Variational Inference and Learning

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Recap

- ► Learning and inference often involves intractable integrals
- For example: marginalisation

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$$

For example: likelihood in case of unobserved variables

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int_{\mathbf{u}} p(\mathbf{u}, \mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\mathbf{u}$$

- We can use Monte Carlo integration and sampling to approximate the integrals.
- Alternative: variational approach to (approximate) inference and learning.

History

Variational methods have a long history, in particular in physics. For example:

- Fermat's principle (1650) to explain the path of light: "light travels between two given points along the path of shortest time" (see e.g. http://www.feynmanlectures.caltech.edu/I_26.html)
- Principle of least action in classical mechanics and beyond (see e.g. http://www.feynmanlectures.caltech.edu/II_19.html)
- ► Finite elements methods to solve problems in fluid dynamics or civil engineering.

Loosely speaking: the general idea is to frame the original problem of interest in terms of an optimisation problem.

Program

- 1. Preparations
- 2. The variational principle
- 3. Application to inference and learning

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- 1. Preparations
 - Concavity of the logarithm and Jensen's inequality
 - Kullback-Leibler divergence and its properties
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log is concave

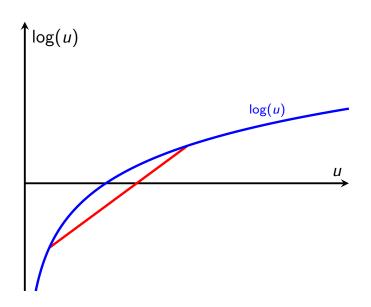
 $ightharpoonup \log(u)$ is concave

$$\log((1-a)u_1+au_2)\geq (1-a)\log(u_1)+a\log(u_2)$$
 $a\in [0,1]$ $(1-a)x+ay$ with $a\in [0,1]$ linearly interpolates between x and y .

▶ log(average) ≥ average (log)

Generalisation

$$\log \mathbb{E}[g(\mathbf{x})] \geq \mathbb{E}[\log g(\mathbf{x})]$$
 with $g(\mathbf{x}) > 0$



Called Jensen's inequality for concave functions.

Kullback-Leibler divergence

▶ Kullback Leibler divergence KL(p||q)

$$\mathsf{KL}(p||q) = \int p(\mathbf{x}) \log rac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})}
ight]$$

- Properties
 - ▶ KL(p||q) = 0 if and only if (iff) p = q (they may be different on sets of probability zero)
 - $ightharpoonup \operatorname{\mathsf{KL}}(p||q)
 eq \operatorname{\mathsf{KL}}(q||p)$
 - $\mathsf{KL}(p||q) \geq 0$
- Non-negativity follows from the concavity of the logarithm.

Non-negativity of the KL divergence

Non-negativity follows from the concavity of the logarithm.

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})} \left[\log \frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})} \right] \le \log \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})} \left[\frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})} \right]$$

$$= \log \int p(\mathbf{x}) \frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \log \int q(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= \log 1 = 0.$$

From

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}\left[\log\frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})}\right] \leq 0$$

it follows that

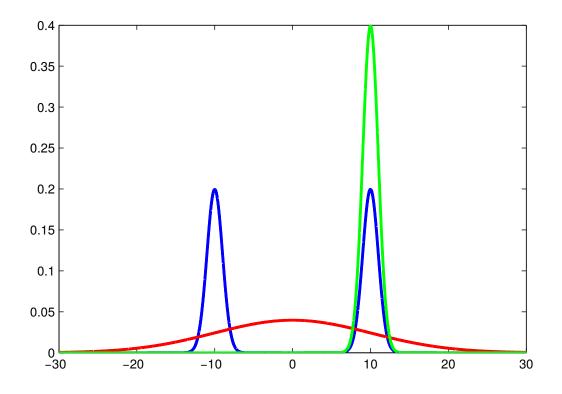
$$\mathsf{KL}(p||q) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}\left[\log rac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})}
ight] = -\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{x})}\left[\log rac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})}
ight] \geq 0$$

Asymmetry of the KL divergence

Blue: mixture of Gaussians p(x) (fixed)

Green: (unimodal) Gaussian q that minimises KL(q||p)

Red: (unimodal) Gaussian q that minimises KL(p||q)



Barber Figure 28.1, Section 28.3.4

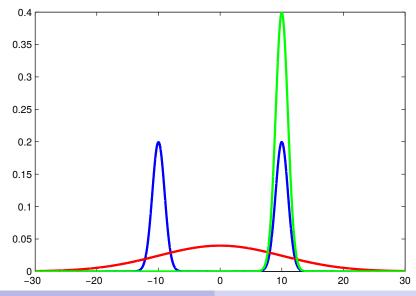
Asymmetry of the KL divergence

$$\operatorname{argmin}_q \mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \operatorname{argmin}_q \int q(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{q(\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x}$$

