Pattern Recognition Advanced Discriminative Graphical Models: Conditional Random Fields

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Today's talk

- Seen recently: hidden markov models, latent variables
- Today, present Conditional Random Fields (ICML 2001). Conditional random fields: Probabilistic models for segmenting and labeling sequence data, by Lafferty McCallum Pereira
- Proposed by the authors when working for (now defunct) WhizBang! labs.
- WhizBang! labs was a company specialized in extracting automatically information from web-pages.
- Objective: parse millions of webpages to select important content
 - job advertisements
 - company reports
- Problem: recover structure in very large databases.

Reference text: An Introduction to Conditional Random Fields Sutton, McCallum

Today's talk

Objective : Annotate Subparts of Large Complex Objects

- The theory is a general and applies to "random fields".
- Difference with Hidden Markov Models: we do not use a generative model

 $X = \text{cat eat mice}, \quad Y = N \vee N$ P(X, Y)

text parsing result

• But only a **discriminative** approach, *i.e.* we only focus on

P(Y|X)

• Difference? P(X, Y) = P(Y|X)P(X). no need to take care of P(X).

Graphical Models

an introduction

Structured Predictions

• For many applications, predicting **many joint variables** is fundamental.

• Examples

- classify regions of an image,
- segmenting genes in a strand of DNA,
- $\circ~$ extract syntax from natural-language text
- The goal is to produce local predictors

 $\mathbf{y} = \{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_T\}$ given \mathbf{x}

• Of course, one could only focus on individual regression/classification task

$$\mathbf{x} \mapsto y_s$$
, for each s ,

independently... but then how can we make sure the final answer is **coherent**?

Graphical Models

- A natural way to model constraints on output variables is provided by graphical models, *e.g.*
 - Bayesian networks,
 - Neural networks,
 - factor graphs,
 - Markov random fields,
 - Ising models, *etc.*
- **Graphical models** represent a complex distribution over many variables as a product of **local** *factors* on smaller subsets of variables.
- Two types of graphical models: **directed** and **undirected**

Some Notations First

- We consider probabilities on variables **indexed** by $V = X \cup Y$,
 - $\circ X$ is a set of **input variables**
 - \circ Y is a set of **output variables** that we wish to predict.
- We assume that each variable takes values in a **discrete set**.
- An assignment to all variables indexed in X (resp. Y) is denoted \mathbf{x} (resp. \mathbf{y}).
- An assignment to all variables indexed in X and Y is denoted z = (x, y).
 - For $s \in X$, x_s denotes the value assigned to s by x.
 - For $s \in Y$, y_s denotes the value assigned to s by \mathbf{y} .
 - For $v \in V$, z_s denotes the value assigned to s by z.
 - For a subset $a \subset V$, $\mathbf{z}_a = (z_s)_{s \in a}$.

Undirected Graphical Models

 Given a collection of subsets *F* ⊂ 𝒫(*V*), an undirected graphical model is the set of all distributions that can be written as

$$p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{a \in \mathcal{F}} \Psi_a(\mathbf{z}_a),$$

for any choice of *local function* $F = \{\Psi_a\}$, where $\Psi_a : \mathcal{V}^{|a|} \to \mathbb{R}_+$.

Undirected Graphical Models

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{a \in \mathcal{F}} \Psi_a(\mathbf{z}_a)$$

- Usually sets a are much smaller than the full variable set V.
- Z is a normalization factor, defined as

$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}} \prod_{a \in \mathcal{F}} \Psi_a(\mathbf{z}_a).$$

• Computations are easier if each local function is an exponential model:

$$\Psi_a(\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{y}_a) = \exp\left\{\sum_k \theta_{ak} f_{ak}(\mathbf{z}_a)\right\},$$

• For each k and subset of variables a, a weighted feature $f_{ak}(\mathbf{z}_a)$ with $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{ak}$.

