Introduction to the concept of structural HMM: application to mining customers' preferences in automotive design

Bouchhra, D.; Tan, J.;
Dept. of Comput. Sci. & Eng., Oakland Univ.,
Rochester, MI, USA

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ABSTRACT

We have introduced in this paper the concept of structural hidden Markov models (SHMM). This new paradigm adds the syntactical (or structural) component to the traditional HMM. SHMM introduce relationships between the visible observations of a sequence. These observations are related because they are viewed as evidences of a same conclusion in a rule of inference. We have applied this novel concept to predict customer's preferences for automotive designs. SHMM has outperformed both the k-nearest neighbors and the neural network classifiers with an additional 12% increase in accuracy.
Introduction to the Concept of Structural HMM:
Application to Mining Customers’ Preferences in Automotive Design

Djamel Bouchaffra and Jun Tan
School of Engineering and Computer Science
Oakland University
Michigan, USA

Abstract

We have introduced in this paper the concept of structural hidden Markov models (SHMM's). This new paradigm adds the syntactical (or structural) component to the traditional HMM's. SHMM's introduce relationships between the visible observations of a sequence. These observations are related because they are viewed as evidences of a same conclusion in a rule of inference. We have applied this novel concept to predict customer’s preferences for automotive designs. SHMM has outperformed both the k-nearest neighbors and the neural network classifiers with an additional 12% increase in accuracy.

1. Introduction

Almost all system modeling techniques include two simple relationships: the classification relationship and the componential relationship. The classification relationship is the means by which the human mind generalizes experience so that the class stars is filled with all those shiny dots that we see in the sky of a summer night. The componential relationship is the means by which we organize the whole made up of many parts that seems to be an inherent quality of all patterns, from stars to automobiles to people to sand. Therefore, statistics and structure are always driving humans in a decision problem in pattern recognition (PR) [1]. Ideally, researchers would have liked a solution to a PR problem consists of the following stages: (i) find a feature vector x, (ii) train a system using a set of training patterns whose classification is a-priori known, and (iii) classify unknown incoming patterns. Unfortunately, for most practical problems, this approach is not feasible because the precise feature vector is not obvious and thus training becomes impossible. Therefore, the analytical approaches which process the patterns only on a quantitative basis but ignore the inter-relationships between the components of the patterns quite often fail. The truth is that a pattern contains some relational and structural information from which it is difficult and sometimes impossible to derive an appropriate feature vector. Syntactical pattern recognition [3], Bayesian belief networks [7], and Hidden Markov models (HMM’s) [8] are some of the techniques that can handle statistical and structural data but separately. However, there is a growing need for developing mathematical paradigms that embed both statistics and syntax at the same time. The main goal in this paper is to merge statistics and syntax in a seamless way within a novel concept that we called “structural hidden Markov models”. This paper is organized as follows: section 2 covers the mathematical description of a structural hidden Markov model. The application and the experiments are presented in section 3 and the conclusion and future work are laid in section 4.

2. Fusion of Statistics and Syntax: The Concept of Structural HMM

In this section, we build a mathematical model that merges statistical and structural information together. This model that we called SHMM goes beyond the traditional HMM since it emphasizes the structure (or syntax) of the visible sequence of observation. It provides information about the structure formed by the visible sequence of observations. Let \( O = (v_1v_2\ldots v_T) \) be the observation sequence of length \( T \) and \( q = (q_1q_2\ldots q_T) \) be the state sequence where \( q_1 \) is the initial state, given model \( \lambda \), we can write:

\[
P(O \mid \lambda) = \sum_{a_{1T}} P(O, q \mid \lambda) = \sum_{a_{1T}} [P(O \mid q, \lambda) \times P(q \mid \lambda)],
\]

and using state conditional independence, we obtain:

\[
P(O \mid q, \lambda) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(v_t \mid q_t, \lambda).
\]

However, there are several scenarios where the conditional independence assumption doesn’t hold. For example, while standard HMM’s perform well in recognizing amino acids and consequent construction of proteins from the first level structure of DNA sequences [5], they are inadequate for predicting the secondary structure of a protein. The reason for the inadequacy comes from the fact that the same order of amino acid sequences have different folding modes in natural circumstances. Therefore, there is a need to balance
the loss incurred by this state conditional independence assumption. Our idea is to create syntactical rules that possess these observation sequences as evidences. These rules show how the secondary structure of a protein is constructed: they represent the structural information.

