

CSE 5525: Foundations of Speech and Language Processing

Week 3, Lecture 1: Part-Of-Speech Tagging, Sequence Labeling, and Hidden Markov Models (HMMs)

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Many thanks for slides from Prof. Ray Mooney at UT Austin

Logistics

- HW#1 due tonight
- HW#2 OUT
 - 4 weeks (Due on 10/07/2020)
 - BUT, start early!!! (More challenging & lots coming up in OCT)

Reading lecture notes (given in the last column of our course schedule) is necessary to fully understand this week's topics (e.g., HMM/CRF)

Part Of Speech Tagging

- Annotate each word in a sentence with a part-of-speech marker (i.e., syntactic role).
- Lowest level of syntactic analysis.

John saw the saw and decided to take it to the table.
NNP VBD DT NN CC VBD TO VB PRP IN DT NN

- Useful for subsequent syntactic parsing and word sense disambiguation.

English POS Tagsets

- Original Brown corpus used a large set of 87 POS tags.
- Most common in NLP today is the Penn Treebank set of 45 tags.
 - Tagset used in these slides.
 - Reduced from the Brown set for use in the context of a parsed corpus (i.e. treebank).
- The C5 tagset used for the British National Corpus (BNC) has 61 tags.

Penn Treebank Tagset: 45 Tags

Tag	Description	Example	Tag	Description	Example
CC	coordin. conjunction	<i>and, but, or</i>	SYM	symbol	<i>+, %, &</i>
CD	cardinal number	<i>one, two, three</i>	TO	“to”	<i>to</i>
DT	determiner	<i>a, the</i>	UH	interjection	<i>ah, oops</i>
EX	existential ‘there’	<i>there</i>	VB	verb, base form	<i>eat</i>
FW	foreign word	<i>mea culpa</i>	VBD	verb, past tense	<i>ate</i>
IN	preposition/sub-conj	<i>of, in, by</i>	VBG	verb, gerund	<i>eating</i>
JJ	adjective	<i>yellow</i>	VBN	verb, past participle	<i>eaten</i>
JJR	adj., comparative	<i>bigger</i>	VBP	verb, non-3sg pres	<i>eat</i>
JJS	adj., superlative	<i>wildest</i>	VBZ	verb, 3sg pres	<i>eats</i>
LS	list item marker	<i>1, 2, One</i>	WDT	wh-determiner	<i>which, that</i>
MD	modal	<i>can, should</i>	WP	wh-pronoun	<i>what, who</i>
NN	noun, sing. or mass	<i>llama</i>	WP\$	possessive wh-	<i>whose</i>
NNS	noun, plural	<i>llamas</i>	WRB	wh-adverb	<i>how, where</i>
NNP	proper noun, singular	<i>IBM</i>	\$	dollar sign	<i>\$</i>
NNPS	proper noun, plural	<i>Carolinas</i>	#	pound sign	<i>#</i>
PDT	predeterminer	<i>all, both</i>	“	left quote	<i>‘ or “</i>
POS	possessive ending	<i>'s</i>	”	right quote	<i>’ or ”</i>
PRP	personal pronoun	<i>I, you, he</i>	(left parenthesis	<i>[, (, {, <</i>
PRP\$	possessive pronoun	<i>your, one's</i>)	right parenthesis	<i>],), }, ></i>
RB	adverb	<i>quickly, never</i>	,	comma	<i>,</i>
RBR	adverb, comparative	<i>faster</i>	.	sentence-final punc	<i>. ! ?</i>
RBS	adverb, superlative	<i>fastest</i>	:	mid-sentence punc	<i>: ; ... --</i>
RP	particle	<i>up, off</i>			

Open vs. Closed Class Tags

Open class categories have a large number of words and new ones are easily invented.

- Nouns (Googler, textlish), Verbs (Google), Adjectives (geeky), Adverb (automagically)

Open vs. Closed Class Tags

- **Open class** categories have a large number of words and new ones are easily invented.
 - Nouns (Googler, textlish), Verbs (Google), Adjectives (geeky), Adverb (automagically)
- ***Closed class*** categories are composed of a small, fixed set of grammatical function words for a given language.
 - Pronouns, Prepositions, Modals, Determiners, Particles, Conjunctions
 - e.g., "among" "down"

Ambiguity in POS Tagging

- “Like” can be a verb or a preposition
 - I like/? candy.
 - Time flies like/? an arrow.

Ambiguity in POS Tagging

- “Like” can be a verb or a preposition
 - I like/**VBP** candy.
 - Time flies like/**IN** an arrow. (preposition)
- “Around” can be a preposition, particle, or adverb

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Ambiguity in POS Tagging

- “Like” can be a verb or a preposition
 - I like/VBP candy.
 - Time flies like/IN an arrow.
- “Around” can be a preposition, particle, or adverb
 - I bought it at the shop around/IN the corner.
 - I never got around/RP to getting a car.
 - A new Prius costs around/RB \$25K.

POS Tagging Process

- Usually assume a separate initial tokenization process that separates and/or disambiguates punctuation, including detecting sentence boundaries.
- Degree of ambiguity in English (based on Brown corpus)
 - 11.5% of word types are ambiguous.
 - 40% of word tokens are ambiguous.
- Average POS tagging disagreement amongst expert human judges for the Penn treebank was 3.5%
 - Based on correcting the output of an initial automated tagger, which was deemed to be more accurate than tagging from scratch.
- Baseline: Picking the most frequent tag for each specific word can give about 90% accuracy
 - Even higher if use model for unknown words for Penn Treebank tagset.

POS Tagging Approaches

- **Rule-Based**: Human crafted rules based on lexical and other linguistic knowledge.
- **Learning-Based**: Trained on human annotated corpora like the Penn Treebank.
 - **Statistical models**: Hidden Markov Model (HMM), Maximum Entropy Markov Model (MEMM), Conditional Random Field (CRF)
 - **Rule learning**: Transformation Based Learning (TBL)
 - **Neural networks**: Recurrent networks like Long Short Term Memory (LSTMs)
- Generally, learning-based approaches have been found to be more effective overall, taking into account the total amount of human expertise and effort involved.

Problems with Sequence Labeling as Classification

- Not easy to integrate information from category of tokens on both sides.
- Difficult to propagate uncertainty between decisions and “collectively” determine the most likely **joint assignment of categories to all the tokens in a sequence.**

There are relationships between the tags!

Noun-Verb is more likely than Verb-Verb

More explanations in Section 7.1, Eisenstein.

Probabilistic Sequence Models

- **Probabilistic sequence models** allow integrating uncertainty over multiple, interdependent classifications and collectively determine the most likely global assignment.
- Two standard models
 - Hidden Markov Model (HMM)
 - Conditional Random Field (CRF)

Markov Model / Markov Chain

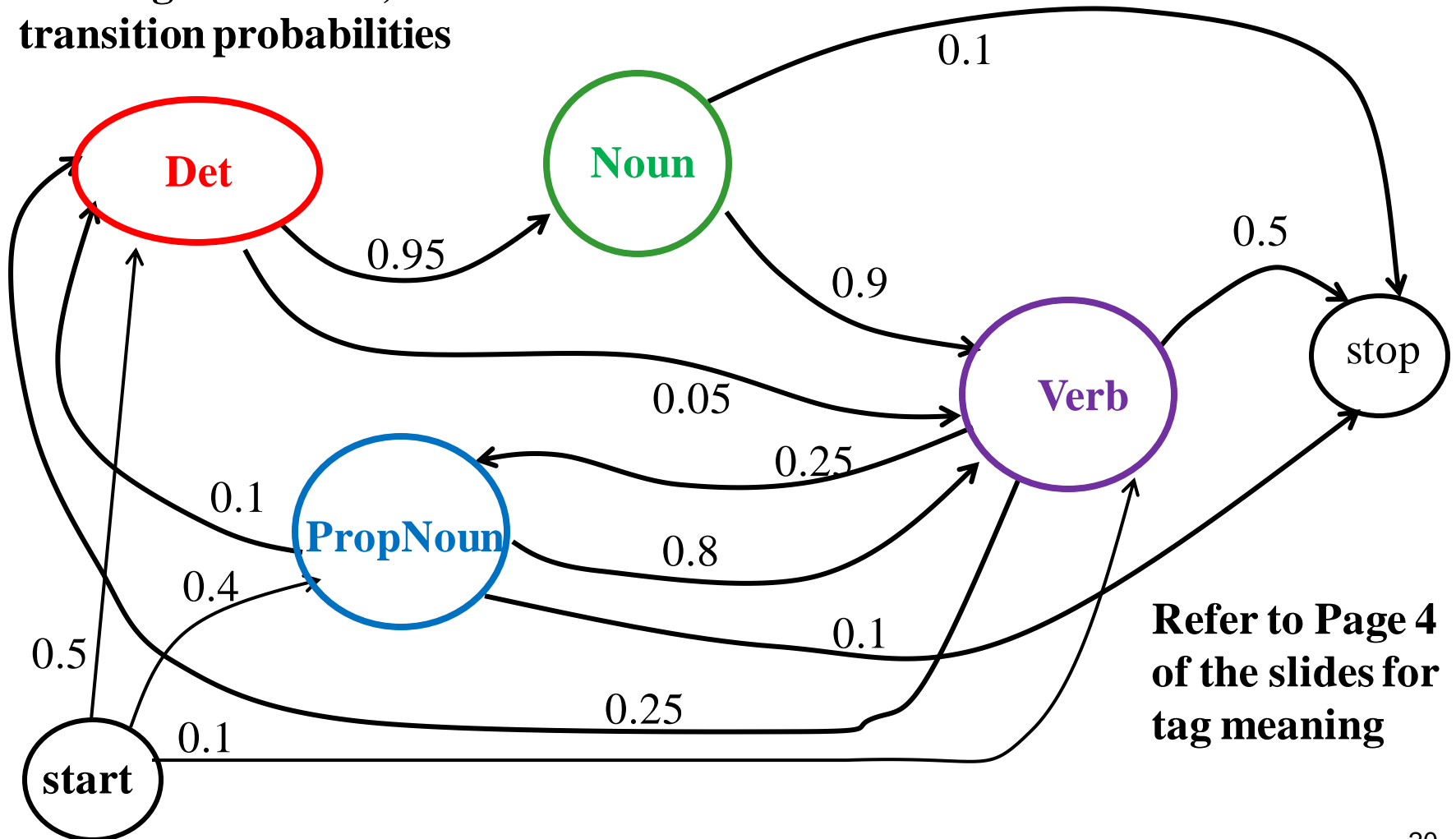
- A finite state machine with probabilistic state transitions.
- Q: What is the Markov assumption?

Markov Model / Markov Chain

- A finite state machine with probabilistic state transitions.
- Makes Markov assumption that next state only depends on the current state and independent of previous history.