Directed Graphical Model

- Let G = (V, E) be a **directed** acyclic graph.
- For each $v, \pi(v) \subset V$ is the set of parents of v in G.



• A **directed** graphical model is a family of distributions that factorize as:

$$p(\mathbf{y},\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{v \in V} p(z_v | \mathbf{z}_{\pi(v)}).$$

• Difference: not only subsets a, but also directions, given by π .

Starting Slowly: Naive Bayes

Text Classes

• Suppose a whole text can only belong to **one** category.

 $\mathsf{TEXT} \stackrel{?}{\leftrightarrow} \mathsf{CATEGORY}$

• Here, we assume also that there is a **joint** probability on texts and their category.

P(text, category)

which quantifies how likely the match between

a text text and a category category is

• For instance,

 $P('I \text{ am feeling hungry these days'}, 'poetry') \approx 0$

P(`Manchester United's stock rose after their victory', `business') $<math>\bigvee$ P(`Manchester United's stock rose after their victory', `sports')

Text classification & probabilistic framework

• Hence, given a sequence of words (including punctuation),

 $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5, w_6, w_7, w_8, \cdots, w_n)$

- assuming we know P, the **joint** probability between texts and categories,
- $\bullet\,$ an easy way to guess the category of w is by looking at

category-prediction(w) =
$$\operatorname{argmax}_{C} P(C|w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$$

Text classification & probabilistic framework

P('poetry'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.0037P('business'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.005P('sports'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.003P('food'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.2P('economy'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.04P('society'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.08

Text classification & probabilistic framework

P('poetry'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.0037 P('business'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.005 P('sports'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.003 $\rightarrow P('food'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.2$ P('economy'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.04P('society'|'I am feeling hungry these days') = 0.08

Bayes Rule

• Using Bayes theorem p(A,B) = p(A|B)p(B),

$$P(C|w_1, w_2, ..., w_n) = \frac{P(C, w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)}{P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_n)}$$

- When looking for the category C that best fits w, we only focus on the numerator.
- Bayes theorem also gives that

$$P(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_n}) = P(\boldsymbol{C})P(\boldsymbol{w_1}, \boldsymbol{w_2}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_n} | \boldsymbol{C})$$

= $P(\boldsymbol{C})P(\boldsymbol{w_1} | \boldsymbol{C})P(\boldsymbol{w_2}, \boldsymbol{w_3}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_n} | \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1})$
= $P(\boldsymbol{C})P(\boldsymbol{w_1} | \boldsymbol{C})P(\boldsymbol{w_2} | \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1})P(\boldsymbol{w_3}, \boldsymbol{w_4}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_n} | \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \boldsymbol{w_2})$
= $P(\boldsymbol{C})\prod_{i=1}^n P(\boldsymbol{w_i} | \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_{i-1}})$

Examples

• Assume we have the beginning of this news title

 w_1, \cdots, w_{12} = 'The weather was so bad that the organizers decided to close the'

• If C =business, then

 $P(W_{13} = \text{`market'} | \text{business}, w_1, \dots, w_{12})$

should be quite high, as well as summit, meeting etc...

• On the other hand, if we know C = sports, the probability for w_{13} changes significantly...

$$P(W_{13} = \text{`game'} | \text{sports}, w_1, \dots, w_{12})$$

The Naive Bayes Assumption

• From a factorization

$$P(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{w_n}) = P(\boldsymbol{C}) \prod_{i=1}^n P(\boldsymbol{w_i} | \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{w_{i-1}})$$

which handles all the **conditional** structures of text,

• we assume that each word appears independently conditionally to C,

$$P(\boldsymbol{w_i}|\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_{i-1}}) = P(\boldsymbol{w_i}|\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_{i-1}})$$
$$= P(\boldsymbol{w_i}|\boldsymbol{C})$$

$$= P(\boldsymbol{w_i}|\boldsymbol{C})$$

$$P(\boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{w_1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{w_n}) = P(\boldsymbol{C}) \prod_{i=1}^n P(\boldsymbol{w_i} | \boldsymbol{C})$$

