Project Proposal

Investigating Bayesian Inference in Continual Learning

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For real-world problems, it is vital that intelligent agents have the capacity to learn and remember a variety of tasks [Kirkpatrick et al., 2017]. Continual learning refers to online multi-task learning where tasks are learned sequentially, with datasets discarded after training. It is of particular importance for applications for which retaining old datasets is unethical, undesireable, illegal or imprudent [Farquhar & Gal, 2019, Farquhar & Gal, 2018].

The major problem in the field is that of catastrophic forgetting. New learning often causes neural networks to rapidly forget old learning [McCloskey & Cohen, 1989]. The challenge is to balance learning new tasks whilst remembering previous ones. Though promising results have been published in the field of continual learning, clear shortcomings have been identified in many of the current approaches and evaluations, such as a dependency on re-training on previous datasets or tasks [Farquhar & Gal, 2018].

The most recent advances in continual learning have favoured a prior-focused approach, such as variational continual learning [Nguyen et al., 2017], elastic weight consolidation [Kirkpatrick et al., 2017], synaptic intelligence [Zenke et al., 2017], Riemannian walk [Chaudhry et al., 2018] and Kronecker factored online Laplace approximation [Ritter et al., 2018]. These prior-focused approaches use the posterior or other parameters from previous tasks as priors for new tasks. Likelihood-based approaches, such as Deep Generative Replay [Shin et al., 2017], are based on pseudo-rehearsal [Robins, 1995], simulating previous datasets in order to estimate their log-likelihood according to the new model. There have also been approaches based on dynamic architectures.

Variational Continual Learning

Further investigation into the variational continual learning (VCL) approach [Nguyen et al., 2017] is warranted. At the moment, VCL's good performance is dependent on re-training on small coresets retained from previous datasets [Farquhar & Gal, 2018], but improvements to the approach may eliminate the need for these coresets, which cannot be assumed to be available for all continual learning applications.

VCL demonstrates a prior-focused Bayesian approach to continual learning, where the posterior for the previous tasks is used as the prior when training on the new task dataset. This is a correct and intuitive way of allowing the previous tasks to strongly influence prediction, whilst allowing the parameters to adapt to the new task.

$$\underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t})}_{\text{new posterior}} \propto \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t-1})}_{\substack{\text{previous posterior} \\ \text{(new prior)}}} \underbrace{p(\mathcal{D}_t|\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\text{likelihood}} \tag{1}$$

However, the true posterior $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t})$ is computationally intractable, so we must approximate it. Improvements to this approximation must be key to performance, since this approach is optimal with exact Bayesian inference.

The posterior approximation in VCL employs mean-field variational inference (VI). Variational inference aims to minimise the Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence over a model family of possible posteriors $\mathcal{Q}$ in order to yield a tractable normalised approximation $q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ to the true posterior $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t})$. We define $q_0(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ to be the prior, $p(\boldsymbol{\theta})$.

$$\underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t})}_{\substack{\text{new true} \\ \text{posterior}}} \approx \underbrace{q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\substack{\text{new posterior} \\ \text{approximation}}} = \underset{q \in \mathcal{Q}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \operatorname{KL}\left(q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \,||\, \frac{1}{Z_t} \underbrace{q_{t-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\substack{\text{previous posterior} \\ \text{approximation}}} \overbrace{p(\mathcal{D}_t|\boldsymbol{\theta})}^{\text{likelihood}} \right) \tag{2}$$

In VI, this minimisation is typically done via a maximisation of the evidence lower bound (ELBO).

$$\operatorname{ELBO} = \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{N_t} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \sim q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta})}\left[\log p(y_t^{(n)} \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}_t^{(n)}) \right]}_{\text{expected log-likelihood}} - \operatorname{KL}\left(q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \,||\, q_{t-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\right) \tag{3}$$

Crucially, this is exact Bayesian inference, $q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}_{1:t}) \;\forall t$, if two criteria are met at every step:

1. The true posterior is a member of the model family $\mathcal{Q}$.

2. The optimisation achieves the maximum ELBO.

Since the posterior approximation occurs after every task is learned, improving this approximation is important to prevent error propagation across different tasks. We therefore suggest that investigation into improvements to these two criteria should be the aims of the project.

