

CPSC 540: Machine Learning

Conditional Random Fields and Variational Inference

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Winter 2016

Admin

- A5 posted, due April 12.
- Project:
 - Due date moved to April 29, description coming by April 12.

Structured Prediction with Undirected Graphical Models

- Recall the **structured prediction** problem:

Input: P a r i s

Output: "Paris"

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- We can view this as **conditional density estimation**,

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{\exp(-E(Y|X))}{Z},$$

Structured Prediction with Undirected Graphical Models

- Recall the **structured prediction** problem:

Input: 

Output: "Paris"

- We can view this as **conditional density estimation**,

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{\exp(-E(Y|X))}{Z},$$

where we've defined an **energy function** $E(Y|X)$:

- Want low energy for correct labels.
- Energy will depend on **features** $F(Y, X)$.
- Usually **energy is sum of parts**, so we get a **UGM**

Structured Prediction with Undirected Graphical Models

- We might use an energy function with unary and pairwise terms,

$$E(Y|X) = - \sum_{j=1}^d \log \phi_j(y_j, X) - \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \log \phi_{ij}(y_i, y_j, X),$$

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giving us a pairwise conditional UGM

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^d \phi_j(y_j, X) \prod_{ij} \phi_{ij}(y_i, y_j, X)}{Z}.$$

(we're treating X as fixed observations, not random variables)

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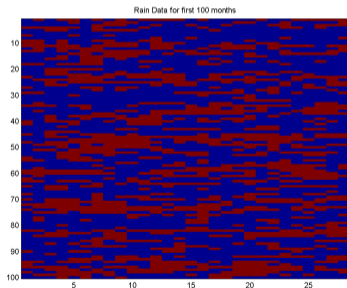
- Previously we focused on **inference** in UGMs:
 - We've discussed decoding, inference, and sampling.
- Today: **learning the potential functions ϕ** .
 - We'll start with the unconditional case (no X).

Example: Vancouver Rain Data

- Vancouver Rain data:
 - 1059 training examples x^i each containing 28 variables.
 - Variable x_j^i is whether or not it rained on day j in month i .
 - Data ranges from 1896-2004.

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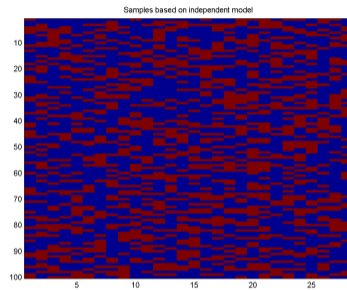
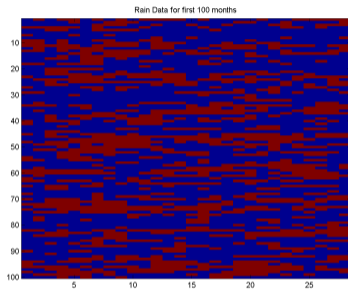
- Vancouver Rain data:
 - 1059 training examples x^i each containing 28 variables.
 - Variable x_j^i is whether or not it rained on day j in month i .
 - Data ranges from 1896-2004.
 - First 100 months (red means rain):



- Sadly, $p(x_i = r) = 0.41$.

Example: Vancouver Rain Data

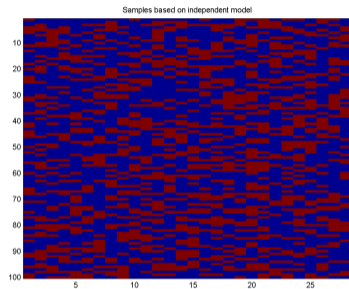
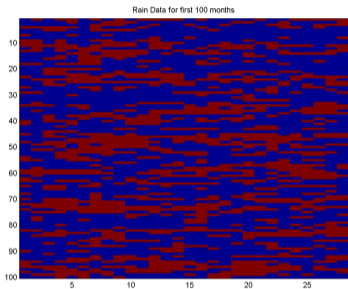
Real data vs. sampling day independently with probability 0.41:



- Independent model misses correlations between days.

Example: Vancouver Rain Data

Real data vs. sampling day independently with probability 0.41:



- Independent model misses correlations between days.
- We can do better with a UGM:
 - Assume we have a parameterization of our potentials.
 - Assume we use a chain-structured graph.
 - Output is the 'best' parameters (e.g., maximum likelihood).

