

A Stochastic Variational Inference Approach for Semiparametric Distributional Regression

Final Kolloquium MSc Applied Statistic

Sebastian Lorek

First supervisor: Prof. Dr. Thomas Kneib

Second supervisor: Gianmarco Callegher

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Introduction

Bayesian Inference

- Focal point of interest is the posterior distribution
- General posterior specification for Bayesian regression

$$\begin{aligned}p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}, \mathcal{D}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D})}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{D})} \\&= \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{D})} \\&= \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}} \\&\propto p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})\end{aligned}$$

- Primary challenge is the calculation of the normalizing constant/evidence

- MCMC methods have been **so far** the most common methods for Bayesian inference
 - Enjoy nice properties
 - Unfortunately do not scale well for modern applications
- Trade some **accuracy** for **scalability**
- Make use of SGD and automatic differentiation

Theory

Variational Inference

- VI is a method from machine learning to **approximate** probability densities (Jordan et al. 1999)
- Approximate posterior with a variational distribution $q(\theta|\phi)$ from a predefined parametric variational family \mathcal{Q}

$$q(\theta|\phi) \in \mathcal{Q}$$

- Use optimization (SGD) to find a member that is as closely as possible to the true posterior
- What means close in terms of distributions ?

Kullback-Leibler divergence

- A well known divergence measure is the Kullback-Leibler divergence (Kullback and Leibler 1951)
- Quantifies the proximity between two probability distributions

$$\begin{aligned}D_{\text{KL}}(q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\phi)||p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}, \mathcal{D})) &= \int q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\phi) \ln \left(\frac{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\phi)}{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}, \mathcal{D})} \right) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \\&= \mathbb{E}_{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\phi)} \left[\ln \left(\frac{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\phi)}{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}, \mathcal{D})} \right) \right]\end{aligned}$$

- In short $D_{\text{KL}}(q||p)$
- It holds that $D_{\text{KL}}(q||p) \geq 0$
- Has some nice properties but also drawbacks (not a distance)

Optimization objective

$$\hat{\phi} = \arg \min_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\theta|\phi)} \left[\ln \left(\frac{q(\theta|\phi)}{p(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathcal{D})} \right) \right]$$

- Make q as close as possible to p

- The posterior is unknown, but the **evidence** is a **constant** in the optimization and thus cancels out
- Allows us to rewrite the objective as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\phi} &= \arg \max_{\phi} \mathbb{E}_{q(\theta|\phi)} \left[\ln \left(\frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \theta | \mathcal{D})}{q(\theta | \phi)} \right) \right] \\ &= \arg \max_{\phi} \text{ELBO}(\phi)\end{aligned}$$

Evidence Lower Bound

- What does the ELBO ?

$$\text{ELBO}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\theta|\phi)} [\ln(p(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{D}, \theta))] - D_{\text{KL}}(q(\theta|\phi) || p(\theta))$$

- Actually something similar to MAP/ML 🤔

Variational family

- What is the \mathcal{Q} and thus $q(\theta|\phi)$?
- Flexibility of \mathcal{Q} and thus $q(\theta|\phi)$ significantly influences the optimization
 - Complex $\mathcal{Q} \rightarrow$ better approximations, but increased complexity during optimization
 - Simple $\mathcal{Q} \rightarrow$ worse approximations, but allows for easier optimization

- We use structured mean-field variational inference (Wainwright and Jordan 2007)

$$q(\theta|\phi) = \prod_{j=1}^J q_j(\theta_j|\phi_j)$$

- One q_j (factor) for each parameter block
- Allows for interdependencies in parameter blocks

- How are the q_j defined ?

$$\theta_j = \mathbf{L}_j \epsilon_j + \mu_j, \quad \epsilon_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

$$\theta_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_j, \mathbf{L}_j \mathbf{L}_j^T)$$

- Called “reparameterization trick” $\theta_j = \mathbf{g}_{\phi_j}(\epsilon_j)$
- For positive restricted parameters we need to chain another transformation layer via exp transformation

Stochastic variational inference

- SGD to optimize the ELBO (Hoffman et al. [2012](#))
- Only use a subset \mathcal{I} of the data in each iteration (ELBO remains unbiased)

“Black-box” variational inference

- Using SVI with the “reparameterization trick”
- Evaluate the integral in the ELBO with Monte Carlo integration
- Calculate $\nabla_{\phi} \text{ELBO}(\phi)_{\mathcal{I}}$ with automatic differentiation
- Researcher only formulates a probabilistic model and provides a dataset (Kucukelbir et al. [2016](#)), inference algo. is model “agnostic”

