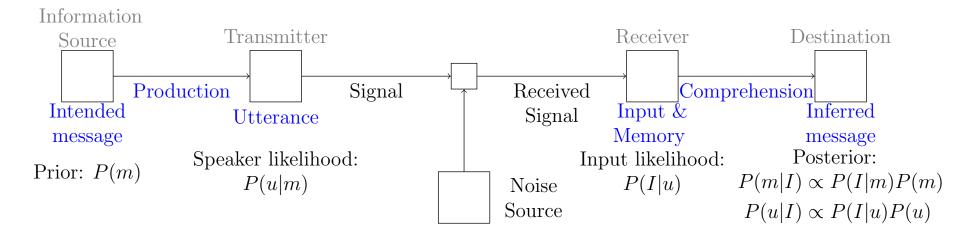
Noisy-channel sentence comprehension theory

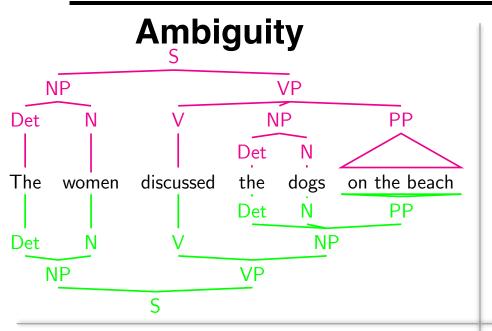


Roger Levy 9.19: Computational Psycholinguistics 13 November 2023

Today's agenda

- Review principles of rational analysis and its application to theory of language comprehension
- Examine a phenomenon challenging for surprisal theory
- Propose a noisy-channel processing theory, using information theory and probabilistic grammars
- Develop a hypothesis within the theory for the challenging phenomenon
- Empirically test a key prediction of the theory

Challenges for efficient linguistic communication



Environmental noise



Memory Limitations



Incomplete knowledge of one's interlocutors



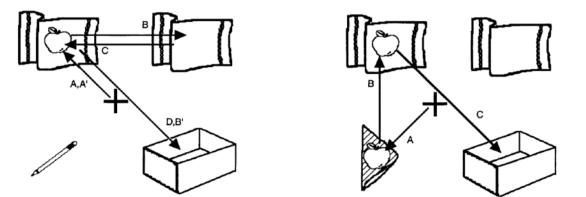


Rational analysis

- Background assumption: cognitive agent is optimized via evolution and learning to solve everyday tasks effectively
- 1. Specify precisely the goals of the cognitive system
- 2. Formalize model of the environment adapted to
- 3. Make minimal assumptions re: computational limitations
- 4. Derive predicted optimal behavior given 1—3
- 5. Compare predictions with empirical data
- 6. If necessary, iterate 1-5

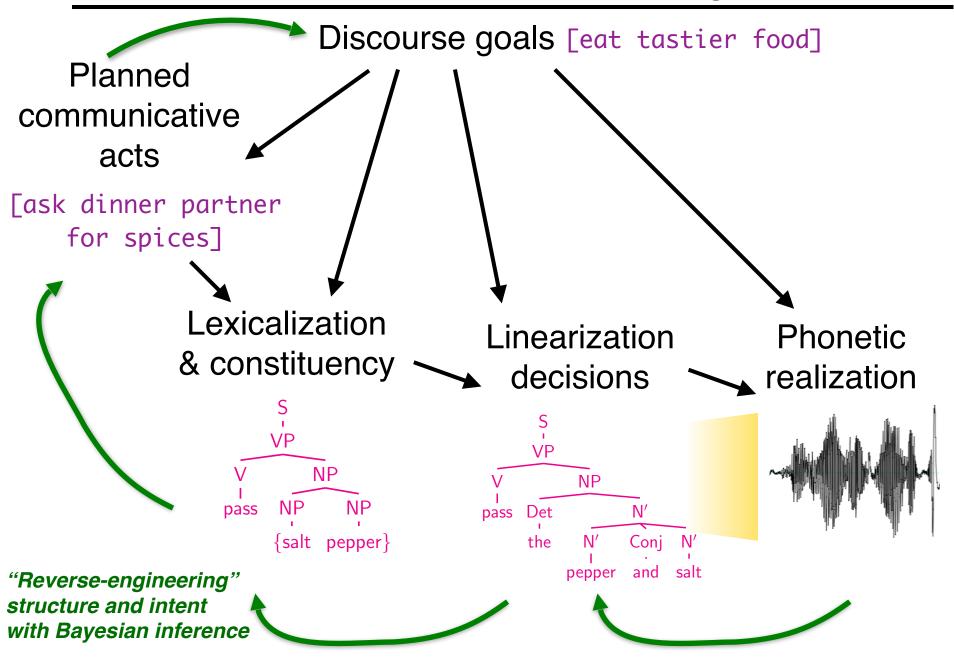
Efficient comprehension as rational, goal-driven

- Online sentence comprehension is hard
- But lots of information sources can be usefully brought to bear to help with the task
- Therefore, it would be *rational* for people to use *all information sources available*, whenever possible
- This is what *incrementality* is
- We have lots of evidence that people do this often
- How do we reconcile these information sources?



"Put the apple on the towel in the box." (Tanenhaus et al., 1995, Science)

Comprehenders as reverse engineers



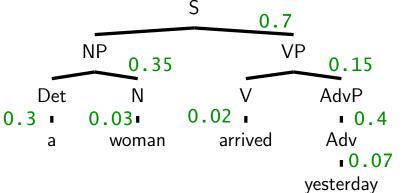
Surprisal summary: psycholinguistic evidence

Problems addressed by a theory consisting of:

Bayesian inference

 $P(\mathsf{Str}|\mathsf{Input}) \propto P(\mathsf{Input}|\mathsf{Str})P(\mathsf{Str})$

• Probabilistic grammar



P(T) = 0.7*0.35*0.15*0.3*0.03*0.02*0.4*0.07 $= 1.85 \cdot 10^{-7}$

Surprisal

- Global disambiguation
- Garden-pathing

Det

NP

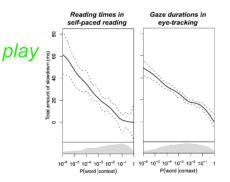
When the dog scratched the vet removed the muzzle.

VP

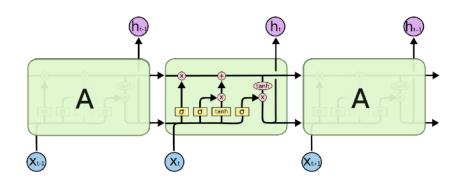
NP

Prediction & reading times

my brother came inside to… the children went outside to…



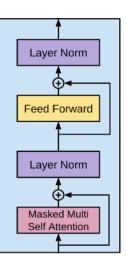
Syntax-like surprisal from deep-learning models



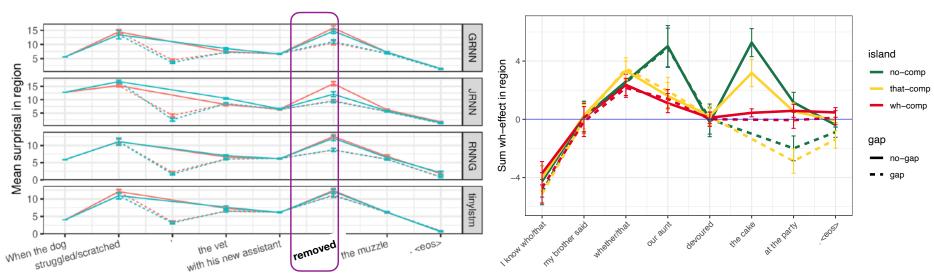
(Elman, 1990; Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997)

no comma ---- comma

transitive --- intransitive



(Vaswani et al., 2017; Radford et al., 2018, 2019)



(Wilcox et al., 2018, BlackBox NLP)

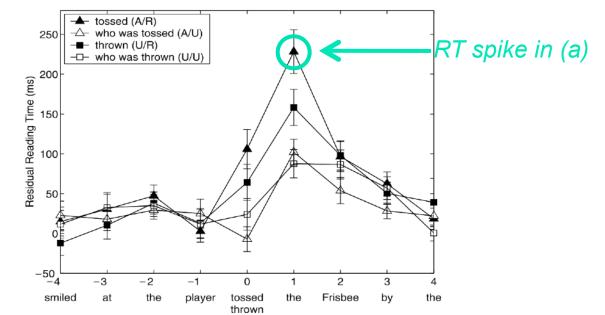
(Futrell et al. 2019, NAACL)

An incremental inference puzzle for surprisal

• Try to understand this sentence:

(a) The coach smiled at the player tossed the frisbee.

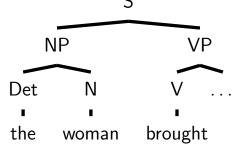
- ...and contrast this with:
 - (b) The coach smiled at the player thrown the frisbee.
 - (c) The coach smiled at the player who was thrown the frisbee.
 - (d) The coach smiled at the player who was tossed the frisbee.
- Readers boggle at "tossed" in (a), but not in (b-d)



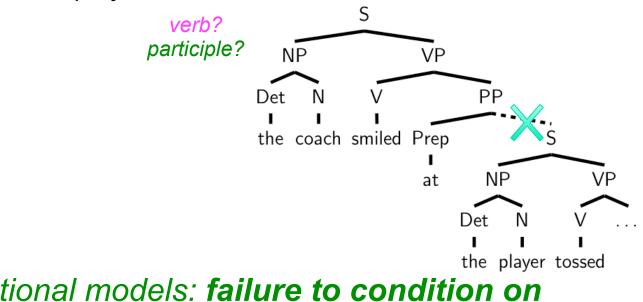
Tabor et al. (2004, JML)

Why is tossed/thrown interesting?

- As with classic garden-paths, part-of-speech ambiguity leads to misinterpretation
 - The woman brought the sandwich...tripped verb? participle?



- But now context "should" rule out the garden path:
 - The coach smiled at the player tossed...

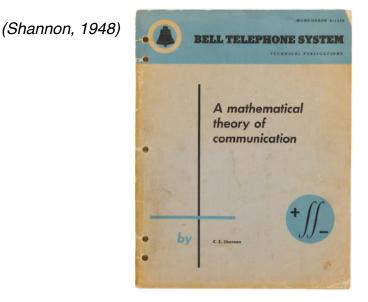


 A challenge for rational models: failure to condition on relevant context

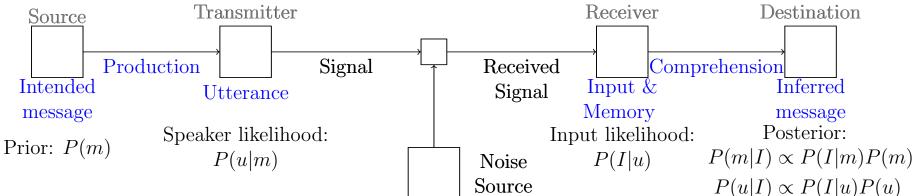
Uncertain input in language comprehension

- Previous state of the art models for ambiguity resolution ≈ probabilistic incremental parsing
- Simplifying assumption:
 - Input is clean and perfectly-formed
 - No uncertainty about input is admitted
- Intuitively seems patently wrong...
 - We sometimes *misread* things
 - We can also proofread
- Leads to two questions:
 - 1. What might a model of sentence comprehension under uncertain input look like?
 - 2. What interesting consequences might such a model have?

