CPSC 440/540: Advanced Machine Learning End-to-End Learning, Exponential Families

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Last time: Rejection+Importance Sampling, Laplace Approximation

- $\bullet\,$ Mostly, we want to estimate $\mathbb{E}_{X\sim p}\,f(X)$ for some f
 - $\bullet\,$ Indicators of events, conditional probabilities, mean / variance, \ldots
- Rejection sampling finds exact samples from p, then $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p} f(x) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} f(x^{i})$
 - Propose from q(x), know $M \ge \max_x \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{q(x)}$; then accept with probability $\frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Mq(x)}$
 - High rejection rate if q "far from" p (e.g. in high dimensions)
- Importance sampling gets weighted "samples", then $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p} f(x) \approx \sum_{i} w^{i} f(x^{i})$
 - Sample $x^i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} q(x),$ weight $w^i = p(x^i)/(nq(x^i))$
 - If we only know $\tilde{w}^i=\tilde{p}(x^i)/q(x^i),$ self-normalized IS uses $\hat{w}^i=\tilde{w}^i/(\sum_j\tilde{w}^j)$
 - High variance (and, for self-norm, high bias) if q far from p (e.g. in high dimensions)
- Laplace approximation with a Gaussian q, then $\mathbb{E}_{X \sim p} f(X) \approx \mathbb{E}_{X \sim q} f(X)$
 - Find $x^* = \arg \max_x p(x)$, use $q = \mathcal{N}\left(x^*, \left(\nabla_x^2 [-\log p(x)]\Big|_{x^*}\right)^{-1}\right)$
 - $\bullet\,$ Fast but can be very bad if p doesn't look like a Gaussian near its mode

Outline



2 Exponential Families

Motivating Problem: Depth Estimation from Images

• We want to predict "distance to car" for each pixel in an image.



https://paperswithcode.com/task/3d-depth-estimation

- We might consider using fully-convolutional networks.
 - But we now have multiple continuous labels.

Neural Network with Continuos Outputs

• Standard neural network with multiple continuous outputs (3 hidden layers):

$$\hat{y}^i = Vh(W^3h(W^2h(W^1x^i))), \quad \text{so} \quad \hat{y}^i_c = v^T_ch(W^3h(W^2h(W^1x^i))).$$

• Standard training objective is to minimize squared error,

$$f(W^1, W^2, W^3, V) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{c=1}^k (y_c^i - \hat{y}_c^i)^2.$$

• This corresponds to MLE in a network that outputs the mean of a Gaussian,

$$y^i \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{y}^i, \mathbf{I}).$$

• As usual, we only need to change the last layer to change output type.

Neural Networks with Covariances

bonus!

• The neural network could also parameterize the variance,

$$y^i \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{y}^i, S(W^3h(W^2h(W^1x^i)))),$$

where the function ${\boldsymbol S}$ transforms the hidden layer into a positive-definite matrix.

- So inferences over multiple variables will capture the label's pairwise correlations.
 - For depth estimation, neighbouring pixels are likely to have similar depths.
- Common choices for S:
 - S parameterizes a diagonal matrix D (may output $\log(\sigma_c)$ values to make positive).
 - S parameterizes a square root matrix A, such that $\Sigma = AA^T$.
- We could also consider Bayesian neural networks.
 - Where you might use a Laplace approximation of the posterior.
 - Though the matrix $\nabla^2 f(W^3, W^2, W^1, V)$ may be too large and will be singular.

Object Localization

- Object localization is task of finding locations of objects:
 - Input is an image.
 - Output is a bounding box for each object (among predefined classes).



Region Convolutional Neural Networks: "Pipeline" Approach



- Early approach (region CNN) resemble classic computer vision "pipelines":
 - Propose a bunch of potential boxes (based on segmenting image in various ways).
 - **2** Compute features of each box using a CNN (after re-shaping box to standard size).
 - Olassify boxes using SVMs (max pool among regions with high overlap).
 - Refine each box using linear regression on CNN features.
 - 4 continuous outputs: center x-coordinate, center y-coordinate, log-width, log-height.



R-CNN: Regions with CNN features

https://arxiv.org/pdf/1311.2524.pdf

• Improved on state of the art, but slow and there are 4 parts to train.

