[70240413 Statistical Machine Learning, Spring, 2015]

Bayesian Methods (I)

Jun Zhu

dcszj@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn http://bigml.cs.tsinghua.edu.cn/~jun State Key Lab of Intelligent Technology & Systems Tsinghua University

May 5, 2015

Basic Rules of Probability

Concepts

 $\begin{array}{ll} p(X) & \text{probability of } X \\ p(X|\mathcal{M}) & \text{conditional probability of } X \text{ given } \mathcal{M} \\ p(X,\mathcal{M}) & \text{joint probability of } X \text{ and } \mathcal{M} \end{array}$

Joint probability – product rule

$$p(X, \mathcal{M}) = p(X|\mathcal{M})p(\mathcal{M})$$

Marginal probability – sum/integral rule

$$p(X) = \int p(X|\mathcal{M})p(\mathcal{M})d\mathcal{M}$$

Bayes' Rule

Combining the definition of conditional prob. with the product and sum rules, we have Bayes' rule or Bayes' theorem

$$p(\mathcal{M}|X) = \frac{p(X, \mathcal{M})}{p(X)}$$
$$= \frac{p(\mathcal{M})p(X|\mathcal{M})}{\int p(\mathcal{M})p(X|\mathcal{M})d\mathcal{M}}$$



Thomas Bayes (1702 – 1761)

** "An Essay towards Solving a Problem in the Doctrine of Chances"* published at Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London in 1763

Bayes' Rule Applied to Machine Learning

 \blacklozenge Let $\mathcal D$ be a given data set; $\mathcal M$ be a model

$$p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}) = rac{p(\mathcal{M})p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M})}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

 $\begin{array}{ll} p(\mathcal{M}) & \text{prior probability of } \mathcal{M} \\ p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}) & \text{likelihood of } \mathcal{M} \text{ on data} \\ p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}) & \text{posterior probability of } \mathcal{M} \text{ given } \mathcal{D} \\ p(\mathcal{D}) & \text{marginal likelihood or evidence} \end{array}$

$$\text{ Model Comparison: } \mathbb{M} = \{\mathcal{M}\}$$

$$p(\mathbb{M}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbb{M})p(\mathbb{M})}{p(\mathcal{D})} \quad p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbb{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}, \mathbb{M})p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M})d\mathcal{M}$$

Prediction:

$$p(x|\mathcal{D}, \mathbb{M}) = \int p(x|\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{D}, \mathbb{M}) p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}, \mathbb{M}) d\mathcal{M}$$

under some common assumptions

$$p(x|\mathcal{M})$$

Bayesian Model Selection

Naturally considers model complexity penalty – no overfitting



♦ See details in (C. Bishop, 2006).

Common Questions

Why be Bayesian?

Where does the prior come from?

How do we do these integrals?

Why be Bayesian?

One of many answers

Infinite Exchangeability:

$$\forall n, \forall \sigma, p(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = p(x_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, x_{\sigma(n)})$$

♦ De Finetti's Theorem (1955): if $(x_1, x_2, ...)$ are infinitely exchangeable, then $\forall n$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int \Big(\prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta)\Big) dP(\theta)$$

for some random variable θ

$$p\left(x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_n\right) = \int_{\theta} p\left(\underbrace{x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_n}_{x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_n}\right)$$

* with more data overfitting is becoming less of a concern?



Overfitting in Big Data "Big Model + Big Data + Big/Super Cluster" **Big Learning**



- local L2 pooling and local contrast normalization for invariant features

- 1B parameters (connections)
- 10M 200x200 images
- train with 1K machines (16K cores) for 3 days

-able to build high-level concepts, e.g., cat faces and human bodies

-15.8% accuracy in recognizing 22K objects (70% relative improvements)

Predictive information grows slower than the amount of Shannon entropy (Bialek et al., 2001)



Predictive information grows slower than the amount of Shannon entropy (Bialek et al., 2001)



Model capacity grows faster than the amount of predictive information!

Surprisingly, regularization to prevent overfitting is increasingly important, rather than increasingly irrelevant!

Increasing research attention, e.g., dropout training (Hinton, 2012)



- More theoretical understanding and extensions
 - MCF (van der Maaten et al., 2013); Logistic-loss (Wager et al., 2013); Dropout SVM (Chen, Zhu et al., 2014)

Why Big Data could be a Big Fail?



