

# ST451 - Lent term

## Bayesian Machine Learning

Kostas Kalogeropoulos

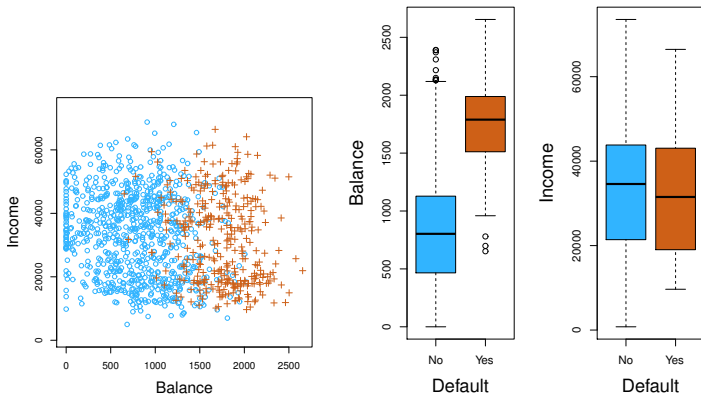
Variational Bayes / Approximation

# Summary of last lecture

- **Classification Problem:** Categorical  $y$ , mixed  $X$ .
- **Generative models:** Specify  $\pi(y)$  with 'prior' probabilities, then  $\pi(X|y)$  for each category of  $y$ , e.g. LDA
- **Discriminative models:** Logistic regression, maximum likelihood via Newton-Raphson.
- **Bayesian Logistic Regression:** Use of Laplace approximation similar results with MLE.
- **Prediction Assessment:** Accuracy, Area under the ROC curve and log score rule.

# Motivating Example 1

'Default' dataset consist of three variables: annual income, credit card balance and whether or not the person has defaulted in his/her credit card.



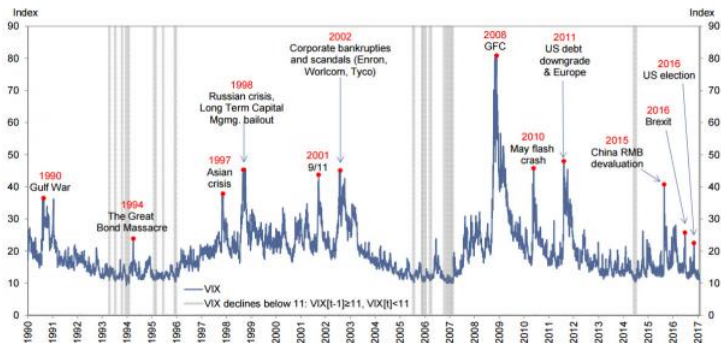
The aim is to build a model to predict whether a person will default based on annual income and monthly credit card balance.

## Motivating Example 2

Volatility Index (**VIX**) provided by Chicago Board of Exchange (**CBOE**). Derived from the **S&P 500** index options. Represents market's expectation of its future 30-day volatility. A measure of **market risk**.

**Exhibit 3: VIX levels 1990-present**

Shaded events represent VIX declining below 11, i.e.  $VIX[t-1] \geq 11$ ,  $VIX[t] < 11$ . Daily data from 1/2/1990– 1/27/2017.

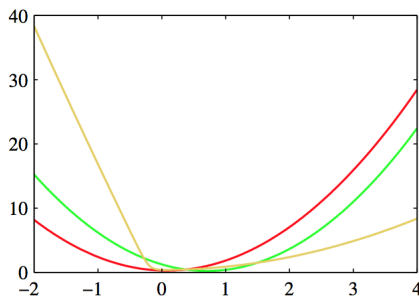
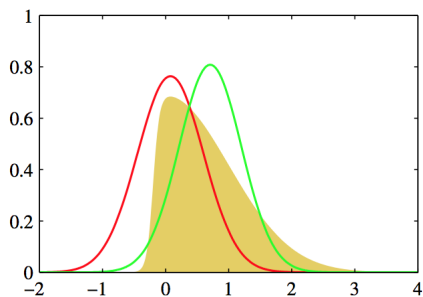


Source: Chicago Board Options Exchange (CBOE). Goldman Sachs Global Investment Research.

