

# Word segmentation (example paper presentation)

Topics in Cognitive Modelling  
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# Word segmentation

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- One of the first problems infants must solve when learning language: where are the word boundaries?

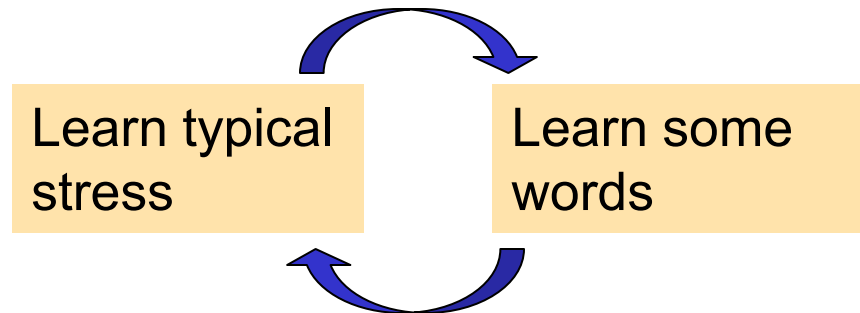


- May be similar to segmenting other kinds of sequences (e.g., actions) and visual scenes.

# Cues to word segmentation

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- Infants make use of many different cues.
  - Phonotactics (which sound sequences are legal?)
    - *sound vs. ndsequen*
  - Stress patterns
    - English usually stresses 1<sup>st</sup> syllable, French always the last.
  - Etc.
- But specifics differ between languages, presenting a chicken-and-egg problem:



# Statistical word segmentation

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- In *any* language, words create statistical regularities in the sequences of sounds in the language.
- Experimental work (Saffran et al. 1996) focuses on **transitional probabilities** between syllables.
  - Idea:  $P(\text{syl}_i | \text{syl}_{i-1})$  is often lower at word boundaries.

“pretty baby”:  $P(\text{by}|\text{ba}) > P(\text{ba}|\text{ty})$

# Experimental evidence

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- Infants (and adults) can learn word-like units in a nonsense language based on statistics alone.

Lexicon:

pabiku  
tibudo  
golatu  
daropi



Training stimulus:

...pabikudaropigolatutibudodaropitibudogolatu  
pabikudaropigolatupabikutibudogolatupabikud  
aropitibudo...

- After training, test: Can subjects distinguish *words* (pabiku) vs. *part-words* (kudaro)?

# Questions raised

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- What statistical information is actually being used?
  - Transitional probabilities or something else?
- Does the mind represent and compute with these statistics directly, or is it doing something else?
- Are listeners finding boundaries or finding words?
- What happens with more realistic linguistic input?

# Today's models

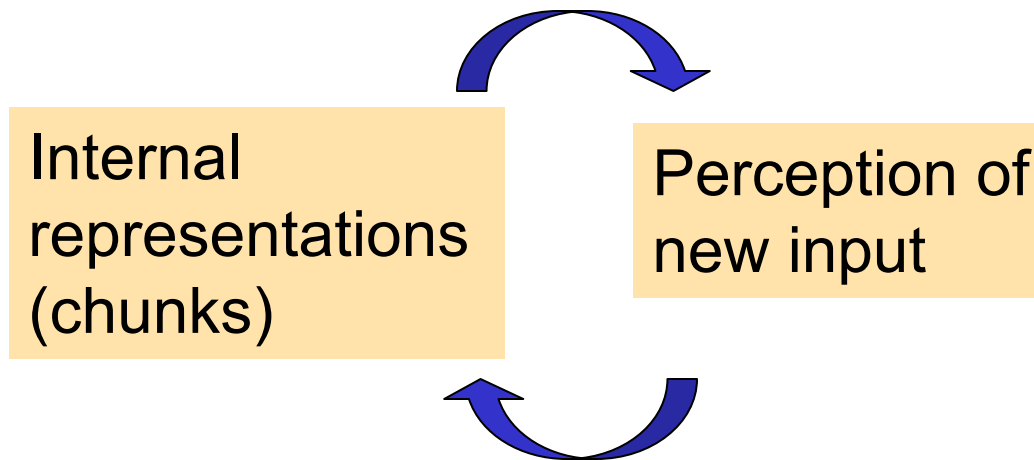
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- **PARSER** (Perruchet and Vinter, 1998)
  - Humans are not tracking boundary statistics; segmentation results from general properties of attention, perception, and memory.
- **Bayesian model** (Goldwater, Griffiths, and Johnson, 2007)
  - What kind of information would be useful for segmenting from more realistic input? What would result, if humans use the information optimally?
- Both models focus on words, not boundaries.
- Both use little or no domain-specific information.