Noisy-channel theory of language processing







(Levy, 2008; Gibson et al., 2013)

Noisy-channel sentence processing

- Standard probabilistic sentence processing: $P_G(T|\mathbf{w}) \propto P(\mathbf{w}|T)P(T) = P(T,\mathbf{w})$
- If we don't observe a sentence but only a noisy input *I*: $P_G(T|I) \propto \sum_{\mathbf{w}} P(I|T, \mathbf{w}) P(\mathbf{w}|T) P(T)$ $P_G(\mathbf{w}|I) \propto \sum_{\mathbf{w}} P(I|T, \mathbf{w}) P(\mathbf{w}|T) P(T)$
- If we know true sentence w* but not input I: _____ true model

$$P(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{w}^*) = \int_{I} P_C(\mathbf{w}|I, \mathbf{w}^*) P_T(I|\mathbf{w}^*) \, dI$$
mprehender's
model

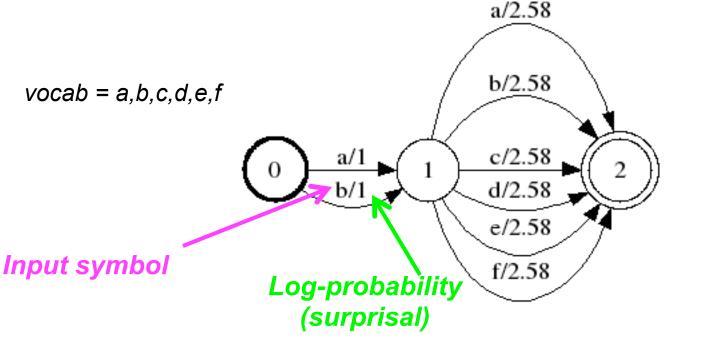
CO

$$\propto Q({f w},{f w}^*)$$

Levy (2008, EMNLP)

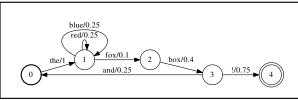
Representing noisy input

- How can we represent the type of noisy input generated by a word sequence?
- Probabilistic finite-state automata (pFSAs; Mohri, 1997) are a good model



"Word 1 is a or b, and I have no info about Word 2"

Weighted finite-state automata



A WEIGHTED FINITE-STATE AUTOMATON (WFSA) consists of a tuple (Q, V, S, R) such that:

- ▶ *Q* is a finite set of STATES $q_0q_1 \dots q_N$, with q_0 the designated START STATE;
- \triangleright Σ is a finite set of terminal symbols;
- ▶ $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of FINAL STATES;
- Δ is a finite set of TRANSITIONS each of the form $q \stackrel{i}{\rightsquigarrow} q'$, meaning that "if you are in state q and see symbol i you can consume it and move to state q'";

λ is a function mapping transitions to real numbers (weights);
 ρ is a function mapping final states to real numbers (weights).

Weighted finite-state automata (2)

- Q is a finite set of STATES $q_0q_1 \ldots q_N$, with q_0 the designated START STATE;
- Σ is a finite set of terminal symbols;
- $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of FINAL STATES;
- Δ is a finite set of TRANSITIONS each of the form $q \stackrel{i}{\rightsquigarrow} q'$, meaning that "if you are in state q and see symbol i you can consume it and move to state q'";
- \triangleright λ is a function mapping transitions to real numbers (weights);
- \triangleright ρ is a function mapping final states to real numbers (weights).

► $w_{1...N} \in \Sigma^N$ is ACCEPTED or RECOGNIZED by an automaton iff there is a PATH of transitions $\underset{1...N}{\rightsquigarrow}$ to a final state $q^* \in F$ such that

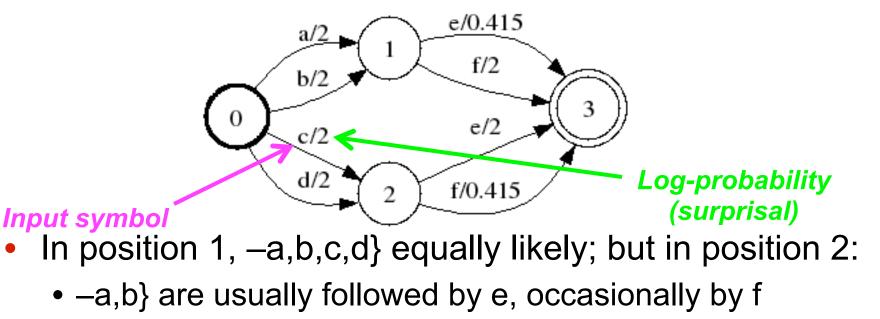
$$q_0 \stackrel{w_1 w_2}{\underset{1 \ 2}{\longrightarrow}} \dots \stackrel{w_{N-1} w_N}{\underset{N-1 \ N}{\longrightarrow}} q^*$$

The WEIGHT of such a path $\rightsquigarrow_{1...N}$ is the product of the weights of each of the transitions, together with the weight of the final state:

$$P(q_0 \xrightarrow[N]{w_1 w_2}_{1 2} \dots \xrightarrow[N-1 N]{w_{N-1} w_N} q^*) = \rho(q^*) \prod_{i=1}^N \lambda(\underset{i}{\leadsto})$$
(1)

Probabilistic Linguistic Knowledge

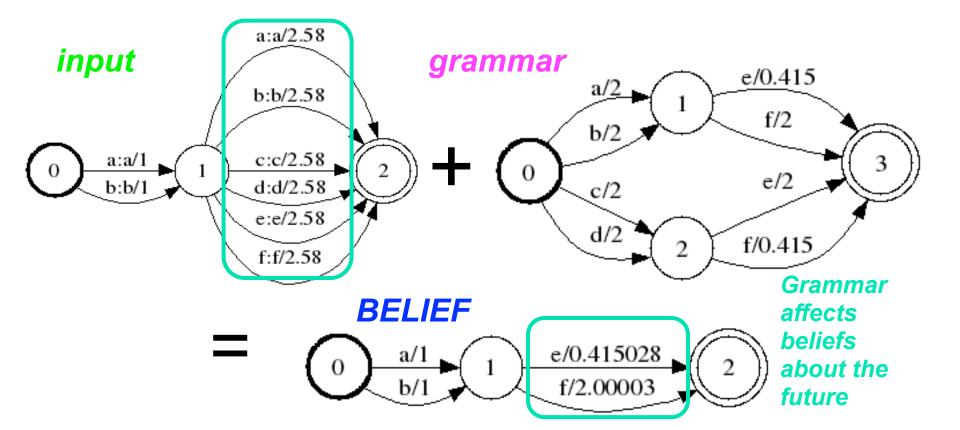
- A generative probabilistic grammar determines beliefs about *which strings are likely to be seen*
 - Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PCFGs; Booth, 1969)
 - Probabilistic Minimalist Grammars (Hale, 2006)
 - Probabilistic Finite-State Grammars (Mohri, 1997; Crocker & Brants 2000)



–c,d} are usually followed by f, occasionally by e

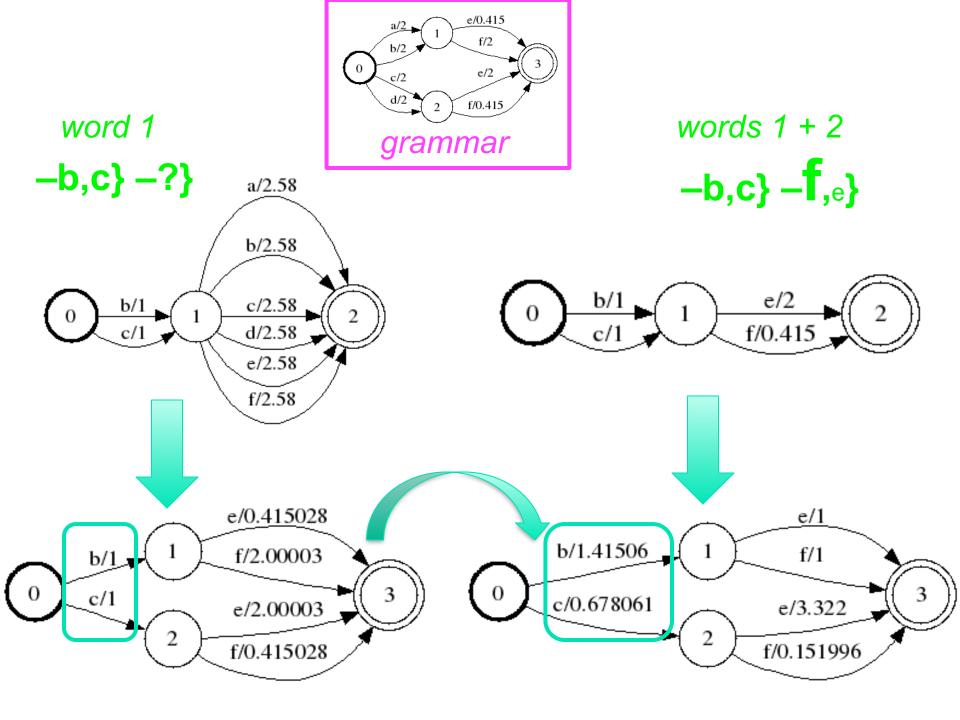
Combining grammar & uncertain input

- Bayes' Rule says that the *evidence* and the *prior* should be combined (multiplied)
- For probabilistic grammars, this combination is the formal operation of *weighted intersection*

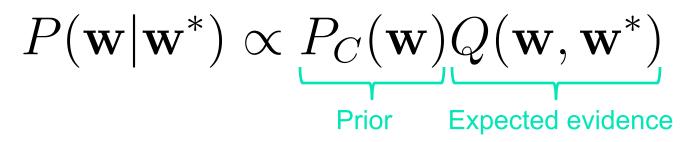


Revising beliefs about the past

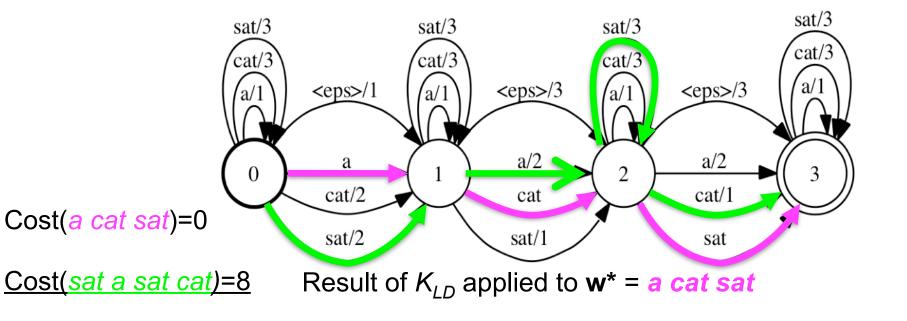
- When we're uncertain about the future, grammar + partial input can affect beliefs about what will happen
- With uncertainty of the past, grammar + future input can affect beliefs about what has already happened



The noisy-channel model (FINAL)



 For Q(w,w*): a WFSA based on Levenshtein distance between words (K_{LD}):



Rational analysis

- Background assumption: cognitive agent is optimized via evolution and learning to solve everyday tasks effectively
- 1. Specify precisely the goals of the cognitive system
- 2. Formalize model of the environment adapted to
- 3. Make minimal assumptions re: computational limitations
- 4. Derive predicted optimal behavior given 1—3
- 5. Compare predictions with empirical data
- 6. If necessary, iterate 1-5

Incremental inference under uncertain input

Near-neighbors make the "incorrect" analysis "correct":