Fast R-CNNs



- R-CNN was quickly replaced by fast R-CNN:
 - Propose a bunch of potential bounding boxes (same as before).
 - Apply CNN to whole image, then get features of bounding boxes.
 - Faster than applying CNN to 2000 candidate regions.
 - Make softmax (over k + 1 classes) and bounding box regression part of network.
 - More accurate since are parts are trained together.



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1504.08083.pdf

• Most parts trained together, but bounding box proposals do not use encoding.

Faster R-CNNs



- Faster R-CNNs made generating bounding boxes part of the network.
 - Uses region-proposal network as part of network to predict potential bounding boxes.
 - Many implementation details required to get it working.



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1506.01497.pdf

• With all steps being part of one network, this called an end-to-end model.

YOLO: You Only Look Once

• A more-recent variant that further speeds things up is YOLO:



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1506.02640.pdf

- Divides image into grid.
- Directly predict properties for a fixed number of bounding boxes for grid box:
 - Probability that box is an object (for pruning set of possible boxes).
 - Box x-coordinate, y-coordinate, width, height.
 - Class of box (no separate phase of "proposing boxes" and "classifying boxes").
- Max pooling ("non-max suppression").
- Reasonably-accurate real-time object detection (with fancy-enough hardware).

Instance Segmentation and Pose Estimation

bonus!

- Can add extra predictions to these networks.
- For example, mask R-CNNs add instance segmentation and/or pose estimation:



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1703.06870.pdf

- Instance segmentation applies binary mask to bounding boxes (pixel labels).
- Pose estimation predicts continuous joint keypoint locations.

End-to-End Computer Vision Models

- Key ideas behind end-to-end systems:
 - Write each step as a differentiable operator.
 - Irain all steps using backpropagation and stochastic gradient.
- Has been called differentiable programming.
- There now exist end-to-end models for all the standard vision tasks.
 - Depth estimation, pose estimation, optical flow, tracking, 3D geometry, and so on.
 - A bit hard to track the progress at the moment.
 - A survey of ≈ 200 papers from 2016 (has only grown since):
 - http://www.themtank.org/a-year-in-computer-vision
- Pose estimation video: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pW6nZXeWlGM
- Making 60-fps high-resolution colour version of videos from 120 year ago:
 - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YZuP41ALx_Q

End of Part 3 ("Gaussian Variables"): Key Concepts

- We discussed continuous density estimation with multivariate Gaussians.
 - Parameterized by mean vector and positive definite covariance matrix.
 - Assumes distribution is uni-modal, no outliers, untruncated.
 - And symmetric around principle axes.
 - "Gaussianity" is preserved under many operations.
 - Addition, marginalization, conditionining, product of densities.
- We discussed conditional independence in Gaussians.
 - Models correlations between variables where $\Sigma_{ij} \neq 0$.
 - Diagonal covariance corresponds to assuming variables all variables are independent.
 - We define a graph based on the Θ_{ij} values.
 - If variables are blocked in graph, implies conditional independence.

End of Part 3 ("Gaussian Variables"): Key Concepts

- We discussed several methods for sampling and/or Monte Carlo:
 - Inverse transform method uses inverse of CDF to sample continuos densities.
 - Rejection sampling rejects samples from a simpler distribution.
 - Importance sampling reweights samples from a simpler distribution.
- We discussed learning in Gaussians.
 - Closed-form MLE given by data's mean and variance.
 - Conjugate prior for mean in Gaussian.
 - Adding a scaled identity matrix to MLE gives positive-definite estimate.
 - Graphical Lasso allows learning sparse conditional independence graph.
- Gaussian discriminant analysis is generative classifer with Gaussian classes.
 - Does not need naive Bayes assumption.

End of Part 3 ("Gaussian Variables"): Key Concepts

- We discussed regression.
 - Supervised learning with continuous outputs.
 - Least squares with L2-regularization assumes Gaussian likelihood and prior.
- We discussed Bayesian linear regression.
 - Gives confidence in predictions.
 - Empirical Bayes can be used to set many hyper-parameters.
 - Automatic relevance determination: prefers simpler models that fit data well.
 - Laplace approximation can be used in non-conjugate settings.
 - Special case of a variational inference method (approximate with simpler distribution).
- We discussed end-to-end learning.
 - Try to write each step as a differentiable operation.
 - Train entire network with backprop and SGD.
 - We illustrated this with evolution of object localization in vision.

