Bayesian modelling Expectation propagation Léo Belzile Last compiled Monday Mar 31, 2025

Revisiting Kullback–Leibler divergence

The Kullback–Leibler divergence between densities $f_t(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot; oldsymbol{\psi}),$ is

$$\mathsf{KL}(f_t \parallel g) = \int \log igg(rac{f_t(oldsymbol{x})}{g(oldsymbol{x};oldsymbol{\psi})}igg) f_t(oldsymbol{x}) \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{x}$$

 $= \mathsf{E}_{f_t}\{\log f_t(\boldsymbol{X})\} - \mathsf{E}_{f_t}\{\log g(\boldsymbol{X}; \boldsymbol{\psi})\}$

Forward Kullback–Leibler divergence

If $g(\cdot; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ is Gaussian approximating density, then we minimize the KL divergence by matching moments:

$$oldsymbol{\mu}^* = \mathsf{E}_{f_t}(oldsymbol{X}) \ oldsymbol{\Sigma}^* = \mathsf{E}_{f_t}\left\{(oldsymbol{X} - oldsymbol{\mu})^ op
ight\}$$

See Exercise 10.1 for a derivation.

Variational inference

We don't know the posterior mean and variance! (they depend on unknown normalizing constant).

Variational inference finds rather the approximation that minimizes the **reverse Kullback–Leibler divergence** $KL(g \parallel f_t)$.

Qualitatively, this yields a very different approximation.



Comparing approximations

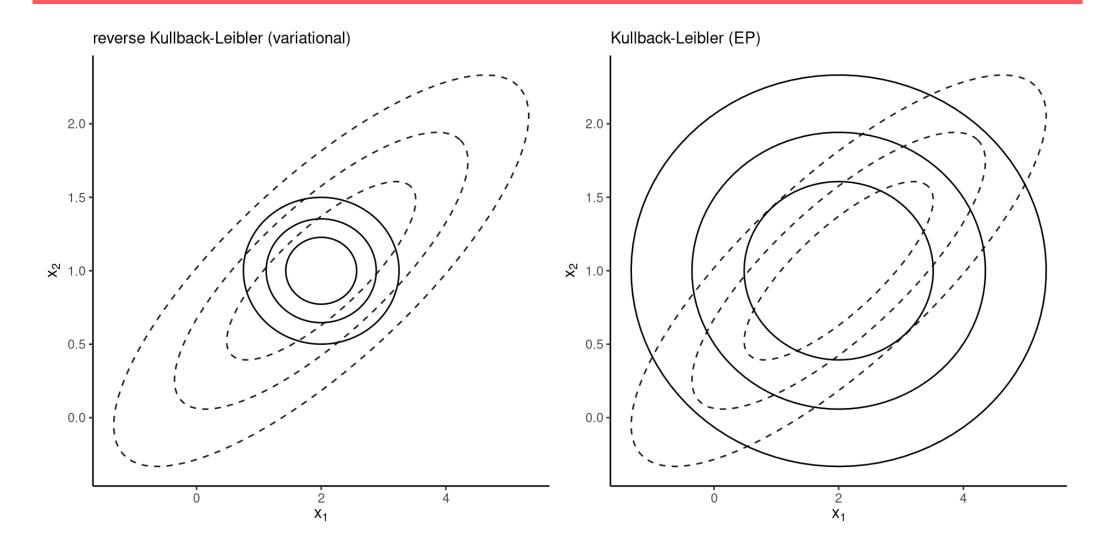


Figure 1: Approximation of a correlated bivariate Gaussian density by independent Gaussians.

Gaussian as exponential family

Write the Gaussian distribution in terms of canonical parameters

$$q(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \mathbf{Q}oldsymbol{ heta} + oldsymbol{ heta}^ op oldsymbol{r}
ight)$$

where ${f Q}$ is the precision matrix and ${m r}={f Q}{m \mu},$ the linear shift.

Notation

Let $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \exp\{-\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})\}$ denote the posterior density.