Michael I. Jordan UC Berkeley Pehong Chen Distinguished Professor NAS, NAE, NAAS Fellow ACM, IEEE, IMS, ASA, AAAI Fellow



When you have large amounts of data, your appetite for hypotheses tends to get even larger

If it's growing faster than the statistical strength of the data, then many of your inferences are likely to be false. They are likely to be white noise.

Too much hype: "The whole big-data thing came and went. It died. It was wrong"

Therefore ...

Computationally efficient Bayesian models are becoming increasingly relevant in Big data era

Relevant: high capacity models need a protection

• Efficient: need to deal with large data volumes

Challenges of Bayesian Methods

Building an Automated Statistician

Theory

• Improve the classic Bayes theorem

Modeling

scientific and engineering datarich side information

Inference/learning

- discriminative learning
- large-scale inference algorithms for Big Data

Applications

• social media, NLP, computer vision

Readings

Sig Learning with Bayesian Methods, J. Zhu, J. Chen, & W. Hu, arXiv 1411.6370, preprint, 2014

How to Choose Priors?

- Objective priors -- noninformative priors that attempt to capture ignorance and have good frequentist properties
- Subjective priors -- priors should capture our beliefs as well as possible
- Hierarchical priors -- multiple layers of priors

$$p(\mathcal{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{M}|\alpha)p(\alpha)d\alpha = \int \int p(\mathcal{M}|\alpha)p(\alpha|\beta)p(\beta)d\alpha d\beta = \cdots$$

- the higher, the weaker
- Empirical priors -- Learn some of the parameters of the prior from the data; known as "Empirical Bayes"

$$p(\mathcal{M}|\hat{\alpha})$$
 $\hat{\alpha} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\alpha} p(\mathcal{D}|\alpha)$

- **Pros**: robust overcomes some limitations of mis-specification
- **Cons**: double counting of evidence / overfitting

How to Choose Priors?

- Conjugate and Non-conjugate tradeoff
- Conjugate priors are relatively easier to compute, but they might be limited
 - Ex: Gaussian-Gaussian, Beta-Bernoulli, Dirichlet-Multinomial, etc. (see next slide for an example)
- Non-conjugate priors are more flexible, but harder to compute
 - Ex: LogisticNormal-Multinomial

Example 1: Multinomial-Dirichlet Conjugacy

Posterior is in the same class as the prior

Let

 $X \sim \text{Multinomial}(\pi), \text{ and } \pi \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha)$

The posterior

$$p(\pi|X) \propto p(X|\pi)p(\pi)$$

$$\propto (\pi_1^{x_1} \cdots \pi_K^{x_K})(\pi_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} \cdots \pi_K^{\alpha_K - 1})$$

$$= \text{Dirichlet}(\pi_1^{x_1 + \alpha_1 - 1} \cdots \pi_K^{x_K + \alpha_K - 1})$$

which is $Dirichlet(\alpha + \mathbf{x})$

How do We Compute the Integrals?

Recall that:

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbb{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M},\mathbb{M})p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M})d\mathcal{M}$$

This can be a very high dimensional integral

 If we consider latent variables, it leads to additional dimensions to be integrated out

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbb{M}) = \int \int p(\mathcal{D}, H|\mathcal{M}, \mathbb{M}) p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M}) dH d\mathcal{M}$$

• This could be very complicated!

Approximate Bayesian Inference

In many cases, we resort to approximation methods

Common examples

- Variational approximations
- Markov chain Monte Carlo methods (MCMC)
- Expectation Propagation (EP)
- Laplace approximation
- • •

Developing advanced inference algorithms is an active area!

Basics of Variational Approximation

• We can lower bound the marginal likelihood

$$\begin{split} \log p(\mathcal{D}|\mathbb{M}) &= \log \int \int p(\mathcal{D}, H|\mathcal{M}, \mathbb{M}) p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M}) dH d\mathcal{M} \\ &= \log \int \int q(H, \mathcal{M}) \frac{p(\mathcal{D}, H|\mathcal{M}, \mathbb{M}) p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M})}{q(H, \mathcal{M})} dH d\mathcal{M} \\ &\geq \int \int q(H, \mathcal{M}) \log \frac{p(\mathcal{D}, H|\mathcal{M}, \mathbb{M}) p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbb{M})}{q(H, \mathcal{M})} dH d\mathcal{M} \end{split}$$

 Note: the lower bound is tight if no assumptions made
 Mean-field assumptions: a factorized approximation
 q(H, M) = q(H)q(M)

optimizes the lower bound with the assumption leads to local optimums

Basics of Monte Carlo Methods

- a class of computational algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling to compute their results.
- tend to be used when it is infeasible to compute an exact result with a deterministic algorithm
- was coined in the 1940s by John von Neumann, Stanislaw
 Ulam and Nicholas Metropolis



