

# Machine Learning

Stochastic Approximative Inference

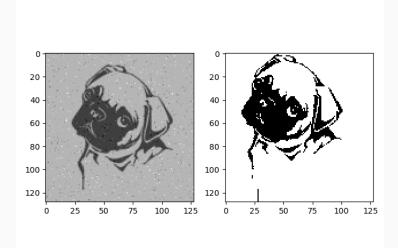
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November 6, 2017

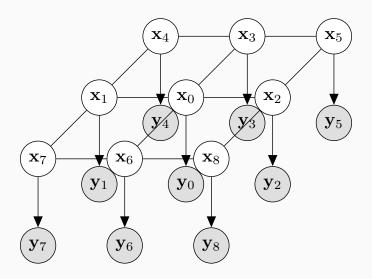
http://www.carlhenrik.com

Introduction

## Coursework II



## Coursework II



## Coursework II

- Availible on GitHub
- 10 Questions
- Implementation of 3 methods and analysis of 1
- Deadline <2017-12-01 Fri> 12:00

# Approximative Inference

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

 For the MRF case the marginal likelihood/evidence can be computed as

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i}^{N} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_{i})p(\mathbf{x}_{i})$$

• 3 Megapixel (IPhone 3GS released in 2009)

#### Number of terms i

#### Number of terms ii

## Number of terms iii

#### Number of terms iv

#### Number of terms v

#### Number of terms vi

#### Number of terms vii

#### Number of terms viii

#### Number of terms ix

• Possible black and white 3 Megapixel images

$$2^{3*10^6} = 2^{3000000}$$

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$$4.35 \cdot 10^{17} \approx 2^{59}$$

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$$4.35 \cdot 10^{17} \approx 2^{59}$$

• Lets agree that this for loop is intractable

## **Analytical Intractability**

$$\log p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}) = \log \left( \prod_{i}^{N} \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i})^{t_{i}} \cdot (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i}))^{1 - t_{i}} \right)$$
$$- \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_{0})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S}_{0}^{-1} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_{0}) - \log(Z)$$

- Sometimes conjugacy does not make sense
- The prior and the likelihood makes sense by themselves
- Classification is the typical example

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z}f(z) = \frac{f(z)}{\int f(z)dz}$$

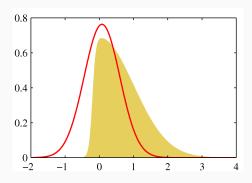
- p(z) is unknown as we cannot compute Z
- f(z) is possible to compute if we have likelihood and prior

$$f(z) = p(x|z)p(z)$$

$$\log p(z) = \log \left(\frac{1}{Z}f(z)\right) = \log(f(z)) + \text{const w.r.t. } z$$

- p(z) and f(z) will have the same modes
- Idea: we can approximate each mode with a distribution we can normalise

# Laplace Approximation Ch. 4.4 [1]



- Find the mode of the posterior
- Fit Gaussian to this mode

# Taylor Expansion

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \mathcal{O}((x - x_0)^3)$$

- A Taylor expansion is an approximation of a function around a specific value
- If we expand around a maxima  $x_0$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}f(x_0)=0$$

• This leads to

$$f(x) = f(x_0) - \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(x_0) \right| (x - x_0)^2 + \mathcal{O}((x - x_0)^3)$$

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})$$

• we want to find the mode of this, i.e. the maxima

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w})$$

• This we know as the Maximum-a-Posterior (MAP) estimate

1. Find mode of p(z)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z}p(z_0)=\frac{\partial}{\partial z}f(z_0)=0$$

2. Make Taylor Expansion around mode

$$\log f(z) \approx \log f(z_0) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial^2} \log(f(z_0))(z - z_0)^2$$

3. Take exponential to get function

$$f(z) \approx f(z_0)e^{-\frac{1}{2}\underbrace{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial^2}\log(f(z_0))}_{A}(z-z_0)^2} = f(z_0)e^{-\frac{1}{2}A(z-z_0)^2}$$

$$f(z) \approx f(z_0)e^{-\frac{1}{2}A(z-z_0)^2}$$

• we want to find an approximation, to p(z) so we need to normalise to a distribution

