Chapter 19

Approximate Inference

Inference

- Inference refers to computing conditional distributions
- ullet For example, in probabilistic models with latent h and visible v units, we usually wish to compute

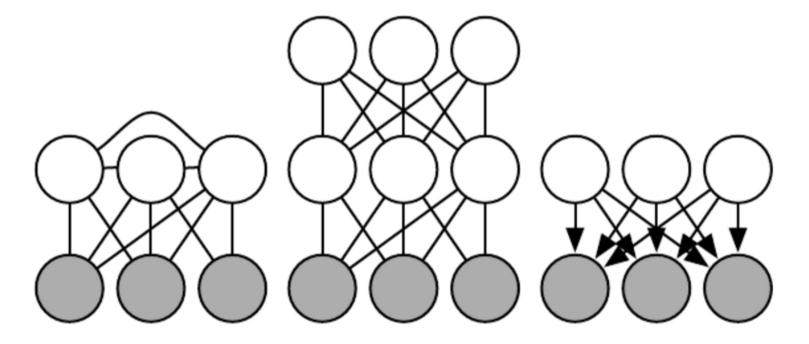
$$p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$$

• An alternative form of inference is to compute

$$h^* = \arg \max_{h} p(h|v)$$

• In graphical models with multiple layers of hidden units, it is usually difficult to evaluate them exactly

• The difficulty arises from the interactions between latent variables ${m h}$ in computing the posterior $p({m h}|{m v})$



Inference as Optimization

Recall from the EM algorithm

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \mathsf{KL}(q(\boldsymbol{h})||p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int q(\boldsymbol{h}) \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{h} - \int q(\boldsymbol{h}) \log q(\boldsymbol{h}) d\boldsymbol{h}$$
$$= E_{\boldsymbol{h} \sim q} \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - H(q)$$

$$\mathsf{KL}(q(m{h})||p(m{h}|m{v};m{ heta})) = \int q(m{h}) \log rac{q(m{h})}{p(m{h}|m{v};m{ heta})} dm{h}$$

ullet Some changes of variables (e.g. $oldsymbol{X} o oldsymbol{v}$ and $oldsymbol{Z} o oldsymbol{h}$) have been made for consistent notation

ullet Since the KL divergence is non-negative, $\mathrm{KL}(q||p) \geq 0$, it follows that

$$\log p(\boldsymbol{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \ge \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

with equality if and only if

$$q(\mathbf{h}) = p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- In other words, $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a lower bound on $\log p(\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{\theta})$ for any choice of $q(\boldsymbol{h})$
- The bound \mathcal{L} is closer to $\log p(\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{\theta})$ when $q(\boldsymbol{h})$ is closer to $p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Inference

- Exact inference maximizes $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$ perfectly by searching over a family of functions $q(\boldsymbol{h})$ that includes $p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- Approximate inference makes optimization approximate by restricting the $q(\boldsymbol{h})$'s to search over, or by imperfect optimization
- Learning
 - Maximize $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$ w.r.t. $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ for a given $q(\boldsymbol{h})$
- Combined inference and learning is possible via algorithms such as coordinate ascent

Revisiting Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence

• In maximizing $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$, we are minimizing $\mathsf{KL}(q||p)$, which yields an effect different from minimizing $\mathsf{KL}(p||q)$

$$q^* = \arg\min_{q} \mathsf{KL}(p||q)$$

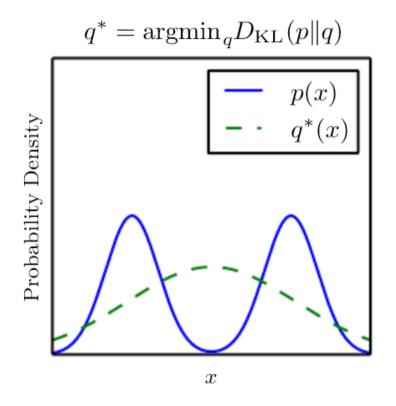
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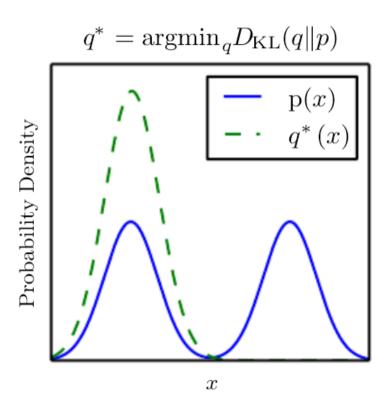
$$q^* = \arg\min_{q} \mathsf{KL}(q||p)$$

where

$$\mathsf{KL}(p||q) = \int p(x)(\log \frac{1}{q(x)} - \log \frac{1}{p(x)})dx$$

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \int q(x)(\log \frac{1}{p(x)} - \log \frac{1}{q(x)})dx$$





