A Brief Guide to Variational Inference

Haziq Jamil
PhD (LSE), MSc (LSE), BSc MMORSE (Warw)

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https://haziqj.ml/talk/ubd-bgtvi/

Outline

Introduction

Idea

Mean-field distributions Coordinate ascent algorithm

2 Example Gaussian mixtures

3 Discussion

Zero-forcing vs Zero-avoiding Quality of approximation

Introduction

• Consider a statistical model parameterised by $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)^{\top}$ for which we have observations $\mathbf{y} = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ and also some latent variables $\mathbf{z} = \{z_1, \dots, z_m\}$.

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- Want to evaluate the intractable integral

$$I := \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{z} = p(\mathbf{y})$$

- ► Frequentist likelihood maximisation $\arg \max_{\theta} \log p(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$
- ▶ Bayesian posterior analysis $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})/p(\mathbf{y})$

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- Variational inference approximates the "posterior" $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$ by a tractably close distribution in the Kullback-Leibler sense.

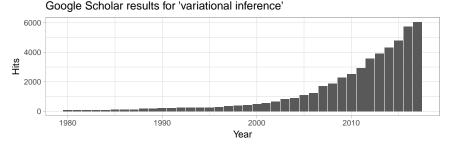
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- Variational inference approximates the "posterior" $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$ by a tractably close distribution in the Kullback-Leibler sense.
- Advantages:
 - ► Computationally fast
 - ► Convergence easily assessed
 - ► Works well in practice

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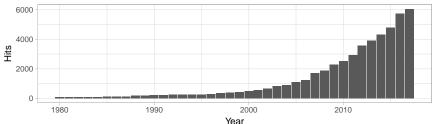
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• Well known in machine learning, slowly encroaching other fields.

In the literature

Google Scholar results for 'variational inference'



- Well known in machine learning, slowly encroaching other fields.
- Applications (Blei et al., 2017):
 - Computer vision and robotics (image denoising, tracking, recognition)
 - Natural language processing and speech recognition (topic modelling)
 - Social statistics (probit models, latent class models, variable selection)
 - Computational biology (phylogenetic hidden Markov models, population genetics, gene expression analysis)
 - Computational neuroscience (autoregressive processes, hierarchical models, spatial models, artificial neural networks)

Introductory texts

- D. M. Blei et al. (2017). "Variational Inference: A Review for Statisticians". J. Am. Stat. Assoc, 112.518, pp. 859–877
- C. M. Bishop (2006). Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning.

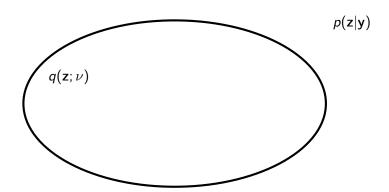
 Springer
- K. P. Murphy (2012). Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective.
 The MIT Press
- M. J. Beal (2003). "Variational algorithms for approximate Bayesian inference". PhD thesis. Gatsby Computational Neuroscience Unit, University College London
- HJ (Oct. 2018). "Regression modelling using priors depending on Fisher information covariance kernels (I-priors)". PhD thesis. London School of Economics and Political Science

q(z)

Minimise Kullback-Leibler divergence (using calculus of variations)

$$\mathsf{KL}(q\|p) = -\int \log rac{p(\mathsf{z}|\mathsf{y})}{q(\mathsf{z})} q(\mathsf{z}) \, \mathsf{dz}.$$

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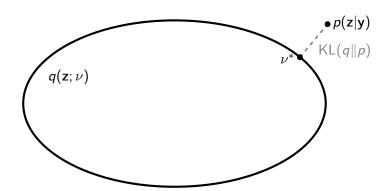


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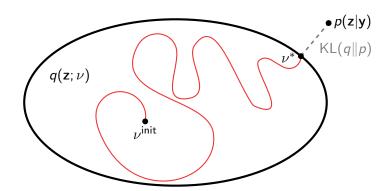


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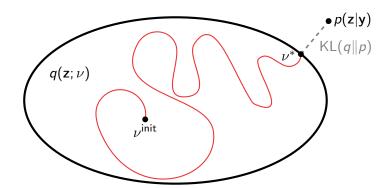


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• Use $q(\mathbf{z}; \nu^*) = \arg\min_{q} \mathsf{KL}(q||p)$ as an approximation to $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$.

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The Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

• Let q(z) be some density function to approximate p(z|y).

