Markov Chain Monte Carlo for Bayesian Inference

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Obligatory Disclosure

- Ben is an employee of Columbia University, which has received several research grants to develop Stan
- Ben is also a manager of GG Statistics LLC, which uses Stan for business purposes
- According to Columbia University policy, any such employee who has any equity stake in, a title (such as officer or director) with, or is expected to earn at least \$5,000.00 per year from a private company is required to disclose these facts in presentations

Probability

- The analogue of "basic physics" for us is probability: a shared language for communicating about uncertain (sometimes future) propositions
- To be Bayesian, you have to know / learn probability theory
- · To be Bayesian, you have to know a good bit about computer programming
- To be Bayesian, you have to know a good bit about the substance
- · To be Bayesian, you have to be prepared for everyone to disagree with you
- Key idea is the Multiplication Rule:

$$Pr(A\&B) = Pr(A)Pr(B \mid A) = Pr(B)Pr(A \mid B)$$

from which Bayes' Rule follows if $\Pr(A) > 0$

$$\Pr(B \mid A) = \frac{\Pr(B)\Pr(A \mid B)}{\Pr(A)}$$

Four or Five Sources of Uncertainty

- 1. Uncertainty about parameters in models
- 2. Uncertainty about which model is best
- 3. Uncertainty about what to do with the output of the (best) model(s)
- 4. Uncertainty about whether the software works as intended
- 5. Uncertainty about extrapolating from the data you have to the data you want
- Bayesians use probability to describe their uncertainty in (1) and (2)
- The Bayesian approach links with decision theory, which prescribes (3)
- The Stan software does as much as we can to mitigate (4)
- By implication, other approaches / software may refer to probability but fail to handle one or more of the above four items
- These include randomization inference, frequentist inference, supervised learning, and others

A Very, Very Frequentist Example

- · Suppose you plan to collect N independent observations on a count outcome (Y) that are generated according to a Poisson distribution with expectation μ
- What probability distribution does the the sample mean follow?
- · Let $S = \sum_{n=1}^N y_n$ and $\overline{y} = \frac{S}{N}$. The probability that Y takes the value y is

$$\Pr\left(Y=y\mid \mu
ight)=rac{\mu^{y}e^{-\mu}}{y!}$$

 ullet The probability of observing the entire sample of size N is

$$\Pr\left(y_1, y_2, \dots y_N \mid \mu
ight) = \prod_{n=1}^N rac{\mu^{y_n} e^{-\mu}}{y_n!} = e^{-N\mu} rac{\mu^{\sum_{n=1}^N y_n}}{\prod_{n=1}^N y_n!} = rac{\mu^S e^{-N\mu}}{?}$$

 \cdot ? must be S! to make this a PMF, namely Poisson with expectation $N\mu$

A Special Case of the Central Limit Theorem

- · If S is distributed Poisson with expectation $N\mu$, then $\overline{y}=\frac{S}{N}$ has expectation μ and $\overline{y}=\frac{S}{N}$ has variance $\frac{N\mu}{N^2}=\frac{\mu}{N}$
- · As $N\uparrow\infty$, then the skewness of S, which is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N\mu}}$, approaches 0 and the excess kurtosis of S, which is $\frac{1}{N\mu}$, approaches 0
- · Therefore, $\overline{y}=rac{S}{N}$ has no skewness or excess kurtosis as $N\uparrow\infty$
- · The normal is the only distribution with no skewness or excess kurtosis
- . Thus, as $N\uparrow\infty$, $\overline{y}=\frac{S}{N}$ is distributed normal with expectation μ and standard deviation $\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{N}}$
- ' And as $N\uparrow\infty$, $\frac{\overline{y}-\mu}{\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{N}}}$ is distributed standard normal

