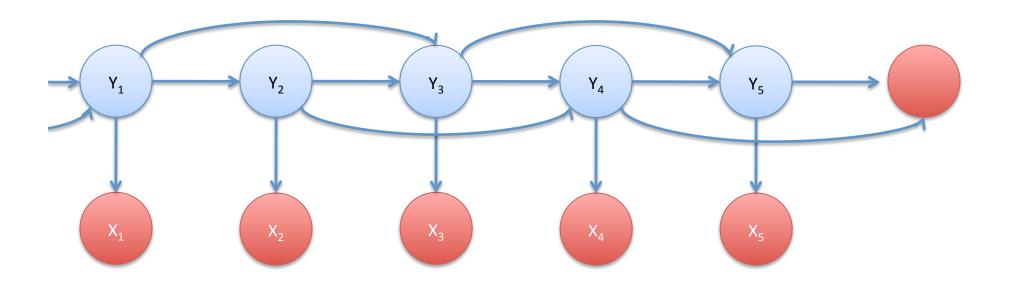
- Easy to see how to generalize HMMs.
 - More evidence
 - More factors
 - More hidden structure
 - More dependencies
- Probabilistic interpretation of factors is not central to finding the "best" Y ...
 - Many factors are not conditional probability tables.



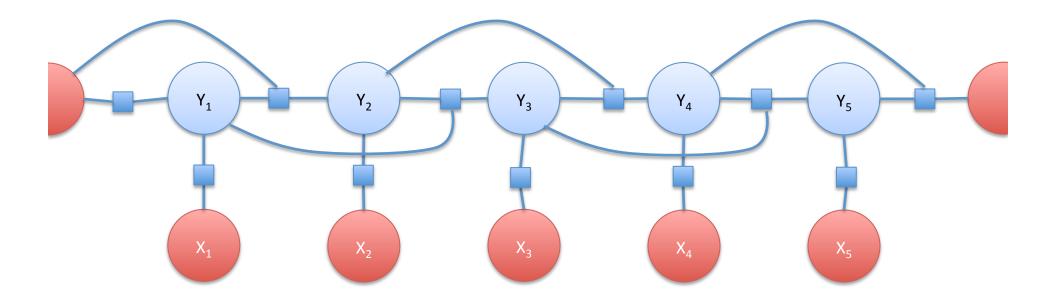
Each word also depends on previous state.



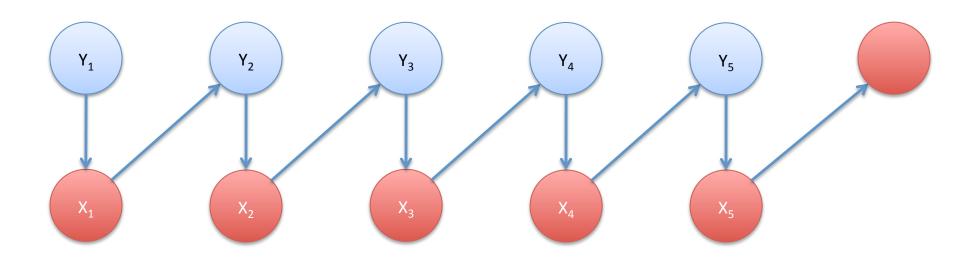
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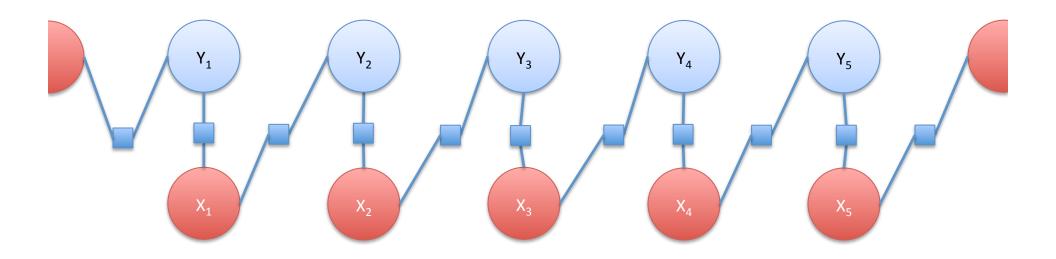
"Trigram" HMM



"Trigram" HMM



 Aggregate bigram model (Saul and Pereira, 1997)



 Aggregate bigram model (Saul and Pereira, 1997)

General Decoding Problem

- Two structured random variables, X and Y.
 - Sometimes described as collections of random variables.
- "Decode" observed value X = x into some value of Y.