- Popular Optimal q avoids regions where p is small. (but can be small where p is large)
- Produces good local fit, "mode seeking"

$$\operatorname{argmin}_q \mathsf{KL}(p||q) = \operatorname{argmin}_q \int p(\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x}$$

- ▶ Optimal q is nonzero where p is nonzero (and does not care about regions where p is small)
- Corresponds to MLE; produces global fit/moment matching

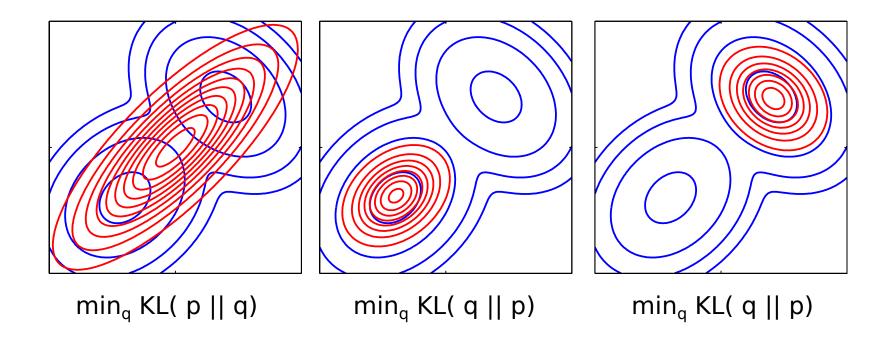


Asymmetry of the KL divergence

Blue: mixture of Gaussians $p(\mathbf{x})$ (fixed)

Red: optimal (unimodal) Gaussians $q(\mathbf{x})$

Global moment matching (left) versus mode seeking (middle and right). (two local minima are shown)



Bishop Figure 10.3

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Variational lower bound: auxiliary distribution

Consider joint pdf /pmf $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ with marginal $p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$

► Like in importance sampling, we write

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \int \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})} q(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right]$$

where q(y) is an auxiliary distribution (called the variational distribution in the context of variational inference/learning)

Log marginal is

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \log \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right]$$

► Instead of approximating the expectation with a sample average, use now the concavity of the logarithm.

Variational lower bound: concavity of the logarithm

Concavity of the log gives

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

This is the variational lower bound for $\log p(\mathbf{x})$.

Right-hand side is called the (variational) free energy

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})}
ight]$$

It depends on \mathbf{x} through the joint $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, and on the auxiliary distribution $q(\mathbf{y})$

(since q is a function, the free energy is called a functional, which is a mapping that depends on a function)

Decomposition of the log marginal

We can re-write the free energy as

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q) &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{y})} + \log p(\mathbf{x}) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right] + \log p(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= -\mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})) + \log p(\mathbf{x}) \end{split}$$

- ► Hence: $\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q)$
- ▶ KL ≥ 0 implies the bound log $p(\mathbf{x}) \ge \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$ that we have derived on the previous slide.
- ► KL(q||p) = 0 iff q = p implies that for q(y) = p(y|x), the free energy is maximised and equals $\log p(x)$.

Alternative approach

We started from the task of approximating the marginal

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$$

using importance sampling and Jensen's inequality.

Alternative starting point is the task of approximating the conditional

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$$

for some given \mathbf{x} by a distribution $q(\mathbf{y})$.

Measuring the quality of the approximation $q(\mathbf{y})$ by $KL(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}))$ gives the same decomposition:

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q)$$

Variational principle

By maximising the free energy

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})}
ight]$$

we can split the joint $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ into $p(\mathbf{x})$ and $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \max_{q(\mathbf{y})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname*{argmax} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$$
$$q(\mathbf{y})$$

You can think of free energy maximisation as a "function" that takes as input a joint $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and returns as output the (log) marginal and the conditional.

Variational principle

- ▶ Given $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, consider the inference tasks
 - 1. compute $p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}$
 - 2. compute $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$
- Variational principle: we can formulate the inference problems as an optimisation problem.
- Maximising the free energy

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathsf{x},q) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathsf{y})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y})}{q(\mathsf{y})}
ight]$$

gives

- 1. $\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \max_{q(\mathbf{y})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$
- 2. $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$
- ▶ Inference becomes optimisation.
- ▶ The (optimal) variational distribution q(y) depends on the value of x. Notation to highlight the dependency: q(y|x).