Maximum Likelihood Formulation

- Let's fit the parameters using maximum likelihood of data:
(assuming the X^i are independent)

$$w = \operatorname{argmax}_w \prod_{i=1}^n p(X^i|w),$$

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and you could/should also use a regularizer,

$$w = \operatorname{argmin}_w -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(p(X^i|w)) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|^2.$$

Log-Linear Parameterization of MRFs

- Naive parameterization:

$$\phi_i(x_i) = w_i, \quad \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) = w_{ij}.$$

subject to $w \geq 0$.

- Not convex, and assumes potentials are all different.

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$$\phi_i(x_i) = \exp(w_{m(i,x_i)}), \quad \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) = \exp(w_{m(i,j,x_i,x_j)}).$$

where m maps from parameters to potentials.

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 - If $m(i, x_i) = x_i$ for all i , each day has same potentials. (parameters are **tied**)
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 - **We could have groups**: E.g., weekdays vs. weekends, or boundary.
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 - Similar logic holds for edge potentials.

Example: Ising Model of Rain Data

- E.g., we could parameterize our node potentials using

$$\log(\phi_i(x_i)) = \begin{cases} w_1 & \text{no rain} \\ 0 & \text{rain} \end{cases},$$

and one parameter is enough since scale of ϕ_i is arbitrary.

(though might want two parameters if using regularization)

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- **Ising parameterization** of edge potentials,

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- Ising parameterization of edge potentials,

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- Apply gradient descent to get maximum likelihood solution of

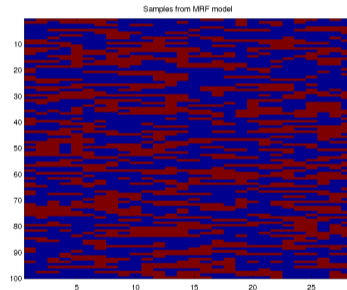
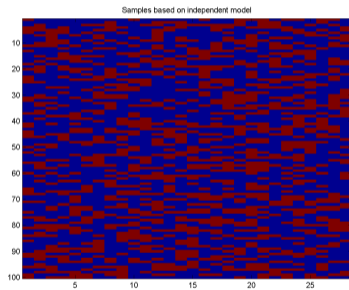
$$w = \begin{bmatrix} 0.16 \\ 0.85 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi_i = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(w_1) \\ \exp(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.17 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.34 & 1 \\ 1 & 2.34 \end{bmatrix},$$

preference towards no rain, and adjacent days being the same.

- Average NLL of 16.8 vs. 19.0 for independent model.

Example: Ising Model of Rain Data

Independent model vs. Ising chain-UGM model:



Full Model of Rain Data

- We could alternately use fully expressive edge potentials

$$\log(\phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)) = \begin{bmatrix} w_2 & w_3 \\ w_4 & w_5 \end{bmatrix},$$

but these don't improve the likelihood much.

- Could also fix one of these at 0.
- We could also have special **potentials for the boundaries**.
 - Common in language models: treat start/end of sentence differently.

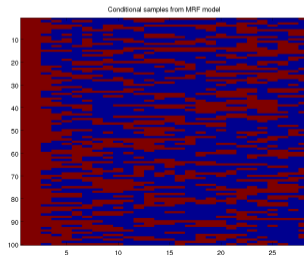
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- Samples from model and conditional samples if rain on first day:



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we exclude $\phi_i = 0$ but otherwise this is not restrictive.

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- Nice property: energy function $E(X)$ is **linear**,

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \log \left(\prod_i \phi_i(x_i) \prod_{(i,j) \in E} \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) \right) \\ &= \log \left(\exp \left(\sum_i w_{m(i,x_i)} + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} w_{m(i,j,x_i,x_j)} \right) \right) \\ &= \sum_i w_{m(i,x_i)} + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} w_{m(i,j,x_i,x_j)}. \end{aligned}$$

