

Probabilistic Graphical Models

Lecture 5: Conditional Random Fields

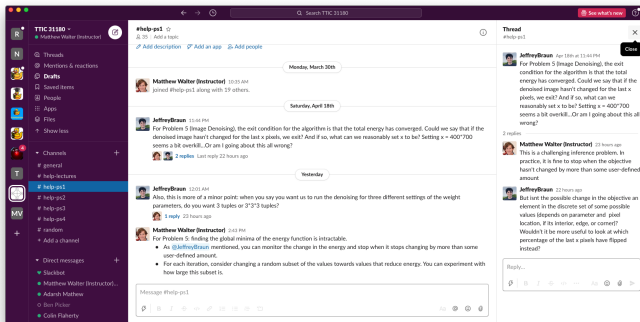
Matthew Walter

TTI-Chicago

April 21, 2020

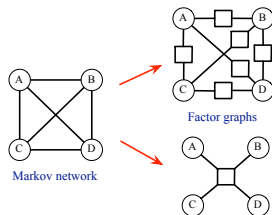
Problem Set 1 and Slack

- See Canvas for updates on Problem Set 1
- Don't forget to join the Slack channel `#help-ps1`
- See Slack channel for discussion and hints



Factor Graphs (Revisited)

- The Markov network H does not make explicit the structure of the distribution, i.e., maximum cliques vs. complete graph subsets
- A **factor graph** is a bipartite undirected graph with variable nodes (oval) and factor nodes (square). Edges exist only between variable nodes and factor nodes
- Each factor node is associated with a single potential, the scope of which is the variables that are the factor's neighbors



- Distribution is the same as an MRF, just a different data structure

Boltzmann Distribution (Revisited)

- We can rewrite a factor $\phi(\mathbf{D}) : \text{Val}(\mathbf{D}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ as

$$\phi(\mathbf{D}) = \exp(-\psi(\mathbf{D}))$$

where $\psi(\mathbf{D}) = -\log \phi(\mathbf{D})$ is the **energy function** (not surprisingly, derived from statistical physics)

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$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{k=1}^K \exp(-\psi_k(\mathbf{D}_k)) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\sum_{k=1}^K \psi_k(\mathbf{D}_k)\right)$$

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- $\sum_{k=1}^K \psi_k(\mathbf{D}_k)$ is referred to as the “free energy”
- Gives rise to interpretation as energy minimization

$$\arg \max P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \arg \min \sum_{k=1}^K \psi_k(\mathbf{D}_k)$$

Log-Linear Markov Networks with Features (Revisited)

- A **feature** is a function $f : \text{Val}(\mathbf{D}_i) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- A distribution P is a **log-linear model** over a Markov network H if it is associated with
 - A set of features $\mathbf{F} = \{f_1(\mathbf{D}_1), \dots, f_K(\mathbf{D}_M)\}$ where \mathbf{D}_i is a complete subgraph in H
 - A set of weights $\{w_1, \dots, w_M\}$

such that

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) \propto \exp \left(- \sum_{i=1}^M w_i f_i(\mathbf{D}_i) \right)$$

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- Multiple features can be defined over the same variables
- Log-linear model can represent tabular potentials, but is more general
- Features and weights can be reused for different factors
- Historically, features designed by hand and weights learned from data

Example: Stereo Vision



Left Image



Right Image

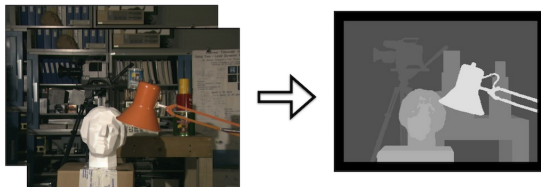
Example: Stereo Vision



Disparity Image

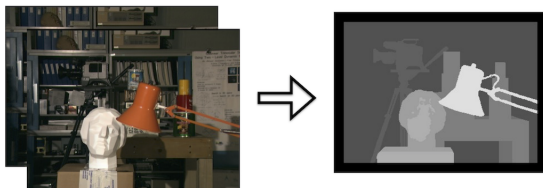
- Dense stereo reconstruction: For every pixel (i_l, j_l) in left image, we are interested in the image-space distance (**disparity**) y_{i_l, j_l} to the corresponding pixel (i_r, j_r) in the right image

