《机器学习:从入门到入魔》

Machine Learning: From Zero to Hero

第五讲: 概率类机器学习 Lecture 5: Probabilistic Machine Learning

薛延波 CSL BOSS 直聘 2019-07-25

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 - Explaining away
 - Boltzmann distribution from exponential family
- Boltzmann Machines
 - RBM
 - How to train an RBM?
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Probabilistic machine learning (PML) 薛延波 (CSL) 概率类机器学习 3/31 2019 - 07 - 25

Role of uncertainties in ML



图: 工作原理和预测

- 不确定性的来源: 数据 → 参数 → 模型结构
 - 数据的噪声: 如图片的分辨度
 - 数据的量: 如连续型的数据量为无限量
 - 数据的模糊性:如"Michael Jordan"既可以是体育明星,又可以是机器学习专家
 - 模型的复杂度:如参数太少→建模力太弱,参数太多→过拟合
- 概率与分布:一致的框架来"理解"和"操作"不确定性
- 模型的不确定性和数据的不确定性:都可以用概率与分布的概念来建模→确定性机器学习 vs 概率性机器学习
- 概率的两种解释: 频率派(数据概率/极大似然估计) vs 贝叶斯派(主观概率/置信概率)

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Math of PML in one page

- θ : param
- D: data
- \bullet m: model
- $P(D|\theta, m)$: LL of θ in m
- $P(\theta|m)$: prior of θ
- $P(\theta|D, m)$: posterior of θ
- P(D|m): marginal LL/model evidence

Two rules [Mur12]

- Sum rule: $P(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(x, y)$
- Product rule: P(x, y) = P(x)P(y|x)

Three task

• Learning: prior \rightarrow posterior

$$P(\theta|D, m) = \frac{P(D|\theta, m)P(\theta|m)}{P(D|m)} \tag{1}$$

• Prediction: marginalization on θ

$$P(D_{test}|D, m) = \int P(D_{test}|\theta, D, m)P(\theta|D, m)d\theta$$

 \bullet Model comparison: which m is better

$$P(m|D) = \frac{P(D|m)P(m)}{P(D)} \tag{3}$$

$$P(D|m) = \int P(D|\theta, m) P(\theta|m) d\theta$$

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Applications of PML

Areas of application [Gha15]

- probabilistic programming[vdMPYW18]: expressing probabilistic models as computer programs
- Bayesian optimization[SLA12]: (unknown) functions global optimization
- probabilistic data compression: compression based on Shannon's theory
- automatic statistician: discovering interpretable models from data
- hierarchical modelling: learning many related models, param of each model is sampled from the same distribution (prior), the final model is the integration of posterior distribution $P(Y|\theta) \leftarrow P(\theta|\mu) \leftarrow \cdots$, posterior $P(\theta,\mu,\cdots|Y)$

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Energy-based models (EBMs) 薛延波 (CSL) 概率类机器学习 2019 - 07 - 25

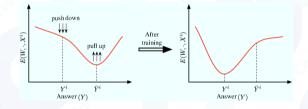
What are EBMs?

• Capture dependencies of variables by associating a scalar energy to each configuration [LeC06].

$$E(X, Y; \theta),$$

where X: input, Y: label, and θ : parameters.

- Overall goal:
- Desirable configurations have low energies.
- *Undesirable* configurations have high energies.



- Normalization is **not** a must.
- Latent variables H can be introduced to compose much powerful model. Energy function $E(X, Y, H; \theta)$.
 - More expressive power
 - Both inference and learning are hard

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What do EBMs do?

- Two tasks:
 - Inference: Clamp some variables (X), find configuration of remaining variables (Y) to minimize the energy.

$$Y^* = \arg\min_{Y \in \mathcal{Y}} E(X, Y; \theta)$$
 (5)

• Learning/Training: *Tune* the (parameters of) energy function to make sure the energies for *known* visibles are lower than *unknown* visibles.

$$\theta^* = \min_{\theta \in \theta} \mathcal{L}(E(X, Y; \theta)), \tag{6}$$

where $\mathcal{L}(E(X, Y; \theta))$ is a loss function parameterized by θ that measures the quality of the energy function.

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Applications of EBMs [LeC06]

- Prediction/Classification/Decision-making: find the Y that is most compatible with X, e.g., robot
- Ranking: rank all the Ys based on their compability with X, e.g. probabilistic search engine
- **Detection**: reduce the energy as Y becomes more and more compatible with X, e.g., face detection from video frames
- Conditional density estimation: generate conditional probability distribution over \mathcal{Y} given X, e.g., subsystem fed to another system
- Can you think of other applications?