- Usually, we seek to maximize some score.
 - E.g., MAP inference from yesterday.

Linear Models

- Define a feature vector function **g** that maps (**x**, **y**) pairs into d-dimensional real space.
- Score is linear in g(x, y).

$$score(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

 $\boldsymbol{y}^{*} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{Y}_{\boldsymbol{x}}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$

- Results:
 - decoding seeks y to maximize the score.
 - learning seeks w to ... do something we'll talk about later.
- Extremely general!

Generic Noisy Channel as Linear Model

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \log (p(\boldsymbol{y}) \cdot p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y}))$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \log p(\boldsymbol{y}) + \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{y})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} w_{\boldsymbol{y}} + w_{\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y}}$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

 Of course, the two probability terms are typically composed of "smaller" factors; each can be understood as an exponentiated weight.

Max Ent Models as Linear Models

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \log p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \log \frac{\exp \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})}{z(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) - \log z(\boldsymbol{x})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

HMMs as Linear Models

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})
= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x_i \mid y_i) + \log p(y_i \mid y_{i-1}) \right) + \log p(stop \mid y_n)
= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{y_i \downarrow x_i} + w_{y_{i-1} \to y_i} \right) + w_{y_n \to stop}
= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \sum_{y,x} w_{y \downarrow x} freq(y \downarrow x; \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{y,y'} w_{y \to y'} freq(y \to y'; \boldsymbol{y})
= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

Running Example

- IOB sequence labeling, here applied to NER
- Often solved with HMMs, CRFs, M³Ns ...

| feature function $g: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$ | | $g(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y})$ | $g(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}')$ |
|---|---|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| bias: | count of i s.t. $y_i = B$ | 5 | 4 |
| | count of i s.t. $y_i = 1$ | 1 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $y_i = 0$ | 14 | 15 |
| lexical: | count of i s.t. $x_i = Britain$ and $y_i = B$ | 1 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. $x_i = Britain$ and $y_i = I$ | 0 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. $x_i = Britain$ and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| down cased: | count of i s.t. $lc(x_i) = britain$ and $y_i = B$ | 1 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. $lc(x_i) = britain$ and $y_i = 1$ | 0 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. $lc(x_i) = britain$ and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $lc(x_i) = sent$ and $y_i = 0$ | 1 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $lc(x_i) = warships$ and $y_i = 0$ | 1 | 1 |
| shape: | count of i s.t. $shape(x_i) = Aaaaaaa$ and $y_i = B$ | 3 | 2 |
| | count of i s.t. $shape(x_i) = Aaaaaaa$ and $y_i = I$ | 1 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $shape(x_i) = Aaaaaaa$ and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| prefix: | count of i s.t. $pre_1(x_i) = B$ and $y_i = B$ | 2 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $pre_1(x_i) = B$ and $y_i = I$ | 0 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. $pre_1(x_i) = B$ and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $pre_1(x_i) = s$ and $y_i = 0$ | 2 | 2 |
| | count of i s.t. $shape(pre_1(x_i)) = A$ and $y_i = B$ | 5 | 4 |
| | count of i s.t. $shape(pre_1(x_i)) = A$ and $y_i = I$ | 1 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $shape(pre_1(x_i)) = A$ and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| | $\llbracket shape(pre_1(x_1)) = A \wedge y_1 = B rbracket$ | 1 | 0 |
| | $\llbracket shape(pre_1(x_1)) = A \wedge y_1 = O rbracket$ | 0 | 1 |
| gazetteer: | count of i s.t. x_i is in the gazetteer and $y_i = B$ | 2 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. x_i is in the gazetteer and $y_i = 1$ | 0 | 0 |
| | count of i s.t. x_i is in the gazetteer and $y_i = 0$ | 0 | 1 |
| | count of i s.t. $x_i = sent$ and $y_i = 0$ | 1 | 1 |

(What is *Not* A Linear Model?)

