

Variational Inference for Sparse Linear Models

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1 Introduction

In this note we provide a (simple) probabilistic model for sparse linear models, as applied to Compressive Sensing. It allows the modelling of sparsity patterns from heavy-tailed distributions (for example, Laplace or Student-t).

In particular, we present a method to fully reconstruct the full posterior distribution on the latent variables; as opposed to finding the most probable (MAP) solution.

However, computing the exact posterior under heavy-tailed priors is not tractable. We instead present a variational technique where we approximate the true posterior by a parameterised Gaussian, which allows closed form computations.

2 Variational Bayes for Sparse Linear Models

Consider an undersampled linear system:

$$y = Sx + n \tag{2.0.1}$$

where $y, n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and n is white Gaussian noise with variance 1.

We can model simply as follows:

$$p(y|x) = \mathcal{N}(y; Sx, 1) \approx \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(y - Sx)^T(y - Sx)\right) \tag{2.0.2}$$

and we place a Laplace prior over the signal x :

$$p(x) \approx \exp\left(-\lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|\right) \tag{2.0.3}$$

we choose $\lambda = \sqrt{2 * \log n}$ to simplify the discussion.
The entire posterior distribution is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
p(x|y) &= p(y|x) p(x) \\
&= \exp \left(- \left(\frac{1}{2} (y - Sx)^T (y - Sx) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \right) \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.0.4}$$

This leads to the familiar MAP estimate:

$$\hat{x}_{MAP} = \arg \min_x \frac{1}{2} (y - Sx)^T (y - Sx) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \tag{2.0.5}$$

However, computing the entire posterior 2.0.4 is difficult. In this case we can approximate it with an appropriately parameterised Gaussian distribution:

$$q(x|y) \approx P(y|x) \exp \left(\beta^T x - \frac{1}{2} x^T \Gamma^{-1} x \right) \tag{2.0.6}$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(x; \hat{x}_Q, A^{-1}) \tag{2.0.7}$$

where

$$\hat{x}_Q = A^{-1} b \tag{2.0.8}$$

$$A = S^T S + \Gamma^{-1} \tag{2.0.9}$$

$$b = S^T y + \beta \tag{2.0.10}$$

and

$$\Gamma = \text{diag}(\gamma) \tag{2.0.11}$$

and we minimise the KL divergence:

$$KL(p(x|y) || q(x|y)) \tag{2.0.12}$$

This can be expressed as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{KL}(\beta, \Gamma) = q(x|y) \log p(x|y) - q(x|y) \log q(x|y) \tag{2.0.13}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{2} \|y - Sx\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 - \frac{1}{2} (x - A^{-1}b)^T A^{-1} (x - A^{-1}b)
\end{aligned} \tag{2.0.14}$$

3 Bregman ADMM

The alternating direction method of multipliers [?], (ADMM), algorithm solves problems of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_x f(x) + g(z) \\ \text{s.t } Ux + Vz = c \end{aligned} \quad (3.0.15)$$

where f and g are assumed to be convex function with range in \mathbb{R} , $U \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ are matrices (not assumed to have full rank), and $c \in \mathbb{R}^p$.

ADMM consists of iteratively minimising the augmented Lagrangian

$$\begin{aligned} L_p(x, z, \eta) = f(x) + g(z) + \eta^T (Ux + Vz - c) + \\ \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ux + Vz - c\|_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

(η is a Lagrange multiplier), and ρ is a parameter we can choose to make $g(z)$ smooth [?], with the following iterations:

$$x^{k+1} := \arg \min_x L_p(x, z^k, \eta^k) \quad (3.0.16)$$

$$z^{k+1} := \arg \min_z L_p(x^{k+1}, z, \eta^k) \quad (3.0.17)$$

$$\eta^{k+1} := \eta^k + \rho (Ux^{k+1} + Vz^{k+1} - c) \quad (3.0.18)$$

The alternating minimisation works because of the decomposability of the objective function: the x minimisation step is independent of the z minimisation step and vice versa.

Bregman ADMM differs from the standard ADMM by replacing the quadratic penalty with a KL divergence:

$$L_{KL}(x, z, \eta) = f(x) + g(z) + \eta^T (Ux + Vz - c) + KL(Ux || Vz)$$

so that the updates now become

$$x^{k+1} := \arg \min_x f(x) + \eta^T (Ux + Vz - c) + \rho KL(c - Ux || Vz^k) \quad (3.0.19)$$

$$z^{k+1} := \arg \min_z g(z) + \eta^T (Ux + Vz - c) + \rho KL(Vz || c - Ux^{k+1}) \quad (3.0.20)$$

$$\eta^{k+1} := \eta^k + \rho (Ux^{k+1} + Vz^{k+1} - c) \quad (3.0.21)$$