The coach smiled at the player **tossed** the frisbee

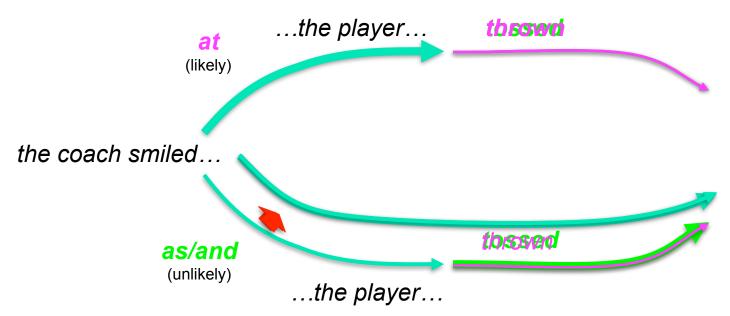
• Hypothesis: the boggle at "tossed" involves what the comprehender wonders whether she might have seen

Rational analysis

- Background assumption: cognitive agent is optimized via evolution and learning to solve everyday tasks effectively
- 1. Specify precisely the goals of the cognitive system
- 2. Formalize model of the environment adapted to
- 3. Make minimal assumptions re: computational limitations
- 4. Derive predicted optimal behavior given 1—3
- 5. Compare predictions with empirical data
- 6. If necessary, iterate 1-5

The core of the intuition

 Grammar & input come together to determine two possible "paths" through the partial sentence: (line thickness ~ probability)



- tossed is more likely to happen along the bottom path
 - This creates a large shift in belief in the *tossed* condition
- *thrown* is very unlikely to happen along the bottom path
 - As a result, there is no corresponding shift in belief

Ingredients for the model

$$P(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{w}^*) \propto P_C(\mathbf{w})Q(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{w}^*)$$

Prior Expected evidence

- $Q(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}^*)$ comes from K_{LD} (with minor changes)
- *P_C*(**w**) comes from a probabilistic grammar (this time finite-state)
- We need one more ingredient:
 - a quantified signal of the alarm induced by word w_i about changes in beliefs about the past

Quantifying alarm about the past

 Relative Entropy (KL-divergence) is a natural metric of change in a probability distrib. (Levy, 2008; Itti & Baldi, 2005)

$$D(P \mid \mid Q) = \sum_{x} P(x) \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

- Our distribution of interest is probabilities over the previous words in the sentence
- Call this distribution $P_i(w_{[0,j)})$ conditions on words 0 through i

strings up to but excluding word j

The change induced by w_i is the error identification signal EIS_i, defined as

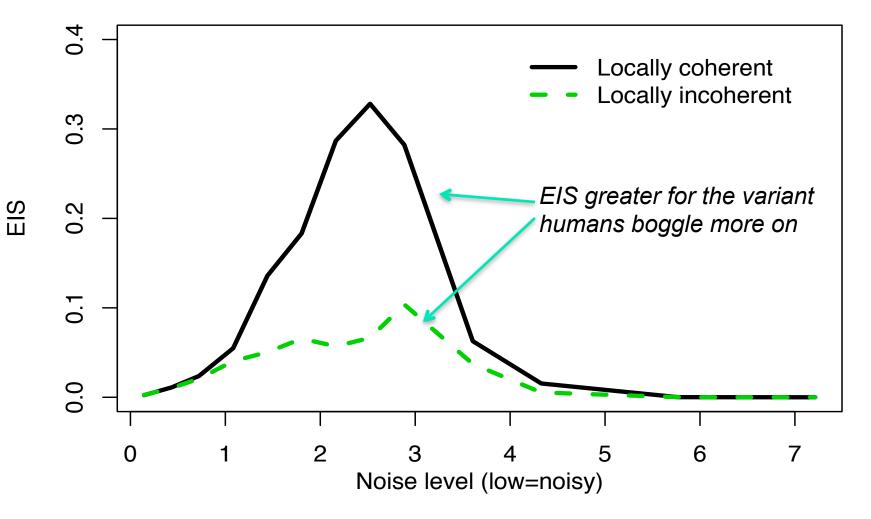
$$D\left(P_{i}\left(w_{[0,i)}\right)||P_{i-1}\left(w_{[0,i)}\right)\right)$$

new distribution

old distribution

Results on local-coherence sentences

- Locally coherent: The coach smiled at the player tossed the frisbee
- Locally incoherent: The coach smiled at the player thrown the frisbee



(All sentences of Tabor et al. 2004 with lexical coverage in model)

Today's summary

- Reviewed principles of rational analysis and its application to theory of language comprehension
- Examined a phenomenon challenging for surprisal theory
- Proposed a noisy-channel processing theory, using information theory and probabilistic grammars
- Developed a hypothesis within the theory for the challenging phenomenon

References

Anderson, J. R. (1991). The adaptive nature of human categorization. Psychological Review, 98(3), 409.

Anderson, J. R. (1990). The adaptive character of human thought. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Elman, J. (1990). Finding structure in time. Cognitive Science, 14, 179–211.

Futrell, R., Wilcox, E., Morita, T., Qian, P., Ballesteros, M., & Levy, R. (2019). Neural language models as psycholinguistic subjects: Representations of syntactic state. In Proceedings of the 18th Annual Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (pp. 32–42).

Gibson, E., Bergen, L., & Piantadosi, S. T. (2013). Rational integration of noisy evidence and prior semantic expectations in sentence interpretation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 110(20), 8051–8056.

Hochreiter, S., & Schmidhuber, J. (1997). Long short-term memory. Neural computation, 9(8), 1735–1780.

Levy, R. (2008). A noisy-channel model of rational human sentence comprehension under uncertain input. In Proceedings of the 13th conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (pp. 234–243). Waikiki, Honolulu.

Levy, R., Bicknell, K., Slattery, T., & Rayner, K. (2009). Eye movement evidence that readers maintain and act on uncertainty about past linguistic input. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 106(50), 21086–21090.

Radford, A., Narasimhan, K., Salimans, T., & Sutskever, I. (2018). Improving language understanding by generative pretraining.

Shannon, C. (1948). A mathematical theory of communication. Bell Systems Technical Journal, 27(4), 623–656.

Tabor, W., Galantucci, B., & Richardson, D. (2004). Effects of merely local syntactic coherence on sentence processing. Journal of Memory and Language, 50(4), 355–370.

Tanenhaus, M. K., Spivey-Knowlton, M. J., Eberhard, K., & Sedivy, J. C. (1995). Integration of visual and linguistic information in spoken language comprehension. Science, 268, 1632–1634.

Vaswani, A., Shazeer, N., Parmar, N., Uszkoreit, J., Jones, L., Gomez, A. N., Kaiser, L., & Polosukhin, I. (2017). Attention is all you need. In Proceedings of Neural Information Processing Systems (pp. 5998–6008).

Wilcox, E., Levy, R. P., Morita, T., & Futrell, R. (2018). What do RNN language models learn about filler–gap dependencies? In Proceedings of the workshop on analyzing and interpreting neural networks for NLP.

Prediction 2: hallucinated garden paths

• Try reading the sentence below:

While the clouds crackled, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle.

- There's a garden-path clause in this sentence...
- ...but it's interrupted by a comma.
- Readers are ordinarily very good at using commas to guide syntactic analysis:

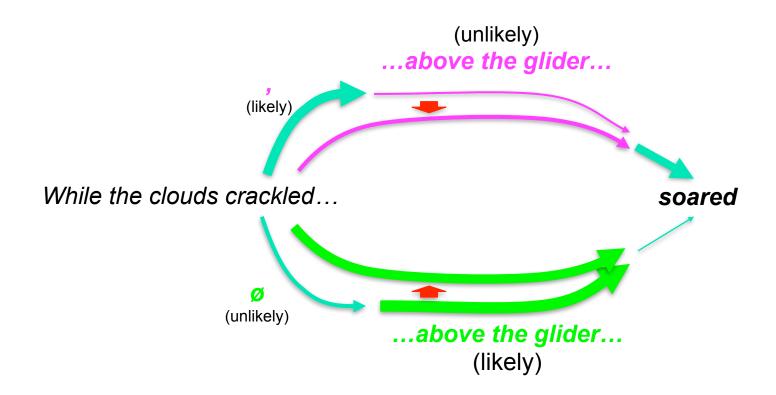
While the man hunted, the deer ran into the woods While Mary was mending the sock fell off her lap

- "With a comma after *mending* there would be no syntactic garden path left to be studied." (Fodor, 2002)
- We'll see that the story is slightly more complicated.

Prediction 2: hallucinated garden paths

While the clouds crackled, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle.

- This sentence is comprised of an initial intransitive subordinate clause...
- ...and then a main clause with *locative inversion*.
 (c.f. a magnificent eagle soared above the glider)
- Crucially, the main clause's initial PP would make a great dependent of the subordinate verb...
- ...but doing that would require the comma to be ignored.
- Inferences through ...glider should thus involve a tradeoff between perceptual input and prior expectations



- Inferences as probabilistic paths through the sentence:
 - Perceptual cost of ignoring the comma
 - Unlikeliness of main-clause continuation after comma
 - Likeliness of postverbal continuation without comma
- These inferences together make *soared* very surprising!

$$P(w_i|\text{Context}) = \sum_{\text{Path}} P(w_i|\text{Path}, \text{Context}) P(\text{Path}|\text{Context})$$

Prediction 2: hallucinated garden paths

- Two properties come together to create "hallucinated garden path"
 - 1. Subordinate clause into which the main-clause inverted phrase would fit well
 - 2. Main clause with locative inversion
- Experimental design: cross (1) and (2)

While the clouds crackled, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle. While the clouds crackled, the glider soared above a magnificent eagle. While the clouds crackled in the distance, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle.

While the clouds crackled in the distance, the glider soared above a magnificent eagle.

- The phrase *in the distance* fulfills a similar thematic role as above the glider for crackled
- Should reduce hallucinated garden-path effect

Prediction 2: Hallucinated garden paths

Methodology: word-by-word self-paced reading

While-the-clouds-crackled,-above-the-glider-soared------

- Readers aren't allowed to backtrack
- So the comma is visually *gone* by the time the inverted main clause appears
- Simple test of whether beliefs about previous input can be revised

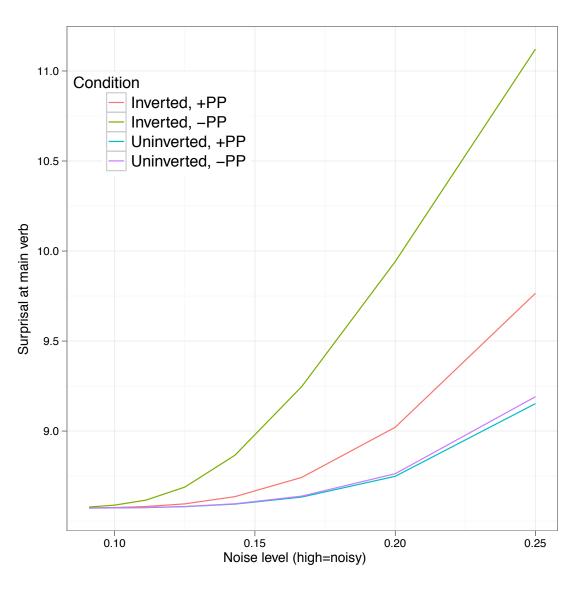
Model predictions

While the clouds crackled, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle.