A First Look at the Stan Language

```
functions { /* saved as poisson mean rng.stan in R's working directory */
  real poisson mean rng(int N, real mu) {
    real S = 0:
    if (N < 0) reject("N must be non-negative");
    if (mu <= 0) reject("mu must be positive");</pre>
    for (n in 1:N) {
      int y = poisson rng(mu);
      S += y;
    return S / N; // avoid "integer division"
  } // equivalent to `mean(rpois(N, mu))` in R
rstan::expose stan functions("poisson mean rng.stan")
args(poisson_mean_rng) # this is now a function in R
## function (N, mu, base_rng__ = <pointer: 0x555baac483b0>, pstream__ = <pointer: 0x7f0b4a1e5b
## NULL
```

Frequentist Perspective on Probability

- Probability is necessitated by deliberate randomization, such as sampling from a population
- Probability of X is interpreted as the proportion of times X happens in the limit as the number of random trials approaches infinity
- The probability statements pertain to estimators (or functions thereof)
- Sample mean is distributed normally across datasets (iff variance exists)
- Maximum likelihood estimates are distributed normally across datasets (under some assumptions)
- · The probability statements are always pre-data
- · The probability statements are conditional on the parameters being estimated
- · What use is this Frequentist perspective on probability for applied research?

A Very, Very Bayesian Example

 Taking limits, we can express Bayes' Rule for continuous random variables with Probability Density Functions (PDFs)

$$f(B \mid A) = \frac{f(B) f(A \mid B)}{f(A)}$$

· The PDF of the Gamma distribution (shape-rate parameterization) is

$$f\left(\mu |\, a,b
ight) =rac{b^{a}}{\Gamma \left(a
ight) }\mu ^{a-1}e^{-b\mu }$$

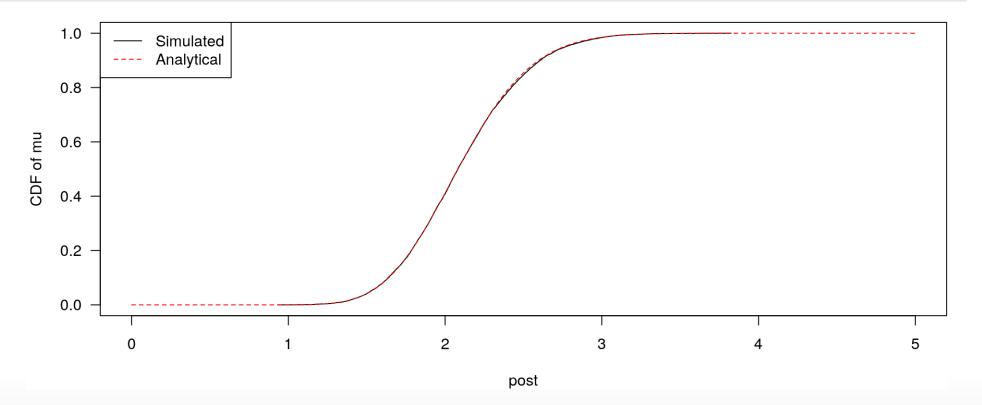
- Poisson PMF for N observations is again $f(y_1,\ldots,y_n\,|\,\mu)=rac{\mu^S e^{-N\mu}}{S!}$
- · Bayes' Rule is $f(\mu|\,a,b,y_1,\ldots,y_n)=rac{\mu^{a-1}e^{-b\mu}\mu^Se^{-N\mu}}{?}=rac{\mu^{a+S-1}e^{-(b+N)\mu}}{?}$
- \cdot ? must be $rac{\Gamma(a^*)}{{(b^*)}^{a^*}}$ where $a^*=a+S$ and $b^*=b+N$ so posterior is Gamma

