

CPSC 540: Machine Learning

Conditional Random Fields

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Winter 2019

3 Classes of Structured Prediction Methods

3 main approaches to **structured prediction** (predicting object y given features x):

- 1 **Generative models** use $p(y | x) \propto p(y, x)$ as in **naive Bayes**.
 - Turns structured prediction into **density estimation**.
 - But remember how **hard** it was just to model images of digits?
 - We have to **model features and solve supervised learning** problem.
- 2 **Discriminative models** directly fit $p(y | x)$ as in **logistic regression** (next topic).
 - View structured prediction as **conditional density estimation**.
 - Just focuses on modeling y given x , not trying to model features x .
 - Lets you use **complicated features** x that make the task easier.
- 3 **Discriminant functions** just try to map from x to y as in **SVMs**.
 - Now you don't even need to worry about calibrated probabilities.

Rain Data without Month Information

- Consider an **Ising UGM model** for the **rain data** with **tied parameters**,

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) \propto \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c \omega + \sum_{c=2}^k y_c y_{c-1} \nu \right).$$

- First term reflects that “not rain” is more likely.
- Second term reflects that **consecutive days are more likely to be the same**.
 - This model is equivalent to a Markov chain model.
- Three approaches to modeling that “some months are less rainy”:
 - Mixture/Boltzmann: add extra hidden variables that might act like months.
 - Generative w/ explicit months: add extra variable x that gives the month.
 - **Discriminative**: same as above, but condition on x (don't model it).

Rain Data with Month Information: Mixture/Boltzmann Approach

- We could add 12 binary **latent variable** z_j ,

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k, z) \propto \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c \omega + \sum_{c=2}^k y_c y_{c-1} \nu + \sum_{c=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{12} y_c z_j v_j + \sum_{j=1}^{12} z_j w_j \right),$$

which is a **Boltzmann machine**.

- Modifies the probability of “rain” for each of the 12 values.
- Inference is **more expensive** due to the extra variables.
 - Learning is also **non-convex** since we need to sum over z .

Rain Data with Month Information: Generative Approach

- If we *know the months* we just could add an **explicit month feature** x_j

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k, \mathbf{x}) \propto \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c \omega + \sum_{c=2}^k y_c y_{c-1} \nu + \sum_{c=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{12} y_c x_j v_j + \sum_{j=1}^{12} x_j w_j \right),$$

- Learning might be easier: we're given known clusters.
- But **still have to model distribution x** , and density estimation isn't easy.
 - It's easy in this case because months are uniform.
 - But in other cases we may want to use a complicated x .
 - And inference is more expensive than chain-structured models.

Rain Data with Month Information: Discriminative Approach (CRF)

- In **conditional random fields** we fit distribution **conditioned on features** x ,

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k | x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c \omega + \sum_{c=2}^d y_c y_{c-1} \nu + \sum_{c=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{12} y_c x_j v_j \right).$$

- Now we **don't need to model** x .
 - Just need to figure out how x affects y .
- This is like **logistic regression** (no model of x) instead of **naive Bayes** (modeling x).
 - $p(y | x)$ (**discriminative**) vs. $p(y, x)$ (**generative**).

Rain Data with Month Information: Discriminative Approach (CRF)

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$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k | x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c \omega + \sum_{c=2}^d y_c y_{c-1} \nu + \sum_{c=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{12} y_c x_j v_j \right).$$

- The **conditional UGM** given x has a **chain-structure**

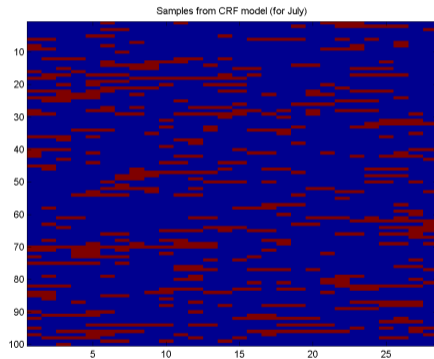
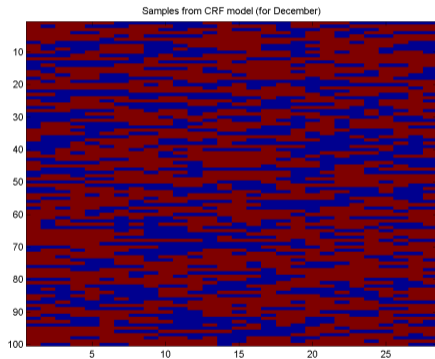
$$\phi_i(y_i) = \exp \left(y_i \omega + \sum_{j=1}^{12} y_i x_j v_j \right), \quad \phi_{ij}(y_i, y_j) = \exp(y_i y_j \nu),$$

so inference can be done using **forward-backward**.

- And it's log-linear so the **NLL will be convex**.

