Title: Conditional random field

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Supervised learning

Unsupervised learning

Semi-supervised learning

Self-supervised learning

Reinforcement learning

Meta-learning

Online learning

Batch learning

Curriculum learning

Rule-based learning

Neuro-symbolic Al

Neuromorphic engineering

Quantum machine learning

Classification

Generative modeling

Regression

Clustering

Dimensionality reduction

Density estimation

Anomaly detection

Data cleaning

AutoML

Association rules

Semantic analysis

Structured prediction

Feature engineering

Feature learning

Learning to rank

Grammar induction

Ontology learning

Multimodal learning

Apprenticeship learning
Decision trees
Ensembles Bagging Boosting Random forest
Bagging
Boosting
Random forest
k -NN
Linear regression
Naive Bayes
Artificial neural networks
Logistic regression
Perceptron
Relevance vector machine (RVM)
Support vector machine (SVM)
BIRCH
CURE
Hierarchical
k -means
Fuzzy
Expectation-maximization (EM)
DBSCAN
OPTICS
Mean shift
Factor analysis
CCA
ICA
LDA
NMF
PCA
PGD
t-SNE
SDL
Graphical models Bayes net Conditional random field Hidden Markov
Bayes net
Conditional random field
Hidden Markov
RANSAC
k -NN

Local outlier factor
Isolation forest
Autoencoder
Deep learning
Feedforward neural network
Recurrent neural network LSTM GRU ESN reservoir computing
LSTM
GRU
ESN
reservoir computing
Boltzmann machine Restricted
Restricted
GAN
Diffusion model
SOM
Convolutional neural network U-Net LeNet AlexNet DeepDream
U-Net
LeNet
AlexNet
DeepDream
Neural field Neural radiance field Physics-informed neural networks
Neural radiance field
Physics-informed neural networks
Transformer Vision
Vision
Mamba
Spiking neural network
Memtransistor
Electrochemical RAM (ECRAM)
Q-learning
Policy gradient
SARSA
Temporal difference (TD)
Multi-agent Self-play
Self-play
Active learning
Crowdsourcing
Human-in-the-loop

RLHF Coefficient of determination Confusion matrix Learning curve **ROC** curve Kernel machines Bias-variance tradeoff Computational learning theory Empirical risk minimization Occam learning **PAC** learning Statistical learning VC theory Topological deep learning **AAAI ECML PKDD NeurIPS ICML ICLR IJCAI** ML **JMLR** Glossary of artificial intelligence List of datasets for machine-learning research List of datasets in computer vision and image processing List of datasets in computer vision and image processing Outline of machine learning ٧ Conditional random fields (CRFs) are a class of statistical modeling methods often applied in pattern recognition and machine learning and used for structured prediction. Whereas a classifier predicts a label for a single sample without considering "neighbouring" samples, a CRF can take context into account. To do so, the predictions are modelled as a graphical model, which represents the presence of dependencies between the predictions. The kind of graph used depends on the application. For example, in natural language processing, "linear chain" CRFs are popular, for which each prediction is dependent only on its immediate neighbours. In image

processing, the graph typically connects locations to nearby and/or similar locations to enforce that

Mechanistic interpretability

they receive similar predictions.

Other examples where CRFs are used are: labeling or parsing of sequential data for natural language processing or biological sequences , part-of-speech tagging , shallow parsing , named entity recognition , gene finding , peptide critical functional region finding, and object recognition and image segmentation in computer vision .

Description

CRFs are a type of discriminative undirected probabilistic graphical model .

 $Lafferty \ , \ McCallum \ and \ Pereira \ define \ a \ CRF \ on \ observations \ X \ \{\ displaystyle \ \{\ boldsymbol \ \{Y\}\}\} \ as \ follows:$

Let G = (V, E) {\displaystyle G=(V,E)} be a graph such that $Y = (Y v) v \in V$ {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {Y}}=({\boldsymbol {Y}}_{v})_{v}), so that $Y \in V$ {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {Y}}} is indexed by the vertices of G {\displaystyle G}.

Then (X , Y) {\displaystyle ({\boldsymbol {X}},{\boldsymbol {Y}})} is a conditional random field when each random variable Y v {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {Y}}_{v}}, conditioned on X {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {X}}}, obeys the Markov property with respect to the graph; that is, its probability is dependent only on its neighbours in G and not its past states:

 $P (Y v | X , \{ Y w : w \neq v \}) = P (Y v | X , \{ Y w : w \sim v \}) \{ \text{\colory} \ P(\{\boldsymbol \{Y\}\}_{v}]_{v} = P(\{\boldsymbol \{Y\}\}_{v})_{v} = P(\{\boldsymbol \{Y\}\}_{v}]_{v} = P(\{\boldsymbol \{Y\}\}_{v})_{v} = P(\{\bolds$

that w {\displaystyle w} and v {\displaystyle v} are neighbors in G {\displaystyle G}.

What this means is that a CRF is an undirected graphical model whose nodes can be divided into exactly two disjoint sets X {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {X}}} and Y {\displaystyle {\boldsymbol {Y}}}, the observed and output variables, respectively; the conditional distribution p(Y | X) {\displaystyle $p({\boldsymbol {Y}})$ } is then modeled.

