Variational Bayes for latent variable models

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STAT 740 Guest Lecture, Fall 2022

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Some housekeeping

- We'll focus mainly on latent variable models
- Variational Bayes (VB) often term them local variables.
- Parameters are global variables
- The intuition (usually) is that the number of local variables grow with the data, while global variables have fixed dimension
- General notation:

y, x := observations/covariates s := hidden/latent variables $\theta := parameters$ $z := (s, \theta)$ $p(\cdot) := prior/likelihood/posterior$ $q(\cdot) := variational posterior$

- MCMC used when you don't have a closed form for the posterior, but can sample from it¹
- Idea: Get samples to approximately reconstruct the exact posterior.
- Pros: Uncertainty, theoretical guarantees. Cons: s l o w
- What if we consider an approximate posterior in a 'nice' family that we can work with analytically?
- Might be good enough if all we care are about point estimates (posterior means, in particular)

¹https://www4.stat.ncsu.edu/~bjreich/ST740/MixNormal.html

Example: Gaussian mixture model

$$p(y_i|s_i, \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} c_j \cdot \text{Normal}(y_i|\mu_j, \sigma^2), i = 1:n$$

$$p(s_i|c_{1:K}) = \text{Categorical}(s_i|c_1, \dots, c_K)$$

$$p(\mu_j) = \text{Normal}(\mu_j|m_j, \tau^2)$$

$$p(c_{1:K}) = \text{Dirichlet}(c_1, \dots, c_K|\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K)$$

- Global variables: $\theta = (\mu_{1:K}, c_{1:K})$ tend to usually be of fixed dimension
- Local variables: *S_i* control the cluster assignments, dimension grows with size of data

The posterior is:

$$p(\mu, s, c|y) = \frac{p(c_{1:K}) \prod_{j=1}^{K} p(\mu_j) \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(s_i) p(y_i|s_i, \theta)}{\int_{\mu_{1:K}} \sum_{Z_{1:n}} p(c_{1:K}) \prod_{j=1}^{K} p(\mu_j) \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(s_i) p(y_i|s_i, \theta)}$$

Example: Hidden Markov model



- $p(y_t|s_{tj}, \theta) = \text{Categorical}(y_t|c_{j1}, \dots, c_{jM})$, where $s_{tj} = \mathbb{I}(S_t = j)$
- $S_{1:T}$ is a Markov chain parameterized by $\pi_1 = Pr[s_1 = j]$, and $A := ((a_{jk}))$, where $a_{jk} = Pr[s_{t+1} = k|s_t = j]$, j, k = 1 : K

•
$$p(C) = \prod_{j=1}^{K} \text{Dirichlet}(c_{j,1:M}|\zeta_1,\ldots,\zeta_M)$$

- $p(A) = \prod_{j=1}^{K} \text{Dirichlet}(a_{j,1:K} | \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K)$
- Global variables $\theta = (C, A)$, local variables $S_{1:T}$

Example: Text prediction. MCMC for HMMs is non-trivial at best and prohibitive for many real cases.

Linear regression

- Global variables (θ_j, σ^2)
- $p(\theta_j) = \text{Normal}(\theta_j | \mu_j, \tau^2)$

Logistic regression

- Global variable θ_j
- $p(\theta_j) = \text{Normal}(\theta_j | \mu_j, \tau^2)$

Bayesian neural networks aren't necessarily latent variable models, they're just plain intractable.