Example: Stereo Vision



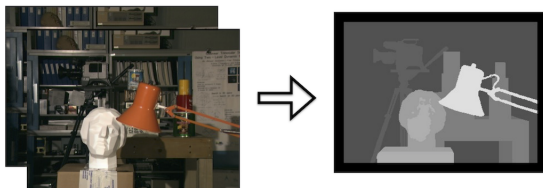
- We could model this as a Markov random field

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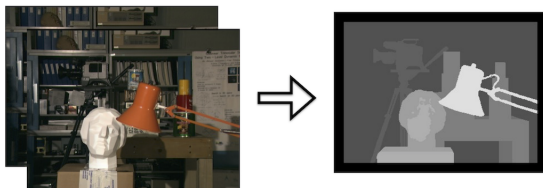
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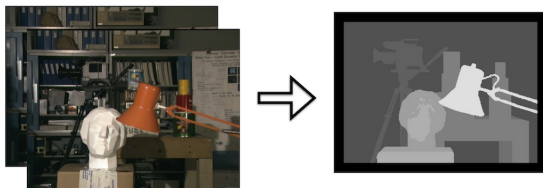
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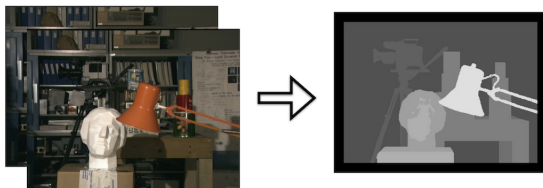
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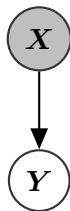
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 - Both involve a (conditional) distribution over natural images!!!
- Requires that we choose a parametric form over the pixel values
- Non-local features (e.g., image gradients) are useful, but difficult to capture with a joint distribution

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Let X denote the input/observation (e.g., an image) and Y be the output (e.g., disparity, label, etc.)
- Flexibility in the structure and parametrization of the model



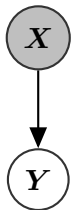
Discriminative



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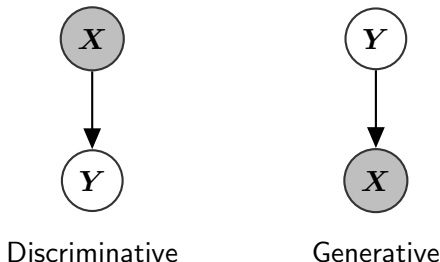


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- Discriminative models are concerned with modeling $P(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$, where $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ is treated as a parameter

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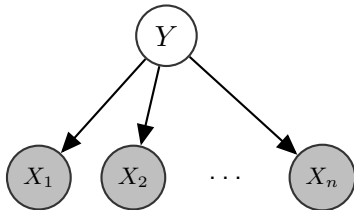
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- Discriminative models are concerned with modeling $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$, where $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ is treated as a parameter
- Generative models are interested in the joint distribution $P(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = P(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{Y})P(\mathbf{Y})$
 - $P(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{Y})$: Given the target label, generate the input

Generative vs. Discriminative Classifiers: Naive Bayes

- Classify e-mails as being spam ($Y = 1$) or not spam ($Y = 0$)
 - Let $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ index English words
 - $X_i = 1$ if word i appears in the e-mail
 - E-mails are drawn from the joint distribution $P(Y, X_1, \dots, X_n)$
- Words are conditionally independent (d-separated) given Y

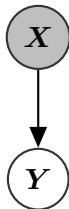


- Prediction follows via Bayes' Rule as

$$P(Y = 1 | x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{P(Y = 1) \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | Y = 1)}{\sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} P(Y = y) \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | Y = y)}$$

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- These are **equivalent** models of $P(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X})$



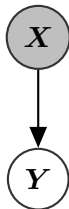
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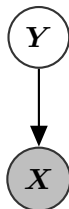
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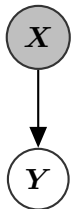


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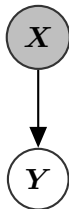


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- A **generative** model requires representing both $P(\mathbf{Y})$ and $P(\mathbf{X} | \mathbf{Y})$
 - Generative, since we can *generate* X given Y
 - $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X})$ is determined via Bayes' Rule