Naive Bayes & Logistic Regression Binary Case

Naive Bayes

Recall the Naive Bayes Assumption on $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, y) = p(y) \prod_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k|y)$$

• Bayes classifier can be interpreted as a **directed** graphical model, where

- $V = \{X = \{1, \dots, N\}\} \cup \{Y = \mathbf{1}\}$
- $\circ~$ All elements of X have only one parent:

 $\pi(i) = \mathbf{1}.$

Logistic Regression

• Famous technique for classification (with binary variables):

Logistic Regression (or Maximum Entropy Classifier), model $p(y|\mathbf{x})$

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \exp\left\{\theta_y + \sum_{j=1}^N \theta_{y,j} x_j\right\},\,$$

- by malaxing things a bit, introducing
 - $\circ f_{y',j}(y, \mathbf{x}) = \delta_{y'=y} x_j$ $\circ f_{y'}(y, \mathbf{x}) = \delta_{y'=y}$
- and renumbering all these functions (and the corresponding weights $\theta_{y,j}$ and θ_y) 1 to K,

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y, \mathbf{x})\right\}.$$

we obtain an **undirected** graphical model.

A Simple Example: Classification

Naive Bayes Assumption, $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, y) = p(y) \prod_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k | y)$$

equivalent to a **directed** graphical model

Logistic Regression, $p(y|\mathbf{x})$

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y, \mathbf{x})\right\}$$

equivalent to an **undirected** graphical model

Link between Naive Bayes and Logistic Regression

Deriving the conditional distribution $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ of Naive Bayes

$$p(\mathbf{x}, y) = p(y) \prod_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k | y)$$

• Let us study the case where **all** variables are binary.

Link between Naive Bayes and Logistic Regression

• Set

$$p_1 = P(y = 1)$$

 $p_{i0} = P(x_i = 1 | y = 0)$
 $p_{i1} = P(x_i = 1 | y = 1)$

• Then

$$p(\mathbf{x}_i = x_i | \mathbf{y} = y) = p_{i0}^{(1-y)x_i} (1 - p_{i0})^{(1-y)(1-x_i)} p_{i1}^{yx_i} (1 - p_{i1})^{y(1-x_i)}$$

 $\quad \text{and} \quad$

$$p(\mathbf{y} = y) = p_1^y (1 - p_1)^{1-y}$$

• Define

$$\theta_0 = \log \frac{p_1}{1 - p_1} + \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{1 - p_{i1}}{1 - p_{i0}}$$
$$\phi_i = \log \frac{p_{i0}}{1 - p_{i0}}$$
$$\theta_i = \log \frac{1 - p_{i0}}{p_{i0}} \frac{p_{i1}}{1 - p_{i1}}$$

Source: Y.Bulatov

Link between Naive Bayes and Logistic Regression

• then

$$p(\mathbf{x}, y) = \frac{e^{\theta_0 y} e^{\sum_{i=1}^N \phi_i x_i} e^{\sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i y x_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^N (1 + e^{\phi_i}) + e^{\theta_0} \prod_{i=1}^N (1 + e^{\theta_i + \phi_i})}$$

• which can be decomposed again as

$$p(\mathbf{x}, y) = \frac{e^{\left(\theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i x_i\right)^y}}{1 + e^{\theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i x_i}} \times \frac{e^{\sum_{i=1}^N \phi_i x_i} \left(1 + e^{\theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i x_i}\right)}{\prod_{i=1}^N (1 + e^{\phi_i}) + e^{\theta_0} \prod_{i=1}^N (1 + e^{\theta_i + \phi_i})}$$
$$= p(y|\mathbf{x}) \times p(\mathbf{x})$$

- We have highlighted the conditional distribution induced by naive Bayes in the case of binary variables.
- This conditional distribution coincides with the logistic regression form
- This can be shown for many other cases (e.g. $p(x_k|y)$ is Gaussian)

