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Laplace's Method

The idea behind the Laplace approximation is simple. We assume that an unnormalized probability density $P^*(x)$, whose normalizing constant

$$Z_P \equiv \int P^*(x) dx \quad (27.1)$$

is of interest, has a peak at a point x_0 . We Taylor-expand the logarithm of $P^*(x)$ around this peak:

$$\ln P^*(x) \simeq \ln P^*(x_0) - \frac{c}{2}(x - x_0)^2 + \dots, \quad (27.2)$$

where

$$c = - \left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \ln P^*(x) \right|_{x=x_0}. \quad (27.3)$$

We then approximate $P^*(x)$ by an unnormalized Gaussian,

$$Q^*(x) \equiv P^*(x_0) \exp \left[-\frac{c}{2}(x - x_0)^2 \right], \quad (27.4)$$

and we approximate the normalizing constant Z_P by the normalizing constant of this Gaussian,

$$Z_Q = P^*(x_0) \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{c}}. \quad (27.5)$$

We can generalize this integral to approximate Z_P for a density $P^*(\mathbf{x})$ over a K -dimensional space \mathbf{x} . If the matrix of second derivatives of $-\ln P^*(\mathbf{x})$ at the maximum \mathbf{x}_0 is \mathbf{A} , defined by:

$$A_{ij} = - \left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \ln P^*(\mathbf{x}) \right|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}_0}, \quad (27.6)$$

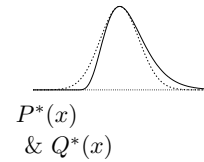
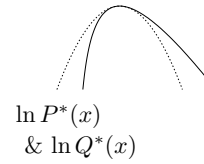
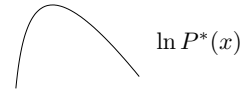
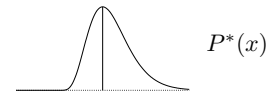
so that the expansion (27.2) is generalized to

$$\ln P^*(\mathbf{x}) \simeq \ln P^*(\mathbf{x}_0) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots, \quad (27.7)$$

then the normalizing constant can be approximated by:

$$Z_P \simeq Z_Q = P^*(\mathbf{x}_0) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det \frac{1}{2\pi} \mathbf{A}}} = P^*(\mathbf{x}_0) \sqrt{\frac{(2\pi)^K}{\det \mathbf{A}}}. \quad (27.8)$$

Predictions can be made using the approximation Q . Physicists also call this widely-used approximation the *saddle-point approximation*.



The fact that the normalizing constant of a Gaussian is given by

$$\int d^K \mathbf{x} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \right] = \sqrt{\frac{(2\pi)^K}{\det \mathbf{A}}} \quad (27.9)$$

can be proved by making an orthogonal transformation into the basis \mathbf{u} in which \mathbf{A} is transformed into a diagonal matrix. The integral then separates into a product of one-dimensional integrals, each of the form

$$\int du_i \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \lambda_i u_i^2 \right] = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_i}}. \quad (27.10)$$

The product of the eigenvalues λ_i is the determinant of \mathbf{A} .

The Laplace approximation is basis-dependent: if x is transformed to a nonlinear function $u(x)$ and the density is transformed to $P(u) = P(x) |dx/du|$ then in general the approximate normalizing constants Z_Q will be different. This can be viewed as a defect – since the true value Z_P is basis-independent – or an opportunity – because we can hunt for a choice of basis in which the Laplace approximation is most accurate.

► 27.1 Exercises



Exercise 27.1.^[2] (See also exercise 22.8 (p.307).) A photon counter is pointed at a remote star for one minute, in order to infer the rate of photons arriving at the counter per minute, λ . Assuming the number of photons collected r has a Poisson distribution with mean λ ,

$$P(r | \lambda) = \exp(-\lambda) \frac{\lambda^r}{r!}, \quad (27.11)$$

and assuming the improper prior $P(\lambda) = 1/\lambda$, make Laplace approximations to the posterior distribution

- (a) over λ
- (b) over $\log \lambda$. [Note the improper prior transforms to $P(\log \lambda) = \text{constant}$.]

► **Exercise 27.2.**^[2] Use Laplace's method to approximate the integral

$$Z(u_1, u_2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} da f(a)^{u_1} (1 - f(a))^{u_2}, \quad (27.12)$$

where $f(a) = 1/(1 + e^{-a})$ and u_1, u_2 are positive. Check the accuracy of the approximation against the exact answer (23.29, p.316) for $(u_1, u_2) = (1/2, 1/2)$ and $(u_1, u_2) = (1, 1)$. Measure the error $(\log Z_P - \log Z_Q)$ in bits.

► **Exercise 27.3.**^[3] **Linear regression.** N datapoints $\{(x^{(n)}, t^{(n)})\}$ are generated by the experimenter choosing each $x^{(n)}$, then the world delivering a noisy version of the linear function

$$y(x) = w_0 + w_1 x, \quad (27.13)$$

$$t^{(n)} \sim \text{Normal}(y(x^{(n)}), \sigma_\nu^2). \quad (27.14)$$

Assuming Gaussian priors on w_0 and w_1 , make the Laplace approximation to the posterior distribution of w_0 and w_1 (which is exact, in fact) and obtain the predictive distribution for the next datapoint $t^{(N+1)}$, given $x^{(N+1)}$.

(See MacKay (1992a) for further reading.)