Since logarithm is a monotonic transform, we can equivalent minimize $\psi(\pmb{\theta})$ to find the posterior mode.

Denote

- the gradient $abla_{m{ heta}}\psi(m{ heta})=\partial\psi/\partialm{ heta}$
- the Hessian matrix $\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \partial^2 \psi / (\partial \boldsymbol{\theta} \partial \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top}).$

7



Starting from an initial value $\theta_{(0)}$, we consider at step i, a second order Taylor series expansion of $\psi(\theta)$ around $\theta_{(i)}$, which gives

$$egin{aligned} \psi(oldsymbol{ heta}) &pprox \psi(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}) +
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \psi(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}) (oldsymbol{ heta} - oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}) \ &+ (oldsymbol{ heta} - oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)})^{ op} \mathbf{H}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}) (oldsymbol{ heta} - oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}) \end{aligned}$$

Gaussian smoothing

The term $\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{(i)})$ is constant, so if we plug-in this inside the exponential, we obtain

$$q_{(i+1)}(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto \exp\left\{-rac{1}{2}oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \mathbf{H}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)})oldsymbol{ heta} + oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \mathbf{H}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)})oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i+1)}
ight\}$$

where the mean of the approximation is

$$oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i+1)} = oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)} - \mathbf{H}^{-1}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)})
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \psi(oldsymbol{ heta}_{(i)}).$$

Side remarks

The new mean vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{(i+1)}$ corresponds to a Newton update, and at the same time we have defined a sequence of Gaussian updating approximations.

- This scheme works provided that $\mathbf{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{(i)})$ is positive definite and invertible. Without convexity, we get a divergent sequence.
- The fixed point to which the algorithm converges is the Laplace approximation.

Location-scale transformation gradients

For location-scale family, with a Gaussian approximation on the target $m{ heta} = m{\mu} + \mathbf{L}m{Z}$ with $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^{ op} = m{\Sigma}$ and $m{Z} \sim \mathbf{Gauss}_p(\mathbf{0}_p, \mathbf{I}_p)$ that the gradient satisfies

$$abla_{\mu}\mathsf{ELBO}(q) = -\mathsf{E}_{Z}\{
abla_{ heta}\psi(oldsymbol{ heta})\}$$
 $abla_{\mathbf{L}}\mathsf{ELBO}(q) = -\mathsf{E}_{Z}\{
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}}\psi(oldsymbol{ heta})Z^{ op}\} + \mathbf{L}^{- op}$

Stein's lemma

Consider $h : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ a differentiable function and integration with respect to $X \sim \text{Gauss}_d(\mu, \Sigma)$ such that the gradient is absolutely integrable, $\mathsf{E}_X\{|\nabla_i h(X)|\} < \infty$ for $i = 1, \ldots, d$. Then (Liu, 1994),

$$\mathsf{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\left\{h(\boldsymbol{X})(\boldsymbol{X}-\boldsymbol{\mu})
ight\}=\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathsf{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\left\{
abla h(\boldsymbol{X})
ight\}$$

Alternative expression for the scale

If we apply Stein's lemma,

$$abla_{\mathbf{L}}\mathsf{ELBO}(q) = -\mathsf{E}_{\boldsymbol{Z}}\left\{rac{\partial^{2}\psi(\boldsymbol{ heta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{ heta}\partial \boldsymbol{ heta}^{ op}}
ight\}\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{L}^{- op}.$$

Variational inference

At a critical point, both of these derivatives must be zero, whence

$$\mathsf{E}_{oldsymbol{Z}}\{
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}}\psi(oldsymbol{ heta})\} = \mathbf{0}_{p}.$$
 $\mathsf{E}_{oldsymbol{Z}}\left\{rac{\partial^{2}\psi(oldsymbol{ heta})}{\partialoldsymbol{ heta}}
ight\} = \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}.$

Variational inference vs Laplace

Compared to the Laplace approximation, the variational Gaussian approximation returns

- a vector µ around which the expected value of the gradient is zero
- and similarly $\pmb{\Sigma}$ which matches the expected value of the Hessian.

The averaging step is what distinguishes the Laplace and variational approximations.

Expectation propagation

Expectation propagation is an approximation algorithm proposed by Minka (2001).

It is more accurate, but generally slower than variational Bayes.

However, the algorithm can be parallelized, which makes it fast.

Decomposition

EP builds on a decomposition of the posterior as a product of terms; with likelihood contributions $L_i(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$p(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{y}) \propto p(oldsymbol{ heta}) \prod_{i=1}^n L_i(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \prod_{i=0}^n L_i(oldsymbol{ heta})$$

We call L_i the "factors" or "sites", and $L_0(\theta)$ is the prior density.

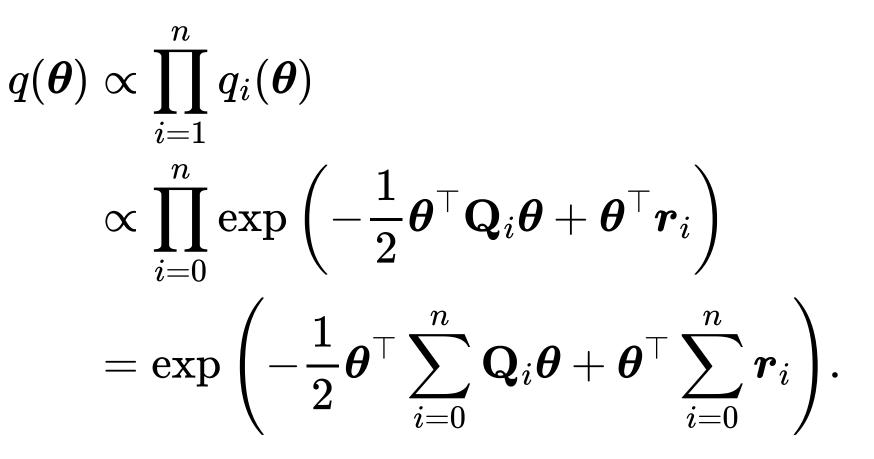
Comment on factorization

Such factorization is also feasible in graphical models (e.g., autoregressive processes, Markov fields), but needs not be unique.

Note that it is not equivalent to the factorization of the posterior (mean-field approximation) for variational Bayes, as every term in the EP approximation is a function of the whole vector θ.

Expectation propagation approximating density

Considers a factor structure approximation in which each q_i is Gaussian with precision \mathbf{Q}_i and linear shift \boldsymbol{r}_i ,



Step 1 of expectation propagation

Form the **cavity** by removing one factor q_j , so that

$$egin{aligned} q_{-j}(oldsymbol{ heta}) &= \prod_{\substack{i=0\i
eq j}}^n q_i(oldsymbol{ heta}) = q(oldsymbol{ heta})/q_j(oldsymbol{ heta}) \ &\propto \expigg\{ -rac{1}{2}oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \left(\sum_{i=0}^n oldsymbol{ heta}_i - oldsymbol{ heta}_j
ight)oldsymbol{ heta} \ &+ oldsymbol{ heta}^ op \left(\sum_{i=0}^n oldsymbol{r}_i - oldsymbol{r}_j
ight)igg\}. \end{aligned}$$

Step 2 of expectation propagation

Construct an hybrid or tilted distribution

$$h_j(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto q_{-j}(oldsymbol{ heta}) L_j(oldsymbol{ heta}).$$

The resulting density is unnormalized.

Global approximation

The overall approximation is Gaussian with precision $\mathbf{Q} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathbf{Q}_{i}$ and linear shift $\boldsymbol{r} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \boldsymbol{r}_{i}$

These parameters are obtained by optimizing each hybrid distribution with a Gaussian.

That is, we minimize the $KL(h_j \parallel q_j)$ at each step conditional on the other parameters.

