CPSC 540: Machine Learning
Log-Linear Models

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Last Time: Approximate Inference

- We’ve been discussing **graphical models** for density estimation,

\[
p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j \mid x_{pa(j)}), \quad p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) \propto \prod_{c \in C} \phi_c(x_c),
\]

where are natural and widely-used models for many phenomena.

  - These will also be among **ingredients of more advanced models** we’ll see later.

- But most calculations involving graphical models are typically **NP-hard**.

  - We can **convert to DAGs to UGMs**, so we’ll just study UGMs.

- We considered **approximate inference** in discrete UGMs:
  1. **Iterated conditional mode** (ICM) applies coordinate-wise optimization.
  2. **Gibbs sampling** applies coordinate-wise sampling.

    - A special case of **Markov chain Monte Carlo** (MCMC).
Basic approximate inference methods like ICM and Gibb sampling:
- Update one $x_j$ at a time.
- Efficient because conditional UGM is 1 node.

Better approximate inference methods use block updates:
- Update a block of $x_j$ values at once.
- Efficient if conditional UGM allows exact inference.

If we choose the blocks cleverly, this works substantially better.
Consider a lattice-structure and the following two blocks ("red-black ordering"): Given black nodes, conditional UGM on red nodes is a disconnected graph.

- "I can optimally update the red nodes given the black nodes" (and vice versa).
- You can update $d/2$ of the nodes in parallel.

Minimum number of blocks to disconnect the graph is graph colouring.
We could also consider general forest-structured blocks:

We can still optimally update the black nodes given the gray nodes.
  - This works much better than “one at a time”.
Or we could define a new tree-structured block on each iteration:

The above block updates around two thirds of the nodes optimally.
(Here we’re updating the black nodes.)
Block Gibbs Sampling in Action

- Gibbs vs. tree-structured block-Gibbs samples:

![Samples from Gibbs sampler](image1)

![Samples from Block Gibbs sampler](image2)

- We can also do tree-structured block ICM.
  - Harder to get stuck if you get to update entire trees.
Block ICM Based on Graph Cuts

- Consider a binary pairwise UGMs with "attractive" potentials,
  \[ \log \phi_{ij}(1, 1) + \log \phi_{ij}(2, 2) \geq \log \phi_{ij}(1, 2) + \log \phi_{ij}(2, 1). \]
  
  In words: “neighbours prefer to have similar states”.

- In this setting exact decoding can be formulated as a max-flow/min-cut problem.
  - Can be solved in polynomial time.

- This is widely-used computer vision:
  - Want neighbouring pixels/super-pixels/regions to be more likely to get same label.
Graph Cut Example: “GrabCut”

1. User draws a box around the object they want to segment.
2. Fit Gaussian mixture model to pixels inside the box, and to pixels outside the box.
3. Construct a pairwise UGM using:
   - \( \phi_i(x_i) \) set to GMM probability of pixel \( i \) being in class \( x_i \).
   - \( \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) \) set to Ising potential times RBF based on spatial/colour distance.
     - Use \( w_{ij} > 0 \) so the model is “attractive”.
4. Perform exact decoding in the binary attractive model using graph cuts.

Figure 1: Three examples of GrabCut. The user drags a rectangle loosely around an object. The object is then extracted automatically.

Graph Cut Example: “GrabCut”

- GrabCut with extra user interaction:

  ![Example images with user interaction](http://cvg.ethz.ch/teaching/cvl/2012/grabcut-siggraph04.pdf)
**Alpha-Beta Swap and Alpha-Expansions: ICM with Graph Cuts**

- If we have more than 2 states, we can’t use graph cuts.

- **Alpha-beta swaps** are an approximate decoding method for “pairwise attractive”,

  \[
  \log \phi_{ij}(\alpha, \alpha) + \log \phi_{ij}(\beta, \beta) \geq \log \phi_{ij}(\alpha, \beta) + \log \phi_{ij}(\beta, \alpha).
  \]

  Each step choose an \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \), optimally “swaps” labels among these nodes.

