10707 Deep Learning: Spring 2020

Andrej Risteski

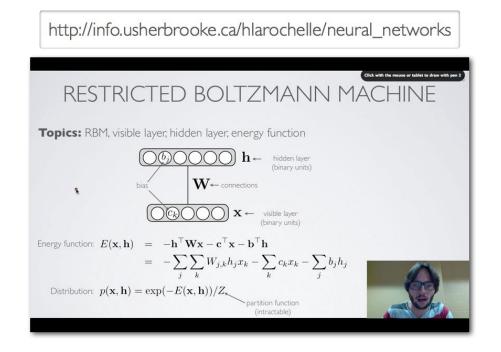
Machine Learning Department

Lecture 13:

Learning energy models, RBMs and DBNs

Disclaimer: Some of the material/slides for this lecture were borrowed from Hugo Larochelle's class on Neural Networks:

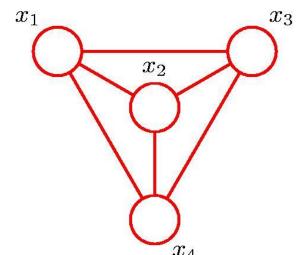
https://sites.google.com/site/deeplearningsummerschool2016/



Some are borrowed from Russ Salakhutdinov's offering of 10-707: https://deeplearning-cmu-10707.github.io/syllabus.html

Graphical Models

Recall: graph contains a set of nodes connected by edges.



In a probabilistic graphical model, each node represents a random variable, links represent "probabilistic dependencies" between random variables.

Graph specifies how joint distribution over all random variables decomposes into a **product** of factors, each factor depending on a subset of the variables.

Two types of graphical models:

- **Bayesian networks**, also known as Directed Graphical Models (the links have a particular directionality indicated by the arrows)
- **Markov Random Fields**, also known as **Undirected Graphical Models** (the links do not carry arrows and have no directional significance).

Algorithmic pros/cons of latent-variable models (so far)

RBM's

- S Hard to draw samples (In fact, #P-hard provably, even in Ising models)
- Second Easy to sample posterior distribution over latents



Directed models

S Easy to draw samples



Mard to sample posterior distribution over latents



Canonical tasks with graphical models

<u>Inference</u>

Given values for the parameters θ of the model, *sample/calculate* marginals (e.g. sample $p_{\theta}(x_1), p_{\theta}(x_4, x_5), p_{\theta}(z|x)$, etc.)

Learning

Find values for the parameters θ of the model, that give a *high likelihood* for the observed data. (e.g. canonical way is solving maximum likelihood optimization

$$\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x_i)$$

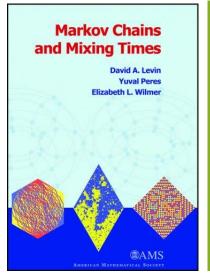
Other methods exist, e.g. method of moments (matching moments of model), but less used in deep learning practice.

Algorithmic approaches

When faced with a difficult to calculate probabilistic quantity (partition function, difficult posterior), there are two families of approaches:

MARKOV CHAIN MONTE CARLO

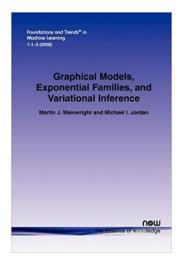
- *Random walk w/ equilibrium distribution the one we are trying to sample from.
 - ❖ Well studied in TCS.





VARIATIONAL METHODS

- Based on solving an optimization problem.
- Very popular in practice.
- Comparatively poorly understood



Part I: Learning completely observable energy models

Goal: Sample from distribution given up to constant of proportionality: $p_{\theta}(x) \propto \exp(-E_{\theta}(x))$

Recall our basic approach: maximum likelihood

Given data $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$, solve the optimization problem

$$\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

Expanding likelihoods: $\log p_{\theta}(x) = -E_{\theta}(x) - \log Z_{\theta}$

Our basic algorithm: gradient descent. Can we take gradients?

 $\nabla_{\theta} E(\theta)$ is typically easy (e.g. $E(\theta)$ is a neural net, Ising model, etc.)

Goal: Sample from distribution given up to constant of proportionality: $p_{\theta}(x) \propto \exp(-E_{\theta}(x))$

Recall our basic approach: maximum likelihood

Given data $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$, solve the optimization problem

$$\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log Z_{\theta} = \frac{1}{Z_{\theta}} \nabla_{\theta} Z_{\theta} = \frac{1}{Z_{\theta}} \nabla_{\theta} \left(\int_{\mathcal{X}} \exp(-E_{\theta}(x)) \right)$$
$$\frac{1}{Z_{\theta}} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \exp(-E_{\theta}(x)) \nabla_{\theta} \left(-E_{\theta}(x) \right) = \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}} [-\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x)]$$

Goal: Sample from distribution given up to constant of proportionality: $p_{\theta}(x) \propto \exp(-E_{\theta}(x))$

$$\nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i) \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i} -\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x_i) \right) - \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}} [-\nabla_{\theta} E_{\theta}(x)]$$

$$\approx \mathbb{E}_{p_{data}}[-\nabla_{\theta}E_{\theta}(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}}[-\nabla_{\theta}E_{\theta}(x)]$$

Goal of the algorithm: Try to make the expectation of the energy match

Let's assume $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. An obvious way to produce the estimates $\mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}}[-\nabla_{\theta}E_{\theta}(x)]$: sample approximately from p_{θ} using Langevin dynamics.

This was done recently: (Du, Mordatch '19), (Song, Ermon '19):

What's the difficulty?

Data is multimodal: Langevin might take long to mix.