Drawing from the Conditional Distribution in Stan

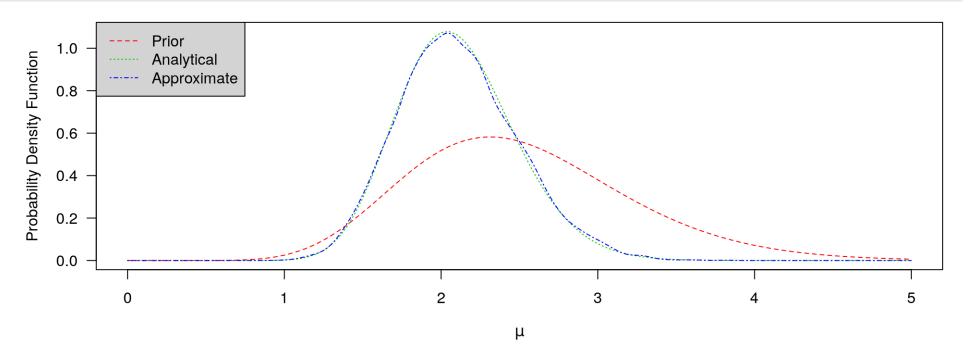
```
functions { /* saved as conditional rng in R's working directory */
 vector conditional rng(int S, real a, real b, int[] y) { // y is a 1D integer array
    int sum y = sum(y);
   vector[S] post; // holds draws from the conditional distribution
   int s = 1;
    if (a \le 0 \mid | b \le 0) reject("a and b must be positive");
   while (s \le S) {
      real mu tilde = gamma rng(a, b);
      int y tilde[size(y)]; // prior predictive distribution for entire sample
      for (n in 1:size(y)) y tilde[n] = poisson rng(mu tilde);
      if (sum y == sum(y tilde)) {
        post[s] = mu tilde;
        s += 1;
    return sort asc(post); // sorting just makes it easier to plot the ECDF
```

Posterior vs. Posterior

```
 \text{rstan::expose\_stan\_functions("conditional\_rng.stan")} \\ \text{a <- } 4 \text{ * pi; b <- 5; y <- } c(3, 1, 0, 2, 2, 4, 1, 3, 2, 1); a\_star <- a + sum(y); \\ \text{b\_star <- b + length(y); S <- } 10000; post <- conditional\_rng(S, a, b, y) \\ \text{plot(post, (1:S) / S, type = "l", xlim = } c(0, 5), ylab = "CDF of mu") \\ \text{curve(pgamma(mu, a\_star, b\_star), lty = 2, col = 2, add = TRUE, xname = "mu")} \\ \text{legend("topleft", legend = } c("Simulated", "Analytical"), lty = 1:2, col = 1:2) \\ \end{aligned}
```



Prior vs Posterior



Bayesian Perspective on Probability

- Probability is necessitated by incomplete information and used to describe your degree of belief that something is true
- The probability statements pertain to beliefs about unknowns
- The probability statements are conditional on the data actually observed
- You have beliefs about how much the S&P500 will grow by the end of 2019
- You express your beliefs with a probability distribution, such as a normal distribution with a mean of +4% and a standard deviation of 5%
- $^{\circ}$ As more data comes during 2019, you update your beliefs about where the S&P500 will be at the end of 2019 to some new probability distribution
- Note the data are not, and need not be, a sample or an experiment for you to use probability distributions to describe your beliefs in a rigorous way

(Dis)Advantages of Bayesian Inference

- · Bayesian inference remains useful in situations other paradigms specialize:
 - Experiments: What are your beliefs about the ATE after seeing the data?
 - Repeated designs: Bayesian estimates have correct frequentist properties
 - Predictive modeling: If you only care about predictions, use the posterior predictive distribution
- Bayesian inference is very useful when you are using the results to make a decision or take an action; other paradigms are not
- Bayesian inference is orders of magnitude more difficult for your computer because it is attempting to answer a more ambitious question
- The Bayesian approach is better suited for convincing yourself of something than convincing other people

Difficulty of Analytical Bayesian Inference

· Bayes Rule for an unknown parameter (vector) θ conditional on known data (vector) \mathbf{y} can be written as