Games of Chance

Monte Carlo Methods to Calculate Pi

Computer Simulation

$$\hat{\pi} = 4 \times \frac{m}{N}$$

N: # points inside the squarem: # points inside the circle



Bufffon's Needle Experiment

$$\hat{\pi} = \frac{2Nx}{m}$$

• m: # line crossings $x = \frac{l}{d}$



Problems to be Solved

Sampling

- to generate a set of samples $\{\mathbf{z}_l\}_{l=1}^L$ from a given probability distribution $p(\mathbf{z})$
- the distribution is called target distribution
- can be from statistical physics or data modeling

Integral

To estimate expectations of functions under this distribution



Use Sample to Estimate the Target Dist.

Traw a set of independent samples (a hard problem)

$$\forall 1 \le l \le L, \ \mathbf{z}^{(l)} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$$

Stimate the target distribution as count frequency

$$p(\mathbf{z}) \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \delta_{\mathbf{z}^{(l)}}(\mathbf{z})$$

Histogram with Unique Points as the Bins



Basic Procedure of Monte Carlo Methods

♦ Draw a set of independent samples $\forall 1 \le l \le L, \ \mathbf{z}^{(l)} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$

Approximate the expectation with

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$



• where is the distribution p? $p(\mathbf{z}) \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} \delta_{\mathbf{z}^{(l)}}(\mathbf{z}) \xrightarrow{\text{Histogram with Unique}}{\text{Points as the Bins}}$ • why this is good?

$$\mathbb{E}[\hat{f}] = \mathbb{E}[f] \quad \operatorname{var}[\hat{f}] = \frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}[(f - \mathbb{E}[f])^2]$$

Accuracy of estimator does not depend on dimensionality of z
High accuracy with few (10-20 independent) samples
However, obtaining independent samples is often not easy!

Why Sampling is Hard?

Assumption

 The target distribution can be evaluated, at least to within a multiplicative constant, i.e.,

$$p(\mathbf{z}) = p^*(\mathbf{z})/Z$$

• where $p^*(\mathbf{z})$ can be evaluated

Two difficulties

- Normalizing constant is typically unknown
- Drawing samples in high-dimensional space is challenging



Basics of MCMC

 \blacklozenge To draw samples from a desired distribution $p(x|\mathcal{D})$

We define a Markov chain

$$x_0 \to x_1 \to x_2 \to x_3 \to \cdots$$

• where

$$p_t(x) = \int p_{t-1}(x')q(x;x')dx'$$

• q(x; x') is the transition kernel

• p(x|D) is an **invariant (or stationary) distribution** of the Markov chain q iff:

$$p(x|\mathcal{D}) = \int p(x'|\mathcal{D})q(x;x')dx'$$

Geometry of MCMC

- Proposal depends on current state
- Not necessarily similar to the target
- Can evaluate the un-normalized target



Gibbs Sampling

♦ A special case of Metropolis-Hastings algorithm
♦ Consider the distribution p(x) = p(x₁,...,x_M)

Gibbs sampling performs the follows
Initialize {x_i : i = 1,..., M}
For τ = 1,..., T
Sample x₁^(τ+1) ~ p(x₁|x₂^(τ), x₃^(τ),..., x_M^(τ))

sample x_j^(τ+1) ~ p(x_j|x₁^(τ+1),..., x_{j-1}^(τ+1), x_{j+1}^(τ),..., x_M^(τ))
Sample x_M^(τ+1) ~ p(x_j|x₁^(τ+1), x₂^(τ+1),..., x_{M-1}^(τ+1))

The target distribution in 2 dimensional space



 \diamond Starting from a state $\mathbf{x}^{(t)}$, $x_1^{(t+1)}$ is sampled from $P(x_1|x_2^{(t)})$



A sample is drawn from $P(x_2|x_1^{(t+1)})$



After a few iterations


Bayes' Theorem in the 21st Century

This year marks the 250th Anniversary of Bayes' theorem
Events at: <u>http://bayesian.org/</u>
Bradley Efron, *Science 7 June 2013: Vol. 340 no. 6137 pp. 1177-*

1178



"There are two potent arrows in the statistician's quiver

there is no need to go hunting armed with only one."