Optimization

- Split data into training and validation
- Decide for batch-size (subset of the data) and variational sample size (Monte Carlo integration)
- Optimize the ELBO using training data and monitor convergence in the validation dataset

$$\hat{\phi}^t = \hat{\phi}^{t-1} + \rho_t \nabla_{\phi} \text{ELBO}(\phi)_{\mathcal{I}^t} \Big|_{\phi=\hat{\phi}^{t-1}}$$

- We use Adam (Kingma and Ba [2014](#)) as our optimizer

Impact Analysis

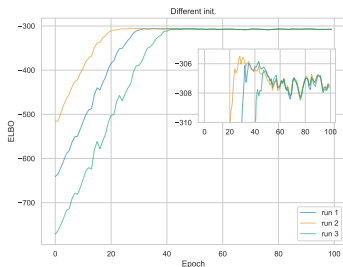


Figure 1: ELBO traces for 3 different SGD runs, using different initializations but the same seed. We use a batch size of 128, 64 samples from the variational distribution and a learning rate of $1e-2$.

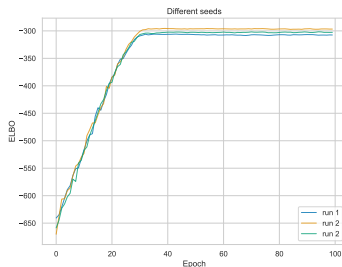


Figure 2: ELBO traces for 3 different SGD runs, using different seeds but the same initialization. Otherwise same configuration as in Figure 1.

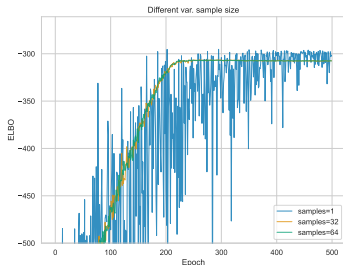


Figure 3: ELBO traces for 3 different SGD runs, using different variational sample sizes. We use batch VI with a learning rate of $1e-2$ and the same seed as in Figure 1.

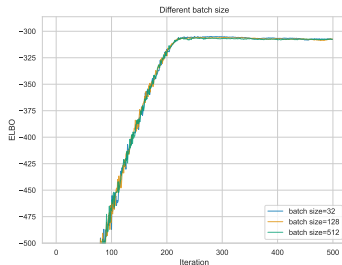


Figure 4: ELBO traces for 3 different SGD runs, using different batch sizes. We use a variational sample size of 64 with a learning rate of $1e-2$ and the same seed as in Figure 1.

Semiparametric distributional regression

$$y_i \stackrel{\text{ind.}}{\sim} p(\vartheta_{i,1}, \dots, \vartheta_{i,g})$$
$$\vartheta_{i,l} = h_l^{-1}(\eta_{i,l}), \quad l = 1, \dots, g$$

- Response distributions beyond the normal distribution
- Linear predictors with inverse link functions
- Structured additive linear predictors so fixed and smooth effects
 - B-spline basis functions
- Augmented with priors
 - Bayesian P-splines

Application

Implementation

- Developed a small python package `tigerpy`, which consists of two libraries
- A model building library `tigerpy.model`
 - Construct the model
 - Uses the idea of probabilistic graphical models
- An inference library `tigerpy.bbvi`
 - Runs the BBVI inference algorithm
- Aligns with concepts found in `liesel` (Riebl et al. [2022](#))

Simulation Studies

- Conducted two simulation studies
- First studies asymptotic behavior of the posterior means of BBVI
- Second targets the posterior distributions as a whole and compares BBVI with MCMC

Consistency study

- Study the asymptotic behavior of the posterior means
- Performance measures include bias and empirical standard error
- Simulation repetitions: $n_{\text{sim}} = 200$
- Two models
 1. M_1 : Bayesian linear regression
 2. M_2 : Bayesian logistic regression

- Two data generating processes, $n_{\text{obs}} = 50, 100, 500, 1000, 5000$
- For M_1

$$y_i | x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(3.0 + 0.2x_i - 0.5x_i^2, 1.0^2),$$
$$x_i \sim \mathcal{U}(-3, 3), \quad i = 1, \dots, n_{\text{obs}}$$

