Paper Review: Variational Inference

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Paper Information.

• David M. Blei et. al. Variational Inference: A Review for Statisticians. arXiv preprint arXiv:1601.00670, 2016.

1 Introduction

- A core problem of modern statistics is to approximate difficult-to-compute probability densities.
- Consider a joint density of latent variables $z = z_{1:m}$ and observations $x = x_{1:n}$

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) = p(\boldsymbol{z})p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{z}).$$

A Bayesian model draws the latent variables from a prior density p(z) and then relates them back to the observations through the likelihood $p(x \mid z)$.

- Inference amounts to conditioning on the data and computing the posterior $p(z \mid x)$.
- In complex or high-dimensional Bayesian models, this computation is often intractable.
- There are two approaches to approximate inference: MCMC and variational inference.
 - MCMC first constructs an ergodic Markov chain on z whose stationary distribution is the posterior $p(z \mid x)$. Then, we sample from the chain to collect samples from the stationary distribution.
 - Variational inference uses a family of tractable distributions \mathcal{Q} to approximate $p(z \mid x)$. Equivalently, variational inference uses \mathcal{Q} to approximate p(x).
- Comparing variational inference and MCMC.
 - MCMC methods tend to be more computationally expensive than variational inference, but they
 also provide guarantees of producing (asymptotically) exact samples from the target density.
 - Variational inference does not enjoy such guarantees—it can only find a density close to the target—but tends to be faster than MCMC. Because it rests on optimization, variational inference easily takes advantage of methods like stochastic optimization and distributed optimization.
- In the following sections, I omit examples for clarity of exposition. Please read the reference materials for detailed examples.

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¹A distribution is tractable if it has a closed form density function or we can easily sample from it.

²Approximating $p(z \mid x)$ is equivalent to approximating p(x) since $p(z \mid x) = p(z, x)/p(x)$.

2 Variational Inference

- Let $\boldsymbol{x} = x_{1:n}$ be a set of observed variables and $\boldsymbol{z} = z_{1:m}$ be a set of latent variables with joint density $p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})$.
- The inference problem is to compute the conditional density of z given x

$$p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}.$$

The denominator is called the *evidence*. We calculate it by marginalizing out the latent variables

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \int p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) \, d\boldsymbol{z}.$$

For many models, the evidence integral is unavailable in closed form or requires exponential (w.r.t. the dimension n) time to compute. This is why inference in such models is hard.

• Hence, we resort to approximate inference. There are two equivalent approaches.

2.1 Approach 1: Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

- Assuming we have p(z, x), calculating $p(z \mid x)$ is equivalent to calculating p(x).
- Instead of directly calculating p(x), we maximize a lower bound of p(x).
- Specifically, we first define a variational family Q of tractable densities over the latent variables.
- Then, for any $q(z) \in \mathcal{Q}$,

$$\begin{split} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}) &= \log \int p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} \\ &= \log \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \left[\frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \right] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \left[\log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} [\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} [\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] \\ &= \mathtt{ELBO}[q] \end{split}$$

where we have used Jensen's inequality at the fourth line. ELBO is defined as

$$\mathsf{ELBO}[q] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] \tag{1}$$

and it lower bounds the (log) evidence p(x). From here comes its name "evidence lower bound".

• We can also obtain ELBO by the following process.

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log p(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{z}$$

$$= \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})} d\boldsymbol{z}$$

$$= \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \cdot \frac{q(\boldsymbol{z})}{p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})} d\boldsymbol{z}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} [\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})} [\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{z}) || p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x}))$$

$$= \mathrm{ELBO}[q] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{z}) || p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x}))$$

$$\geq \mathrm{ELBO}[q]. \tag{2}$$

• Hence, we can solve the optimization problem

$$\max_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} \; \mathtt{ELBO}[q]$$

to obtain the best approximation to $\log p(x)$.

- Equation (2) shows that ELBO is maximized when $q(z) = p(z \mid x)$.
- Calculus of variations can also be used to prove that $q(z) = p(x \mid z)$ maximizes the ELBO.
- For a detailed proof, see Appendix A.2.
- We also observe that

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{ELBO}[q] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] \\ & = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{z})] + \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] \\ & = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{z})] - D_{\operatorname{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{z}) || p(\boldsymbol{z})). \end{split} \tag{3}$$

- The first term is an expected likelihood, and it encourages densities that place their mass on configurations of the latent variables that explain the observed data.
- The second term is the negative divergence between the variational density and the prior; it encourages densities close to the prior.