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- Maximising $\mathcal{L}(q)$ is equivalent to minimising $\mathsf{KL}(q\|p)$.
- N.b. Equality in the bound when $q(z) \equiv p(z|y)$, and KL(q||p) vanishes (c.f. EM algorithm).

Factorised distributions (Mean-field theory)

- Maximising \mathcal{L} over all possible q not feasible. Need some restrictions, but only to achieve tractability.
- Suppose we partition elements of z into M disjoint groups $z = (z_{[1]}, \dots, z_{[M]})$, and assume

$$q(\mathsf{z}) = \prod_{j=1}^M q_j(\mathsf{z}_{[j]}).$$

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• Under this restriction, the solution to $\arg\max_q \mathcal{L}(q)$ is

$$\tilde{q}_j(\mathbf{z}_{[j]}) \propto \exp\left(\mathsf{E}_{-j}[\log p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})]\right)$$
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 In practice, these unnormalised densities are of recognisable form (especially if conjugacy is considered).

• The optimal distributions are coupled with another, i.e. each $\tilde{q}_j(\mathbf{z}_{[j]})$ depends on the optimal moments of $\mathbf{z}_{[k]}$, $k \in \{1, \ldots, M | k \neq j\}$.

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- Assess convergence by monitoring the lower bound

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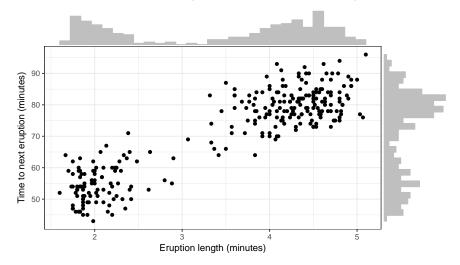
$$\mathcal{L}(q) = \mathsf{E}_q[\log p(\mathsf{y},\mathsf{z})] - \mathsf{E}_q[\log q(\mathsf{z})].$$

Algorithm 4 CAVI

- 1: **initialise** Variational factors $q_i(\mathbf{z}_{[i]})$
- 2: while $\mathcal{L}(q)$ not converged do
- for $j = 1, \ldots, M$ do 3:
- $\log q_i(\mathbf{z}_{[i]}) \leftarrow \mathsf{E}_{-i}[\log p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})] + \mathsf{const.}$ ⊳ from (1) 4:
- end for 5:
- $\mathcal{L}(q) \leftarrow \mathsf{E}_q[\log p(\mathsf{y},\mathsf{z})] \mathsf{E}_q[\log q(\mathsf{z})]$
- 7. end while
- 8: return $\tilde{q}(z) = \prod_{i=1}^{M} \tilde{q}_i(z_{[i]})$

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Gaussian mixture model (Old Faithful data set)



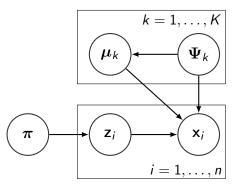
• Let $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and assume $\mathbf{x}_i \overset{\mathsf{iid}}{\sim} \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \, \mathsf{N}_d(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^{-1})$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Gaussian mixture model

- Introduce $\mathbf{z}_i = (z_{i1}, \dots, z_{iK})^\top$, a 1-of-K binary vector, where each $z_{ik} \sim \text{Bern}(\pi_k)$.
- ullet Assuming $\mathbf{z} = \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_n\}$ is known, the conditional likelihood is

$$p(\mathsf{x}|\mathsf{z},\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Psi}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^K \mathsf{N}_d(\mathsf{x}_i|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k,\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k^{-1})^{z_{ik}}.$$

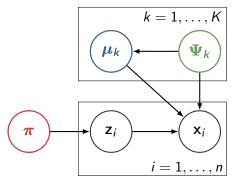
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Gaussian mixture model



$$\begin{split} & \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}) \\ &= p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}) p(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) \\ & \times p(\boldsymbol{\pi}) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\Psi}) p(\boldsymbol{\Psi}) \\ &= p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}) p(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) \\ & \times \mathsf{Dir}_{K}(\boldsymbol{\pi}|\alpha_{01}, \dots, \alpha_{0K}) \\ & \times \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mathsf{N}_{d}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}|\mathbf{m}_{0}, (\kappa_{0}\boldsymbol{\Psi}_{k})^{-1}) \\ & \times \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mathsf{Wis}_{d}(\boldsymbol{\Psi}_{k}|\mathbf{W}_{0}, \nu_{0}) \end{split}$$