Sample Markov Model for POS

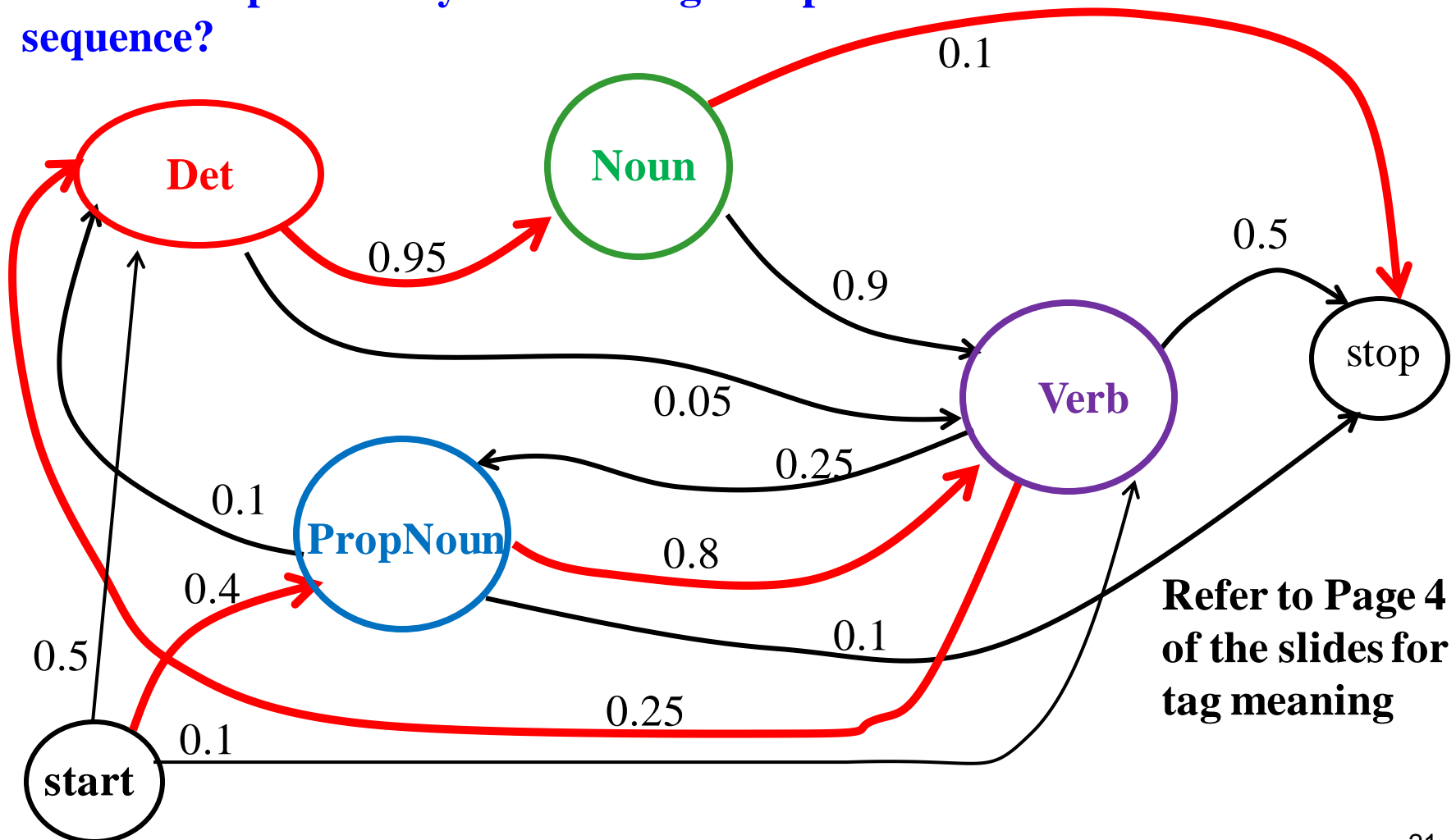
POS tags are states; numbers are state transition probabilities



Refer to Page 4
of the slides for
tag meaning

Sample Markov Model for POS

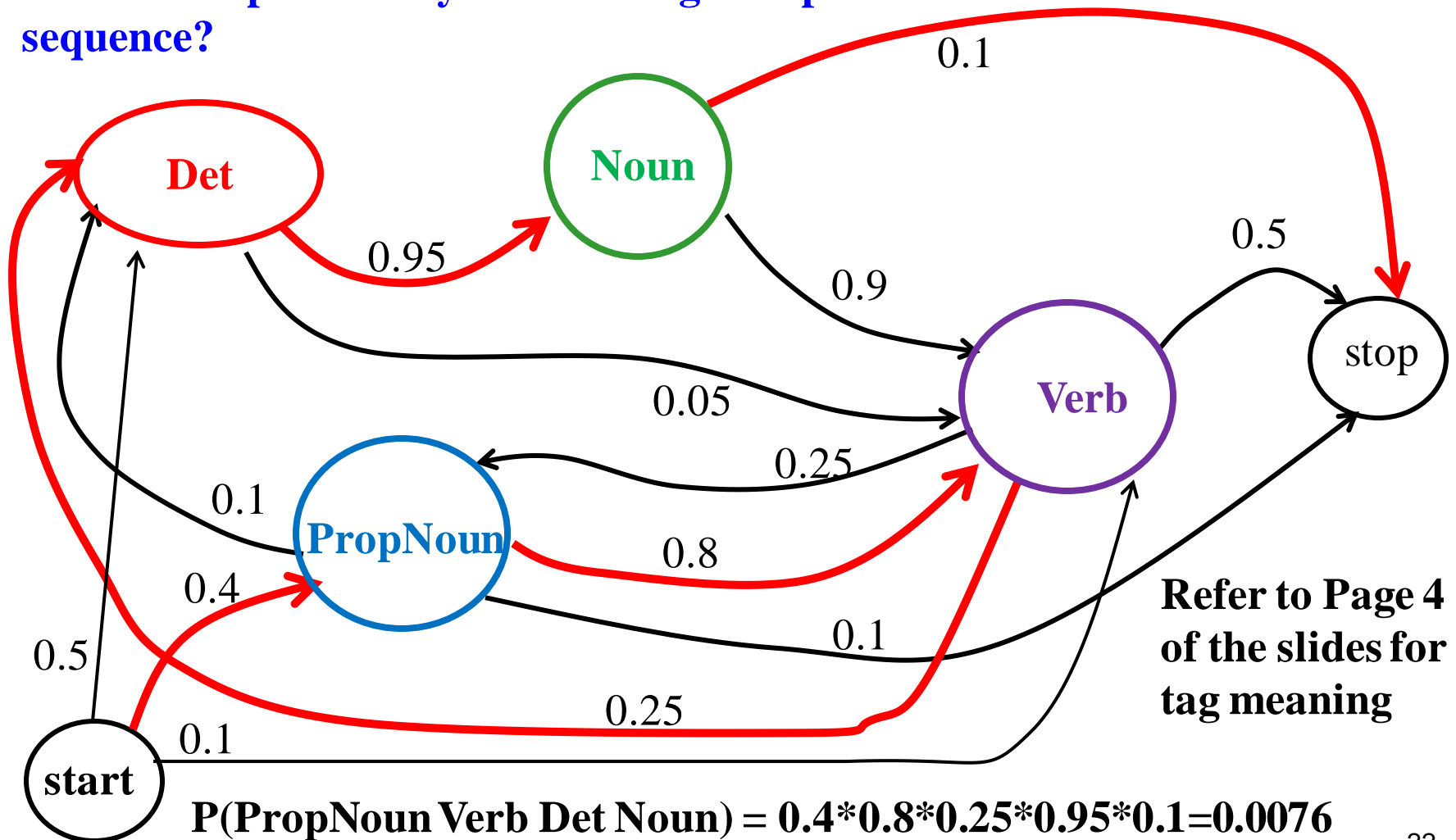
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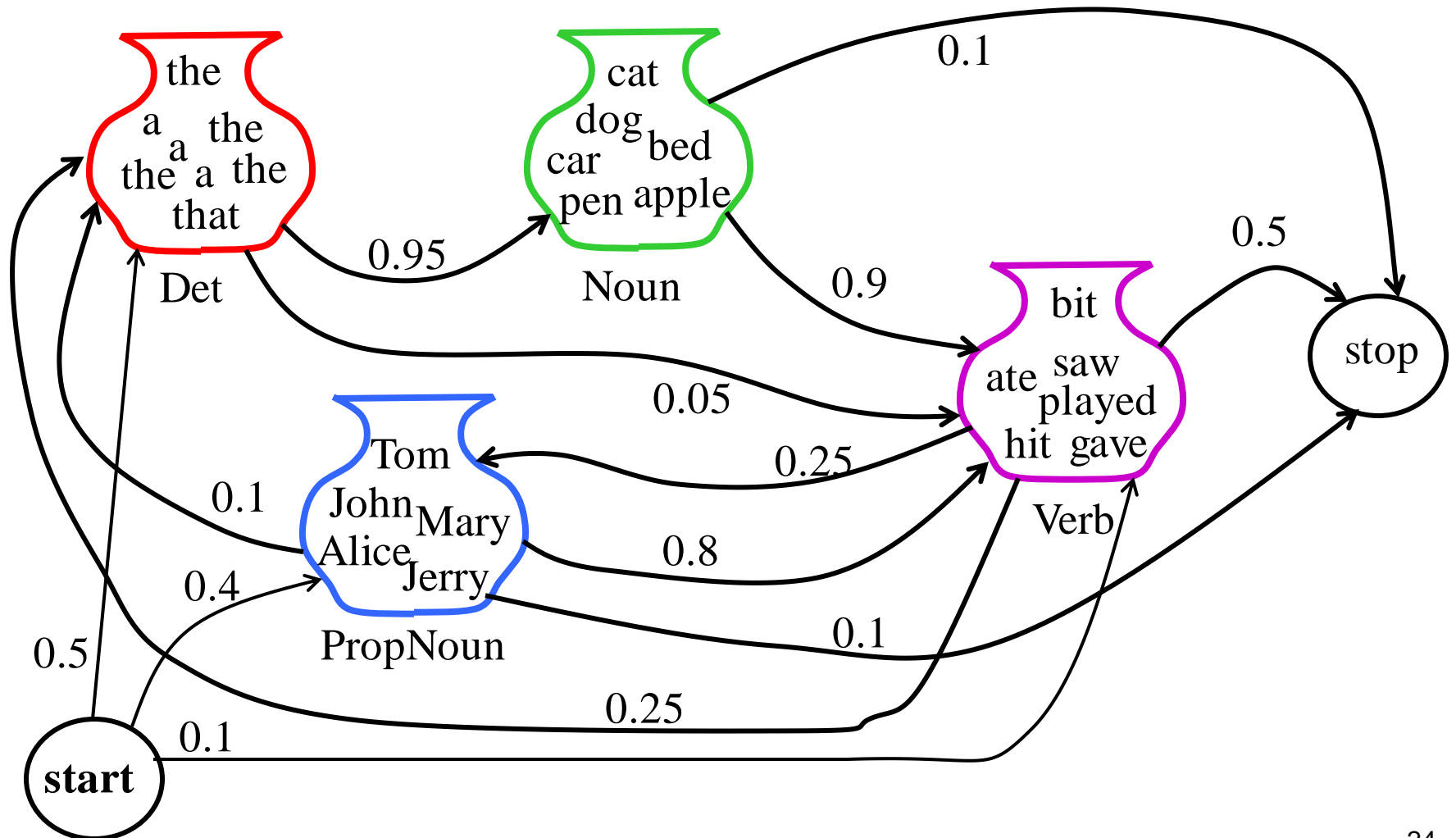
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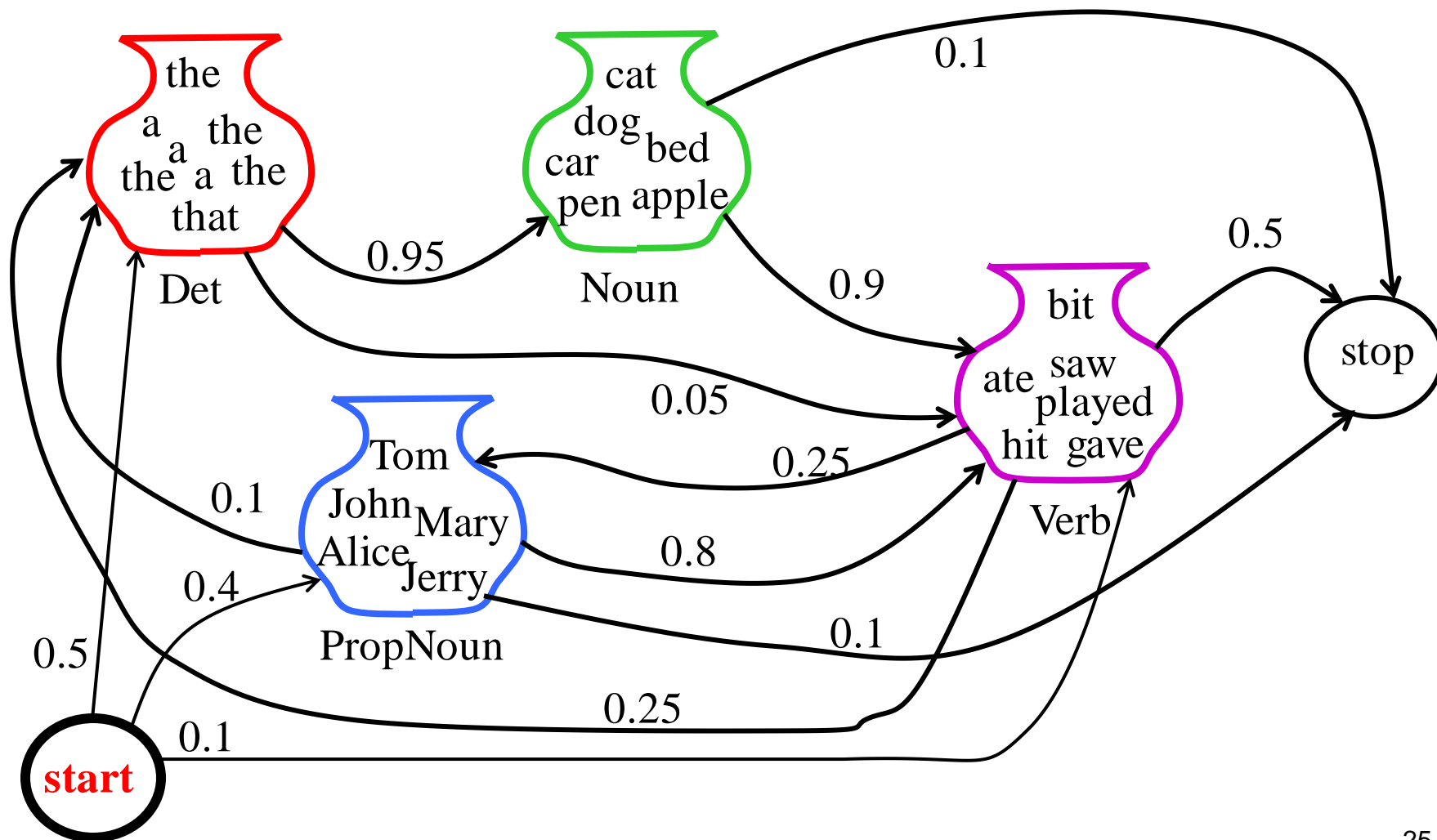
Hidden Markov Model for Sequence Labeling (e.g., POS tagging)

- Probabilistic generative model for sequences.
- Assume an underlying set of *hidden* (unobserved, latent) states in which the model can be (e.g. parts of speech).
- Assume probabilistic transitions between states over time (e.g. transition from POS to another POS as sequence is generated).
- Assume a *probabilistic* generation of tokens from states (e.g. words generated for each POS).