Outline





Previously: Density Estimation with Categorical/Gaussian Distributions

- We have discussed density estimation with categorical and Gaussian distribution.
 - Binary is special case of categorical.
- These distributions have a lot of nice properties for learning/inference.
 - NLL is convex, and MLE has closed-form (statistics in training data).
 - A conjugate prior exists, so posterior is prior with "updated hyper-parameters."
- But these distributions make restrictive assumptions:
 - Categorical assumes categories are unordered, non-hierarchical, and finite.
 - Gaussian assumes symmetry, full support, no outliers, uni-modal.
- Many alternatives to categorical/Gaussian exist (examples later).
 - Alternatives that are in the exponential family maintain nice properties.

Exponential Family: Definition

• General form of exponential family likelihood for data x with parameters θ is

$$p(x \mid \theta) = \frac{h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)^{\mathsf{T}} s(x))}{Z(\theta)}$$

- The value s(x) is the vector of sufficient statistics.
 - s(x) tells us everything that is relevant to θ about data x.
- The parameter function η controls how parameters θ interact with the statistics.
 - We'll focus a lot on $\eta(\theta) = \theta$, which is called the canonical form.
- The support function h contains terms that don't depend on θ .
 - Also called the base measure.
- The normalizing constant Z ensures it sums/integrates to 1 over x.
 - Also called the partition function.

Bernoulli as Exponential Family

• Is Bernoulli in the exponential family for some parameters w?

$$p(x \mid \theta) = \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{1 - x} \ \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0, 1\}) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{h(x) \exp(\eta(\theta)^{T} F(x))}{Z(\theta)}$$

• To get an exponential, take log of exp (cancelling operations),

$$p(x \mid \theta) = \theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{1 - x} \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0, 1\}) = \exp(\log(\theta^{x} (1 - \theta)^{1 - x})) \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0, 1\})$$

= $\exp(x \log \theta + (1 - x) \log(1 - \theta)) \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0, 1\})$
= $(1 - \theta) \exp\left(x \log\left(\frac{\theta}{1 - \theta}\right)\right) \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0, 1\}).$

- The sufficient statistic is s(x) = x and normalizing constant is $Z(\theta) = 1/(1-\theta)$.
- The parameter is $\eta(\theta) = \log(\theta/(1-\theta))$ (the log odds).
 - Not in canonical form. Canonical form would use log odds directly as the parameter.
- The support function is $h(x) = \mathbb{1}(x \in \{0,1\})$ says if we're "in the support".
- There are also other ways to write Bernoulli as an exponential family.

Gaussian as Exponential Family

• Writing univariate Gaussian as an exponential family:

$$p(x \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-x^2/2\sigma^2 + \mu x/\sigma^2 - \mu^2/2\sigma^2\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\exp\left(-\mu^2/2\sigma^2\right)}{\sigma} \exp\left(\left[\frac{\mu/\sigma^2}{-1/2\sigma^2}\right]^T \begin{bmatrix} x\\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}\right).$$

- The sufficient statistics are x and x², and canonical params are μ/σ^2 and $-1/2\sigma^2$
- The normalizing constant is $\sigma \exp(\mu^2/2\sigma^2)$, and support is $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$.
- Again, there is more than one way to represent as an exponential family.
 - If σ^2 is considered fixed, then x/σ^2 is the sufficient statistic and μ is canonical.

Learning with Exponential Families

p

• With n IID examples and canonical parameters θ , the likelihood is

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{X} \mid \theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} h(x^{i}) \frac{\exp(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} s(x^{i}))}{Z(\theta)} \\ &= \frac{1}{Z(\theta)^{n}} \exp\left(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} s(x^{i})\right) \prod_{j=1}^{n} h(x^{i}) \\ &= \frac{\exp(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} s(\mathbf{X}))}{Z(\theta)^{n}} \prod_{j=1}^{n} h(x^{i}), \end{aligned}$$

where the sufficient statistics are $s(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s(x^{i})$.

- $s(\mathbf{X})$ contain everything relevant for learning can throw away the actual data.
 - For Gaussians, only knowledge of data we need is $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{i}$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{i})^{2}$.
 - No point in using SGD: you just compute s on each example once.
 - Exponential families are the only class of distributions with a finite sufficient statistic.