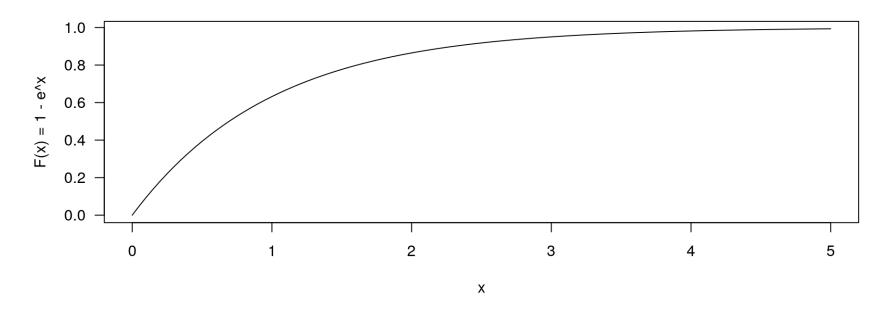
$$f(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \frac{f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})}{f(\mathbf{y})} = \frac{f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\theta_1 d\theta_2 \dots d\theta_K}$$

- To obtain the denominator of Bayes Rule, you would need to do an integral
- The Risch Algorithm tells you if an integral has an elementary form (rare)
- · In most cases, we can't write the denominator of Bayes Rule in a useful form
- But we can draw from a distribution whose PDF is characterized by the numerator of Bayes Rule without knowing the denominator

Drawing from a Uniform Distribution

- · Randomness can be harvested from physical sources, but it is expensive
- · Modern Intel processors have a (possibly) true random-number generator
- In practice, software emulates a true random-number generator for speed
- Let $M=-1+2^{64}=18,446,744,073,709,551,615$ be the largest unsigned integer that a 64-bit computer can represent. You can essentially draw uniformally from $\Omega_U=[0,1)$ by
 - 1. Drawing $ilde{y}$ from $\Omega_Y = \{0,1,\ldots,M\}$ with each probability $rac{1.0}{M}$
 - 2. Letting $ilde{u}=rac{y}{1.0+M}$, which casts to a double-precision denominator
- The CDF of the uniform distribution on (a,b) is $F(u|a,b)=\frac{u-a}{b-a}$ and the PDF is $f(u|a,b)=\frac{1}{b-a}$. Standard is a special case with a=0 and b=1.

Drawing from an Exponential Distribution



- · To draw from this (standard exponential) distribution, you could
 - 1. Draw \tilde{u} from a standard uniform distribution
 - 2. Find the point on the curve with height $ilde{u}$
 - 3. Drop to the horizontal axis at \tilde{x} to get a standard exponential realization
 - 4. Optionally scale \tilde{x} by a given μ to make it non-standard

Inverse CDF Sampling of Continuous RVs

- In principle, the previous implies an algorithm to draw from ANY univariate continuous distribution
- But to draw efficiently from it, it is best to work out (if possible) $F^{-1}\left(u\right)=x\left(u\right)$, which is known as the inverse CDF from $\left(0,1\right)$ to Ω_{X}
- · If F(x) does not have an explicit form, you may have to numerically solve for \tilde{x} such that $F(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{u}$
- For example, this is how R draws from a normal distribution, which has PDF

$$f(x\mid \mu,\sigma) = rac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-rac{1}{2}\left(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma}
ight)^2}$$

Bivariate Normal Distribution

The PDF of the bivariate normal distribution over $\Omega=\mathbb{R}^2$ is

$$f\left(x,y
ight|\mu_{X},\mu_{Y},\sigma_{X},\sigma_{Y},
ho
ight)= \ rac{1}{2\pi\sigma_{X}\sigma_{Y}\sqrt{1-
ho^{2}}}e^{-rac{1}{2\left(1-
ho^{2}
ight)}\left(\left(rac{x-\mu_{X}}{\sigma_{X}}
ight)^{2}+\left(rac{y-\mu_{Y}}{\sigma_{Y}}
ight)^{2}-2
horac{x-\mu_{X}}{\sigma_{X}}rac{y-\mu_{Y}}{\sigma_{Y}}
ight)}{=} \ rac{1}{\sigma_{X}\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-rac{1}{2}\left(rac{x-\mu_{X}}{\sigma_{X}}
ight)^{2}} imesrac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-rac{1}{2}\left(rac{y-\left(\mu_{y}+eta(x-\mu_{X})
ight)}{\sigma}
ight)^{2}},$$

where X is MARGINALLY normal and Y|X is CONDITIONALLY normal with expectation $\mu_Y + \beta \left(x - \mu_X\right)$ and standard deviation $\sigma = \sigma_Y \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}$, where $\beta = \rho \frac{\sigma_Y}{\sigma_X}$ is the OLS coefficient when Y is regressed on X and σ is the error standard deviation. We can thus draw \tilde{x} and then condition on it to draw \tilde{y} .

Drawing from the Bivariate Normal Distribution

```
functions { /* saved as binormal rng.stan in R's working directory */
 matrix binormal_rng(int S, real mu_X, real mu_Y, real sigma_X, real sigma_Y, real rho) {
   matrix[S, 2] draws; real beta = rho * sigma Y / sigma X; // calculate constants once ...
    real sigma = sigma Y * sqrt(1 - square(rho)); // ... before the loop begins
   for (s in 1:S) {
     real x = normal rng(mu X, sigma X);
     real y = normal rng(mu Y + beta * (x - mu X), sigma);
     draws[s, 1] = x; draws[s, 2] = y;
   return draws;
rstan::expose stan functions("binormal rng.stan")
S <- 1000; mu X <- 0; mu Y <- 0; sigma X <- 1; sigma Y <- 1; rho <- 0.75
colMeans(binormal rng(S = 100, mu X, mu Y, sigma X, sigma Y, rho))
```

[1] 0.1456386 0.1106789

Markov Processes

- A Markov process is a sequence of random variables with a particular dependence structure where the future is conditionally independent of the past given the present, but nothing is marginally independent of anything else
- An AR1 model is a linear Markov process
- Let X_s have conditional PDF $f_s\left(X_s | X_{s-1}\right)$. Their joint PDF is

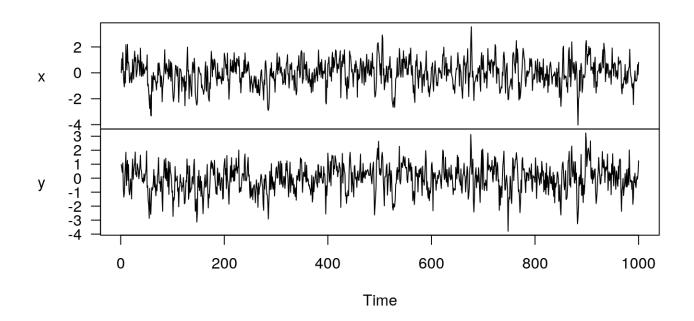
$$f\left(X_{0},X_{1},\ldots,X_{S-1},X_{S}
ight)=f_{0}\left(X_{0}
ight)\prod_{s=1}^{S}f_{s}\left(X_{s}|X_{s-1}
ight)$$

- · Can we construct a Markov process such that the marginal distribution of X_S is a given target distribution as $S \uparrow \infty$?
- If so, they you can get a random draw or a set of dependent draws from the target distribution by letting that Markov process run for a long time
- · Basic idea is that you can marginalize by going through a lot of conditionals