Solving the optimisation problem

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})}
ight]$$

- Difficulties when maximising the free energy:
 - optimisation with respect to pdf/pmf q(y)
 - computation of the expectation
- Restrict search space to family of variational distributions $q(\mathbf{y})$ for which $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}, q)$ is computable.
- ► Family Q specified by
 - ▶ independence assumptions, e.g. $q(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_i q(y_i)$, which corresponds to "mean-field" variational inference
 - parametric assumptions, e.g. $q(y_i) = \mathcal{N}(y_i; \mu_i(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_i^2(\mathbf{x}))$
- Optimisation is generally challenging: lots of research on how to do it (keywords: stochastic variational inference, black-box variational inference)

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Program

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 - Inference: approximating posteriors
 - Learning with Bayesian models
 - Learning with statistical models and unobserved variables
 - (Variational) EM algorithm

Approximate posterior inference

- ▶ Inference task: given value $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_o$ and joint pdf/pmf $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, compute $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o)$.
- Variational approach: estimate the posterior by solving an optimisation problem

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o) = \operatorname*{argmax} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}_o, q)$$
 $q(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{Q}$

Q is the set of pdfs/pmfs in which we search for the solution

The decomposition of the log marginal gives

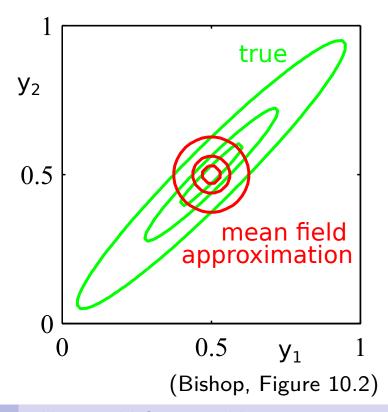
$$\log p(\mathbf{x}_o) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o)) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x}_o,q) = \mathsf{const}$$

► Because the sum of the KL and free energy term is constant we have

$$\underset{q(\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{Q}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \, \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o))$$

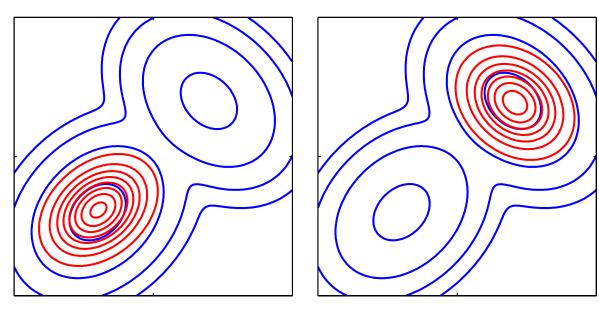
Nature of the approximation

- ▶ When minimising KL(q||p) with respect to q, q will try very hard to be zero where p is small.
- Assume true posterior is correlated bivariate Gaussian and we work with $Q = \{q(\mathbf{y}) : q(\mathbf{y}) = q(y_1)q(y_2)\}$ (independence but no parametric assumptions)
- $\hat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o)$, i.e. $q(\mathbf{y})$ that minimises KL(q||p), is Gaussian.
- Mean is correct but variances dictated by the marginal variances of p(y) along the y₁ and y₂ axes.
- Posterior variance is underestimated.



Nature of the approximation

- ► Assume that true posterior is multimodal, but that the family of variational distributions Q only includes unimodal distributions.
- The learned approximate posterior $\hat{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}_o)$ only covers one mode ("mode-seeking" behaviour)



Blue: true posterior Red: approximation

local optimum local optimum

Bishop Figure 10.3 (adapted)

Learning by Bayesian inference

- ▶ Task 1: For a Bayesian model $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)p(\theta) = p(\mathbf{x},\theta)$, compute the posterior $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$
- Formally the same problem as before: $\mathcal{D} = \mathbf{x}_o$ and $\theta \equiv \mathbf{y}$.
- ▶ Task 2: For a Bayesian model $p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$, compute the posterior $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D})$ where the data \mathcal{D} are for the visibles \mathbf{v} only.
- ▶ With the equivalence $\mathcal{D} = \mathbf{x}_o$ and $(\mathbf{h}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv \mathbf{y}$, we are formally back to the problem just studied.
- ▶ But the variational distribution q(y) becomes $q(h, \theta)$.
- ▶ Often: assume $q(\mathbf{h}, \theta)$ factorises as $q(\mathbf{h})q(\theta)$ (see Barber Section 11.5)

Parameter estimation in presence of unobserved variables

- ▶ Task: For the model $p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, estimate the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ from data \mathcal{D} on the visibles \mathbf{v} only (\mathbf{h} is unobserved).
- See slides on *Intractable Likelihood Functions*: the log likelihood function $\ell(\theta)$ is implicitly defined by the integral

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log p(\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \int_{\mathbf{h}} p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\mathbf{h},$$

which is generally intractable.