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Variational inference for GMM

Assume the mean-field posterior density

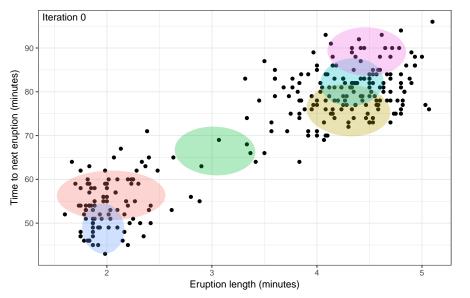
$$egin{aligned} q(\mathsf{z},\pi,\mu,\Psi) &= q(\mathsf{z})q(\pi,\mu,\Psi) \ &= q(\mathsf{z})q(\pi)q(\mu|\Psi)q(\Psi). \end{aligned}$$

Algorithm 5 CAVI for GMM

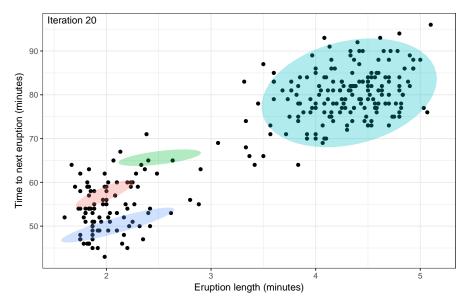
details

- 1: initialise Variational factors q(z), $q(\pi)$ and $q(\mu, \Psi)$
- 2: while $\mathcal{L}(q)$ not converged do
- 3: $q(z_{ik}) \leftarrow \text{Bern}(\cdot)$
- 4: $q(\pi) \leftarrow \mathsf{Dir}_{\mathcal{K}}(\cdot)$
- 5: $q(\mu|\Psi) \leftarrow \mathsf{N}_d(\cdot,\cdot)$
- 6: $q(\Psi) \leftarrow \mathsf{Wis}_d(\cdot, \cdot)$
- 7: $\mathcal{L}(q) \leftarrow \mathsf{E}_q[\log p(\mathsf{x}, \mathsf{z}, \pi, \mu, \Psi)] \mathsf{E}_q[\log q(\mathsf{z}, \pi, \mu, \Psi)]$
- 8: end while
- 9: return $\widetilde{q}(\mathsf{z},\pi,\mu,\Psi) = \widetilde{q}(\mathsf{z})\widetilde{q}(\pi)\widetilde{q}(\mu|\Psi)\widetilde{q}(\Psi)$

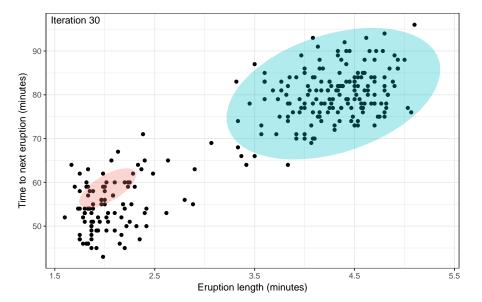
Variational inference for GMM (cont.)



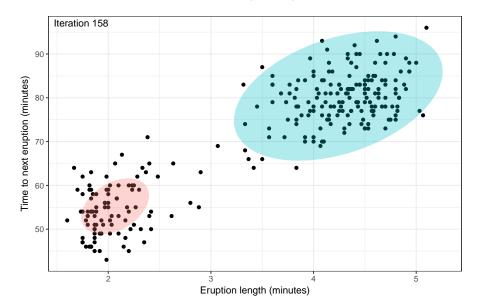
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Variational inference for GMM (cont.)

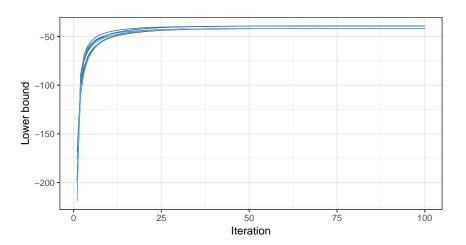


Final thoughts on variational GMM

- Similar algorithm to the EM, and therefore similar computational time.
- Many other models share similar structure: latent class analysis, hidden Markov models, latent Dirichlet allocation, etc.
- PROS:
 - ▶ Automatic selection of number of mixture components.
 - ► Less pathological special cases compared to EM solutions because regularised by prior information.
 - Less sensitive to number of parameters/components.
- CONS:
 - Hyperparameter tuning.