2.2 Approach 2: Posterior Approximation

- We specify a family Q of densities over the latent variables.
- Each candidate $q(z) \in \mathcal{Q}$ is a candidate approximation to the exact conditional $p(z \mid x)$.
- Inference now amounts to solving the following optimization problem

$$\begin{split} q^*(\boldsymbol{z}) &= \mathop{\arg\min}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{z}) \| p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})) \\ &= \mathop{\arg\min}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})] \\ &= \mathop{\arg\min}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] + \log p(\boldsymbol{x}) \\ &= \mathop{\arg\min}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] \\ &= \mathop{\arg\min}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} - \mathrm{ELBO}[q] \\ &= \mathop{\arg\max}_{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathrm{ELBO}[q]. \end{split}$$

- Once found, $q^*(z)$ is the best approximation of the conditional, within the family Q.
- The complexity of the family determines the complexity of this optimization.
- Since

$$\underset{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}}{\arg\min} D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{z}) \| p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x})) = \underset{q(\boldsymbol{z}) \in \mathcal{Q}}{\arg\max} \, \mathtt{ELBO}[q],$$

approaches 1 and 2 are equivalent.

3 Mean-Field Variational Inference

- We now know we can do approximate inference by maximizing the ELBO w.r.t. a variational family Q.
- We give an example of a variational family $\mathcal Q$ that is often used in the literature.
- We focus on the *mean-field variational family*, where the latent variables are mutual independent and each governed by a distinct factor in the variational density.

$$q(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{j=1}^{m} q_j(z_j). \tag{4}$$

Each latent variable z_i is governed by its own variational factor, the density $q_i(z_i)$.

3.1 Coordinate Ascent Mean-Field Variational Inference (CAVI)

- CAVI optimizes each factor of the mean-field variational density, while holding the others fixed.
- It climbs the ELBO to a local maximum.
- Define

$$\mathbf{z}_{-j} = (z_1, \dots, z_{j-1}, z_{j+1}, \dots, z_m), \qquad q_{-j}(\mathbf{z}_{-j}) = \prod_{\ell \neq j} q_j(z_j).$$

- The complete conditional of z_j is its conditional density given all of the other latent variables in the model and the observations $p(z_j \mid \mathbf{z}_{-j}, \mathbf{x})$.
- The CAVI update is given by

$$q_j^*(z_j) \propto \exp\left\{\mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log p(z_j \mid \boldsymbol{z}_{-j}, \boldsymbol{x})]\right\}. \tag{5}$$

Equivalently, Equation (5) is proportional to

$$q_j^*(z_j) \propto \exp\left\{\mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log p(z_j, \boldsymbol{z}_{-j}, \boldsymbol{x})]\right\}.$$
 (6)

Because of the mean-field family assumption, the expectations of on the RHS do not involve the jth variational factor. Thus this is a valid coordinate update.

• We now derive the CAVI update. Specifically, define

$$Z[q_{-j}] = \int \exp\left\{\mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log p(z_j, \boldsymbol{z}_{-j}, \boldsymbol{x})]\right\} dz_j$$

such that

$$q_j^*(z_j) = \frac{1}{Z[q_{-j}]} \exp\left\{ \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log p(z_j, \boldsymbol{z}_{-j}, \boldsymbol{x})] \right\}$$

and we rewrite the ELBO as a functional of q_i .

$$\begin{split} \text{ELBO}[q_j] &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q_j(z)] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q_j(z_j)}\left[\mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log p(z_j, \boldsymbol{z}_{-j}, \boldsymbol{x})]\right] - \mathbb{E}_{q_j(z_j)}[\log q_j(z)] - \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q_j(z_j)}\left[\log q_j^*(z_j)\right] - \mathbb{E}_{q_j(z_j)}[\log q_j(z)] - \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})] + Z[q_{-j}] \\ &= -D_{\text{KL}}(q_j^*(z_j)\|q_j(z_j)) - \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})}[\log q_{-j}(\boldsymbol{z}_{-j})] + Z[q_{-j}]. \end{split}$$

Since the second and the third terms are constant w.r.t. q_j , ELBO $[q_j]$ is maximized when $q_j = q_i^*$.

- We can also use Calculus of Variations to derive the CAVI update.
- See http://www2.imm.dtu.dk/pubdb/edoc/imm3314.pdf for an example.

4 Expectation Maximization (EM)

• Let x be a set of observed variables and y be a set of latent variables with joint density

$$p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

where θ is the set of parameters of p.

4.1 EM for MLE

• The goal of MLE is to solve

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• Since

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \int p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{z},$$

the integral appears inside the log. This can make optimization difficult.

