

Machine Learning

Stochastic Approximative Inference

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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

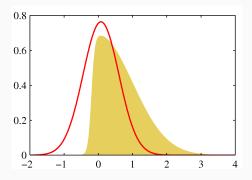
$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z}f(z) = \frac{f(z)}{\int f(z)dz}$$

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

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

- 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 [Bishop, 2006]



- 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

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

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. $f(z_0) = p(\text{mean})$

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

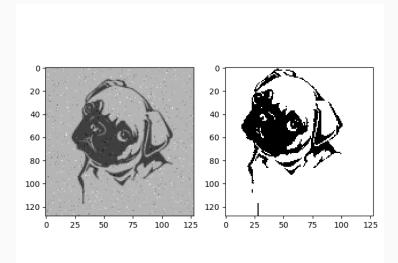
1. Compute a mode of the posterior distribution, i.e MAP estimate

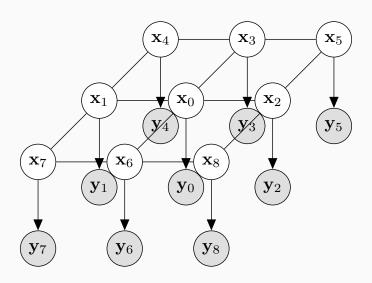
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- 3. Identify elements in expansion as parameters of a Gaussian

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

Approximative Inference





Posterior: Markov Random Field

Posterior

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

Posterior: Markov Random Field

Posterior

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

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

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

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x_i is a specific binary image



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

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$$10^{80} \approx (2^{\frac{10}{3}})^{80} \approx 2^{267}$$

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

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• Lets agree that this for loop is intractable



$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathrm{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$$



Bio

- Takes his time
- Works on his own and is hard to understand
- Will in the limit always catch the right guy
- Works a lot of cold cases

"To catch the right guy we need to consider every avenue, every possibility"

Variational Bayes Woman

Bio

- Gets the job done
- Reports to central command
- Believes smoke implies fire
- Sometimes catches the wrong guy

"Shoot first, ask questions later"



Inference

- Stochastic approximation (today)
 - Iterative Conditional Modes (ICM)
 - Markov Chain Monte Carlo, Gibbs Sampler

Inference

- Stochastic approximation (today)
 - Iterative Conditional Modes (ICM)
 - Markov Chain Monte Carlo, Gibbs Sampler
- Deterministic approximation (Monday)
 - Mean-field Variational Bayes
 - Mean-field Ising model VB update equations
 - derivation (Tuesday)

Stochastic Approximative Inference

Cookbook



Basic Sampling Ch 11.1 [Bishop, 2006]

$$z^{(I)} \sim p(z)$$

- Lets assume that we can get uniformly random numbers $z \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1)$
- 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)

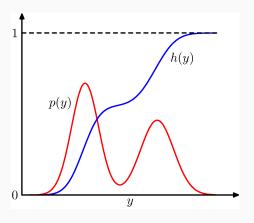
$$z \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 1)$$

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

$$y = f(z)$$

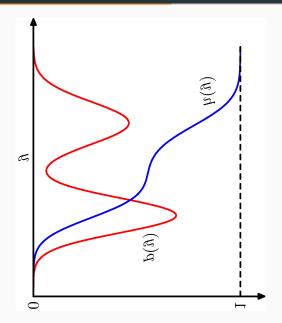
• Idea: can we find f(z) such that it induces p(y) to be the distribution that we want?

Basic Probabilities

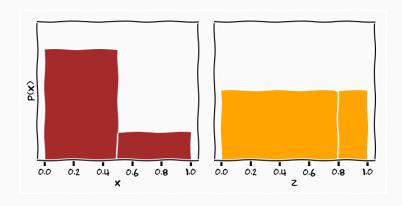


$$z = f^{-1}(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{y} p(y) \mathrm{d}y$$

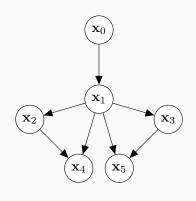
Change of Variables



Change of Variables

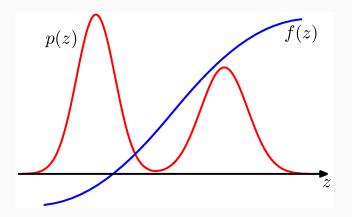


How to sample?



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

Introduction Ch. 11.0 [Bishop, 2006]



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

Sampling

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

- Approximation not dependent on dimensionality of z
- Variance of estimator shrinks with number of samples

Sampling

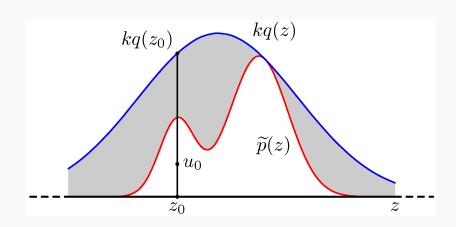
- We know how to transform samples from uniform to any distribution we can formulate the cummulative distribution
- Can we sample from distrubitons we do not know the form of?
 - 1. Rejection Sampling
 - 2. Importance Sampling
 - 3. Markov Chain Monte Carlo

Rejection Sampling Ch 11.1.2 [Bishop, 2006]

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

- 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 $u_0 \sim \text{Uniform}(0, k \cdot q(\mathbf{z}_0))$
- 5. If $u_0 > \tilde{p}(\mathbf{z}_0)$ reject z_0 otherwise retain

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

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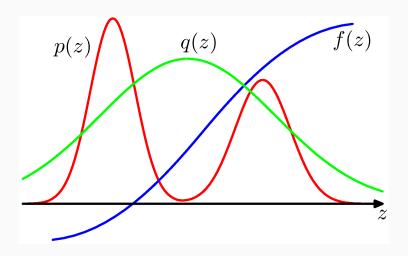
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$$= \frac{1}{L}\sum_{l=1}^{L} r_l \cdot f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

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

- Directly approximate expectation
- Accepts all samples
- r_l corrects bias in sampling from wrong distribution



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

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

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

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

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

Importance Sampling

- 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 Ch 11.2 [Bishop, 2006]

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

Metropolis Sampling

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

Metropolis Sampling

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- 2. sample from conditional proposal distribution $q(\mathbf{z}^*|\mathbf{z}^{(0)})$

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- 3. compute acceptance probability

$$A(\mathbf{z}^*, \mathbf{z}^{(0)}) = \min\left(1, \frac{\widetilde{p}(\mathbf{z}^*)}{\widetilde{p}(\mathbf{z}^{(0)})}\right)$$

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 - if $A(z^*, z^{(0)}) > u \to z^{(1)} = z^*$

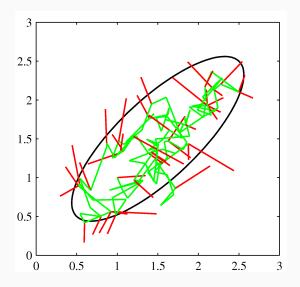
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ight)$$

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

Metropolis Gaussian



Gibbs Sampling Ch 11.3 [Bishop, 2006]

- 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

1. Initialise $\mathbf{z}^{(0)}$

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- 2. Pick single variable $z_i \in \mathbf{z}$

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- 2. Pick single variable $z_i \in \mathbf{z}$
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- 4. Sample from posterior

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

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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

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

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

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{y})}$$
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1D case

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

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

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

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
- Often exact given infinite time
- Generally works but often time consuming

eof

References



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