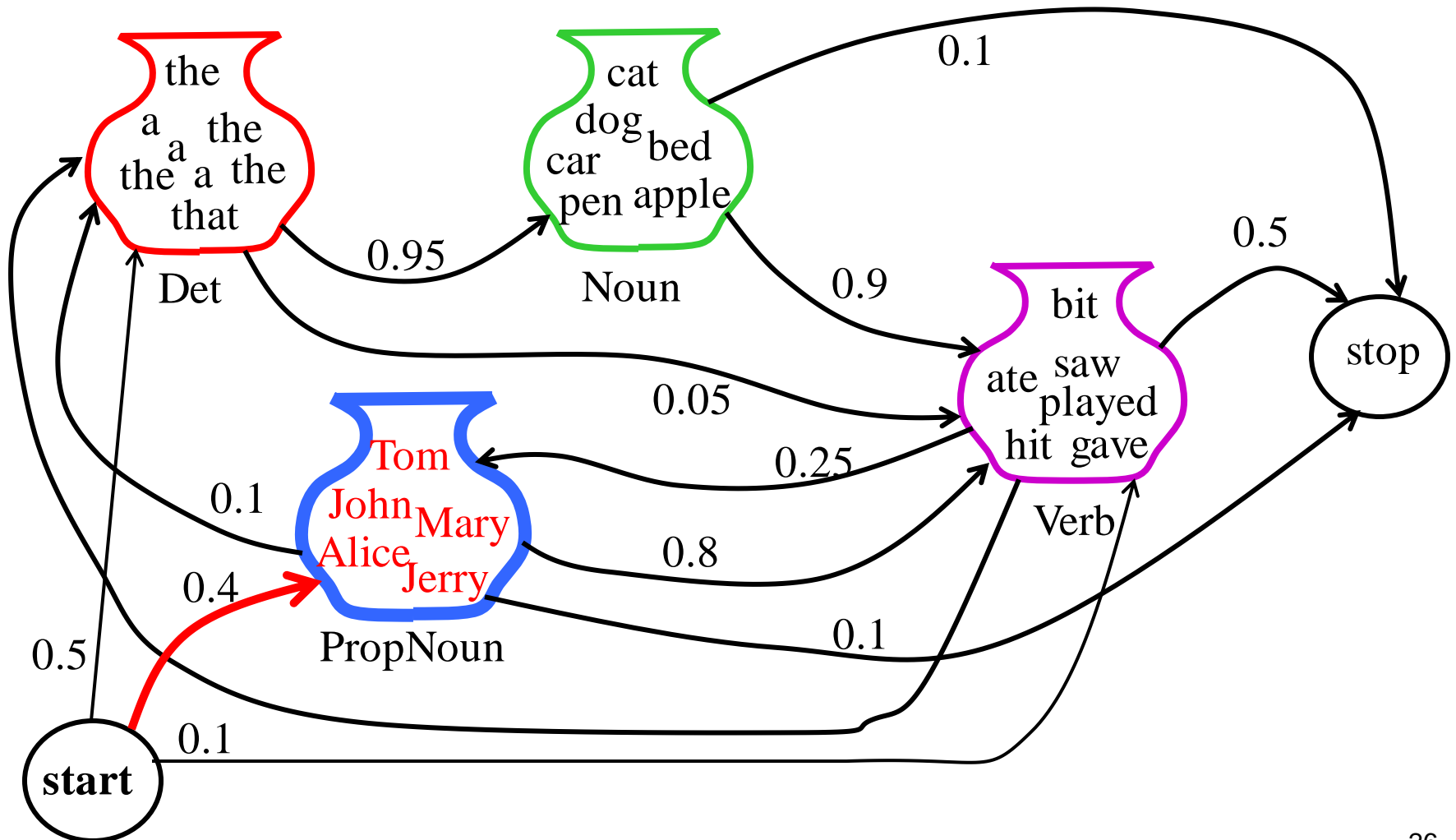
Sample HMM for POS



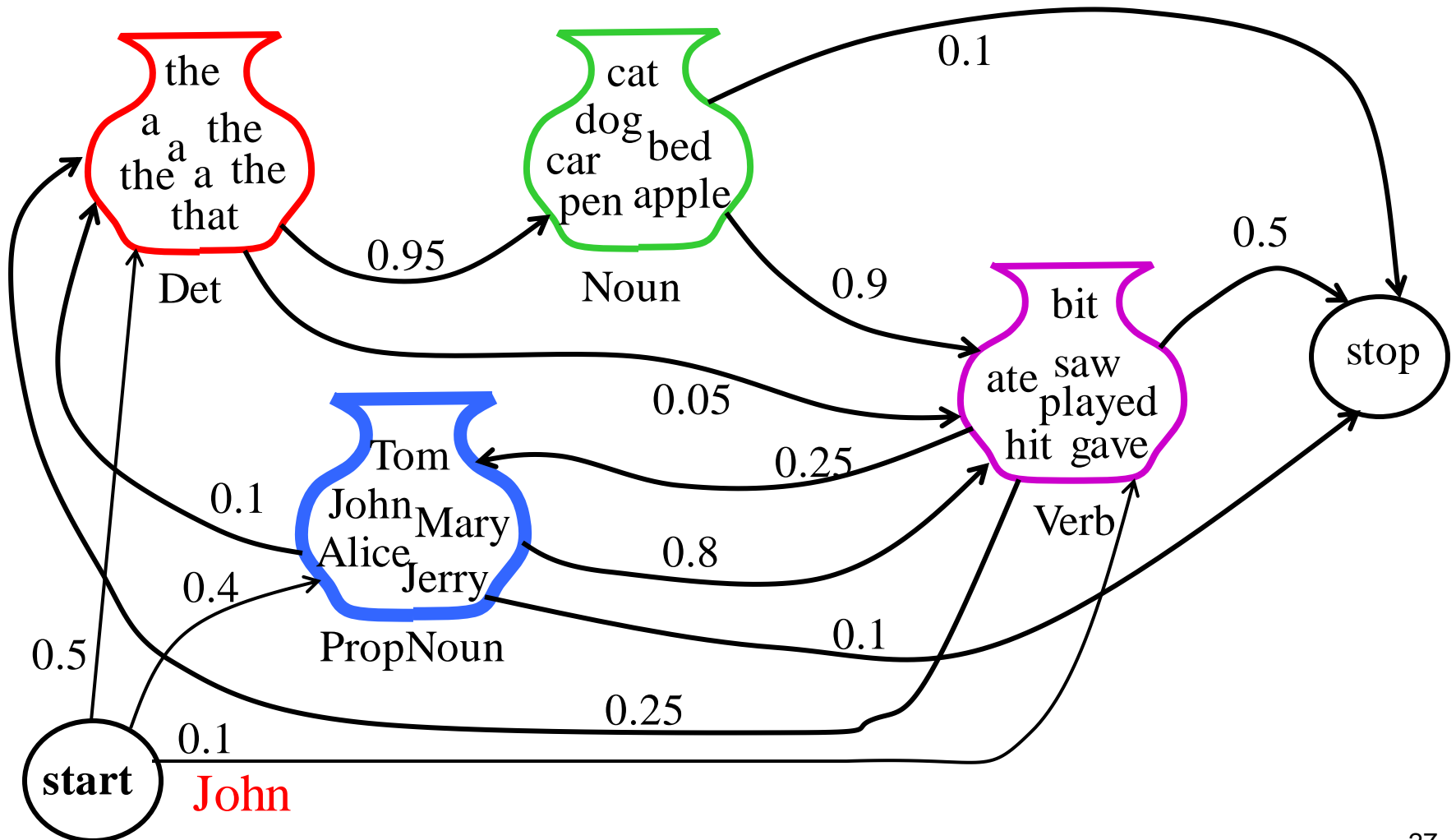
Sample HMM Generation



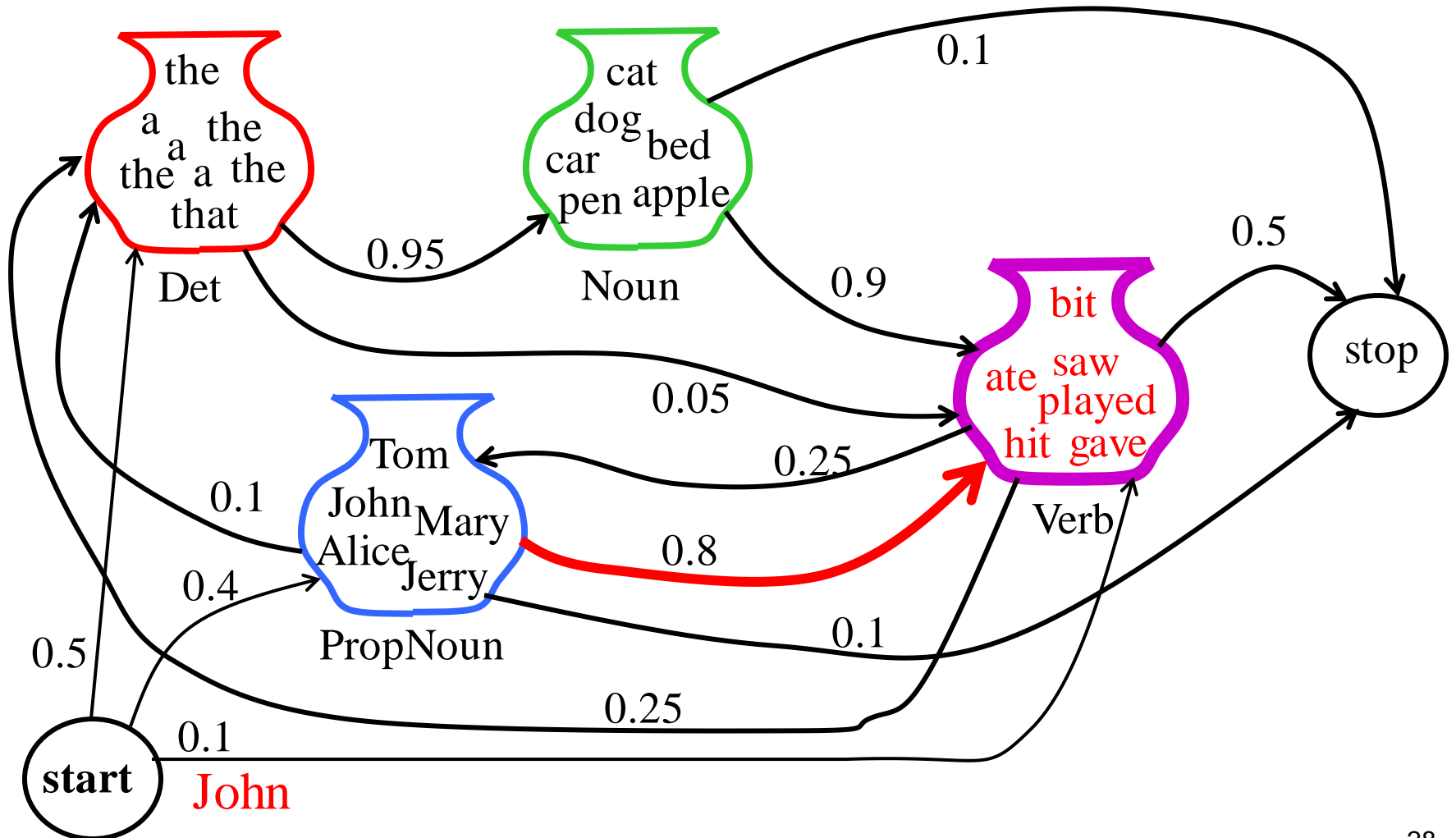
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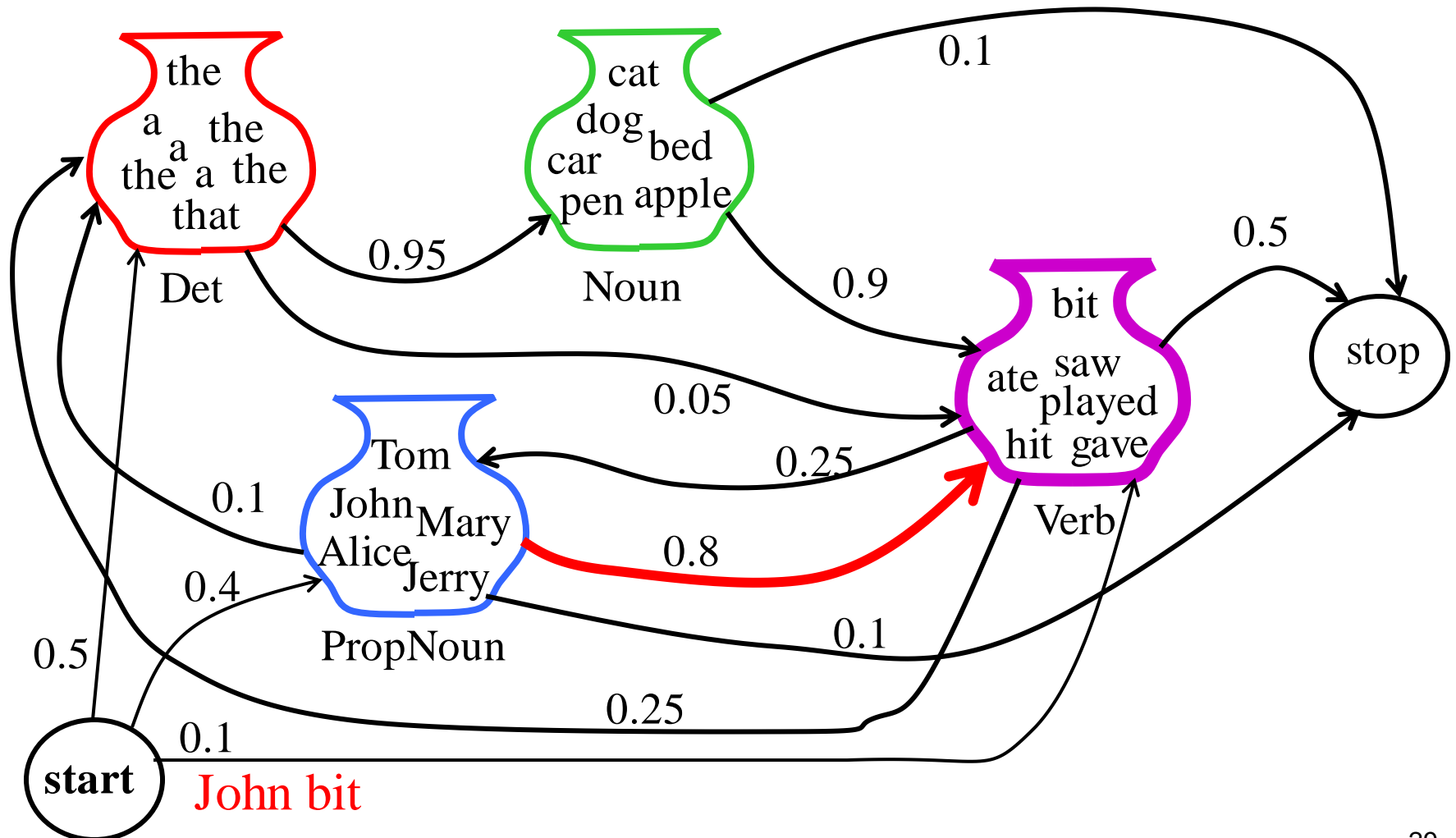
Sample HMM Generation



