

# Statistical classification and principles of human learning

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Theoretical Linguistics

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# Theoretical questions - generalizing or piecemeal learning?

- ▶ Various statistical machine-learning techniques may seemingly faithfully and accurately mimic overall human linguistic behavior (e.g. in terms of choices in produced texts and utterances).
- ▶ But do the premises of these machine-learning techniques and the resultant internal representations correctly reflect those of human learning processes and cognitive structures?
- ▶ Most multivariate statistical/computational methods optimize over the entire accumulated data, assuming the maximization of likelihood with optimization algorithms – but how cognitively realistic is this assumption?
- ▶ Might human learning rather fundamentally operate incrementally, absorbing (new) information in a piecemeal fashion?

# Theoretical questions - frequencies and probabilities

- ▶ The good performance of machine learning techniques in representing human linguistic behavior suggests that their fundamental characteristic – keeping track co-occurrence **frequencies** and associated **probabilities** – should also somehow be an integral component of also human learning. But need this necessarily hold?
- ▶ How may it be possible that the brain appears to be sensitive and receptive to assimilating probabilistic information in linguistic usage – but not internally representing it in the same way as machine-learning methods?
- ▶ A Metaphor – bicycle riding: do people apply the calculation of Newtonian physics or something much simpler?

# Objectives

- ▶ Compare the performance of several well-established **machine-learning** classifiers and a new parameter-free model of naive discriminative learning based on principles of a **human** learning process
- ▶ If they fare equally well, what could that reveal us about the nature of human learning – in comparison to machine-learning?

# Linguistic phenomenon and data

Human vs.  
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Baayen, Arppe

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- ▶ Lexical choice of near-synonymous words in context
- ▶ The four most frequent Finnish verbs denoting think: *ajatella*, *mieltiä*, *pohtia*, and *harkita* (Arppe 2008; Arppe & Järviö 2007 [QITL1]; Arppe 2006 [QITL2])
- ▶ Altogether 3,404 instances in Finnish newspaper and Internet newsgroup discussion (SFNET) text
- ▶ Analyzed in term of the morphological and syntactic structure of the verbs and their context – supplemented with semantic and structural subclassifications

# Linguistic variables

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- ▶ In all 6000 distinct contextual features (including lexemes) observable in the contexts – 46 selected for this study:
  - ▶ 10 morphological features of the verb or verb chain
  - ▶ 6 semantic characterizations of the verb chain
  - ▶ 10 syntactic argument types
  - ▶ 20 combinations of syntactic arguments + semantic subclassifications
  - ▶ (Random effects: Register, Subsection, Author)

# Multivariate statistical methods

Human vs.  
machine learning

Baayen, Arppe

- ▶ Polytomous logistic regression (Arppe 2008)
  - ▶ iterative optimization of model fit (in terms of maximum likelihood) over entire data
- ▶ Polytomous mixed-effects logistic regression (Arppe, in prep.)
  - ▶ Poisson reformulation
- ▶ Support vector machine (Vapnik 1995)
  - ▶ kernel methods
- ▶ Memory-based learning (Daelemans & Bosch 2005)
  - ▶ nearest-neighbor similarity-based inference (incorporating exemplars from the entire data)
- ▶ Random forests (Breiman 2001)
  - ▶ recursive conditioning with subsampling (sets of conditional inference trees)
- ▶ Naive Discriminative Learning (Baayen et al. 2011)

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# Naive Discriminatory learning

Human vs.  
machine learning

Baayen, Arppe

- ▶ Based on the *Rescorla-Wagner* equations (1972)
- ▶ Proven to be surprisingly fruitful in human and animal learning (Miller, Barnet & Grahame 1995)
- ▶ Basically models *incremental* learning in response to co-occurrences of outcomes and cues – adjusts weights for associations of such outcomes and cues with each new experience
- ▶ Association weights in the end result of a learning process (representing a saturated “stable” state) can be estimated with *equilibrium equations* (Danks 2003)
- ▶ Baayen et al. (2011) have incorporated these equilibrium equations into a general discriminative learning model – naive in the sense of naive Bayesian classifiers

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# Rescorla-Wagner (1972) equations

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Let  $\text{present}(X, t)$  denote the presence of a cue (predictor value) or outcome (one of the four Finnish think verbs)  $X$  at time  $t$ , and  $\text{absent}(X, t)$  denote its absence at time  $t$ .