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EBMs provide unified framework

- Non-probabilistic models: shaping the energy function so that the overall goal is satisfied
 - supported vector Markov model (SVMM) [ATH03]: energy function is a linear combination of feature function, i.e. $E(X, Y; \theta) = \theta f(X, Y)$
- Probabilistic models: regularizing energies to satisfy probability constraints (sum to one), i.e., satisfying the overall goal without violating the probability constraints.
 - Markov random fields (MRFs), conditional random fields (CRFs), Boltzmann machines (BMs), Energy-based generative adversarial networks (EBGANs) [JML16],

Components of EBMs

- **4 Architecture**: the form of energy function $E(\cdot)$
- **2 Inference algorithm**: brute force (low cardinality, easy), approximate inference (high cardinality, hard, estimating the partition function) \rightarrow Eqn. (5)
- **3** Loss function: the measure to assess the quality of energy function $\to \mathcal{L}(X, Y; \theta)$ for X and Y in training data.
- **Optimization method**: the ways to find the optimal solutions of Eqn. (6).
 - (sub)gradient-based methods: first-order derivative of objective function
 - Newton's method: second-order, mostly infeasible, Quasi-Newton method (BFGS)
 - will be covered in ML Best Practices

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Loss functions

- Energy loss: $E(X^i, Y^i; \theta)$ or MSE
 - simplest and straightforward
 - collapsed solutions on desired energies, other energies will be neglected
- Generalized perception loss: $E(X^i, Y^i; \theta) \min_{Y \in \mathcal{Y}} E(X^i, Y; \theta)$
 - push down desired energies, pull up undesired energies
 - not efficient in creating energy gaps \rightarrow flat energy landscape
 - lack of margin, may have stability problems
- Generalized margin loss: $Q(E(X^i, Y^i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), E(X^i, \bar{Y}^i; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$
 - hinge loss: $\max(.,.)$, log loss: $\log(1 + \exp(.,.))$
 - create energy gaps
 - tend to push $E(X^i, Y^i; \theta)$ and $E(X^i, \bar{Y}^i; \theta)$ as far as possible \leftarrow regularization as a rescue

 Y^i : correct label, \bar{Y}^i : incorrect label

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Loss functions (cont'd)

- Negative log-likelihood (NLL) loss: $-\log \prod_i p(Y^i|X^i;\theta)$
 - add probabilistic flavor to EBMs, apply maximum conditional probability principle
 - under Boltzmann distribution, NLL reduces to two parts: *clamped* model (push down energies) and *contrastive* model (pull up energies)
 - for zero temperature, NLL \rightarrow generalized perception loss, for binary \mathcal{Y} , NLL \rightarrow log loss.
 - known as multi-class cross-entropy loss in neural networks
 - very popular, used extensively
 - contrastive term not easy to calculate

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Probabilistic models as EBMs 薛延波 (CSL) 概率类机器学习 15/312019 - 07 - 25

Probabilistic models as special EBMs

- EBMs:
 - Energies are unitless
 - Hard to combine different models
- Normalize energy function into probability (sum to 1) \leftarrow a rich framework

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \forall (X,\,Y) & \in & \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \\ E(X,\,Y;\theta) & \to & p(X,\,Y;\theta), \\ \text{such that } p(X,\,Y;\theta) \geq 0 & \text{and} & \displaystyle \sum_{X,\,Y} p(X,\,Y;\theta) = 1 \end{array}$$

- Cons:
 - limited choices of energy functions
 - calculating contrastive term can be difficult

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Probabilistic graphical models (PGMs)

- Bayesian (belief) network: directed PGM. P(S, R, W) = P(S)P(R)P(W|S, R)
 - explaining away (directed graph with V-shaped structure $S \to W$ and $R \to W$): S and R are independent; once W is given, S and R became dependent, knowing one can "explain away" the other
 - deep belief nets have many "V structures"
- Markov network: undirected PGM. $P(S, R, W) \propto \pi_1(S, W)\pi_2(R, W)$ with $\pi_i(\cdot)$ to be potential on cliques.
 - normalization is intractable



(a) Bayesian Network



(b) Markov Network

Exercise:

- S: sprinkler on
- R: raining
- W: grass wet
- P(S) = 0.5, P(R) = 0.2

•
$$P(W|S,R) = 0.99$$

•
$$P(W|\bar{S},R) = 0.9$$

•
$$P(W|S, \bar{R}) = 0.9$$

•
$$P(W|\bar{S}, \bar{R}) = 0$$

•
$$P(S|W) = ?$$

• P(S|W,R) = ?