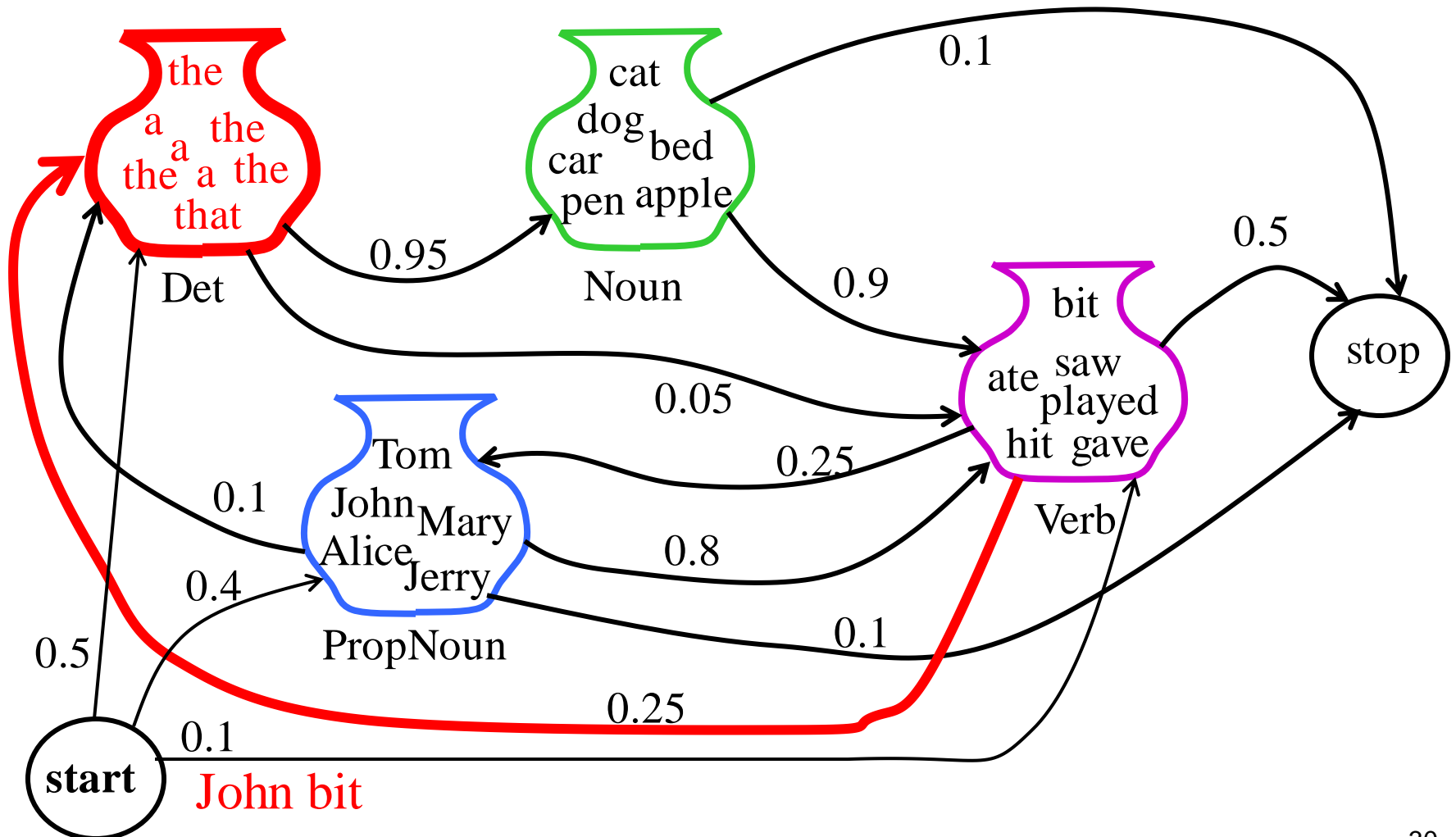
Sample HMM Generation



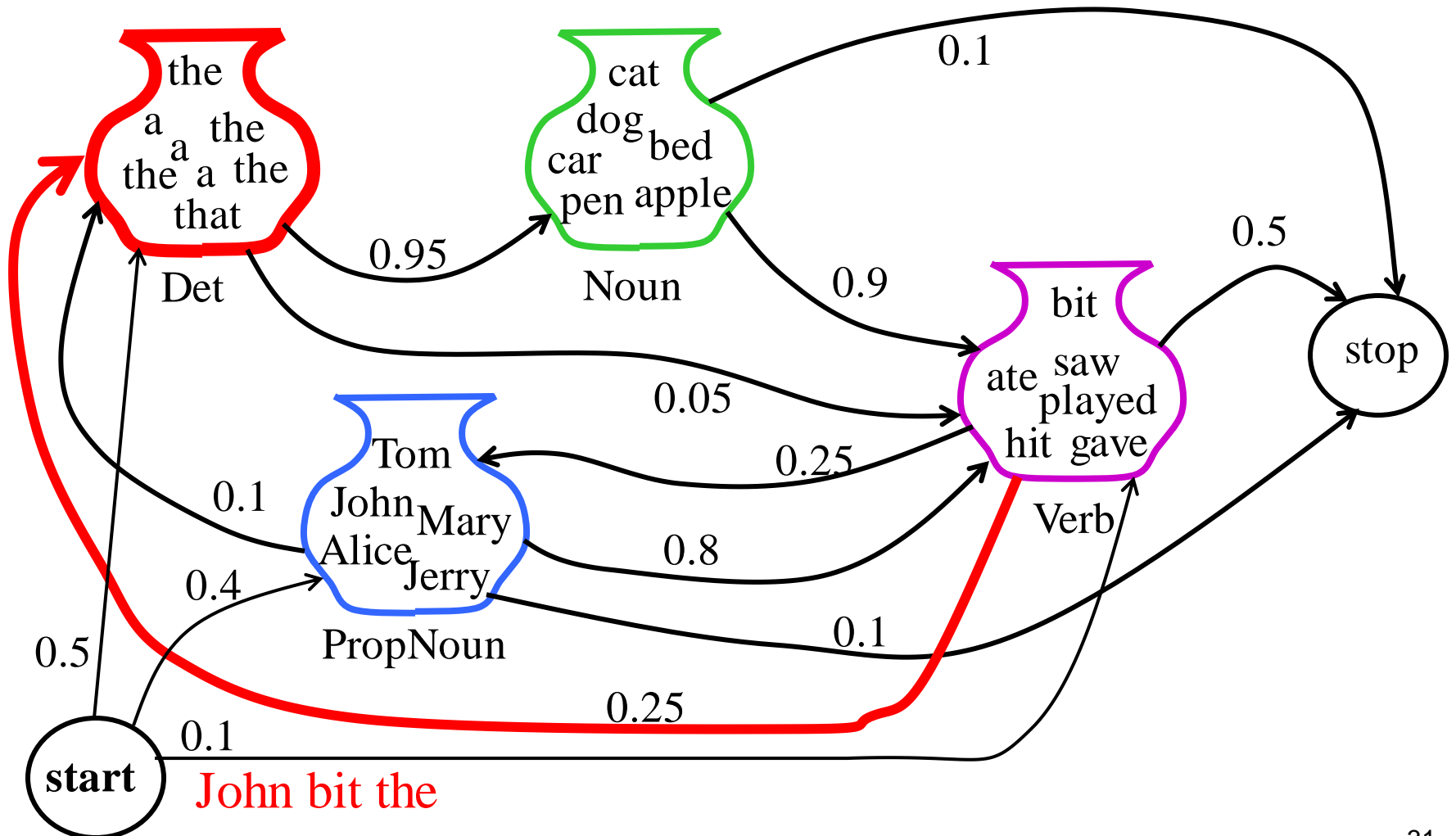
Sample HMM Generation



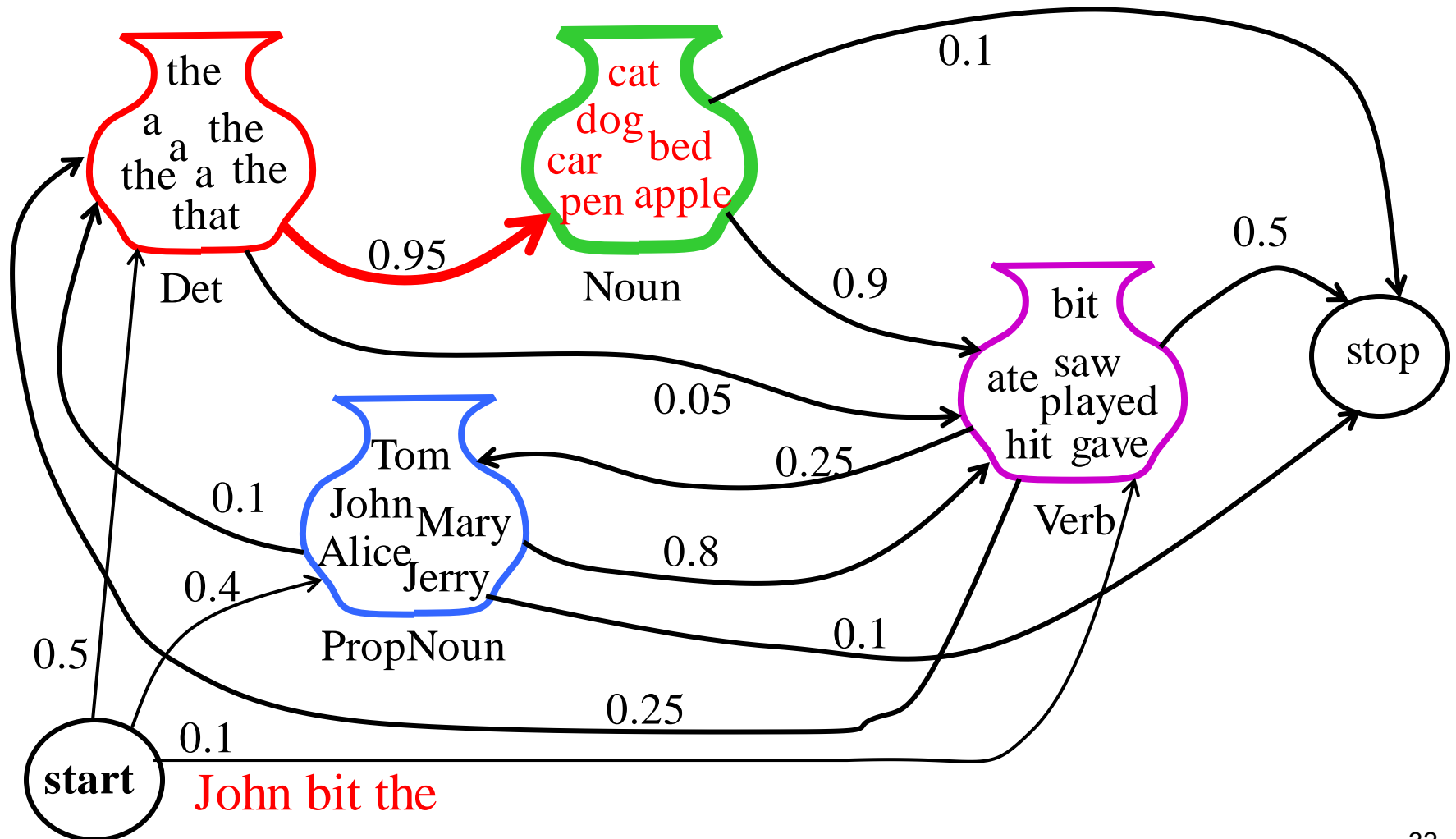
Sample HMM Generation



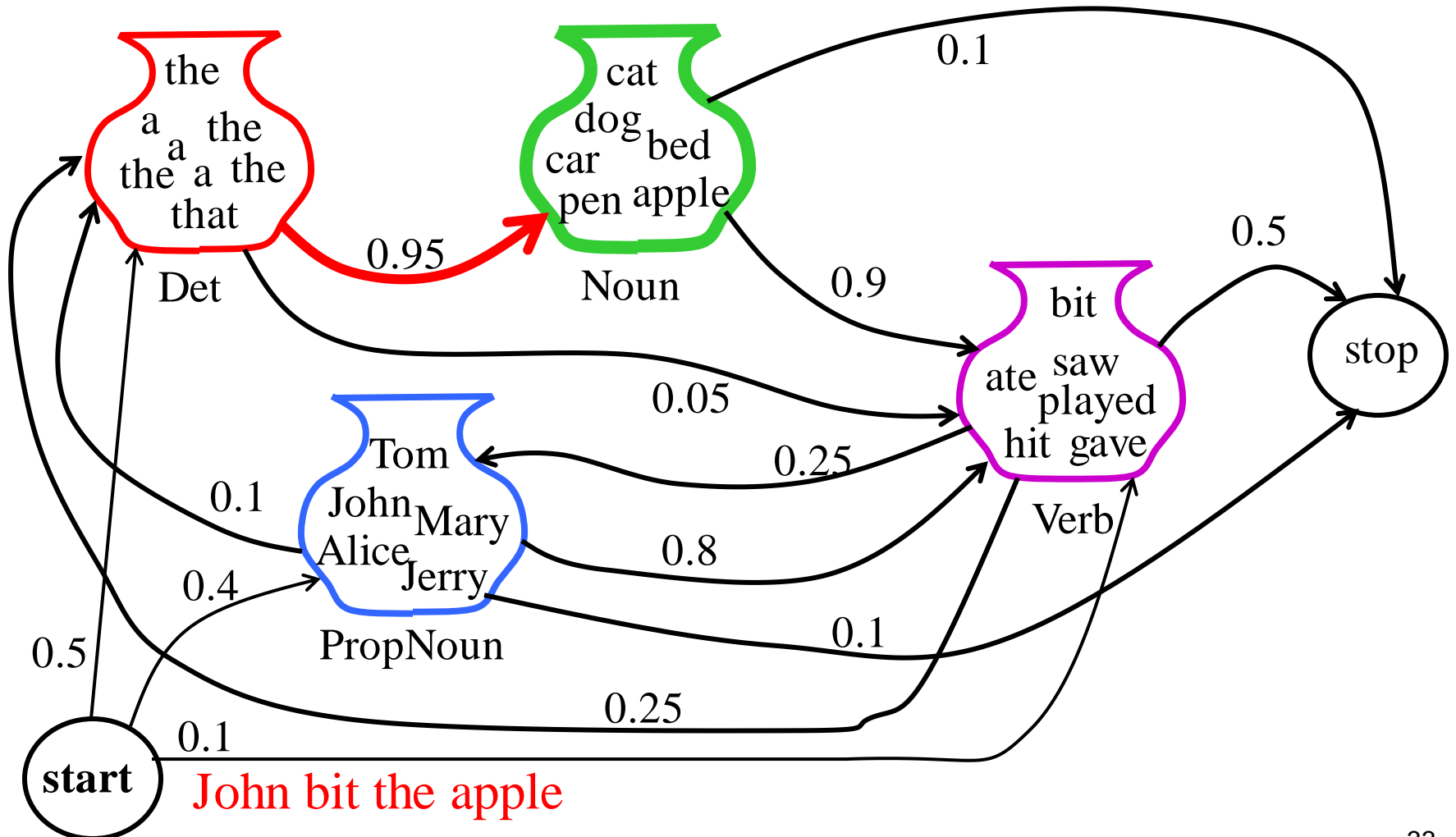
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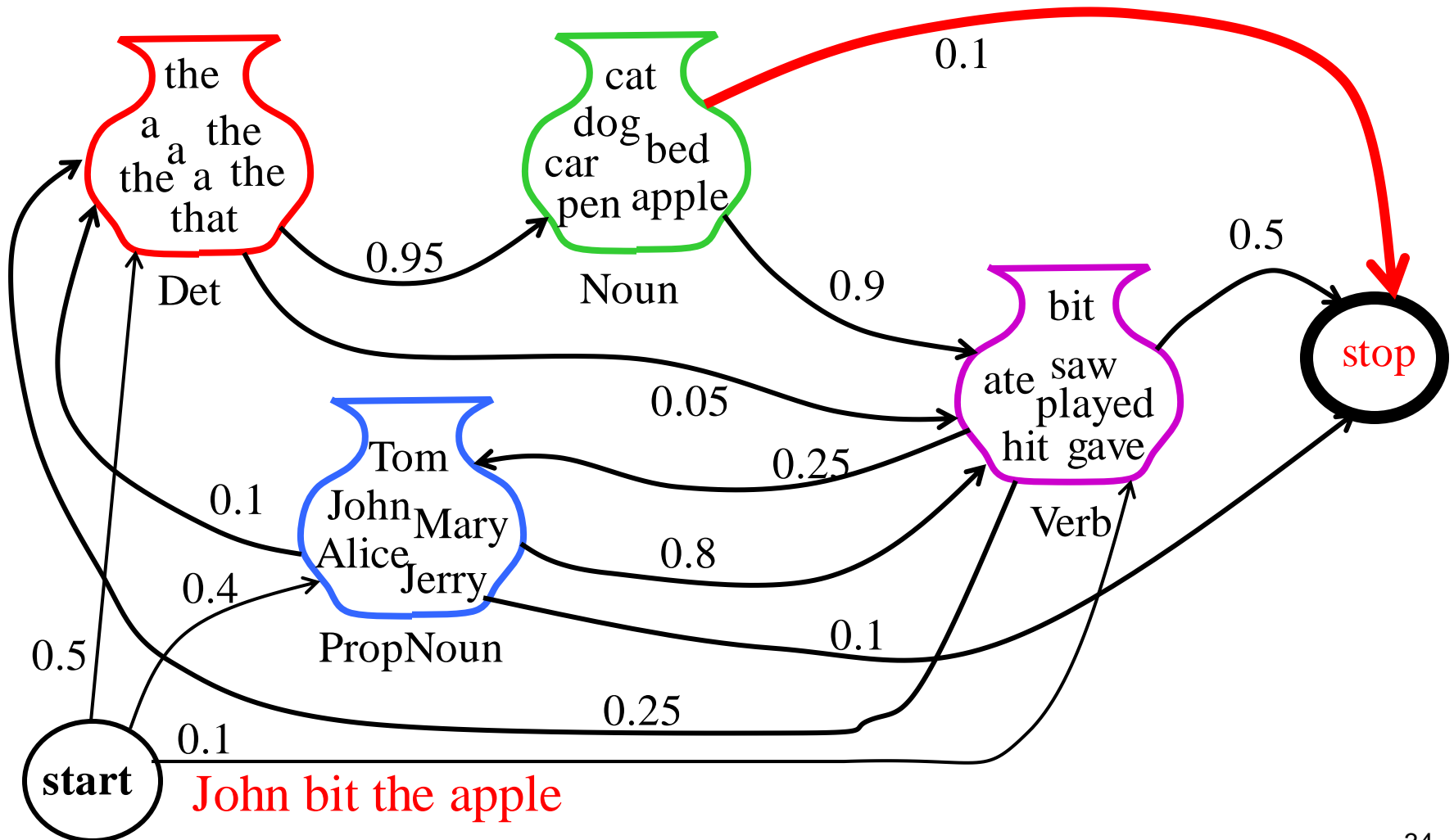
Sample HMM Generation



Sample HMM Generation



Sample HMM Generation



Formal Definition of an HMM

- A set of $N + 2$ states $S = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N, s_F\}$
 - Distinguished start state: s_0
 - Distinguished final state: s_F
- A set of M possible observations $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M\}$
- A state transition probability distribution $A = \{a_{ij}\}$

$$a_{ij} = P(q_{t+1} = s_j \mid q_t = s_i) \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq N \text{ and } i = 0, j = F$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} + a_{iF} = 1 \quad 0 \leq i \leq N$$

- Observation probability distribution for each state j , $B = \{b_j(k)\}$

$$b_j(k) = P(v_k \text{ at } t \mid q_t = s_j) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N \quad 1 \leq k \leq M$$

- Total parameter set $\lambda = \{A, B\}$

HMM Generation Procedure

- To generate a sequence of T observations:

$$O = o_1 o_2 \dots o_T$$

Set initial state $q_1 = s_0$

For $t = 1$ to T

1. Transit to another state $q_{t+1} = s_j$ based on transition distribution a_{ij} for state q_t
2. Pick an observation $o_t = v_k$ based on being in state q_t using distribution $b_{q_t}(k)$