# PARSER

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- Main thesis: No special mechanism is needed for word segmentation; it results from interaction of perception and internal representation.





# PARSER

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- Main thesis: No special mechanism is needed for word segmentation; it results from interaction of perception and internal representation.
  - Initially, input is perceived and chunked randomly into units.
  - Units are encoded in memory.
  - Memory decays rapidly.
  - Uncommon units disappear, common units are reinforced.
  - Units in memory influence perception and encoding of new input (input is segmented into existing units).

# Representation

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- Units are stored in “Percept Shaper” (PS): set of units and their weights (~strength in memory).
  - PS starts with set of primitive units (syllables), weight =1.
  - Units with weight 1 or more can “shape perception”

pa	1
bi	1
ku	1
ti	1
bu	1
do	1
...	

# Processing

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- On each cycle:
  - One “percept” is seen: 1, 2, or 3 units in size.
  - Add new unit to PS, or increment weight of existing unit.
  - All units in PS decay, overlapping units interfere: decrease weights.

pa	1
bi	1
ku	1
ti	1
bu	1
do	1
...	

Input: pabikudaropigolatutibudodaropitibudo...

Percept: pabi

# Over time

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- Frequent subsequences reinforce units in PS
- Infrequent subsequences disappear from PS.
- Words are more frequent, so will dominate.

pa	1		pabiku	14.1		pabiku	67.4
bi	1		pabi	12.8		tibudo	63.2
ku	1		tibudo	11.8		golatu	59.1
ti	1	→	bikutibudo	3.1	→	daropi	55.2
bu	1		gola	3.0		tibudopabiku	1.3
do	1		pa	2.4			
...			...				

# Experiments

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- Experiment 1, 2, and 4 show:
  - Using same input stimulus as Saffran et al. experiments, PARSER learns the lexicon.
  - Can also do so while simulating lowered attention (like humans).
  - Predicts that different word lengths should present no problem (since then, this has been verified in humans).

# Issues

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- Would it work on realistic input data?
  - Discussion suggests not (unless modified).
- Experiment 3: simulating infant study.
  - Uses 4 lexical items instead of 6.
  - Performance actually goes down: pairs of words are found more commonly (*pabikutibudo*), interfere with single words.
  - Fixes this by changing model parameters – “infants have more limited memory” – but this is done post-hoc.
  - Still predicts that adults would have more trouble with 4 lexical items than 6.

# Summary

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- PARSER provides a mechanistic account of word segmentation based on general principles of attention, perception, and memory.
- No explicit tracking of statistics is needed.
- Works on experimental stimuli but might need modifications for realistic language.
- Probably would work in other domains.
- Smaller vocabulary is harder than larger one??
- Lots of parameters – how sensitive to these?

# Bayesian model

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- An **ideal observer** analysis: what words would be learned if statistical information is used optimally, and the learner assumes:
  - a) Words are defined as statistically independent units in the input (i.e., randomly ordered, as in experimental stimuli)?
  - b) Words are defined as units that help predict other units?
- Is (a) sufficient? I.e., what kind of prior does the learner need?



# Two kinds of models

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- Unigram model: words are independent.

$$P(w_1 \dots w_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i)$$

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- Unigram model: words are independent.

$$P(w_1 \dots w_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i)$$

- Bigram model: words depend on other words.

$$P(w_1 \dots w_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(w_i | w_{i-1})$$

## Data:

lookatthedoggie  
seethedoggie  
shelookssofriendly  
...

## Hypotheses:

lookatthedoggie  
seethedoggie  
shelookssofriendly  
...


lookatthedoggie  
seethedoggie  
shelookssofriendly  
...


look at thed oggi e  
se e thed oggi e  
sh e look ssofri e ndly  
...

look at the doggie  
see the doggie  
she looks so friendly  
...

i like pizza  
what about you  
...

abc def gh  
ijklmn opqrst uvwx  
...


$$P(d|h)=1$$


$$P(d|h)=0$$

# Bayesian segmentation

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- Data: unsegmented corpus (transcriptions).
- Hypotheses: sequences of word tokens.

$$\underbrace{P(h|d)}_{\text{posterior}} \propto \underbrace{P(d|h)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{P(h)}_{\text{prior}}$$

= 1 if concatenating words forms corpus,  
= 0 otherwise.