Models with hidden variables

$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}} p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$$

(also "neural" models)

Models based on non-linear kernels

$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{i} K\left(\langle \boldsymbol{x}_{i}, \boldsymbol{y}_{i} \rangle, \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle\right)$$

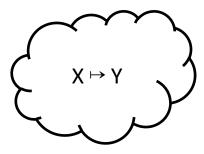
Decoding

- For HMMs, the decoding algorithm we usually think of first is the Viterbi algorithm.
 - This is just one example.
- We will view decoding in five different ways.
 - Sequence models as a running example.
 - These views are not just for HMMs.
 - Sometimes they will lead us back to Viterbi!

Five Views of Decoding

Inference in a probabilistic graphical model!





1. Probabilistic Graphical Models

- View the linguistic structure as a collection of random variables that are interdependent.
- Represent interdependencies as a directed or undirected graphical model.
- Conditional probability tables (BNs) or factors (MNs) encode the probability distribution.

Inference in Graphical Models

- General algorithm for exact MAP inference: variable elimination.
 - Iteratively solve for the best values of each variable conditioned on values of "preceding" neighbors.
 - Then trace back.

The Viterbi algorithm is an instance of max-product variable elimination!

MAP is Linear Decoding

Bayesian network:

$$\sum_{i} \log p(x_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

$$+ \sum_{j} \log p(y_j \mid \text{parents}(Y_j))$$

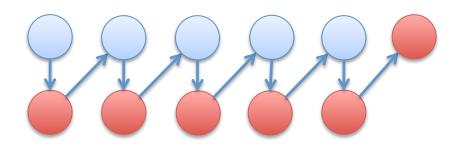
Markov network:

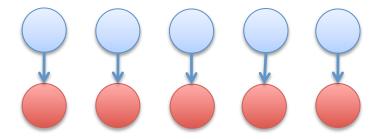
$$\sum_{C} \log \phi_C \left(\{x_i\}_{i \in C}, \{y_j\}_{j \in C} \right)$$

• This only works if every variable is in X or Y.

Inference in Graphical Models

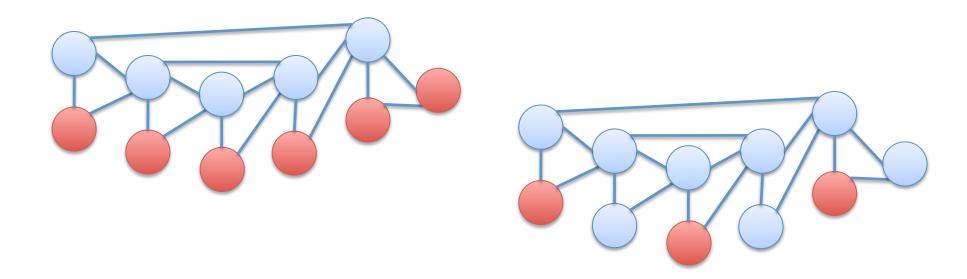
- Remember: more edges make inference more expensive.
 - Fewer edges means stronger independence.
- Really pleasant:

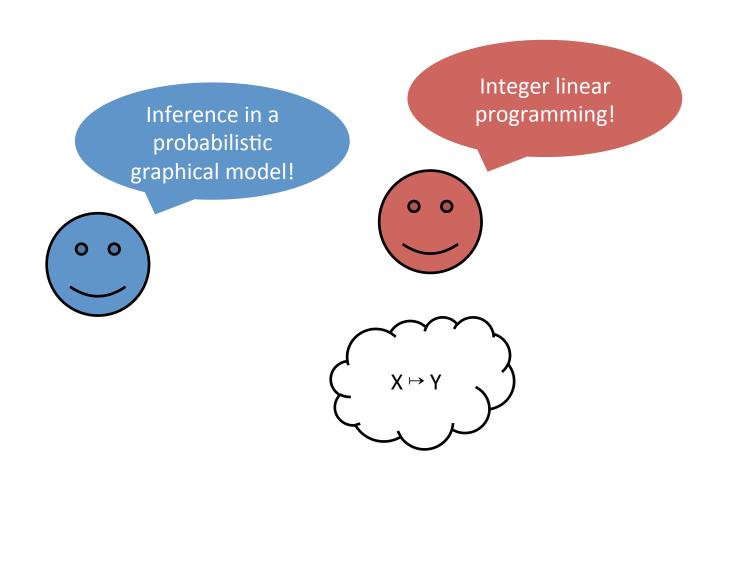




Inference in Graphical Models

- Remember: more edges make inference more expensive.
 - Fewer edges means stronger independence.
- Really unpleasant:





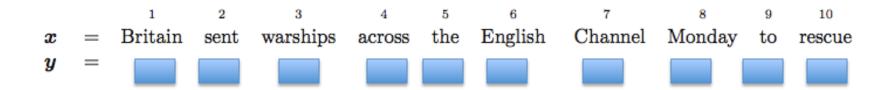
"Parts"

 Assume that feature function g breaks down into local parts.

$$\mathbf{g}(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}) \;\; = \;\; \sum_{i=1}^{\#parts(oldsymbol{x})} \mathbf{f}(\Pi_i(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}))$$

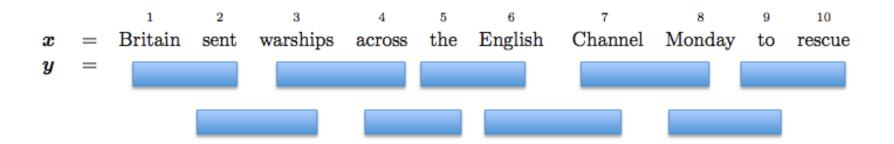
- Each part has an alphabet of possible values.
 - Decoding is choosing values for all parts, with consistency constraints.
 - (In the graphical models view, a part corresponds to a factor assignment.)

Example



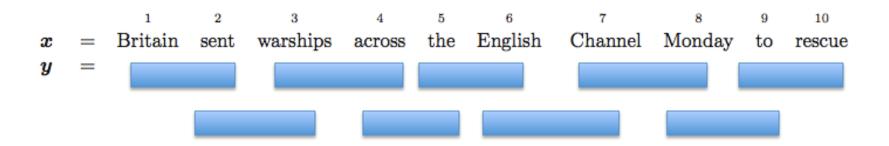
- One part per word, each is in {B, I, O}
- No features look at multiple parts
 - Fast inference
 - Not very expressive

Example



- One part per bigram, each is in {BB, BI, BO, IB, II, IO, OB, OO}
- Features and constraints can look at pairs
 - Slower inference
 - A bit more expressive

Geometric View



- Let $z_{i,\pi}$ be 1 if part *i* takes value π and 0 otherwise.
- **z** is a vector in $\{0, 1\}^N$
 - -N = total number of localized part values
 - Each z is a vertex of the unit cube