In the SHMM framework, the observation sequence $O$ is not only one sequence in which all observations are conditionally independent, but a sequence that is divided into a series of subsequences $O_i = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_r)$ $(1 \leq i \leq s)$, where $s$ is the number of subsequences. The observations in a subsequence are related in the sense that they represent evidences for a same conclusion of a rule such as $\mathbf{C}_{R_i} \xleftarrow{R_i} v_1 \land v_2 \land \ldots \land v_r$. The length of each subsequence is $r_i$ $(1 \leq i \leq s)$ and $T = \sum_i r_i$. The structural information in this model is expressed through the activation of the rules set by the experts. The whole sequence of observations can be written directly as:

$$O = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_r, \mathbf{C}_{R_1}, v_1', v_2', \ldots, v_r', \mathbf{C}_{R_2}, \ldots, v_1', v_2', \ldots, v_r', \mathbf{C}_{R_s}).$$

Therefore, we can define a Structural HMM as:

**Definition 2.1** A structural hidden Markov model is a quintuple $\lambda = (\pi, A, B, C, D)$, where:

- $\pi$ is the initial state probability vector, $\pi = \{\pi_i\}$, where $\pi_i = P(q_i = i)$ and $1 \leq i \leq N$, $\sum_i \pi_i = 1$.

- $N$ is the number of states in the model. We label the individual states as $1, 2, \ldots, N$, and denote the state at time $t$ as $q_t$.

- $A$ is the state transition probability matrix, $A = \{a_{ij}\}$, where $a_{ij} = P(q_{t+1} = j \mid q_t = i)$ and $1 \leq i, j \leq N$, $\sum_j a_{ij} = 1$.

- $B$ is the state conditional probability matrix of the visible observations, $B = \{b_j(k)\}$, in which $b_j(k) = P(v_k \mid q_j)$, $1 \leq k \leq M$ and $1 \leq j \leq N$. $M$ is the number of distinct observations in one state. We use a symbol to represent each observation, and the set of symbols is denoted as $V = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_M\}$.

- $C$ is the posterior probability matrix of a conclusion given a sequence of observations, $C = \{c_j(i)\}$, where $c_j(i) = P(C_{R_i} \mid O_i)$, $\sum_i c_j(i) = 1$. We denote the conclusion assigned to $O_i$ via rule $R_i$ as $C_{R_i}$. This can be depicted as: $C_{R_i} \xleftarrow{R_i} v_1 \land v_2 \land \ldots \land v_j$, where $j_k$ is the number of evidences (observations) in the tail of the rule. The meaning of $R_i$ depends on the applications at hand. For example, a protein’s type can be expressed as a conjunction of amino acids.

- $D$ is the conclusion transition probability matrix, $D = \{d_{ij}\}$, where $d_{ij} = P(C_{R_j} \mid C_{R_i})$, $\sum_j d_{ij} = 1$.

An example of the interaction between sequences of observations and their corresponding rule conclusions can be illustrated by Figure 1. The choice of the topology of the network in the figure depends on the information we have regarding a particular application. We now define the problems that are involved in a structural hidden Markov model.

### 2.1. Problems assigned to a Structural HMM

There are four problems that are assigned to a SHMM: (i) Probability evaluation, (ii) Statistical decoding, (iii) Structural decoding and (iv) Parameter estimation.

#### 2.1.1 Problem 1: Probability Evaluation

The evaluation problem in SHMM is to compute:

$$P(O \mid \lambda) = P(O_1, C_{R_1}, O_2, C_{R_2}, \ldots, O_s, C_{R_s} \mid \lambda)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{s} P(O_i, C_{R_i} \mid O_{i-1}, C_{R_{i-1}}, \ldots, O_1, C_{R_1}, \lambda).$$

Because $C_{R_i}$ is conditionally dependent on $C_{R_{i-1}}$ and $O_i$ is independent of $C_{R_{i-1}}$, Equation 1 can be expressed as:

$$P(O \mid \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{s} P(O_i, C_{R_i} \mid C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda),$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{s} \left[ P(C_{R_i} \mid O_i, C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda) \times P(O_i \mid C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda) \right]$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{s} \left[ P(C_{R_i} \mid O_i, C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda) \times P(O_i \mid C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda) \right]$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{s} P(C_{R_i} \mid O_i, C_{R_{i-1}}, \lambda) \times \prod_{i=1}^{s} P(O_i \mid \lambda).$$