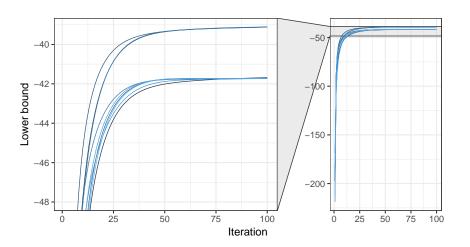
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Non-convexity of ELBO



- CAVI only guarantees converges to a local optimum.
- Multiple local optima may exist.

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Zero-forcing vs Zero-avoiding

• Back to the KL divergence:

$$\mathsf{KL}(q\|p) = \int \log rac{q(\mathsf{z})}{p(\mathsf{z}|\mathsf{y})} q(\mathsf{z}) \, \mathsf{dz}$$

- KL(q||p) is large when p(z|y) is close to zero, unless q(z) is also close to zero (*zero-forcing*).
- What about other measures of closeness?

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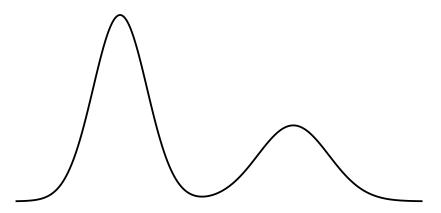
- KL(q||p) is large when $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$ is close to zero, unless $q(\mathbf{z})$ is also close to zero (*zero-forcing*).
- What about other measures of closeness? For instance,

$$\mathsf{KL}(p\|q) = \int \log rac{p(\mathsf{z}|\mathsf{y})}{q(\mathsf{z}|\mathsf{y})} p(\mathsf{z}|\mathsf{y}) \, \mathsf{dz}.$$

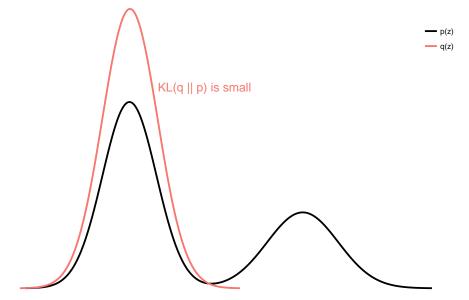
- This gives the Expectation Propagation (EP) algorithm.
- It is zero-avoiding, because KL(p||q) is small when both p(z|y) and q(z) are non-zero.

Zero-forcing vs Zero-avoiding (cont.)

— p(z)

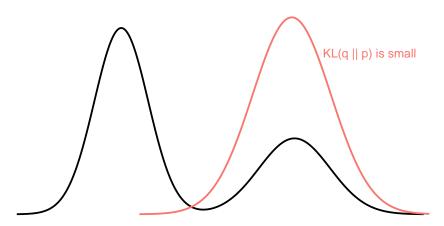






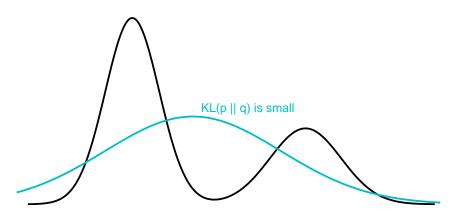
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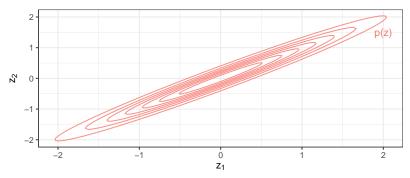


Zero-forcing vs Zero-avoiding (cont.)

— p(z) — q(z)

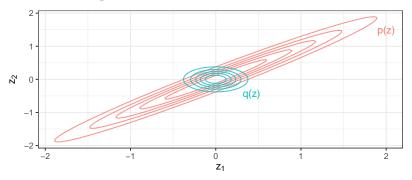


Distortion of higher order moments



• Consider $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, z_2)^{\top} \sim \mathsf{N}_2(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}^{-1})$, $\mathsf{Cov}(z_1, z_2) \neq 0$.

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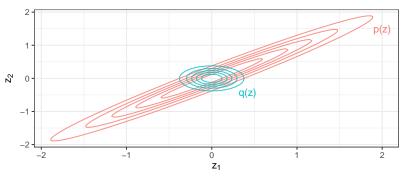


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and by definition, $Cov(z_1, z_2) = 0$ under \tilde{q} .