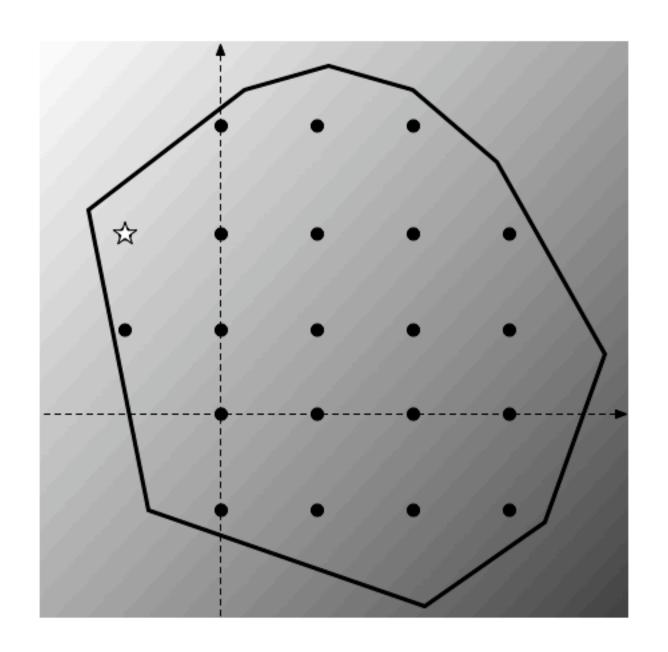
Score is Linear in z

$$\begin{array}{lll} \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) & = & \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \sum_{i=1}^{\#parts(\boldsymbol{x})} \mathbf{f}(\Pi_{i}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})) \\ & = & \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \sum_{i=1}^{\#parts(\boldsymbol{x})} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathrm{Values}(\Pi_{i})} \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\pi}) \mathbf{1} \{\Pi_{i}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{\pi} \} \\ & = & \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathcal{Z}_{\boldsymbol{x}}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \sum_{i=1}^{\#parts(\boldsymbol{x})} \sum_{\boldsymbol{\pi} \in \mathrm{Values}(\Pi_{i})} \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\pi}) z_{i,\boldsymbol{\pi}} \\ & = & \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathcal{Z}_{\boldsymbol{x}}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{F}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathbf{z} \\ & = & \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{z} \in \mathcal{Z}_{\boldsymbol{x}}} \left(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{F}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\right) \mathbf{z} \end{array}$$

Polyhedra

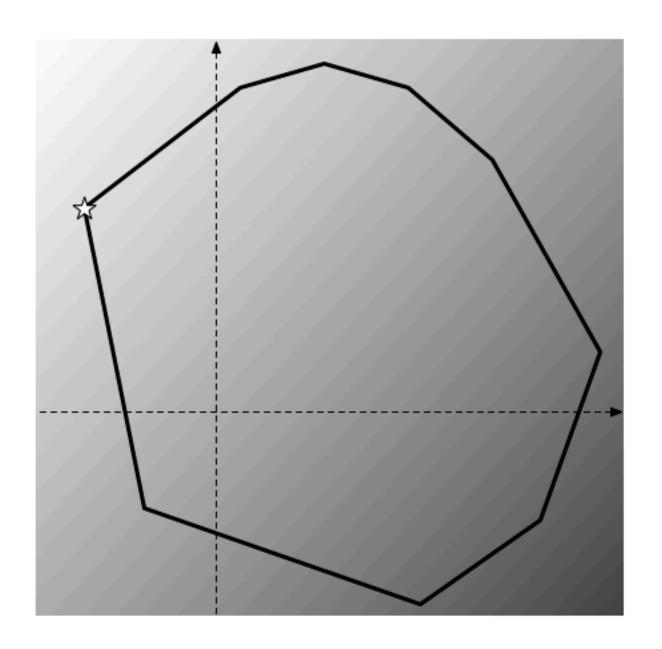


- Not all vertices of the N-dimensional unit cube satisfy the constraints.
 - E.g., can't have $z_{1,BI} = 1$ and $z_{2,BI} = 1$
- Sometimes we can write down a small (polynomial number) of linear constraints on z.
- Result: linear objective, linear constraints, integer constraints ...