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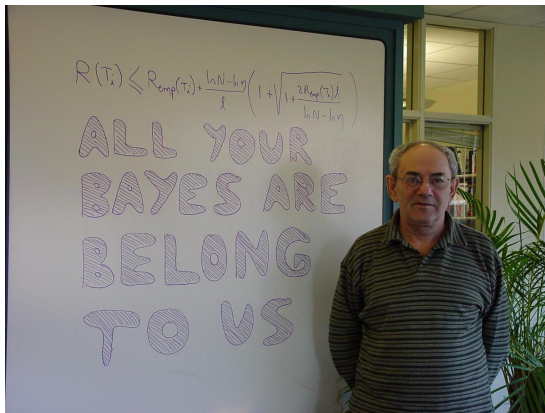
Discriminative



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 - Generative, since we can *generate* \mathbf{X} given \mathbf{Y}
 - $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X})$ is determined via Bayes' Rule
- A **discriminative** model only requires a representation of the conditional distribution $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X})$
 - Discriminative, since we can *discriminate* between different \mathbf{Y}
 - We never need to estimate $P(\mathbf{X})$ (which can be hard)

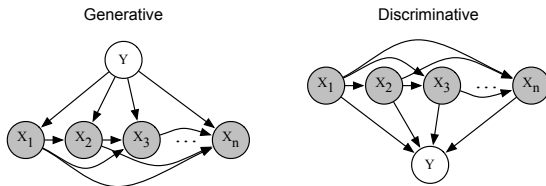
Generative vs. Discriminative Models



“one should solve the (classification) problem directly and never solve a more general problem as an intermediate step” (Vapnik, 1998)

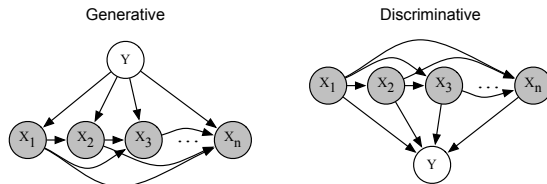
Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- For the two models to be equivalent, we need:



Generative vs. Discriminative Models

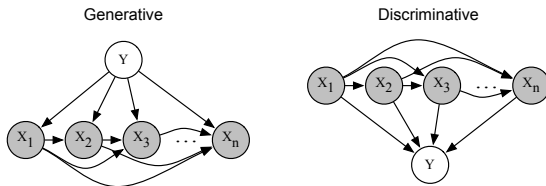
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 - Generative model: How do we parametrize $P(X_i | \text{Pa}_{X_i}^G, \mathbf{Y})$?

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

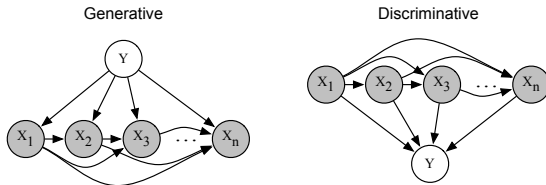
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Can be hard (e.g., distribution over $(3 \times 255)^{640 \times 480}$ pixel intensities)

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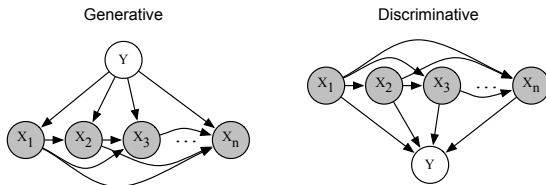
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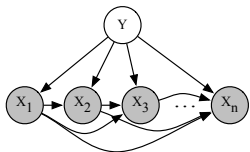


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 - Discriminative model: How do we parametrize $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X})$?
Allows us to ignore encoding distribution over \mathbf{X}

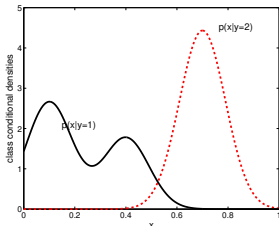
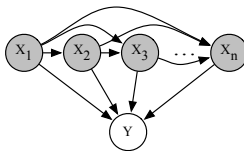
Generative vs. Discriminative Models

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Generative



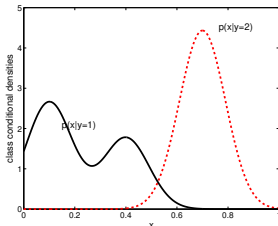
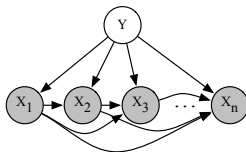
Discriminative