Next Example, Sequence Models

Predict the corresponding structure Y = $1, \cdots, T$ of T words, X = $1, \cdots, T$

Recall the **Hidden Markov Model** on $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(y_1) \prod_{k=1}^{N} p(y_t | y_{t-1}) p(x_t | y_t)$$

• Of course, HMM's are **directed** graphical model, where

•
$$V = \{X = \{1, \dots, T\}\} \cup \{Y = \{1, \dots, T\}\}$$

 $\circ~$ Each element of X has only one parent:

$$\pi(i) = \mathbf{i}.$$

 $\circ~\mbox{Each}$ element of $\{{\bf 2}, \cdots, {\bf T}\}$ has one parent:

$$\pi(\mathbf{i}) = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{1}.$$

Sequence Models

The Linear Conditional Random Field on $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$

 $\circ\,$ A *linear-chain CRF* is a distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ that takes the form

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)\right\},\$$

where $Z(\mathbf{x})$ is an instance-specific normalization function

$$Z(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)\right\}.$$

• The Linear-Chain CRF is an **undirected** graphical model

From HMM to Linear CRF

• Let us rewrite the HMM density

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{ \sum_{i, j \in S} \theta_{ij} \mathbf{1}_{\{y_t=i\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{y_{t-1}=j\}} + \sum_{i \in S} \sum_{o \in O} \mu_{oi} \mathbf{1}_{\{y_t=i\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{x_t=o\}} \right\},\$$

where S (states) is the set of values possibly taken by y and O (outputs) by x. • Every HMM can be written in this form by setting

$$\theta_{ij} = \log p(y' = i | y = j)$$
 and $\mu_{oi} = \log p(x = o | y = i)$.

From HMM to Linear CRF

- We can highlight again the **feature functions** perspective:
- Each feature function has the form

 $f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t).$

• There needs to be one feature for each transition (i, j),

$$f_{ij}(y,y',x)$$
 = $\mathbf{1}_{\{y=i\}}\mathbf{1}_{\{y'=j\}}$

and one feature for each state-observation pair (i, o),

$$f_{io}(y,y',x)$$
 = $\mathbf{1}_{\{y=i\}}\mathbf{1}_{\{x=o\}}$

• Once this is done, we get

$$p(\mathbf{y},\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t)\right\}.$$

where f_k ranges over both all of the f_{ij} and all of the f_{io} .

From HMM to Linear CRF

• Last step: write the conditional distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ induced by HMM's

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}'} p(\mathbf{y}', \mathbf{x})} = \frac{\prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t)\right\}}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}'} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y'_t, y'_{t-1}, x_t)\right\}}.$$

• this is the linear CRF induced by HMM's...

Differences between HMM and Linear CRF

• If $p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$ factorizes as an HMM \Rightarrow distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ is a linear-chain CRF.

However, other types of linear-chain CRFs, **not induced by HMM's**, are also useful

- For example,
 - \circ in an HMM, a transition from state *i* to *j* receives the same score,

$$\log p(y_t = j | y_{t-1} = i),$$

regardless of the x_{t-1} .

• In a CRF, the score of the transition (i, j) might depend for instance on the current observation vector, e.g. by defining

$$f_k = \mathbf{1}_{\{y_t=j\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{y_{t-1}=1\}} \mathbf{1}_{\{x_t=o\}}.$$

General CRF

 $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) \text{ is a conditional random field}$ if the distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ can be written as $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \prod_{\Psi_a \in \mathcal{F}} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K(a)} \theta_{ak} f_{ak}(\mathbf{y}_a, \mathbf{x}_a)\right\}.$

- Many parameters potentially...
- For linear chain CRF, same weights/functions are used for factors Ψ_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, **x**_t), ∀t.
- **Solution**: Partition set of subsets of variables \mathcal{F} into groups $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_P$.
- Each subset \mathcal{F}_i is a set of subsets of variables which share the same local functions, *i.e.*