The Rescorla-Wagner equations specify the association strength  $V_i^{t+1}$  of cue  $C_i$  with outcome  $O$  at time  $t + 1$  using a recurrence equation, as follows:

$$V_i^{t+1} = V_i^t + \Delta V_i^t. \quad (1)$$

The change in association strength  $\Delta V_i^t$  defined as

$$\Delta V_i^t = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if absent}(C_i, t) \\ \alpha_i \beta_1 \left( \lambda - \sum_{\text{present}(C_j, t)} V_j \right) & \text{if present}(C_j, t) \ \& \ \text{present}(O, t) \\ \alpha_i \beta_2 \left( 0 - \sum_{\text{present}(C_j, t)} V_j \right) & \text{if present}(C_j, t) \ \& \ \text{absent}(O, t) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

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# Rescorla-Wagner equations

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Represent incremental learning and subsequently on-going adjustments to an accumulating body of knowledge:

Changes in association strengths:

- ▶ If a cue is not present in the input, no change
- ▶ Increased when the cue and outcome co-occur
- ▶ Decreased when the cue occurs without the outcome
- ▶ The more cues are present simultaneously, the smaller the adjustments are

# Danks (2003) equilibrium equations

$$\Pr(O|C_i) - \sum_{j=0}^n \Pr(C_j|C_i)V_j = 0 \quad (3)$$

- ▶ make it possible to estimate the weights for an 'adult/stable' system by solving the above set of equations using the co-occurrence vector of a specific outcome (verb) given the different predictor values and the co-occurrence matrix of predictor values.
- ▶ provide a convenient short-cut to calculating the consolidated cue-outcome association weights resulting from incremental learning
- ▶ the learning parameters  $(\lambda, \alpha_i, \beta_i)$  of the Rescorla-Wagner equations drop out of the equilibrium equations

# Danks equilibrium equations

Alternatively can be formulated with matrix notation:

$$CW = O \quad (4)$$

where:

- ▶  $C$  is the matrix of conditional probabilities cues, given other cues
- ▶  $W$  is the matrix of unknown weights, representing outcome-cue associations, to be estimated; and
- ▶  $O$  is the matrix of conditional probabilities of outcomes, given some set of cues.

$W$  can be solved using the generalized inverse, yielding a solution that is optimal in the least-squares sense.

# Stable adult state – simple example case

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The association of semantic subtypes of Agents and Patients with the occurrence of Finnish think verbs:

	<i>Lexeme</i>	<i>Agent</i>	<i>Patient</i>
1	<i>pohtia</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>Abstraction</i>
2	<i>harkita</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Activity</i>
3	<i>miettia</i>	<i>Individual</i>	<i>DirectQuote</i>
4	<i>miettia</i>	<i>Individual</i>	<i>IndirectQuestion</i>
5	<i>ajatella</i>	<i>Individual</i>	<i>etta.CLAUSE</i>
6	<i>ajatella</i>	<i>Individual</i>	<i>Abstraction</i>
...	...	...	...
3404	<i>ajatella</i>	<i>None</i>	<i>Abstraction</i>

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# Stable adult state – simple example case

Matrix  $M$  of cue co-occurrences for Agent and Patients of Finnish think verbs:

$$M = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{Group} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{Individual} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{NoAgent} \end{array} \quad \dots \right\}$$

<i>AgentGroup</i>	256	0	0	...
<i>AgentIndividual</i>	0	2251	0	...
<i>AgentNoAgent</i>	0	0	897	...
<i>PatientAbstraction</i>	70	392	236	...
<i>PatientActivity</i>	90	225	174	...
<i>PatientCommunication</i>	1	30	11	...
<i>PatientDirectQuote</i>	1	106	0	...
<i>Patientetta.CLAUSE</i>	7	324	65	...
<i>PatientDirectQuestion</i>	37	330	71	...
<i>PatientIndividualGroup</i>	3	77	29	...
<i>PatientInfinitive</i>	3	33	5	...
<i>PatientParticiple</i>	5	53	15	...
<i>PatientNoPatient</i>	39	681	291	...