The algorithm from (Du, Mordatch '19)

Maintain buffer of previous samples to reduce mixing time

Algorithm 1 Energy training algorithm

Input: data dist. $p_D(\mathbf{x})$, step size λ , number of steps K

 $\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \emptyset$

 $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{+} \sim p_{D}$

while not converged do

W/ some probability, start from random pt to

 $\mathbf{x}_i^0 \sim \mathcal{B}$ with 95% probability and \mathcal{U} otherwise

encourage mode

 \triangleright Generate sample from q_{θ} via Langevin dynamics:

exploration

Langevin sampler

for sample step k=1 to K do $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^k \leftarrow \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{k-1} - \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} E_{\theta}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{k-1}) + \omega, \quad \omega \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma)$ and for

 $\mathbf{x}_i^- = \Omega(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i^k)$

 \triangleright Optimize objective $\alpha \mathcal{L}_2 + \mathcal{L}_{ML}$ wrt θ :

 $\Delta\theta \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \alpha (E_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{+})^{2} + E_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{-})^{2}) + E_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{+}) - E_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_{i}^{-})$

Update θ based on $\Delta\theta$ using Adam optimizer

 $\mathcal{B} \leftarrow \mathcal{B} \cup \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_i$ end while

A bit of 12 regularization to ensure energy is somewhat smooth



Figure 2: Conditional ImageNet32x32 EBM samples

The algorithm from (Song, Ermon '19)

Not likelihood based, instead minimize:

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_{data}} ||\nabla_x \log p_{data}(x) - (-E_{\theta}(x))||^2$$

(Turns out to be writeable in a form friendly for taking gradients)

To alleviate multimodality, they use a variant of *simulated tempering*, which we saw last time.

They also use *smoothing by convolving* with Gaussians to account for points with bad estimates of $E_{\theta}(x)$.

The algorithm from (Song, Ermon '19)

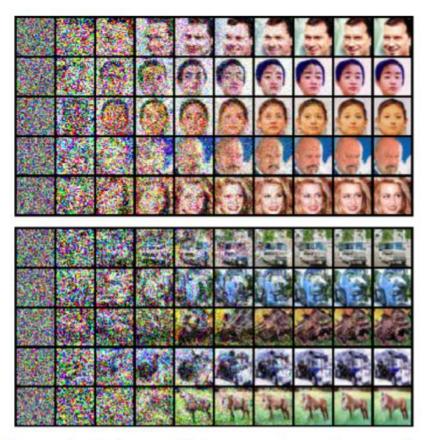


Figure 4: Intermediate samples of annealed Langevin dynamics.

The algorithm from (Song, Ermon '19)

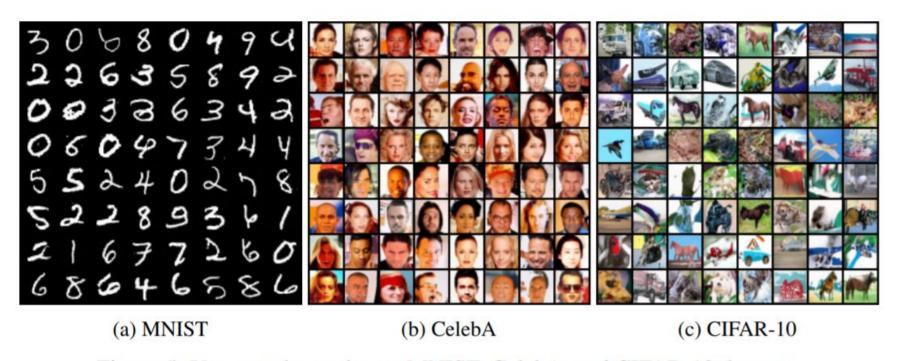


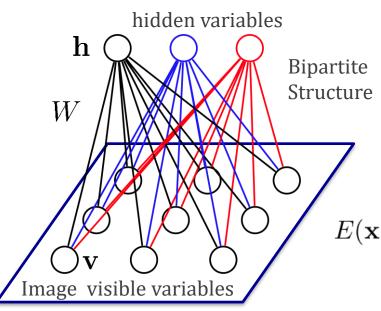
Figure 5: Uncurated samples on MNIST, CelebA, and CIFAR-10 datasets.

Part II: Learning Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs)

Restricted Boltzmann Machines

An **undirected** latent-variable model

We denote visible and hidden variables with vectors **v**, **h** respectively:



Visible variables $\mathbf{x} \in \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^{\mathbf{D}}$ are connected to hidden variables $\mathbf{h} \in \{0, 1\}^F$

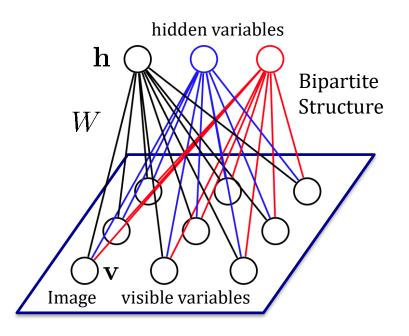
The energy of the joint configuration:

$$E(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}) = -\mathbf{h}^{\top} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}^{\top} \mathbf{h}$$
$$= -\sum_{j} \sum_{k} W_{j,k} h_{j} x_{k} - \sum_{k} c_{k} x_{k} - \sum_{j} b_{j} h_{j}$$

Probability of the joint configuration:

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}) = \exp(-E(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}))/Z$$

Restricted Boltzmann Machines



Factorizes

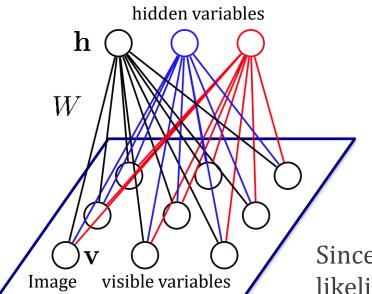
The **posterior** over the hidden variables is easy to sample from!

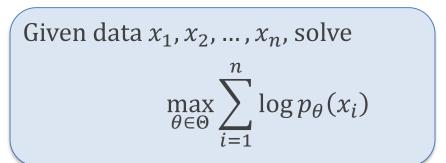
(Conditional independence!)

$$p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{j} p(h_j|\mathbf{x})$$
 $p(h_j = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(b_j + \mathbf{W}_j \cdot \mathbf{x}))}$

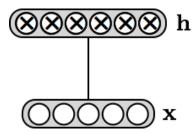
Similarly:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}) = \prod_{k} p(x_k|\mathbf{h}) \qquad p(x_k = 1|\mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(c_k + \mathbf{h}^\top \mathbf{W}_{\cdot k}))}$$





Since we have latent variables, we need to express the likelihood when we marginalize out the latents:



$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \{0,1\}^H} \exp(\mathbf{h}^\top \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{h})/Z$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \{0,1\}^H} \exp(\mathbf{h}^\top \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{h}) / Z$$
$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp\left(\sum_j h_j \mathbf{W}_j \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_j h_j\right) / Z$$