VB as optimization



Aim : Approximate the exact posterior $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y})$

- 1. Posit a family of approximate distributions ${\ensuremath{\mathbb Q}}$ with its own variational parameters
- 2. Optimize over this family to find the parameter settings which minimize the KL divergence from the exact posterior

$$q(\tilde{\mathbf{z}}) = \arg\min_{q(\mathbf{z}|\nu) \in \mathbb{Q}} KL(q(\mathbf{z}|\nu) \parallel p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}))$$

 Minimizing KL-divergence ↔ maximizing evidence lower bound (ELBO)

$$ELBO(q) = \mathbb{E}[\log p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})] - \mathbb{E}[\log q(\mathbf{z})]$$

- Analysis often restricted to a mean-field variational family $\mathbb{Q},$ where the latent variables and the parameters are all mutually independent

$$q(\mathbf{z})\approx\prod_i q_i(z_i)$$

Each latent component *z_i* has its own variational marginal posterior, with free parameters/variational parameters that are optimized

More on the ELBO

$$\log p(y) = \log \int_{z} p(y, z)$$

= $\log \int_{z} q(z) \frac{p(y, z)}{q(z)}$
= $\log \mathbb{E}_{q} \left[\frac{p(y, z)}{q(z)} \right]$
 $\geq \mathbb{E}_{q}[\log p(y, z)] - \mathbb{E}_{q}[\log q(z)]$

- How did that last inequality happen?
- Other divergence metrics are also possible
- Using KL breaks this optimization problem into nice, manageable chunks

One last assumption before we we get to the optimization bit.

• At the very least, it assumes that the variational posteriors for the local and global variables are independent, i.e.

 $q(\theta, s) \approx q_{\theta}(\theta)q_{s}(s)$

• Typically, the more you factorize, the simpler the optimization becomes, e.g. for the GMM example,

$$q(\mu, \mathsf{S}, \mathsf{C}) \approx q(\mu_{1:K})q(\mathsf{S}_{1:K})q(\mathsf{C}_{1:K})$$

• The optimization is straightforward if things are in the conjugate-exponential family

Most classical VB approaches lean on this². Given that, **Condition 1**: The complete data likelihood is in the exponential family:

$$p(y, s|\theta) = f(y, s)g(\theta) \exp\{\phi(\theta)^T u(y, s)\}$$

Condition 2: The parameter prior is conjugate to the complete data likelihood:

$$p(\theta|\nu,\eta) = h(\nu,\eta)g(\theta)^{\eta} \exp\{\phi(\theta)^{\mathsf{T}}\nu\}$$

Note: $\phi(\theta)$ is the vector of natural parameters, η, ν are hyperparameters of the prior.

²https://papers.nips.cc/paper/2000/file/ 77369e37b2aa1404f416275183ab055f-Paper.pdf

Theorem (1)

Given an iid data set $y = (y_1, ..., y_n)$, if the model satisfies the stated conditions, then at the minima of KL(q||p),

• $q_{\theta}(\theta)$ is conjugate and of the form:

 $q_{\theta}(\theta) = h(\tilde{\eta}, \tilde{\nu})g(\theta)^{\tilde{\eta}} \exp\{\phi(\theta)^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{\nu}\},\$

where $\tilde{\eta} = \eta + n$, $\tilde{\nu} = \nu + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{u}(y_i)$, and $\bar{u}(y_i) = \mathbb{E}_q u(y_i, s_i)$.

• $q_s(s) = \prod_{i=1}^n q_{s_i}(s_i)$ and $q_{s_i}(s_i)$ is of the same form as the known parameter posterior:

 $q_{s_i}(s_i) \propto f(y_i, s_i) \exp\{\bar{\phi}(\theta)^T u(y_i, s_i)\} = p(s_i | y_i, \bar{\phi}(\theta)),$

where $\bar{\phi}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_q(\theta)$.

- **VE Step**: Compute the expected sufficient statistics $t(y) = \sum_{i} \bar{u}(y_i)$ under the hidden variable distributions $q_{s_i}(s_i)$.
- VM Step: Compute the expected natural parameters $\bar{\phi}(\theta)$ under the parameter distribution given by $\tilde{\eta}$ and $\tilde{\nu}$

Connection with Gibbs sampling: It's easy to show that a valid alternative expression for $q_{\theta_i}(\theta_i)$ is

$$q_{\theta_i}(\theta_i) \propto \exp\{\mathbb{E}_{-\theta_i} \log p(\theta_i | \theta_{-i}, y, s),\}$$

viz, the full conditionals. A similar optimal density form can be see for $q_{s_i}(s_i)$ too. In situations where Gibbs sampling is viable, analytical VB posteriors are available under conjugacy.