(5)



# Stable adult state – simple example case

Matrix  $C$  of conditional probabilities of  $cue_j$  given  $cue_i$ :

$$C = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{Group} \end{array} \right. \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{Individual} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \text{Agent} \\ \text{NoAgent} \end{array} \dots \left. \right\}$$

<i>AgentGroup</i>	0.50	0.00	0.00	...
<i>AgentIndividual</i>	0.00	0.50	0.00	...
<i>AgentNoAgent</i>	0.00	0.00	0.50	...
<i>PatientAbstraction</i>	0.14	0.09	0.13	...
<i>PatientActivity</i>	0.18	0.05	0.10	...
<i>PatientCommunication</i>	0.00	0.01	0.01	...
<i>PatientDirectQuote</i>	0.00	0.02	0.00	...
<i>Patientetta.CLAUSE</i>	0.01	0.07	0.04	...
<i>PatientIndirectQuestion</i>	0.07	0.07	0.04	...
<i>PatientIndividualGroup</i>	0.01	0.02	0.02	...
<i>PatientInfinitive</i>	0.01	0.01	0.00	...
<i>PatientParticiple</i>	0.01	0.01	0.01	...
<i>PatientNoPatient</i>	0.08	0.15	0.16	...

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Matrix  $N$  lists the co-occurrences of outcomes (columns: Verbs) and cues (rows: Agents & Patients):

	<i>ajatella</i>	<i>harkita</i>	<i>miettia</i>	<i>pohtia</i>
$N =$ <i>AgentGroup</i>	37	64	36	119
<i>AgentIndividual</i>	1047	198	632	374
<i>AgentNoAgent</i>	408	125	144	220
<i>PatientAbstraction</i>	192	57	190	259
<i>PatientActivity</i>	83	213	72	121
<i>PatientCommunication</i>	6	7	19	10
<i>PatientDirectQuote</i>	2	0	41	64
<i>Patientetta.CLAUSE</i>	317	8	48	23
<i>PatientIndirectQuestion</i>	38	26	242	132
<i>PatientIndividualGroup</i>	87	7	11	4
<i>PatientInfinitive</i>	37	3	0	1
<i>PatientParticiple</i>	65	5	0	3
<i>PatientNoPatient</i>	665	61	189	96

(7)

# Stable adult state – simple example case

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Matrix  $O$  lists the conditional probabilities of the outcomes (columns: Verbs) given cues (rows: Agents & Patients), derived from  $M$  and  $N$ :

$$O = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccccc} & \textit{ajatella} & \textit{harkita} & \textit{miettia} & \textit{pohtia} \\ \textit{AgentGroup} & 0.07 & 0.12 & 0.07 & 0.23 \\ \textit{AgentIndividual} & 0.23 & 0.04 & 0.14 & 0.08 \\ \textit{AgentNoAgent} & 0.23 & 0.07 & 0.08 & 0.12 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{array} \right\} \quad (8)$$

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# Stable adult state – simple example case

Estimated matrix  $W$  representing the associations of Outcomes given Cues:

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} \textit{AgentIndividual} & 0.10 & 0.07 & 0.21 & 0.38 \\ \textit{AgentGroup} & 0.37 & 0.13 & 0.06 & 0.20 \\ \textit{AgentNoAgent} & 0.18 & 0.08 & 0.11 & 0.40 \\ \textit{PatientAbstraction} & 0.22 & 0.00 & 0.11 & -0.10 \\ \textit{PatientActivity} & 0.07 & 0.35 & 0.00 & -0.19 \\ \textit{PatientDirectQuote} & 0.49 & -0.07 & 0.17 & -0.36 \\ \textit{PatientIndirectQuestion} & 0.16 & -0.02 & 0.37 & -0.28 \\ \textit{Patientetta.CLAUSE} & -0.06 & -0.05 & -0.07 & 0.42 \\ \textit{PatientCommunication} & 0.11 & 0.09 & 0.27 & -0.24 \\ \textit{PatientInfinitive} & -0.11 & 0.00 & -0.19 & 0.53 \\ \textit{PatientNoAgent} & -0.04 & -0.01 & 0.01 & 0.28 \\ \textit{PatientIndividualGroup} & -0.09 & -0.01 & -0.08 & 0.42 \\ \textit{PatientParticiple} & -0.10 & -0.01 & -0.18 & 0.52 \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

# Stable adult state – simple example case

- ▶ Support for any one of the four near-synonymous outcome alternatives given a set of active cues apparent in a context is obtained by summation of the respective weights ( $W$ )
- ▶ The corresponding probabilities for each outcome are calculated by dividing each outcome-specific support by the sum total of support for all outcomes with the contextual cues in question.