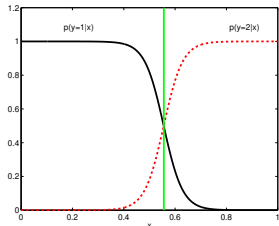
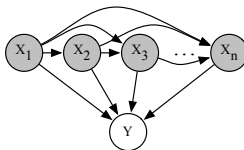
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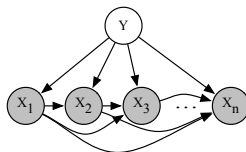


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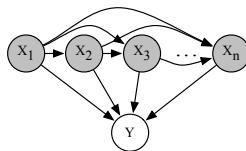
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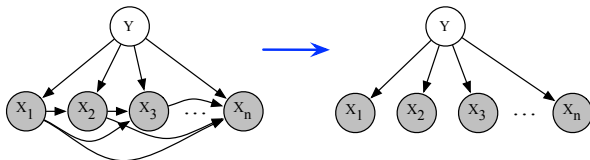


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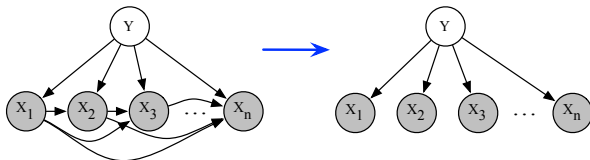
Generative vs. Discriminative Models

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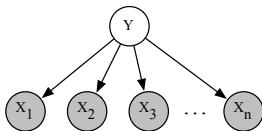


- For the discriminative model, assume that

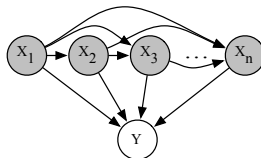
$$\begin{aligned} P(Y = 1 | \mathbf{x}; w) &= \frac{e^{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}}{1 + e^{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \quad \text{logistic function} \end{aligned}$$

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

Generative (naive Bayes)



Discriminative (logistic regression)



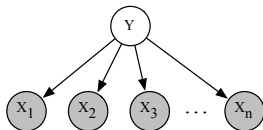
- 1 For the generative model, ignore the dependencies: assume that $X_i \perp \mathbf{X}_{-i} \mid \mathbf{Y}$ (naive Bayes)
- 2 For the discriminative model, assume that

$$P(Y = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}; w) = \frac{e^{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}}{1 + e^{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w_0 - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}}$$

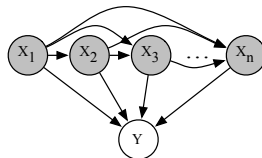
- We can show (problem set) that the first assumption implies the latter
- Every conditional distribution that can be represented via naive Bayes can also be represented using the logistic model

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

Generative (naive Bayes)



Discriminative (logistic regression)



- Unlike naive Bayes, logistic models don't assume $X_i \perp \mathbf{X}_{-i} \mid \mathbf{Y}$
- Ignoring dependencies results in double-counting evidence, e.g.,
 - Suppose that $X_i = 1$ ("transaction" in e-mail) and $X_j = 1$ ("account" in e-mail)
 - Irrespective of being spam, these always occur together, i.e., $X_i = X_j$
 - Learning with naive Bayes ($P(X_i \mid \mathbf{Y}) = P(X_j \mid \mathbf{Y})$) double-counts evidence
 - Learning with logistic regression sets $w_i = 0$ for one of the words, thereby ignoring it

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Discriminative model requires that \mathbf{X} be fully observed
 - Generative models allow you to marginalize over unseen variables to compute $P(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}_o)$
- Maximum likelihood estimation of generative models is more efficient than training discriminative models [Ng and Jordan, 2002]¹
 - Consider number of samples necessary to get close to infinite data case
 - Logistic regression requires $\mathcal{O}(n)$ samples
 - Naive Bayes requires $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ samples
 - Naive Bayes converges with fewer samples, but not necessarily to better estimates

¹Ng and Jordan, "On Discriminative vs. Generative Classifiers: A Comparison of Logistic Regression and Naive Bayes," NeurIPS 2002

Generative vs. Discriminative Models

- Ng and Jordan (2002) show that discriminative logistic regression has lower asymptotic error than a generative naive Bayes classifier, but that naive Bayes converges faster

