Inference via Sampling (Contd), and Gradient-based and Online MCMC

Piyush Rai

Topics in Probabilistic Modeling and Inference (CS698X)

March 6, 2019



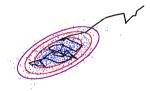
Prob. Modeling & Inference - CS698X (Piyush Rai, IITK)

Recap: Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

• MCMC generates a sequence of "samples" $z^{(1)}, z^{(2)}, \ldots, z^{(L)}$ based on a first-order Markov Chain

$$m{z}^{(\ell+1)} \sim q(m{z}|m{z}^{(\ell)})$$

- The proposal distribution $q(z|z^{(\ell)})$ is also known as transition function (or transition kernel)
- MCMC basically does a random walk that (eventually) converges to the target distribution p(z)



• The generated samples give a sample based approximation of p(z)



Recap: The MH Sampling Algorithm

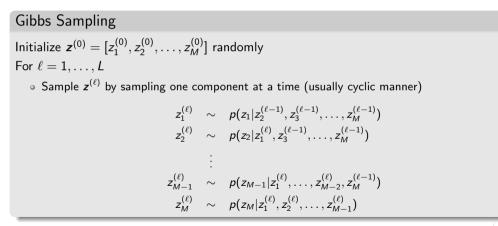
Goal: Generate samples from a probability distribution $p(z) = \frac{\tilde{p}(z)}{Z_p}$

The MH Sampling Algorithm Initialize $z^{(0)}$ randomly For $\ell = 0, ..., L - 1$ • Sample $z^* \sim q(z|z^{(\ell)})$ and $u \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ • Compute the acceptance probability $A(z^*, z^{(\ell)}) = \min\left(1, \frac{\tilde{p}(z^*)q(z^{(\ell)}|z^*)}{\tilde{p}(z^{(\ell)})q(z^*|z^{(\ell)})}\right)$ • If $u < A(z^*, z^{(\ell)})$ then set $z^{(\ell+1)} = z^*$ else $z^{(\ell+1)} = z^{(\ell)}$

Note: Computing acceptance prob. can be expensive in general, e.g., for posterior inference in which case $\tilde{p}(z)$ represents an unnormalized posterior p(X|Z)p(Z), which is product of likelihood and prior

Recap: Gibbs Sampling

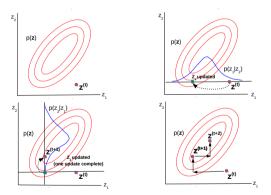
- An instance of MH sampling where the acceptance probability = 1
- Based on sampling z one "component" at a time with proposal = conditional distribution



• Very easy to derive if the conditional distributions are easy to obtain

Gibbs Sampling: A Simple Example

Can sample from a 2-D Gaussian using 1-D Gaussians (recall that if the joint distribution is a 2-D Gaussian, conditionals will simply be 1-D Gaussians)



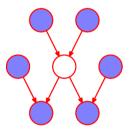
Note that Gibbs updates are like co-ordinate ascent



Deriving A Gibbs Sampler: The General Recipe

- Suppose our target distribution is a posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X})$ where $\mathbf{Z} = [\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_M]$
- Gibbs sampling requires the conditional posteriors $p(\boldsymbol{z}_m | \boldsymbol{\mathsf{Z}}_{-m}, \boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}})$ for $m = 1, \dots, M$
- In general, $p(\boldsymbol{z}_m|\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Z}}_{-m},\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{z}_m)p(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}|\boldsymbol{z}_m,\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Z}}_{-m})$ where $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{Z}}_{-m}$ is "known"
- If $p(\mathbf{z}_m)$ and $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{z}_m, \mathbf{Z}_{-m})$ are conjugate then the CP is straightforward
- Another way to get each CP $p(z_m | \mathbf{Z}_{-m}, \mathbf{X})$ is by following this
 - Write down the expression of p(X, Z)
 - Terms that contain z_m represent the CP of z_m (up to proportionality constant)
 - Note: Sometimes it's easier to look at the log of everything (like we did while deriving mean-field VI)
- Also remember: In $p(z_m | \mathbf{Z}_{-m}, \mathbf{X})$, we only need to condition on terms in Markov Blanket of z_m
- Markov Blanket of a variable: Its parents, children, and other parents of its children

• Markov Blanket of a variable: Its parents, children, and other parents of its children



• Very helpful in quickly seeing what to condition on when deriving CPs in complex models

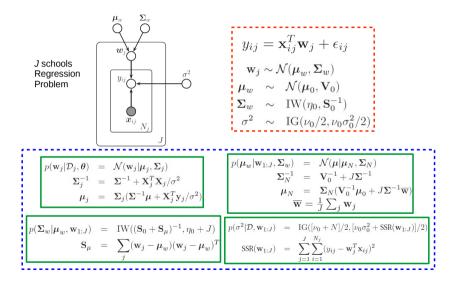


Gibbs Sampling: A Not-So-Simple Example

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \mbox{Gaussian} \\ \mbox{Mixture} \\ \mbox{Model} \end{array} \\ \hline p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \mu, \Sigma, \pi) &= p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}, \mu, \Sigma) p(\mathbf{z} | \pi) p(\pi) \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(\mu_k) p(\Sigma_k) \\ &= \left(\prod_{i=1}^{N} \prod_{k=1}^{K} (\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \mu_k, \Sigma_k))^{\mathbb{I}(z_i = k)} \right) \times \\ \hline \mathbf{D}ir(\pi | \alpha) \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mathcal{N}(\mu_k | \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{V}_0) IW(\Sigma_k | \mathbf{S}_0, \nu_0) \end{array} \\ \hline p(z_i = k | \mathbf{x}_i, \mu, \Sigma, \pi) & \propto \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \end{array} \\ \hline p(\pi | \mathbf{z}) &= Dir(\{\alpha_k + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k)\}_{k=1}^{K}) \\ \hline p(\mu_k | \Sigma_k, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mu_k | \mathbf{m}_k, \mathbf{V}_k) \\ \mathbf{V}_k^{-1} &= \mathbf{V}_0^{-1} + N_k \Sigma_k^{-1} \\ \hline \mathbf{m}_k &= \mathbf{V}_k (\Sigma_k^{-1} N_k \overline{\mathbf{x}}_k + \mathbf{V}_0^{-1} \mathbf{m}_0) \\ N_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &\triangleq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_i = k) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \hline \mathbf{x}_k &= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{I$$

Prob. Modeling & Inference - CS698X (Piyush Rai, IITK)

Gibbs Sampling: Another Not-So-Simple Example



Gibbs Sampling: Some Comments

- One of the most popular MCMC algorithm
- Very easy to derive and implement for locally conjugate models
- Many variations exist, e.g.,
 - Blocked Gibbs: sample multiple variables jointly (sometimes possible)
 - Rao-Blackwellized Gibbs: Can collapse (i.e., integrate out) the unneeded variables while sampling. Also called "collapsed" Gibbs sampling (note: collapsing is a more general idea, can also be used in other inference algorithms such as VI)
 - MH within Gibbs
- Instead of sampling from the conditionals, an alternative is to use the mode of the conditional.
 - Called the "Iterative Conditional Mode" (ICM) algorithm (doesn't give the posterior though)

Sampling Methods: Label Switching Issue

- A subtle but important issue
- Suppose we are given samples $Z^{(1)}, \ldots, Z^{(S)}$ from the posterior p(Z|X)
- $\,\circ\,$ We can't always simply "average" them to get the "posterior mean" $\,\bar{Z}\,$
- Reason: Non-identifiability of latent variables in models that have multiple posterior modes
- Example: In a clustering model (e.g., GMM), the likelihood is invariant to how we label clusters
 - What we call cluster 1 in one sample may be cluster 2 in the next sample
- Therefore averaging latent variables across samples can be meaningless
- Quantities not affected by permutations of latent variables can be safely averaged
 - E.g., probability that two points belong to the same cluster (e.g., in GMM)
 - Predicting the mean/variance of a missing entry r_{ij} in matrix factorization

MCMC: Some Other Aspects

• Choice of proposal distribution is important

• For MH sampling, Gaussian proposal is popular when z is continuous, e.g.,

$$q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(\ell)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\ell-1)}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\ell-1)},\boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}})$$

where ${\boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}}$ is the Hessian at the MAP of the target distribution

• More sophisticated proposals: Mixture of proposal distributions, data-driven or adaptive proposals

• Autocorrelation. Can show that when approximating $f^* = \mathbb{E}[f]$ using S samples $\{z^{(s)}\}_{s=1}^{S}$

$$\operatorname{var}_{MCMC}[ar{f}] = \operatorname{var}_{MC}[ar{f}] + rac{1}{S^2} \sum_{s
eq t} \mathbb{E}[(f_s - f^*)(f_t - f^*)], \quad \text{Effective Sample Size (ESS)} = rac{\operatorname{var}_{MC}[f]}{\operatorname{var}_{MCMC}[f]}$$

• In above, f_s is value of f computed using the s^t MCMC sample $z^{(s)}$. Assume $\overline{f} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{s=1}^{5} f_s$

• Autocorrelation function (ACF) at lag t is define as $\rho_t = \frac{\frac{1}{S-t}\sum_{s=1}^{S-t}(f_s-\bar{f})(f_{s+t}-\bar{f})}{\frac{1}{S-1}\sum_{s=1}^{S}(f_s-\bar{f})^2}$. Lower is better!

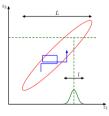
• Multiple Chains: Run multiple chains, take union of generated samples (ignoring burn-in samples)

MCMC and Random Walk

• MCMC methods use a proposal distribution to draw the next sample given the previous sample

$$\theta^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^{(t-1)}, \sigma^2)$$

- .. and then we accept/reject (if doing MH) or always accept (if doing Gibbs sampling)
- Such proposal distributions typically lead to a random-walk behavior (e.g., a zig-zag trajectory in Gibbs sampling) and may lead to very slow convergence (pic below: $\theta = [z_1, z_2]$)



- ${\, \bullet \,}$ Can be especially critical when the components of θ are highly correlated
- Using gradient info of the posterior can be helpful in avoiding the random walk (more in next class)

Using Gradient Info via Langevin Dynamics

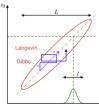
• Constructs proposal distribution using gradient of the log-posterior

• Gradient of the log-posterior: $\nabla_{\theta} \log \frac{p(\theta, D)}{p(D)} = \nabla_{\theta} \log \frac{p(D|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(D)} = \nabla_{\theta} [\log p(D|\theta) + \log p(\theta)]$

Now let's construct a proposal and generate a random sample as follows

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta^* & = & \theta^{(t-1)} + \frac{\eta}{2} \nabla_{\theta} [\log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) + \log p(\theta)] \big|_{\theta^{(t-1)}} \\ \theta^{(t)} & \sim & \mathcal{N}(\theta^*, \eta) & (\text{and then accept/reject using an MH step} \end{array}$$

• This method is called Langevin dynamics (Neal, 2010). Has its origins in statistical Physics. (Move proposal's mean towards posterior's mode)



Langevin Dynamics (Contd)

 ${\ensuremath{\, \bullet }}$ Note that the updates of θ can also be written in the form

$$\theta^{(t)} = \theta^{(t-1)} + \frac{\eta}{2} \nabla_{\theta} [\log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) + \log p(\theta)] \big|_{\theta^{(t-1)}} + \epsilon_t \quad \text{where} \quad \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \eta)$$

 ${\ {\circ}\ }$ After this update, we accept/reject $\theta^{(t)}$ using MH test

• Equivalent to gradient-based MAP estimation with added noise (plus the accept/reject step)

- The random noise ensures that we aren't stuck just on the MAP estimate but explore the posterior
- Almost as efficient computationally as standard gradient ascent/descent based MAP estimation
- A few technical conditions (Welling and Teh, 2011)
 - The noise variance needs to be controlled (here, we are setting it to twice the learning rate)
 - $\circ~$ As $\eta \rightarrow$ 0, the acceptance probability approaches 1 and we can always accept
- Note that the procedure is almost as fast as MAP estimation!

Stochastic Gradient (Online) Langevin Dynamics

- Allows scaling up MCMC algorithms by processing data in small minibatches
- Stocahstic Gradient Langevin Dynamics (SGLD) is one such example
- Basically an online extension of the Langevin Dynamics method we saw earlier
- Given minibatch $D_t = \{ \mathbf{x}_{t1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{tN_t} \}$. Then the (stochastic) Langevin dynamics update is

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta^* & = & \theta^{(t-1)} + \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} \left[\frac{N}{|\mathcal{D}_t|} \sum_{n=1}^{N_t} \log p(\mathbf{x}_{tn}|\theta) + \log p(\theta) \right], \\ \theta^{(t)} & \sim & \mathcal{N}(\theta^*, \sigma^2) \quad \text{then } \operatorname{accept/reject} \end{array}$$

 $\, \bullet \,$ Basically, instead of doing gradient descent, SGLD does stochastic gradient descent + MH

• Valid under some technical conditions on learning rate η_t , noise variance σ^2 , etc.

 Recent flurry of work on this topic (see "Bayesian Learning via Stochastic Gradient Langevin Dynamics" by Welling and Teh (2011) and follow-up works)

SGLD: Some Comments

• Very easy to implement (only need to compute gradients of log-lik and log-prior)

• If not doing accept/reject, we just need to do the following for each minibatch of data

$$\theta^{(t)} = \theta^{(t-1)} + \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} \left[\frac{N}{|\mathcal{D}_t|} \sum_{n=1}^{N_t} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{tn}|\theta) + \log p(\theta) \right] + \epsilon_t$$

• It's just like SGD updates (+added Gaussian noise). Highly scalable even when N is very large

Almost as efficient as doing MAP estimation using stochastic gradient methods

- Applies to non-conjugate models easily (so long as we can take derivatives)
- Several improvements on SGLD in the past couple of years
 - Better choice of learning rate and pre-conditioners for improving convergence
 - Extending to the case when θ has some constraints (e.g., a point on simplex)
 - Theoretical analysis and justification for the "correctness" of the procedure