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z}f(z) \approx q(z)$$

• assume that q(z) is Gaussian, i.e.  $f(z_0) = p(\text{mean})$ 

$$q(z) = \left(\frac{A}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{A}{2}(z-z_0)^2}$$

One dimensional

$$q(z) = \left(\frac{A}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{A}{2}(z-z_0)^2}$$

D dimensional

$$q(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{|\mathbf{A}|}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{z}_0, \mathbf{A}^{-1})$$
$$\mathbf{A} = -\nabla \nabla \log f(\mathbf{z})|_{\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_0}$$

• Where A is the Hessian matrix

Compute a mode of the posterior distribution, i.e MAP estimate

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- Perform Taylor expansion around mode to quadratic term
- Identify elements in expansion as parameters of a Gaussian
- Normalise to a distribution

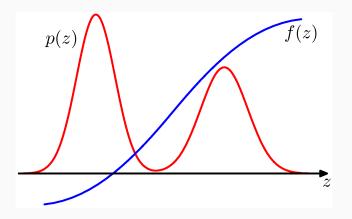
Stochastic Approximative

Inference

# Cookbook



# Introduction Ch. 11.0 [1]



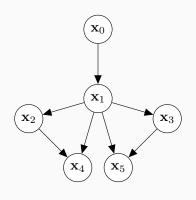
$$\mathbb{E}_{p(z)}[f] = \int f(z)p(z)dz \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} f(z^{(l)})$$
$$\mathbf{z}^{(l)} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$$

# Sampling

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} f(z^{(l)})$$
 $z^{(l)} \sim p(z)$ 
 $\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}] = \mathbb{E}[f]$ 
 $\operatorname{var}[\hat{f}] = \frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}\left[ (f(z) - \mathbb{E}[f])^2 \right]$ 

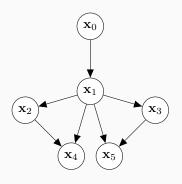
- We want each sample to be independent
- ullet Approximation not dependent on dimensionality of z
- Variance of estimator shrinks with number of samples

### How to sample?



$$p(\mathsf{x}) = \prod_i p(x_i|\mathsf{pa}_i)$$

### **Ancestral Sampling**

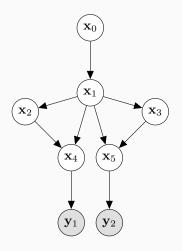


#### Sample from p(x)

- pick top nodes and draw sample
- 2. fix the top nodes and sample from conditionals
- 3. arrive at sample from x

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(x_5|x_3, x_1)p(x_4|x_2, x_1)p(x_3|x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_1|x_0)p(x_0)$$

#### **Observed Data**



#### Sample from p(x|y)

- 1. Ancestral sampling for all latent variables
- 2. When latent variables child is observed
  - sample from conditional
  - if sample agrees with observation x comes from posterior
  - if not discard sample and restart

### Basic Sampling Ch 11.1 [1]

- ullet Lets assume that we can get uniformly random numbers  $z\sim {\sf Uniform}(0,1)$
- A computer cannot, but lets assume it could
- Idea: can we transform this uniform distribution to something interesting
- ullet If we could then we could use samples from z

### Basic Probabilities (Lecture 2)

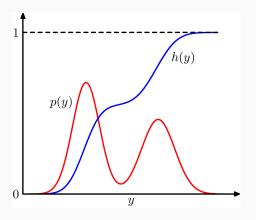
$$z \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1)$$

- We have access to a uniformly distributed variable z
- Change of variable

$$y = f(z)$$

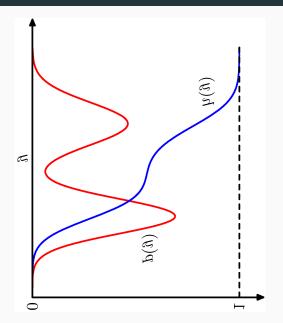
 Idea: can we find f(z) such that it induces p(y) to be the distribution that we want?