- We could approximate $\ell(\theta)$ and its gradient using Monte Carlo integration.
- Here: use the variational approach.

Parameter estimation in presence of unobserved variables

Foundational result that we have derived

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{y})||p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) \quad \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})}{q(\mathbf{y})} \right]$$
$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \max_{q(\mathbf{y})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q) \quad p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{q(\mathbf{y})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{x},q)$$

Correspondences:

$$\mathbf{v} \equiv \mathbf{x} \qquad \mathbf{h} \equiv \mathbf{y} \qquad \rho(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv \rho(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

Foundational result becomes

$$\log p(\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{h})||p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta})) + \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{v}, q; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{v}, q; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(\mathbf{h})} \right]$$
$$\log p(\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \max_{q(\mathbf{h})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{v}, q; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{v}, q; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

▶ Plug in \mathcal{D} for \mathbf{v} : log $p(\mathbf{v}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ becomes log $p(\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, which is $\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Approximate MLE by free energy maximisation

▶ With $\mathbf{v} = \mathcal{D}$ and $\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log p(\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$, the equations become

$$\ell(heta) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathsf{h})||p(\mathsf{h}|\mathcal{D}; heta)) + \overbrace{\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{D},q; heta)}^{J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, heta)} \qquad J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, heta) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathsf{h})} \left[\log \frac{p(\mathcal{D},\mathsf{h}; heta)}{q(\mathsf{h})}
ight] \\ \ell(heta) = \max_{q(\mathsf{h})} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, heta) \qquad \qquad p(\mathsf{h}|\mathcal{D}; heta) = rgmax_{q(\mathsf{h})} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, heta)$$

Write $J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, \theta)$ for $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{D}, q; \theta)$ when data \mathcal{D} are fixed.

Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

$$\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \ell(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \max_{oldsymbol{q}(oldsymbol{\mathsf{h}})} J_{\mathcal{F}}(oldsymbol{q}, oldsymbol{ heta})$$

MLE = maximise the free energy with respect to θ and $q(\mathbf{h})$

Restricting the search space Q for the variational distribution $q(\mathbf{h})$ for computational reasons leads to an approximation.

Free energy as sum of completed log likelihood and entropy

We can write the free energy as

$$J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, oldsymbol{ heta}) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log rac{p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; oldsymbol{ heta})}{q(\mathbf{h})}
ight] = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; oldsymbol{ heta})
ight] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log q(\mathbf{h})
ight]$$

- ► $-\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})}[\log q(\mathbf{h})]$ is the entropy of $q(\mathbf{h})$ (entropy is a measure of randomness or variability, see e.g. Barber Section 8.2)
- $ightharpoonup \log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the log-likelihood for the filled-in data $(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h})$
- ▶ $\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})}[\log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})]$ is the weighted average of these "completed" log-likelihoods, with the weighting given by $q(\mathbf{h})$.

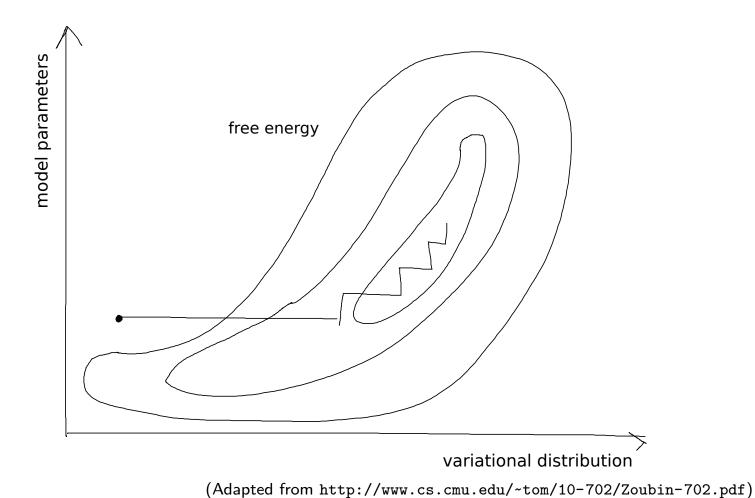
Free energy as sum of completed log likelihood and entropy

$$J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right] - \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{h})} \left[\log q(\mathbf{h}) \right]$$

- ▶ When maximising $J_{\mathcal{F}}(q,\theta)$ with respect to q we look for random variables \mathbf{h} (filled-in data) that
 - are maximally variable (large entropy)
 - ▶ are maximally compatible with the observed data (according to the model $p(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{h}; \theta)$)
- ▶ If included in the search space Q, $p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D}; \theta)$ is the optimal q, which means that the posterior fulfils the two desiderata best.

