Scalable Bayesian Inference for Inverse Problems

Cheng Zhang Joint work with Babak Shahbaba and Hongkai Zhao February 25, 2019

Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center

Introduction

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta)$

- *G*: observation operator (forward model)
- y: observed data

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta)$

- *G*: observation operator (forward model)
- y: observed data

Examples

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta)$

- *G*: observation operator (forward model)
- y: observed data

Examples

• Linear regression: $\mathcal{G}(\theta) = A\theta$

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta)$

- G: observation operator (forward model)
- y: observed data

Examples

- Linear regression: $\mathcal{G}(\theta) = A\theta$
- Elliptic Inverse Problem

$$-\nabla \cdot (e^{\theta} \nabla u) = f, \quad x \in D$$
$$u = \phi, \quad x \in \partial D$$

 $\mathcal{G}(\theta) = l(u_{\theta})$, where *l* is some linear functional of u_{θ} .

Least-square

$$\underset{\theta \in X}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \| y - \mathcal{G}(\theta) \|_{Y}^{2}$$

Least-square + regularization

$$\underset{\theta \in X}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \|y - \mathcal{G}(\theta)\|_{Y}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \|\theta - \theta_{0}\|^{2}$$

Least-square + regularization

$$\underset{\theta \in X}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{2} \|y - \mathcal{G}(\theta)\|_{Y}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \|\theta - \theta_{0}\|^{2}$$

However, choice of norms and regularization are somewhat arbitrary.

A more appropriate model with noisy observations

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta) + \eta$

• η : observational noise

A more appropriate model with noisy observations

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta) + \eta$

• η : observational noise

Suppose $\eta \sim \rho(\eta)$, the data likelihood is

 $p(y|\theta) = \rho(y - \mathcal{G}(\theta))$

A more appropriate model with noisy observations

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta) + \eta$

• η : observational noise

Suppose $\eta \sim \rho(\eta)$, the data likelihood is

 $p(y|\theta) = \rho(y - \mathcal{G}(\theta))$

Given prior $\theta \sim p(\theta)$, the **posterior** is

 $p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta) = \rho(y - \mathcal{G}(\theta))p(\theta)$

A more appropriate model with noisy observations

 $y = \mathcal{G}(\theta) + \eta$

• η : observational noise

Suppose $\eta \sim \rho(\eta)$, the data likelihood is

 $p(y|\theta) = \rho(y - \mathcal{G}(\theta))$

Given prior $\theta \sim p(\theta)$, the **posterior** is

 $p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta) = \rho(y - \mathcal{G}(\theta))p(\theta)$

Remark: classical approach (with regularization) can be viewed as *maximum a posterior estimate* (MAP).

Metropolis-Hastings

- · draw a sample $\theta' \sim q(\theta'|\theta)$
- accept with probability $\alpha(\theta'|\theta) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(\theta'|y)q(\theta|\theta')}{p(\theta|y)q(\theta'|\theta)}\right)$.

Simple MCMCs are not efficient when parameters are correlated.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo

Metropolis-Hastings

- · draw a sample $\theta' \sim q(\theta'|\theta)$
- accept with probability $\alpha(\theta'|\theta) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(\theta'|y)q(\theta|\theta')}{p(\theta|y)q(\theta'|\theta)}\right)$.

Simple MCMCs are not efficient when parameters are correlated. Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

$$H(\theta, r) = -\log p(\theta|y) + \frac{1}{2}r^{T}M^{-1}r \Leftrightarrow p(\theta, r) = p(\theta|y) \cdot \mathcal{N}(r|0, M)$$

- · draw an auxiliary momentum $r \sim \mathcal{N}(0, M)$
- simulate the Hamiltonian dynamics: $(\theta, r) \rightarrow (\theta', r')$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \nabla_r H, \quad \frac{dr}{dt} = -\nabla_\theta H$$

 $\cdot\,$ accept with probability

 $\alpha(\theta', r'|\theta, r) = \min(1, \exp[H(\theta, r) - H(\theta', r')])$

Scalable Bayesian inference via Surrogate Methods

Potential energy function

$$U(\theta) \triangleq -\log p(\theta|y)$$

= - log p(y - G(\theta)) - log p(\theta)

Challenges

- · dependency on θ is unknown, complicated posterior
- forward model $\mathcal{G}(\theta)$ is computationally expensive, $U(\theta), \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta)$ are hard to evaluate

Idea: exploit the regularity of the probabilistic model

Surrogate Methods

Idea: exploit the regularity of the probabilistic model



Surrogate Methods

Idea: exploit the regularity of the probabilistic model



Surrogate Methods

Idea: exploit the regularity of the probabilistic model

 $U(\theta) \approx U^{S}(\theta), \quad \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta) \approx \nabla_{\theta}U^{S}(\theta)$



Idea: exploit the regularity of the probabilistic model

 $U(\theta) \approx U^{\mathrm{S}}(\theta), \quad \nabla_{\theta} U(\theta) \approx \nabla_{\theta} U^{\mathrm{S}}(\theta)$



First suggested by Neal, Liu in 90s. Examples: Gaussian Processes (Rasmussen 2003, Lan et al 2016), Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces (Strathmann et al 2015), Random Networks/Bases (Zhang et al 2017).

