Computational Statistics II

Unit D.1: Laplace approximation, Variational Bayes, and Expectation Propagation

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Unit D.1

Main concepts

- Laplace approximation;
- Variational Bayes;
- Expectation propagation.

Main references

- Bishop, C. M. (2006). Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning (Chapter 9-10). Springer.
- Blei, D. M., Kucukelbirb A., and McAuliffe, J. D. (2017). Variational inference: a review for statisticians. JASA, 112(518), 859–877.
- Tierney, L. and Kadane, J. (1987). Accurate approximations for posterior moments and marginal densities. JASA, 81(393), 82–86.

Motivations

- \blacksquare MCMC methods could be expensive to compute, especially for large sample sizes n.
- Moreover, many MCMC algorithms require a rough estimate of some key posterior quantities, such as the posterior variance. Recall e.g. the MALA example of unit B.2.
- These issues motivates the development of deterministic approximations of the posterior distribution.
- Compared to MCMC methods, the accuracy of this class of approximations can not be reduced by running the algorithm longer.
- On the other hand, deterministic approximations are typically very fast to compute and sufficiently reliable in several applied contexts.

The Laplace approximation

- Let $\pi(\theta \mid X)$ be a continuous and differentiable posterior density in $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$.
- The Laplace approximation is one of the first approximation methods that has been proposed. It was known even before the advent of MCMC.
- The key idea is approximating the log-posterior density $\log \pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$ using a Taylor expansion around the mode $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$, yielding

$$\log \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) \approx \log \pi(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{\tiny MAP}} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{\tiny MAP}})^{\mathsf{T}} \hat{\boldsymbol{M}}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{\tiny MAP}}) + \text{const},$$

where $\hat{\pmb{M}}$ is the negative Hessian of $\log \pi(\theta \mid \pmb{X})$ evaluated at $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$, that is

$$\hat{m{M}} = \left. -rac{\partial^2}{\partialm{ heta}\partialm{ heta}^{\mathsf{T}}}\log\pi(m{ heta}\midm{m{X}})
ight|_{m{ heta}=\hat{m{ heta}}_{ ext{MAD}}}.$$

 Hence, the above quadratic expansion leads to the following multivariate Gaussian approximate posterior

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) pprox \mathsf{N}_{p} \left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\scriptscriptstyle \mathrm{MAP}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{M}}^{-1}
ight).$$

Bernstein-von Mises theorem (a rough intuition)

- A fairly strong asymptotic justification of the Laplace approximation is based on the Bernstein—von Mises theorem.
- Suppose the data X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid from a "true" model P_{θ_0} .
- Very roughly speaking, under suitable regularity and sampling conditions

$$||\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) - \mathsf{N}_{P}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{MAP}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{M}}^{-1}\right)|| \stackrel{P_{\theta_{0}}}{\longrightarrow} 0, \qquad n \to \infty,$$

meaning that the total variation distance between the posterior and the Laplace approximation weakly converges to 0 w.r.t. to the law of the sampling process P_{θ_0} .

- Here we are also assuming that $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$ and $n\hat{\textbf{M}}^{-1}$ are consistent estimators for the "true" parameter value θ_0 and for the inverse Fisher information matrix, respectively.
- Hence, in several cases and for n large enough, the law $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$ is roughly a Gaussian centered at the mode and with variance depending on the Fisher information.

Main reference

van der Vaart, A. W. (1998). Asymptotic Statistics. Cambridge University Press.

Laplace approximation: considerations

- The Laplace approximation is an old and simple method that has appealing asymptotic guarantees. Moreover, it only requires the computation of the Hessian and the MAP.
- Refined higher order improvements of expected posterior functionals can be obtained as in Tierney and Kadane (1987).
- On the other hand, especially when the sample size n is relatively small, the quadratic approximation of $\log \pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$ may perform poorly.
- For example, if the posterior is not symmetric and unimodal, the MAP is not a good estimate for the posterior mean, thus leading to inaccurate Gaussian approximations.
- Furthermore, if the parameter space Θ is bounded, a Gaussian approximation could be quite problematic \implies a reparametrization should be considered.
- Finally, it is unclear how to handle discrete parameter spaces.