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \prod_{\mathcal{F}_i \in \mathcal{F}} \prod_{\Psi_a \in \mathcal{F}_i} \Psi_a(\mathbf{y}_a, \mathbf{x}_a)$$

where

$$\Psi_{a}(\mathbf{y}_{a}, \mathbf{x}_{a}) = \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K(\mathbf{i})} \theta_{\mathbf{i}k} f_{\mathbf{i}k}(\mathbf{y}_{a}, \mathbf{x}_{a})\right\}.$$

• Most CRF's of interest implement such structures.

Features - Factorization

- CRF's are very general **structures**. What about the practical implementation?
- Features depend on the task. In some NLP tasks with linear CRF,

$$f_{pk}(\mathbf{y}_c, \mathbf{x}_c) = \mathbf{1}_{\{\mathbf{y}_c = \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_c\}} q_{pk}(\mathbf{x}_c).$$

- Each feature is **factorized**
 - $\circ\,$ is nonzero only for a single output configuration $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathit{c}}$,
 - \circ its value only depends input observation \mathbf{x}_c .
- This **factorization** is attractive because computationally efficient:
 - computing each q_{pk} may involve nontrivial text or image processing,
 - However, we only need to evaluate it once, even if it shared across many features.
- These functions $q_{pk}(\mathbf{x}_c)$ are called **observation functions**.
- Examples of observation functions are
 - \circ "word x_t is capitalized",
 - \circ "word x_t ends in *ing*".

Learning with Linear Chain CRF's

Estimation and Prediction

A linear-chain CRF is a distribution $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$ that takes the form

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)\right\},\$$

• Two major tasks ahead:

Given a set of features f_k , estimate all parameters θ_k

Predict the labels of a new input \mathbf{x} , $\mathbf{y}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$.

- We first review the **prediction** task, **estimation** is covered next.
- In the prediction task, we will re-use the Forward-Backward and Viterbi algorithms of HMM's.

Prediction - Backward Forward

• The HMM's distribution can be factorized as a directed graphical model

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{t} \Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t)$$

(with Z = 1) and factors defined as:

$$\Psi_t(j, i, x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(y_t = j | y_{t-1} = i) p(x_t = x | y_t = j).$$

• The HMM forward algorithm, used to compute the probability $p(\mathbf{x})$ of observations, uses the summation.

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t)$$

= $\sum_{y_T} \sum_{y_{T-1}} \Psi_T(y_T, y_{T-1}, x_T) \sum_{y_{T-2}} \Psi_{T-1}(y_{T-1}, y_{T-2}, x_{T-1}) \sum_{y_{T-3}} \cdots$

• Idea: cache intermediate sum which are reused many times during the computation of the outer sum.

Prediction - Forward

In that sense, define forward variables α_t ∈ ℝ^M (where M is the number of states),

$$\alpha_t(j) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(\mathbf{x}_{(1...t)}, y_t = j)$$

= $\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{(1...t-1)}} \Psi_t(j, y_{t-1}, x_t) \prod_{t'=1}^{t-1} \Psi_{t'}(y_{t'}, y_{t'-1}, x_{t'}),$

- The summation over $\mathbf{y}_{(1...t-1)}$ ranges over **all** assignments to $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_{t-1}$.
- The α_t can be computed by the recursion

$$\alpha_t(j) = \sum_{i \in S} \Psi_t(j, i, x_t) \alpha_{t-1}(i),$$

with initialization $\alpha_1(j) = \Psi_1(j, y_0, x_1)$. (Recall that y_0 is the fixed initial state of the HMM.)

• We can check that $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{y_{\mathrm{T}}} \alpha_{\mathrm{T}}(y_{\mathrm{T}})$.