# Variational vs Laplace Approximation

In both of these examples (and many others), the posterior and the exact distribution of MLEs are typically **intractable**.

Last week we used the **Laplace** approximation. This week we will look into the **Variational** approximation. Below we see these approximations in terms of the pdfs (left) and negative log scale (right).



# Outline

- 1 Essentials of Variational Inference
- 2 Examples with mean field approximation
- 3 Automatic Variational Inference

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# Main idea

Ideally we would like to use the **posterior**  $\pi(\theta|y)$ . But it is not always available.

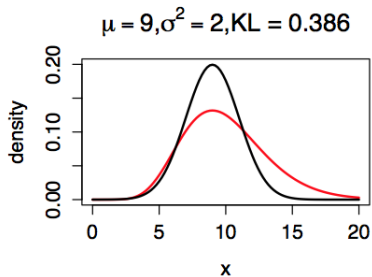
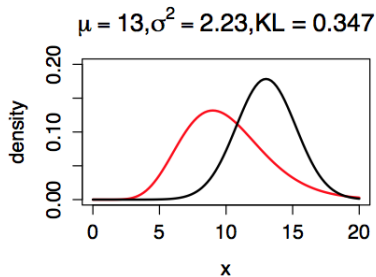
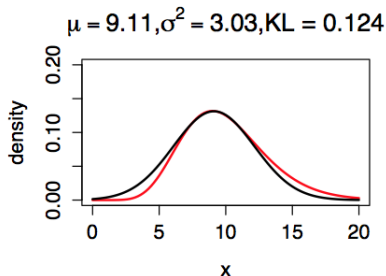
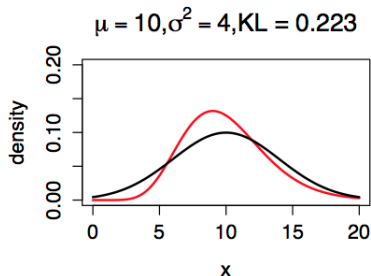
Laplace approximation uses a Normal distribution based on a **single point** (the mode).

**Variational** approximation usually follows the steps below

- 1 Consider a **family** of distributions  $q(\theta|y, \phi)$  with parameters  $\phi$ , e.g. Normal, Gamma etc.
- 2 Select  $\phi$  such that  $q(\theta|y, \phi)$  is **as close as possible** to  $\pi(\theta|y)$ .



# Approximating a Gamma(0, 1) with a $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$



# Variational Bayes

As close as possible translates into minimising the KL divergence

$$\text{KL}(q||\pi) = \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{q(\theta|y, \phi)}{\pi(\theta|y)} d\theta$$

It can be shown that  $\text{KL}(q||\pi) \geq 0$  and  $\text{KL}(q||\pi) = 0$  iff  $q \stackrel{D}{=} \pi$ .

But  $\pi(\theta|y)$  is intractable so the above is not very useful. Instead we consider the evidence lower bound (ELBO)

$$\text{ELBO}(\phi) = \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{q(\theta|y, \phi)} d\theta$$

## Variational Bayes (cont'd)

Note that **the sum** of  $\text{KL}(q||\pi)$  and  $\text{ELBO}(\phi)$  is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{q(\theta|y, \phi)}{\pi(\theta|y)} d\theta &+ \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{q(\theta|y, \phi)} d\theta \\ &= \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \left\{ \log \frac{q(\theta|y, \phi)}{\pi(\theta|y)} + \log \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{q(\theta|y, \phi)} \right\} d\theta \\ &= \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \left\{ \log \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{\pi(\theta|y)} \right\} d\theta = \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \pi(y) d\theta \\ &= \log \pi(y) \int q(\theta|y, \phi) d\theta = \log \pi(y). \end{aligned}$$

### Notes:

- 1 Since  $\text{KL}(q||p) \geq 0$ , we get that  $\log \pi(y) \geq \text{ELBO}(\phi)$ . Hence, the name evidence lower bound (**ELBO**).
- 2 The sum above is **independent of  $\phi$**  so minimising  $\text{KL}(q||p)$  is the same as **maximising  $\text{ELBO}(\phi)$** .