Inference

For general graphs, the problem of exact inference in CRFs is intractable. The inference problem for a CRF is basically the same as for an MRF and the same arguments hold. However, there exist special cases for which exact inference is feasible:

If the graph is a chain or a tree, message passing algorithms yield exact solutions. The algorithms used in these cases are analogous to the forward-backward and Viterbi algorithm for the case of HMMs.

If the CRF only contains pair-wise potentials and the energy is submodular, combinatorial min cut/max flow algorithms yield exact solutions.

If exact inference is impossible, several algorithms can be used to obtain approximate solutions. These include:

Loopy belief propagation

Alpha expansion

Mean field inference

Linear programming relaxations

Parameter learning

Learning the parameters θ {\displaystyle \theta } is usually done by maximum likelihood learning for p (Y i | X i ; θ) {\displaystyle p(Y_{i}|X_{i};\theta)} . If all nodes have exponential family distributions and all nodes are observed during training, this optimization is convex. It can be solved for example using gradient descent algorithms, or Quasi-Newton methods such as the L-BFGS algorithm. On the other hand, if some variables are unobserved, the inference problem has to be solved for these variables. Exact inference is intractable in general graphs, so approximations have to be used.

Examples

In sequence modeling, the graph of interest is usually a chain graph. An input sequence of observed variables X {\displaystyle X} represents a sequence of observations and Y {\displaystyle Y} represents a hidden (or unknown) state variable that needs to be inferred given the observations. The Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} are structured to form a chain, with an edge between each Y i - 1 {\displaystyle Y_{i-1}} and Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} . As well as having a simple interpretation of the Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} as "labels" for each element in the input sequence, this layout admits efficient algorithms for:

model training, learning the conditional distributions between the Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} and feature functions from some corpus of training data.

decoding, determining the probability of a given label sequence Y {\displaystyle Y} given X {\displaystyle X}.

inference, determining the most likely label sequence Y {\displaystyle Y} given X {\displaystyle X}.

The conditional dependency of each Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} on X {\displaystyle X} is defined through a fixed set of feature functions of the form f (i , Y i - 1 , Y i , X) {\displaystyle f(i,Y_{i-1},Y_{i},X)} , which can be thought of as measurements on the input sequence that partially determine the likelihood of each possible value for Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} . The model assigns each feature a numerical weight and combines them to determine the probability of a certain value for Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} .

Linear-chain CRFs have many of the same applications as conceptually simpler hidden Markov models (HMMs), but relax certain assumptions about the input and output sequence distributions. An HMM can loosely be understood as a CRF with very specific feature functions that use constant probabilities to model state transitions and emissions. Conversely, a CRF can loosely be understood as a generalization of an HMM that makes the constant transition probabilities into arbitrary functions that vary across the positions in the sequence of hidden states, depending on the input sequence.

Notably, in contrast to HMMs, CRFs can contain any number of feature functions, the feature functions can inspect the entire input sequence X {\displaystyle X} at any point during inference, and the range of the feature functions need not have a probabilistic interpretation.

Variants

Higher-order CRFs and semi-Markov CRFs

CRFs can be extended into higher order models by making each Y i {\displaystyle Y_{i}} dependent on a fixed number k {\displaystyle k} of previous variables Y i - k , . . . , Y i - 1 {\displaystyle Y_{i-k},...,Y_{i-1}} . In conventional formulations of higher order CRFs, training and inference are only practical for small values of k {\displaystyle k} (such as k \leq 5), since their computational cost increases exponentially with k {\displaystyle k} .

However, another recent advance has managed to ameliorate these issues by leveraging concepts and tools from the field of Bayesian nonparametrics. Specifically, the CRF-infinity approach constitutes a CRF-type model that is capable of learning infinitely-long temporal dynamics in a scalable fashion. This is effected by introducing a novel potential function for CRFs that is based on the Sequence Memoizer (SM), a nonparametric Bayesian model for learning infinitely-long dynamics in sequential observations. To render such a model computationally tractable, CRF-infinity employs a mean-field approximation of the postulated novel potential functions (which are driven by an SM). This allows for devising efficient approximate training and inference algorithms for the model, without undermining its capability to capture and model temporal dependencies of arbitrary length.

There exists another generalization of CRFs, the semi-Markov conditional random field (semi-CRF) , which models variable-length segmentations of the label sequence Y $\{\text{displaystyle Y}\}$. This provides much of the power of higher-order CRFs to model long-range dependencies of the Y i $\{\text{displaystyle Y}_{\{i\}}\}$, at a reasonable computational cost.

Finally, large-margin models for structured prediction, such as the structured Support Vector Machine can be seen as an alternative training procedure to CRFs.

Latent-dynamic conditional random field

Latent-dynamic conditional random fields (LDCRF) or discriminative probabilistic latent variable models (DPLVM) are a type of CRFs for sequence tagging tasks. They are latent variable models that are trained discriminatively.

In an LDCRF, like in any sequence tagging task, given a sequence of observations $x = x \ 1, \dots, x \ n \ x \ x_{1}, x \ x$

This allows capturing latent structure between the observations and labels. While LDCRFs can be trained using quasi-Newton methods, a specialized version of the perceptron algorithm called the latent-variable perceptron has been developed for them as well, based on Collins' structured perceptron algorithm. These models find applications in computer vision , specifically gesture recognition from video streams and shallow parsing .

See also

Hammersley-Clifford theorem

Maximum entropy Markov model (MEMM)

References

Further reading

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