Zeel B Patel, Nipun Batra

August 27, 2023

IIT Gandhinagar

Outline



Brook Taylor

Taylor Series Expansion ND Taylor Series Laplace Approximation



Pierre-Simon Laplace

Overall idea

- Posterior distribution $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ might be intractable but we can compute the MAP estimate.
- We know that posterior would be in form: $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}p(\mathcal{D},\theta)$, where Z is the normalizing constant.
- We can approximate this posterior using Taylor series expansion around the MAP estimate and it turns out that, after making a few assumptions, the resulting distribution is a Gaussian: $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \approx \mathcal{N}(\theta|\theta_{MAP}, H^{-1}), \text{ where } H \text{ is the Hessian matrix of the log joint evaluated at } \theta_{MAP}.$

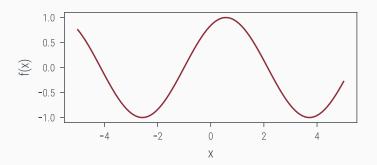
Taylor Series Expansion

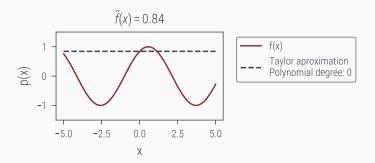
1D Taylor Series

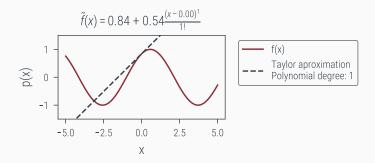
$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{f'''(x_0)}{3!}(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$

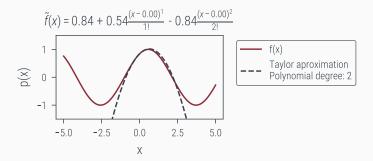
Consider the following function:

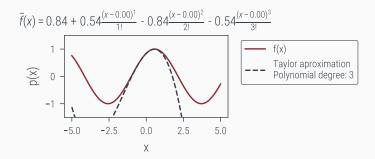
$$f(x) = \sin(1+x)$$

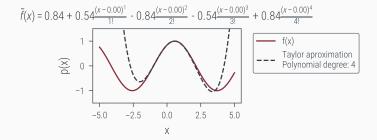


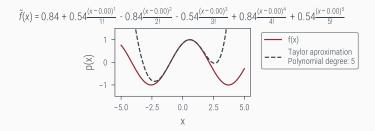


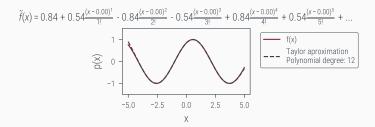






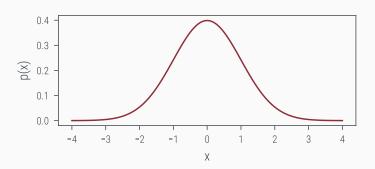






Consider the standard normal distribution: $p(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(x|0,1)$

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$



$$f(x) = \log p(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$f(x) = \log p(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$$
$$f(0) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)$$

$$f(x) = \log p(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$$
$$f(0) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)$$
$$f'(0) \cdot x = -x_0 \cdot x = 0$$

$$f(x) = \log p(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$f(0) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)$$

$$f'(0) \cdot x = -x_0 \cdot x = 0$$

$$f''(0) \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} = -1 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$f(x) = \log p(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$f(0) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)$$

$$f'(0) \cdot x = -x_0 \cdot x = 0$$

$$f''(0) \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} = -1 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2}$$
Taylor approximated $\tilde{f}(x) = \log \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) - \frac{x^2}{2}$

ND Taylor Series

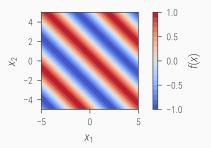
ND Taylor Series

$$\tilde{f}(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$

Approximate a 2d function

We take the following function:

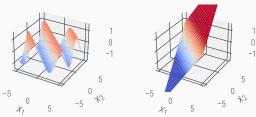
$$f(x_1, x_2) = \sin(1 + x_1 + x_2)$$

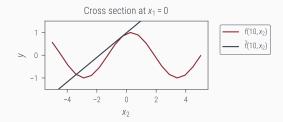


Approximate a 2d function

Taylor approximation at $x_0 = (0, 0)$:

Taylor approximation Polynomial degree: 1

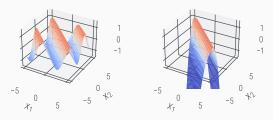


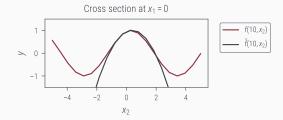


Approximate a 2d function

Taylor approximation at $x_0 = (0, 0)$:

Taylor approximation Polynomial degree: 2





$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}p(\mathcal{D},\theta)$$

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}p(\mathcal{D},\theta)$$

We can rewrite this as:

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}e^{-f(\theta)}$$
$$f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

We can rewrite this as:

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}e^{-f(\theta)}$$
$$f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

Note that $f(\theta)$ is the negative log joint which is used as a loss function to estimate θ_{MAP} .

ullet Highest mass is concentrated around $heta_{MAP}$ and hence it makes sense to get Taylor approximation around that point.

- Highest mass is concentrated around θ_{MAP} and hence it makes sense to get Taylor approximation around that point.
- In other words, if our approximation is bad where we have low probability mass, it doesn't matter much.