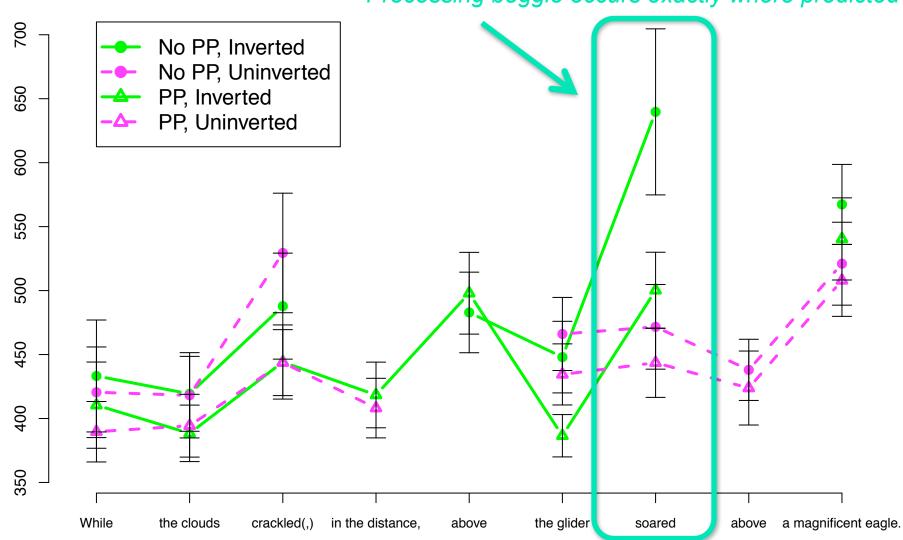
While the clouds crackled in the distance, above the glider soared a magnificent eagle.

While the clouds crackled, the glider soared above a magnificent eagle.

While the clouds crackled in the distance, the glider soared above a magnificent eagle.



Results: whole sentence reading times



Reading time (ms)

Processing boggle occurs exactly where predicted

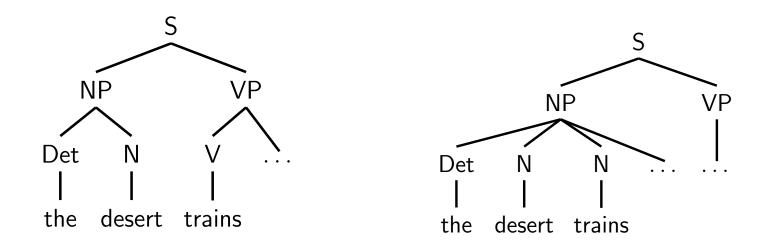
Hallucinated garden-path summary

- The *at/toward* study showed that comprehenders *note the* possibility of alternative strings and *act on it*
- This study showed that comprehenders can actually devote resources to grammatical analyses inconsistent with the surface string

Hallucinated garden paths cont'd

- Sure, but punctuation's weird stuff
- What about real words?

I know that the desert trains could resupply the camp.



• At least sometimes, bias against N N interpretation

Hallucinated GPs with words

• We use a contextual bias against NN and toward NV to test for GP hallucinations involving wordform change

Could be "intern chauffeured"

The intern chauffeur for the governor hoped for more interesting work. [NN, "dense" neighborhood]

The intern chauffeured for the governor but hoped for more interesting work. [NV, "dense" neighborhood] *Could NOT be "inexperienced chauffeured*"

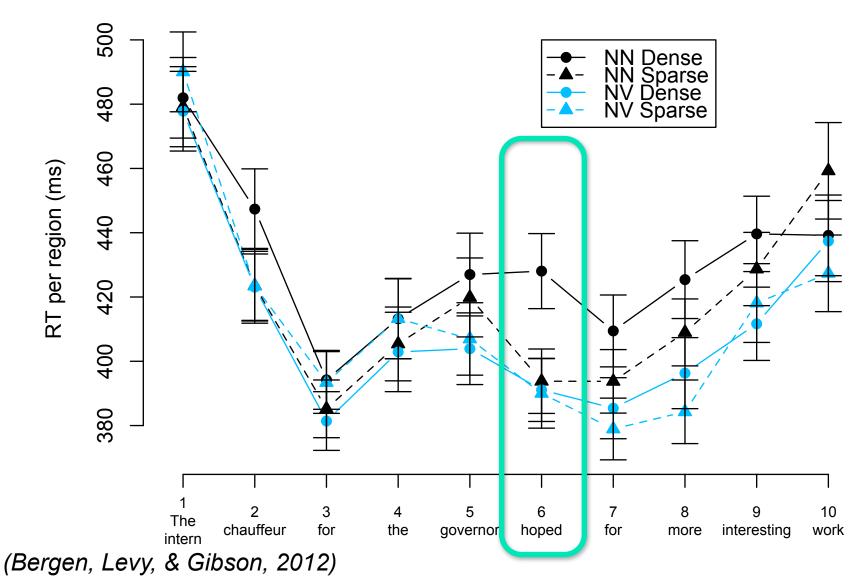
The inexperienced chauffeur for the governor hoped for more interesting work. [NN, "sparse" neighborhood]

Some interns chauffeured for the governor but hoped for more interesting work. [NV, "sparse" neighborhood]

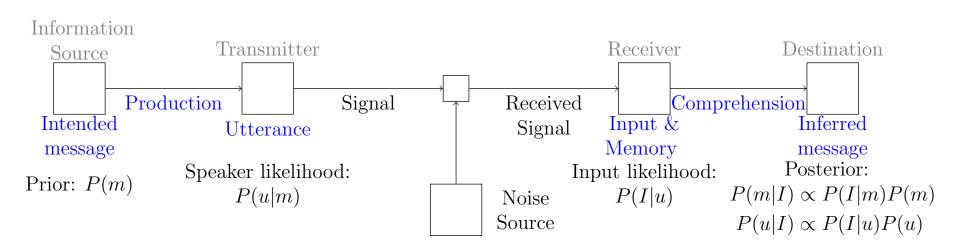
(Bergen, Levy, & Gibson, 2012)

Results

• RT spike at disambiguating region for NN Dense



Noisy-channel theory of language processing



(Shannon, 1948; Levy, 2008; Gibson et al., 2013)

Simple question-answering

The woman lost the diamond.

Did the woman lose something? Yes

The ball kicked the girl.

Did the girl kick something? No

The businessman benefited from the tax law.

Did the tax law benefit from anything?

The cook baked a cake Lucy.

Was something baked for Lucy?



No

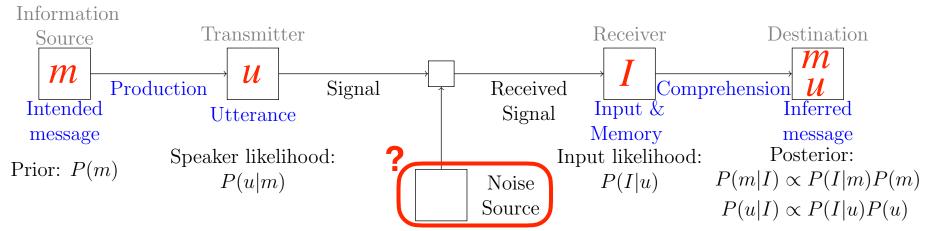
Over 2/3 of answers!

(Ferreira, 2003; Gibson et al., 2013)

Noisy-channel semantic interpretation?

[+The cook baked a cake Lucy.

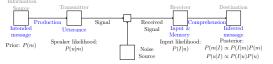
m? Was something baked for Lucy?



In two semantically plausible "neighbor" sentences, the answer is "yes":



Predictions for implausible sentences



 $P(m \,|\, I) \propto P(I \,|\, m) P(m)$

Noise operation Plausibility Non-literal interpretation?

		Doub	e Objec	t/Benefac	tive	-for a	lterr	nation		Deletion/ insertion	Exchange
Imr	blausible	The	cook	baked	а	cak	e I	ucy.		Yes	Yes
шц	Jausiple	The	cook	baked	Lu	lcy	foi	a c	ake.	Yes	Yes
Plausible	louoiblo	The	cook	baked	Lu	lcy a	a c	cake.		No	No
	The	cook	baked	a	cak	e f	for L	ucy.	No	No	

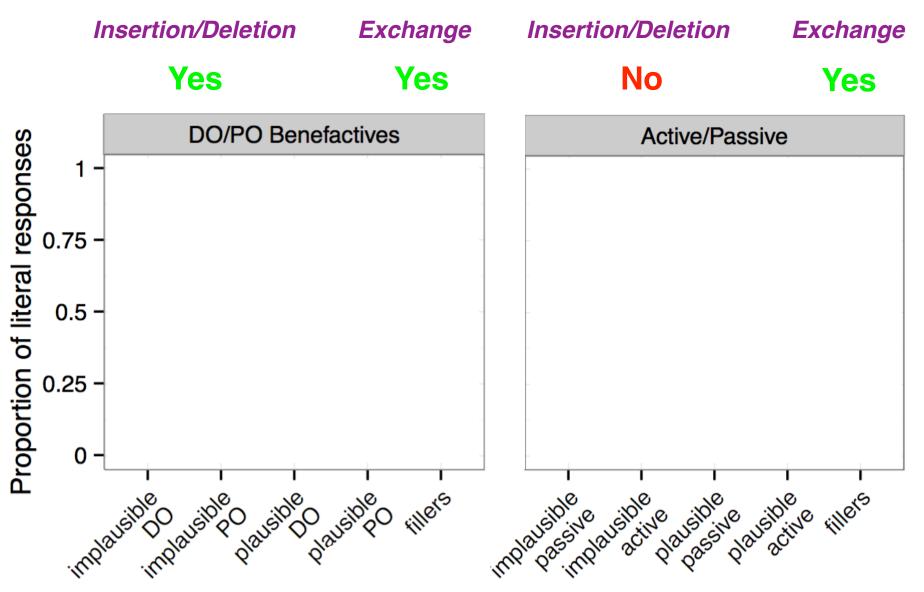
```
Active/Passive alternation
```

Implausible	The	ball	kicked the girl.	No	Yes
Implausible	The	girl	kicked the girl. was kicked by the ball.	No	Yes
Dlausible	The	girl	kicked the ball.	No	Yes
FIGUSIDIE	The	ball	kicked the ball. was kicked by the girl.	No	Yes

(Gibson et al., 2013)

Literal vs. non-literal interpretation rates

Non-literal interpretations for implausible sentences?