Learning with Exponential Families

- With IID data and canonical θ , NLL is $f(\theta) = -\theta^{\mathsf{T}} s(\mathbf{X}) + n \log Z(\theta) + \text{const.}$
- $\bullet\,$ The gradient divided by n (average NLL) for a feature j is

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{n} \nabla_{\theta_j} f(\theta) &= -\frac{1}{n} s_j(\mathbf{X}) + \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \nabla_{\theta_j} Z(\theta) \\ &= -\frac{1}{n} s_j(\mathbf{X}) + \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \nabla_{\theta_j} \int h(x) \exp\left(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} s(x)\right) \mathrm{d}x \quad (\text{use } \sum \text{ for discrete } x) \\ &= -\frac{1}{n} s_j(\mathbf{X}) + \int_x h(x) \frac{\exp(\theta^{\mathsf{T}} s(\mathbf{X}))}{Z(\theta)} s_j(\mathbf{X}) \mathrm{d}x \qquad (\text{w/ conditions}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{n} s_j(\mathbf{X}) + \int_x p(x \mid \theta) s_j(x) \mathrm{d}x \\ &= -\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathsf{data}}[s_j(X)] + \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \mathsf{model}}[s_j(X)]. \end{split}$$

- The stationary points where $\nabla f(\theta) = 0$ correspond to moment matching:
 - Set parameters θ so that expected sufficient statistics equal to statistics in data.
 - This is the source of the simple/intuitive closed-form MLEs we've seen so far.

Convexity and Entropy in Exponential Families



• If you take the second derivative of the NLL you get

 $\nabla^2 f(\theta) = \operatorname{Cov}[s(X)],$

the covariance of the sufficient statistics.

- Covariances are positive semi-definite, $\operatorname{Cov}[s(X)] \succeq 0$, so NLL is convex.
- This is why "setting the gradient to zero and solve for θ " gives MLE.
- Higher-order derivatives give higher-order moments.
 - We call $\log(Z)$ the cumulant function.
- Can show MLE maximizes entropy over all distributions that match moments.
 - Entropy is a measure of "how random" a distribution is.
 - So Gaussian is "most random" distribution that fits means and covariance of data.
 - Or you can think of this as Gaussian makes "least assumptions".
 - Details for special case of h(x) = 1 in bonus slides.

Conjugate Priors in Exponential Family

- Exponential families in canonical form are guaranteed to have conjugate priors.
- For example, we could choose a prior like

$$p(\theta \mid \alpha) \propto \frac{\exp(\theta^{\mathsf{T}}\alpha)}{Z(\theta)^k}.$$

- $\bullet \ \alpha$ is "pseudo-counts" for the sufficient statistics.
- k modifies the stength of the prior (Z above is normalizer for the likelihood).
- For fixed k, itself an exp. family in θ : $s(\theta) = \theta$, parameter α , base measure $Z(\theta)^{-k}$.
- Then the posterior has the same form,

$$p(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}, \alpha) \propto \frac{\exp(\theta^{\mathsf{T}}(s(\mathbf{X}) + \alpha))}{Z(\theta)^{n+k}}$$

• Prior's normalizing constant (some $\zeta_k(\alpha)$, not $Z(\theta)$) useful for Bayesian inference.

• e.g. can derive, like before, that $p(\mathbf{X} \mid \alpha) = \zeta_k(s(x) + \alpha)/\zeta_k(\alpha) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n h(x^i)$.

Discriminative Models and the Exponential Family

- Going from an exponential family to a discriminative supervised learning:
 - Set canonical parameter to $w^{\mathsf{T}}x^i$.
 - Gives a convex NLL, where MLE tries to match data/model's conditional statistics.
 - Called generalized linear model (GLM) see Stat 538A, Generalized Linear Models :)
- For example, consider Gaussian with fixed variance for y^i .
 - Canonical parameter is μ , and we know setting $\mu = w^{\mathsf{T}} x^i$ gives least squares.
- If we start with Bernoulli for y^i , we obtain logistic regression.
 - Canonical parmaeter is log-odds.
 - Set $w^{\mathsf{T}}x^i = \log(y^i/(1-y^i))$ and solve for y^i to get sigmoid function.
 - Finally, we know "why use the sigmoid function?"
- You can obtain regression models for other settings using this kind of approach.
 - Set canonical parameters to $v^{\mathsf{T}}h(W^2h(W^1x^i))$ for neural networks.
 - Use a different exponential family to handle a different type of data.