— Naive Bayes
- - - Logistic Regression

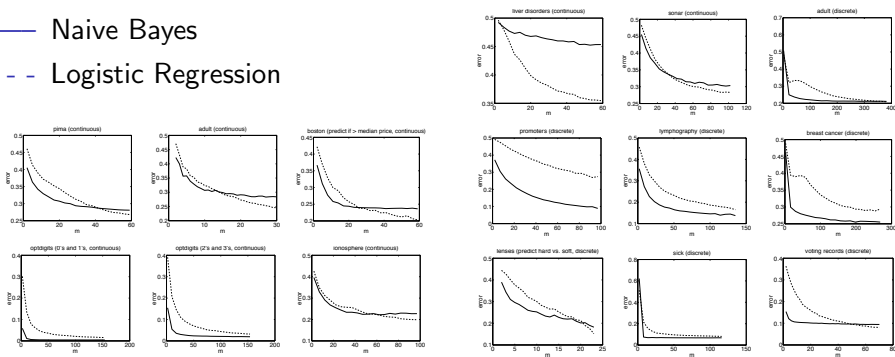
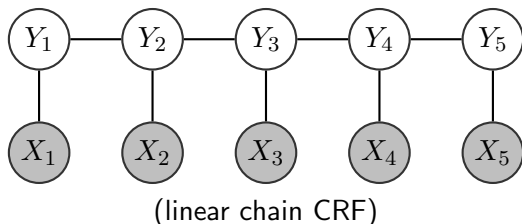


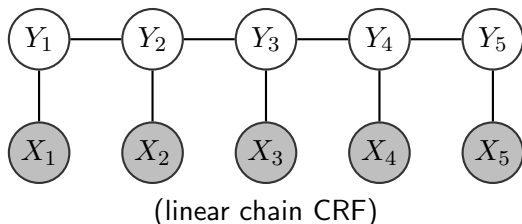
Figure: Error rate vs. number of samples for 15 datasets from the UCI Machine Learning repository. Courtesy: Ng and Jordan, 2002.

Conditional Random Fields



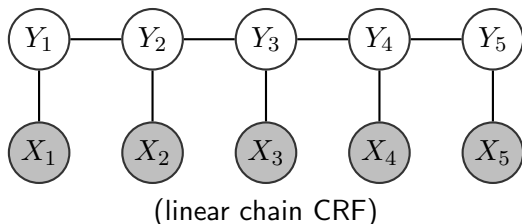
- Undirected graph with nodes for \mathbf{Y} (target variables) and \mathbf{X} (observed variables) (alt., partially directed, with \mathbf{X} the parent of \mathbf{Y})

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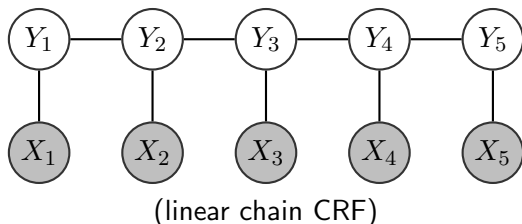
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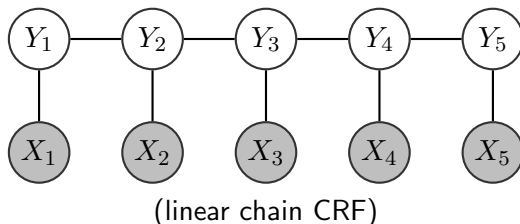
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- Represent conditional distribution $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X})$ rather than joint distribution $P(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X})$
- Avoid representing dist. over $\mathbf{X} \Rightarrow$ no potentials involving only \mathbf{X}

Conditional Random Fields



- A **conditional random field** (CRF) is an undirected graph H over \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} defined in terms of a set of factors $\phi_1(\mathbf{D}_1), \dots, \phi_m(\mathbf{D}_m)$, where $\mathbf{D}_i \not\subseteq \mathbf{X}$, that encodes the conditional distribution

$$P(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{X})} \prod_{i=1}^m \phi_i(\mathbf{D}_i)$$

$$Z(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Y}} \prod_{i=1}^m \phi_i(\mathbf{D}_i)$$