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- To make notation simpler, consider this identity

$$w_{m(i,x_i)} = \sum_f w_f \mathcal{I}[m(i, x_i) = f],$$

Feature Vector Representation

- Use this identity to write any log-linear energy in a simple form

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum_i w_{m(i,x_i)} + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} w_{m(i,j,x_i,x_j)} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_f w_f \mathcal{I}[m(i,x_i) = f] + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \sum_f w_f \mathcal{I}[m(i,j,x_i,x_j) = f] \\ &= \sum_f w_f \left(\sum_i \mathcal{I}[m(i,x_i) = f] + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \mathcal{I}[m(i,j,x_i,x_j) = f] \right) \\ &= w^T F(X) \end{aligned}$$

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 &= w^T F(X)
 \end{aligned}$$

- So $p(X) \propto \exp(E(X)) = \exp(w^T F(x))$ is in the **exponential family**.
- $F_f(X) \triangleq \sum_i \mathcal{I}[m(i,x_i) = f] + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \mathcal{I}[m(i,j,x_i,x_j) = f]$ are **sufficient statistics**:
 - In Ising model $F_1(X)$ is number of times it rained in X and $F_2(X)$ is number adjacent days that have the same value.

MRF Training Objective Function

- With log-linear parameterization, NLL takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} f(w) &= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(X^i|w) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{\exp(w^T F(X^i))}{Z(w)} \right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n w^T F(X^i) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log Z(w) \\ &= -w^T F(D) + \log Z(w). \end{aligned}$$

where $F(D) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i F(X^i)$ is **sufficient statistics** of data.

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where $F(D) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i F(X^i)$ is **sufficient statistics** of data.

- Given sufficient statistics $F(D)$, can throw out data X^i .
(only go through data once)
- Function $f(w)$ is **convex**.
- With $\|w\|^2$ regularizer, unique solution is guaranteed to exist.

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- Derivative of $\log(Z)$ is marginal of feature.
 - inference required for learning.
- $\nabla_f f(w) = 0$ means sufficient statistics match in model and data.

Learning for Structured Prediction

3 types of classifiers discussed in CPSC 340/540:

Setting	Generative Model $p(Y, X)$	Discriminative Model $p(Y X)$	Discriminant Function $Y = f(X)$
"Classic ML"	Naive Bayes, GDA	Logistic Regression	SVM

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Generative models have lost popularity since modeling $p(X, Y)$ is harder than $p(Y|X)$.
Has lead to rise in popularity of conditional models like CRFs:

- Directly model $p(Y|X)$ and just condition on X .
 - Extremely widely-used in natural language processing.
- I believe CRFs are second-most cited ML paper of 2000s:
 - 1. Topic models (non-parametric Bayes), 2. CRFs, 3. Deep learning.

Review of Discriminative Models for Classification

- Conditional random fields generalize logistic regression:

$$p(y = +1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-yw^T x)} = \frac{\phi(+1)}{\phi(+1) + \phi(-1)}.$$

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$$\begin{aligned} p(y = -1|x) &= 1 - p(y = +1|x) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-yw^T x)} \\ &= \frac{\exp(-yw^T x)}{1 + \exp(-yw^T x)} = \frac{\phi(-1)}{\phi(+1) + \phi(-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

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- This is a conditional UGM with:

$$m(1, j, y = +1) = 0, \quad m(1, j, y = -1) = j.$$

Conditional Random Fields (CRFs)

- CRFs directly model $p(Y|X)$ for structured prediction

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where X is treated as fixed.

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- For pairwise UGMs, features have form $F(y_i, X)$ or $F(y_i, y_j, X)$.
- NLL and its gradient have similar form to MRFs

$$f(w) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -w^T F(Y_i, X_i) + \log(Z(w, X_i)),$$
$$\nabla_f f(w) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n F(Y_i, X_i) + \mathbb{E}_{Y|X}[F_f(Y_i, X_i)],$$

but **partition function and marginals for each example i** .