What the BUGS Software Family Essentially Does

```
library(Runuran) # defines ur() which draws from the approximate ICDF via pinv.new()
BUGSish <- function(log kernel, # function of theta outputting posterior log-kernel
                    theta, # starting values for all the parameters
                                # additional arguments passed to log kernel
                    LB = rep(-Inf, K), UB = rep(Inf, K), # optional bounds on theta
                    S = 1000) { # number of posterior draws to obtain
 K <- length(theta); draws <- matrix(NA, nrow = S, ncol = K)</pre>
  for(s in 1:S) { # these loops are slow, as is approximating the ICDF | theta[-k]
   for (k in 1:K) {
      full conditional <- function(theta k)</pre>
        return(log kernel(c(head(theta, k - 1), theta k, tail(theta, K - k)), ...))
      theta[k] \leftarrow ur(pinv.new(full conditional, lb = LB[k], ub = UB[k], islog = TRUE,
                              ure solution = 1e-8, smooth = TRUE, center = theta[k])
   draws[s, ] <- theta
  return(draws)
```

Gibbs Sampling a la BUGS



Effective Sample Size of Markov Chain Output

- · If a Markov Chain mixes fast enough for the MCMC CLT to hold, then
 - The Effective Sample Size is $n_{eff}=\frac{S}{1+2\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\rho_k}$, where ρ_k is the ex ante autocorrelation between two draws that are k iterations apart
 - The MCMC Standard Error of the mean of the S draws is $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n_{eff}}}$ where σ is the true posterio standard deviation
- · If $\rho_k=0 \forall k$, then $n_{eff}=S$ and the MCMC-SE is $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{S}}$, so the Effective Sample Size is the number of INDEPENDENT draws that would be expected to estimate the posterior mean of some function with the same accuracy as the S DEPENDENT draws that you have from the posterior distribution
- Both have to be estimated and unfortunately, the estimator is not that reliable when the true Effective Sample Size is low (\sim 5% of S)
- · For this BUGSish sampler, n_{eff} is estimated to be pprox 200 for both margins

Comparing Stan to Historical MCMC Samplers

- · Only requires user to specify numerator of Bayes Rule
- · Unlike Gibbs sampling, proposals are joint
- Like Gibbs sampling, proposals always accepted
- · Like Gibbs sampling, tuning of proposals is (often) not required
- · Unlike Gibbs sampling, the effective sample size is typically 25% to 125% of the nominal number of draws from the posterior distribution because ρ_1 can be negative in $n_{eff}=\frac{S}{1+2\sum_{k=1}^\infty \rho_k}$
- · Unlike Gibbs sampling, Stan produces warning messages when things are not going swimmingly. Do not ignore these!
- Unlike BUGS, Stan does not permit discrete unknowns but even BUGS has difficulty drawing discrete unknowns with a sufficient amount of efficiency
- Metropolis-Hastings is another historical MCMC sampler that you may have heard about and Stan is always better than M-H

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

Instead of simply drawing from the posterior distribution whose PDF is $f(\theta|\mathbf{y}...) \propto f(\theta) L(\theta;\mathbf{y})$ Stan augments the "position" variables θ with an equivalent number of "momentum" variables ϕ and draws from

$$f\left(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid \mathbf{y} \ldots
ight) \propto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \ldots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \prod_{k=1}^{K} rac{1}{\sigma_{k} \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-rac{1}{2} \left(rac{\phi_{k}}{\sigma_{k}}
ight)^{2}} f\left(oldsymbol{ heta}
ight) L\left(oldsymbol{ heta}; \mathbf{y}
ight) d\phi_{1} \ldots d\phi_{K}$$