Parametric Bayesian Inference

 \mathcal{M} is represented as a finite set of parameters θ

A parametric likelihood: $\mathbf{x} \sim p(\cdot | \theta)$ • Prior on $\boldsymbol{\theta}$: $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Posterior distribution

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{\int p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta} \propto p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)\pi(\theta)$$

Examples:

- Gaussian distribution prior + 2D Gaussian likelihood
- Dirichilet distribution prior + 2D Multinomial likelihood \rightarrow Dirichlet posterior distribution
- Sparsity-inducing priors + some likelihood models

 \rightarrow Gaussian posterior distribution

- - \rightarrow Sparse Bayesian inference

Nonparametric Bayesian Inference

 ${\mathcal M}\,$ is a richer model, e.g., with an infinite set of parameters

A nonparametric likelihood: x ~ p(·|M)
Prior on M: π(M)

Posterior distribution

$$p(\mathcal{M}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{M})\pi(\mathcal{M})}{\int p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{M})\pi(\mathcal{M})d\mathcal{M}} \propto p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{M})\pi(\mathcal{M})$$

Examples:

 \rightarrow see next slide

Nonparametric Bayesian Inference

 ∞



Dirichlet Process Prior [Antoniak, 1974] + Multinomial/Gaussian/Softmax likelihood Indian Buffet Process Prior [Griffiths & Gharamani, 2005] + Gaussian/Sigmoid/Softmax likelihood



Gaussian Process Prior [Doob, 1944; Rasmussen & Williams, 2006] + Gaussian/Sigmoid/Softmax likelihood

Why Be Bayesian Nonparametrics?

Let the data speak for themselves

- Sypass the model selection problem
 - let data determine model complexity (e.g., the number of components in mixture models)
 - allow model complexity to grow as more data observed



Related Tutorials and Materials

Tutorial talks:

- Description Z. Gharamani, ICML 2004. "Bayesian Methods for Machine Learning"
- M.I. Jordan, NIPS 2005. "Nonparametric Bayesian Methods: Dirichlet Processes, Chinese Restaurant Processes and All That"
- P. Orbanz, 20009. "Foundations of Nonparametric Bayesian Methods"
- Y. W. Teh, 2011. "Modern Bayesian Nonparametrics"
- J. Zhu, ACML 2013. "Recent Advances in Bayesian Methods"

Tutorial articles:

 Gershman & Blei. A Tutorial on Bayesian Nonparametric Models. Journal of Mathematical Psychology, 56 (2012) 1-12

Example: A Bayesian Ranking Model

Rank a set of items, e.g., A, B, C, D

• A uniform permutation model



$$P([A, C, B, D]) = P([A, D, C, B]) = \dots = \frac{1}{4!}$$

Example: A Bayesian Ranking Model

Rank a set of items

- With a preferred list
 - Users offer a concentration center $\pi_0 = [C, B, A, D]$
 - A generalized Mallows' model is defined



[Fligner & Verducci. Distance based Ranking Models. J. R. Statist. Soc. B, 1986]

Example: A Bayesian Ranking Model

- Rank a set of items
 - Prior knowledge
 - conjugate prior exists for generalized Mallows' models (a member of exponential family)
 - Bayesian updates can be done with Bayes' rule
 - Can be incorporated into a hierarchical Bayesian model, e.g., topic models

[Chen, Branavan, et al., Global models of document structure using latent permutations. ACL, 2009]

Topic Models

Homework Example

Mixture of Multinomials



T₁₁ : the first fer of the exclusion of a spheric in discrete the

Assumption:

Each document belongs to a single topic

Multiple Topics exist in a Document

Seeking Life's Bare (Genetic) Necessities

Haemophilus

genome

COLD SPRING HARBOR, NEW YORK— How many genes does an organism need to survive? Last week at the genome meeting here,* two genome researchers with radically different approaches presented complementary views of the basic genes needed for life. One research team, using computer analyses to compare known genomes, concluded that today's organisms can be sustained with just 250 genes, and that the earliest life forms

required a mere 128 genes. The other researcher mapped genes in a simple parasite and estimated that for this organism, 800 genes are plenty to do the job—but that anything short of 100 wouldn't be enough.

Although the numbers don't match precisely, those predictions

* Genome Mapping and Sequencing, Cold Spring Harbor, New York, May 8 to 12.