Encodes assumptions of learner.

- Optimal solution is the segmentation with highest prior probability.

# Bayesian model

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Assumes word  $w_i$  is generated as follows:

1. Is  $w_i$  a novel lexical item?

$$P(\text{yes}) = \frac{\alpha}{n + \alpha}$$

$$P(\text{no}) = \frac{n}{n + \alpha}$$

Fewer word types =  
Higher probability

# Bayesian model

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Assume word  $w_i$  is generated as follows:

2. **If novel**, generate phonemic form  $x_1 \dots x_m$  :

$$P(w_i = x_1 \dots x_m) = \prod_{i=1}^m P(x_i)$$

Shorter words =  
Higher probability

**If not**, choose lexical identity of  $w_i$  from previously occurring words:

$$P(w_i = w) = \frac{n_w}{n}$$

Power law =  
Higher probability

# Experiments

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- Input: phonemically transcribed infant-directed speech.

```
yuwanttusid6bUk  
lUkD*z6b7wIThIzh&t  
&nd6dOgi  
yuwanttulUk&tDI s  
...
```

- Optimal segmentation is found using a standard optimization algorithm (Gibbs sampling).
- Compare to bigram model (developed using similar maths).

# Example output

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Unigram model:

```
youwant to see thebook  
look theres aboy with his hat  
and adoggie  
you wantto lookatthis  
lookatthis  
havea drink  
okay now  
whatsthis  
whatsthat  
whatisit  
look canyou take itout  
...
```

Bigram model:

```
you want to see the book  
look theres a boy with his hat  
and a doggie  
you want to lookat this  
lookat this  
have a drink  
okay now  
whats this  
whats that  
whatis it  
look canyou take it out  
...
```

- Quantitative comparison verifies bigram is better.



# What's wrong with unigrams?

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- Model assumes (**false**ly) that words have the same probability regardless of context.

$$P(\mathbf{that}) = .024 \quad P(\mathbf{that|whats}) = .46 \quad P(\mathbf{that|to}) = .0019$$

- Positing amalgams allows the model to capture word-to-word dependencies.
- Paper argues that this is a general property of unigram models, not specific to this one.

# Summary

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- Good segmentations of naturalistic data can be found using fairly weak/domain-general prior assumptions.
  - Utterances are composed of discrete units (words).
  - Units tend to be short.
  - Some units occur frequently, most do not.
  - Units tend to come in predictable patterns.
- More sophisticated use of information works better.
  - But still possible that simpler learner is enough to start learning other language-specific cues.

# Issues

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- No direct comparison to humans.
  - Is there evidence that human performance is consistent with Bayesian predictions? [Later paper suggests: yes]
  - Are humans able to use bigram information?
- Algorithm iterates multiple times over the entire corpus – are more cognitively plausible algorithms possible?

# Conclusion

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- Models have different emphasis:
  - PARSER: mechanistic explanation; experimental data.
  - Bayesian model: ideal observer analysis; naturalistic data.
- But some similar ideas/conclusions:
  - Segmentation is about building a lexicon, not finding boundaries.
  - Built on domain-general principles.
- Open questions:
  - Relationship to adult speech processing?
  - Multiple cues?