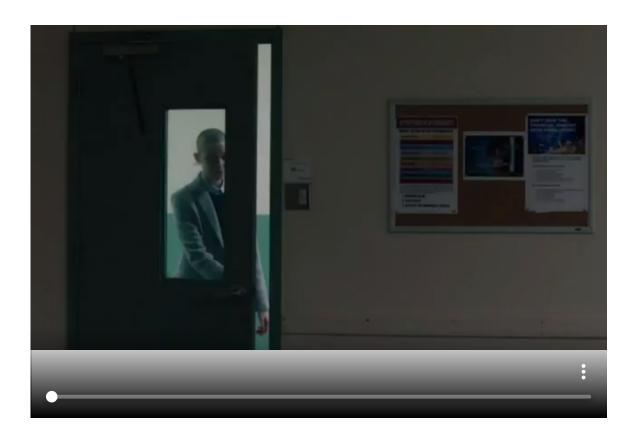
- Since the likelihood is NOT a function of ϕ_k , the posterior distribution of ϕ_k is the same as its prior, which is normal with a "tuned" standard deviation. So, at the s-th MCMC iteration, we just draw each $\widetilde{\phi}_k$ from its normal distribution.
- Using physics, the realizations of each $\widetilde{\phi}_k$ at iteration s "push" $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ from iteration s-1 through the parameter space whose topology is defined by the negated log-kernel of the posterior distribution: $-\ln f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \ln L(\boldsymbol{\theta};\mathbf{y})$
- · See HMC.R demo on Canvas

Demo of Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

No U-Turn Sampling (NUTS)

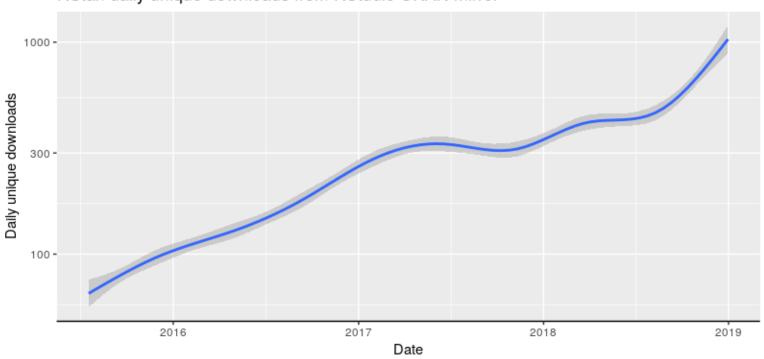
- The location of heta moving according to Hamiltonian physics at any instant would be a valid draw from the posterior distribution
- · But (in the absence of friction) heta moves indefinitely so when do you stop?
- Hoffman and Gelman (2014) proposed stopping when there is a "U-turn" in the sense the footprints turn around and start to head in the direction they just came from. Hence, the name No U-Turn Sampling.
- · After the U-Turn, one footprint is selected with probability proportional to the posterior kernel to be the realization of θ on iteration s and the process repeates itself
- NUTS discretizes a continuous-time Hamiltonian process in order to solve a system of Ordinary Differential Equations (ODEs), which requires a stepsize that is also tuned during the warmup phase

Season 3, Episode 9 of Billions



Stan Is Trending





What is Stan?

- Includes a high-level probabilistic programming language
- Includes a translator of high-level Stan syntax to somewhat low-level C++
- Includes new (and old) gradient-based algorithms for statistical inference, such as NUTS
- · Includes a matrix and scalar math library that supports autodifferentiation
- Includes interfaces from R and other high-level software
- Includes R packages with pre-written Stan programs
- Includes (not Stan specific) post-estimation R functions
- Includes a large community of users and many developers

What is Autodifferentiation?

- · A language like C++ supports operator overloading of +, -, etc. to do whatever
- · In Stan, c = a / b computes c and both $\frac{\partial c}{\partial a}=\frac{1}{b}$ and $\frac{\partial c}{\partial b}=-\frac{a}{b^2}$
- Similarly, $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{g(c)}$ computes \mathbf{d} and $\frac{\partial d}{\partial c} = g'\left(c\right)$
- Evaluating the chain rule is tedious for a human but easy for a computer
- Autodifferentiation allows the human to write an arbitrary (differentiable)
 mathematical expression and the (C++) compiler generates the code to
 compute the derivative automatically, even with vector / matrix expressions
- This is more accurate and / or faster than symbolic differentiation or numerical differentiation
- For Stan's purposes, Stan does autodifferentiation faster than anything else;
 see http://arxiv.org/abs/1509.07164