(Gibson et al., 2013; data from replication by Poppels & Levy, 2016)

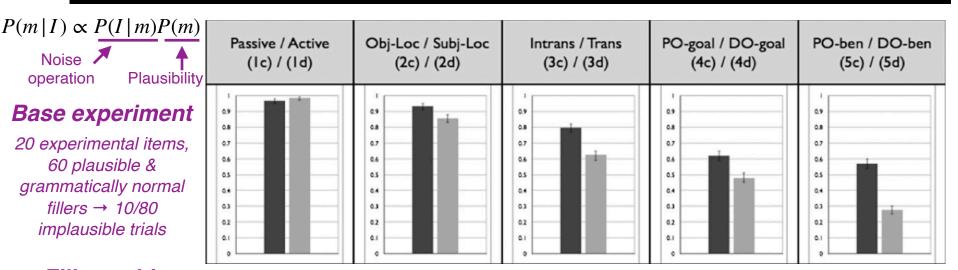
Five alternations in an insertion/deletion model

English constructions	Change	Implausible version
1. Active/passive	Two insertions	c. The girl <u>was</u> kicked <u>by</u> the ball. (passive)
	Two deletions	d. The ball kicked the girl. (active)
 Subject-locative/ object-locative 	One deletion, one insertion	c. The table jumped <u>onto</u> a cat. (object-locative)
	One insertion, one deletion	d. <u>Onto</u> the cat jumped a table. (subject-locative)
3. Transitive/intransitive	One insertion	 c. The tax law benefited <u>from</u> the businessman. (intransitive)
	One deletion	d. The businessman benefited the tax law. (transitive)
4. DO/PO goal	One insertion	c. The mother gave the daughter <u>to</u> the candle. (PO-goal)
	One deletion	d. The mother gave the candle the daughter. (DO-goal)
5. DO/PO benefactive	One insertion	c. The cook baked Lucy <u>for</u> a cake. (PO-benef)
	One deletion	d. The cook baked a cake Lucy. (DO-benef)

c=inferred insertion d=inferred deletion

(Gibson et al., 2013; plausible versions not shown here)

Five alternations in an insertion/deletion model



Fillers with syntactic errors

"A legislator lied to the consultant a new bill"

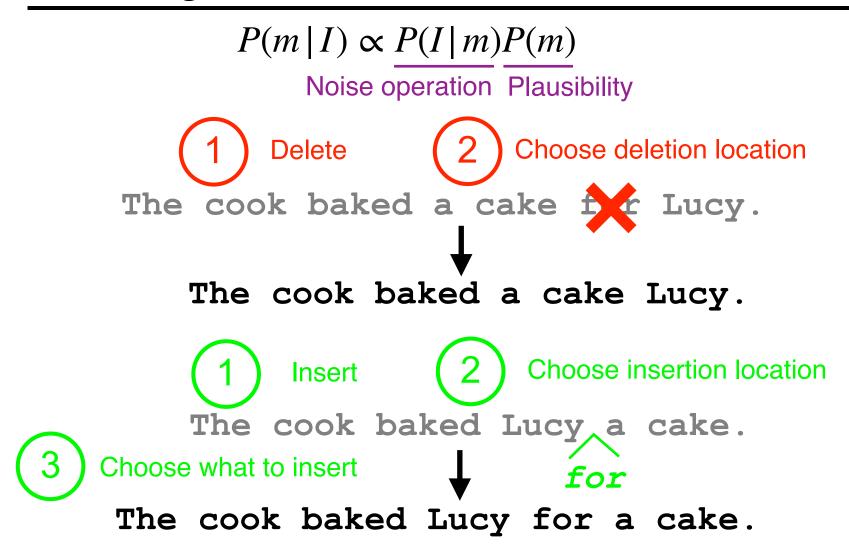
"A bystander was the fireman by rescued in the nick of time"

Many implausible trials

100 experimental items, 60 plausible & grammatically normal fillers → 50/160 implausible trials

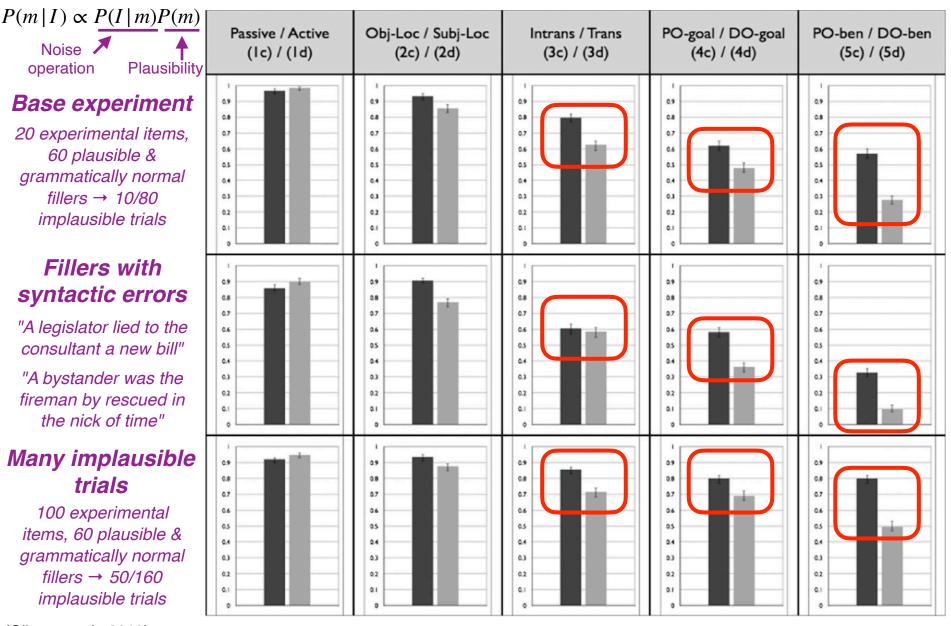
(Gibson et al., 2013)

Inferring deletions versus insertions



Noisy-channel prediction: inferring deletions should be intrinsically easier than inferring insertions!

Five alternations in an insertion/deletion model



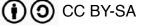
(Gibson et al., 2013)

In the real world (2008)

I'm not going to solely blame all of man's activities on changes in climate.



Sarah Palin (images credit Gage Skidmore)



I'm not one to attribute every activity of man to climate change.

(Credit to Colin Phillips for bringing these examples to light)

Corpora of speech errors

John dropped his cuff of coffee

Anticipations

reek long race

Perseverations

Spanish speaping people

John gave the goy (=gave the boy)

teep a cape (=keep a tape)

Exchanges the nipper is zarrow

Fancy getting your model renosed (=nose remodeled)

(Fromkin, 1971; Garrett, 1975, inter alia)

Revisiting the possibility of exchanges

This is a problem that I need to talk about Joe with.

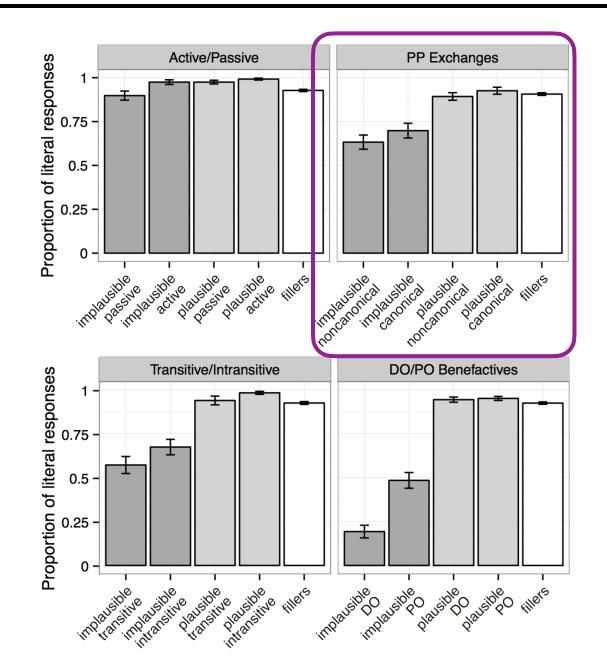
- An occasional speech error of mine that I've noticed for years, but that no one ever notices me make
- Extraordinarily unlikely under an insertions/deletions noise model
- But reasonably likely if word *exchanges* are admitted

The package fell from the table to the floor. [plausible; canonical] The package fell to the floor from the table. [plausible; non-canonical] The package fell from the floor to the table. [implausible; canonical] The package fell to the table from the floor. [implausible; non-canonical]

Did something fall to the floor?

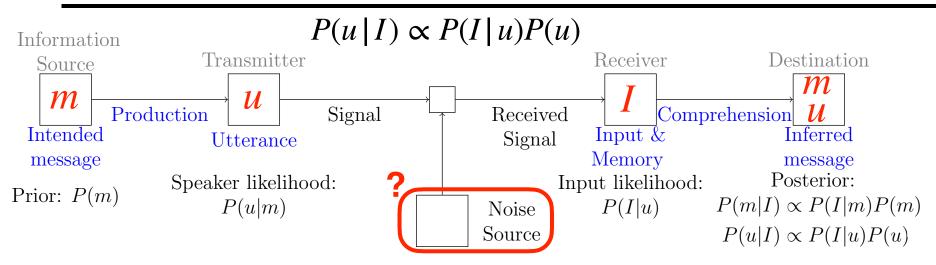
(Poppels & Levy 2016)

Exchanges in the noise model



(Poppels & Levy 2016)

Probing inferred intended utterances



Experiment "cover story": read transcriptions of speech that might have errors, retype with edits if they think the speaker might have meant something else

The ball kicked the girl. The judge gave the athlete to the prize.

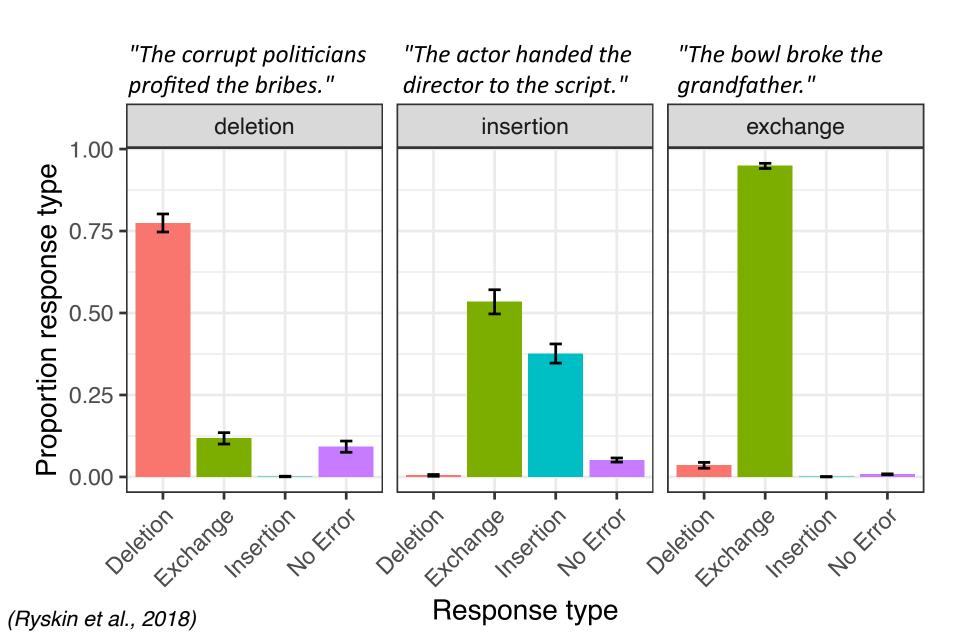
The ball kicked the girl. The judge gave the athlete the prize.
No error Insertion

The girl kicked the ball. The judge gave the athlete a prize.
Exchange Insertion

The ball was kicked by the girl. The judge gave the prize to the athlete.
Deletion
Exchange

(Ryskin et al., 2018)

Probing inferred intended utterances



Noisy-channel interpretation summary

- The noisy-channel framework suggests investigating global interpretations as well as incremental processing
- "Non-literal" interpretations can be very frequent for the right stimuli
- Interpretations broadly follow Bayesian principle of tradeoff between prior and likelihood
 - Deletions easier to infer than insertions
 - Higher grammatical error rate in environment→more nonliteral inference
 - More implausible sentences in environment→less nonliteral inference
- However, status of exchange errors in the noise model remains a mystery

Structural Forgetting and the Noisy Channel

1. The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

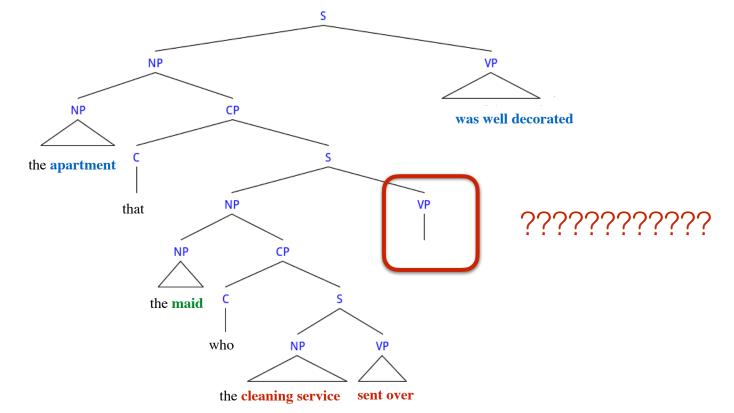
2. The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated.