- **Alpha-expansions** are another variation based on a slightly stronger assumption,

  \[
  \log \phi_{ij}(\alpha, \alpha) + \log \phi_{ij}(\beta_1, \beta_2) \geq \log \phi_{ij}(\alpha, \beta_1) + \log \phi_{ij}(\beta_2, \alpha).
  \]

  Steps choose label \( \alpha \), and consider replacing the label of any node not labeled \( \alpha \).
These don’t find global optima in general, but make huge moves:

A somewhat-related MCMC method is Swendson-Wang algorithm.
Example: Photomontage

- Photomontage: combining different photos into one photo:

- Here, $x_i$ corresponds to identity of original image at position $i$.
Example: Photomontage

Photomontage: combining different photos into one photo:

http://vision.middlebury.edu/MRF/pdf/MRF-PAMI.pdf
Outline

1. Block Approximate Inference
2. Parameter Learning in UGMs
 Structured Prediction with Undirected Graphical Models

- Consider a pairwise UGM,

\[
p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j) \right) \left( \prod_{(j,k) \in E} \phi_{jk}(x_j, x_k) \right).
\]

- We’ve been focusing on the case where the potentials \( \phi \) are known.
  - We’ve discussed decoding, inference, and sampling.
  - We’ve discussed [block-]coordinate approximate inference.

- We’re now going to discuss learning the potentials \( \phi \) from data.

- Unfortunately, \( Z \) makes this complicated compared to DAGs.
  - You can’t fit each potential independently.
Naive Parameterization of UGMs

- We’ll want to make the $\phi$ depend on a set of parameters $w$.

- As before, with $n$ IID training $x^i$ we can do MAP estimation,

$$w = \arg\min_w -\sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x^i | w) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|^2,$$

where I’ve assumed an independent Gaussian prior on $w$.

- A naive parameterization is to just directly treat potentials as parameters:

$$\phi_j(s) = w_{j,s}, \quad \phi_{jk}(s, s') = w_{j,k,s,s'},$$

so $w_{j,s}$ is “potential of node $j$ being in state $s$”.

- And optimize subject to all parameters being non-negative.
- This unfortunately leads to a non-convex optimization.
Log-Linear Parameterization of UGMs

- Instead of using non-negative $w$, we can instead exponentiate $w$,

$$
\phi_j(s) = \exp(w_{j,s}), \quad \phi_{jk}(s, s') = \exp(w_{j,k,s,s'}). 
$$

- This gives a log-linear model,

$$
p(x \mid w) \propto \left( \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j) \right) \left( \prod_{(j,k) \in E} \phi_{jk}(x_j, x_k) \right)
= \exp \left( \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_{j,x_j} + \sum_{(j,k) \in E} w_{j,k,x_j,x_k} \right),
$$

and leads to a convex NLL.

- Normally, exponentiating to get non-negativity introduces local minima.
Parameter Tieing in UGMs

- So our log-linear parameterization has the form
  \[
  \log \phi_j(s) = w_{j,s}, \quad \log \phi_{jk}(s, s') = w_{j,k,s,s'},
  \]
  which can represent any positive pairwise potentials.

- There exist many common variations on parameter tieing:
  - We might want \( w_{j,x_j} \) to be the same for all \( j \) (all nodes use same potentials).
    - You can similarly tie the edge parameters across all edges.
    - This is similar to homogenous Markov chains.

- In the Ising model we tied across states: \( w_{j,k,1,1} = w_{j,k,2,2} \) and \( w_{j,k,1,2} = w_{j,k,2,1} \).

- We could also have special potentials for the boundaries.
  - Many language models are homogeneous, except for start/end of sentences.
Energy Function and Feature Vector Representation

- Recall that we use $\tilde{p}(x)$ for the unnormalized probability,
  \[ p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}. \]

- In physics, the value $E(x) = -\log \tilde{p}(x)$ is called the energy function.

- With the log-linear parameterization, the energy function is linear,
  \[ -E(X) = \sum_j w_{j,x_j} + \sum_{(j,k) \in E} w_{j,k,x_j,x_k}. \]

- To account for parameter tying, we often write
  \[ -E(x) = w^T F(x), \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad p(x) \propto \exp(w^T F(x)), \]
  where feature function $F$ counts number of times we use each parameter.
Example of Feature Function

- Consider the 2-node 1-edge UGM (1)–(2), where each state has 2 values.
  - So we have potentials $\phi_1(x_1)$, $\phi_2(x_2)$, and $\phi_{12}(x_1, x_2)$ and want to have
    $$w^T F(x) = w_{1,1} + w_{2,2} + w_{1,2,1,2}.$$ 
- With no parameter tieing and $x = [2 \ 1]$, our parameter vector and features are

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1} \\ w_{1,2} \\ w_{2,1} \\ w_{2,2} \\ w_{1,2,1,1} \\ w_{1,2,1,2} \\ w_{1,2,2,1} \\ w_{1,2,2,2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad F(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$
Example of Feature Function

- If we instead had Ising potentials (just measuring whether \( x_1 = x_2 \) we would have
  \[
  w^T F(x) = w_{1,1} + w_{2,2} + w_{1,2,\text{same}}
  \]
- With no parameter tieing and \( x = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \), our parameter vector and features are
  \[
  w = \begin{bmatrix}
  w_{1,1} \\
  w_{1,2} \\
  w_{2,1} \\
  w_{2,2} \\
  w_{1,2,\text{same}}
  \end{bmatrix}, \quad F(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},
  \]
UGM Training Objective Function

With log-linear parameterization, NLL for IID training examples is

\[
f(w) = - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x^i | w) = - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left( \frac{\exp(w^T F(x^i))}{Z(w)} \right)
\]

\[
= - \sum_{i=1}^{n} w^T F(x^i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log Z(w)
\]

\[
= -w^T F(X) + n \log Z(w).
\]

where the \( F(X) = \sum_i F(x^i) \) are called the sufficient statistics of the dataset.