SCIENCE • VOL. 272 • 24 MAY 1996

"are not all that far apart," especially in comparison to the 75,000 genes in the human genome, notes Siv Andersson of Uppsala University in Sweden, who arrived at the 800 number. But coming up with a consensus answer may be more than just a genetic numbers game, particularly as more and more genomes are completely mapped and sequenced. "It may be a way of organizing any newly sequenced genome," explains

Arcady Mushegian, a computational molecular biologist at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) in Bethesda, Maryland. Comparing an



[Slides courtesy: D. Blei]

Stripping down. Computer analysis yields an estimate of the minimum modern and ancient genomes.

Simple intuition: Documents exhibit multiple topics.

Probabilistic Latent Semantic Indexing

Allows multiple topics in a document



Limitations:

- *d* is a dummy index into the list of documents in training set; no natural generalization to unseen document;
- # of unknown parameters grows linearly with data size (i.e., KV + KD) overfitting!

Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA)

Topics

Documents

Topic proportions and assignments



- Each **topic** is a distribution over words
- Each document is a mixture of corpus-wide topics
- Each word is drawn from one of those topics

[Slides courtesy: D. Blei]

Latent Dirichlet Allocation

Topics

Documents

Topic proportions and assignments



- In reality, we only observe the documents
- The other structure are hidden variables

[Slides courtesy: D. Blei]

Latent Dirichlet Allocation

Topics

Documents

Topic proportions and assignments

[Slides courtesy: D. Blei]



- Our goal is to infer the hidden variables
- I.e., compute their distribution conditioned on the documents

p(topics, proportions, assignments | documents)

LDA as a graphical model



Encodes assumptions

- Defines a factorization of the joint distribution
- Connects to algorithms for computing with data

$$p(\Theta, \Phi, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{W} | \alpha, \beta) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(\Phi_k | \beta) \prod_{d=1}^{D} p(\theta_d | \alpha) \Big(\prod_{n=1}^{N} p(z_{dn} | \theta_d) p(w_{dn} | z_{dn}, \Phi) \Big)$$



LDA as a graphical model



The joint distribution defines a posterior

$$p(\Theta, \Phi, \mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{W}, \alpha, \beta) = \frac{p(\Theta, \Phi, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{W} | \alpha, \beta)}{p(\mathbf{W} | \alpha, \beta)}$$

From a collection of documents, infer

- Per-word topic assignment
- Per-document topic proportion
- Per-corpus topic distributions
- Then, use posterior expectations to perform the task at hand, e.g., information retrieval, document similarity, exploration, ...

LDA as a graphical model



- Approximate posterior inference algorithms
 - Mean-field variational methods (Blei et al., 2003)
 - Expectation propagation (Minka & Lafferty, 2002)
 - Collapsed Gibbs sampling (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2002)
 - Collapsed variational inference (Teh et al., 2006)
 - Online variational inference (Hoffman et al., 2010)
 - Distributed Gibbs sampling (Ahmed et al., 2012, Yuan et al., 2015)
 - • •

Approximate Inference

Variational Inference (Blei et al., 2003; Teh et al., 2006)



Monte Carlo Markov Chains (Griffiths & Steyvers, 2004)
 Collapsed Gibbs samplers iteratively draw samples from the local conditionals

$$p(z_{dn}^k = 1 | Z_{\neg})$$

Derivation of Collapsed Gibbs Sampling

Homework: complete the derivation and implement it

Variational Mean-Field Methods

Details provided in [Blei et al., JMLR 2003, Appendix]

Beyond LDA

LDA has been widely extended ...

- LDA can be embedded in more complicated models, capturing rich structures of the texts
- Extensions are either on
 - Priors: e.g., Markov process prior for dynamic topic models, logisticnormal prior for corrected topic models, etc
 - Likelihood models: e.g., relational topic models, multi-view topic models, etc.







Tutorials were provide by D. Blei at ICML, SIGKDD, etc. (<u>http://www.cs.princeton.edu/~blei/topicmodeling.html</u>)

Logistic-Normal Topic Models

Sayesian topic models



Dirichlet priors are conjugate to the multinomial likelihood
However, it doesn't capture the correlation among topics



Logistic-Normal Topic Models

Logistic-normal prior distribution (Aitchison & Shen, 1980)

 $\eta_d \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

$$\theta_d^k = \frac{\exp\left(\eta_d^k\right)}{\sum_i \exp\left(\eta_d^i\right)}$$

Logisitc-normal prior can capture the correlationships



But it is non-conjugate to a multinomial likelihood !