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\text{pohtia}|\{\text{AgentGroup}, \text{PatientAbstraction}\}) \\ &= (0.37 + 0.22)/(0.37 + 0.13 + 0.06 + 0.20 + 0.22 + 0 + 0.11 - 0.10) \\ &= 0.596 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\text{harkita}|\{\text{AgentGroup}, \text{PatientAbstraction}\}) \\ &= (0.13 + 0)/(0.37 + 0.13 + 0.06 + 0.20 + 0.22 + 0 + 0.11 - 0.10) = 0.131 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\text{mietti}|\{\text{AgentGroup}, \text{PatientAbstraction}\}) \\ &= (0.06 + 0.11)/(0.37 + 0.13 + 0.06 + 0.20 + 0.22 + 0 + 0.11 - 0.10) = 0.172 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\text{ajatella}|\{\text{AgentGroup}, \text{PatientAbstraction}\}) \\ &= (0.20 - 0.10)/(0.37 + 0.13 + 0.06 + 0.20 + 0.22 + 0 + 0.11 - 0.10) = 0.101 \end{aligned}$$

# Representation of the stable end state

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So – as simple as that?

$$CW = O \quad (10)$$

That the solution to the stable end state can be represented with a matrix equation does not mean that what our brains are calculating matrix algebra – an incremental learning process according to the Rescorla-Wagner equations simply results in an accumulated, consolidated body of knowledge which happens to be representable with a matrix notation!

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# Comparison of statistical methods – Classification Accuracy & Recall

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	$\lambda_{\text{prediction}}$	$\tau_{\text{classification}}$	Accuracy
Polytomous logistic regression (One-vs-rest)	0.368	0.488	0.645
Polytomous mixed logistic regression (Poisson reformulation)			
1 Section	0.360	0.482	0.640
1 Author	0.358	0.481	0.640
1 Section + 1 Author	0.358	0.481	0.640
Support Vector Machine	0.340	0.466	0.629
Memory-Based Learning (TiMBL)	0.286	0.422	0.599
Random Forests	0.326	0.455	0.621
Naive Discriminative Learning	0.346	0.471	0.632

**Table:** Classification diagnostics for five models fitted to the Finnish data set ( $n = 3404$ ).



# Cross-validation of statistical methods

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	PLR	SVM	TiMBL	NDL
Mean	0.630	0.629	0.597	0.586
1	0.639	0.622	0.584	0.592
2	0.691	0.674	0.621	0.624
3	0.572	0.572	0.575	0.569
4	0.581	0.575	0.554	0.557
5	0.575	0.581	0.589	0.554
6	0.638	0.641	0.621	0.626
7	0.676	0.688	0.624	0.591
8	0.662	0.662	0.609	0.588
9	0.621	0.635	0.579	0.565
10	0.641	0.641	0.612	0.591

**Table:** Results of 10-fold cross-validation of four methods using the Finnish data set ( $n = 3404$ ).

N.B. The Machine-learning methods were applied using their standard settings.

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# Overview of underlying model complexity

- ▶ Polytomous mixed logistic regression: 189-190 coefficients
  - ▶ 4 outcomes X (46 coefficients + Intercept) + 1-2 random effects
- ▶ Support vector machine: parameter-free<sup>(\*)</sup>
  - ▶ (2578 support vectors)
- ▶ Random forest: parameter-free<sup>(\*)</sup>
- ▶ Memory-based learning (TiMBL): parameter-free<sup>(\*)</sup>
  - ▶ (3404 exemplars)
- ▶ Naive discriminative learning: parameter-free<sup>(\*)</sup>
  - ▶ 4 outcomes X 68 binary cue occurrence values
  - ▶ = 272 association weights

<sup>(\*)</sup> *Parameter-free* in the sense that the method does not presuppose some predefined model with specified parameters/coefficients that are to be estimated.

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# Predicted outcomes

	PLR	PMLR	SVM	TiMBL	NDL
PLR	1.000	0.965	0.857	0.728	0.948
PMLR	0.965	1.000	0.872	0.731	0.938
SVM	0.857	0.872	1.000	0.740	0.874
TiMBL	0.728	0.731	0.740	1.000	0.726
NDL	0.948	0.938	0.874	0.726	1.000