#### **Basic Probabilities**

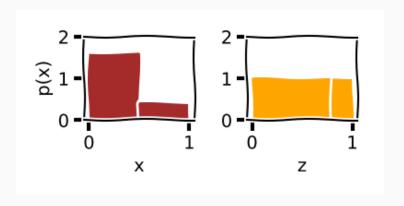


$$z = f^{-1}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} p(y) \mathrm{d}y$$

# Change of Variables



### Change of Variables

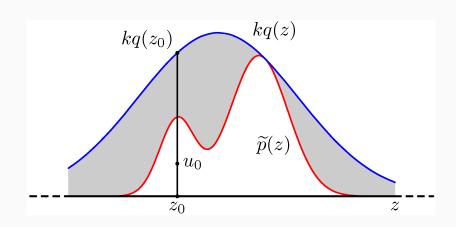


# Rejection Sampling Ch 11.1.2 [1]

$$p(\mathsf{z}) = \frac{1}{Z}\tilde{p}(\mathsf{z})$$

- p(z) is a distribution of unknown form
- We can evaluate  $\tilde{p}(z)$
- Can we draw samples from a simpler distribution and transform them?

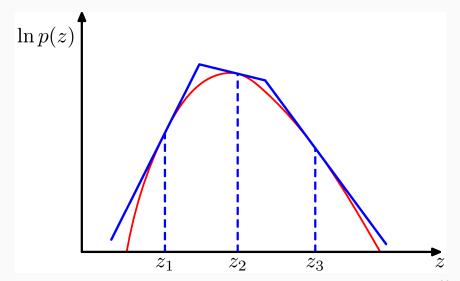
# **Rejection Sampling**



### Rejection Sampling

- 1. Pick approximate distribution q(z)
- 2. Pick constant k such that  $k \cdot q(\mathbf{z}) \geq \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z})$
- 3. Pick random location  $\mathbf{z}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{z})$
- 4. Pick random number  $u_0 \sim \text{Uniform}(0, k \cdot q(z_0))$
- 5. If  $u_0 > \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}_0)$  reject  $z_0$  otherwise retain

## Adaptive Rejection Sampling



#### Rejection Sampling

- Basic sampling allows us to draw samples from known distributions
- We can use these distributions as proposal distributions
- If bound is small we will get an efficient sampler
- Generally works well in few dimensions but do not scale
- We reject too many samples

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{z})}[f] = \int f(\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{z}$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{z})}[f] = \int f(\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z} = \int f(\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})\frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}d\mathbf{z}$$

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$$= \int f(\mathbf{z})\frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}q(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z} = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z})}\left[f\frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}\right]$$

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$$\approx \frac{1}{L}\sum_{l=1}^{L} f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})\frac{p(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}{q(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}$$

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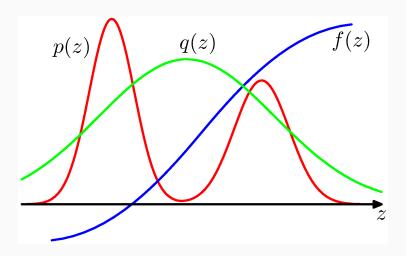
$$= \int f(\mathbf{z})\frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}q(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z} = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z})}\left[f\frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}\right]$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{L}\sum_{l=1}^{L} f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})\frac{p(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}{q(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{L}\sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l \cdot f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{z})}[f] pprox rac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l \cdot f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$
  $\mathbf{z}^{(l)} \sim q(\mathbf{z}), \quad r_l = rac{p(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}{q(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}$ 

- Directly approximate expectation
- Accepts all samples
- r<sub>I</sub> corrects bias in sampling from wrong distribution



$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z_p} \tilde{p}(z), \qquad q(z) = \frac{1}{Z_q} \tilde{q}(z)$$