**Practice the sample HMM
generation in previous slides**

Three Useful HMM Tasks

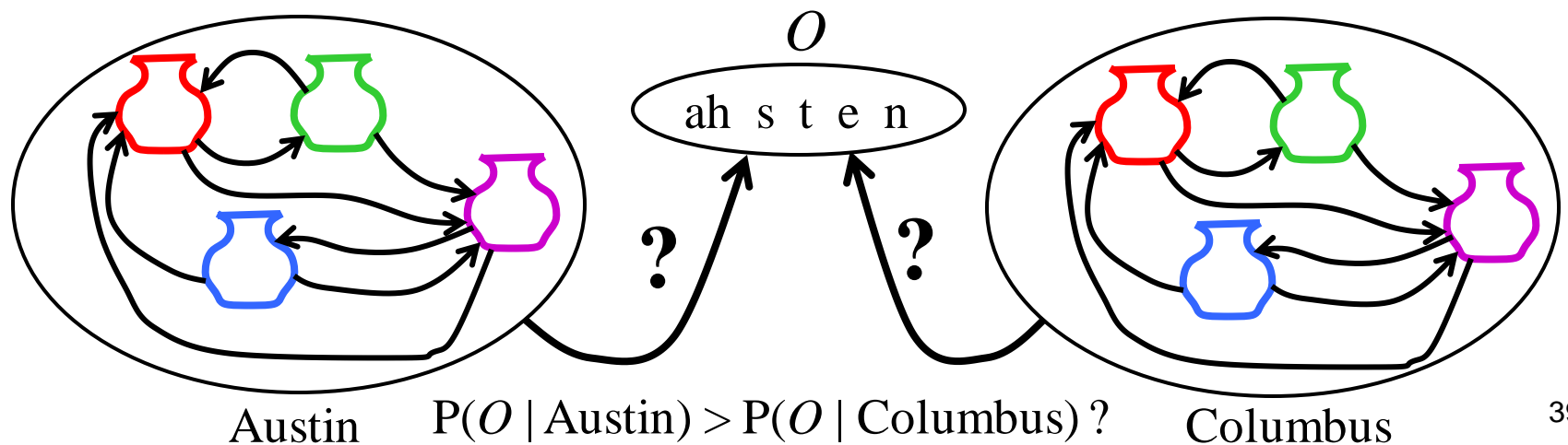
- **Observation Likelihood:** To classify and order sequences.
- **Most likely state sequence (Decoding):** To tag each token in a sequence with a label.
- **Maximum likelihood training (Learning):** To train models to fit empirical training data.

HMM: Observation Likelihood

- Given a sequence of observations, O , and a model with a set of parameters $\lambda = \{A, B\}$, what is the probability that this observation was generated by this model: $P(O | \lambda)$?
- Allows HMM to be used as a **language model**: A formal probabilistic model of a language that assigns a probability to each string saying how likely that string was to have been generated by the language.
- Useful for two tasks:
 - Sequence Classification
 - Most Likely Sequence

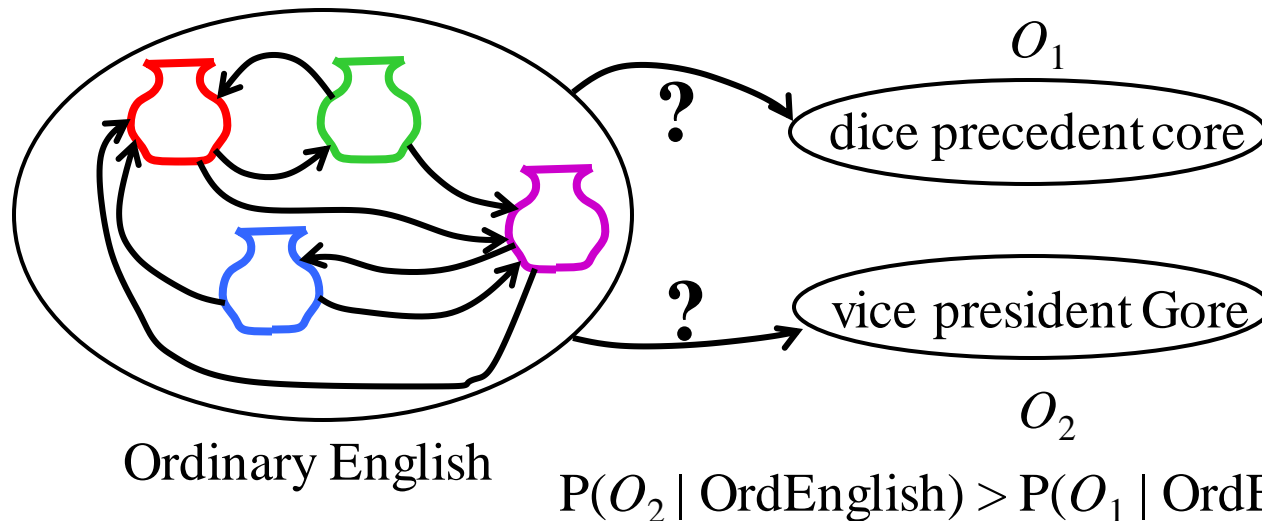
Sequence Classification

- Assume an HMM is available for each category (i.e. language).
- What is the most likely category for a given observation sequence, i.e. which category's HMM is most likely to have generated it?
- Used in speech recognition to find most likely word model to have generate a given sound or phoneme sequence.



Most Likely Sequence

- Of two or more possible sequences, which one was most likely generated by a given model?
- Used to score alternative word sequence interpretations in speech recognition.



HMM: Observation Likelihood

Naïve Solution

- Consider all possible state sequences, Q , of length T that the model could have traversed in generating the given observation sequence.
- Compute the probability of a given state sequence from A , and multiply it by the probabilities of generating each of given observations in each of the corresponding states in this sequence to get $P(O, Q / \lambda) = P(O / Q, \lambda) P(Q / \lambda)$.
- Sum this over all possible state sequences to get $P(O | \lambda)$.
- Computationally complex: ??

HMM: Observation Likelihood

Naïve Solution

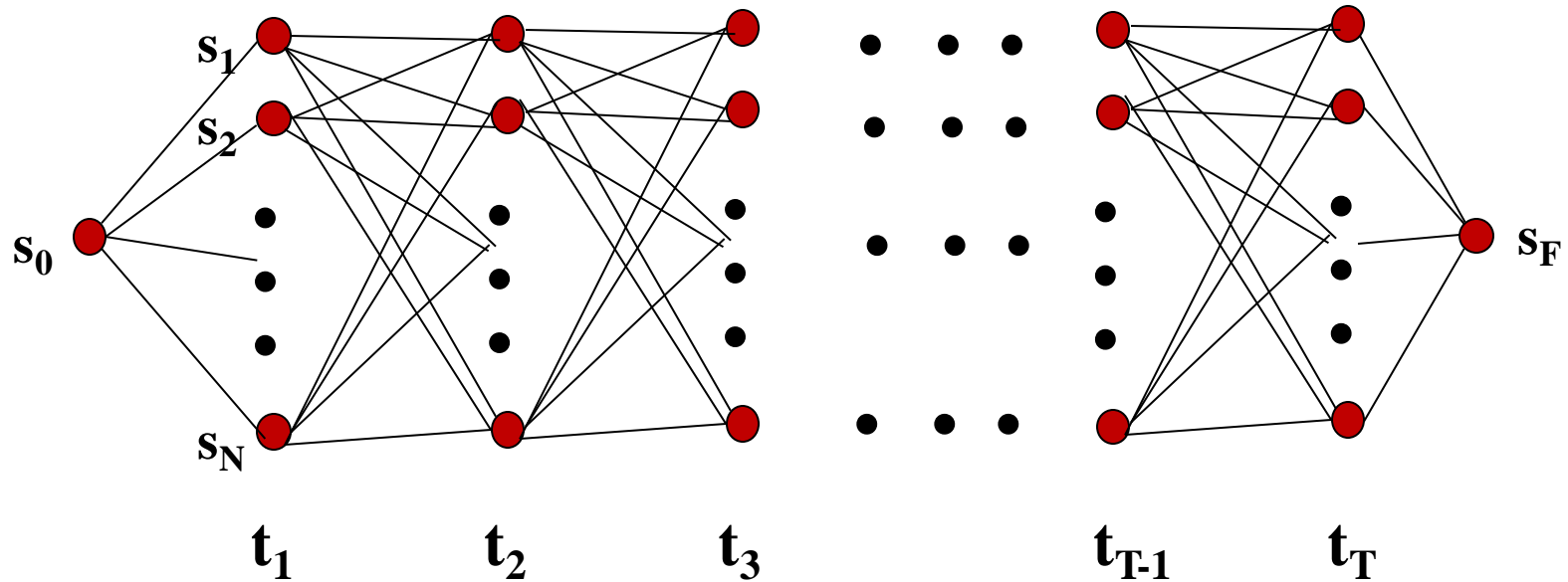
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- Sum this over all possible state sequences to get $P(O | \lambda)$.
- Computationally complex: $O(TN^T)$.

HMM: Observation Likelihood

Efficient Solution

- Due to the Markov assumption, the probability of being in any state at any given time t only relies on the probability of being in each of the possible states at time $t-1$.
- **Forward Algorithm:** Uses dynamic programming to exploit this fact to efficiently compute observation likelihood in $O(TN^2)$ time.
 - Compute a *forward trellis* that compactly and implicitly encodes information about all possible state paths.

Forward Trellis



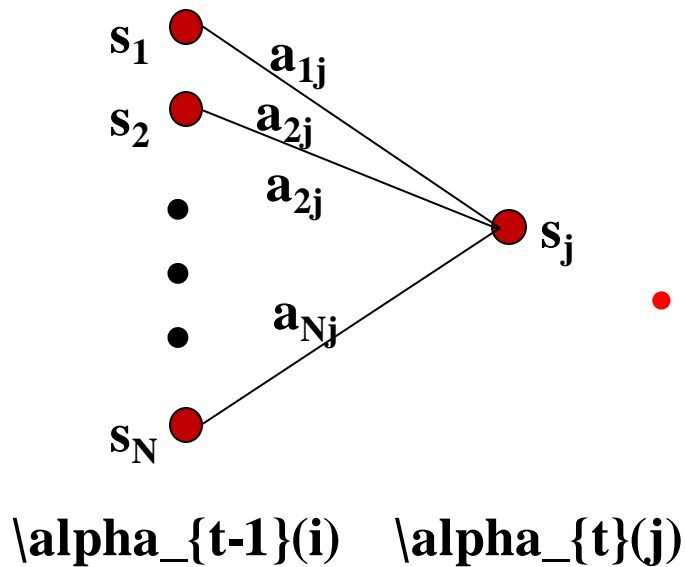
- Continue forward in time until reaching final time point and sum probability of ending in final state.

Forward Probabilities

- Let $\alpha_t(j)$ be the probability of being in state j after seeing the first t observations (by summing over all initial paths leading to j).

$$\alpha_t(j) = P(o_1, o_2, \dots, o_t, q_t = s_j \mid \lambda)$$

Forward Step



- Consider all possible ways of getting to s_j at time t by coming from all possible states s_i and determine probability of each.
- Sum these to get the total probability of being in state s_j at time t while accounting for the first $t - 1$ observations.
- Then multiply by the probability of actually observing o_t in s_j .

Computing the Forward Probabilities

- Initialization

$$\alpha_1(j) = a_{0j}b_j(o_1) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N$$

- Recursion

$$\alpha_t(j) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_{t-1}(i)a_{ij} \right] b_j(o_t) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N, \quad 1 < t \leq T$$

- Termination

$$P(O | \lambda) = \alpha_{T+1}(s_F) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_T(i)a_{iF}$$

Forward Computational Complexity

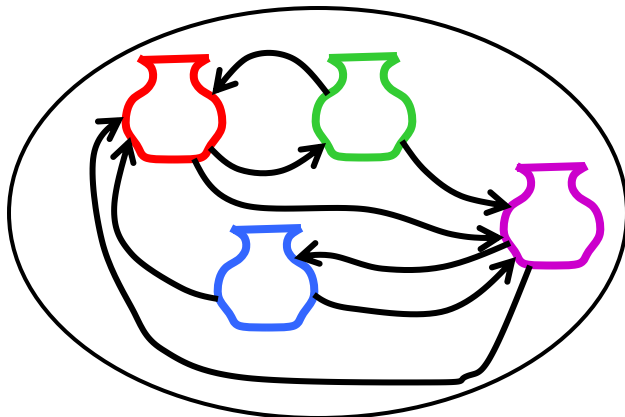
- Requires only $O(TN^2)$ time to compute the probability of an observed sequence given a model. **Why?**

Forward Computational Complexity

- Requires only $O(TN^2)$ time to compute the probability of an observed sequence given a model.
- Exploits the fact that all state sequences must merge into one of the N possible states at any point in time and the Markov assumption that only the last state effects the next one.