• We recall that (c.f. Equation (2))

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathtt{ELBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \geq \mathtt{ELBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}]$$

where

$$\mathtt{ELBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{y})].$$

Since

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})] = \int q(\boldsymbol{y}) \log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{z},$$

the integral appears outside the log so the maximization of the ELBO w.r.t. q or θ can be easier.

- Motivated by this observation, we take a two-step approach.
 - E (expectation) step: hold θ constant and solve

$$q^*(\boldsymbol{y}) = \argmax_{q(\boldsymbol{y})} \mathtt{ELBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

We then calculate the expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{q^*(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})] = \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})]$$

which is the only term in the ELBO $[q^*, \theta]$ depending on θ .

- M (maximization) step: hold q^* constant and solve

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathtt{ELBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})].$$

- Set q and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ as q^* and $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ and repeat the above two steps.
- This indeed increases $\log p(x \mid \theta)$ since

$$\begin{split} \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \mathtt{ELBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ &= \mathtt{ELBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}] \\ &\leq \mathtt{ELBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*] \\ &\leq \mathtt{ELBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ &= \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}^*). \end{split}$$

4.2 EM for MAP Estimation

• We introduce a prior distribution for θ , denoted θ , such that

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• The goal of MAP is to solve

$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• Replacing x by (x, θ) in Equation (2), we see that

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathtt{LBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \ge \mathtt{LBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}]$$

where

$$\mathtt{LBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{y})].$$

I will call the above term just "lower bound" not ELBO, since $p(x, \theta)$ is not evidence.

- We again take a two-step approach.
 - E (expectation) step: hold θ constant and solve

$$q^*(\boldsymbol{y}) = \argmax_{q(\boldsymbol{y})} \texttt{LBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

We then calculate the expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_{q^*(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})] = \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})]$$

which is the only term in the LBO $[q^*, \theta]$ depending on θ .

- M (maximization) step: hold q^* constant and solve

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \texttt{LBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \argmax_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})].$$

- Set q and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ as q^* and $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ and repeat the above two steps.
- This indeed increases $\log p(x, \theta)$ since

$$\begin{split} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \mathtt{LBO}[q, \boldsymbol{\theta}] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ &= \mathtt{LBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}] \\ &\leq \mathtt{LBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*] \\ &\leq \mathtt{LBO}[q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*] + D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \| p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ &= \log p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*). \end{split}$$

Remark.

- EM maximizes the ELBO exactly while variational inference maximizes the ELBO approximately.
- EM which uses Monte Carlo approximation in the E step (in this case, E step of EM for MLE)

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{x}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})] \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{\ell=1}^{L} \log p(\boldsymbol{y}^{(\ell)},\boldsymbol{x}\mid\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

where $\mathbf{y}^{(\ell)}$ are samples from $p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is called *Monte Carlo EM*.

Reference Material.

• Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning by Christopher M. Bishop.

5 Variational EM

- Let \mathcal{M} be a collection of model structures.
- Each model structure $m \in \mathcal{M}$ has a set of parameters θ .
- Let x be a set of observed variables and y be a set of latent variables.
- For each model structure m, we then have the joint distribution

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \mid m).$$

• Our goal is to calculate the evidence

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid m) = \log \iint p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \mid m) d\boldsymbol{y} d\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

Then, we can either perform MLE w.r.t. m

$$\underset{m \in \mathcal{M}}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid m)$$

or given a prior distribution over model structures p(m), we can perform MAP w.r.t. m

$$\operatorname*{arg\,max} \log p(m \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname*{arg\,max} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}, m) = \operatorname*{arg\,max} \log p(\boldsymbol{x} \mid m) p(m).$$

- Recall that maximizing the ELBO leads to approximating the log evidence (Section 2.1).
- Hence, setting $z_1 = \mathbf{y}$ and $z_2 = \mathbf{\theta}$ such that $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\theta})$, we may use CAVI (Section 3.1).
- Specifically, define the mean-field variational distribution (c.f. Equation (4))

$$q(\mathbf{z}) = q(\mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = q_1(\mathbf{y})q_2(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

Equation (5) gives us the update rule

$$q_1^*(\boldsymbol{y}) \propto \exp\left\{\mathbb{E}_{q_2(\boldsymbol{\theta})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{x}, m)]\right\},$$

$$q_2^*(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \exp\left\{\mathbb{E}_{q_1^*(\boldsymbol{y})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, m)]\right\}.$$

We then set $q_1(\mathbf{y})$ and $q_2(\mathbf{\theta})$ as $q_1^*(\mathbf{y})$ and $q_2^*(\mathbf{\theta})$ and repeat the above two steps.