**Table:** Crosstabulation of predicted outcomes for five methods using the Finnish data set ( $n = 3404$ ).

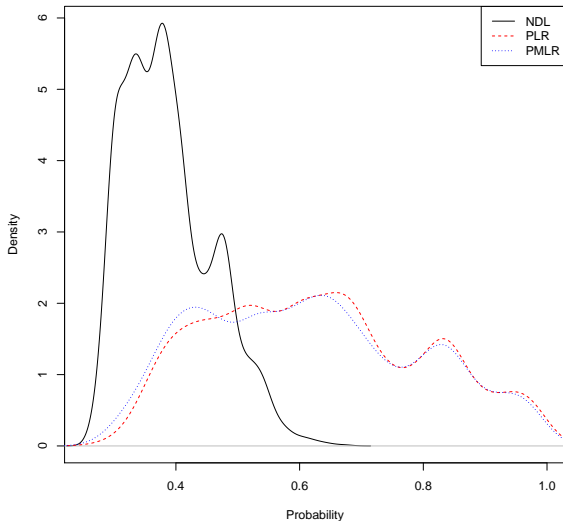
- ▶ The predictions of these five statistical methods appear to differ substantially more – implying they model contextual associations divergently
- ▶ Cf. different heuristics implementing PLR agreed 96.3%–98.7% of the time with the same data (Arppe 2008)

# Estimated probabilities

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Maximum instance-wise probability estimates



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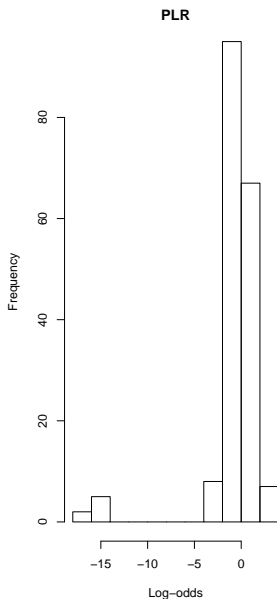
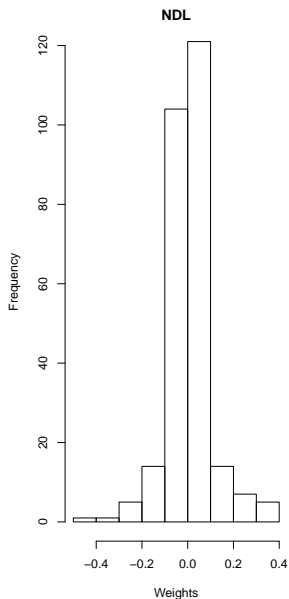
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# NDL weights vs. PLR log-odds



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# Adding feature pair co-occurrences to the models

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	$\lambda_{\text{prediction}}$	$\tau_{\text{classification}}$	Accuracy
Polytomous logistic regression (single predictors)	0.368	0.488	0.645
(+ pairwise interactions)	0.438	0.545	0.684
Naive Discriminative Learning (single cues)	0.346	0.471	0.632
(+ cue pairs)	0.569	0.651	0.758

**Table:** Classification diagnostics for four models fitted to the Finnish data set ( $n = 3404$ ) [cf. QITL2]

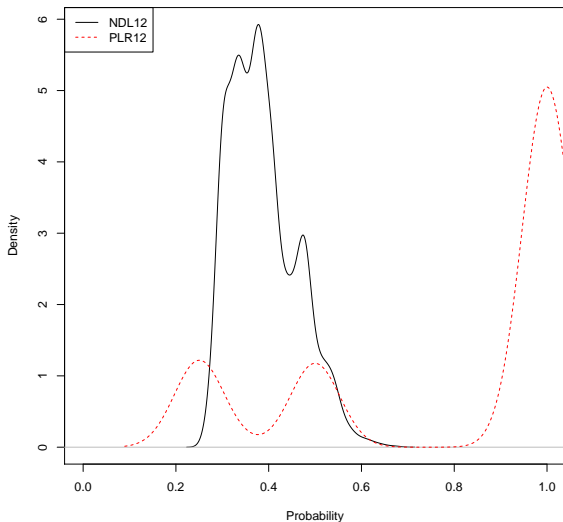


# Estimated probabilities – feature pair co-occurrences

Human vs.  
machine learning

Baayen, Arppe

Maximum instance-wise probability estimates



Theoretical  
questions

Linguistic data

Statistical  
methods

Method and  
model  
comparisons

Accuracy & Recall

Cross-validation

Model complexity

Comparison of predicted  
outcomes

Estimated probabilities

Model coefficients

**Feature pair  
co-occurrences**

library(ndl)