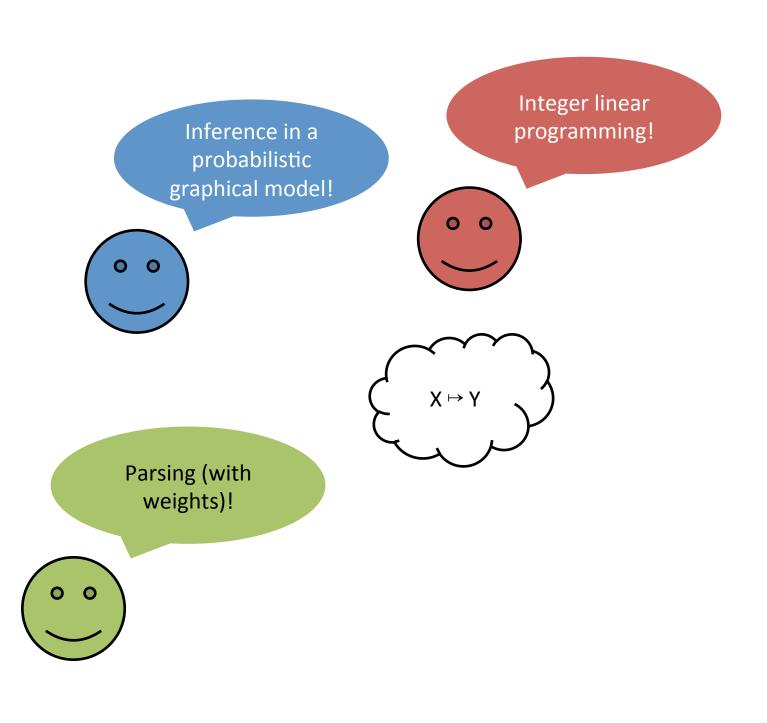
Integer Linear Programming

- Very easy to add new constraints and non-local features.
- Many decoding problems have been mapped to ILP (sequence labeling, parsing, ...), but it's not always trivial.
- NP-hard in general.
 - But there are packages that often work well in practice (e.g., CPLEX)
 - Specialized algorithms in some cases
 - LP relaxation for approximate solutions



Remark

- Graphical models assumed a probabilistic interpretation
 - Though they are not always learned using a probabilistic interpretation!
- The polytope view is agnostic about how you interpret the weights.
 - It only says that the decoding problem is an ILP.



Grammars

- Grammars are often associated with natural language parsing, but they are extremely powerful for imposing constraints.
- We can add weights to them.
 - HMMs are a kind of weighted regular grammar (closely connected to WFSAs)
 - PCFGs are a kind of weighted CFG
 - Many, many more.
- Weighted parsing: find the maximum-weighted derivation for a string x.

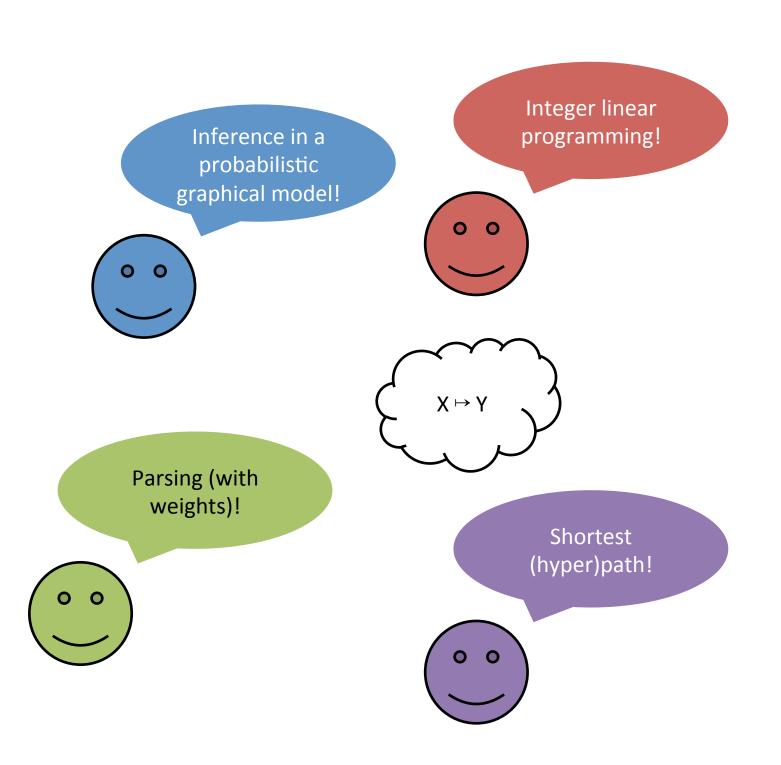
Decoding as Weighted Parsing

- Every valid y is a grammatical derivation (parse) for x.
 - HMM: sequence of "grammatical" states is one allowed by the transition table.
- Augment parsing algorithms with weights and find the best parse.

