Modern Computational Statistics

Lecture 9: Scalable MCMC



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Motivation

- ► Large scale datasets are becoming more commonly available across many fields. Learning complex models from these datasets is the future
- ▶ While many modern MCMC methods have been proposed in recent years, they usually require expensive computation when the data size is large
- ▶ In this lecture, we will discuss recent development on Markov chain Monte Carlo methods that are applicable to large scale datasets
 - Best of both worlds: scalability, and Bayesian protection against overfitting



 Stochastic differential equations are widely used to model dynamical systems with noise

$$dX_t = \mu(X_t, t)dt + \sigma(X_t, t)dB_t$$

where B denotes a Wiener process/Brownian motion

- ▶ Now suppose the probability density for X_t is p(x,t), we are interested in how p(x,t) evolves along time
- ► For example, does it converge to some distribution? If it does, how can we find it out?



Fokker-Planck Equation

• It turns out the p(x,t) satisfies the Fokker-Planck equation (also known as the Kolmogorov forward equation)

$$\frac{\partial p(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\sum_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}} (\mu_{i}(x,t)p(x,t)) + \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{i}\partial x_{j}} (D_{ij}(x,t)p(x,t))$$

where $D = \frac{1}{2}\sigma\sigma^T$ is the diffuse tensor

► Example: Weiner process $dX_t = dB_t$

$$\frac{\partial p(x,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} p(x,t)$$

If $p(x,0) = \delta(x)$, the solution is $p(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2t}}$



Challenges From Massive Datasets

▶ Suppose that we have a large number of data items

$$\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$$

where $N\gg 1$

▶ The log-posterior (up to a constant) is

$$\log p(\theta|X) = \log p(\theta) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(x_i|\theta) \sim \mathcal{O}(N)$$

▶ How to reduce this computation in MCMC without damaging the convergence to the target distribution?



Stochastic Gradient Ascent

▶ Also known as stochastic approximation

- ► At each iteration
 - Get a subset (minibatch) x_{t_1}, \ldots, x_{t_n} of data items where $n \ll N$
 - ▶ Approximate gradient of log-posterior using the subset

$$\nabla \log p(\theta_t | X) \approx \nabla \log p(\theta_t) + \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla \log p(x_{t_i} | \theta_t)$$

Take a gradient step

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \frac{\epsilon_t}{2} \left(\nabla \log p(\theta_t) + \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla \log p(x_{t_i} | \theta_t) \right)$$



▶ Major requirement for convergence on step-sizes

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_t = \infty, \quad \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \epsilon_t^2 < \infty$$

Intuition

- Step sizes cannot decrease too fast, otherwise will not be able to explore parameter space
- Step sizes must decrease to zero, otherwise will not converge to a local mode



First Order Langevin Dynamics

► First order Langevin dynamics can be described by the following stochastic different equation

$$d\theta_t = \frac{1}{2}\nabla \log p(\theta_t | X)dt + dB_t$$

- The above dynamical system converges to the target distribution $p(\theta|X)$ (easy to verify via the Fokker-Planck equation)
- Intuition
 - Gradient term encourages dynamics to spend more time in high probability areas
 - Brownian motion provides noise so that dynamics will explore the whole parameter space



► First order Euler discretization

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \nabla \log p(\theta_t | X) + \eta_t, \quad \eta_t = \mathcal{N}(0, \epsilon)$$

- ▶ Amount of noise is balanced to gradient step size
- ▶ With finite step size, there will be discretization errors. We can add MH correction step to fix it, and this is MALA!
- As step size $\epsilon \to 0$, acceptance rate goes to 1



Stochastic Gradient Langevin Dynamics

- ▶ Introduced by Welling and Teh (2011)
- ▶ Idea: use stochastic gradients in Langevin dynamics

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \frac{\epsilon_t}{2}g(\theta_t) + \eta_t, \quad \eta_t = \mathcal{N}(0, \epsilon_t)$$
$$g(\theta_t) = \nabla \log p(\theta_t) + \frac{N}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla \log p(x_{t_i}|\theta_t)$$

- Update is just stochastic gradient ascent plus Gaussian noise
- ▶ Noise variance is balanced with gradient step sizes
- require step size ϵ_t decrease to 0 slowly



Why SGLD Works?

• Controllable stochastic gradient noise. The stochastic gradient estimate $g(\theta_t)$ is unbiased, but it introduces noise

$$g(\theta_t) = \nabla \log p(\theta|X) + \mathcal{N}(0, V(\theta_t))$$

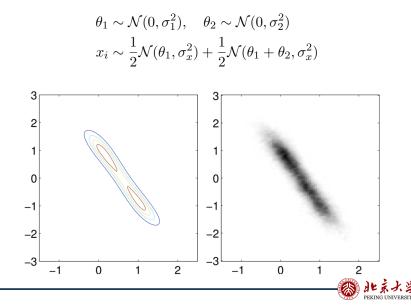
• Stochastic gradient noise $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_t^2))$

• Injected noise $\eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \epsilon_t)$

- When $\epsilon_t \to 0$
 - Stochastic gradient noise will be dominated by injected noise η_t , so can be ignored. SGLD then recovers Langevin dynamics updates with decreasing step sizes
 - ▶ MH acceptance probability approaches 1, so we can ignore the expensive MH correction step
 - If ϵ_t approaches 0 slowly enough, the discretized Langevin dynamics is still able to explore the whole parameter space



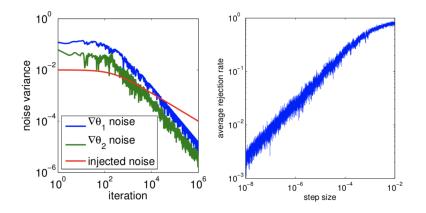
Examples: Mixture of Gaussian



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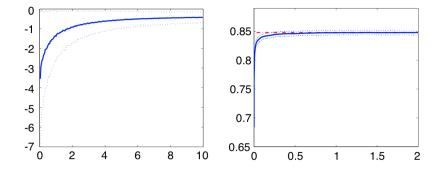
Examples: Mixture of Gaussian

Noise and rejection probability





Examples: Logistic Regression



Log probability vs epoches

Test accuracy vs epoches



Naive Stochastic Gradient HMC

▶ Now that stochastic gradient scales MALA, it seems straightforward to use stochastic gradient for HMC

$$d\theta = M^{-1}rdt$$

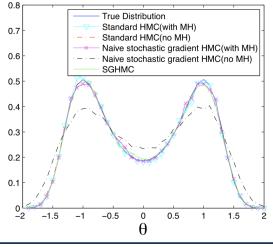
$$dr = g(\theta)dt = -\nabla U(\theta)dt + \sqrt{\epsilon V(\theta)}dB_t$$

- However, the resulting dynamics does not leave $p(\theta, r)$ invariant (can be verified via Fokker-Planck equation)
- ▶ This deviation can be saved by MH correction, but that leads to a complex computation vs efficiency trade-off
 - Short runs reduce deviation, but requires more expensive HM steps and does not full utilize the exploration of the Hamiltonian dynamics
 - Long runs lead to low acceptance rates, waste of computation



Example: Naive Stochastic Gradient HMC Fails 16/37

$$U(\theta) = -2\theta^2 + \theta^4$$





Second Order Langevin Dynamics

• We can introduce friction into the dynamical system to reduce the influence of the gradient noise, which leads to the second order Langevin dynamics

$$d\theta = M^{-1}rdt$$

$$dr = -\nabla U(\theta)dt - CM^{-1}rdt + \sqrt{2C}dB_t$$
(1)

• Consider the joint space $z = (\theta, r)$, rewrite (1)

$$dz = -[D+G]\nabla H(z)dt + \sqrt{2D}dB_t$$

where

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -I \\ I & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & C \end{bmatrix}$$

► $p(\theta, r) \propto \exp(-H(\theta, r))$ is the unique stationary distribution of (1)



Stochastic Gradient HMC

- ▶ Introduced by Chen et al (2014)
- ▶ Use stochastic gradient in the second order Langevin dynamics. In each iteration
 - ► resample momentum $r^{(t)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, M)$ (optional), $(\theta_0, r_0) = (\theta^{(t)}, r^{(t)})$

▶ simulate dynamics in (1)

$$\theta_i = \theta_{i-1} + \epsilon_t M^{-1} r_{i-1}$$

$$r_i = r_{i-1} + \epsilon_t g(\theta_i) - \epsilon_t C M^{-1} r_{i-1} + \mathcal{N}(0, 2C\epsilon_t)$$

- ▶ update the parameter $(\theta^{(t+1)}, r^{(t+1)}) = (\theta_m, r_m)$, no MH correction step
- ▶ Similarly, the stochastic gradient noise is controllable, and when $\epsilon_t \rightarrow 0$, **SGHMC** recovers the second order Langevin dynamics



Connection to SGD With Momentum

• Let $v = \epsilon M^{-1}r$, we can rewrite the update rule in SGHMC $\Delta v = \epsilon^2 M^{-1}g(\theta) - \epsilon M^{-1}Cv + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon^3 M^{-1}CM^{-1})$ $\Delta \theta = v$

▶ Define $\eta = \epsilon^2 M^{-1}$, $\alpha = \epsilon M^{-1}C$, the update rule becomes