Aims of the project

An investigation into an improvement to the first criterion is the most promising, as it is likely that the model family used in VCL is not sufficient to approximate the posterior well. The primary aim of the project is therefore to see if using a more adaptable model family results in better performance:

1. **Using full covariance Gaussian distributions for the model family $\mathcal{Q}$.**

   VCL uses a Gaussian mean-field approximate posterior, with diagonal covariance:

   $$q_t(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{d=1}^{D} \mathcal{N}(\theta_{t,d}; \mu_{t,d}, \sigma_{t,d}^2)$$

   We expect that a full covariance Gaussian distribution will be able to approximate the posterior more accurately by including off-diagonal correlation elements in the covariance matrix, which can be significant. Simple diagonal covariance Gaussian distributions approximate the posterior too conservatively, placing no probability mass where the posterior is small [MacKay, 1995]. The minimum KL fit obtained with the full covariance model family should therefore be better than that obtained with the diagonal covariance model family.
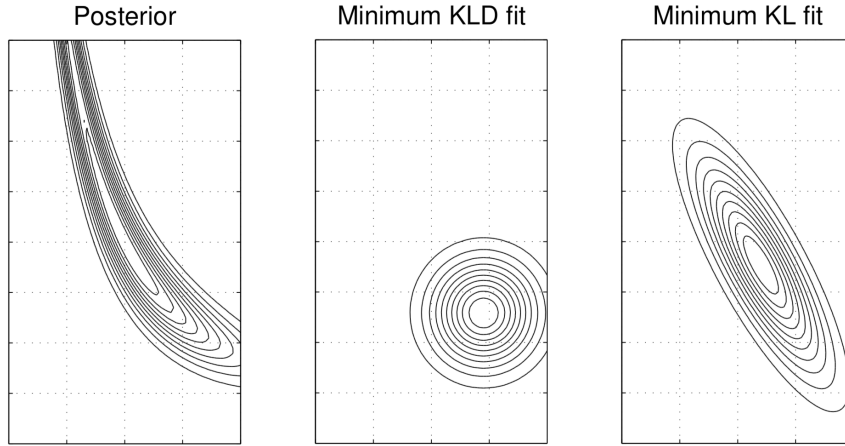

Figure 1: Comparison of posterior distribution approximations on a synthetic example with two parameters. A full covariance Gaussian distribution (KL) results in a much improved approximation to the posterior than the diagonal covariance Gaussian distribution (KLD), with a lower residual KL value and better KL fit. 'More flexible distributions [. . .] simply give better approximations to the true posterior'. [Barber & Bishop, 1998]

   A tractable algorithm for posterior approximation with a full covariance Gaussian distribution has been demonstrated [Barber & Bishop, 1998].

An investigation into an improvement to the second criterion may also be promising. Approximate Bayesian inference is typically carried out with either VI or Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). The secondary aim of the project is therefore to see if using MCMC results in better performance:

2. **Using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo method for posterior approximation.**

   Using a Monte Carlo method to sample from the posterior distribution gets close to exact Bayesian inference in practice, and is advantageous in that it does not impose as many assumptions about the shape of the posterior distribution [Hinton & van Camp, 1993].

   We expect that Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) is a promising MCMC method to use for approximate inference. HMC is a principled Hamiltonian dynamics-based MCMC method which has been applied successfully to Bayesian neural networks [Neal, 1995]. It systematically and coherently traverses the state space, avoiding the slow exploration typical of random walk proposals [Neal, 2012]. This is particularly useful in high-dimensional spaces, where we must use information about the space geometry for an efficient exploration. Gradient-based algorithms such as HMC tend to be more robust and geometrically ergodic over a larger class of target distributions than non-gradient based algorithms, yielding 'stronger guarantees on the validity of the resulting estimators' [Betancourt, 2017].

Approximate Timeline

March	Review literature
April	Review literature; write project proposal
May	Review literature; use non-continual BNN to compare diagonal and full model families
June	Begin continual learning comparison implementation
July	Continue with continual learning comparison and begin MCMC implementation
August	Continue with MCMC implementation; finish writing up results
September 2	Hand-in date

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