Most Likely State Sequence (Decoding)

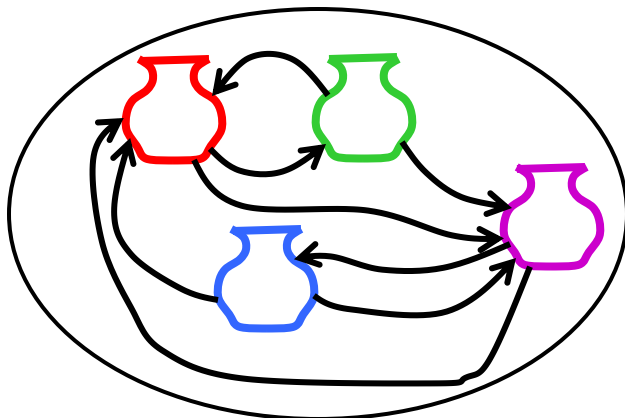
- Given an observation sequence, O , and a model, λ , what is the most likely state sequence, $Q=q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T$, that generated this sequence from this model?



John gave the dog an apple.

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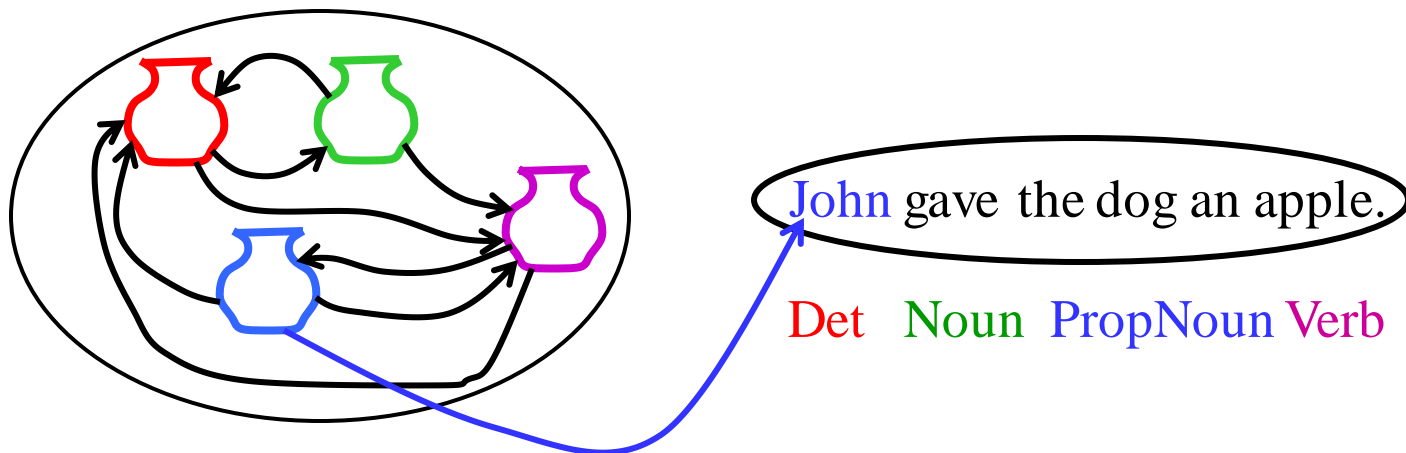
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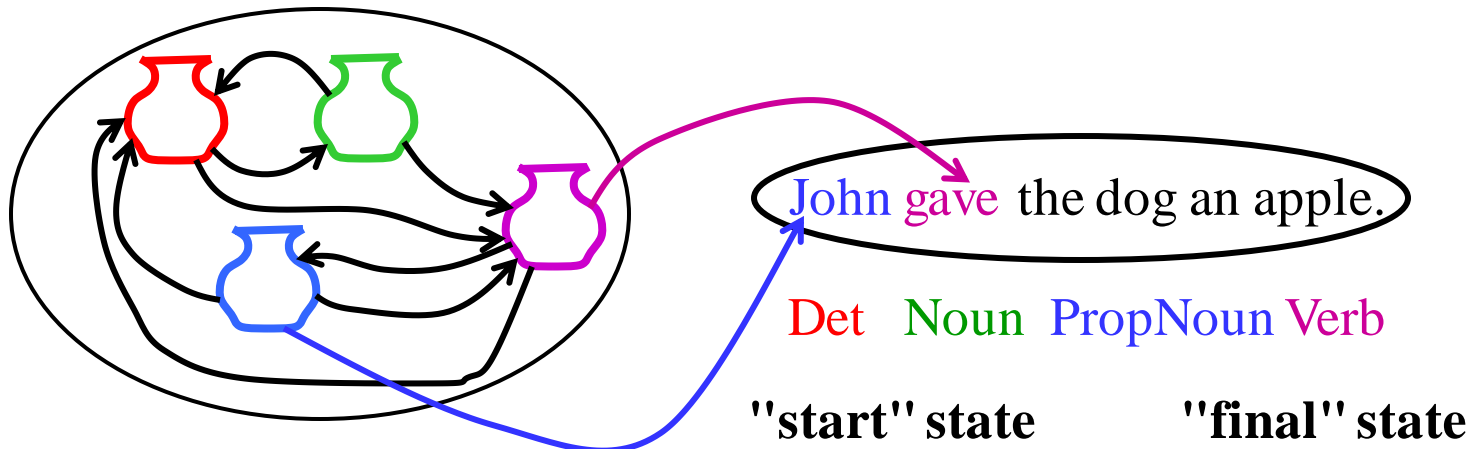
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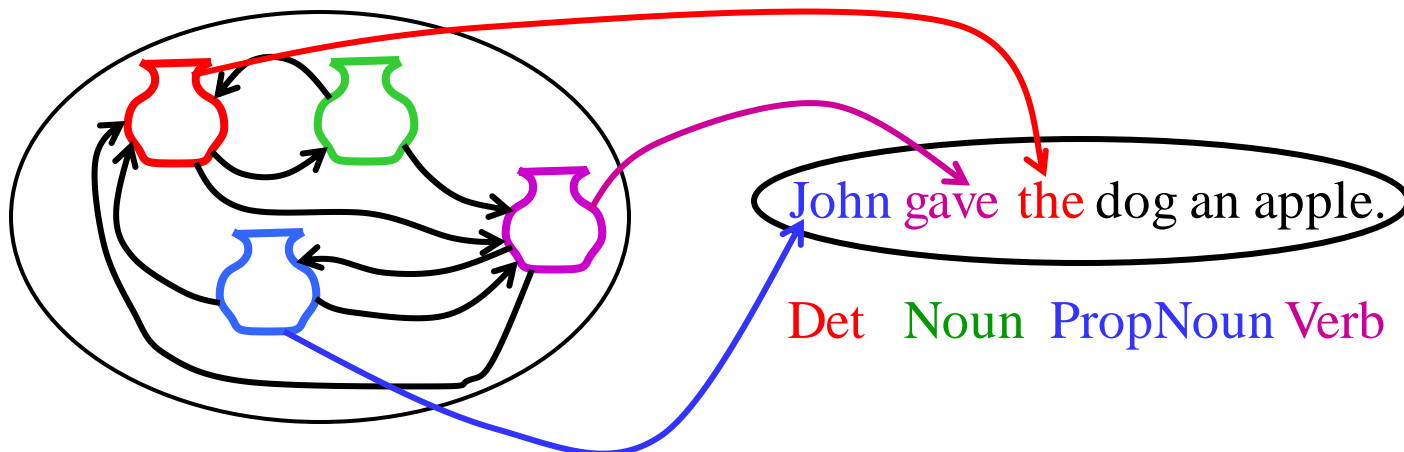
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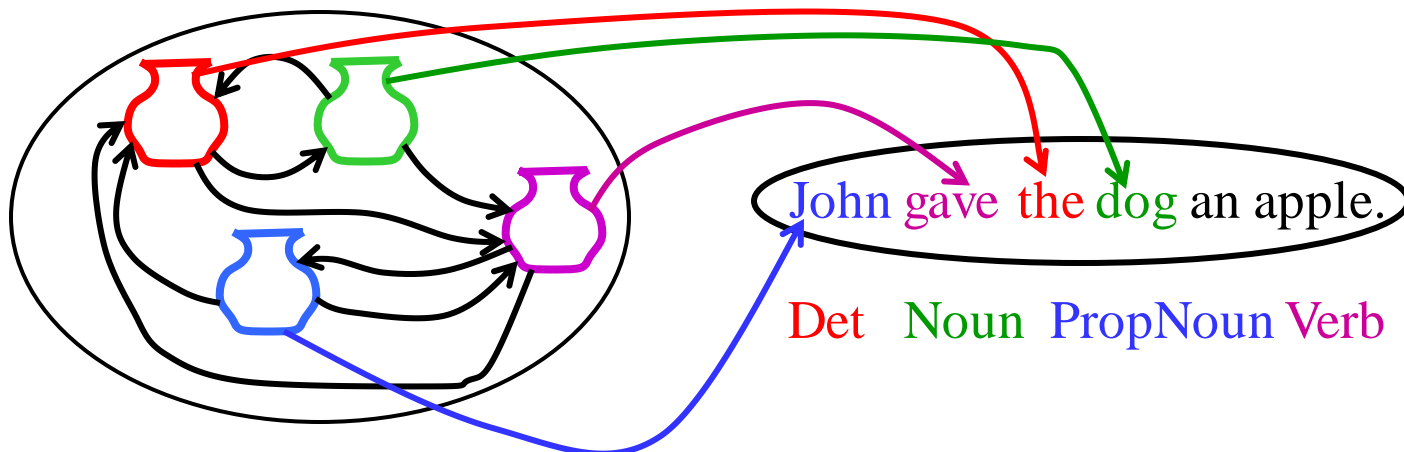
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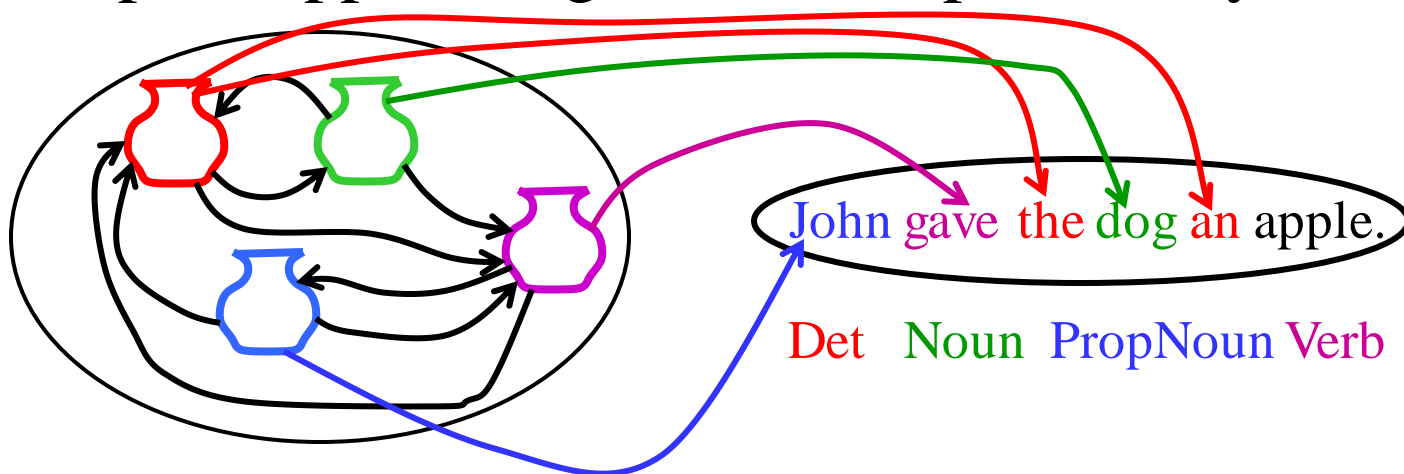
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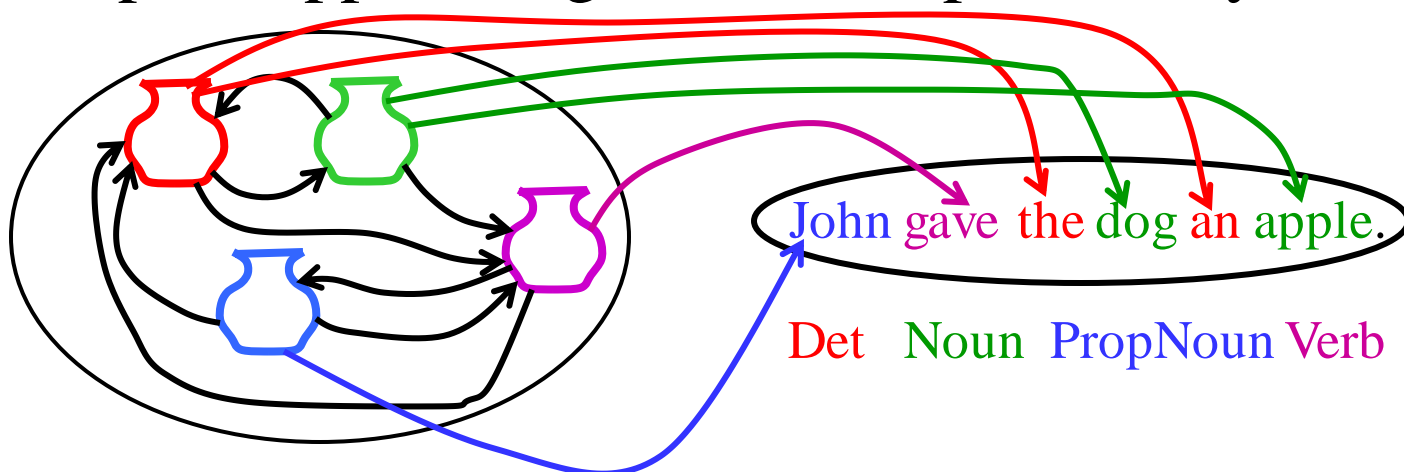
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Most Likely State Sequence