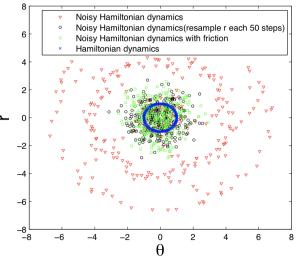
$$\Delta v = \eta g(\theta) - \alpha v + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\alpha \eta)$$
$$\Delta \theta = v$$

- If we ignore the noise term, this is basically SGD with momentum where η is the learning rate and 1α the momentum coefficient
- This connection can be used to guide our choices of SGHMC hyper-parameters



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Examples: Univariate Standard Normal

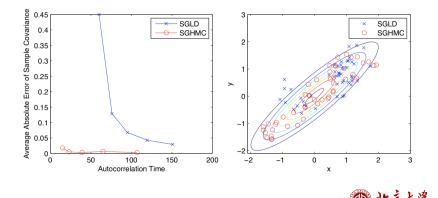


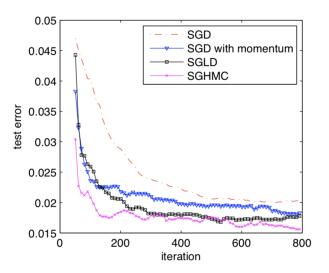


Examples: Bivariate Gaussain With Correlation 21/37

SGHMC vs SGLD on a bivariate Gaussian with correlation

$$U(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}\theta^T \Sigma^{-1}\theta, \quad \Sigma^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9\\ 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$









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 Stochastic gradient in SGHMC introduces noise. With step size *ϵ*, the corresponding dynamics is

$$d\theta = M^{-1} r dt$$
$$dr = -\nabla U(\theta) dt - CM^{-1} dt + \sqrt{2(C + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon V(\theta))} dB_t$$

- If somehow we correct the mismatch between friction coefficient and the real noise level, we can improve the approximation accuracy for a finite ϵ
- But how can we do that given that the noise $V(\theta)$ is unknown?



Nosé-Hoover Thermostat

• One missing key fact is the thermal equilibrium condition:

$$p(\theta, r) \propto \exp\left(-(U(\theta) + K(r))/T\right) \Rightarrow T = \frac{1}{d}\mathbb{E}(r^T r)$$

- ▶ Unfortunately, using stochastic gradients destroys the thermal equilibrium condition
- We can introduce an additional variable ξ that adaptively controls the mean kinetic energy, and use the following dynamics

$$d\theta = rdt, \quad dr = g(\theta)dt - \xi rdt + \sqrt{2A}dB_t$$
$$d\xi = (\frac{1}{n}r^Tr - 1)dt \tag{2}$$

(2) is known as the Nosé-Hoover thermostat in statistical physics.

Stochastic Gradient Nosé-Hoover Thermostat

- ▶ Introduced by Ding et al (2014)
- \blacktriangleright The algorithm
 - Initialized $\theta_0, r_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$, and $\xi_0 = A$

• For
$$t = 1, 2, ...$$

$$r_t = r_{t-1} + \epsilon_t g(\theta_{t-1}) - \epsilon_t \xi_{t-1} r_{t-1} + \sqrt{2AN(0,\epsilon)}$$
$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + \epsilon_t r_t$$
$$\xi_t = \xi_{t-1} + \epsilon_t ((r^{(t)})^T r^{(t)}/d - 1)$$

- The thermostat ξ helps to adjust the friction according to the real noise level, and maintains the right mean kinetic energy
 - \blacktriangleright When mean kinetic energy is high, ξ get bigger, increasing friction to cool down the system
 - When mean kinetic energy is low, ξ get smaller, reducing friction to heat up the system

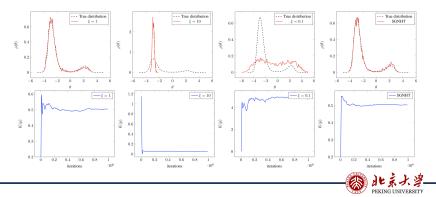


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Example: A Double-well Potential

$$\begin{split} U(\theta) &= (\theta+4)(\theta+1)(\theta-1)(\theta-3)/14 + 0.5\\ g(\theta)\epsilon &= -\nabla U(\theta)\epsilon + \mathcal{N}(0,2B\epsilon), \quad \epsilon = 0.01, B = 1 \end{split}$$

For SGNHT, we set A = 0



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Mathematical Foundation

• Consider the following stochastic differential equation $d\Gamma = v(\Gamma)dt + \mathcal{N}(0, 2D(\theta)dt)$

where $\Gamma = (\theta, r, \xi)$.

• $p(\Gamma) \propto \exp(-H(\Gamma))$ is the stationary distribution if

$$\nabla \cdot (p(\Gamma)v(\Gamma)) = \nabla \nabla^T : (p(\Gamma)D)$$

We can construct H such that the marginal distribution is $p(\theta) \propto \exp(-U(\theta))$.