# Mean field approximation

Ofcourse the minimum KL divergence can still be **large**, depends on the choice of  $q$ .

The most widely used choice is known as the **mean field approximation** and assumes that  $q$  can be factorised into some components

$$q(\theta|y, \phi) = \prod_i q(\theta_i|y, \phi_i) = \prod_i q(\theta_i)$$

This results in an algorithm that **iteratively** maximises  $\text{ELBO}(\phi)$  wrt each  $q(\theta_i)$  keeping  $q(\theta_j)$ ,  $j \neq i$ , or else  $q(\theta_{-i})$  **fixed**.

We refer to each  $q(\theta_i)$  as **VB component**.

## Mean field approximation (cont'd)

Let  $\theta = (\theta_i, \theta_{-i})$ ,  $q(\theta|y, \phi) = q(\theta_i)q(\theta_{-i})$ , and  $\pi(y, \theta) = f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ELBO} &= \int \int q(\theta_i)q(\theta_{-i}) \log \frac{\pi(y, \theta)}{q(\theta_i)q(\theta_{-i})} d\theta_{-i} d\theta_i \\ &= \int q(\theta_i) \left\{ \int \log \pi(y, \theta) q(\theta_{-i}) d\theta_{-i} \right\} d\theta_i \\ &\quad - \int \int q(\theta_i)q(\theta_{-i}) \log q(\theta_i) d\theta_{-i} d\theta_i \\ &\quad - \int \int q(\theta_i)q(\theta_{-i}) \log q(\theta_{-i}) d\theta_{-i} d\theta_i\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\int \log \pi(y, \theta) q(\theta_{-i}) d\theta_{-i} = \mathbb{E}_{q(\theta_{-i})}[\log \pi(y, \theta)]$  and define  $q^*(\theta_i) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(\mathbb{E}_{q(\theta_{-i})}[\log \pi(y, \theta)])$ . Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ELBO} &= \int q(\theta_i) \log \frac{q^*(\theta_i)}{q(\theta_i)} d\theta_i - \int q(\theta_{-i}) \log q(\theta_{-i}) d\theta_{-i} + c \\ &= -\text{KL}(q(\theta_i) || q^*(\theta_i)) - \int q(\theta_{-i}) \log q(\theta_{-i}) d\theta_{-i} + c\end{aligned}$$

## Mean field approximation (cont'd)

Hence maximising ELBO wrt  $q(\theta_i)$  is the same as minimising  $\text{KL}(q(\theta_i) || q^*(\theta_i))$  wrt  $q(\theta_i)$ .

$\text{KL}(q(\theta_i) || q^*(\theta_i))$  is minimised when

$$q(\theta_i) = q^*(\theta_i) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left( \mathbb{E}_{q(\theta_{-i})} [\log \pi(y, \theta)] \right)$$

This suggests the following algorithm

- 1 **Initialise** each  $q(\theta_i)$  to the prior  $\pi(\theta_i)$ ,
- 2 For each  $\theta_i$ , **update**  $q(\theta_i)$ , based on  $\mathbb{E}_{q(\theta_{-i})} [\log \pi(y, \theta)]$ ,
- 3 Continue until ELBO **converges**.

Generally well behaved algorithm when it can be derived, i.e. when we can **recognise** the  $q^*(\theta_i)$ 's.

# Outline

- 1 Essentials of Variational Inference
- 2 Examples with mean field approximation**
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## Example: $N(\mu, \tau^{-1})$

Let  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  ( $y_i$  independent) from  $N(\mu, \tau^{-1})$ . Assign  $N(\mu_0, (\lambda_0 \tau)^{-1})$  as prior for  $\theta|\tau$  and  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha_0, \beta_0)$  for  $\tau$ . The posterior can be derived but let's consider its **variational approximation**.

