### Computational Statistics II

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

#### **Tommaso Rigon**

University of Milano-Bicocca

Ph.D. in Economics and Statistics



#### 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  $P_{\theta_0}$ .
- 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  $P_{\theta_0}$ .

- Here we are also assuming that  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$  and  $n\hat{\textbf{M}}^{-1}$  are consistent estimators for the "true" parameter value  $\theta_0$  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  $\Theta$  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  $\theta$ , 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  $\mathrm{VB}$  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  $\theta_b$ .

■ 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  $\theta$  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  $\theta$  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.