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HMM: Most Likely State Sequence

Efficient Solution

- Obviously, could use naïve algorithm based on examining every possible state sequence of length T .
- Dynamic Programming can also be used to exploit the Markov assumption and efficiently determine the most likely state sequence for a given observation and model.
- Standard procedure is called the **Viterbi algorithm** (Viterbi, 1967) and also has $O(TN^2)$ time complexity.

Viterbi Scores

- Recursively compute the probability of **the most likely subsequence of states** that accounts for the first t observations and ends in state s_j .

$$v_t(j) = \max_{q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{t-1}} P(q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{t-1}, o_1, \dots, o_t, q_t = s_j \mid \lambda)$$

- Also record “backpointers” that subsequently allow **backtracing** the most probable state sequence.
 - $bt_t(j)$ stores the state at time $t-1$ that maximizes the probability that system was in state s_j at time t (given the first t observations).

Computing the Viterbi Scores

- Initialization

$$v_1(j) = a_{0j} b_j(o_1) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N$$

- Recursion

$$v_t(j) = \max_{i=1}^N v_{t-1}(i) a_{ij} b_j(o_t) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N, \quad 1 < t \leq T$$

- Termination

$$P^* = v_{T+1}(s_F) = \max_{i=1}^N v_T(i) a_{iF}$$

Analogous to Forward algorithm except take *max* instead of sum

Computing the Viterbi Backpointers

- Initialization

$$bt_1(j) = s_0 \quad 1 \leq j \leq N$$

- Recursion

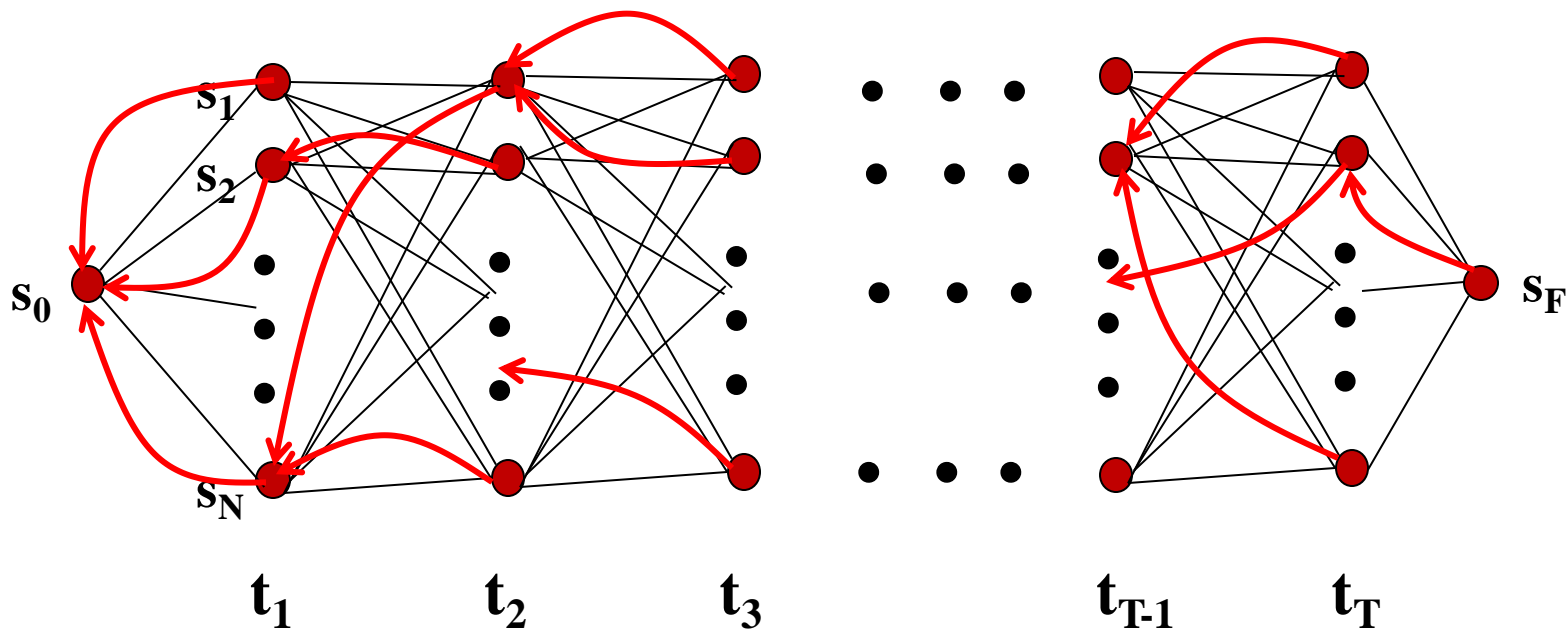
$$bt_t(j) = \operatorname{argmax}_{i=1}^N v_{t-1}(i) a_{ij} b_j(o_t) \quad 1 \leq j \leq N, \quad 1 \leq t \leq T$$

- Termination

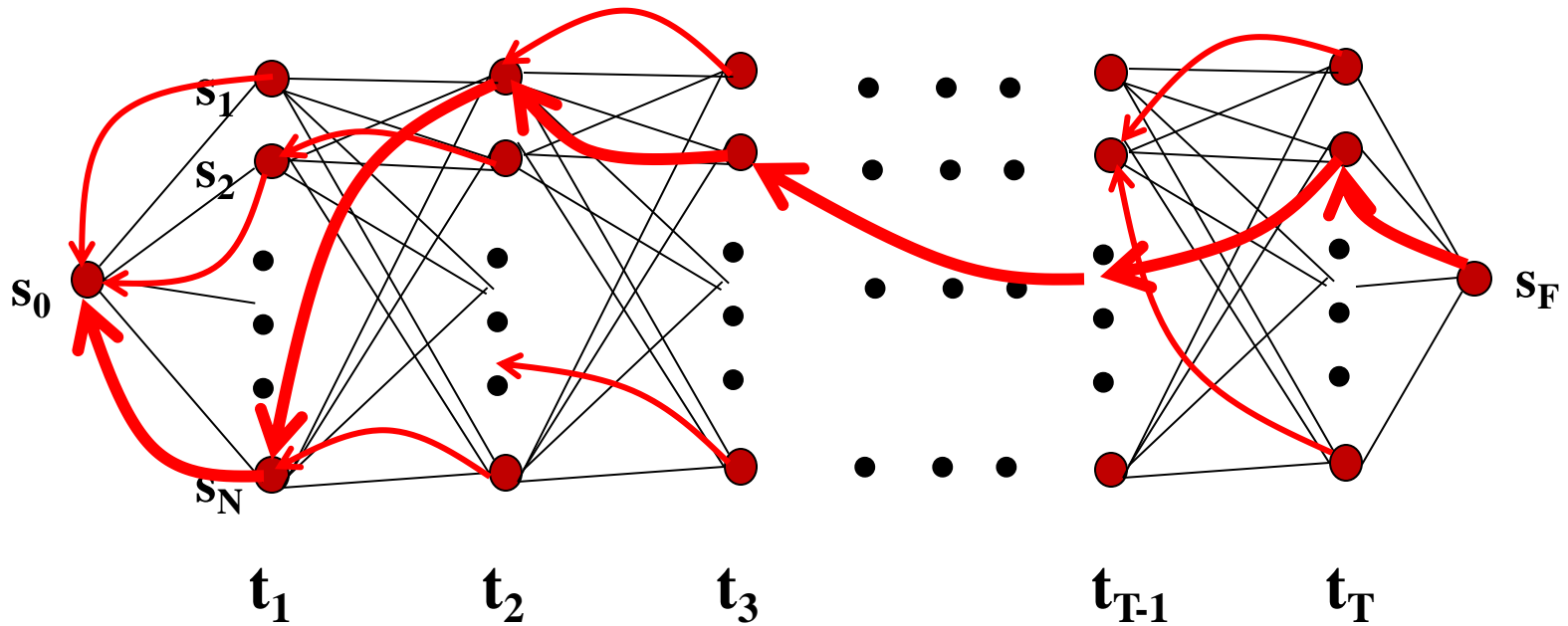
$$q_T^* = bt_{T+1}(s_F) = \operatorname{argmax}_{i=1}^N v_T(i) a_{iF}$$

Final state in the most probable state sequence. Follow backpointers to initial state to construct full sequence.

Viterbi Backpointers



Viterbi Backtrace



Most likely Sequence: $s_0 s_N s_1 s_2 \dots s_2 s_F$

HMM Learning

- **Supervised Learning:** All training sequences are completely labeled (tagged).
- **Unsupervised Learning:** All training sequences are unlabelled (but generally know the number of tags, i.e. states; e.g., in clustering).
- **Semisupervised Learning:** Some training sequences are labeled, most are unlabeled.

Supervised HMM Training

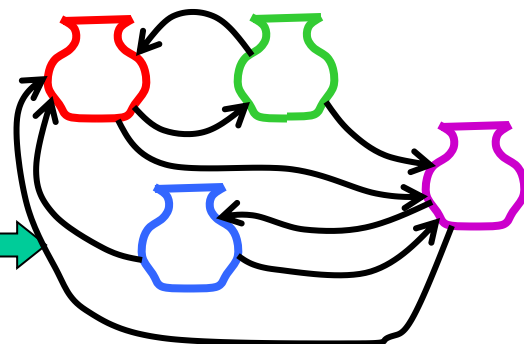
- If training sequences are labeled (tagged) with the underlying state sequences that generated them, then the parameters, $\lambda = \{A, B\}$ can all be estimated directly.

Training Sequences

John ate the apple
A dog bit Mary
Mary hit the dog
John gave Mary the cat.
⋮
⋮
⋮

Det Noun PropNoun Verb

Supervised
HMM
Training



Supervised Parameter Estimation

- Estimate state transition probabilities based on tag bigram and unigram statistics in the labeled data.

$$a_{ij} = \frac{C(q_t = s_i, q_{t+1} = s_j)}{C(q_t = s_i)}$$

- Estimate the observation probabilities based on tag/word co-occurrence statistics in the labeled data.

$$b_j(k) = \frac{C(q_i = s_j, o_i = v_k)}{C(q_i = s_j)}$$

- Use appropriate smoothing if training data is sparse.

Learning and Using HMM Taggers

- Use a corpus of labeled sequence data to easily construct an HMM using supervised training.
- Given a novel unlabeled test sequence to tag, use the Viterbi algorithm to predict the most likely (globally optimal) tag sequence.

Evaluating Taggers

- Train on *training set* of labeled sequences.
- Possibly tune parameters (if any) based on performance on a *development set*.
- Measure accuracy on a disjoint *test set*.
- Generally measure *tagging accuracy*, i.e. the percentage of tokens tagged correctly.
- Accuracy of most modern POS taggers, including HMMs is 96–97% (for Penn tagset trained on about 800K words) .
 - Generally matching human agreement level.