# References

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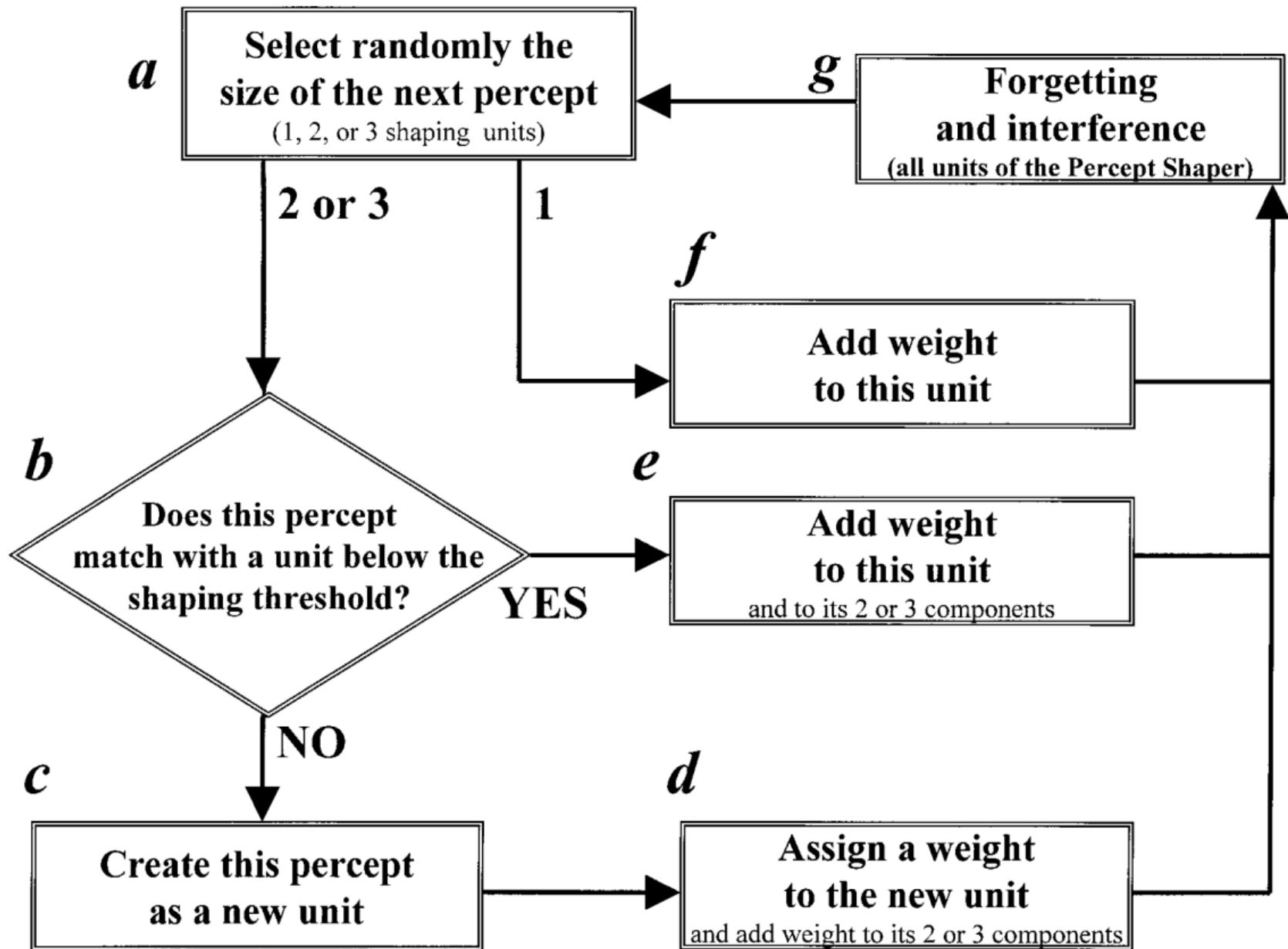


Figure: Perruchet and Vinter (1998)

# Bayesian learning

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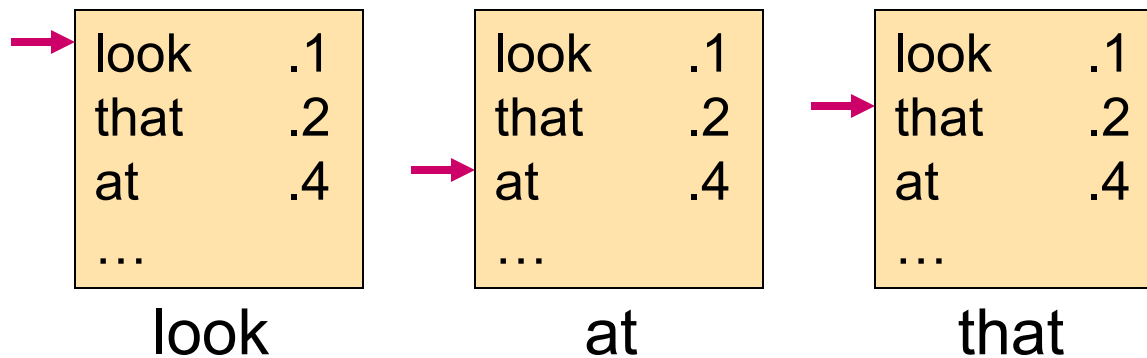
- Want to find an explanatory linguistic hypothesis that
  - accounts for the observed data.
  - conforms to prior expectations.

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

# Two kinds of models

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- Unigram model: words are independent.
  - Generate a sentence by generating each word independently.





# Two kinds of models

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- Bigram model: words predict other words.
  - Generate a sentence by generating each word, conditioned on the previous word.