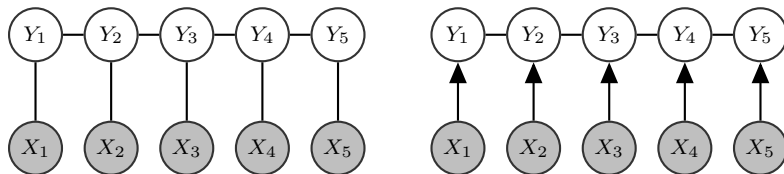
Conditional Random Fields

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- Two variables are connected by an undirected edge if they appear in the scope of the same factor
- Just like a Markov network, except the partition function depends on (i.e., changes with) the observed variables (input) \mathbf{X}
- Trained to maximize *conditional* (not joint) probability of the output given the input

Linear-Chain CRFs

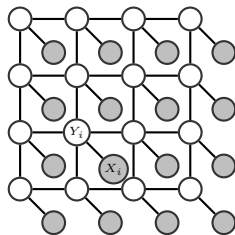


- The linear-chain CRF can be represented as an undirected (left) or partially directed graph (right)
- The conditional distribution factorizes as

$$P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{X})} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \phi(Y_i, Y_{i+1}) \prod_{i=1}^k \phi(Y_i, X_i)$$

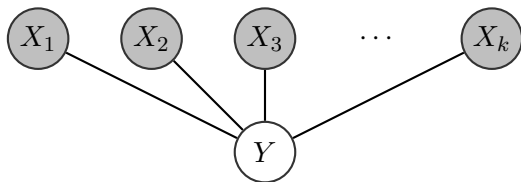
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Conditional Random Fields



- By not modeling the distribution over \mathbf{X} , we can consider representations of the data with complex, non-parametric interactions
- We can employ a rich set of features without concern over their joint distribution (e.g., image gradients)

Naive Markov Model

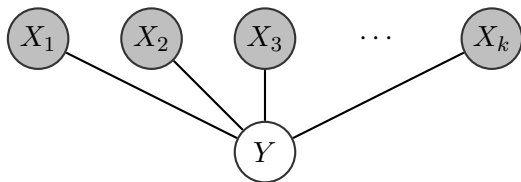


- Let $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k\}$ and Y be binary random variables
- Assume \mathbf{X} (observed) and Y are related by the following factors

$$\phi_0(Y) = \exp\{w_0 \mathbb{1}[Y = 1]\}$$

$$\phi_i(X_i, Y) = \exp\{w_i \mathbb{1}[X_i = 1, Y = 1]\}$$

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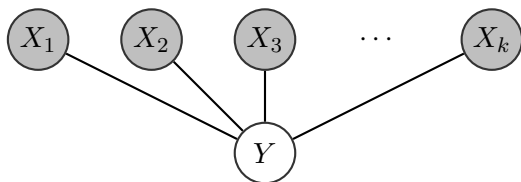
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- The conditional distribution becomes

$$\tilde{P}(Y = 1 | x_1, \dots, x_k) = \exp \left\{ w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i \right\}$$

$$\tilde{P}(Y = 0 | x_1, \dots, x_k) = 1$$

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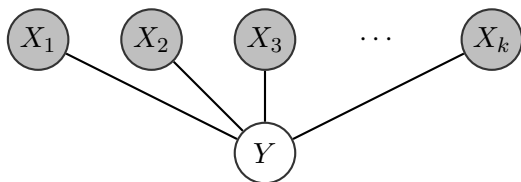
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$$P(Y = 1 | x_1, \dots, x_k) = \frac{\exp\left\{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i\right\}}{1 + \exp\left\{w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i\right\}} = \text{sigmoid}\left(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i\right)$$

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- Recall earlier discriminative (logistic regression) discussion

- Factors may depend on a large number of variables
- Typically, parametrize factors using log-linear representation

$$\phi_c(\mathbf{X}_c, \mathbf{Y}_c) = \exp \left(\mathbf{w}_c^\top \mathbf{f}_c(\mathbf{X}_c, \mathbf{Y}_c) \right)$$

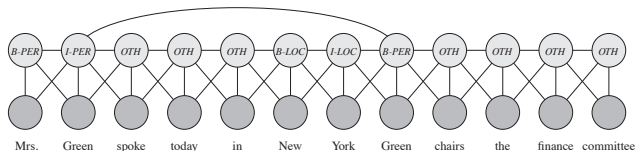
where

- $\mathbf{f}_c(\mathbf{X}_c, \mathbf{Y}_c)$ is a feature vector (e.g., local image gradients)
- \mathbf{w}_c is a weight vector that is learned from data