Assume  $q(\theta) = q(\mu)q(\tau)$

The log **joint density** is ( $c$  will be denoting constant from now on)

$$\begin{aligned} \log \pi(y, \theta) &= \frac{n}{2} \log \tau - \frac{\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \log \tau - \frac{\tau \lambda_0}{2} (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \\ &+ (\alpha_0 - 1) \log \tau - \beta_0 \tau + c \end{aligned}$$

We will now derive the VB components  $q(\mu)$  and  $q(\tau)$



## Example: $N(\mu, \tau^{-1}) - q(\mu)$

For  $q(\mu)$  we can focus on the terms **involving  $\mu$** .

$$\begin{aligned}\log q(\mu) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\tau)} \left[ -\frac{\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 - \frac{\tau \lambda_0}{2} (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right] + c \\ &= -\frac{\mathbb{E}_{q(\tau)}(\tau)}{2} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 + \lambda_0 (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right] + c.\end{aligned}$$

By **inspection** we can identify  $q(\mu)$  to be the  $N(\mu_\phi, \tau_\phi^{-1})$ , where

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_\phi &= \frac{\lambda_0 \mu_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\lambda_0 + n} \\ \tau_\phi &= (\lambda_0 + n) \mathbb{E}(\tau)\end{aligned}$$

The quantity  $\mathbb{E}(\tau) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\tau)}(\tau)$  will be provided by the **derivation of  $q(\tau)$**

## Example: $N(\mu, \tau^{-1}) - q(\tau)$

For  $q(\tau)$  we take as before all the terms **involving**  $\tau$

$$\begin{aligned}\log q(\tau) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mu)} \left[ \left( \frac{n+1}{2} + \alpha_0 - 1 \right) \log \tau - \beta_0 \tau - \frac{\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{\tau \lambda_0}{2} (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right] + c \\ &= \left( \frac{n+1}{2} + \alpha_0 - 1 \right) \log \tau - \beta_0 \tau \\ &\quad - \frac{\tau}{2} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mu)} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mu)^2 + \lambda_0 (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right]\end{aligned}$$

By **inspection** we can identify  $q(\tau)$  to be the Gamma( $\alpha_\phi, \beta_\phi$ ), where

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha_\phi &= \alpha_0 + \frac{n+1}{2}, \\ \beta_\phi &= \beta_0 + \frac{1}{2} (S_y^2 - 2\mathbb{E}(\mu)S_y + n\mathbb{E}(\mu^2)) + \frac{\lambda_0}{2} (\mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0\mathbb{E}(\mu) + \mathbb{E}(\mu^2)), \\ \mathbb{E}(\mu) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mu)}(\mu), \\ S_y &= \sum_i y_i, \quad S_y^2 = \sum_i y_i^2.\end{aligned}$$

## Example: $N(\mu, \tau^{-1})$ - overall algorithm

So **overall** we set  $q(\mu) = N(\mu_\phi, \tau_\phi^{-1})$  and  $q(\tau) = \text{Gamma}(\alpha_\phi, \beta_\phi)$ .

Then we look for the  $q$  parameters  $\phi = (\mu_\phi, \tau_\phi, \alpha_\phi, \beta_\phi)$  that maximise ELBO by first initialising and then iteratively updating

$$\mu_\phi = \frac{\lambda_0 \mu_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}{\lambda_0 + n},$$