Explaining away: solution

$$P(S|W) = \frac{P(W|S)P(S)}{P(W)} \tag{7}$$

$$= \frac{(P(W|S,R)P(R) + P(W|S,\bar{R})P(\bar{R})) * P(S)}{P(W|S,R)P(S,R) + P(W|\bar{S},R)P(\bar{S},R) + P(W|S,\bar{R})P(S,\bar{R}) + P(W|\bar{S},\bar{R})P(\bar{S})P(\bar{R})}$$
(8)

$$= \frac{(0.99 * 0.2 + 0.9 * 0.8) * 0.5}{0.99 * 0.5 * 0.2 + 0.9 * 0.5 * 0.2 + 0.9 * 0.5 * 0.8 + 0} = 0.8361$$
(9)

$$P(S|W,R) = \frac{P(W,S,R)}{P(W,R)} = \frac{P(S)P(R)P(W|S,R)}{P(R)P(W|R)}$$
(10)

$$= \frac{P(S)P(W|S,R)}{P(W|R)} = \frac{P(S)P(W|S,R)}{P(W|S,R)P(S) + P(W|\bar{S},R)P(\bar{S})}$$
(11)

$$= \frac{0.5 * 0.99}{0.99 * 0.5 + 0.9 * (1 - 0.5)} = 0.5238$$
 (12)

P(R|W) = 0.3443, P(R|W, S) = 0.2157

Boltzmann distribution

• Within exponential family, one common way:

$$p(X, Y, \theta) = \frac{e^{-\beta E(X, Y; \theta)}}{\sum_{x, y} e^{-\beta E(x, y; \theta)}},$$
(13)

where $Z(\theta) = \sum_{x,y} e^{-\beta E(x,y;\theta)}$ is the partition function, with $\beta = 1/T_0$ being the inverse temperature.

The distribution is called Boltzmann/Gibbs distribution.

• Partition function can be intractable.



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Boltzmann Machines 薛延波 (CSL) 概率类机器学习 20/31 2019-07-25

Boltzmann machines

- Hopfield network [Hop82] :
 - recurrent neural network (undirected) with threshold units (deterministic):

$$s_i = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } b_i + \sum_j s_j w_{ij} \ge \theta_i, \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- Boltzmann machines (BMs) [DHS85]:
 - recurrent neural network with stochastic binary units:

$$p(s_i = 1) = \operatorname{sigm}(b_i + \sum_j s_j w_{ij}),$$

where $sigm(\cdot)$ is the sigmoid function.

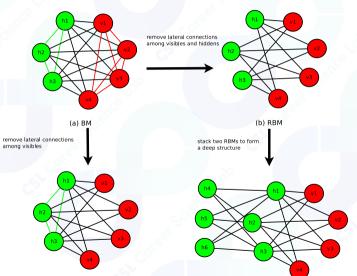
• Both have the same energy function:

$$E(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{s},$$

where \mathbf{b} is the bias vector and \mathbf{W} is the connection weight matrix (upper triangular).

• When temperature $T_0 = 0$, BMs become Hopfield networks.

A Family of Boltzmann Machines



Other distant relatives of BMs that we rarely visit:

- high-order BMs [Sej86]
- non-binary BMs (sigmoid \rightarrow softmax) [WRZH05].

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What's an RBM?

- Machine learning
 - find patterns or statistical regularities present in data
 - generative learning (vs. discriminative learning)
 - generative learning: learn joint distribution p(data, label)
 - discriminative learning: learn conditional distribution p(label|data)
- Energy function:

$$E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{h} + \mathbf{h}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{v}$$
 (14)

- v: visibles, h: hiddens, $\theta = \{b, c, W\}$: model parameters
- v and h follow a Boltzmann distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{Z}}_{\text{partition function}} \exp\{-E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})\}$$
(15)

• Learning RBM: *modifying* energy function so that training data *matches* the probability density defined by the energy function.

What's an RBM (cont'd)?

• Objective - minimize negative log-likelihood (NLL):

$$-\log p(\mathbf{v}) = \underbrace{-\log \sum_{\mathbf{h}} \exp\{-E(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h})\}}_{\text{Free Energy}} + \log Z$$
(16)

• Cost function: average NLL of the training data \mathcal{D} (L elements)

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D}) = -\frac{1}{L} \sum_{\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathcal{D}} \log p(\mathbf{v}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \tag{17}$$

• Optimal parameter of model:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})$$
 (18)

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Two phases:

- positive phase: given the training data, sample the hiddens \longrightarrow increase probability of training data.
- negative phase: both visibles and hiddens are sampled from the model \longrightarrow decrease probability of samples generated by the model.

What makes training (and evaluating) RBM hard?

- sampling in negative phase is hard.
- Given the trained parameter θ [LS10],
 - evaluating the probability of $p(\mathbf{v})$ is hard
 - generating an evaluatable representation of the true distribution $p(\mathbf{v})$ is also hard
- ullet better sampler \longrightarrow better training \longrightarrow better model
- QPU comes to the rescue



Conclusions

- EBMs use a scalar energy to represent variable dependencies
- Probabilistic models are special categories of EBMs, along with non-probabilistic models
- The components of EBMs include: architecture, inference algo., loss function, and optimization method
- Boltzmann machines are very popular probabilistic models
- Training of Boltzmann machines are hard due to contrastive term

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课程大纲

- 机器学习简介
- 机器学习的数学基础
- 线性模型(线性回归、感知机、支持向量机)
- 神经网络模型
- 前期总结和回顾
- 概率类机器学习(本节)
- 高级模型
- 工业实践

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