• Variational approximation not scalable (Blei & Lafferty, 2007)

A Scalable Gibbs Sampler



Collapse out the topics by conjugacy
Sample Z: (standard)

$$p(z_{dn}^k = 1 | \mathbf{Z}_{\neg n}, w_{dn}, \mathbf{W}_{\neg dn}, \boldsymbol{\eta}) \propto \frac{C_{k, \neg n}^{w_{dn}} + \beta_{w_{dn}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{V} C_{k, \neg n}^j + \sum_{j=1}^{V} \beta_j} e^{\eta_d^k}$$

A Scalable Gibbs Sampler



Collapse out the topics by conjugacy
Sample η : (challenging)

$$p(\boldsymbol{\eta}|\mathbf{Z},\mathbf{W}) \propto \prod_{d=1}^{D} \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N_d} \frac{e^{\eta_{z_n}^d}}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} e^{\eta_j^d}}\right) \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\eta}_d|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

A Scalable Gibbs Sampler



Data augmentation saves!
For each dimension k:

 $p(\eta_d^k | \boldsymbol{\eta}_d^{\neg k}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{W}) \propto \ell(\eta_d^k | \boldsymbol{\eta}_d^{\neg k}) \mathcal{N}(\eta_d^k | \mu_d^k, \sigma_k^2)$ $\ell(\eta_d^k | \boldsymbol{\eta}_d^{\neg k}) = \frac{(e^{\rho_d^k})^{C_d^k}}{(1 + e^{\rho_d^k})^{N_d}}$

Experimental Results

- Leverage big clusters
- Allow learning big models that can't fit on a single machine



Experimental Results

Leverage big clusters

Allow learning big models that can't fit on a single machine

data set	D	K	vCTM	gCTM
NIPS	1.2K	100	1.9 hr	8.9 min
20NG	11 K	200	16 hr	9 min
NYTimes	285K	400	N/A*	0.5 hr
Wiki	6M	1000	N/A*	17 hr
*not finished within 1 week				

[Chen, Zhu, Wang, Zheng, & Zhang, NIPS 2013]

Scalable Graph Visualization



[Liu, Wang, Chen, Zhu, & Guo. IEEE VAST 2014]

Supervised LDA with Rich Likelihood

Following the standard Bayes' way of thinking, sLDA defines a richer likelihood model



 $p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi, \eta, \alpha, \beta) = p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{Z}, \eta) p(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi, \alpha, \beta)$ • per-document likelihood $y_d \in \{0, 1\}$

$$p(y_d | \mathbf{z}_d, \eta) = \frac{\{\exp(\eta^\top \bar{\mathbf{z}}_d)\}^{y_d}}{1 + \exp(\eta^\top \bar{\mathbf{z}}_d)} \quad \bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{I}(z_n^k = 1)$$

 both variational and Monte Carlo methods can be developed (Blei & McAuliffe, NIPS'07; Wang et al., CVPR'09; Zhu et al., ACL 2013)

Imbalance Issue with sLDA

- A document has hundreds of words
- \bullet ... but only one class label
- Imbalanced likelihood combination

 $p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi, \eta) = p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{Z}, \eta) p(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)$

Too weak influence from supervision



(Halpern et al., ICML 2012; Zhu et al., ACL 2013)

Max-margin Supervised Topic Models



Can we learn supervised topic models in a max-margin way?

How to perform posterior inference?

- Can we do variational inference?
- Can we do Monte Carlo?
- How to generalize to nonparametric models?
MedLDA: Max-margin Supervised Topic Models



- Two components
 - An LDA likelihood model for describing word counts
 - An max-margin classifier for considering supervising signal

Challenges

- How to consider uncertainty of latent variables in defining the classifier?
- Nice work that has inspired our design
 - Bayes classifiers (McAllester, 2003; Langford & Shawe-Taylor, 2003)
 - Maximum entropy discrimination (MED) (Jaakkola, Marina & Jebara, 1999; Jebara's Ph.D thesis and book)

MedLDA: Max-margin Supervised Topic Models



- The averaging classifier
 - The hypothesis space is characterized by (η, Z)
 - Infer the posterior distribution

 $q(\boldsymbol{\eta}, Z | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})$

 ${\scriptstyle \Box}$ q-weighted averaging classifier ($y_d \in \{-1,1\}$)

 $\hat{y} = \operatorname{sign} f(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{sign} \mathbb{E}_q[f(\eta, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{w})]$

• where

$$f(\eta, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{w}) = \eta^{\top} \bar{\mathbf{z}} \qquad \bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{I}(z_n^k = 1)$$

N

Note: Multi-class classification can be done in many ways, 1-vs-1, 1-vs-all, Crammer & Singer's method