- For M_2

$$y_i | x_i \sim \text{Bern}(\sigma(1.0 + 2.0x_i)),$$
$$x_i \sim \mathcal{U}(-3, 3), \quad i = 1, \dots, n_{\text{obs}}$$

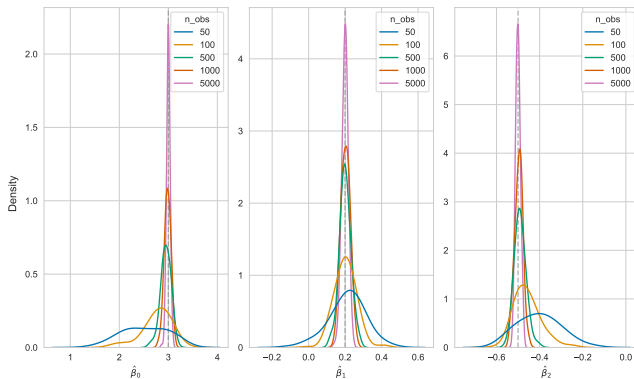


Figure 5: Kernel density for the posterior means of the location parameters of M_1 , true parameters given by $\beta = [3.0, 0.2, -0.5]^T$ (grey dashed line).

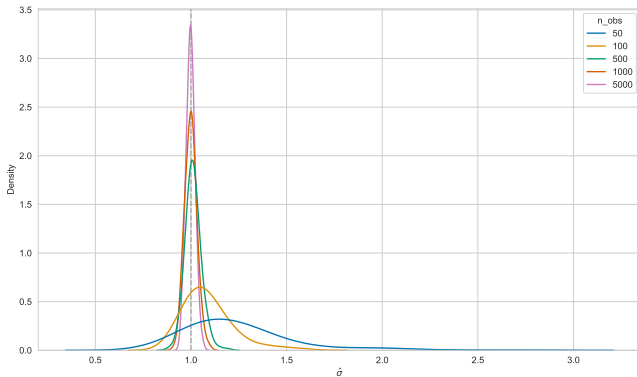


Figure 6: Kernel density for the posterior means of the scale parameter of M_1 , true parameter given by $\sigma = 1.0$ (grey dashed line).

Table 1: Simulation results for the parameters of M_1 .

n_{obs}	Bias					EmpSE				
	50	100	500	1000	5000	50	100	500	1000	5000
β_0	-0.4819 (0.0323)	-0.2319 (0.0215)	-0.0520 (0.0073)	-0.0162 (0.0045)	0.0002 (0.0024)	0.4563 (0.0229)	0.3046 (0.0153)	0.1036 (0.0052)	0.0640 (0.0032)	0.0344 (0.0017)
β_1	0.0113 (0.0070)	0.0016 (0.0042)	0.0003 (0.0021)	0.0021 (0.0017)	-0.0007 (0.0012)	0.0996 (0.0050)	0.0598 (0.0030)	0.0300 (0.0015)	0.0237 (0.0012)	0.0166 (0.0008)
β_2	0.0972 (0.0069)	0.0428 (0.0043)	0.0095 (0.0019)	0.0033 (0.0012)	-0.0002 (0.0007)	0.0975 (0.0049)	0.0614 (0.0031)	0.0264 (0.0013)	0.0176 (0.0009)	0.0104 (0.0005)
σ	0.2389 (0.0202)	0.0876 (0.0091)	0.0115 (0.0029)	-0.0014 (0.0021)	-0.0021 (0.0015)	0.2851 (0.0143)	0.1293 (0.0065)	0.0409 (0.0021)	0.0300 (0.0015)	0.0216 (0.0011)

Corresponding Monte Carlo SEs are provided below in parentheses; Bias estimates that do not cover 0 in their 95% CI are shown in bold; $n_{sim} = 200$.

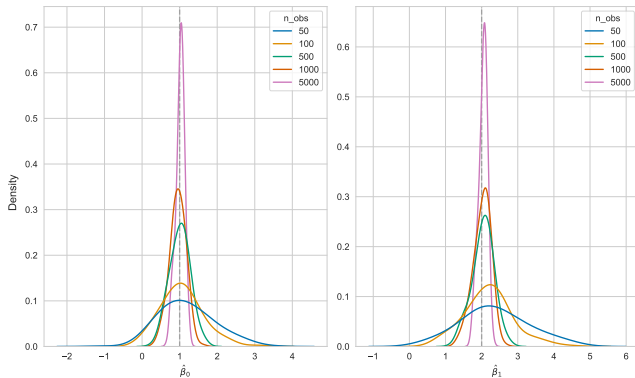


Figure 7: Kernel density for the posterior means of the logit parameters of M_2 , true parameters given by $\beta = [1.0, 2.0]^T$ (grey dashed line).