Approximation methods

- Let $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$ be the intractable posterior distribution and let $q(\theta)$ be a density belonging to \mathbb{Q} , where \mathbb{Q} is a general class of tractable densities.
- lacksquare An optimal approximation $\hat{q}(heta)\in\mathbb{Q}$ of the posterior distribution is defined as

$$\hat{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{q} \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathcal{D}\{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})\},$$

where $\mathcal{D}(\cdot,\cdot)$ is some divergence or metric over the space of probability distributions.

- An example is the Kullback-Leibler divergence $\mathcal{D}(\cdot, \cdot) = \text{KL}(\cdot || \cdot)$.
- Depending on the choice of the divergence $\mathcal{D}(\cdot,\cdot)$ and of the space of approximating densities \mathbb{Q} , the problem could be computationally feasible or not.
- Clearly, the posterior $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})$ should not be included in the space of tractable densities \mathbb{Q} , otherwise we would get $\hat{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})$ for any reasonable divergence $\mathcal{D}(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Approximation methods

- As for the choice of $\mathcal{D}(\cdot,\cdot)$, it would be theoretically appealing to consider metrics such as the Hellinger distance, the total variation distance or the Wasserstein distance.
- Unfortunately, even when we let $\mathbb Q$ be the space of multivariate Gaussians, finding the optimal density $\hat q(\theta)$ could be problematic.
- A basic requirement is that the optimization procedure should not depend on the intractable normalizing constant of the posterior.
- We will consider two different though quite related divergences.
- The KL $\{q(\theta) \mid | \pi(\theta \mid X)\}$ divergence, leading to the variational Bayes method.
- The KL $\{\pi(\theta \mid X) \mid\mid q(\theta)\}$ divergence, leading to the expectation propagation method.

A summary about variational Bayes (VB)

- The variational Bayes (VB) approach aims at minimizing KL $\{q(\theta) \mid\mid \pi(\theta \mid X)\}$ divergence.
- The ${
 m VB}$ approach "works well" whenever the class of tractable densities ${
 m Q}$ admits a factorized representation, called mean-field approximation.
- The literature about mean-field VB flourished because whenever the full conditionals are known distribution, then it is often possible to obtain a fast VB approximation.
- The main algorithm for obtaining mean-field approximations is called coordinate ascent variational inference (CAVI).
- The main drawback of VB approximations is their tendency to underestimate the posterior variability, often by a substantial margin.

The evidence lower bound (ELBO)

In first place, let us note that the following decomposition hold

$$\log \pi(\mathbf{X}) = \text{KL}\{q(\theta) \mid\mid \pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})\} + \text{ELBO}\{q(\theta)\},$$

■ Recall that the Kullback-Leibler divergence is

$$ext{KL}\{q(oldsymbol{ heta}) \mid\mid \pi(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{X})\} = -\int_{oldsymbol{ heta}} q(oldsymbol{ heta}) \log rac{\pi(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{X})}{q(oldsymbol{ heta})} \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta}.$$

lacksquare The evidence lower bound $ext{ELBO}\{q(heta)\}$ is instead defined as

$$ext{ELBO}\{q(oldsymbol{ heta})\} = \int_{\Theta} q(oldsymbol{ heta}) \log rac{\pi(oldsymbol{ heta}, oldsymbol{X})}{q(oldsymbol{ heta})} \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta}.$$

Key property. Since $\log \pi(X)$ does not depend on θ , we obtain that

$$\hat{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{q} \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathrm{KL}\{\boldsymbol{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid\mid \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})\} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{q} \in \mathbb{Q}} \mathrm{ELBO}\{\boldsymbol{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\},$$

therefore the optimization does not depend on the intractable normalizing constant.