(Futrell & Levy, 2017; Futrell et al., 2020)

Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.



Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.

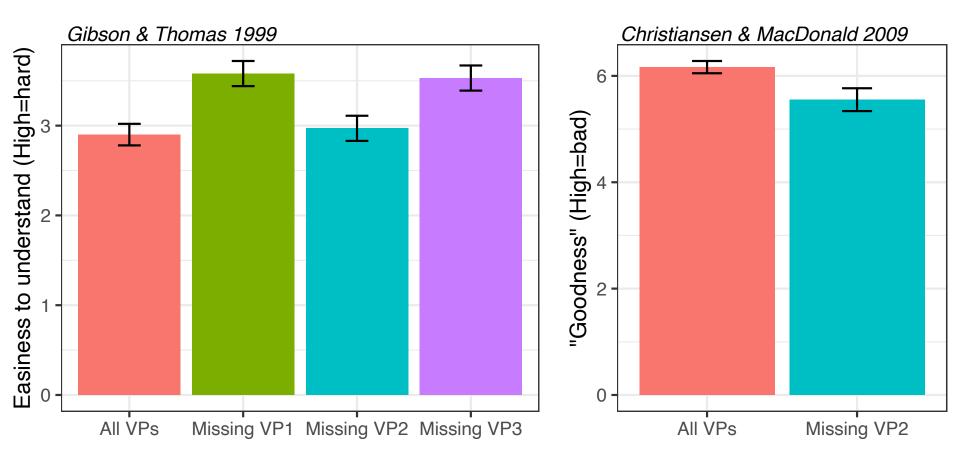
- **Structural forgetting effect**: part of the sentence is forgotten by the time you get to the end (Gibson & Thomas, 1999; Frazier, 1985; Fodor, p.c.)
- The ungrammatical sentence seems better than the grammatical one.
 - A "grammaticality illusion": how could we define grammaticality in this case?

Gibson & Thomas 1999: whole-sentence reading

The ancient manuscript that the graduate student who the new card catalog had confused a great deal was studying in the library was missing a page.

Christiansen & MacDonald 2009: word-by-word self-paced reading, follows by rating

The chef who the waiter who the busboy offended appreciated admired the musicians.



Structural Forgetting

- 1. *Die Wahrung, die UtseZinaid erhoäthehele ad ingleervice Reiniguen gsdienst lübersaatette., der gut eingerichtet.
- 2. Die Wahrtung t die titse Ziraich er hoäthehelman die gleervice Recitniguengs die erste Waersechelde creinigde, Far gut eingerichtet.
- But the effect is **language-dependent** (Vasishth et al., 2010; Frank et al., 2016).
 - In German (and Dutch), people prefer 2 over 1.
- What is the difference between English and German?
- Frank et al. (2016) show that at recurrent neural network gives higher probability to (1) in English, but (2) in German.
 - But why?

Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.

- These contexts are more common in German than English (Roland et al., 2007).
 - English: the maid [that <u>cleaned</u> the apartment]
 80% the apartment [that the maid <u>cleaned</u>]
 20%
 - German: das Dienstmädchen, [das die Wohnung <u>reinigte</u>] die Wohnung, [die das Dienstmädchen <u>reinigte</u>]

 Structural forgetting means the ungrammatical sentence with two verbs is easier to process than the grammatical sentence with three verbs:

C The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service NOUN THAT NOUN THAT NOUN VERB VERB (sent over was well-decorated.) < NOUN (2TNATESOUN THAT VERBS) VERB VERB VERB) C (The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated.)

C(2 VERBS) < C(3 VERBS)



- Correct noise based on prior about the language.
- Higher probability for verb-final RCs in German,
 - so more likely to make the right prediction.

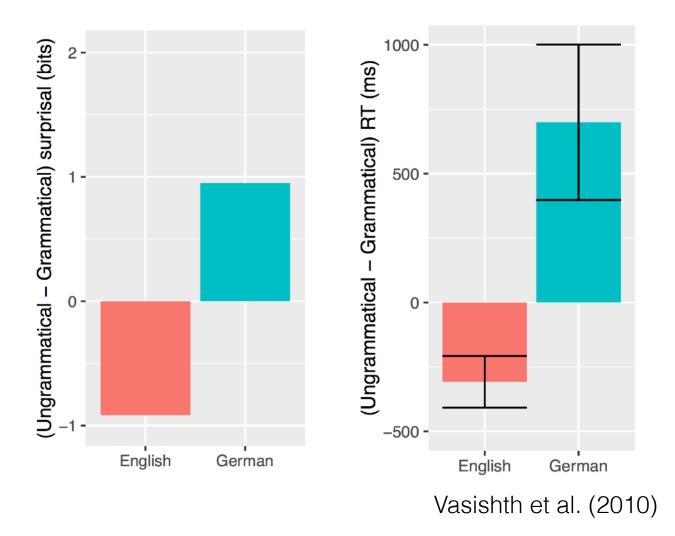
• Futrell & Levy (2017) demonstrate that this works for toy grammars of English and German.

Rule	Probability
S -> NP verb	1
NP -> noun	1- <i>m</i>
NP -> NOUN RC	mr
NP -> NOUN PP	<i>m</i> (1- <i>r</i>)
PP -> prep NP	1
$RC \rightarrow THAT VERB NP$	S
RC -> that NP verb	1- <i>s</i>

Plus **deletion noise**: every token in the context is forgotten (deleted) with probability d

- Setting the verb-final RC rate to 100% for German and 20% for English (Roland et al., 2007),
- we find surprisal differences matching the forgetting effect:

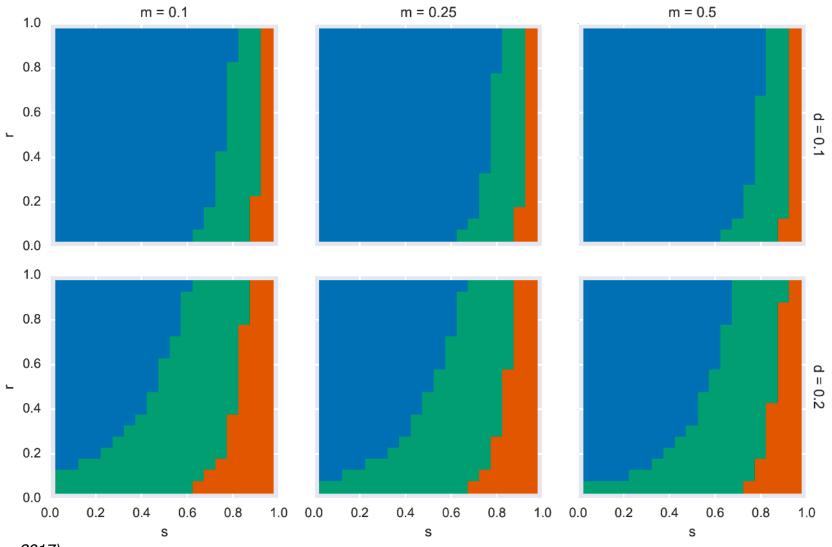
Ungrammatical – Grammatical) surprisal (bits) English German



Robustness to choice of model parameters

= English+German-like pattern

- *m* Modifier probability
- *s* Probability of English RC being verb-final
- d Probability of context token deletion



(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

- Probability that a context is remembered depends on its prior probability.
 - Noisy-context surprisal *explains* the behavior of the RNN in Frank et al. (2016): the RNN is using a lossily compressed / noisy representation of context.
- The model has an explicit grammar (competence), but cannot apply it correctly (performance).

Structural Forgetting and the Noisy Channel

1. The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated.

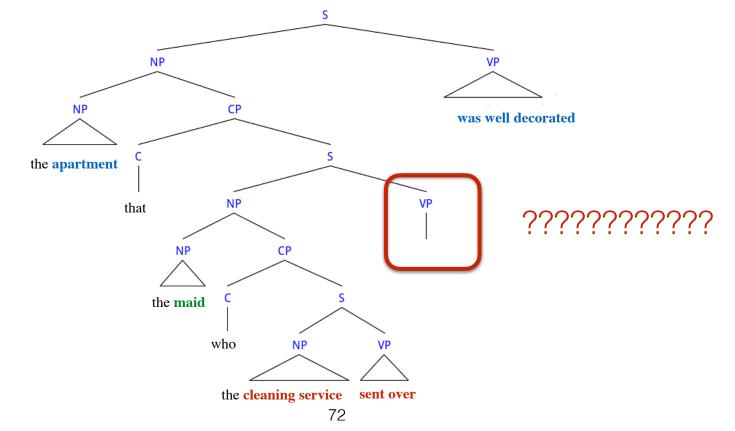


(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.



Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.

- **Structural forgetting effect**: part of the sentence is forgotten by the time you get to the end (Gibson & Thomas, 1999; Frazier, 1985; Fodor, p.c.)
- The ungrammatical sentence seems better than the grammatical one.
 - A "grammaticality illusion": how could we define grammaticality in this case?

Structural Forgetting

- 1. *Die Wahrung, die titse Ziraid er hoäthehele ad in gleervice Reinigen gsdienst lübersaatete., der gut eingerichtet.
- 2. Die Wahrtung t die titse Ziraich er hoäthehelman die gleervice Recitniguengs die erste Was recht die creinigte, Far gut eingerichtet.
- But the effect is **language-dependent** (Vasishth et al., 2010; Frank et al., 2016).
 - In German (and Dutch), people prefer 2 over 1.
- What is the difference between English and German?
- Frank et al. (2016) show that at recurrent neural network gives higher probability to (1) in English, but (2) in German.
 - But why?

Structural Forgetting

1. *The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over was well-decorated.

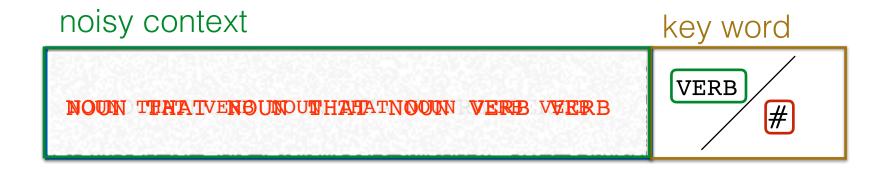
2. The **apartment** that the **maid** who the **cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated**.

- These contexts are more common in German than English (Roland et al., 2007).
 - English: the maid [that <u>cleaned</u> the apartment]
 80% the apartment [that the maid <u>cleaned</u>]
 20%
 - German: das Dienstmädchen, [das die Wohnung <u>reinigte</u>] die Wohnung, [die das Dienstmädchen <u>reinigte</u>]

 Structural forgetting means the ungrammatical sentence with two verbs is easier to process than the grammatical sentence with three verbs:

C The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service NOUN THAT NOUN THAT NOUN VERB VERB < sent over was well-decorated. NOUN (2TNATESOUN THAT VERBS) VERB VERB VERB) C (The apartment that the maid who the cleaning service sent over cleaned was well-decorated.)