$$U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \psi_{i}a(\theta;\gamma_{i}), \quad \gamma_{i} \sim q(\gamma)$$

Train by matching the function values or gradient values
potential matching score matching
$$\hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi,b} \sum_{j=1}^{M} \|U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - U(\theta_{j}) - b\|^{2} \qquad \hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi} \sum_{j=1}^{M} \|\nabla_{\theta}U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta_{j})\|^{2}$$

where $T = \{\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_M\}$ is the training set (e.g., data from burn-in).

$$U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \psi_{i}a(\theta;\gamma_{i}), \quad \gamma_{i} \sim q(\gamma)$$

Train by matching the function values or gradient values
potential matching score matching
$$\hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi,b} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - U(\theta_{j}) - b||^{2} \qquad \hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||\nabla_{\theta}U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta_{j})||^{2}$$

where $T = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_M\}$ is the training set (e.g., data from burn-in). Why use random bases?

$$U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \psi_{i}a(\theta;\gamma_{i}), \quad \gamma_{i} \sim q(\gamma)$$

Train by matching the function values or gradient values
potential matching score matching
$$\hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi,b} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - U(\theta_{j}) - b||^{2} \qquad \hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||\nabla_{\theta}U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta_{j})||^{2}$$

where $T = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_M\}$ is the training set (e.g., data from burn-in). Why use random bases?

• scales linearly with *M*, while *GP*s and *RKHS* scale cubically.

$$U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \psi_{i}a(\theta;\gamma_{i}), \quad \gamma_{i} \sim q(\gamma)$$

Train by matching the function values or gradient values
potential matching score matching
$$\hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi,b} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - U(\theta_{j}) - b||^{2} \qquad \hat{\psi} = \arg\min_{\psi} \sum_{j=1}^{M} ||\nabla_{\theta}U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta_{j}) - \nabla_{\theta}U(\theta_{j})||^{2}$$

where $T = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_M\}$ is the training set (e.g., data from burn-in). Why use random bases?

- scales linearly with *M*, while *GP*s and *RKHS* scale cubically.
- theoretical guarantee for good approximation (Rahimi and Recht 2008): $\forall f$, with probability 1δ , $\exists \psi$ s.t.

$$\|U_{\psi}^{\mathsf{S}} - f\| \le \frac{\|f\|}{\sqrt{\mathsf{S}}} \left(1 + \sqrt{2\log\frac{1}{\delta}}\right)$$

Surrogate Induced Hamiltonian Flow

Define $H^{S}_{\psi}(\theta, r) = U^{S}_{\psi}(\theta) + \frac{1}{2}r^{T}M^{-1}r$, surrogate induced Hamilton's equations

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = M^{-1}r, \quad \frac{dr}{dt} = -\nabla_{\theta}U_{\psi}^{S}(\theta)$$

Surrogate Induced Hamiltonian Flow

Define $H^{S}_{\psi}(\theta, r) = U^{S}_{\psi}(\theta) + \frac{1}{2}r^{T}M^{-1}r$, surrogate induced Hamilton's equations

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = M^{-1}r, \quad \frac{dr}{dt} = -\nabla_{\theta}U^{S}_{\psi}(\theta)$$



An Elliptic PDE Inverse Problem

Let κ be the diffusion function and u be the pressure field

$$\begin{aligned} & -\nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla u) = 0, \quad x \in [0,1]^2 \\ & u(x_1,0) = x_1, \ u(x_1,1) = 1 - x_1, \ \partial_{x_1} u(0,x_2) = \partial_{x_1} u(1,x_2) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

A log-Gaussian prior is used for κ

$$K(x,y) = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{\|x-y\|_2^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

parameterize diffusivity field with Karhunen-Loeve (K-L) expansion

$$\kappa_{\theta}(x) \approx \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_i \sqrt{\lambda_i} v_i(x)\right)$$

noisy observations

$$y_j = u_\theta(x_j) + \eta_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, J$$

Table 1: Comparing HMC, Riemannian Manifold HMC (RMHMC) and random basessurrogate accelerations. For each method, we provide the acceptance probability (AP),the effective sample size (ESS), the CPU time (s) for each iteration and thetime-normalized ESS.

| Method | AP | ESS | s/Iter | min(ESS)/s | spdup |
|-----------|------|------------------|--------|------------|-------|
| HMC | 0.91 | (4533,5000,5000) | 0.775 | 1.17 | 1 |
| RMHMC | 0.80 | (5000,5000,5000) | 4.388 | 0.23 | 0.20 |
| RNS-HMC | 0.75 | (2306,3034,3516) | 0.066 | 7.10 | 6.07 |
| RNS-RMHMC | 0.66 | (2126,4052,5000) | 0.097 | 4.38 | 3.74 |

Adaptive Training



Conclusion

- We proposed **random bases surrogate methods**, an efficient scalable Bayesian approach for inverse problems.
- Random bases surrogates properly **exploit regularity** of probabilistic models, and remain **data efficient**. More efficiency can be obtained when used **adaptively**.
- Surrogate methods can be used for big data problems as well. Moreover, surrogate methods lead to a natural combination of variational inference and MCMC (Zhang et al 2018).
- We can incorporate more flexible approximating architectures in surrogate construction.

Questions?

Bias, Variance, and Computation Trade-off