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$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \left(\sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_1 \mathbf{W}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_1 h_1)\right) \cdots \left(\sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_H \mathbf{W}_H \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_H h_H)\right) / Z$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \{0,1\}^H} \exp(\mathbf{h}^{\top} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{\top} \mathbf{h}) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp\left(\sum_j h_j \mathbf{W}_{j}.\mathbf{x} + b_j h_j\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \left(\sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_1 \mathbf{W}_{1}.\mathbf{x} + b_1 h_1)\right) \cdots \left(\sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_H \mathbf{W}_{H}.\mathbf{x} + b_H h_H)\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \left(1 + \exp(b_1 + \mathbf{W}_{1}.\mathbf{x})\right) \cdots \left(1 + \exp(b_H + \mathbf{W}_{H}.\mathbf{x})\right) / Z$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \{0,1\}^H} \exp(\mathbf{h}^\top \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{h}) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp\left(\sum_j h_j \mathbf{W}_{j.} \mathbf{x} + b_j h_j\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \left(\sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_1 \mathbf{W}_{1.} \mathbf{x} + b_1 h_1)\right) \cdots \left(\sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_H \mathbf{W}_{H.} \mathbf{x} + b_H h_H)\right) / Z$$

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$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_1 + \mathbf{W}_{1.} \mathbf{x}))\right) \cdots \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_H + \mathbf{W}_{H.} \mathbf{x}))) / Z$$

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$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \sum_{h_{1} \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{h_{H} \in \{0,1\}} \exp\left(\sum_{j} h_{j} \mathbf{W}_{j} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_{j} h_{j}\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \left(\sum_{h_{1} \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_{1} \mathbf{W}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_{1} h_{1})\right) \cdots \left(\sum_{h_{H} \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_{H} \mathbf{W}_{H} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_{H} h_{H})\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \left(1 + \exp(b_{1} + \mathbf{W}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{x})\right) \cdots \left(1 + \exp(b_{H} + \mathbf{W}_{H} \cdot \mathbf{x})\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_{1} + \mathbf{W}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{x}))\right) \cdots \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_{H} + \mathbf{W}_{H} \cdot \mathbf{x}))) / Z$$

$$= \exp\left(\mathbf{c}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + \sum_{j=1}^{H} \log(1 + \exp(b_{j} + \mathbf{W}_{j} \cdot \mathbf{x}))\right) / Z$$

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$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h} \in \{0,1\}^H} \exp(\mathbf{h}^\top \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{h}) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \cdots \sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp\left(\sum_j h_j \mathbf{W}_j \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_j h_j\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \left(\sum_{h_1 \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_1 \mathbf{W}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_1 h_1)\right) \cdots \left(\sum_{h_H \in \{0,1\}} \exp(h_H \mathbf{W}_H \cdot \mathbf{x} + b_H h_H)\right) / Z$$

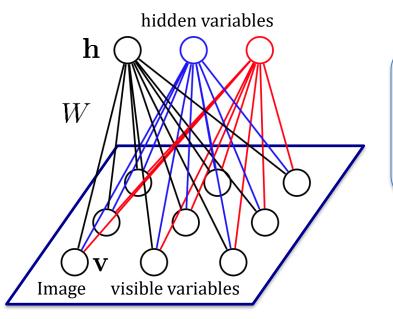
$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \left(1 + \exp(b_1 + \mathbf{W}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x})\right) \cdots \left(1 + \exp(b_H + \mathbf{W}_H \cdot \mathbf{x})\right) / Z$$

$$= \exp(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x}) \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_1 + \mathbf{W}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}))\right) \cdots \exp(\log(1 + \exp(b_H + \mathbf{W}_H \cdot \mathbf{x}))) / Z$$

$$= \exp\left(\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{x} + \sum_{j=1}^H \log(1 + \exp(b_j + \mathbf{W}_j \cdot \mathbf{x}))\right) / Z$$

$$= F(\mathbf{x})$$

 $= \exp(F(\mathbf{x}))/Z$



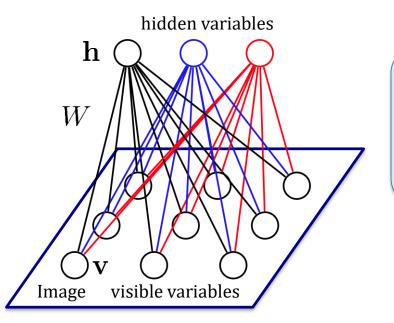
Given data $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$, solve

$$\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

With this reduction, the undirected model calculations imply:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i) \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i} -\nabla_{\theta} F_{\theta}(x_i) \right) - \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}} [-\nabla_{\theta} F_{\theta}(x)]$$

$$\begin{split} &\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{ij}} F_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{ij}} (\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{x} + \sum_{j=1}^{H} \log (1 + \exp(b_{j} + \mathbf{W}_{j}.\mathbf{x})) \\ &= \frac{\exp(b_{j} + \mathbf{W}_{j}.\mathbf{x})}{1 + \exp(-(b_{j} + \mathbf{W}_{j}.\mathbf{x}))} \mathbf{x}_{i} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(b_{j} + \mathbf{W}_{j}.\mathbf{x}))} \mathbf{x}_{i} \\ \end{split}$$



Given data $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$, solve

$$\max_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

With this reduction, the undirected model calculations imply:

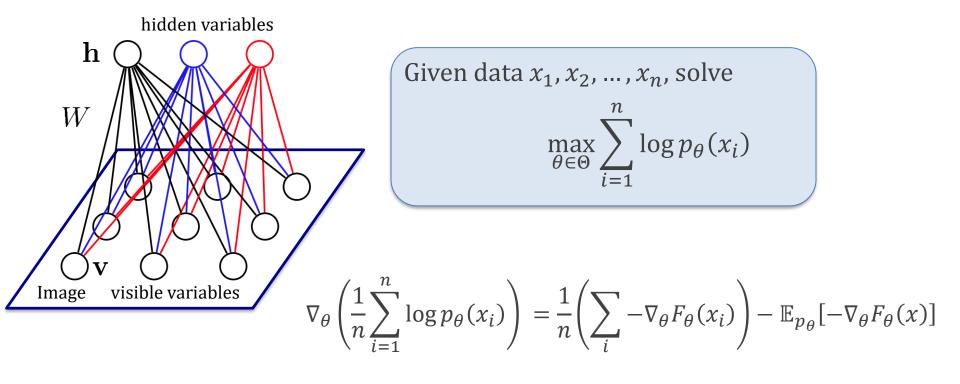
$$\nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i) \right) = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i} -\nabla_{\theta} F_{\theta}(x_i) \right) - \mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}} [-\nabla_{\theta} F_{\theta}(x)]$$

$$\nabla_{W_{ij}} F_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{h}_j = 1 | \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x}_i \Rightarrow \nabla_{\mathbf{W}} F_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x}^T$$

$$\nabla_b F_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\nabla_{c} F_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} p(h_1 = 1 | \mathbf{x}) \\ \dots \\ p(h_H = 1 | \mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \operatorname{sigm}(\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x})$$



The hard term is again: $\mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}}[-\nabla_{\theta}E_{\theta}(x)]$ --- we need to draw samples from p_{θ}

We will draw samples using a Markov random walk: **Gibbs sampler**!

Gibbs sampling

Consider sampling a distribution over n variables $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$, s.t. each of the conditional distributions $P(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{-i})$ is easy to sample. :

A common way to do this is using **Gibbs sampling**:

Repeat:

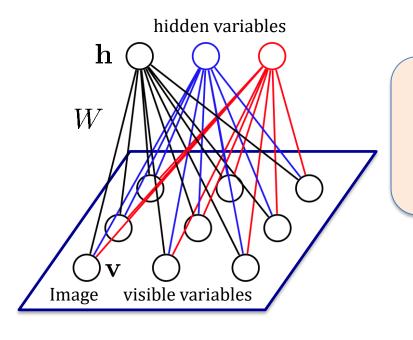
Let current state be $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$

Pick $i \in [n]$ uniformly at random.

Sample $x \sim P(X_i = x | x_{-i})$

Update state to $y = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_{i-1}, x, x_{i+1}, ..., x_n)$

Gibbs sampling for RBM's

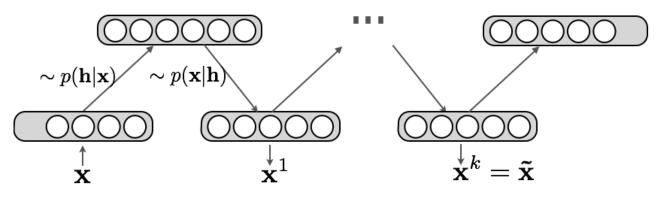


Repeat:

Sample $\mathbf{h} \sim P(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{v})$

Sample $\mathbf{v} \sim P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{h})$

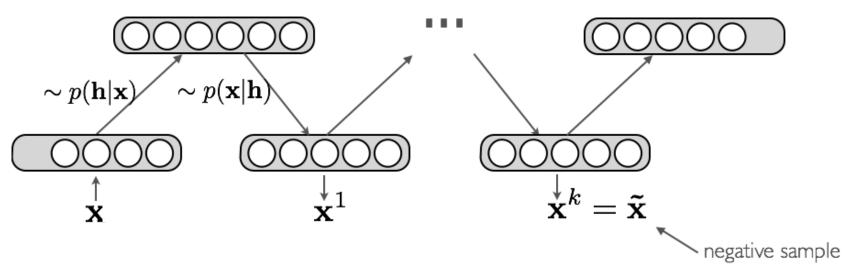
Pictorially:



Contrastive Divergence

Key idea behind Contrastive Divergence:

- ightharpoonup Replace the expectation by a point estimate at $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$
- ightharpoonup Obtain the point $\widetilde{\mathbf{X}}$ by Gibbs sampling
- \triangleright Start sampling chain at \mathbf{x}



k is often taken to be just 1.

CD-k Algorithm

For each training example \mathbf{x}

- Update model parameters:

$$\mathbf{W} \iff \mathbf{W} + \alpha \left(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}) \mathbf{x}^{\top} - \mathbf{h}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{\top} \right)$$

$$\mathbf{b} \iff \mathbf{b} + \alpha \left(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}) - \mathbf{h}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \right)$$

$$\mathbf{c} \iff \mathbf{c} + \alpha \left(\mathbf{x}^{\top} - \tilde{\mathbf{x}} \right)$$

Gradients we derived before

Go back to 1 until stopping criteria

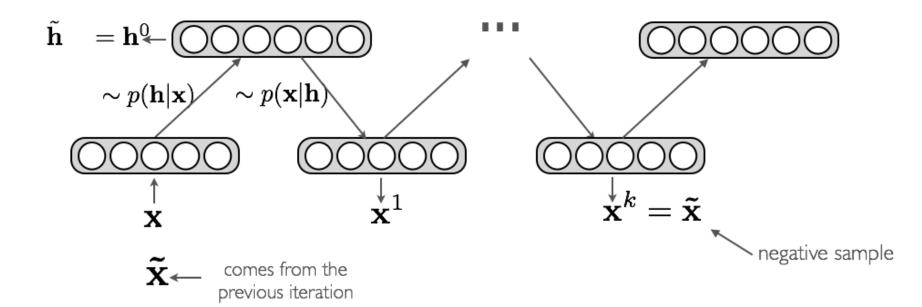
Step size

CD-k Algorithm

- CD-k: contrastive divergence with k iterations of Gibbs sampling
- In general, the bigger k is, the less biased the estimate of the gradient will be
- In practice, k=1 works well for learning good features and for pretraining

Persistent CD

Idea: instead of initializing the chain to \mathbf{x} , initialize the chain to the negative sample of the last iteration



Example: MNIST

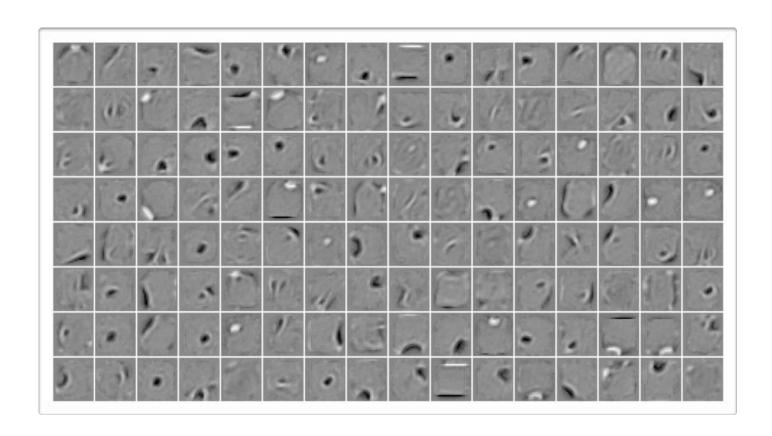
MNIST dataset:

```
79638808388986869337663880838868686933766388083886868693376638808388686869337663880838868686933
```

Each row is small set of "initial points", after which next row is gotten by running 1000 Gibbs steps.

Learned Features

MNIST dataset:



Tricks and Debugging

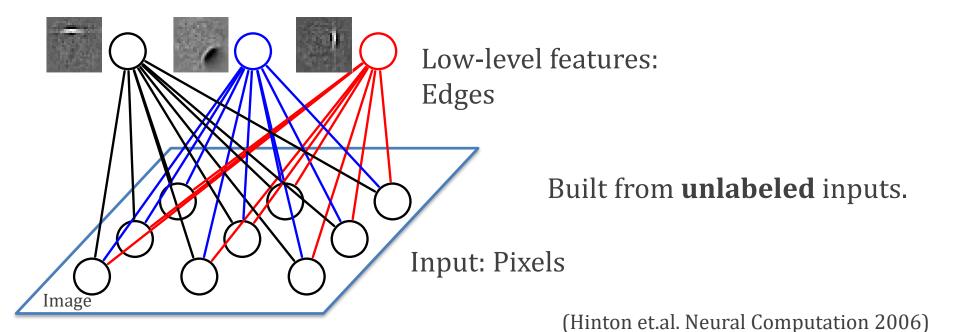
Unfortunately, it is not easy to debug training RBMs (e.g. using gradient checks)

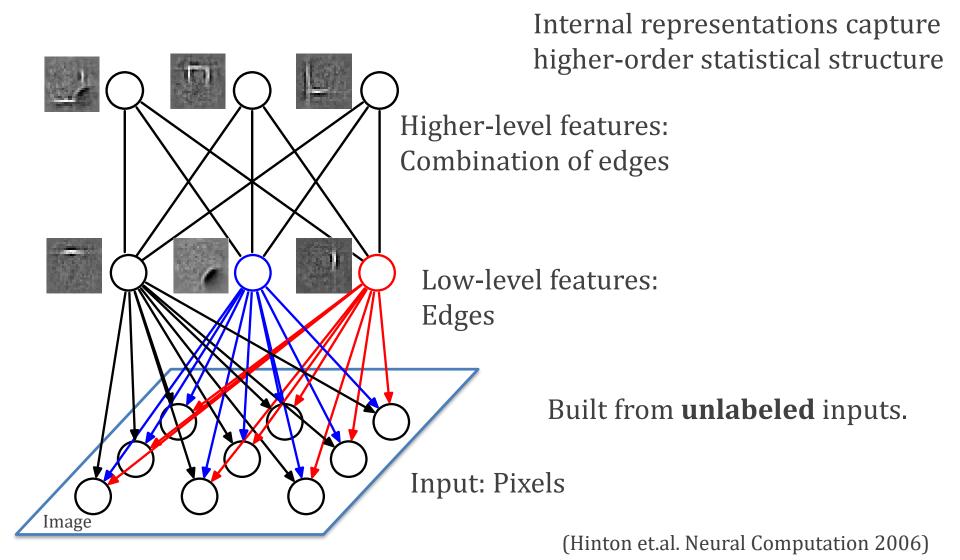
We instead rely on approximate "tricks"

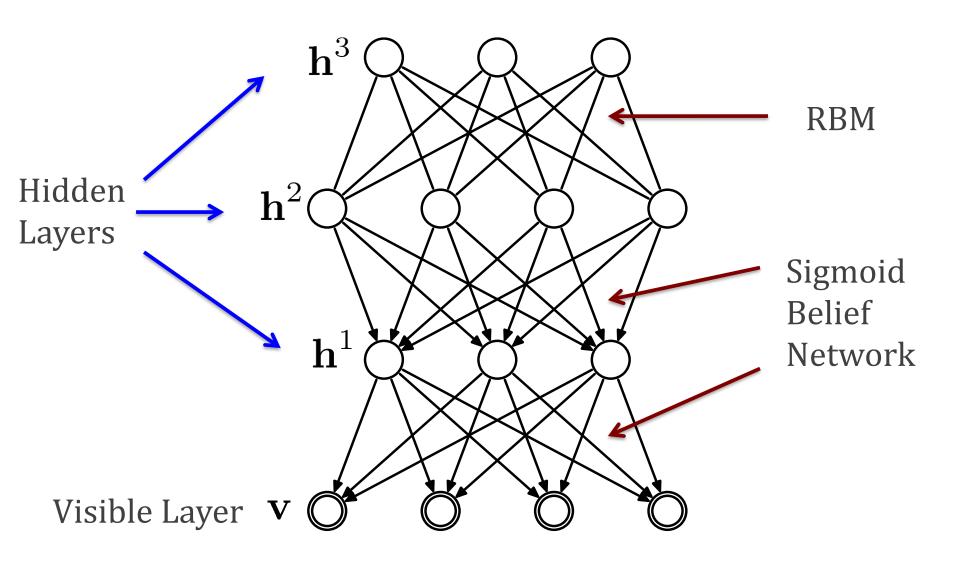
- we plot the average stochastic reconstruction $||\mathbf{x}^{(t)} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}||^2$ and see if it tends to decrease
- for inputs that correspond to image, we visualize the connection coming into each hidden unit as if it was an image
- > gives an idea of the type of visual feature each hidden unit detects
- we can also try to approximate the partition function Z and see whether the (approximated) NLL decreases

(Salakhutdinov, Murray, ICML 2008)

Part II: Learning Deep Belief Networks (DBNs)



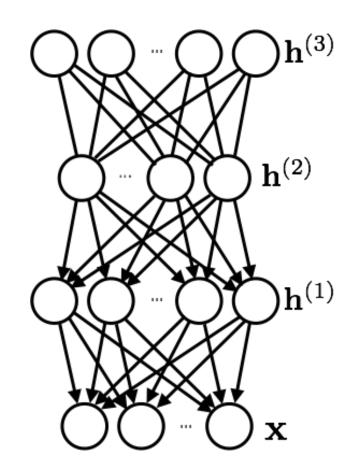




- > it is a generative model that mixes undirected and directed connections between variables
- ightharpoonup top 2 layers' distribution $p(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)})$ is an RBM!
- other layers form a Bayesian network with conditional distributions:

$$p(h_j^{(1)} = 1 | \mathbf{h}^{(2)}) = \text{sigm}(\mathbf{b}^{(1)} + \mathbf{W}^{(2)}^{\top} \mathbf{h}^{(2)})$$

$$p(x_i = 1 | \mathbf{h}^{(1)}) = \text{sigm}(\mathbf{b}^{(0)} + \mathbf{W}^{(1)}^{\top} \mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$



The joint distribution of a DBN is as follows

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}^{(1)}, \mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)}) = p(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)}) p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{h}^{(2)}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$

where

$$p(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)}) = \exp\left(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}^{\top} \mathbf{W}^{(3)} \mathbf{h}^{(3)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}^{\top} \mathbf{h}^{(2)} + \mathbf{b}^{(3)}^{\top} \mathbf{h}^{(3)}\right) / Z$$

$$p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{h}^{(2)}) = \prod_{j} p(h_j^{(1)}|\mathbf{h}^{(2)})$$

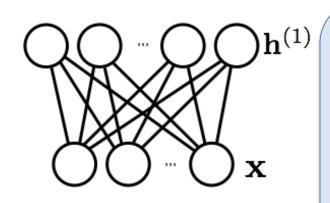
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) = \prod_i p(x_i|\mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$

Why this odd parametrization?

Consider an RBM.

Let's write the marginal p(x) in terms of the Gibbs variational principle.

As $p(x) = \sum_{h^{(1)}} p(x, h^{(1)})$ (i.e. a partition function of the model $p(h^{(1)}) \propto p(x, h^{(1)})$), we have:



For every distribution $q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$:

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) \geq \sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$
$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$

 $h^{(1)}$

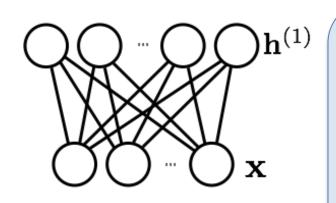
Equality is attained if
$$q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$
.

In fact, LHS - RHS = $KL(q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})||p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}))$

Consider an RBM.

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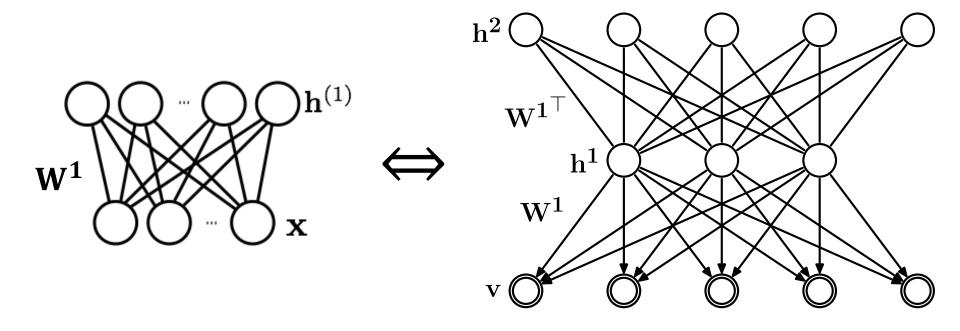
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$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$

The idea will be to add layers, s.t. we improve the variational bound on the RHS.

Adding one layer

Observation: a two-layer DBN with appropriately tied weights is equivalent to an RBM:



adding 2nd layer means untying the parameters

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) \geq \sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \left(\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) + \log p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})\right)$$
$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$

- When adding a second layer, we model $\,p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})\,$ using a separate set of parameters
 - \succ they are the parameters of the RBM involving $\,{f h}^{(1)}$ and $\,{f h}^{(2)}$
 - $ho p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})$ is now the marginalization of the second hidden layer

$$p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(2)}} p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}, \mathbf{h}^{(2)})$$

adding 2nd layer means untying the parameters

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) \geq \sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \left(\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) + \log p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})\right)$$
$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$

we can train the parameters of bound. This is equivalent to m terms are constant:

Layerwise pretraining improves variational lower bound

$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$

 \succ this is like training an RBM on data ${\sf generated}$ from $\,q({f h}^{(1)}|{f x})_!$

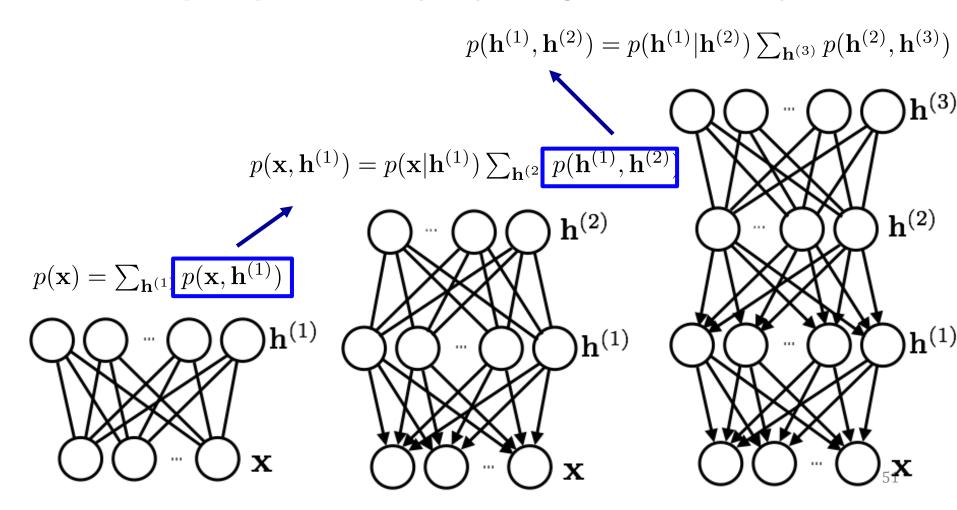
adding 2nd layer means untying the parameters

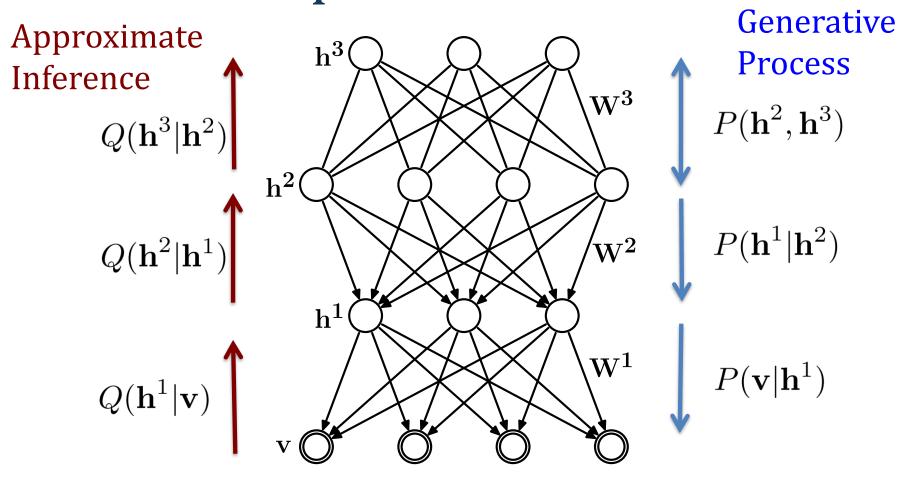
$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) \geq \sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \left(\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) + \log p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})\right)$$
$$-\sum_{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$$

- ightharpoonup for $q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$ we use the posterior of the first layer RBM. This is equivalent to a feed-forward (sigmoidal) layer, followed by sampling
- by initializing the weights of the second layer RBM as the transpose of the first layer weights, the bound is initially tight!
- a 2-layer DBN with tied weights is equivalent to a 1-layer RBM

This is where the RBM stacking procedure comes from:

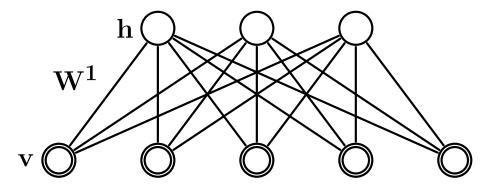
idea: improve prior on last layer by adding another hidden layer





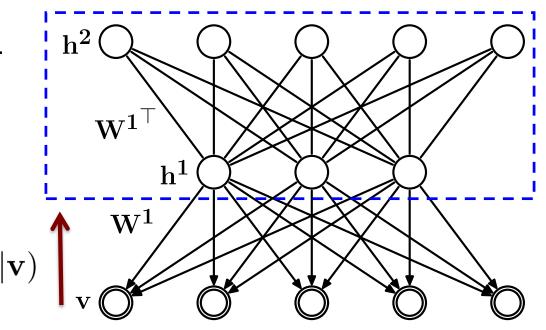
$$Q(\mathbf{h}^t | \mathbf{h}^{t-1}) = \prod_j \sigma \left(\sum_i W^t h_i^{t-1} \right) \qquad P(\mathbf{h}^{t-1} | \mathbf{h}^t) = \prod_j \sigma \left(\sum_i W^t h_i^t \right)$$

 Learn an RBM with an input layer v=x and a hidden layer h.



- Learn an RBM with an input layer v=x and a hidden layer h.
- Treat inferred values $Q(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v}) = P(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v})$ as the data for training 2nd-layer RBM.

• Learn and freeze 2nd layer RBM.



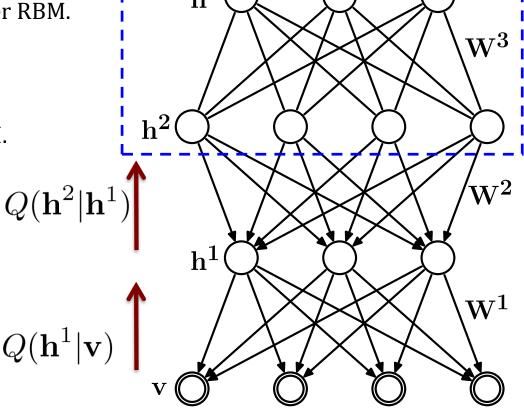
• Learn an RBM with an input layer v=x and a hidden layer h.

Unsupervised Feature Learning.

• Treat inferred values $Q(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v}) = P(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v})$ as the data for training 2nd-layer RBM.

Learn and freeze 2nd layer RBM.

Proceed to the next layer.



• Learn an RBM with an input layer v=x and a hidden layer h.

Unsupervised Feature Learning.

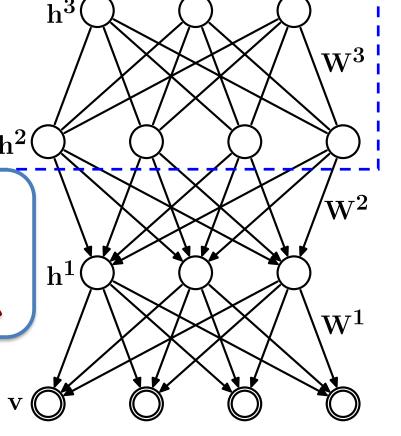
• Treat inferred values $Q(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v}) = P(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v})$ as the data for training 2nd-layer RBM.

• Learn and freeze 2nd layer RBM.

Proce

Layerwise training improves variational lower bound

 $Q(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{v})$



This process of adding layers can be repeated recursively

we obtain the greedy layer-wise pre-training procedure for neural networks

We now see that this procedure corresponds to maximizing a bound on the likelihood of the data in a DBN

- ightharpoonup in theory, if our approximation $q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{x})$ is very far from the true posterior, the bound might be very loose
- this only means we might not be improving the true likelihood
- we might still be extracting better features!

Fine-tuning is done by the Up-Down algorithm

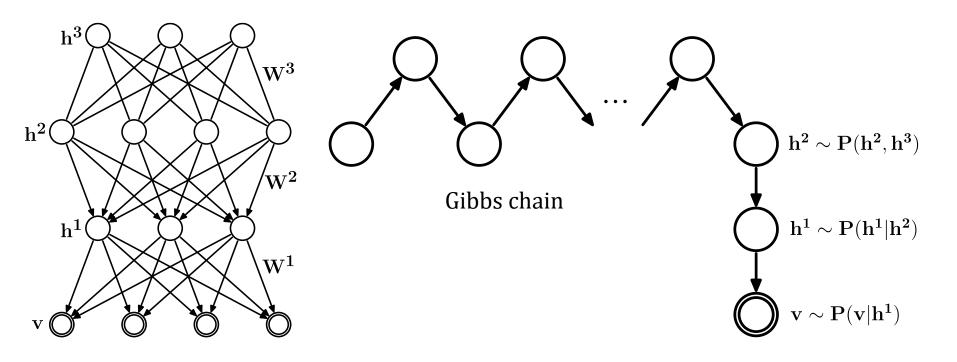
A fast learning algorithm for deep belief nets. Hinton, Teh, Osindero,
 2006.

Sampling from DBNs

To sample from the DBN model:

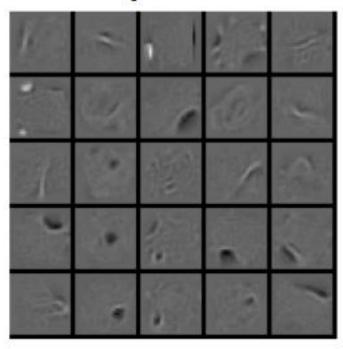
$$P(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}^1, \mathbf{h}^2, \mathbf{h}^3) = P(\mathbf{v}|\mathbf{h}^1)P(\mathbf{h}^1|\mathbf{h}^2)P(\mathbf{h}^2, \mathbf{h}^3)$$

- Sample h² using alternating Gibbs sampling from RBM.
- Sample lower layers using sigmoid belief network.

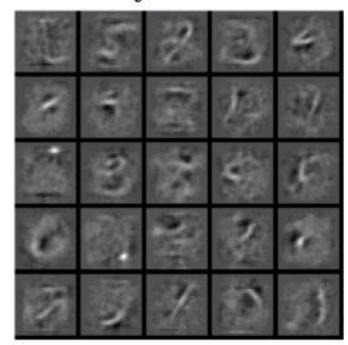


Learned Features

 1^{st} -layer features

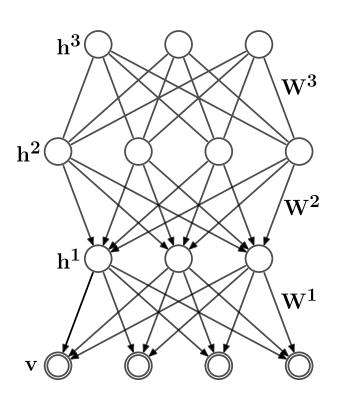


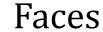
 2^{nd} -layer features

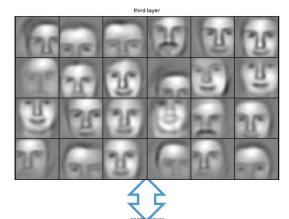


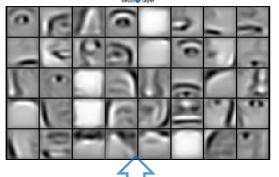
Learning Part-based Representation

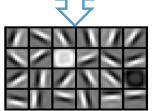
Convolutional DBN









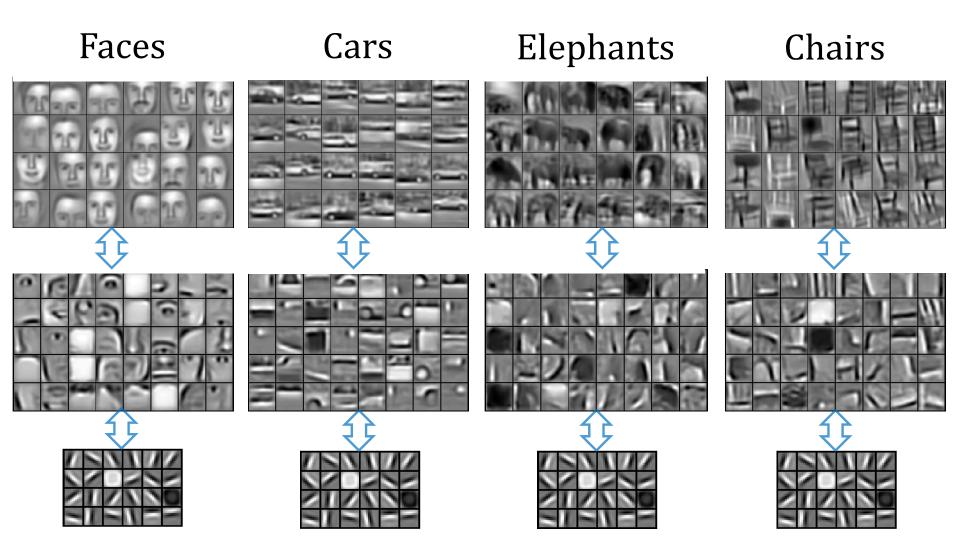


Groups of parts.

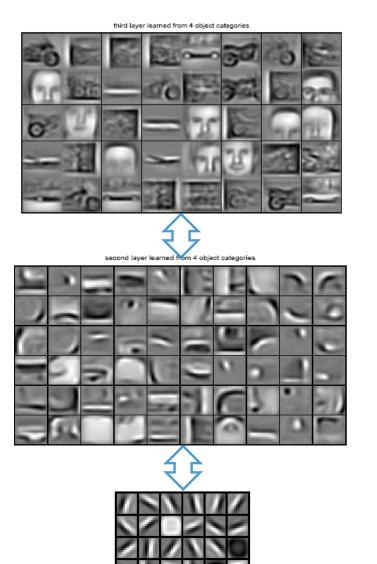
Object Parts

Trained on face images.

Learning Part-based Representation



Learning Part-based Representation



Groups of parts.

Class-specific object parts

Trained from multiple classes (cars, faces, motorbikes, airplanes).