- $\ \mathsf{KL}(p||q)$ places high probability where data occur
- $\mathsf{KL}(q||p)$ places low probability where data do not occur

Calculus of Variations

ullet Learning algorithms are mainly based on minimizing a function $J(m{ heta})$ by solving for the critical points

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{0}$$

• Calculus of variations solves for a function f(x) to maximize a functional J(f(x)) by taking functional derivatives, a.k.a variational derivatives, w.r.t. the value of the function f at point x

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta f(m{x})}J$$

ullet Example: To find a p(x) that maximizes differential entropy

$$\arg \max_{p(x)} H[p(x)] = -\int p(x) \log p(x) dx$$

subject to

$$\int p(x)dx = 1$$

$$E[x] = \mu$$

$$E[(x - \mu)^2] = \sigma^2$$

• This constrained optimization problem can be solved by setting up a Lagrangian functional

$$\mathcal{L}(p,\lambda_1,\lambda_2,\lambda_3) = -\int p(x)\log p(x)dx + \lambda_1 \left(\int p(x)dx - 1\right) + \lambda_2 \left(\int p(x)dx - \mu\right) + \lambda_3 \left(\int (x-\mu)^2 p(x)dx - \sigma^2\right)$$

• We then set the functional derivative w.r.t. p(x) to 0

$$\forall x, \frac{\delta}{\delta p(x)} \mathcal{L} = -\log p(x) - 1 + \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2 = 0$$

ullet It is seen that the optimal p(x) has a form of Gaussian and can be solved exactly as a Gaussian after all the λ 's are solved

$$p(x) = \exp(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 x + \lambda_3 (x - \mu)^2 - 1) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2)$$

Variational Inference

• Variational inference is to find p(h|v) by maximizing $\mathcal{L}(v,q,\theta)$ w.r.t. q(h), which can be any function of h

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v}, q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = E_{\boldsymbol{h} \sim q} \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - H(q)$$

• An approximate framework (known as the **mean field approximation**) of variational inference assumes $q(\boldsymbol{h})$ is factorial

$$q(oldsymbol{h}) = \prod_{i=1}^M q_i(oldsymbol{h}_i)$$

where the elements of $m{h}$ is partitioned into disjoint groups $m{h}_i$'s

ullet No further assumption is made about the forms of $q_i(oldsymbol{h}_i)$

• We now seek the $q_i(\mathbf{h}_i)$ for which the lower bound is the largest by making a free form (variational) optimization w.r.t. each of them

$$\begin{split} &\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \int q(\boldsymbol{h}) \log p(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h};\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{h} - \int q(\boldsymbol{h}) \log q(\boldsymbol{h}) d\boldsymbol{h} \\ &= \int \prod_i q_i(\boldsymbol{h}_i) \left\{ \log p(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h};\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \sum_i \log q_i(\boldsymbol{h}_i) \right\} d\boldsymbol{h} \\ &= \int q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) \left\{ \int \log p(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h};\boldsymbol{\theta}) \prod_{i \neq j} q_i(\boldsymbol{h}_i) d\boldsymbol{h}_i \right\} d\boldsymbol{h}_j \\ &- \int q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) \log q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) d\boldsymbol{h}_j + \text{const} \\ &= \int q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) \log \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h}_j) d\boldsymbol{h}_j - \int q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) \log q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) d\boldsymbol{h}_j + \text{const} \\ &= - \operatorname{KL}(q_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) || \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h}_j)) + \text{const} \end{split}$$

where we have defined

$$\log \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}_j) = \int \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \prod_{i \neq j} q_i(\boldsymbol{h}_i) d\boldsymbol{h}_i$$
$$= E_{i \neq j}(\log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})) + \text{const}$$

ullet It is seen that ${\cal L}$ is maximized when

$$q_j(\mathbf{h}_j) = \tilde{p}(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}_j) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(E_{i \neq j}(\log p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})))$$

ullet Alternatively, we have the unnormalized distribution $ilde{q}_j(m{h}_j)$

$$\tilde{q}_j(\boldsymbol{h}_j) = \exp(E_{i\neq j}(\log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})))$$

• Carrying out the expectation $E_{i\neq j}(\log p(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h};\boldsymbol{\theta}))$ will yield the correct functional form for $\tilde{q}_{j}(\boldsymbol{h}_{j})$

 $m h \in R^2$ and one visible variable $v \in R^1$

$$p(\mathbf{h}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{h}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

 $p(v|\mathbf{h}) = \mathcal{N}(v; \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{h}, 1)$