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• This leads to underestimation of variances (widely reported in the literature—Zhao and Marriott, 2013).

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Quality of approximation

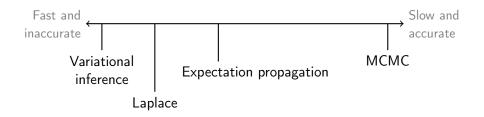
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- But not much can be said about the quality of approximation.
- Statistical properties not well understood—what is its statistical profile relative to the exact posterior?
- Speed trumps accuracy?



End

Thank you!

References I

- Beal, M. J. (2003). "Variational algorithms for approximate Bayesian inference". PhD thesis. Gatsby Computational Neuroscience Unit, University College London.
- Bishop, C. M. (2006). Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer.
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4 Additional material

The variational principle Comparison to EM The EM algorithm Laplace's method Solutions to Gaussian mixture

The variational principle

 Name derived from calculus of variations which deals with maximising or minimising functionals.

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Functions p: \theta \mapsto \mathbb{R} (standard calculus)
Functionals \mathcal{H}: p \mapsto \mathbb{R} (variational calculus)
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$$\arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta) =: \hat{\theta}$$

e.g. p is a likelihood function, and $\hat{\theta}$ is the ML estimate.

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Using variational calculus, we can solve

$$\operatorname{arg\,max}_{p} \mathcal{H}(p) =: \tilde{p}$$

e.g. \mathcal{H} is the entropy $\mathcal{H} = -\int p(x) \log p(x) dx$, and \tilde{p} is the entropy maximising distribution.

Comparison to the EM algorithm

- In addition to latent variables z, typically there are unknown parameters θ to be estimated.
 - \blacktriangleright Frequentist estimation: θ is fixed
 - ▶ Bayesian estimation: $\theta \sim p(\theta)$ is random
- Consider θ fixed. Maximising the (marginal) log-likelihood directly

$$\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg \, max}} \log \left\{ \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{z}, \theta) p(\mathbf{z}|\theta) \, d\mathbf{z} \right\}$$

is difficult. However, if somehow the latent variables were known, then the problem may become easier.

- Given initial values $\theta^{(0)}$, the EM algorithm cycles through
 - ► E-step: Compute $Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)}) := \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{z}}[\log p(\mathsf{y},\mathsf{z}|\theta) \,|\, \mathsf{y},\theta^{(t)}]$
 - ▶ **M-step**: $\theta^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \arg \max_{\theta} Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)})$

for $t = 1, 2, \ldots$ until convergence.

Comparison to the EM algorithm (cont.)

Variational inference/Bayes	(Variational) EM algorithm
GOAL : Posterior densities for (\mathbf{w}, θ)	GOAL : ML/MAP estimates for θ
Variational approximation for latent variables and parameters $q(\mathbf{w}, \theta) \approx p(\mathbf{w}, \theta \mathbf{y})$	Variational approximation for latent variables only $q(\mathbf{w}) \approx p(\mathbf{w} \mathbf{y})$
Priors required on θ	Priors not necessary for θ
Derivation can be tedious	Derivation less tedious
Inference on θ through (approximate) posterior density $q(\theta)$	Asymptotic distribution of θ not well studied; standard errors for θ not easily obtained

Laplace's method

• Interested in $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}) =: e^{Q(\mathbf{f})}$, with normalising constant $p(\mathbf{y}) = \int e^{Q(\mathbf{f})} d\mathbf{f}$. The Taylor expansion of Q about its mode $\tilde{\mathbf{f}}$

$$Q(\mathbf{f}) \approx Q(\tilde{\mathbf{f}}) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{f} - \tilde{\mathbf{f}})^{\top} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{f} - \tilde{\mathbf{f}})$$

is recognised as the logarithm of an unnormalised Gaussian density, with ${\bf A}=-{\bf D}^2 Q({\bf f})$ being the negative Hessian of Q evaluated at $\tilde{\bf f}$.

R. Kass and A. Raftery (1995). "Bayes Factors". *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 90.430, pp. 773–795, §4.1, pp.777-778.