$$\tau_\phi = (\lambda_0 + n) \mathbb{E}(\tau),$$

$$\alpha_\phi = \alpha_0 + \frac{n+1}{2},$$

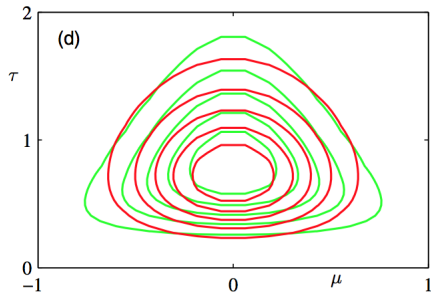
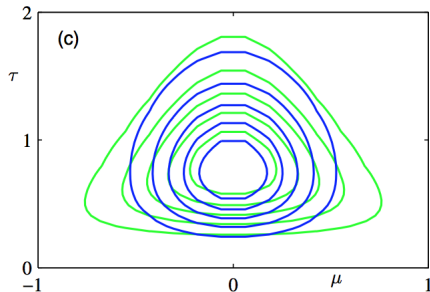
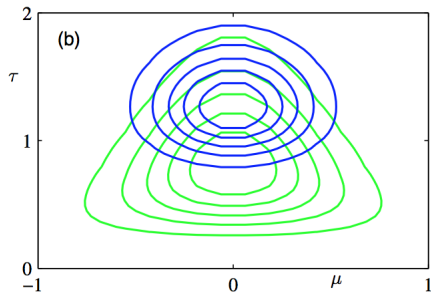
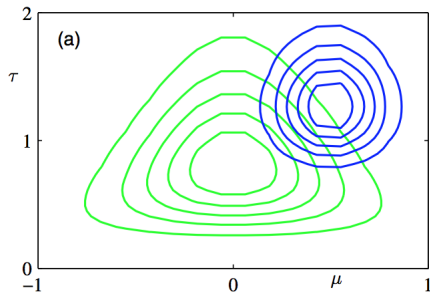
$$\beta_\phi = \beta_0 + \frac{1}{2} (S_y^2 - 2\mathbb{E}(\mu) S_y + n\mathbb{E}(\mu^2)) + \frac{\lambda_0}{2} (\mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0 \mathbb{E}(\mu) + \mathbb{E}(\mu^2)),$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\tau) = \alpha_\phi / \beta_\phi,$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\mu) = \mu_\phi,$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\mu^2) = \frac{1}{\tau_\phi} + \mu_\phi^2.$$

# Graphical illustration of the previous algorithm



## Remarks on mean field approximation

- Possible to **extend** this to linear regression and other exponential family models including logistic regression. In some cases some model-specific tricks are needed.
- Generally provides a good approximation to the mean but **underestimates** the variance (as it cannot capture posterior dependencies).
- **Model selection** can be done by optimising each model separately and then comparing their ELBO's. **Prediction** is also straightforward
- A fair amount of derivations are required and it is easy to lose the big picture. A **black box** would be useful.

# Outline

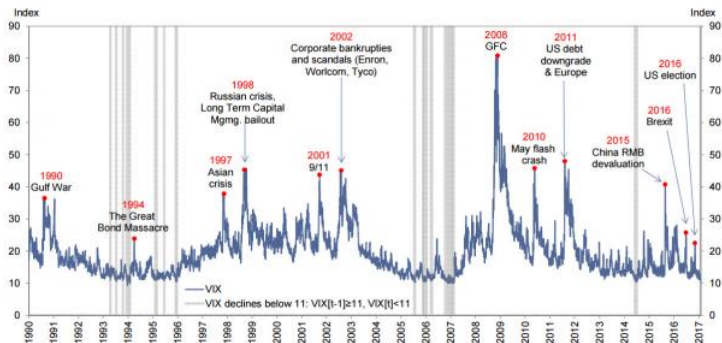
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## Motivating Example 2

Volatility Index (**VIX**) provided by Chicago Board of Exchange (**CBOE**). Derived from the **S&P 500** index options. Represents market's expectation of its future 30-day volatility. A measure of **market risk**.

**Exhibit 3: VIX levels 1990-present**

Shaded events represent VIX declining below 11, i.e.  $VIX[t-1] \geq 11$ ,  $VIX[t] < 11$ . Daily data from 1/2/1990– 1/27/2017.



Source: Chicago Board Options Exchange (CBOE). Goldman Sachs Global Investment Research.

# Modelling VIX

VIX trajectories are **mean reverting** and **autocorrelated**. A simple model that captures these stylised facts is

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + \kappa(\mu - Y_{t-1})\delta + \sigma\epsilon_t,$$

where  $Y_t$  is VIX at time  $t$ , and  $\epsilon_t$  are **independent** error terms.

$\mu$  : long term mean,  $\sigma$  volatility of volatility,  $\kappa$  mean reversion speed.

A convenient option is to set  $\epsilon_t \sim N(0, \delta)$  as it gives **closed form** posterior and distribution of MLEs.