• The true posterior is given by

$$p(\mathbf{h}|v) = \frac{p(\mathbf{h})p(v|\mathbf{h})}{p(v)}$$

= $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

where

$$oldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = oldsymbol{I} + oldsymbol{w} oldsymbol{w}^T$$
 $oldsymbol{\mu} = v oldsymbol{\Sigma} oldsymbol{w}$

ullet Obviously, $p(oldsymbol{h}|v)$ is not factorial

Now, applying variational inference, we have

$$p(\boldsymbol{h}|v) \approx q(\boldsymbol{h}|v) = q(h_1|v)q(h_2|v)$$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{q}(h_1|v) &= \exp(E_{h_2 \sim q(h_2|v)}(\log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))) \\ &= \exp(-\frac{1}{2}E_{h_2 \sim q(h_2|v)}[h_1^2 + h_2^2 + v^2 + h_1^2w_1^2 + h_2^2w_2^2 \\ &- 2vh_1w_1 - 2vh_2w_2 + 2h_1w_1h_2w_2]) \\ &= \exp(-\frac{1}{2}[h_1^2 + \langle h_2^2 \rangle + v^2 + h_1^2w_1^2 + \langle h_2^2 \rangle w_2^2 \\ &- 2vh_1w_1 - 2v\langle h_2 \rangle w_2 + 2h_1w_1\langle h_2 \rangle w_2]) \\ &= \exp(-\frac{1}{2}[(1+w_1^2)h_1^2 - 2(vw_1 - w_1\langle h_2 \rangle w_2)h_1 + \mathsf{const}]) \end{split}$$

• From the above, we can deduce

$$q(h_1|v) = \mathcal{N}(h_1; \mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$$

where

$$\sigma_1^2 = \frac{1}{1 + w_1^2}$$

$$\mu_1 = \frac{vw_1 - w_1 \langle h_2 \rangle w_2}{1 + w_1^2} = \frac{vw_1 - w_1 \mu_2 w_2}{1 + w_1^2}$$

On the symmetry ground, we can readily arrive at

$$q(h_2|v) = \mathcal{N}(h_2; \mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

where

$$\sigma_2^2 = \frac{1}{1 + w_2^2}$$

$$\mu_2 = \frac{vw_2 - w_2 \langle h_1 \rangle w_1}{1 + w_2^2} = \frac{vw_2 - w_2 \mu_1 w_1}{1 + w_2^2}$$

• Note that we do not assume $q(\boldsymbol{h}|v) = q(h_1|v)q(h_2|v)$ is Gaussian; its Gaussian form is derived automatically

• Moreover, given the data v and the model parameters w_1, w_2 , we have the following fixed-point update equations to estimate u_1, u_2 iteratively

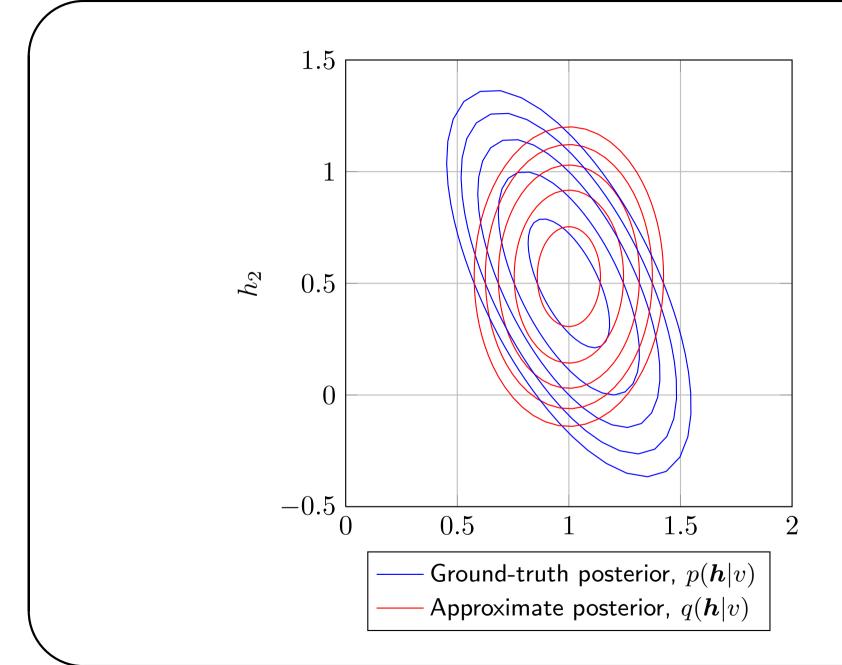
$$\mu_1 = \frac{vw_1 - w_1\mu_2w_2}{1 + w_1^2}$$

$$\mu_2 = \frac{vw_2 - w_2\mu_1w_1}{1 + w_2^2}$$

- ullet Note that the process needs to be carried out for each new value of v
- The following compares the ground-true posterior $p(\boldsymbol{h}|v)$ with the variational approximation $q(\boldsymbol{h}|v)$, with