Random effects structure

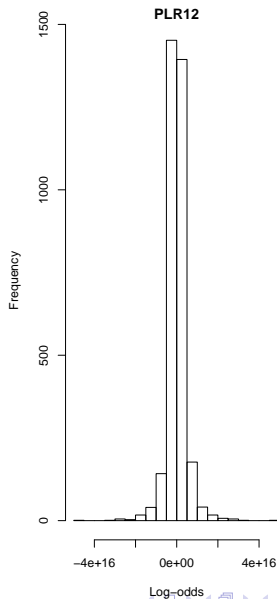
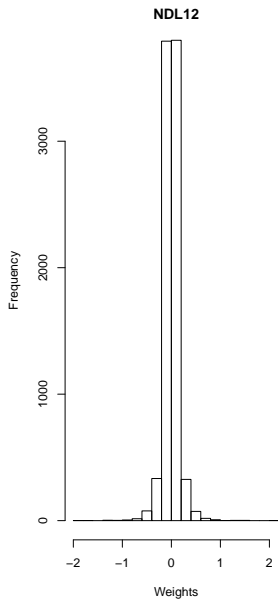
Discussion

Conclusions

# NDL weights vs. PLR log-odds – feature pair co-occurrences

Human vs. machine learning

Baayen, Arppe



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library(ndl)

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# ndl-Package

```
> library(ndl)
> data(think)

> think.ndl <- ndlClassify(Lexeme ~ Agent * Patient
+ Section, data = think)

> ndlStatistics(think.ndl)$accuracy
[1] 0.6113396

> ndlStatistics(think.ndl)$crosstable
```

	ajatella	harkita	miettia	pohtia
ajatella	1263	59	115	55
harkita	107	182	32	66
miettia	306	58	305	143
pohtia	180	84	118	331

Human vs.  
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**library(ndl)**

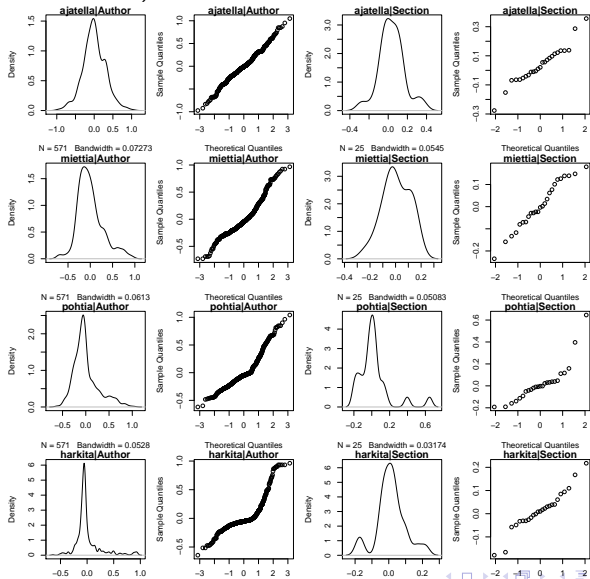
Random effects structure

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# NDL and random effects

Whereas `lmer` detects no random effect for *Author* ( $n = 571$ ,  $Variance = 0$ ), NDL is able to extract some outcome-variant impact:



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# Discussion – Implications

- ▶ In overall absorption of knowledge, human learning builds a representation of past experience that is comparable to that of machine-learning techniques – works well with new but familiar input.
- ▶ Cross-validation results indicate that human learning performs somewhat less well than machine-learning techniques for unseen, new data – at least initially, though the incremental learning process should soon absorb this new information, too.
- ▶ Human learning would appear to overfit accumulated information, but does so in a substantially more well-behaved, robust manner than machine-learning (reflected in the modest association weights).

# Implications

- ▶ Timid probability estimates suggest that human learning is more open to variation in terms of its internal representation – speakers are more likely to produce alternative forms (due to noise and whatever confounding factors), as they are not attempting to maximize a likelihood over all accumulated experience.
- ▶ Human learning becomes well attuned to familiar patterns (idiosyncracies of often-met people, local dialects, and professional jargon), but is at first at a loss with new, unfamiliar patterns, though will quickly adapt to this new information.

# Conclusions

- ▶ Naive Discriminative Learning implements the simplest possible mathematical characterization of probabilistic linguistic competence.
- ▶ This is compatible with the insight that grammar is usage-based.
- ▶ Importantly, usage is acquired piecemeal in a much simpler weight space – new information is integrated immediately by adjusting the accumulated body of knowledge as it is experienced, and this new information is not independently retained.
- ▶ The model can get **very close to the observed data** - as if the speaker accommodates to his/her own linguistic environment (e.g. dialect) – at the expense of being able to use/understand a general norm.