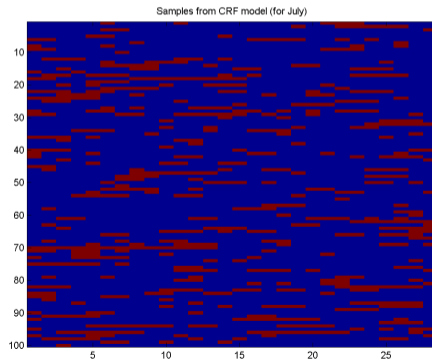
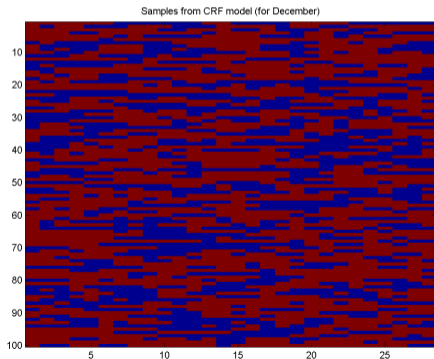
- More expensive because don't have sufficient statistics.

Rain Demo with Month Data

- Let's add a **month** variable to rain data:
 - Fit a CRF of $p(\text{rain} \mid \text{month})$.
 - Use 12 binary indicator features giving month.
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- Samples of rain data conditioned on December and July:



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 - SSVMs: generalization of SVMs that only requires decoding.
- Use approximate inference:
 - Monte Carlo methods.
 - Variational methods.

Outline

- 1 Conditional Random Fields
- 2 Variational Inference**

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 - Formulate inference problem as constrained optimization.
 - Approximate the function or constraints to make it easy.

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- “Variational inference”:
 - Formulate inference problem as constrained optimization.
 - Approximate the function or constraints to make it easy.
- Why not use MCMC?
 - MCMC works asymptotically, but may take forever.
 - Variational methods not consistent, but very fast.
(trade off accuracy vs. computation)

Exponential Families and Cumulant Function

- We will again consider log-linear models:

$$P(X) = \frac{\exp(w^T F(X))}{Z(w)},$$

but view them as **exponential family distributions**,

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where $A(w) = \log(Z(w))$.

- Log-partition $A(w)$ is called the **cumulant function**,

$$\nabla A(w) = \mathbb{E}[F(X)], \quad \nabla^2 A(w) = \mathbb{V}[F(X)],$$

which implies convexity.

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- The **convex conjugate** of a function A is given by

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- When $0 < \mu < 1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} A^*(\mu) &= \mu \log(\mu) + (1 - \mu) \log(1 - \mu) \\ &= -H(p_\mu), \end{aligned}$$

negative entropy of binary distribution with mean μ .

- If μ does not satisfy boundary constraint, sup is ∞ .

Convex Conjugate and Entropy

- More generally, if $A(w) = \log(Z(w))$ then

$$A^*(\mu) = -H(p_\mu),$$

subject to boundary constraints on μ and constraint:

$$\mu = \nabla A(w) = \mathbb{E}[F(X)].$$

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and when $A(w) = \log(Z(w))$ we have

$$\log(Z(w)) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)\}.$$

- We've written **inference as a convex optimization problem**.

Bonus slide: Maximum Likelihood and Maximum Entropy

- The **maximum likelihood** parameters w satisfy:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^T F(D) + \log(Z(w)) \\ &= \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^T F(D) + \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)\} \quad (\text{convex conjugate}) \\ &= \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{-w^T F(D) + w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)\} \\ &= \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \left\{ \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^T F(D) + w^T \mu + H(p_\mu) \right\} \quad (\text{convex/concave}) \end{aligned}$$

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- Maximum likelihood** \Rightarrow **maximum entropy + moment constraints.**

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- We wrote inference as a convex optimization:

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- Practical variational methods:
 - Work with approximation to marginal polytope \mathcal{M} .
 - Work with approximation/bound on entropy A^* .
- Notation trick: we put everything “inside” w to discuss general log-potentials.

Mean Field Approximation

- Mean field approximation assumes

$$\mu_{ij,st} = \mu_{i,s}\mu_{j,t},$$

for all edges, which means

$$p(x_i = s, x_j = t) = p(x_i = s)p(x_j = t),$$

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$$\sum_X p(X) \log p(X) = \sum_i \sum_{x_i} p(x_i) \log p(x_i).$$

- Marginal polytope is also simple:

$$\mathcal{M}_F = \{\mu \mid \mu_{i,s} \geq 0, \sum_s \mu_{i,s} = 1, \mu_{ij,st} = \mu_{i,s}\mu_{j,t}\}.$$