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, v = 3$$

and the fixed-point update equations run for 10 iterations



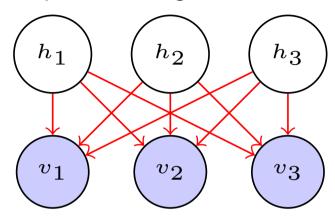
Learned Approximate Inference

- Idea: To replace the iterative optimization with a neural network $f(\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{\theta}')$ to form an approximate inference distribution $q(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$
- Wake-Sleep algorithm (in sleep mode) is to learn the mapping from \boldsymbol{v} to \boldsymbol{h} by drawing $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}$ samples from the model distribution $p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ while the model is still evolving in the learning process
- One drawback is that we will only be able to train $f(v; \theta')$ on v's that have high probability under the evolving model $p(v, h; \theta)$

Sparse Coding and MAP Inference

- Sparse coding can be interpreted as a special case of combined variational inference and learning
- Combined variational inference and learning
 - 1. Find approximate inference q by maximizing $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$ w.r.t. q
 - 2. Find model parameters θ by maximizing $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta})$ w.r.t. θ
 - 3. Repeat steps 1, 2 until the stopping criteria are met

• Linear factor model for sparse coding



$$p(\mathbf{h}) = \prod_{i} \frac{\lambda}{2} e^{-\lambda |h_{i}|}$$
$$p(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{h}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{v}; \mathbf{W}\mathbf{h} + b, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I})$$

where λ, β are hyper parameters and are assumed to be known

• In learning the model parameters ${m W}, b$, the EM does not work because $p({m h}|{m v})$ is intractable

• We thus resort to approximate variational inference by restricting $q(\boldsymbol{h}) \approx p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$ to the following family

$$q(\mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \delta(\mathbf{h} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

where $\delta(\cdot)$ is the Dirac delta function

• Maximizing $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{v},q,\boldsymbol{\theta}) = E_{\boldsymbol{h}\sim q} \log p(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h};\boldsymbol{\theta}) - H(q)$ w.r.t. q arrives at

$$u^* = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h} = \boldsymbol{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} p(\boldsymbol{h} = \boldsymbol{u} | \boldsymbol{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} -\lambda \sum_{i} |u_i| - \frac{\beta}{2} ||\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{b}||_2^2$$

$$= \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\mu}} \lambda \sum_{i} |u_i| + \frac{\beta}{2} ||\boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{u} - \boldsymbol{b}||_2^2$$

ullet With this $q(m{h};m{\mu}^*)=\delta(m{h}-m{\mu}^*)$, maximizing $\mathcal{L}(m{v},q,m{ heta})$ w.r.t. $m{ heta}$ gives

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h} = \boldsymbol{\mu}^*; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= \arg\min_{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}} \lambda \sum_{i} |u_{i}^{*}| + \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{W}\mathbf{u}^{*} - \mathbf{b}\|_{2}^{2}$$

ullet To summarize, we alternate between minimization w.r.t. $oldsymbol{u}$ and $oldsymbol{W},b$

$$J(u, W, b) = \lambda \sum_{i} |u_{i}| + \frac{\beta}{2} ||v - Wu - b||_{2}^{2}$$

where $oldsymbol{u}$ is known as the sparse code for the input $oldsymbol{v}$

ullet The procedure corresponds to the conventional sparse coding and a form of coordinate ascent on $\mathcal{L}(m{v},q,m{ heta})$

Interaction between Learning and Inference

- Using approximate inference as part of the learning algorithm affects the learning process; this in turn affects the inference accuracy
- In learning the model parameters, variational learning increases

$$E_{\boldsymbol{h} \sim q(\boldsymbol{h})} p(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h})$$

- ullet For a specific $oldsymbol{v}$, this has an effect of learning a model that
 - Increases $p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$ where $q(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$ has high probability
 - Decreases $p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$ where $q(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v})$ has low probability
- As a result, the approximate assumptions (e.g. the mean field assumption) become self-fulfilling prophecies
- The true amount of harm due to approximate inference is generally hard to estimate

Review

- Inference
- Inference as optimization
- $\bullet \ \operatorname{KL}(q||p) \ \operatorname{vs} \ \operatorname{KL}(p||q)$
- Calculus of variations
- Variational inference
- Combined variational inference and learning