Step 3 of expectation propagation

Compute normalizing constant and moments

$$egin{aligned} & c_j = \int h_j(oldsymbol{ heta}) \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta} \ & oldsymbol{\mu}_j = c_j^{-1} \int oldsymbol{ heta} h_j(oldsymbol{ heta}) \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta} \ & oldsymbol{\Sigma}_j = c_j^{-1} (oldsymbol{ heta} - oldsymbol{\mu}_j) (oldsymbol{ heta} - oldsymbol{\mu}_j)^ op h_j(oldsymbol{ heta}) \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta} \end{aligned}$$

The normalizing constant, mean and variance in the above are written in terms of p-dimensional integrals.

For exponential family of distributions, we can perform dimension reduction.

For example, with generalized linear models, the update for hybrid j depends only on the summary statistic $\mathbf{x}_{j}\boldsymbol{\theta}$, where \mathbf{x} is the jth row of the model matrix. Then, the integral is one-dimensional.

Projection of Gaussians

Linear combinations of Gaussian vectors are also Gaussian.

If $oldsymbol{eta}\sim \mathsf{Gauss}_p(oldsymbol{\mu},oldsymbol{\Sigma}),$ then

$$\mathbf{x}oldsymbol{eta}\sim\mathsf{Gauss}(\mathbf{x}oldsymbol{\mu},\mathbf{x}oldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{x}^{ op})$$

Step 4 of expectation propagation

Convert moments $oldsymbol{\mu}_j^*$ and $oldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^*$ to canonical parameters $oldsymbol{Q}_j^*$ and $oldsymbol{r}_j^*$.

Update the global approximation with

$$egin{aligned} q(oldsymbol{ heta}) &\propto \exp\left\{-rac{1}{2}oldsymbol{ heta}^{ op}\left(\sum_{\substack{i=0\i
eq j}}^n \mathbf{Q}_i + \mathbf{Q}_j^*
ight)oldsymbol{ heta}\ &+oldsymbol{ heta}^{ op}\left(\sum_{\substack{i=0\i
eq j}}^n oldsymbol{r}_i + oldsymbol{r}_j^*
ight)
ight\}. \end{aligned}$$

Recap of expectation propagation

The EP algorithm iterates the steps until convergence:

- 1. Initialize the site-specific parameters
- 2. Loop over each observation of the likelihood factorization: 2.1 form the cavity and the hybrid distribution 2.2 compute the moments of the hybrid μ and Σ 2.3 transform back to canonical parameters \mathbf{Q} and r 2.3 update the global approximation
- 3. Declare convergence when change in parameters is less than tolerance.

The algorithm can be run in parallel.

27

There is no guarantee that the fixed-point algorithm will converge...

The algorithm behaves like a smoothed Newton method (Dehaene & Barthelmé, 2018), so we can borrow tricks from numerical optimization to improve convergence.

• linearly interpolate between updates, with weight $0 < w \leq 1$ to the current update where at step t.

Some individual factor updates may yield non-positive definite precision for individual terms \mathbf{Q}_j , which is okay as long as the global approximation \mathbf{Q} remains positive.

Example: EP for logistic regression

Consider a binary response $Y \in \{-1, 1\}$ with logistic model

$$\Pr(Y=1 \mid \mathbf{x}, oldsymbol{eta}) = \{1+\exp(-\mathbf{x}oldsymbol{eta})\}^{-1} = ext{expit}(\mathbf{x}oldsymbol{eta}).$$

We assume for simplicity that $p(\beta) \propto 1$; a Gaussian prior could also be used.



References

Dehaene, G., & Barthelmé, S. (2018). Expectation propagation in the large data limit. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Statistical Methodology), 80(1), 199–217. https://doi.org/10.1111/rssb.12241
Liu, J. S. (1994). Siegel's formula via Stein's identities. Statistics & Probability Letters, 21(3), 247–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-7152(94)90121-X
Minka, T. P. (2001). A family of algorithms for approximate Bayesian inference [PhD thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology]. http:// hdl.handle.net/1721.1/86583