Table 2: Simulation results for the parameters of M_2 .

n_{obs}	Bias					EmpSE				
	50	100	500	1000	5000	50	100	500	1000	5000
β_0	0.1904 (0.0508)	0.0631 (0.0394)	0.0044 (0.0186)	-0.0481 (0.0147)	0.0137 (0.0078)	0.7180 (0.0360)	0.5568 (0.0279)	0.2632 (0.0132)	0.2072 (0.0104)	0.1103 (0.0055)
β_1	0.3578 (0.0646)	0.1914 (0.0462)	0.0354 (0.0205)	0.0111 (0.0166)	0.0368 (0.0083)	0.9137 (0.0458)	0.6532 (0.0327)	0.2905 (0.0146)	0.2349 (0.0118)	0.1167 (0.0058)

Corresponding Monte Carlo SEs are provided below in parentheses; Bias estimates that do not cover 0 in their 95% CI are shown in bold; $n_{\text{sim}} = 200$.

Posterior density study

- Estimate a smooth function through Bayesian P-splines
- Compare posterior distributions of BBVI (tigerpy) and MCMC (liesel ([ibid.](#)))
- For comparison we use:
 1. Kernel density plots
 2. Wasserstein distance (Kantorovich [1960](#))
- Generate 4 MCMC Chains and 400 (n_{sim}) BBVI runs
- Data generating process (DGP)

$$y_i|x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(f(x_i), 1.5^2)$$

$$f(x_i) = 3.0 + 1.75 \sin(1.5x_i)$$

$$x_i \sim \mathcal{U}(-10, 10), \quad i = 1, \dots, 1000,$$

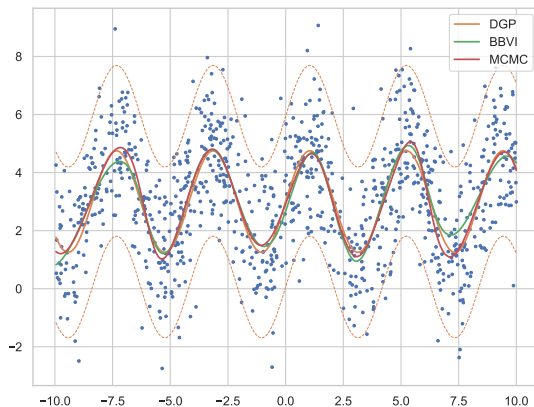


Figure 8: The DGP and the estimated smooth functions from BBVI and MCMC, using the posterior means.

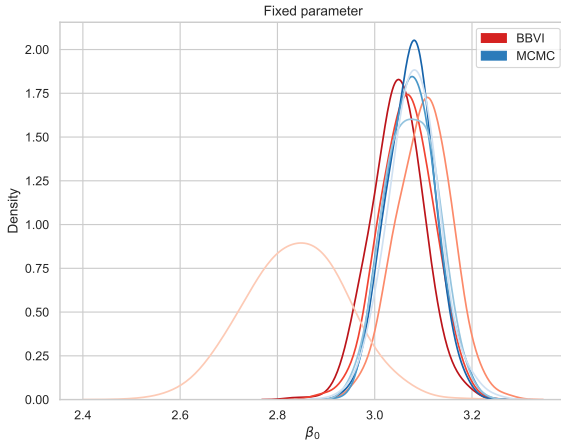


Figure 9: Kernel density for the posterior samples of the fixed intercept β_0 , using 4 randomly selected runs from BBVI (red) and 4 chains from MCMC (blue).

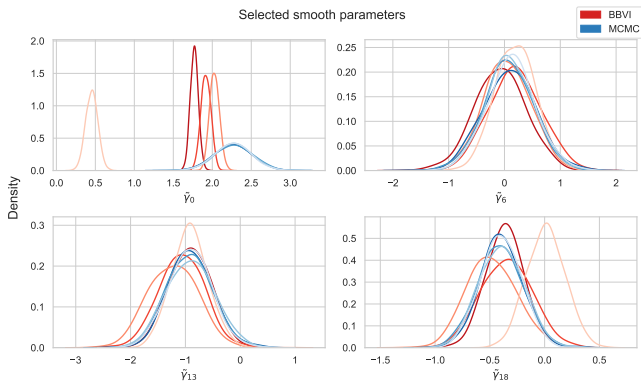


Figure 10: Kernel density for the posterior samples of selected internal spline coefficients $\tilde{\gamma}$, using 4 randomly selected runs from BBVI (red) and 4 chains from MCMC (blue).