- Given sufficient statistics \( F(X) \), we can throw out the examples \( x^i \).
  (only go through data once)

- Function \( f(w) \) is convex (it’s linear plus a big log-sum-exp function).
  - But notice that \( Z \) depends on \( w \)
Log-Linear UGM Gradient

• For 1 example $x$, we showed that NLL with log-linear parameterization is

$$f(w) = -w^T F(x) + \log Z(w).$$

• The partial derivative with respect to parameter $w_j$ has a simple form

$$\nabla_{w_j} f(w) = -F_j(x) + \sum_x \frac{\exp(w^T F(x))}{Z(w)} F_j(x)$$

$$= -F_j(x) + \sum_x p(x \mid w) F_j(x)$$

$$= -F_j(x) + \mathbb{E}[F_j(x)].$$

• Observe that derivative of $\log(Z)$ is expected value of feature.
Log-Linear UGM Gradient

- For 1 example, gradient in log-linear UGM with respect to parameter $w_j$ is

$$\nabla w_j f(w) = -F_j(x) + \mathbb{E}[F_j(x)].$$

- Example of $\phi_{10}(3) = \exp(w_{10,3})$ (potential that feature 10 is in state 3).
  - Averaging over $n$ examples, the gradient with no parameter tieing is given by

$$\nabla_{w_{10,3}} f(w) = -\frac{1}{n} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} I[x_{10}^i = 3] \right] + \frac{p(x_{10} = 3)}{\text{model "frequency"}}.$$

- So if $\nabla_{w_{10,3}} f(w) = 0$, probabilities match frequencies in training data.
- At MLE, you match the frequencies of all the potentials in the training data.
- Typical training method: deterministic gradient descent methods (if have $Z$).
- But computing gradient requires inference (computing marginals like $p(x_{10} = 3)$).
Approximate Learning: Alternate Objectives

- One way to avoid cost of inference is to change the objective:
  - **Pseudo-likelihood** (fast, convex, and crude):

\[
p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) \approx \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j \mid x_{-j}),
\]

which turns learning into \(d\) single-variable problems (similar to DAGs).
Summary

- **Block approximate inference** works better than single-variable methods.
  - Blocks could be defined by trees or to implement graph cuts.

- **Log-linear** parameterization can be used to learn UGMs:
  - Maximum likelihood is convex, but requires normalizing constant $Z$.

- Next time: the work that started the modern deep learning movement.
Example: Ising Model of Rain Data

- E.g., for the rain data we could parameterize our node potentials using

\[
\log(\phi_i(x_i)) = \begin{cases} 
  w_1 & \text{no rain} \\
  0 & \text{rain}
\end{cases}.
\]

- Why do we only need 1 parameter?
  - Scaling \(\phi_i(1)\) and \(\phi(2)\) by constant doesn't change distribution.

- In general, we only need \((k - 1)\) parameters for a \(k\)-state variable.
  - But if we're using regularization we may want to use \(k\) anyways (symmetry).
Example: Ising Model of Rain Data

The Ising parameterization of edge potentials,

\[
\log(\phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)) = \begin{cases} 
  w_2 & x_i = x_j \\
  0 & x_i \neq x_j 
\end{cases}.
\]

- Applying gradient descent gives MLE of

\[
w = \begin{bmatrix} 0.16 \\ 0.85 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi_i = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(w_1) \\ \exp(0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.17 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(w_2) & \exp(0) \\ \exp(0) & \exp(w_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.34 & 1 \\ 1 & 2.34 \end{bmatrix},
\]

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

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

We could fix one of these at 0 due to the normalization.
  - But we often don’t do this when using regularization.

We could also have special potentials for the boundaries.
  - Many language models are homogeneous, except for start/end of sentences.
Independent model vs. chain-UGM model with tied nodes and Ising tied edges:

- For this dataset, using untied or general edges doesn’t change likelihood much.
Example: Ising Model of Rain Data

Samples from Ising chain-UGM model if it rains on the first day: