Sampling (wrap-up)

CS772A: Probabilistic Machine Learning

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Plan Today

- Wrapping up sampling methods and posterior approximation
  - Hamiltonian Monte Carlo
  - Some other methods for posterior approximation for Bayesian neural nets
  - Parallel/Distributed MCMC

Hamiltonian/Hybrid Monte Carlo (HMC)

- HMC (Neal, 1996) is an "auxiliary variable sampler" and incorporates gradient info
- Uses the idea of simulating a Hamiltonian Dynamics of a physical system
- Consider the target posterior $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \propto \exp(-U(\theta))$
- Think of θ as "position" then $U(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)p(\theta)$ is like "potential energy"
- Let's introduce an auxiliary variable - the momentum $\boldsymbol{r}$ of the system
- Can now define a joint distribution over the position and momentum as

$$p(\theta, \boldsymbol{r}|\mathcal{D}) \propto \exp\left(-U(\theta) - \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{r}^\top M^{-1}\boldsymbol{r}\right) \propto p(\theta|\mathcal{D})p(\boldsymbol{r})$$

- The total energy (potential + kinetic) or the Hamiltonian of the system

Constant w.r.t. time

$$H(\theta, \boldsymbol{r}) = U(\theta) - \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{r}^\top M^{-1}\boldsymbol{r} = U(\theta) + K(\boldsymbol{r})$$

- Given a sample $(\theta, \boldsymbol{r})$ from $p(\theta, \boldsymbol{r})$, ignoring $\boldsymbol{r}$, θ will be a sample from $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$

Generating Samples in HMC

- Given an initial $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{r})$, Hamiltonian Dynamics defines how $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{r})$ changes w.r.t. time t

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{r}} = \frac{\partial K}{\partial \boldsymbol{r}}$$
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{r}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \theta}$$

$$\left(H(\theta, \boldsymbol{r}) = U(\theta) + \tfrac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{r}^\top M^{-1}\boldsymbol{r} = U(\theta) + K(\boldsymbol{r}) \right)$$

- We can use these equations to update $(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{r}) \rightarrow (\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \boldsymbol{r}^*)$ by discretizing time

Reason: Getting analytical solutions for the above requires integrals which is in general intractable

- For $s = 1{:}S$, sample as follows
  - Initialize $\theta_0 = \theta^{(s-1)}$, $\boldsymbol{r}_* \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{I})$ and $\boldsymbol{r}_0 = \boldsymbol{r}_* - \frac{\rho}{2}\frac{\partial U}{\partial \theta}|_{\theta_0}$
  - Do L "leapfrog" steps with learning rates $\rho_\ell = \rho$ for $\ell < L$ and $\rho_L = \rho/2$
    - For $\ell = 1{:}L$

$$\theta_\ell = \theta_{\ell-1} + \rho \frac{\partial K}{\partial \boldsymbol{r}}|_{\boldsymbol{r}_{\ell-1}}$$
$$\boldsymbol{r}_\ell = \boldsymbol{r}_{\ell-1} - \rho_\ell \frac{\partial U}{\partial \theta}|_{\theta_\ell}$$

L usually set to 5 and learning rate tuned to make acceptance rate around 90%

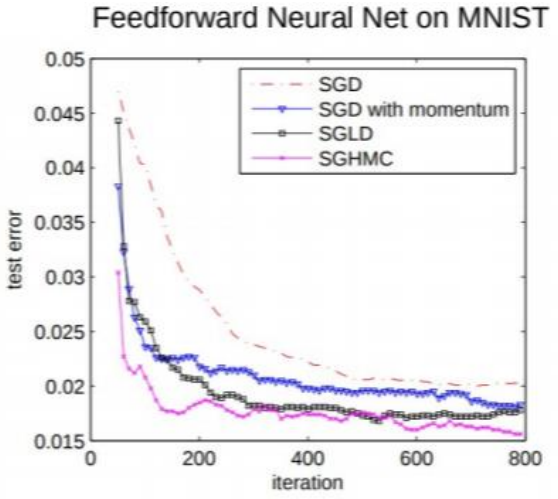
  - Perform MH accept/reject test on $(\boldsymbol{\theta}_L, \boldsymbol{r}_L)$. If accepted $\theta^{(s)} = \theta_L$

A single sample generated by taking L steps

- The momentum forces exploring different regions instead of getting driven to regions where the MAP solution is

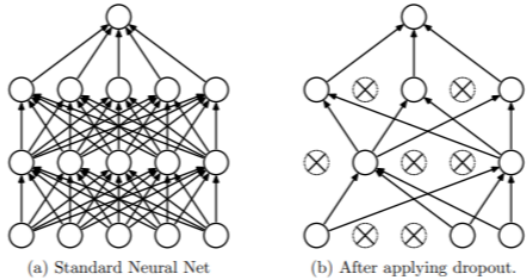
HMC in Practice

- HMC typically has very low rejection rate (that too, primarily due to discretization error)
- Performance can be sensitive to L (no. of leapfrog steps) and step-sizes, tuning hard
- A lot of renewed interest in HMC (you may check out NUTS - No U-turn Sampler – doesn't require setting L)
  - Prob. Prog. packages e.g., Tensorflow Prob., Stan, etc, contain implementations of HMC
- Can also do HMC on minibatches (Stochastic Gradient HMC - Chen et al, 2014)
- An illustration: SGHMC vs other methods on MNIST classification (Bayesian neural net)



(Figure: Stochastic Gradient Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (Chen et al, 2014))

Efficient Posterior approx. for Bayesian Neural Nets



- Monte Carlo Dropout is another popular and efficient way
- Standard Dropout
  - Drop some weights randomly (with some "drop" probability) during training
  - At test time, multiply each weight by the "keep" probability
  - Note: Dropout applied only at training time
- Monte Carlo Dropout* (dropout also at test time)

$$p(y_*|x_*, \mathcal{D}) \approx \frac{1}{S}\sum_{s=1}^{S} p(y_*|x_*, \theta^{(s)})$$

where $\theta^{(s)} \sim p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$

Can be seen as learning a variational approximation of the weights (see paper for details, if interested)

$$p(y_*|x_*, \mathcal{D}) \approx \frac{1}{S}\sum_{s=1}^{S} p(y_*|x_*, \theta^{(s)})$$

where $\theta^{(s)} = \epsilon^{(s)} \odot \hat{\theta}$

Vector of Bernoulli or Gaussian noise

Elementwise product

Point estimate

*Dropout as a Bayesian Approximation: Representing Model Uncertainty in Deep Learning (Gal and Ghahramani, 2016)

Efficient Posterior approx. for Bayesian Neural Nets

- SGMCMC methods like SGLD and SGHMC are also used nowadays (very efficient)

$$\theta^{(t)} = \theta^{(t-1)} + \frac{\eta_t}{2}\nabla_\theta[\log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) + \log p(\theta)]\big|_{\theta^{(t-1)}} + \epsilon_t$$

- Recently, SGMCMC with cyclic step sizes (cSGLD) was proposed (Zhang et al, 2020)
  - Use big steps to explore different modes
  - Use small steps later to sample once a mode is localized

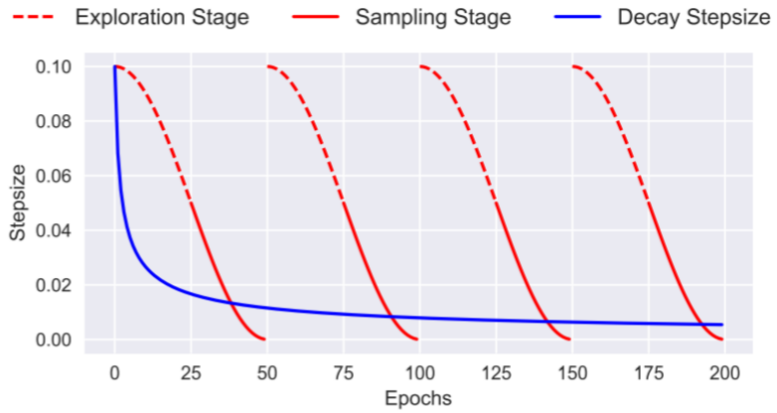
Step size in iteration k

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\alpha_0}{2}\left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi \bmod(k-1, \lceil K/M \rceil)}{\lceil K/M \rceil}\right) + 1\right]$$

K is the total number of iterations and M is the number of cycles

(a) Target (b) SGLD (c) cSGLD

A complex mixture of Gaussian distributions



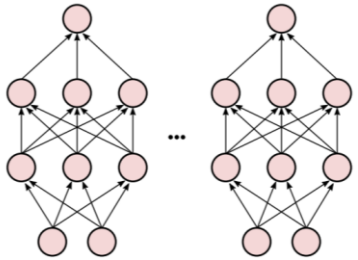
	CIFAR-10	CIFAR-100
SGD	5.29±0.15	23.61±0.09
SGDM	5.17±0.09	22.98±0.27
Snapshot-SGD	4.46±0.04	20.83±0.01
Snapshot-SGDM	4.39±0.01	20.81±0.10
SGLD	5.20±0.06	23.23±0.01
cSGLD	4.29±0.06	20.55±0.06
SGHMC	4.93±0.1	22.60±0.17
cSGHMC	**4.27**±0.03	**20.50**±0.11

Pic from: *Cyclical Stochastic Gradient MCMC for Bayesian Deep Learning (Zhang et al, 2020)

Deep Ensembles

- Most inference methods tend to produce local approximations only
  - VI methods typically learn an approximation around one of the modes
  - Sampling methods may give most samples near one of the modes (though in principle they may explore other modes as well)
  - Thus the uncertainties may be underestimated in general

Both VI and Sampling may be prone to capturing only a single "Basin of attraction"



- Deep Ensembles* is a method that tries to address this issue
  - Train the network M times with different seeds and permutations of training data
  - Denote the learned weights by $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_M$ (assuming these are M modes)
  - Approximate the posterior by the following

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{M}\sum_{m=1}^{M} \delta_{\theta_m}(\theta)$$

Akin to Bayesian Model Averaging using M models

  - This approach is considered non-Bayesian but often performs better (in terms of more diversity in the set of parameters learned) than other inference methods

*Simple and Scalable Predictive Uncertainty Estimation using Deep Ensembles (Lakshminarayanan, 2017)

Parallel/Distributed MCMC

- Suppose our goal is to compute the posterior of $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^D$ (assuming N is very large)

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{X}) \propto p(\theta)p(\mathbf{X}|\theta) = p(\theta)\prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\theta)$$

- Suppose we have J machines with data partitioned as $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{X}^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^{J}$
- Let's assume that the posterior $p(\theta|\mathbf{X})$ factorizes as

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1}^{J} p^{(j)}(\theta|\mathbf{X}^{(j)})$$

- Here $p^{(j)}(\theta|\mathbf{X}^{(j)}) \propto p(\theta)^{1/J}\prod_{\boldsymbol{x}_n \in \mathbf{X}^{(j)}} p(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\theta)$ is known as the "subset posterior"
- Assume the j^{th} machine generates T MCMC samples $\{\theta_{j,t}\}_{t=1}^{T}$
- We need a way to combine these subset posteriors using a "consensus"

$$\hat{\theta}_1, \ldots, \hat{\theta}_T = \texttt{CONSENSUSSAMPLES}(\{\theta_{j,1}, \ldots, \theta_{j,T}\}_{j=1}^{J})$$

Parallel/Distributed MCMC

- Many ways to compute the consensus samples. Let's look at two of them
- Approach 1: Weighted Average: $\hat{\theta}_t = \sum_{j=1}^{J} W_j \theta_{j,t}$ where W_j can be learned as follows
  - Assuming Gaussian likelihood and Gaussian prior on θ

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\Sigma}_j &= \text{sample covariance of } \{\theta_{j,1}, \ldots, \theta_{j,T}\} \\ \Sigma &= (\Sigma_0^{-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \bar{\Sigma}_j^{-1})^{-1} \quad (\Sigma_0 \text{ is the prior's covariance}) \\ W_j &= \Sigma(\Sigma_0^{-1}/J + \bar{\Sigma}_j^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

These approaches can also be used to make VI parallel/distributed

- Approach 2: Fit J Gaussians, one for each $\{\theta_{j,t}\}_{t=1}^{T}$ and take their product

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\mu}_j &= \text{sample mean of } \{\theta_{j,1}, \ldots, \theta_{j,T}\}, \quad \bar{\Sigma}_j = \text{sample covariance of } \{\theta_{j,1}, \ldots, \theta_{j,T}\} \\ \hat{\Sigma}_J &= (\sum_{j=1}^{J} \bar{\Sigma}_j^{-1})^{-1}, \quad \hat{\mu}_J = \hat{\Sigma}_J(\sum_{j=1}^{J} \bar{\Sigma}_j^{-1}\bar{\mu}_j) \quad \text{(cov and mean of prod. of Gaussians)} \\ \hat{\theta}_t &\sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mu}_J, \hat{\Sigma}_J), t = 1, \ldots, T \quad \text{(the final consensus samples)} \end{aligned}$$

- For detailed proofs and other approaches, may refer to the reference below

Patterns of Scalable Bayesian Inference (Angelino et al, 2016)

Approximate Inference: VI vs Sampling

- VI approximates a posterior distribution $p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X})$ by another distribution $q(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{\phi})$
- Sampling uses $\boldsymbol{S}$ samples $\boldsymbol{Z}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{Z}^{(2)}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{Z}^{(S)}$ to approximate $p(\boldsymbol{Z}|\boldsymbol{X})$
- Sampling can be used within VI (ELBO approx using Monte-Carlo)
- In terms of "comparison" between VI and sampling, a few things to be noted
  - Convergence: VI only has local convergence, sampling (in theory) can give exact posterior
  - Storage: Sampling based approx needs to storage all samples, VI only needs var. params $\boldsymbol{\phi}$
  - Prediction Cost: Sampling always requires Monte-Carlo avging for posterior predictive; with VI, sometimes we can get closed form posterior predictive

PPD if using sampling: $$p(x_*|X) = \int p(x_*|Z)p(Z|X)dZ \approx \frac{1}{S}\sum_{s=1}^{S} p\left(x_*|Z^{(s)}\right)$$

PPD if using VI: $$p(x_*|X) = \int p(x_*|Z)p(Z|X)dZ \approx \int p(x_*|Z)q(Z|\phi)dZ$$

Closed form if integral is tractable (otherwise Monte Carlo avg still needed for PPD)

Compressing the S samples into something more compact

- There is some work on "compressing" sampling-based approximations*

*"Compact approximations to Bayesian predictive distributions" by Snelson and Ghaharamani, 2005; and "Bayesian Dark Knowledge" by Korattikara et al, 2015

Inference Methods: Summary

- MLE/MAP: Straightforward for differentiable models (can even use automatic diff.)
- Conjugate models with one "main" parameter: Straightforward posterior updates
- MLE-II/MAP-II: Often useful for estimating the hyperparameters
- EM: If we want to do MLE/MAP for models with latent variables
  - Very general algorithm, can also be made online
  - Used when we want point estimates for some unknowns and posterior over others
  - Can use it for hyperparameter estimation as well
  - Often better than using direct gradient methods
- VI and sampling methods can be used to get full posterior for complex models
  - Quite easy if we have local conjugacy (VI has closed form updates, Gibbs sampler is easy to derive)
  - In other cases, we have general VI with Monte-Carlo gradients, MH sampling
  - MCMC can also make use of gradient info (LD/SGLD)
- For large-scale problems, online/distributed VI/MCMC, or SGD based posterior approx