C(2 VERBS) < C(3 VERBS)



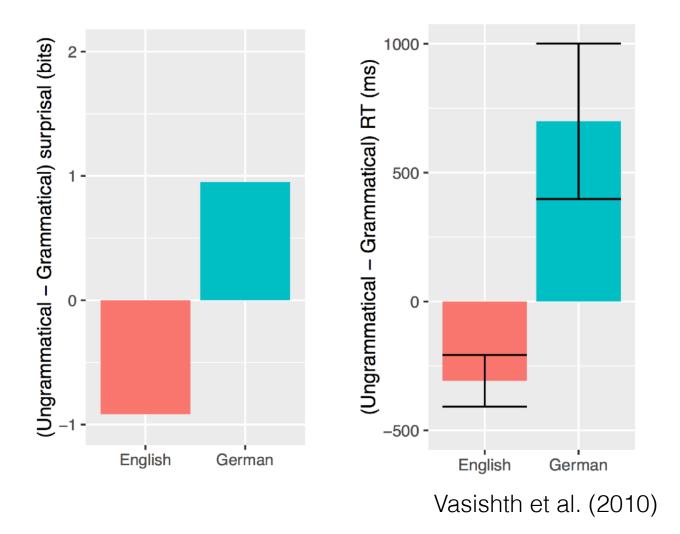
- Correct noise based on prior about the language.
- Higher probability for verb-final RCs in German,
 - so more likely to make the right prediction.

• We demonstrate that this works for toy grammars of English and German.

Rule	Probability
S -> NP verb	1
NP -> noun	1- <i>m</i>
NP -> NOUN RC	mr
NP -> NOUN PP	<i>m</i> (1- <i>r</i>)
PP -> prep NP	1
$RC \rightarrow THAT VERB NP$	S
RC -> that NP verb	1- <i>s</i>

- Setting the verb-final RC rate to 100% for German and 20% for English (Roland et al., 2007),
- we find surprisal differences matching the forgetting effect:

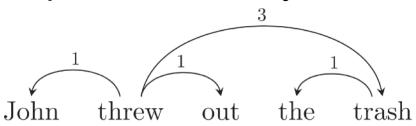
Ungrammatical – Grammatical) surprisal (bits) English German



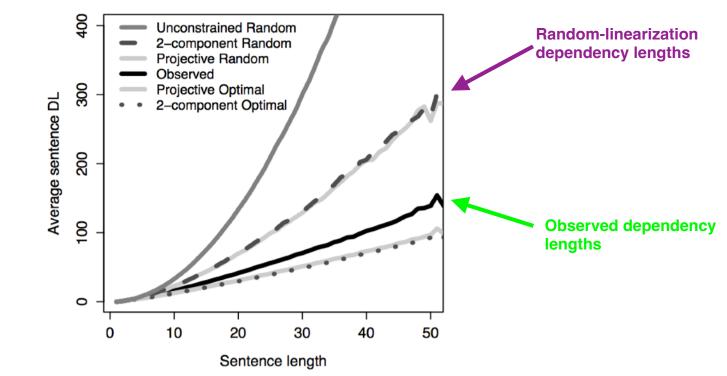
- Probability that a context is remembered depends on its prior probability.
 - Noisy-context surprisal *explains* the behavior of the RNN in Frank et al. (2016): the RNN is using a lossily compressed / noisy representation of context.
- The model has an explicit grammar (competence), but cannot apply it correctly (performance).

Dependency length and noisy-channel surprisal

• Syntactic dependencies vary in linear distance

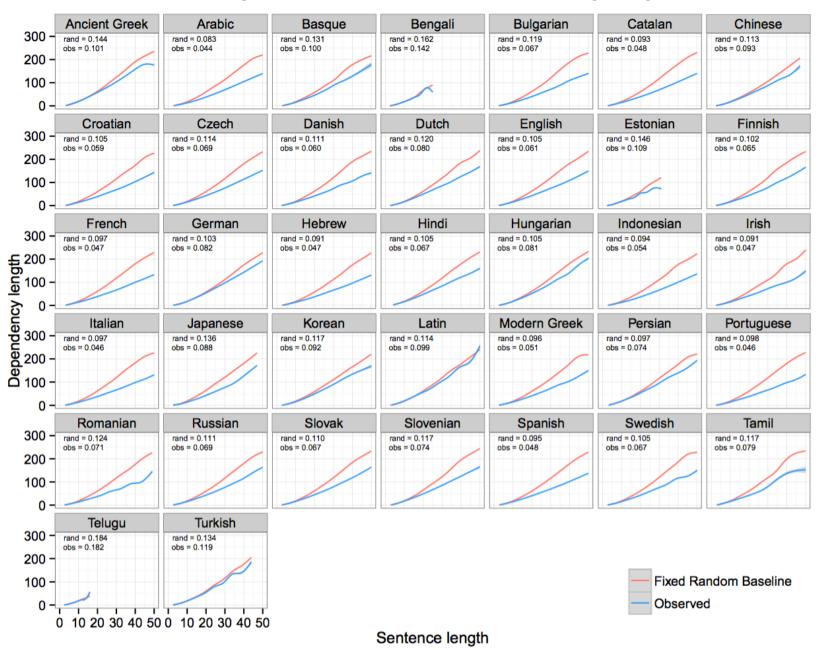


Idea with long history: short dependencies preferred



(Hawkins, 1994; Gibson, 1998, 2000; Gildea & Temperley, 2007, 2009; Park & Levy, 2009; Futrell et al., 2015)

Dependency lengths are short across languages!



Dependency lengths and the noisy channel

• Here: dependency length minimization can be derived from a combination of surprisal & noisy-channel theory



Richard Futrell

(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

From noisy-channel & surprisal to dependency length minimization

noisy context

John threw the old trash sitting in the second	out
--	-----

- Suppose we have an **increasing noise rate** the longer a word has been in memory.
- When "threw" is far from "out", then it is less likely to reduce the surprisal of "out": more likely to be affected by noise.
- Noisy-context surprisal increases when words that predict each other are far apart.
- We call this **information locality** (following Gildea & Jaeger, 2015).

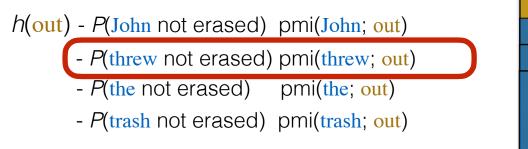
Derivation of Information Locality

• Erasure noise decreases the influence of context:

$$C(w|\text{context}) \approx h(w) - \sum_{w' \in \text{context}} P(w' \text{ not erased}) \text{pmi}(w; w')$$



John threw the trash out



000011010101011001011010000111001111011100 0101010111101010010	
P(the not erased) pmi(the; out)	

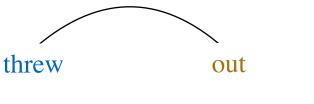
G

(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

Derivation of Information Locality

• Noise decreases the influence of context:

$$C(w|\text{context}) \approx h(w) - \sum_{w' \in \text{context}} P(w' \text{ not erased}) \text{pmi}(w; w')$$



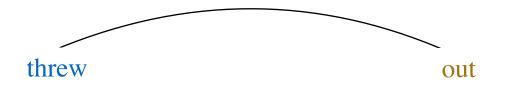
h(out) - *P*(threw not erased) pmi(threw; out)

С

Derivation of Information Locality

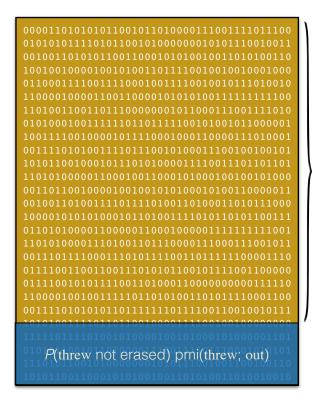
• Noise decreases the influence of context:

$$C(w|\text{context}) \approx h(w) - \sum_{w' \in \text{context}} P(w' \text{ not erased}) \text{pmi}(w; w')$$



h(**out**) - *P*(**threw** not erased) pmi(**threw**; **out**)

- When context items are far, their cost-reducing influence decreases.
 - Similar to the concept of decay in cue effectiveness (Qian & Jaeger, 2012)

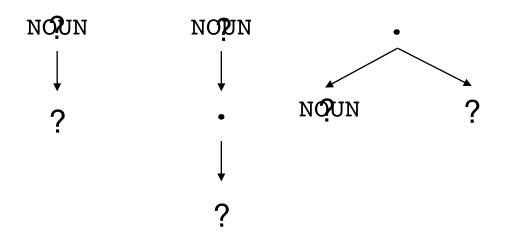


(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

Information Locality

- **Information locality:** prediction of processing difficulty when words that predict each other (have high mutual information) are far apart.
- How does this relate to **dependency locality**?
- Hypothesis: Words in syntactic dependencies have high mutual information.
 - If this is true, then we can see dependency locality effects as a subset of information locality effects.
- We will show that the hypothesis is true in dependency corpora.

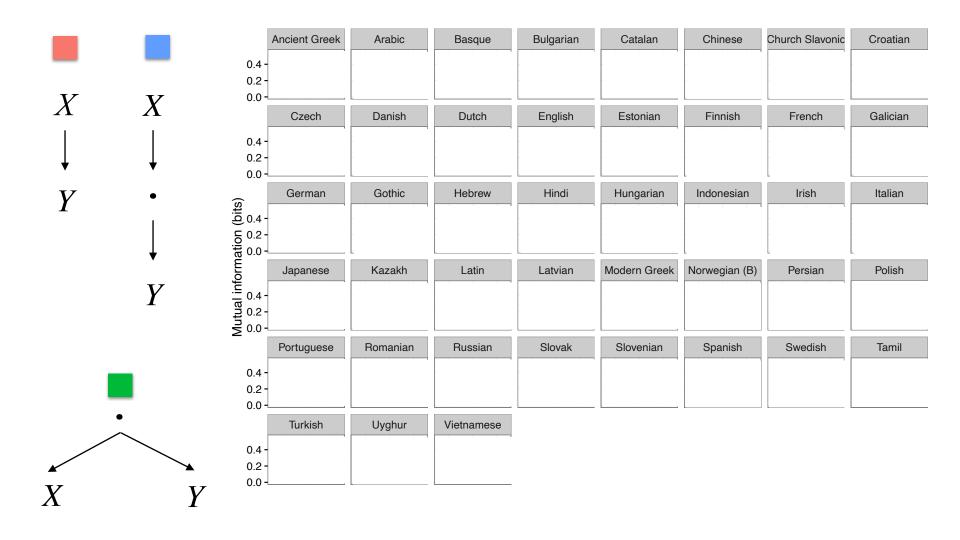
Do Dependencies Have High Mutual Information?



• We calculated mutual information values over part-of-speech tags for pairs of words in the UD corpora.

(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

Do Dependencies Have High Mutual Information?