- Somewhat like EM, variational EM alternates between a $q_1(\boldsymbol{y})$ update and a $q_2(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ update.
- This is why it is called variational "EM".

Reference Material.

• Matthew J. Beal and Zoubin Ghahramani. The Variational Bayesian EM Algorithm for Incomplete Data: with Applications to Scoring Graphical Model Structures. In Bayesian Statistics 7, 2003.

A Calculus of Variations

A.1 Preliminaries

- A functional is a scalar-valued function defined on the space of functions.
- Formally, a functional \mathcal{F} , when given a function u, returns a scalar $\mathcal{F}[u]$.
- The *calculus of variations* is a field of mathematics that uses variations, which are small changes in functions and functionals, to find maxima and minima of functionals.
- We use the functional gradient, denoted $\nabla \mathcal{F}[u]$, to find maxima or minima of functionals.
- We treat the functional gradient as a directional derivative

$$\langle \nabla \mathcal{F}[u], v \rangle = \frac{d}{d\lambda} \mathcal{F}[u + \lambda v] \bigg|_{\lambda = 0} \tag{7}$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$.

- The function v representing the direction of the derivative is called the *variation* of the function u.
- The inner product is the standard L^2 inner product for real functions

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int f(x)g(x) dx.$$

Proposition 1. For a differentiable function f, if

$$\mathcal{F}[u] = \int f(u(x)) \, dx,$$

then the functional gradient is given by

$$\nabla \mathcal{F}[u] = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(u) = f'(u).$$

Proof. Observe that

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda}\mathcal{F}[u+\lambda v] = \frac{d}{d\lambda} \int f(u(x) + \lambda v(x)) dx$$
$$= \int \frac{d}{d\lambda} f(u(x) + \lambda v(x)) dx$$
$$= \int f'(u(x) + \lambda v(x)) v(x) dx$$

and so

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda}\mathcal{F}[u+\lambda v]\bigg|_{\lambda=0} = \int f'(u(x))v(x) \, dx = \langle f'(u), v \rangle.$$

Since (7) must hold for any choice of v, we see that the claim is true.

Reference Materials.

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Calculus_of_variations
- https://www2.math.uconn.edu/~gordina/NelsonAaronHonorsThesis2012.pdf

A.2 Finding the Maximizer of ELBO

• We solve the constrained optimization problem

$$\max_{q} \text{ ELBO}[q] \quad \text{s.t. } \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) d\boldsymbol{z} = 1.$$

• To this end, we form the Lagrangian

$$L(q, \lambda) = \mathtt{ELBO}[q] + \lambda \left(\int q(oldsymbol{z}) \, doldsymbol{z} - 1
ight).$$

• The maximizer of ELBO should satisfy the Lagrangian stationarity condition

$$\nabla L(q, \lambda) = 0.$$

Using the definition of ELBO and Proposition 1, we see that

$$\begin{split} \nabla L(q,\lambda) &= \nabla \left[\mathbb{E} \mathsf{LBO}[q] + \lambda \left(\int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} - 1 \right) \right] \\ &= \nabla \left[\mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{z})}[\log q(\boldsymbol{z})] + \lambda \left(\int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} - 1 \right) \right] \\ &= \nabla \left[\int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} - \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} + \lambda \left(\int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} - 1 \right) \right] \\ &= \nabla \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} - \nabla \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \log q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} + \lambda \nabla \int q(\boldsymbol{z}) \, d\boldsymbol{z} \\ &= \log p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) - \log q(\boldsymbol{z}) - 1 + \lambda \end{split}$$

and so to satisfy the stationarity condition, we should have

$$q(z) = p(z, x)e^{\lambda - 1}$$

• Due to the optimization constraint,

$$1 = \int q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} = \int p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}) e^{\lambda - 1} d\mathbf{z}$$
$$= e^{\lambda - 1} \int p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{z}$$
$$= e^{\lambda - 1} p(\mathbf{x})$$

so we obtain

$$e^{\lambda - 1} = \frac{1}{p(x)}.$$

• It follows that

$$q(\boldsymbol{z}) = p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x}) e^{\lambda - 1} = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})} = p(\boldsymbol{z} \mid \boldsymbol{x}).$$

Reference Material.

• https://wiki.inf.ed.ac.uk/twiki/pub/MLforNLP/WebHome/bkj-VBwalkthrough.pdf