Prediction - Backward

• Define a **backward recursion**, with reverse order: introduce β_t 's

$$\beta_t(i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(\mathbf{x}_{\langle t+1\dots T \rangle} | y_t = i)$$
$$= \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\langle t+1\dots T \rangle}} \prod_{t'=t+1}^{T} \Psi_{t'}(y_{t'}, y_{t'-1}, x_{t'}),$$

and the recursion

$$\beta_t(i) = \sum_{j \in S} \Psi_{t+1}(j, i, x_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j),$$

- Initialization: $\beta_{\mathrm{T}}(i) = 1$.
- Analogously to the forward case, $p(\mathbf{x})$ can be computed using the backward variables as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_0(y_0) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{y_1} \Psi_1(y_1, y_0, x_1) \beta_1(y_1).$$

Prediction - Forward Backward

• The FB recursions can be combined to obtain the marginal distributions

 $p(y_{t-1}, y_t | \mathbf{x})$

- Two **perspectives** can be applied, with identical result:
- Taking first a **probabilistic** viewpoint we can write

$$p(y_{t-1}, y_t | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | y_{t-1}, y_t) p(y_t, y_{t-1})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$
$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_{(1...t-1)}, y_{t-1}) p(y_t | y_{t-1}) p(x_t | y_t) p(\mathbf{x}_{(t+1...T)} | y_t)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$
$$\propto \alpha_{t-1}(y_{t-1}) \Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t) \beta_t(y_t),$$

where in the second line we have used the fact that $\mathbf{x}_{(1...t-1)}$ is independent from $\mathbf{x}_{(t+1...T)}$ and from x_t given y_{t-1}, y_t .

Prediction - Forward Backward

• Taking a **factorization** perspective, we see that

$$p(y_{t-1}, y_t, \mathbf{x}) = \Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t) \\ \left(\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\langle 1...t-2 \rangle}} \prod_{t'=1}^{t-1} \Psi_{t'}(y_{t'}, y_{t'-1}, x_{t'}) \right) \\ \left(\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\langle t+1...T \rangle}} \prod_{t'=t+1}^T \Psi_{t'}(y_{t'}, y_{t'-1}, x_{t'}) \right),$$

which can be computed from the forward and backward recursions as

$$p(y_{t-1}, y_t, \mathbf{x}) = \alpha_{t-1}(y_{t-1})\Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, x_t)\beta_t(y_t).$$

• With $p(y_{t-1}, y_t, \mathbf{x})$, renormalize over y_t, y_{t-1} to obtain the desired marginal $p(y_{t-1}, y_t | \mathbf{x})$.

Prediction - Forward Backward

- To compute the globally most probable assignment $\mathbf{y}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$,
- we observe that the trick earlier still works if all summations are replaced by maximization.
- This yields the Viterbi recursion:

$$\delta_t(j) = \max_{i \in S} \Psi_t(j, i, x_t) \delta_{t-1}(i)$$

Prediction - Forward Backward in Linear CRF's

- Natural **generalization** of forward-backward and Viterbi algorithms to linear-chain CRFs
- Only transition weights $\Psi_t(j, i, x_t)$ need to be redefined.
- The CRF model can be rewritten as:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathbf{x})} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t),$$

where we define

$$\Psi_t(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t) = \exp\left\{\sum_k \theta_k f_k(y_t, y_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)\right\}.$$

- Using these definitions, use identical algorithms.
- Instead of computing p(x) as in an HMM, in a CRF the forward and backward recursions compute Z(x).

Parameter Estimation

• Suppose we have i.i.d training data

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{y}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N,$$

- each $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} = {\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_2^{(i)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_T^{(i)}}$ is a sequence of inputs, • each $\mathbf{y}^{(i)} = {y_1^{(i)}, y_2^{(i)}, \dots, y_T^{(i)}}$ is a sequence of the desired predictions.
- Parameter estimation can be performed by penalized maximum conditional likelihood.

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(\mathbf{y}^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}).$$

namely,

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k f_k(y_t^{(i)}, y_{t-1}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}_t^{(i)}) - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log Z(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$