Example: Named Entity Recognition

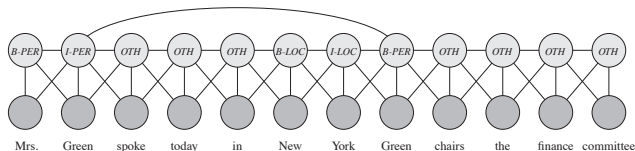
- Objective: Given a sentence, segment phrases into different locations, people, organizations, etc.
“Mrs. Green spoke today in New York Green chairs the finance committee”
- Entries often span multiple words and label isn't obvious without considering context
- Define a random variable Y_i for each word X_i that expresses its entity type (“BIO notation”)
 - B-PER/B-LOC: Beginning of a person/location
 - I-PER/I-LOC: Inside or end of named entity phrase for person/location
 - OTH: Word is not part of an entity

Example: Named Entity Recognition



Interested in $P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{X}) \Rightarrow$ Model as a CRF w/ three types of factors

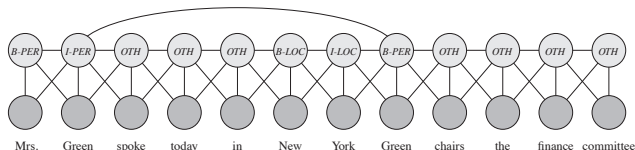
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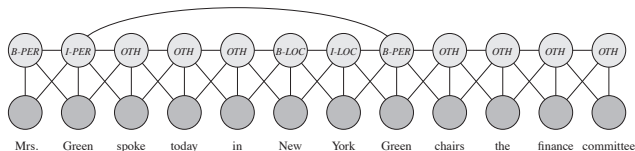
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 - $O(1000)$ features over current word X_t (e.g., capitalized), neighboring words, and entire sequence (e.g., number of sports-related words)

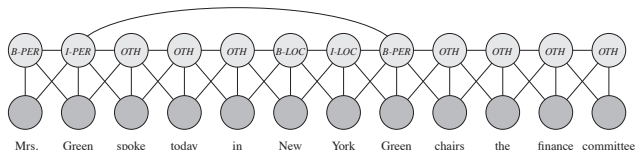
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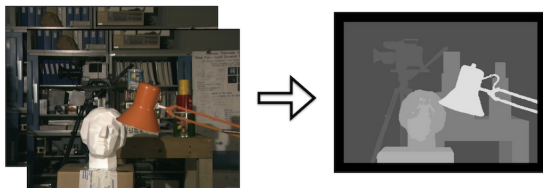


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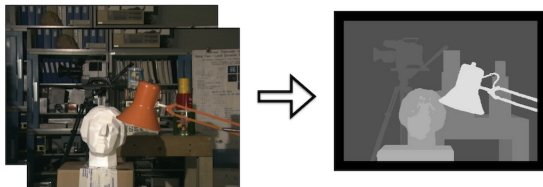
Graph structure changes depending on sentence

Example: Stereo Vision



- Given two images \mathbf{X}_l and \mathbf{X}_r , estimate the disparity $y_{i_l, j_l} \in \mathbf{Y}$ between a pixel at (i_l, j_l) in the left image and the corresponding pixel $(i_r, j_r) = (i_l + y_{i_l, j_l}, j_l)$ in the right image (assume 1D)

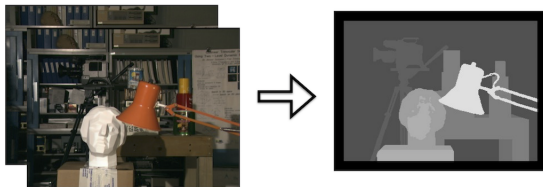
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- Define local node potential as

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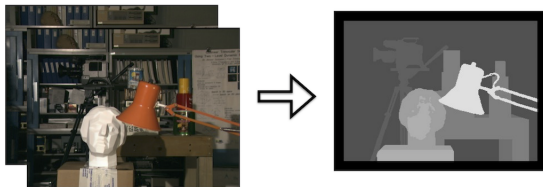
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- Define smoothness potential over neighboring pixels s and t

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Can be defined only for pairs s and t that don't cross boundaries

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- CRFs require labeled training data and are slower to train