The Viterbi algorithm is an instance of recognition by a weighted grammar!

BIO Tagging as a CFG

 Weighted (or probabilistic) CKY is a dynamic programming algorithm very similar in structure to classical CKY.



Best Path

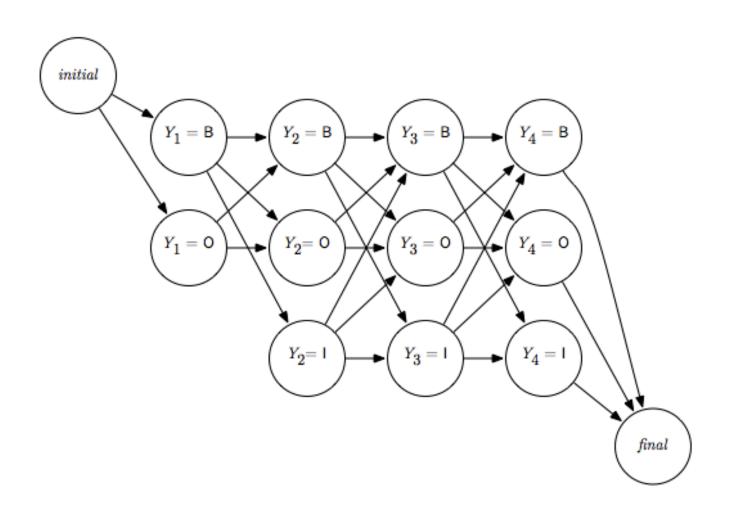
- General idea: take x and build a graph.
- Score of a path factors into the edges.

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \sum_{e \in \text{Edges}} \mathbf{f}(e) \mathbf{1} \{ e \text{ is crossed by } \boldsymbol{y} \text{'s path} \}$$

Decoding is finding the best path.

The Viterbi algorithm is an instance of finding a best path!