We assume for now that $C_{R_i}$ is independent of $C_{R_{i-1}}$; finally, this provides:

$$P(O \mid \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{s} c_i(i) \times \sum_{q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_s} \pi_{q_1} b_{q_1}(v_1) a_{q_1} b_{q_2}(v_2) \cdots a_{q_{i-1}} b_{q_i}(v_i).$$

![Figure 1. Structural HMM topology.](image-url)
2.1.2 Problem 2: Statistical Decoding

The statistical decoding problem consists of determining the optimal state sequence \( q^* = \text{argmax}_q (P(O | q, \lambda)) \) that best “explains” the sequence of observations. It can be computed using the Viterbi algorithm as in traditional HMM’s.

2.1.3 Problem 3: Structural Decoding

The structural decoding problem consists of determining the optimal rule conclusion sequence \( C^* = C_{R_1} C_{R_2} \ldots C_{R_t} \) such that: \( C^* = \text{argmax}_C (P(O | C, \lambda)) \).

We define: \( \delta_t(i) = \max_{C_{R_1} C_{R_2} \ldots C_{R_t}} P(O, C_{R_1} C_{R_2} \ldots C_{R_t} = i | \lambda) \) that is, \( \delta_t(i) \) is the highest probability along a single path, at time \( t \), which accounts for the first \( t \) observations and ends in rule conclusion \( i \). Then, we estimate the following by induction: \( \delta_{t+1}(i) = \max_{j} \delta_t(i) d_{ij} b_j(v_{t+1}) \). Similarly, this can be computed using the Viterbi algorithm. However, we estimate \( \delta \) in each step through the conclusion transition probability matrix instead of the state transition probability matrix. This optimal sequence of conclusions describes the structural pattern piecewise.

2.1.4 Problem 4: Parameter Estimation

The re-estimation phase of the parameters \( \{\pi_1\}, \{a_{ij}\}, \{b_j(k)\} \) and \( \{d_{ij}\} \) is conducted as in traditional HMM’s, using the Baum-Welch optimization technique. However, the most difficult problem is the estimation of \( c_j(i) \). There are two types of uncertainty that can be expressed using first-order logical rules: statistical uncertainty, where we are uncertain of the distribution of conclusions across properties, and propositional uncertainty, where we are uncertain of the truth of logical sentences [6].

We define both of the uncertainties in the following:

- **Statistical Uncertainty**: In this method, the uncertainty on the conclusion is expressed as a posterior probability. Using naïve Bayes’ rule, we make the following estimation:

\[
P(C_{R_t} | v_{j1} v_{j2} \ldots v_{jk}) \approx \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{k} P(v_{ij} | C_{R_j}) \times P(C_{R_j})}{\sum_{C_{R_j, j=1}}^{k} P(v_{ij} | C_{R_j}) \times P(C_{R_j})}.
\]

The term \( P(v_{ij} | C_{R_j}) \) is estimated using the ML criterion. The prior distribution \( P(C_{R_j}) \) is assumed to be uniform.

- **Propositional Uncertainty**: Nilsson was among the first to consider the problem of representing propositional uncertainty, i.e., uncertainty regarding the truth of logical sentences. The implication rule \( C_{R_t} \Rightarrow v_{j1} v_{j2} \ldots v_{jk} \) is viewed as an entailment between a tail and a head predicate. We transform the chain relation into predicates:

\[
v_{j1} \land v_{j2} \land \ldots \land v_{jk} \Rightarrow C_{R_t}
\]

\[
A_1 \land A_2 \land \ldots \land A_k \Rightarrow C_{R_t}
\]

where \( A_k = v_{jk} \). If \( A = A_1 \land A_2 \land \ldots \land A_k \) then the problem consists of determining the probability assigned to \( C_{R_t} \), given the probability of the entailment (that depends on our expertise in the application at hand) and the probability assigned to \( A \) (estimated). The truth of logical sentences is defined in terms of possible worlds. A probability distribution over possible worlds is built. An agent’s world model expresses its degree of belief that any possible world is the actual world, and can be used to compute the degree of belief (sentence probability) of a sentence. Given a probabilistic knowledge \( P(A) \) that expresses our propositional uncertainty, we would like to compute the degree of belief for \( P(C_{R_t}) \). The random worlds formulation allows us to reason under propositional uncertainty, given a world model. However, we are immediately faced with identifiability: in general, our probabilistic knowledge base \( P(A) \) can be compatible with infinitely many possible world models. We can either accept this indeterminacy or introduce an additional criterion such as the “Jaynes” [4] maximum entropy that eliminates it. In this probabilistic logic framework, the probability of an observation is \( P(v_{jk}) = P(v_{jk} = \text{true}) \), which is the probability that a predicate is true. The truth table of predicates of the rule \( C_{R_t} \Rightarrow v_{j1} v_{j2} \ldots v_{jk} \) is illustrated in Table 1.