(Futrell & Levy, 2017)

Comprehension as exploration of input

- Broader ongoing goal: develop eye-movement control model integrating the insights discussed thus far:
 - Probabilistic linguistic knowledge
 - Uncertain input representations
 - Principles of adaptive, rational action
- *Reinforcement learning* is an attractive tool for this

(Bicknell & Levy, 2010, 2012ab)

A rational reader

- Very simple framework:
 - Start w/ prior expectations for text (linguistic knowledge)
 - Move eyes to get perceptual input
 - Update beliefs about text as visual arrives (Bayes' Rule)
- Add to that:
 - Set of *actions* the reader can take in discrete time
 - A *behavior policy*: how the model decides between actions

A first-cut behavior policy

- Actions: *keep fixating; move the eyes*; or *stop reading*
- Simple behavior policy with two parameters: α and β
- Define confidence in a character position as the probability of the most likely character

From the closet, she pulled out a *acket for the upcoming game

P(jacket)=0.38
P(racket)=0.59
P(packet)=0.02

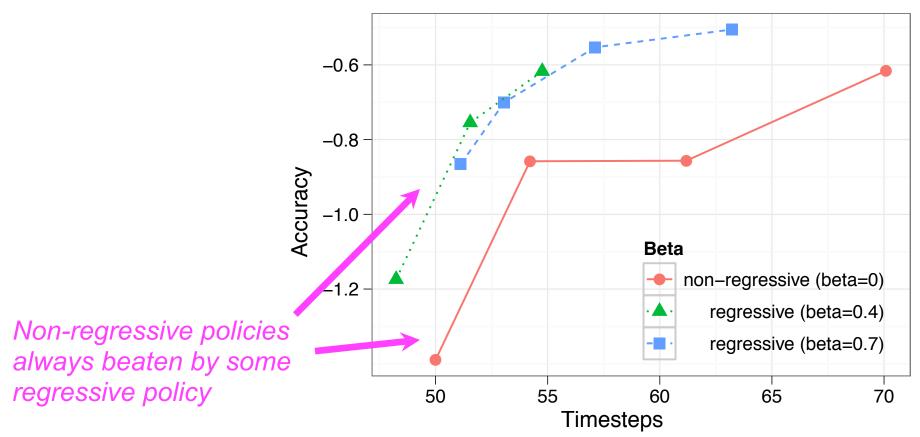
 Move left to right, bringing up confidence in each character position until it reaches α

Confidence=0.59

- If confidence in a previous character position drops below β, regress to it
- Finish reading when you're confident in everything

(Non)-regressive policies

- Non-regressive policies have $\beta=0$
- Hypothesis: non-regressive policies strictly dominated
- Test: estimate *speed* and *accuracy* of various policies on reading the the Schilling et al. (1998) corpus



Goal-based adaptation

- Open frontier: modeling the adaptation of eye movements to specific reader goals
- We set a *reward function:* relative value y of speed (finish reading in T timesteps) versus accuracy (guess correct sentence with probability L)
- PEGASUS simplex-based optimization (Ng & Jordan, 2000)

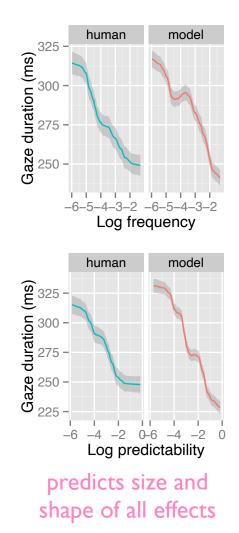
Y	α	β
0.025		
0.1		
0.4		

• The method works, and gives intuitive results

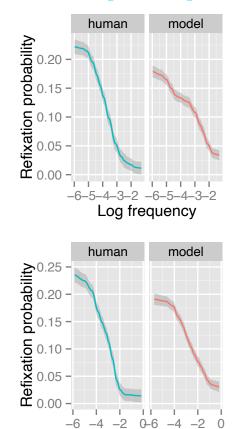
(Bicknell & Levy, 2010)

Empirical match with human reading

• Benchmark measures in eye-movement modeling:

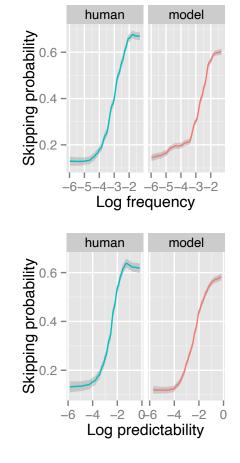


frequency



Log predictability

predictability



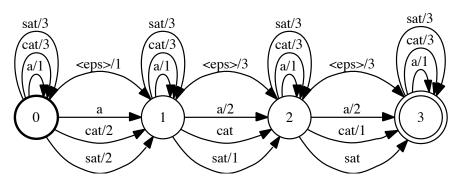
Bicknell & Levy (2012)

Success at empirical benchmarks

- Other models (E-Z Reader, SWIFT) get these too, but *stipulate* rel'nship between word properties & "processing rate"
- We derive these relationships from simple principles of noisy-channel perception and rational action

Noisy-channel processing: summary

- Noisy-channel models help us understand
 - Basic capabilities of human language comprehension
 - Outstanding puzzles in syntactic processing
- These models open up a rich typology of new sentence processing effects
- There is growing evidence for these effects
- These models pose new theoretical opportunities and architectural challenges for the study of human linguistic cognition



References I

Bergen, L., Levy, R., & Gibson, E. (2012). Verb omission errors: Evidence of rational processing of noisy language inputs. In Proceedings of the 34th annual meeting of the Cognitive Science Society (pp. 1320–1325). Bever, T. (1970). The cognitive basis for linguistic structures. In J. Hayes (Ed.), Cognition and the development of language (pp. 279–362). New York: John Wiley & Sons. Bicknell, K., & Levy, R. (2010). A rational model of eye movement control in reading. In Proceedings of the 48th annual meeting of the Association for Computational *Linguistics* (pp. 1168–1178). Uppsala, Sweden. Bicknell, K., & Levy, R. (2012a). Why long words take longer to read: The role of uncertainty about word length. In Proceedings of the 3rd annual workshop on Cognitive Modeling and Computational Linguistics (pp. 21–30).

References II

Bicknell, K., & Levy, R. (2012b). Word predictability and frequency effects in a rational model of reading. In Proceedings of the 34th annual meeting of the Cognitive Science Society (pp. 126–131). Sapporo, Japan. Booth, T. L. (1969). Probabilistic representation of formal languages. In IEEE conference record of the 1969 tenth annual symposium on switching and automata theory (pp. 74–81). Crocker, M., & Brants, T. (2000). Wide-coverage probabilistic sentence processing. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 29(6), 647-669. Fodor, J. D. (2002). Psycholinguistics cannot escape prosody. In *Proceedings of the speech prosody conference*.

References IV

Futrell, R., & Levy, R. (2017). Noisy-context surprisal as a human sentence processing cost model. In *Proceedings* of the 15th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL) (pp. 688–698). Futrell, R., Mahowald, K., & Gibson, E. (2015). Large-scale evidence of dependency length minimization in 37 languages. Proceedings of the National Academy of *Sciences*, *112*(33), 10336–10341. Gibson, E. (1998). Linguistic complexity: Locality of syntactic dependencies. Cognition, 68, 1-76. Gibson, E. (2000). The dependency locality theory: A distance-based theory of linguistic complexity. In A. Marantz, Y. Miyashita, & W. O'Neil (Eds.), Image, language, brain (pp. 95–126). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

References V

Gibson, E., Bergen, L., & Piantadosi, S. T. (2013). Rational integration of noisy evidence and prior semantic expectations in sentence interpretation. *Proceedings of* the National Academy of Sciences, 110(20), 8051-8056. Gibson, E., & Thomas, J. (1999). The perception of complex 1 ungrammatical sentences as grammatical. Language & *Cognitive Processes*, *14*(3), 225–248. Gildea, D., & Jaeger, T. F. (2015). Human languages order information efficiently. CoRR, abs/1510.02823. arXiv: 1510.02823 Gildea, D., & Temperley, D. (2007). Optimizing grammars for minimum dependency length. In *Proceedings of the* annual meeting of the association for computational *linguistics*, Prague, Czech Republic. Gildea, D., & Temperley, D. (2010). Do grammars minimize dependency length? Cognitive Science, 34, 286-310.

References VI

Hale, J. (2001). A probabilistic Earley parser as a psycholinguistic model. In *Proceedings of the second meeting of the north american chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics* (pp. 159–166). Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

- Hale, J. (2006). Uncertainty about the rest of the sentence. *Cognitive Science*, *30*(4), 609–642.
- Hawkins, J. A. (2004). *Efficiency and complexity in grammars*. Oxford University Press.
- Itti, L., & Baldi, P. (2005). Bayesian surprise attracts human attention. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems.
- Jelinek, F., & Lafferty, J. D. (1991). Computation of the probability of initial substring generation by stochastic context free grammars. *Computational Linguistics*, *17*(3), 315–323.

References VII

Johnson, M. (1998). PCFG models of linguistic tree representations. Computational Linguistics, 24(4), 613-632. Klein, D., & Manning, C. D. (2003). Accurate unlexicalized parsing. In Proceedings of acl. Levy, R. (2008a). A noisy-channel model of rational human sentence comprehension under uncertain input. In Proceedings of the 13th conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (pp. 234–243). Waikiki, Honolulu. Levy, R. (2008b). Expectation-based syntactic comprehension. *Cognition*, *106*(3), 1126–1177.

References VIII

Levy, R. (2011). Integrating surprisal and uncertain-input models in online sentence comprehension: Formal techniques and empirical results. In Proceedings of the 49th annual meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (pp. 1055–1065). Levy, R. (2013). Memory and surprisal in human sentence comprehension. In R. P. G. van Gompel (Ed.), Sentence processing (pp. 78–114). Hove: Psychology Press. Levy, R., Bicknell, K., Slattery, T., & Rayner, K. (2009). Eye movement evidence that readers maintain and act on uncertainty about past linguistic input. *Proceedings of the* National Academy of Sciences, 106(50), 21086–21090. MacDonald, M. C. (1993). The interaction of lexical and syntactic ambiguity. Journal of Memory and Language, *32*, 692–715.

References IX

Mohri, M. (1997). Finite-state transducers in language and speech processing. *Computational Linguistics*, *23*(2), 269–311.

Park, Y. A., & Levy, R. (2009). Minimal-length linearizations for mildly context-sensitive dependency trees. In Proceedings of the 10th annual meeting of the North American chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (NAACL-HLT) conference (pp. 335–343). Boulder, Colorado, USA. Poppels, T., & Levy, R. (2016). Structure-sensitive noise inference: Comprehenders expect exchange errors. In Proceedings of the 38th annual meeting of the Cognitive Science Society (pp. 378–383). Roland, D., Dick, F., & Elman, J. L. (2007). Frequency of basic English grammatical structures: A corpus analysis.

Journal of Memory and Language, 57, 348–379.

References X

Smith, N. J., & Levy, R. (2013). The effect of word predictability on reading time is logarithmic. *Cognition*, 128(3), 302-319. Staub, A. (2007). The parser doesn't ignore intransitivity, after all. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, & Cognition, 33(3), 550–569. Stolcke, A. (1995). An efficient probabilistic context-free parsing algorithm that computes prefix probabilities. Computational Linguistics, 21(2), 165–201. Tabor, W., Galantucci, B., & Richardson, D. (2004). Effects of merely local syntactic coherence on sentence processing. Journal of Memory and Language, 50(4), 355–370. Tanenhaus, M. K., Spivey-Knowlton, M. J., Eberhard, K., & Sedivy, J. C. (1995). Integration of visual and linguistic information in spoken language comprehension. Science, 268, 1632–1634.

References XI



Vasishth, S., Suckow, K., Lewis, R. L., & Kern, S. (2010). Short-term forgetting in sentence comprehension: Crosslinguistic evidence from verb-final structures. *Language & Cognitive Processes*, *25*(4), 533–567.