• Often it will not be possible to evaluate p(z) and maybe not even q(z)

$$\mathbb{E}[f] = \frac{Z_q}{Z_p} \int f(\mathbf{z}) \frac{\tilde{p}(\mathbf{z})}{\tilde{q}(\mathbf{z})} q(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} \approx \frac{Z_q}{Z_p} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \tilde{r}_l \cdot f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

$$\frac{Z_p}{Z_q} = \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{z}$$

$$\frac{Z_p}{Z_q} = \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) \frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{Z_p}{Z_q} &= \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) \frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z} \\ &= \frac{1}{Z_q} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) \frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{\frac{1}{Z_q} \tilde{q}(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z} \end{split}$$

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$$\frac{Z_{p}}{Z_{q}} = \frac{1}{Z_{q}} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{Z_{q}} \int \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}) \frac{q(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z} 
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\approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \frac{\tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}{\tilde{q}(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})}$$

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- Not very surprising can we take the average ratio between the unormalised functions to get the normalisers
- We can use the same samples

$$\mathbb{E}[f] \approx \frac{Z_q}{Z_p} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[f] \approx \frac{Z_q}{Z_p} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)}) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

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$$= \sum_{l=1}^{L} \frac{r_l}{\sum_{k=1}^{L} r_k} f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)}) = \sum_{l=1}^{L} w_l f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

- More efficient compared to Rejection sampling as it uses all samples
- Hard to know how well you are doing
- We want to make sure that the importance weights are of small variance
  - q(z) should not be small where p(z) is large
- Will work wonders if q(z) is good

#### Markov Chain Monte Carlo



## Markov Chain Monte Carlo Ch 11.2 [1]

- Sample from a proposal distribution
- Remembers the state and samples from a conditional
- Can lead to much better exploration of the space

#### Markov Chain Monte Carlo

#### **Metropolis Sampling**

1. start with state  $\mathbf{z}^{(0)}$ 

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$$A(\mathsf{z}^*,\mathsf{z}^{(0)}) = \min\left(1,rac{ ilde{p}(\mathsf{z}^*)}{ ilde{p}(\mathsf{z}^{(0)})}
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### **Metropolis Sampling**

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4. Draw uniform random number  $u \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1)$ 

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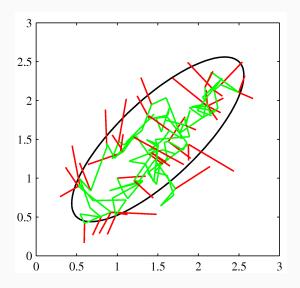
- 4. Draw uniform random number  $u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$ 
  - if  $A(z^*, z^{(0)}) > u \to z^{(1)} = z^*$

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  - if  $A(z^*, z^{(0)}) > u \to z^{(1)} = z^*$
  - otherwise reject z\* and start over

# Metropolis Gaussian



# Gibbs Sampling Ch 11.3 [1]

- Often 1D samples are easy to get
- Gibbs sampling exploits this to create a very simple Markov Chain
- Sample each variable in turn conditioned on the others and cycle through
- Each variable depends only on its Markov blanket so conditionals can be very simple

1. Initialise z<sup>(0)</sup>

- 1. Initialise  $z^{(0)}$
- 2. Pick single variable  $z_i \in \mathbf{z}$

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$$z_i^{(1)} \sim p(z_i|\mathbf{z}_{\neg i})$$

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$$z_i^{(1)} \sim p(z_i|\mathbf{z}_{\neg i})$$

5. cycle through variables

## Why is this easier?

#### Multivariate case

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y})}$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})p(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

# Why is this easier?

#### Multivariate case

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y})}$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})p(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

1D case

$$p(x_i|\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y})}$$

# Why is this easier?

#### Multivariate case

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y})}$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})p(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

#### 1D case

$$p(\mathbf{x}_i|\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y})}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) dx_i = \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in [1,-1]} p(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y})$$

$$= p(\mathbf{x}_i = 1,\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y}) + p(\mathbf{x}_i = -1,\mathbf{x}_{\neg i},\mathbf{y})$$

# Summary

### Summary

- Using sampling we can approximate tricky integrals by computing samples from distributions we do not know
- Sampling is a bit of a black-art and is rather hacky
- Often exact given infinite time
- Generally works but often time consuming

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# References



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