To estimate the probability of \( P(C_{R_t}) \), we need to determine the vector \( W = P(w_i) \) such that \( C \cdot W = \Pi \), where \( C \) is the consistent logical truth table, \( W \) is the probability vector assigned to possible worlds, and \( \Pi \) is the probability vector assigned to predicates. In order to determine a unique solution to this problem, we maximize the entropy assigned to the possible worlds distribution [4].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possible worlds:</th>
<th>( w_1 \ w_2 \ldots \ w_{k-1} \ w_k )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( v_{j1} )</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( v_{j2} )</td>
<td>0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>\ldots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( v_{jk} )</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( A )</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C_{R_t} )</td>
<td>1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( C_{R_t} )</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Logical truth table assigned to predicates
3. Application and Experiments

We have applied this research in order to aid automotive design engineers in predicting customers’ perceptions on particular car makes before these cars are put into making. This enables automotive companies to save money by data mining customers preferences. We collected 228 images of regular cars with their three views (front, size and rear, i.e., 684 images). During our survey, we extracted the contour of the three views of the whole car (thus removed the influence of colors on a student’s opinion), then presented these contours to 100 university students. The students were asked to give their opinions on the three views of a car viewed separately as well as their opinions on the car as a whole. Opinions are adjectives that express their feelings of the car view at first sight. Thus we obtained 912 adjectives clustered with synonymy using the online lexical database WordNet [2]. Each centroid of a cluster is called a perception which is a conclusion in SHMM modeling. Each respondent’s opinion (adjective, such as beautiful, sporty, etc.) belongs to one and only one perception.

Therefore, we extracted the contour of “front (f)” and represented it as \( O_f = (v_1 v_2 \ldots v_r_f) \), where \( v_i \) are bits representing the chain code directions of the contour and \( r_f \) is the length of \( O_f \). The customer’s opinion assigned to this view is represented by \( C_{R_f} \), where \( C_{R_f} \) is the conclusion assigned to rule \( R_f \) that defines how the opinion of this view is obtained from the chain code description of its contour. An example of such a rule is: “attractive” \( \iff \) 3017432…12, which means that the contour of the view represented by the chain code string is tagged as “attractive”. We did similar task on the “side (s)” and the “rear (r)” views and obtained \( O_s, C_{R_s}, O_r \) and \( C_{R_r} \), respectively.

The k-nearest neighbors and neural networks classifiers have also been experimented in order to compare them with SHMM. We used the statistical uncertainty discussed in section 2.1.4 for classification. Preliminary performance results are depicted in Table 2. If our predicted conclusion (or category) is \( C_p \) and the true conclusion obtained from survey is \( C_t \), then our precision is defined as:

\[
\text{Precision} = \frac{\sum \delta(C_p - C_t)}{|\text{input patterns}|}
\]

where \( \delta(x - a) \) is the Kronecker symbol which is “1” if \( x=a \), and “0” otherwise, the denominator \( |\text{input patterns}| \) represents the total number of patterns (external contours of a car). SHMM outperformed the two traditional classifiers since its accuracy is 90%. This optimal prediction of user perceptions is fed to the design engineer before the car is put into making.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>k-NN</th>
<th>NN</th>
<th>SHMM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>140 cars</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>228 cars</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Performances obtained using the k-nearest neighbors, the neural network and the SHMM classifiers.

4. Conclusion and Future Work

We have introduced a novel mathematical paradigm that is capable of exploiting both statistical and syntactical information at the same time. We believe that the concept of structural hidden Markov model will bridge the gap between statistical and syntactical researchers within the PR community. Our approach relates visible observations through their contribution to a same logical conclusion of a syntactic rule. We have seen that the structural decoding can have two different interpretations. We have used the statistical uncertainty approach to answer the “structural decoding problem”. We have obtained promising results in the automobile application described above. However, this research is still ongoing, more data need to be collected in order to measure the real contribution of SHMM’s. We also need to test the propositional uncertainty approach and apply SHMM’s in other areas.

References