MedLDA: Max-margin Supervised Topic Models



Bayesian inference with max-margin posterior constraints

 $\min_{q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)\in\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{L}(q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)) + 2c \cdot \mathcal{R}(q)$

• objective for Bayesian inference in LDA

 $\mathcal{L}(q) = \mathrm{KL}(q || p_0(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)) - \mathbb{E}_q[\log p(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)]$

posterior regularization is the hinge loss

$$\mathcal{R}(q) = \sum_{d} \max(0, 1 - y_d f(\mathbf{w}_d))$$

Inference Algorithms

Regularized Bayesian Inference

$$\min_{q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)\in\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{L}(q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)) + 2c \cdot \mathcal{R}(q)$$

♦ An iterative procedure with $q(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) = q(\eta)q(\Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)$

 $\begin{array}{c|c} \min_{q(\eta),\xi} & \mathrm{KL}(q(\eta) \| p_{0}(\eta)) + c \sum_{d} \xi_{d} \\ \forall d, \ \mathrm{s.t.}: & y_{d} \mathbb{E}_{q}[\eta]^{\top} \mathbb{E}_{q}[\bar{\mathbf{z}}_{d}] \geq 1 - \xi_{d}. \\ & \min_{q(\Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi), \xi} \mathcal{L}(q(\Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)) + c \sum_{d} \xi_{d} \\ \forall d, \ \mathrm{s.t.}: & y_{d} \mathbb{E}_{q}[\eta]^{\top} \mathbb{E}_{q}[\bar{\mathbf{z}}_{d}] \geq 1 - \xi_{d}. \end{array}$

Empirical Results on 20Newsgroups



Empirical Results on 20Newsgroups



Sparser and More Salient Representations



Multi-class Classification with Crammer & Singer's Approach



Observations:

- Inference algorithms affect the performance;
- Max-margin learning improves a lot



- The Gibbs classifier
 - The hypothesis space is characterized by (η, Ζ)
 Infer the posterior distribution

 $q(\eta, Z | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})$

• A Gibbs classifier

 $\hat{y}|_{\eta,\mathbf{z}} = \operatorname{sign} f(\eta, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{w}), \text{ where } (\eta, \mathbf{z}) \sim q(\eta, Z | \mathbf{y}, W)$

• where
$$f(\eta, \mathbf{z}; \mathbf{w}) = \eta^{\top} \bar{\mathbf{z}} \qquad \bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbb{I}(z_n^k = 1)$$

(Zhu, Chen, Perkins, Zhang, JMLR 2014)

♦ Let's consider the "pseudo-observed" classifier if (η, \mathbf{z}) are given

$$\hat{y}|_{\eta,\mathbf{z}} = \mathrm{sign}f(\eta,\mathbf{z};\mathbf{w})$$

- The empirical training error $\hat{R}(\eta, Z) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_d|_{\eta, \mathbf{z}_d} \neq y_d) \qquad \mathbf{z}_d$
- A good convex surrogate loss is the hinge loss (an upper bound)

$$\mathcal{R}(\eta, \mathbf{Z}) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \max(0, \zeta_d), \text{ where } \zeta_d = 1 - y_d \eta^\top \bar{\mathbf{z}}_d$$

Now the question is how to consider the uncertainty?
A Gibbs classifier takes the expectation!



Bayesian inference with max-margin posterior constraints

$$\min_{q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)\in\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{L}(q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)) + 2c \mathcal{R}'(q)$$

□ an upper bound of the expected training error (empirical risk)

$$\mathcal{R}'(q) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \mathbb{E}_q[\max(0, \zeta_d)] \geq \sum_d \mathbb{E}_q[\mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_d \neq y_d)]$$

Gibbs MedLDA vs. MedLDA

The MedLDA problem

 $\min_{q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)\in\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{L}(q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)) + 2c \cdot \mathcal{R}(q)$

$$\mathcal{R}(q) = \sum_{d} \max(0, 1 - y_d f(\mathbf{w}_d))$$

Applying Jensen's Inequality, we have

 $\mathcal{R}'(q) \ge \mathcal{R}(q)$

Gibbs MedLDA can be seen as a relaxation of MedLDA

The problem

 $\min_{q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)\in\mathcal{P}} \mathcal{L}(q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)) + 2c \cdot \mathcal{R}(q)$

Solve with Lagrangian methods

 $q(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) = \frac{p_0(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) p(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) \phi(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{Z}, \eta)}{\psi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})}$

• The pseudo-likelihood $\phi(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{Z},\eta) = \prod_{d} \phi(y_d|\eta, \mathbf{z}_d)$