Rain Data with Month Information

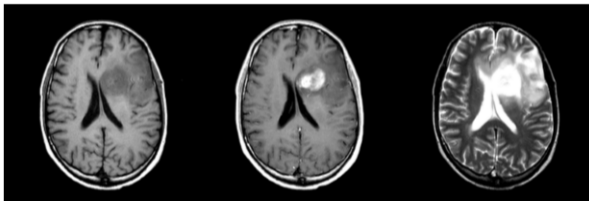
- Samples from CRF conditioned on x for December and July:



- Code available as part of UGM package.

Motivation: Automatic Brain Tumor Segmentation

- Task: identification of tumours in multi-modal MRI.



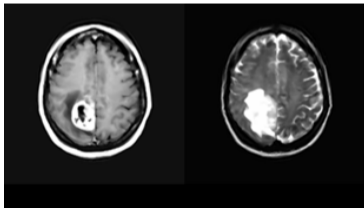
- Applications:
 - Radiation therapy target planning, quantifying treatment response.
 - Mining growth patterns, image-guided surgery.
- Challenges:
 - Variety of tumor appearances, similarity to normal tissue.
 - “You are never going to solve this problem”.

Brain Tumour Segmentation with Label Dependencies

- After a lot pre-processing and feature engineering (convolutions, priors, etc.), final system used **logistic regression** to label each pixel as “tumour” or not.

$$p(y_c | x_c) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-2y_c w^T x_c)} = \frac{\exp(y_c w^T x_c)}{\exp(w^T x_c) + \exp(-w^T x_c)}$$

- Gives a high “pixel-level” accuracy, but sometimes gives silly results:



- Classifying each pixel independently **misses dependence** in labels y^i :
 - We prefer **neighbouring voxels to have the same value**.

Brain Tumour Segmentation with Label Dependencies

- With independent logistic, **joint distribution over all labels** in one image is

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = \prod_{c=1}^k \frac{\exp(y_c w^T x_c)}{\exp(w^T x_c) + \exp(-w^T x_c)} \\ \propto \exp\left(\sum_{c=1}^d y_c w^T x_c\right),$$

where here x_c is the feature vector for position c in the image.

- We can view this as a **log-linear UGM with no edges**,

$$\phi_c(y_c) = \exp(y_c w^T x_c),$$

so given the x_c there is no dependence between the y_c .

Brain Tumour Segmentation with Label Dependencies

- Adding an Ising-like term to model dependencies between y_i gives

$$p(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \propto \exp \left(\sum_{c=1}^k y_c w^T x_c + \sum_{(c,c') \in E} y_c y_{c'} v \right),$$

- Now we have the same “good” logistic regression model, but v controls how strongly we want neighbours to be the same.
- Note that we’re going to jointly learn w and v .
 - We’ll find the optimal joint logistic regression and Ising model.

Conditional Random Fields for Segmentation

- Recall the performance with the independent classifier:



- The pairwise CRF better modelled the “guilt by association”:



(We were using [edge features](#) $x_{cc'}$ too, see bonus.)

Conditional Random Fields

- The [b]rain CRF can be written as a **conditional log-linear** models,

$$p(y | \mathbf{x}, w) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \exp(w^T F(\mathbf{x}, y)),$$

for some parameters w and features $F(\mathbf{x}, y)$.

- The **NLL is convex** and has the form

$$-\log p(y | \mathbf{x}, w) = -w^T F(\mathbf{x}, y) + \log Z(\mathbf{x}),$$

and the gradient can be written as

$$-\nabla \log p(y | \mathbf{x}, w) = -F(\mathbf{x}, y) + \mathbb{E}_{y | \mathbf{x}}[F(\mathbf{x}, y)].$$

- Unlike before, we now have a $Z(\mathbf{x})$ and set of marginals **for each \mathbf{x}** .
 - Train using gradient methods like quasi-Newton, SG, or SAG.

Outline

- 1 Conditional Random Fields
- 2 Beyond Basic CRFs

Modeling OCR Dependencies

- What dependencies should we model for this problem?

Input: 

Output: "Paris"

- $\phi(y_c, x_c)$: potential of individual letter given image.
- $\phi(y_{c-1}, y_c)$: dependency between adjacent letters ('q-u').
- $\phi(y_{c-1}, y_c, x_{c-1}, x_c)$: adjacent letters and image dependency.
- $\phi_c(y_{i-1}, y_c)$: inhomogeneous dependency (French: 'e-r' ending).
- $\phi_c(y_{c-2}, y_{c-1}, y^i)$: third-order and inhomogeneous (English: 'i-n-g' end).
- $\phi(y \in \mathcal{D})$: is y in dictionary \mathcal{D} ?