Evidence lower bound (ELBO)

■ The ELBO is indeed a lower bound of the marginal likelihood, because the divergence $\text{KL}\{q(\theta)\mid \pi(\theta\mid \textbf{X})\}\geq 0$, implying that

ELBO
$$\{q(\theta)\} \leq \log \pi(X)$$
.

- This property of the ELBO has led to using the variational bound as a model selection criterion, on the assumption that the ELBO is a good approximation of the marginal.
- **Remark**. Even when the optimal distribution $\hat{q}(\theta)$ can found, there is no guarantee that the minimized KL

$$\text{KL}\{\hat{q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid\mid \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})\} \geq 0$$

will be small in absolute terms.

- Moreover, quantifying the value of $\text{KL}\{\hat{q}(\theta) \mid | \pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})\} = \log \pi(\mathbf{X}) \text{ELBO}\{q(\theta)\}$ would require the knowledge of the normalizing constant, which is intractable.
- Essentially, it is currently hard to assess the quality of the obtained approximation without comparing it with some "gold standard" such as MCMC.

Mean-field approximation

- \blacksquare The VB optimization problem is ill-posed if we do not specify a tractable class $\mathbb{Q}.$
- lacktriangleright For reasons that will become clear later on, a convenient assumption is restricting the focus on the class $\mathbb Q$ of mean-field approximations, in which we assume

$$q(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \prod_{b=1}^B q(oldsymbol{ heta}_b),$$

implying that we are forcing independence among B groups of parameters.

- It is important to notice that dependence is preserved within each block of parameters.
- Moreover, note that we are not forcing $q(\theta)$ to belong to any known parametric family of distributions. The only assumption we are making is independence.

Derivation of the CAVI algorithm

■ Under the mean-field assumption, the optimization of the ELBO can be written as

$$\text{ELBO}\{q(\boldsymbol{\theta})\} = \int_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \prod_{b=1}^{B} \left\{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_b) \log \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{X})\right\} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta} - \int_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} \prod_{b=1}^{B} \left\{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_b) \log q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_b)\right\} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

• We aim at maximizing the bth component $q(\theta_b)$, keeping the others fixed. Thus, we express the ELBO isolating the term $q(\theta_b)$, obtaining

$$\int q(heta_b) \left\{ \int \log \pi(heta, extbf{ extit{X}}) \prod_{j
eq b} q(heta_j) \mathrm{d} heta_{-b}
ight\} \mathrm{d} heta_b - \int q(heta_b) \log q(heta_b) \mathrm{d} heta_b + c_b,$$

where c_b denotes a term not depending on θ_b .

■ Defining the density $\log \tilde{\pi}(\theta_b, \mathbf{X}) = \mathbb{E}_{-b}\{\log \pi(\theta, \mathbf{X})\} + \text{const and re-arranging the terms, we get}$

$$ext{ELBO}\{q(oldsymbol{ heta})\} = \int q(oldsymbol{ heta}_b) \log rac{ ilde{\pi}(oldsymbol{ heta}_b, oldsymbol{X})}{q(oldsymbol{ heta}_b)} \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta}_b + ilde{c}_b = - ext{KL}\{q(oldsymbol{ heta}_b) \mid\mid ilde{\pi}(oldsymbol{ heta}_b, oldsymbol{X})\} + ilde{c}_b.$$

Derivation of the CAVI

■ The above previous chain of equations implies that the local maximization of the $ELBO(q(\theta))$ with respect to the bth term of $q(\theta_b)$ is obtained by setting

$$\hat{q}(m{ heta}_b) \propto \exp\left[\mathbb{E}_{-b}\{\log\pi(m{ heta},m{ extbf{X}})\}
ight],$$

for any $b = 1, \ldots, B$.

- In practice, the above expectation is often straightforward to compute and usually some known kernel can be recognized (as in the Gibbs sampling).
- In the CAVI algorithm, we iteratively update the factors $q(\theta_b)$ by using the locally maximized terms given the others.
- By construction, this produces a monotonic sequence that convergences to a local optimum of the ELBO.