Variational EM algorithm

Variational expectation maximisation (EM): maximise $J_{\mathcal{F}}(q,\theta)$ by iterating between maximisation with respect to q and maximisation with respect to θ (coordinate ascent).



Where is the "expectation"?

► The optimisation with respect to *q* is called the "expectation step"

$$\max_{q \in \mathcal{Q}} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, oldsymbol{ heta}) = \max_{q \in \mathcal{Q}} \mathbb{E}_q \left[\log rac{p(\mathcal{D}, oldsymbol{\mathsf{h}}; oldsymbol{ heta})}{q(oldsymbol{\mathsf{h}})}
ight]$$

- lacksquare Denote the best q by q^* so that $\max_{q\in\mathcal{Q}}J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, heta)=J_{\mathcal{F}}(q^*, heta)$
- ▶ By definition of $J_{\mathcal{F}}(q,\theta)$, we have

$$J_{\mathcal{F}}(q^*, oldsymbol{ heta}) = \mathbb{E}_{q^*}\left[\lograc{p(\mathcal{D}, oldsymbol{\mathsf{h}}; oldsymbol{ heta})}{q^*(oldsymbol{\mathsf{h}})}
ight]$$

▶ $J_{\mathcal{F}}(q^*, \theta)$ is defined in terms of an expectation and the reason for the name "expectation step".

Classical EM algorithm

From

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) = \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{h})||p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D};\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)) + J_{\mathcal{F}}(q,\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$

we know that the optimal $q(\mathbf{h})$ is $q^*(\mathbf{h}) = p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$

▶ If we can compute the posterior $p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$, we obtain the (classical) EM algorithm that iterates between:

Expectation step

$$J_{\mathcal{F}}(q^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D};\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; \boldsymbol{\theta})] - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D};\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)}\log p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)}_{\text{does not depend on } \boldsymbol{\theta} \text{ and does not need to be computed}}$$

Maximisation step

$$m{ heta}_{k+1} = rgmax_{m{ heta}} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q^*, m{ heta}) = rgmax_{m{ heta}} \mathbb{E}_{p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D};m{ heta}_k)}[\log p(\mathcal{D}, \mathbf{h}; m{ heta})]$$

Classical EM algorithm never decreases the log likelihood

Assume you have updated the parameters and start iteration k+1 with optimisation with respect to q

$$\max_{q} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$

▶ Optimal solution q_{k+1}^* is the posterior $p(\mathbf{h}|\mathcal{D}; \theta_k)$ so that

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) = J_{\mathcal{F}}(q_{k+1}^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$

lacktriangle Optimise with respect to the heta while keeping q fixed at q_{k+1}^*

$$\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} J_{\mathcal{F}}(q_{k+1}^*,oldsymbol{ heta})$$

▶ Because of maximisation, optimiser θ_{k+1} is such that

$$J_{\mathcal{F}}(q_{k+1}^*, oldsymbol{ heta}_{k+1}) \geq J_{\mathcal{F}}(q_{k+1}^*, oldsymbol{ heta}_k) = \ell(oldsymbol{ heta}_k)$$

▶ From variational lower bound: $\ell(\theta) \ge J_{\mathcal{F}}(q, \theta)$. Hence:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{ heta}_{k+1}) \geq J_{\mathcal{F}}(q_{k+1}^*, \boldsymbol{ heta}_{k+1}) \geq \ell(\boldsymbol{ heta}_k)$$

 \Rightarrow EM yields non-decreasing sequence $\ell(\theta_1), \ell(\theta_2), \ldots$

Examples

- ▶ Work through the examples in Barber Section 11.2 for the classical EM algorithm.
- ► Example 11.4 treats the cancer-asbestos-smoking example that we had in an earlier lecture.

Program recap

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- Concavity of the logarithm and Jensen's inequality
- Kullback-Leibler divergence and its properties

2. The variational principle

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- Free energy and the decomposition of the log marginal
- Free energy maximisation to compute the marginal and conditional from the joint

3. Application to inference and learning

- Inference: approximating posteriors
- Learning with Bayesian models
- Learning with statistical models and unobserved variables
- (Variational) EM algorithm