But it is not a good choice for the spikes that we observe. A  **$t$  distribution** with low degrees of freedom is a much better option, yet **intractable**. Not much room for the previous tricks either.



# Hurdles towards Automatic Variational Inference

The procedure for variational inference can be **automated**. The aim is to be able to specify the likelihood and the prior and **nothing else**.

But even under the framework of mean field approximation, there are two main **hurdles**:

- Each  $\theta_i$  may be given a **different distribution** depending also on its range, e.g.  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^+$ ,  $[0, 1]$  etc.
- It is not always possible to derive the algorithm presented earlier. Even if it was possible its final form would **depend on the model**, so cannot be automated.

The recent **Automatic Differentiation Variational Inference (ADVI)** approach of Kucukelbir et al (2016) addresses those issues.

## Transformation to the $\mathbb{R}^p$

The first step is to **transform** all the  $\theta_i$  components to the real line using log or logit transformations where needed. Hence we transform from the parameter space  $\Theta$  to  $\mathbb{R}^p$  via the function  $T(\cdot)$ .

We can then define  $\zeta := T(\theta)$  and the **joint** density (likelihood times prior) can be written as

$$\pi(y, \theta) = \pi(y, T^{-1}(\zeta)) \left| \det J_{T^{-1}(\zeta)} \right|$$

Given that  $\zeta$  is defined in  $\mathbb{R}^p$ , we can assign the Normal distribution on it. The default option is to assume  $p$  **independent Normals**.

$$q(\zeta|y, \phi) = \prod_{i=1}^p N(\zeta_i | \mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$$

Note that the corresponding  $q(\theta|y)$  is **not necessarily Normal**.

# Optimisation

**Numerical optimisation** can be used. It is essential to calculate the **gradient** of  $\text{ELBO}(\phi)$  to obtain good performance. We can write

$$\begin{aligned}\text{ELBO}(\phi) &= \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{q(\theta|y, \phi)} d\theta \\ &= \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log f(y|\theta) d\theta - \int q(\theta|y, \phi) \log \frac{q(\theta|y, \phi)}{\pi(\theta)} d\theta \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\phi)} [\log f(y|\theta)] - \text{KL} [q(\theta|y, \phi) || \pi(\theta)]\end{aligned}$$

The second term in the expression above can be derived analytically (Kucukelbir et al 2016), so **automatic differentiation** can be used.

The first term is tricky because it doesn't have a closed form. Automatic differentiation can only be used for terms **inside the expectation**.

# Reparameterisation

To see this note the we want to calculate

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\phi)} [\log f(y|\theta)] = \nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\phi)} \left[ f(y|T^{-1}(\zeta)) \left| \det J_{T^{-1}(\zeta)} \right| \right],$$

i.e. an **expectation** wrt  $\phi$ .

This problem can be addressed by (further) **reparameterisation**, i.e. by standardising the  $\zeta$ 's

$$\eta_i = \frac{\zeta_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, k.$$

Now we can write (for the corresponding transformation  $T_{\phi}$  from  $\theta$  to  $\eta$ )

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\phi)} [\log f(y|\theta)] = \nabla_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\eta)} \left[ f(y|T_{\phi}^{-1}(\eta)) \left| \det J_{T_{\phi}^{-1}(\eta)} \right| \right],$$

and we can see that  $\phi$  now appears only **inside the expectation**.

# Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

The following trick allows quick and automatic estimates of the **gradient** of ELBO using **Monte Carlo and automatic differentiation**.

It can be used in state-of-the-art algorithms for big models and big data (e.g. deep networks), such as the **stochastic gradient descent**.

In such contexts there is no need to calculate the gradient from the entire data, but only from a **small batch**.

At the moment, in **deep learning**, this the only scalable method for Bayesian Inference.

# Today's lecture - Reading

Bishop: 10.1 10.3 10.6.

Murphy: 21.1 21.2 21.3.1 21.5.

Kucukelbir A., Tran D., Ranganath R., Gelman A., Blei D.M. (2016)  
Automatic Differentiation Variational Inference. Available on Arxiv