Properties and convergence

- The CAVI is an appealing algorithm for maximizing the ELBO under the mean-field assumption, but in principle one could use any other optimizer.
- The necessary computations and expectations are usually doable if the full conditional distributions belong to some exponential family.
- The algorithms stops whenever the ELBO sequence has reached convergence.
- Moreover, checking that the ELBO is indeed monotone is a good practice to verify the correctness of the implementation.
- Although not shown here, a common application of the CAVI algorithm is indeed the case of Bayesian mixture models.

The CAVI for a Gaussian example

A As in **unit A.2**, let us assume the observations (x_1, \ldots, x_n) are draws from

$$(x_i \mid \mu, \tau) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(\mu, \tau^{-1}), \qquad i = 1, \ldots, n,$$

with independent priors $\mu \sim N(\mu_{\mu}, \sigma_{\mu}^2)$ and $\tau \sim Ga(a_{\tau}, b_{\tau})$.

- Assuming a mean-field approximation $q(\mu, \tau) = q(\mu)q(\tau)$, the CAVI algorithm iterates between the following steps simple steps.
- Update $q(\mu)$. The locally optimal variational distribution for $q(\mu)$ is

$$q(\mu) = \mathsf{N}(\mu \mid \mu_n, \sigma_n^2), \quad \mu_n = \sigma_n^2 \left(\frac{\mu_\mu}{\sigma_\mu^2} + \mathbb{E}_q(\tau) \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{x}_i \right), \quad \sigma_n^2 = \left(n \, \mathbb{E}_q(\tau) + \frac{1}{\sigma_\mu^2} \right)^{-1}.$$

■ Update $q(\tau)$. The locally optimal variational distribution for $q(\tau)$ is

$$q(\tau) = \mathsf{Ga}\left(\tau \mid a_n, b_n\right), \quad a_n = a_{\tau} + n/2, \quad b_n = b_{\tau} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}_q\{\left(x_i - \mu\right)^2\}.$$

Underestimation of the variability

- As previously mentioned, the combination of mean-field assumption + VB approach typically leads to a sensible underestimation of the variability.
- In first place, this is a consequence of the insufficient flexibility of the mean-field class of approximating densities.
- Indeed, if the densities in \mathbb{Q} were arbitrarily close to the posterior, this phenomenon would be negligible in practice.
- In second place, this is a consequence of the chosen divergence. Indeed, the quantity

$$\text{KL}\{q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mid\mid \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})\} = -\int_{\boldsymbol{\Theta}} q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X})}{q(\boldsymbol{\theta})}, d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

favors the choice of densities $q(\theta)$ which are included in the support of $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X})$.

■ Indeed, there is a large positive contribution to the above KL for those values of θ such that $\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}) \approx 0$, unless $q(\theta) \approx 0$ as well.

Expectation propagation (EP)

- The Expectation Propagation algorithm (EP) has been proposed by Minka (2001).
- The EP approach aims at minimizing the divergence $KL\{\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}) \mid\mid q(\theta)\}$, which is the reversed situation compared to the VB.
- At least in principle, the EP is expected to overestimate the variability of the posterior, but this is not a big concern in practice.
- Indeed, the EP does not rely on the mean-field approximation for \mathbb{Q} . In contrast, the class \mathbb{Q} will be some parametric exponential family of distributions.
- The EP is essentially a heuristic method for minimizing $\text{KL}\{\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{X}) \mid\mid q(\theta)\}$, as there are little theoretical guarantees that this is indeed occurring.
- On the other hand, in specific contexts the EP approach outperforms other approaches.