- Highest mass is concentrated around θ_{MAP} and hence it makes sense to get Taylor approximation around that point.
- In other words, if our approximation is bad where we have low probability mass, it doesn't matter much.
- Thus, we approximate $f(\theta)$ as $\tilde{f}(\theta)$ around θ_{MAP} using Taylor series expansion up to second derivative:

$$\begin{split} \tilde{f}(\theta) &= f(\theta_{MAP}) + \nabla f(\theta_{MAP})^T (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP}) (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{f}(\theta) &= f(\theta_{MAP}) + \nabla f(\theta_{MAP})^T (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP}) (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{f}(\theta) &= f(\theta_{MAP}) + \nabla f(\theta_{MAP})^T (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP}) (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \end{split}$$

Since, θ_{MAP} is minima of $f(\theta)$, $\nabla f(\theta_{MAP}) = 0$.

$$\begin{split} \tilde{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP})^T (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}) (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}) \end{split}$$

Since, θ_{MAP} is minima of $f(\theta)$, $\nabla f(\theta_{MAP}) = 0$.

$$\tilde{f}(\theta) = f(\theta_{MAP}) + \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})$$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{f}(\theta) &= f(\theta_{MAP}) + \nabla f(\theta_{MAP})^T (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP}) (\theta - \theta_{MAP}) \end{split}$$

Since, θ_{MAP} is minima of $f(\theta)$, $\nabla f(\theta_{MAP}) = 0$.

$$\tilde{f}(\theta) = f(\theta_{MAP}) + \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})$$

where $\nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})$ is the Hessian matrix of $f(\theta)$ evaluated at θ_{MAP} .

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}e^{-f(\theta)}$$
 where $f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z}e^{-f(\theta)}$$
 where $f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$
 $\approx \frac{1}{Z}e^{-f(\theta_{MAP})}e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})}$

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-f(\theta)} \quad \text{where } f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{Z} e^{-f(\theta_{MAP})} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} p(\mathcal{D}, \theta_{MAP}) e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})}$$

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-f(\theta)} \quad \text{where } f(\theta) = -\log p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{Z} e^{-f(\theta_{MAP})} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} p(\mathcal{D}, \theta_{MAP}) e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta_{MAP})^T \nabla^2 f(\theta_{MAP})(\theta - \theta_{MAP})}$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \approx \mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}, \left(\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP})\right)^{-1}\right)$$
$$Z = p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP}) \cdot (2\pi)^{D/2} \cdot |\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{MAP})|^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Pros and Cons of Laplace Approximation

- Pros:
 - Simple to implement
 - Computationally efficient
 - Can be used to approximate any intractable function

Pros and Cons of Laplace Approximation

- Pros:
 - Simple to implement
 - Computationally efficient
 - Can be used to approximate any intractable function
- Cons:
 - It can give bad approximation when posterior is not unimodal
 - Gaussian assumption can be too restrictive at times
 - Hessian matrix inversion can be numerically unstable and expensive. A diagonal or block-wise approximation can be applied to resolve this. Checkout Laplace-Redux for more details.

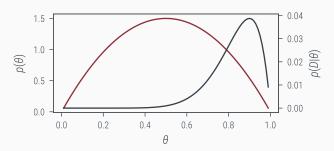
Let's take Beta-Bernoulli Coin Toss example since we know the closed form posterior for it. Consider the following scenario:

Let's take Beta-Bernoulli Coin Toss example since we know the closed form posterior for it. Consider the following scenario:

- $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0\}$
- $p(\theta) = \text{Beta}(\alpha = 2, \beta = 2)$
- $h = \theta$
- $p(y|h) = h^y(1-h)^{1-y}$

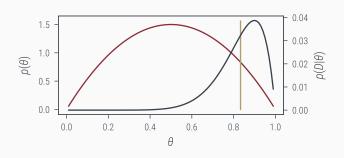
Let's take Beta-Bernoulli Coin Toss example since we know the closed form posterior for it. Consider the following scenario:

- $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0\}$
- $p(\theta) = \text{Beta}(\alpha = 2, \beta = 2)$
- $h = \theta$
- $p(y|h) = h^y(1-h)^{1-y}$



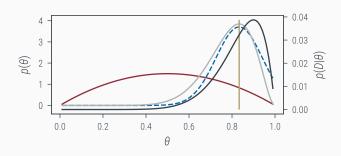


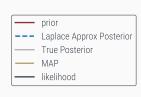
MAP estimate:





Laplace Approximation:

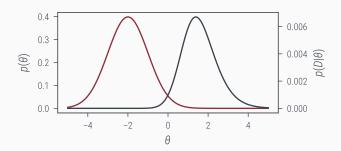




Normal Prior for Coin Toss

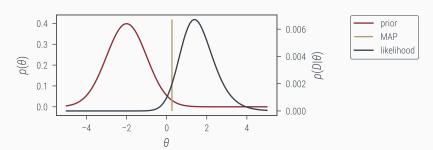
Consider the following coin toss experiment scenario:

- $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0\}$
- $p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta|-2,1)$
- $h = \sigma(\theta)$
- $p(y|\theta) = h^y (1-h)^{1-y}$



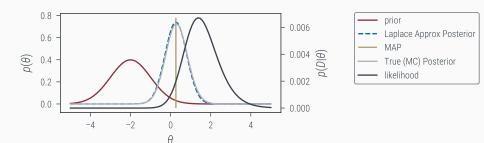
Normal Prior for Coin Toss

First, we find the MAP estimate.



Normal Prior for Coin Toss

Now, according to the Laplace Approximation, the posterior is:



We got True (MC) Posterior by a Monte Carlo estimation of the evidence.