Bonus slide: Entropy of Mean Field Approximation

- Entropy form is from distributive law and probabilities sum to 1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_X p(X) \log p(X) &= \sum_X p(X) \log \left(\prod_i p(x_i) \right) \\
 &= \sum_X p(X) \sum_i \log(p(x_i)) \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_X p(X) \log p(x_i) \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_X \prod_j p(x_j) \log p(x_i) \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_X p(x_i) \log p(x_i) \prod_{j \neq i} p(x_j) \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_{x_i} p(x_i) \log p(x_i) \sum_{x_j | j \neq i} \prod_{j \neq i} p(x_j) \\
 &= \sum_i \sum_{x_i} p(x_i) \log p(x_i).
 \end{aligned}$$

Mean Field as Non-Convex Lower Bound

- Since $\mathcal{M}_F \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, yields a lower bound on $\log(Z)$:

$$\sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}_F} \{w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)\} \leq \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)\} = \log(Z).$$

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- Since $\mathcal{M}_F \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, it is an **inner approximation**:

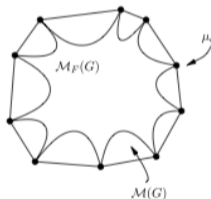


Fig. 5.3 Cartoon illustration of the set $\mathcal{M}_F(G)$ of mean parameters that arise from tractable distributions is a nonconvex inner bound on $\mathcal{M}(G)$. Illustrated here is the case of discrete random variables where $\mathcal{M}(G)$ is a polytope. The circles correspond to mean parameters that arise from delta distributions, and belong to both $\mathcal{M}(G)$ and $\mathcal{M}_F(G)$.

- Constraints $\mu_{ij,st} = \mu_{i,s}\mu_{j,t}$ make it **non-convex**.
- Mean field algorithm is **coordinate descent** on $w^T \mu + H(p_\mu)$ over \mathcal{M}_F .

Discussion of Mean Field and Structured MF

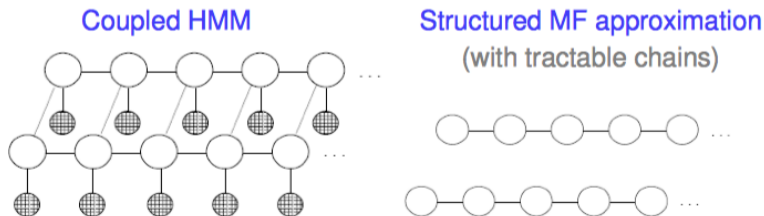
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- **Structured mean field**:
 - Cost of computing entropy is similar to cost of inference.

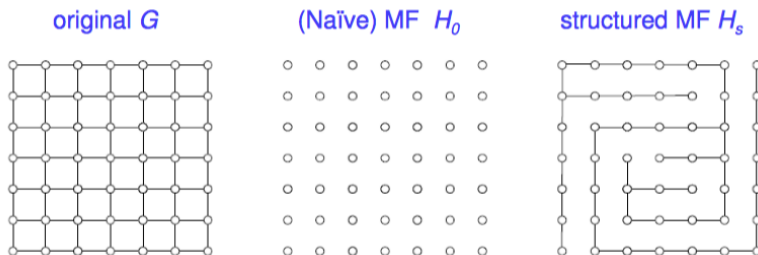
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 - Non-convex approximation to a convex problem.
 - For learning, we want **upper** bounds on $\log(Z)$.
- **Structured mean field**:
 - Cost of computing entropy is similar to cost of inference.
 - Use a subgraph where we can perform exact inference.



Structured Mean Field with Tree

More edges means better approximation of \mathcal{M} and $H(p_\mu)$:



<http://courses.cms.caltech.edu/cs155/slides/cs155-14-variational.pdf>

Summary

- **Log-linear** parameterization can be used to learn UGMs:
 - Maximum likelihood is convex, but requires normalizing constant Z .
- **Conditional random fields** are UGMs that treat X as fixed and model $p(Y|X)$.
 - Log-linear parameterization again leads to convexity.
- **Variational inference** methods formulate counting/integrals as continuous optimization.
 - For UGMs, this is done via the convex conjugate.
 - Mean-field is one of the most common methods.

Next time: combining graphical models and deep learning.