Examples of Exponential Families

bonus!

- Bernoulli: distribution on $\{0,1\}$.
- Categorical: distribution on $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.
- Gaussian: distribution on \mathbb{R}^d .
- Beta: distribution on [0,1] (including uniform).
- Dirichlet: distribution on discrete probabilities.
- Wishart: distribution on positive-definite matrices.
- Poisson: distribution on non-negative integers.
- Gamma: distribution on positive real numbers.
- Many many others:
 - en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Exponential_family#Table_of_distributions
- ... can even have infinite-dimensional statistics via kernel exponential families.

Non-Examples of Exponential Families





• Laplace and student t distribution are not exponential families.

- "Heavy-tailed": have larger probability that data is far from mean.
- More robust to outliers than Gaussian.
- Ordinal logistic regression is not in exponential family.
 - Can be used for categorical variables where ordering matters.
- In these cases, we may not have nice properties:
 - MLE may not be intuitive or closed-form, NLL may not be convex.
 - May not have conjugate prior, so need Monte Carlo or variational methods.

Summary

- Neural networks with continous output:
 - Typically trained using squared error, corresponding to Gaussian likelihood.
- End to end models: use a neural network for everything.
 - Each step in a vision "pipeline" as a differentiable operator; train with SGD.
- Exponential families:
 - Have sufficient statistics and canonical parameters.
 - Maximimum likelihood becomes moment matching; always have conjugate priors.
 - Can build discriminative models by using canonical parameter $s(x) = w^{\mathsf{T}}x$.
 - Many things (but not everything!) are exponential families.
- Next time: Markov chains!

Convex Conjugate and Entropy



• The convex conjugate of a function \boldsymbol{A} is given by

$$A^*(\mu) = \sup_{w \in \mathcal{W}} \{\mu^\mathsf{T} w - A(w)\}.$$

• E.g., if we consider for logistic regression

 $A(w) = \log(1 + \exp(w)),$

we have that $A^*(\mu)$ satisfies $w = \log(\mu) / \log(1-\mu)$.

• When $0<\mu<1$ we have

$$A^{*}(\mu) = \mu \log(\mu) + (1 - \mu) \log(1 - \mu)$$

= -H(p_{\mu}),

negative entropy of binary distribution with mean μ .

• If μ does not satisfy boundary constraint, \sup is $\infty.$

Convex Conjugate and Entropy



 \bullet More generally, if $A(w) = \log(Z(w))$ for an exponential family then

$$A^*(\mu) = -H(p_\mu),$$

subject to boundary constraints on μ and constraint:

$$\mu = \nabla A(w) = \mathbb{E}[s(X)].$$

- Convex set satisfying these is called marginal polytope \mathcal{M} .
- If A is convex (and LSC), $A^{**} = A$. So we have

$$A(w) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{U}} \{ w^{\mathsf{T}} \mu - A^*(\mu) \}.$$

and when $A(w) = \log(Z(w))$ we have

$$\log(Z(w)) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{ w^{\mathsf{T}} \mu + H(p_{\mu}) \}.$$

• This can be used to derive variational methods, since we have written computing $\log(Z)$ as a convex optimization problem.

Maximum Likelihood and Maximum Entropy



$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^{\mathsf{T}} s(D) + \log(Z(w))$$

$$= \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^{\mathsf{T}} s(D) + \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{w^{\mathsf{T}} \mu + H(p_{\mu})\} \qquad (\text{convex conjugate})$$

$$= \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{-w^{\mathsf{T}} s(D) + w^{\mathsf{T}} \mu + H(p_{\mu})\}$$

$$= \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^{\mathsf{T}} s(D) + w^{\mathsf{T}} \mu + H(p_{\mu})\} \qquad (\text{convex/concave})$$

bonust

which is $-\infty$ unless $s(D) = \mu$ (e.g., maximum likelihood w), so we have
$$\begin{split} \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} -w^\mathsf{T} s(D) + \log(Z(w)) \\ &= \max_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} H(p_\mu), \end{split}$$

subject to $s(D) = \mu$.

• Maximum likelihood \Rightarrow maximum entropy + moment constraints.