EP and exponential families

■ Let us assume $\mathbb Q$ is an exponential family of distributions, with natural parameters $\eta \in \mathbb R^p$, so that

$$q(\theta \mid \eta) = h(\theta) \exp \{\theta^{\mathsf{T}} \eta - K(\eta)\}.$$

■ Then, it can be shown that the minimum of the KL divergence is such that

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{q} \in \mathbb{Q}} \text{KL}\{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) \mid\mid q(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\eta})\} = \min_{\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \text{KL}\{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) \mid\mid q(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\eta})\},$$

where the optimal set of parameters $\hat{\eta}$ minimizing the divergence is such that

$$\mathbb{E}_q(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}).$$

- In words, the optimal parameter $\hat{\eta}$ is the one matching the true posterior mean of the natural parameter $\mathbb{E}(\theta \mid X)$, with the mean $\mathbb{E}_q(\theta)$ under the variational distribution.
- In the multivariate Gaussian case, this implies that both the mean and the variance are matched.

- The moment-matching procedure we just described is not directly applicable, because the posterior mean of the natural parameter θ is unknown.
- The EP seeks for an heuristic procedure that iteratively minimize the KL using the principle of moment-matching local components.
- In first place, let us assume that the joint likelihood factorizes as follows

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{X}) = \prod_{i=0}^n \pi_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{X}),$$

the first term corresponds to the prior, so that $\pi_0(\theta, \mathbf{X}) = \pi(\theta)$.

■ This is a common modelling assumption, which is satisfied for example if the data are conditionally independent (i.e. regression).

■ In second place, note that the exponential family assumption for Q guarantees that there exists a decomposition of the form

$$q(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{\eta}) = rac{1}{K} \prod_{i=0}^n q_i(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{\eta}_i),$$

with $\eta = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \eta_i$ and K being the normalizing constant, and where the $q_i(\theta \mid \eta_i)$ is proportional to an exponential family of distributions.

For example, if we consider a Gaussian kernel

$$q_i(eta \mid \mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{M}_i) = \exp\left\{-rac{1}{2}eta^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{M}_ieta + eta^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{r}_i
ight\} \implies q(eta \mid \eta) \propto \exp\left\{-rac{1}{2}eta^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{M}eta + eta^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{r}
ight\},$$
 with $\mathbf{r} = \sum_{i=0}^n \mathbf{r}_i$ and $\mathbf{M} = \sum_{i=0}^n \mathbf{M}_i$.

lacksquare Recall that the goal is obtaining the value $\hat{\eta}$ minimizing the following KL

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \text{KL}\{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{X}) \mid\mid q(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\eta})\} = \min_{\boldsymbol{\eta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \text{KL}\left\{\frac{1}{\pi(\boldsymbol{X})} \prod_{i=0}^n \pi_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{X}) \mid\mid \frac{1}{K} \prod_{i=0}^n q_i(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{\eta}_i)\right\}.$$

- Unfortunately, this is unfeasible so we proceed by iteratively updating each factor $q_i(\theta \mid \eta_i)$, for j = 0, ..., n, keeping the other fixed.
- Hence, we iteratively update only the jth factor $q_i(\theta \mid \eta_i)$ so that

$$\min_{oldsymbol{\eta}_j \in \mathbb{R}^p} \operatorname{KL} \left\{ rac{1}{K_j} \pi_j(oldsymbol{ heta}, oldsymbol{X}) \prod_{i
eq j} q_i(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{\eta}_i) \mid\mid rac{1}{K} q_j(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{\eta}_i) \prod_{i
eq j} q_i(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{\eta}_i)
ight\},$$

where K_i is the normalizing constant.

■ The minimizer $\hat{\eta}_j$ of the above KL is indeed solved by moment-matching, possibly leveraging on a well-behaved numerical integration step.

- The minimization of the previously considered local KL takes advantage of several recursive formulas, speeding up computations.
- There is no guarantee this algorithm is going to converge at all, especially if the target density is not log-concave.
- Moreover, the moment-matching step often involves numerical integration, which could be computationally delicate.
- Finally, the EP approach requires a particular likelihood structure and only works using exponential families.
- That said, when considering well-behaved posteriors (such as logistic regression), the EP strategy is very effective and often numerically stable.