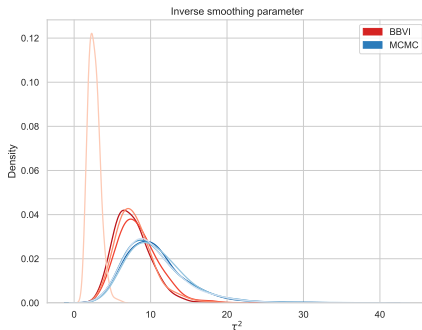


Figure 11: Kernel density for the posterior samples of the inverse smoothing parameter τ^2 , using 4 randomly selected runs from BBVI (red) and 4 chains from MCMC (blue).

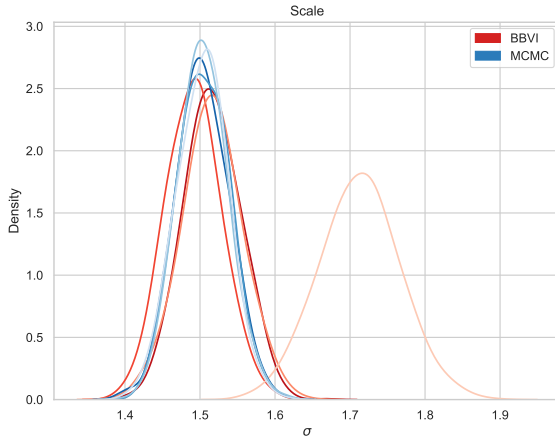


Figure 12: Kernel density for the posterior samples of the scale σ , using 4 randomly selected runs from BBVI (red) and 4 chains from MCMC (blue).

- As a formal measure we use the Wasserstein distance with the “squared euclidean distance” (W_2)
- Allows to compare the “distance” between two probability distributions

Wasserstein distance W_2 for each parameter block

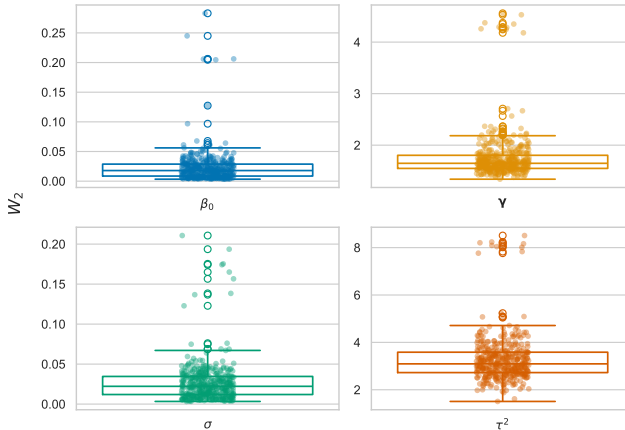


Figure 13: Box plots displaying the Wasserstein distance for the different model parameters.

Open Problems

- Starting with “arbitrary” model initializations for models with scale or shape parameters is numerically too unstable
- Likelihood in the ELBO tends to infinity for “unlikely” samples from the variational distribution
- Forcing the variance of the variational distribution down works . . .

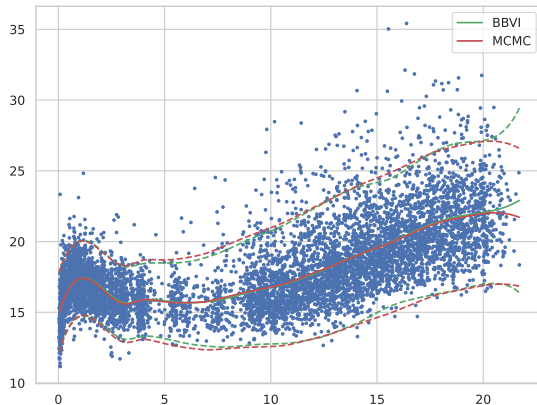


Figure 14: Location scale regression with the Dutch boys dataset, comparing MCMC and BBVI.

- Currently working on a two stage procedure
 1. Start with MAP for a few iterations
 - Calculate Laplace approximation and use it as the initialization for BBVI
 2. Continue with BBVI
- Optional to include one further simulation study or compare results from the first study with MCMC

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