Coordinate ascent VB

What would the VBEM algorithm look like for the GMM?

• VBM step:

$$q_{\mu_i}(\mu_i) \propto \exp\{\mathbb{E}_{-\mu_i} \log p(\mu_i|\cdot)\}$$
(1)

$$q_{c_i}(c_i) \propto \exp\{\mathbb{E}_{-c_i} \log p(c_i|\cdot)\}$$
(2)

• VBE step:

$$q_{s_i}(s_i) \propto \exp\{\mathbb{E}_{-s_i} \log p(s_i|\cdot)\}$$
(3)

ELBO guaranteed to increase at every step, and like the EM, will converge to a local maximum.

Questions:

- 1. Why is it called coordinate ascent?
- 2. What's the connection between this and the theorem before?
- 3. How does this lead to a stochastic implementation?

The Gaussian mixture model

Likelihood:

$$p(y_i|s_i, \theta) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} c_j \cdot \text{Normal}(y_i|\mu_j, \sigma^2), i = 1:n$$
$$p(s_i|c_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{K} c_j^{\mathbb{I}(s_i=j)}$$

Priors:

$$p(\mu_j) = \text{Normal}(m_j, \tau^2)$$
$$p(c_{1:K}) = \text{Dirichlet}(c_1..., c_K | \alpha_1..., \alpha_K)$$

Variational posteriors:

$$q(\mu_j) = \text{Normal}(\tilde{m}_j, \tilde{\tau}^2)$$
$$q(c_{1:K}) = \text{Dirichlet}(c_1..., c_K | \tilde{\alpha}_1..., \tilde{\alpha}_K)$$

The Gaussian mixture model



Source: Blei *et al.* Variational inference: a review for statisticians. 2017. Code examples (RStudio/RPubs): Linear regression, probit regression, GMM.

What do we actually get out of this?



Source: Blei et al. Variational inference: a review for statisticians. 2017.

- Posterior means the full variational posterior is not always a good representation of the true posterior
- (Approximate) predictive distribution, posterior covariances³
- The more we relax the mean field assumption, the better the approximation gets, with increasing computational cost

³Giordano et al. Covariances, Robustness, and Variational Bayes. 2018.

Related reading and extensions

- M.I. Jordan, Z. Ghahramani, T.S. Jaakkola, and L.K. Saul. An Introduction to Variational Methods for Graphical Models. 1999.
- D. M. Blei, A. Kucukelbir, and J. D. McAuliffe. Variational inference: A review for statisticians. 2017.
- M. D. Hoffman, D. M. Blei, C. Wang, and J. Paisley. **Stochastic** variational inference. 2013.
- R. Ranganath, S. Gerrish, and D. M. Blei. Black Box Variational Inference. 2013.
- Y. Yang, D. Pati, and A. Bhattacharya. *α*-variational inference with statistical guarantees. 2017.
- Y. Gal and Z. Ghahramani. Dropout as a Bayesian Approximation: Representing Model Uncertainty in Deep Learning. 2015.

Dropout as a Bayesian approximation

- Bayesian NNs can get intractable very easily
- Using dropout in your NN architecture is equivalent to a variational approximation
- Implementation is pretty straightforward. But first some basics.



Figure 1: Dropout Neural Net Model. Left: A standard neural net with 2 hidden layers. Right: An example of a thinned net produced by applying dropout to the network on the left. Crossed units have been dropped.

Source: Srivastava *et al.* Dropout: a simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting. 2014.

- How is dropout actually implemented in NNs?
 - Sample iid Bernoulli(p_i) variables for every input point in layer i
 - A unit is dropped if the Bernoulli variable takes value 0
- The dropout objective minimizes KL divergence between an approximate distribution and the posterior of a deep Gaussian process
- Predictive distribution moments:
 - Perform T stochastic forward passes through the network
 - Average the results that's the first moment (and so on).