 $\phi(y_d | \mathbf{z}_d, \eta) = \exp\{-2c \max(0, \zeta_d)\}\$

Lemma [Scale Mixture Rep.] (Polson & Scott, 2011):
The pseudo-likelihood can be expressed as

$$\phi(y_d | \mathbf{z}_d, \eta) = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\lambda_d + c\zeta_d)^2}{2\lambda_d}\right) d\lambda_d$$

- What does the lemma mean?
 - It means:

$$q(\eta,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi) = \int q(\eta,\lambda,\Theta,\mathbf{Z},\Phi)d\lambda$$

where $q(\eta, \lambda, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) = \frac{p_0(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi)p(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{Z}, \Phi)\phi(\mathbf{y}, \lambda|\mathbf{Z}, \eta)}{\psi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})}$ $\phi(\mathbf{y}, \lambda|\mathbf{Z}, \eta) = \prod_d \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda_d}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\lambda_d + c\zeta_d)^2}{2\lambda_d}\right)$

A Gibbs Sampling Algorithm

Infer the joint distribution

 $q(\eta, \lambda, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) = \frac{p_0(\eta, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) p(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) \phi(\mathbf{y}, \lambda | \mathbf{Z}, \eta)}{\psi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})}$

A Gibbs sampling algorithm iterates over:
Sample η^{t+1} ~ q(η|λ^t, Θ^t, Z^t, Φ^t) ∝ p₀(η)φ(y, λ^t|Z^t, η)
a Gaussian distribution when the prior is Gaussian
Sample λ^{t+1} ~ q(λ|η^{t+1}, Θ^t, Z^t, Φ^t) ∝ φ(y, λ|Z^t, η^{t+1})
a generalized inverse Gaussian distribution, i.e., λ⁻¹ follows inverse Gaussian
Sample (Θ, Z, Φ)^{t+1} ~ p(Θ, Z, Φ|η^{t+1}, λ^{t+1}) ∝ p₀(Θ, Z, Φ)p(W|Z, Φ)φ(y, λ^{t+1}|Z, η^{t+1})

• a supervised LDA model with closed-form local conditionals by exploring data independency.

A Collapsed Gibbs Sampling Algorithm

The collapsed joint distribution

$$q(\eta, \lambda, \mathbf{Z}) = \int q(\eta, \lambda, \Theta, \mathbf{Z}, \Phi) d\Theta d\Phi$$

A Gibbs sampling algorithm iterates over:
Sample η^{t+1} ~ q(η|λ^t, Z^t) ∝ p₀(η)φ(y, λ^t|Z^t, η)
a Gaussian distribution when the prior is Gaussian
Sample λ^{t+1} ~ q(λ|η^{t+1}, Z^t) ∝ φ(y, λ|Z^t, η^{t+1})
a generalized inverse Gaussian distribution, i.e., λ⁻¹ follows inverse Gaussian
Sample Z^{t+1} ~ q(Z|η^{t+1}, λ^{t+1}) ∝ ∫ p₀(Θ, Z, Φ)p(W|Z, Φ)φ(y, λ^{t+1}|Z, η^{t+1})dΘdΦ

closed-form local conditionals

$$q(z_{dn}^k = 1 | \mathbf{Z}_{\neg}, \eta, \lambda, w_{dn} = t)$$

The Collapsed Gibbs Sampling Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Collapsed Gibbs Sampling Algorithm

- 1: **Initialization:** set $\lambda = 1$ and randomly draw z_{dk} from a uniform distribution.
- 2: for m = 1 to M do
- 3: draw the classifier from the normal distribution (11)
- 4: for d = 1 to D do
- 5: for each word n in document d do
- 6: draw the topic using distribution (12)
- 7: end for
- 8: draw λ_d^{-1} (and thus λ_d) from distribution (13).
- 9: end for

10: **end for**

Easy to Parallelize

Some Analysis

The Markov chain is guaranteed to converge

Per-iteration time complexity

 $\mathcal{O}(K^3 + N_{total}K)$

• N_{total} the total number of words

Experiments

20Newsgroups binary classification



Experiments

Sensitivity to burn-in: binary classification



Experiments

Leverage big clusters

Allow learning big models that can't fit on a single machine



[Zhu, Zheng, Zhou, & Zhang, KDD2013]

Summary

- Bayesian methods are highly relevant in learning with big data;
- Topic models are a suitable of statistical models for extracting semantic meanings from large corpora;
- Many developments beyond LDA