► For SGNHT, $H(\Gamma) = U(\theta) + \frac{1}{2}r^Tr + \frac{d}{2}(\xi - A)^2$

$$v(\Gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} r \\ -\nabla U(\theta) - \xi r \\ r^T r/d - 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad D(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



A Recipe for Continuous Dynamics MCMC

- ▶ Introduced by Ma et al (2015)
- Assume target distribution $p(\theta|X)$ is the marginal distribution of $p(z) \propto \exp(-H(z))$
- ▶ We consider the following stochastic differential equation

$$dz = -(D(z) + Q(z))\nabla H(z)dt + \Gamma(z)dt + \sqrt{2D(z)}dB_t$$

$$\Gamma_i(z) = \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{\partial}{\partial z_j} (D_{ij}(z) + Q_{ij}(z))$$

▶ Q(z) is a skew-symmetric curl matrix

▶ D(z) denotes the positive semidefinite diffusion matrix

▶ The above dynamics leaves p(z) invariant

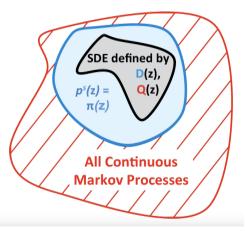


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The Recipe is Complete

All existing samplers can be written in framework

- ► HMC
- ▶ Riemannian HMC
- Langevin Dynamics (LD)
- ▶ Riemannian LD



Adapted from Emily Fox 2017

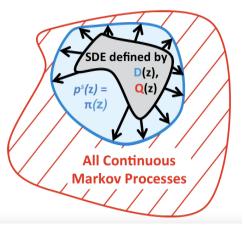


The Recipe is Complete

All existing samplers can be written in framework

- ► HMC
- ▶ Riemannian HMC
- Langevin Dynamics (LD)
- ▶ Riemannian LD

Any valid sampler has a D and Q in the framework



Adapted from Emily Fox 2017



A Practical Algorithm

• Consider ϵ -discretization

 $z_{t+1} = z_t - \epsilon_t ((D(z_t) + Q(z_t)) \nabla H(z_t) + \Gamma(z_t)) + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon_t D(z_t))$

► The gradient computation in $\nabla H(z_t)$ could be expansive, can be replaced with stochastic gradient $\nabla \tilde{H}(z_t)$

$$z_{t+1} = z_t - \epsilon_t ((D(z_t) + Q(z_t)) \nabla \tilde{H}(z_t) + \Gamma(z_t)) + \mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon_t D(z_t))$$

▶ The gradient noise is still controllable

$$\nabla \tilde{H}(z_t) = \nabla H(z_t) + (\mathcal{N}(0, V(\theta)), 0)^T$$

stochastic gradient noise ~ \$\mathcal{N}(0, \epsilon_t^2 V(\theta))\$
 injected noise ~ \$\mathcal{N}(0, 2\epsilon_t D(z_t))\$



Stochastic Gradient Riemann HMC

- ► As shown before, previous stochastic gradient MCMC algorithms all cast into this framework
- ▶ Moreover, the framework helps to develop new samplers without requiring significant physical intuition
- Consider $H(\theta, r) = U(\theta) + \frac{1}{2}r^T r$, modify *D* and *Q* to account for the geometry

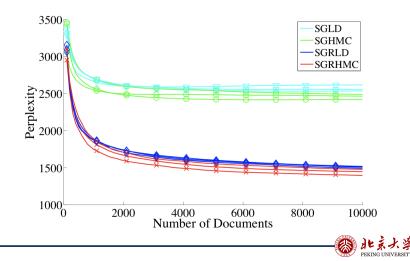
$$D(\theta, r) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & G(\theta)^{-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad Q(\theta, r) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -G(\theta)^{-1/2} \\ G(\theta)^{-1/2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that this works for any positive definite $G(\theta)$, not just the fisher information metric



Streaming Wikipedia Analysis

Applied SGRHMC to online LDA - each entry was analyzed on the fly



Alternative Methods for Scalable MCMC

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- ▶ Reduce the computation in MH correction step via subsets of data (Korattikara et al 2014)
- Divide and conquer: divide the entire data set into small chunks, run MCMC in parallel for these subsets of data, and merge the results for the true posterior approximation (Scott et al 2016)
- ▶ Using deterministic approximation instead of stochastic gradients. This may introduce some bias, but remove the unknown noise for gradient estimation, allowing for better exploration efficiency
 - ► Gaussian processes: Rasmussen 2003, Lan et al 2016
 - ▶ Reproducing kernel Hilbert space: Strathmann et al 2015
 - ▶ Random Bases: Zhang et al 2017



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