Tractability of Discriminative Models

- Features can be very complicated, since we just condition on the x_c .
- Given the x_c , tractability depends on the **conditional UGM on the y_c** .
 - Inference/decoding will be fast or slow, depending on the y_c graph.
- Besides “low treewidth”, some other cases where **exact computation** is possible:
 - **Semi-Markov chains** (allow dependence on time you spend in a state).
 - **Context-free grammars** (allows potentials on recursively-nested parts of sequence).
 - **Sum-product networks** (restrict potentials to allow exact computation).
 - “Dictionary” feature is non-Markov, but exact computation still easy.
- We can alternately use our previous approximations:
 - 1 Pseudo-likelihood (what we used).
 - 2 Monte Carlo approximate inference (better but slower).
 - 3 Variational approximate inference (fast, quality varies).

CRF “Product of Marginals” Objective

- In CRFs we typically optimize the likelihood, $p(y | x, w)$.
 - This focuses on getting the joint likelihood of the sequence y right.
- What if we are interested in **getting the “parts” y_c right?**
 - In sequence labeling, your error is “number of positions you got wrong” in sequence.
 - As opposed to “did you get the whole sequence right?”
- In this setting, it could make more sense to optimized the product of marginals:

$$\prod_{c=1}^k p(y_c | x, w) = \prod_{c=1}^k \sum_{\{y' | y'_c = y_c\}} p(y' | x, w).$$

- Non-convex, but probably a better objective.
- If you know how to do inference, this paper shows how to get gradients:
 - <https://people.cs.umass.edu/~domke/papers/2010nips.pdf>

Learning for Structured Prediction (Big Picture)

3 types of classifiers discussed in CPSC 340/540:

Model	“Classic ML”	Structured Prediction
Generative model $p(y, x)$	Naive Bayes, GDA	UGM (or “MRF”)
Discriminative model $p(y x)$	Logistic regression	CRF
Discriminant function $y = f(x)$	SVM	Structured SVM

- Discriminative models don't need to model x .
 - Don't need “naive Bayes” or Gaussian assumptions.
- Discriminant functions **don't even worry about probabilities**.
 - Based on **decoding**, which is **different than inference** in structured case.
 - Useful when inference is hard but decoding is easy.
 - Examples include “attractive” graphical models, matching problems, and ranking.
 - I put my material on **structured SVMs** here:
 - <https://www.cs.ubc.ca/~schmidtm/Courses/540-W19/L28.5.pdf>

Deep Learning for Structured Prediction (Big Picture)

- How is **deep learning** being used for structured prediction?
 - Discriminative approaches are most popular.
- Typically you will **send x through a neural network to get representation z** , then:
 - 1 Perform inference on $p(y | z)$ (**backpropagate using exact/approximate marginals**).
 - Neural network learns features, CRF “on top” models dependencies in y_c .
 - 2 Run m approximate inference steps on $p(y | z)$, **backpropagate through these steps**.
 - “Learn to use the inference you will be using” (usually with variational inference).
 - 3 Just model each $p(y_c | z)$ (treat **labels as independent given representation**).
 - Assume that structure is already captured in neural network goo (no inference).
- Current trend: **less dependence on inference and more on learning representation**.
 - “Just use an RNN rather than thinking about stochastic grammars.”
 - We’re improving a lot at learning features, less so for inference.
 - This trend may or may not reverse in the future...

Summary

- 3 types of structured prediction:
 - Generative models, discriminative models, discriminant functions.
- Conditional random fields generalize logistic regression:
 - Discriminative model allowing dependencies between labels.
 - Log-linear parameterization again leads to convexity.
 - But requires inference in graphical model.
- Reducing the reliance on inference is a current trend in the field.
- Next time: Mike will go over CNNs in detail.

Brain Tumour Segmentation with Label Dependencies

- We got a bit more fancy and used **edge features** x^{ij} ,

$$p(y^1, y^2, \dots, y^d \mid x^1, x^2, \dots, x^d) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left(\sum_{i=1}^d y^i w^T x^i + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} y^i y^j v^T x^{ij} \right).$$

- For example, we could use $x^{ij} = 1/(1 + |x^i - x^j|)$.
 - Encourages y_i and y_j to be **more similar** if x^i and x^j are more similar.



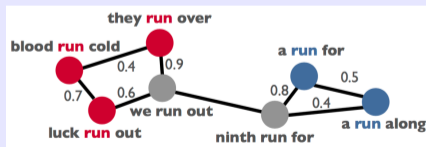
- This is a pairwise UGM with

$$\phi_i(y^i) = \exp(y^i w^T x^i), \quad \phi_{ij}(y^i, y^j) = \exp(y^i y^j v^T x^{ij}),$$

so it didn't make inference any more complicated.

Posterior Regularization

- In some cases it might make sense to use **posterior regularization**:
 - Regularize the probabilities in the resulting model.
- Consider an NLP labeling task where
 - You have a small amount of labeled sentences.
 - You have a huge amount of unlabeled sentences.
- Maximize labeled likelihood, plus **total-variation penalty on $p(y_c | x, w)$ values**.
 - Give high regularization weights to **words appearing in same trigrams**:



<http://jgillenw.com/conll2013-talk.pdf>

- Useful for “out of vocabulary” words (words that don’t appear in labeled data).