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• The posterior $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y})$ is approximated by $N(\tilde{\mathbf{f}}, \mathbf{A}^{-1})$, and the marginal by

$$p(\mathbf{y}) \approx (2\pi)^{n/2} |\mathbf{A}|^{-1/2} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{\tilde{f}}) p(\mathbf{\tilde{f}})$$

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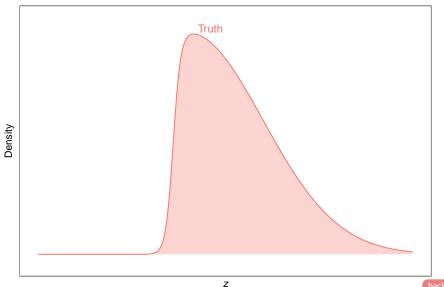
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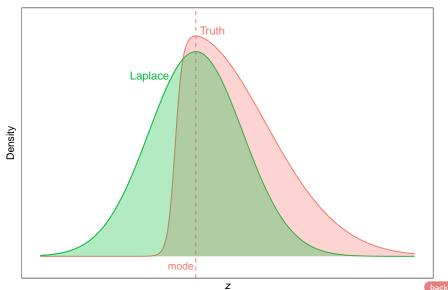
Won't scale with large n; difficult to find modes in high dimensions.

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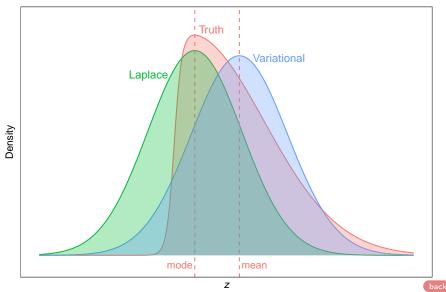
Comparison of approximations (density)



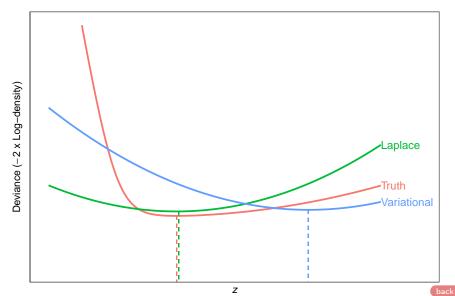
Comparison of approximations (density)



Comparison of approximations (density)



Comparison of approximations (deviance)



Variational solutions to Gaussian mixture model

Variational M-step

$$\begin{split} \tilde{q}(\mathbf{z}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^K r_{ik}^{z_{ik}}, \quad r_{ik} = \rho_{ik} / \sum_{k=1}^K \rho_{ik} \\ \log \rho_{ik} &= \mathsf{E}[\log \pi_k] + \frac{1}{2} \, \mathsf{E}\left[\log |\Psi_k|\right] - \frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi \\ &- \frac{1}{2} \, \mathsf{E}\left[(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^\top \Psi_k (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right] \end{split}$$

Variational E-step

$$ilde{q}(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) = \operatorname{Dir}_K(\boldsymbol{\pi}|\tilde{\boldsymbol{lpha}}), \quad ilde{lpha}_k = lpha_{0k} + \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik}$$

$$ilde{q}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \operatorname{N}_d\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}_k|\tilde{\mathbf{m}}_k, (\tilde{\kappa}_k \boldsymbol{\Psi}_k)^{-1}\right) \operatorname{Wis}_d(\boldsymbol{\Psi}_k|\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_k, \tilde{\nu}_k)$$

Variational solutions to Gaussian mixture model (cont.)

$$\tilde{\kappa}_k = \kappa_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{m}}_k = (\kappa_0 \mathbf{m}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik} \mathbf{x}_i) / \tilde{\kappa}_k$$

$$\mathbf{W}_k^{-1} = \mathbf{W}_0^{-1} + \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik} (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)^{\top}$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik} \mathbf{x}_i / \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik}$$

$$\nu_k = \nu_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik}$$

Also useful

$$E\left[(\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_{k} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right] = d/\tilde{\kappa}_{k} + \nu_{k} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \tilde{\mathbf{m}}_{k})^{\top} \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{k} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \tilde{\mathbf{m}}_{k})$$

$$E\left[\log \pi_{k}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \psi\left(\frac{\nu_{k} + 1 - i}{2}\right) + d\log 2 + \log|\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{k}|$$

 $\mathsf{E} \left[\mathsf{log} \left| \Psi_k \right| \right] = \psi(\tilde{\alpha}_k) - \psi(\sum_{k=1}^K \tilde{\alpha}_k), \quad \psi(\cdot) \text{ is the digamma function}$