Using Stan via R

- 1. Write the program in a (text) .stan file w/ R-like syntax that ultimately defines a posterior log-kernel. We will not do this until May. Stan's parser, rstan::stanc, does two things
 - checks that program is syntactically valid & tells you if not
 - writes a conceptually equivalent C++ source file to disk
- 2. C++ compiler creates a binary file from the C++ source
- 3. Execute the binary from R (can be concurrent with 2)
- 4. Analyze the resulting samples from the posterior
 - Posterior predictive checks
 - Model comparison
 - Decision

Drawing from a Bivariate Normal with NUTS

```
library(rstan)
xy <- stan("binormal.stan", refresh = 0)
XV
## Inference for Stan model: binormal.
## 4 chains, each with iter=2000; warmup=1000; thin=1;
## post-warmup draws per chain=1000, total post-warmup draws=4000.
##
##
                       sd 2.5% 25% 50% 75% 97.5% n eff Rhat
        mean se mean
## X
     0.00 0.03 1.01 -2.01 -0.66 0.00 0.67 2.01 1392
## y -0.02 0.03 1.00 -2.00 -0.66 -0.03 0.63 1.95
                                                       1292
## lp -2.43 0.03 1.01 -5.10 -2.84 -2.10 -1.70 -1.45 1264
##
## Samples were drawn using NUTS(diag e) at Mon Apr 1 04:25:13 2019.
## For each parameter, n eff is a crude measure of effective sample size,
## and Rhat is the potential scale reduction factor on split chains (at
## convergence, Rhat=1).
```

Divergent Transitions

- NUTS only uses first derivatives
- First order approximations to Hamiltonian physiscs are fine for if either the second derivatives are constant or the discrete step size is sufficiently small
- When the second derviatives are very not constant across Θ , Stan can (easily) mis-tune to a step size that is not sufficiently small and θ_k gets pushed to $\pm \infty$
- When this happens there will be a warning message, suggesting to increase adapt_delta
- When adapt_delta is closer to 1, Stan will tend to take smaller steps
- Unfortunately, even as $adapt_delta \lim 1$, there may be no sufficiently small step size and you need to try to reparameterize your model

Exceeding Maximum Treedepth

- When the step size is small, NUTS needs many (small) steps to cross the "typical" subset of Θ and hit the U-turn point
- Sometimes, NUTS has not U-turned when it reaches its limit of 10 steps (by default)
- When this happens there will be a warning message, suggesting to increase max_treedepth
- There is always a sufficiently high value of max_treedepth to allow NUTS to reach the U-turn point, but increasing max_treedepth by 1 approximately doubles the wall time to obtain S draws

Low Bayesian Fraction of Missing Information

- · When the tails of the posterior PDF are very light, NUTS can have difficulty moving through Θ efficiently
- · This will manifest itself in a low (and possibly unreliable) estimate of n_{eff}
- · When this happens there will be a warning message, saying that the Bayesian Fraction of Missing Information (BFMI) is low
- $^{\circ}$ In this situation, there is not much you can do except increase S or preferably reparameterize your model to make it easier for NUTS

Runtime Exceptions

- Sometimes you will get a "informational" (not error, not warning) message saying that some parameter that should be positive is zero or some parameter that should be finite is infinite
- This means that a 64bit computer could not represent the number accurately
- If it only happens a few times and only during the warmup phase, do not worry
- Otherwise, you might try to use functions that are more numerically stable, which is discussed throughout the Stan User Manual

Bulk and Tail \hat{R}

- ' Sometimes you will get a warning message saying the bulk and / or bail \hat{R} is too high
- These indicate that your Markov Chains have not converged to the same distribution
- You could simply try running them longer, but you may need to reparameterize or rethink your model
- Also, you can get a warning that the Effective Sample Size for the bulk and / or tail of the distribution is too low, in which case the Markov Chains may have converged but have not mixed well enough to obtain reliable inferences