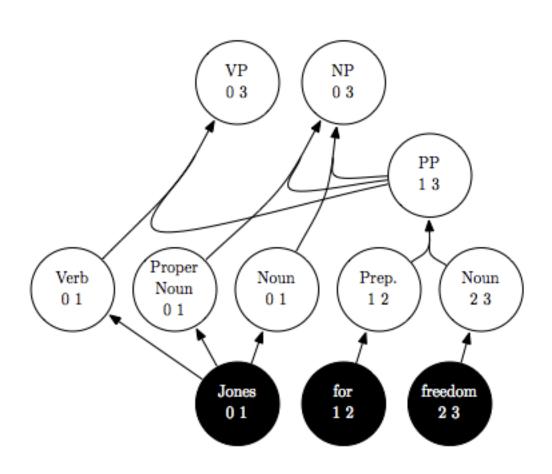
"Lattice" View of Viterbi

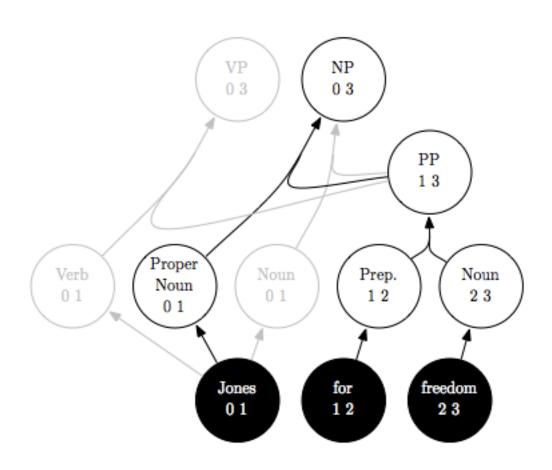


Minimum Cost Hyperpath

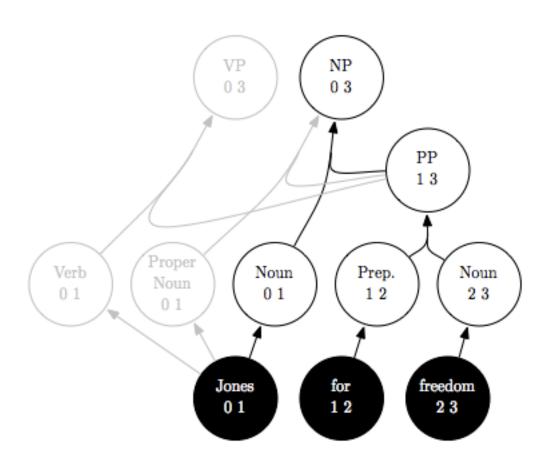
- General idea: take x and build a hypergraph.
- Score of a hyperpath factors into the hyperedges.
- Decoding is finding the best hyperpath.

 This connection was elucidated by Klein and Manning (2002).





cf. "Dean for democracy"



Forced to work on his thesis, sunshine streaming in the window, Mike experienced a ...



Forced to work on his thesis, sunshine streaming in the window, Mike began to ...

Why Hypergraphs?

- Useful, compact encoding of the hypothesis space.
 - Build hypothesis space using local features, maybe do some filtering.
 - Pass it off to another module for more finegrained scoring with richer or more expensive features.



Logic Programming

 Start with a set of axioms and a set of inference rules.

```
\begin{array}{ll} \forall A,C, & \operatorname{ancestor}(A,C) & \Leftarrow & \operatorname{parent}(A,C) \\ \forall A,C, & \operatorname{ancestor}(A,C) & \Leftarrow & \bigvee_{B} \operatorname{ancestor}(A,B) \wedge \operatorname{parent}(B,C) \end{array}
```

- The goal is to prove a specific theorem, goal.
- Many approaches, but we assume a *deductive* approach.
 - Start with axioms, iteratively produce more theorems.

```
label-bigram("B", "I")
                                                   label-bigram("B", "O")
                                                    label-bigram("I", "B")
                                                     label-bigram("l", "l")
                                                    label-bigram("I", "O")
                                                   label-bigram("O", "B")
                                                   label-bigram("O", "O")
                                  \forall x \in \Sigma, labeled-word(x, "B")
                                  \forall x \in \Sigma, labeled-word(x, "l")
                                  \forall x \in \Sigma, labeled-word(x, "O")
\forall \ell \in \Lambda, \ \ \mathsf{v}(\ell,1) = \mathsf{labeled\text{-}word}(x_1,\ell)
\forall \ell \in \Lambda, \quad \mathsf{v}(\ell,i) \quad = \quad \bigvee_{\ell' \in \Lambda} \mathsf{v}(\ell',i-1) \land \mathsf{label-bigram}(\ell',\ell) \land \mathsf{labeled\text{-}word}(x_i,\ell)
                   \mathsf{goal} \ = \ \bigvee \mathsf{v}(\ell,n)
```

label-bigram("B", "B")

Weighted Deduction

- Twist: axioms have weights.
- Want the proof of goal with the best score:

$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{y}} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \sum_{a \in \text{Axioms}} \mathbf{f}(a) freq(a; \boldsymbol{y})$$

 Note that axioms can be used more than once in a proof (y).

Weighted Deduction

- Shieber, Schabes, and Pereira (1995): many parsing algorithms can be understood in the same deductive logic framework.
- Goodman (1999): add weights, get many useful NLP algorithms.
- Eisner, Goldlust, and Smith (2004, 2005): semiring-generic algorithms, Dyna.

Dynamic Programming

- Most views (exception is polytopes) can be understood as DP algorithms.
 - The low-level *procedures* we use are often DP.
 - Even DP is too high-level to know the best way to implement.
- DP does not imply polynomial time and space!
 - Most common approximations when the desired state space is too big: beam search, cube pruning, agendas with early stopping, ...
 - Other views suggest others.

Summary

- Decoding is the general problem of choosing a complex structure.
 - Linguistic analysis, machine translation, speech recognition, ...
 - Statistical models are usually involved (not necessarily probabilistic).
- No perfect general view, but much can be gained through a combination of views.