# Chapter 4

- 4.1 Normal approximation (Laplace's method)
- 4.2 Large-sample theory
- 4.3 Counter examples
  - includes examples of difficult posteriors for MCMC, too
- 4.4 Frequency evaluation\*
- 4.5 Other statistical methods\*

### Normal approximation (Laplace approximation)

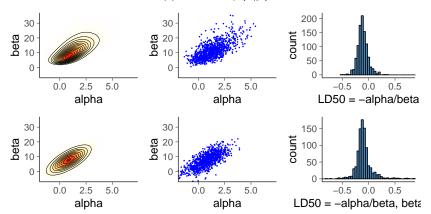
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  - Laplace used this (before Gauss) to approximate the posterior of binomial model to infer ratio of girls and boys born

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- if  $\hat{\theta}$  is at mode, then  $f'(\hat{\theta}) = 0$
- often when  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\frac{f^{(3)}(\hat{\theta})}{3!}(\theta \hat{\theta})^3 + \dots$  is small

#### Multivariate Taylor series

Multivariate series expansion

$$f(\theta) = f(\hat{\theta}) + \frac{df(\theta')}{d\theta'}_{\theta' = \hat{\theta}} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) + \frac{1}{2!} (\theta - \hat{\theta})^T \frac{d^2 f(\theta')}{d\theta'^2}_{\theta' = \hat{\theta}} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) + \dots$$

• Taylor series expansion of the log posterior around the posterior mode  $\hat{\theta}$ 

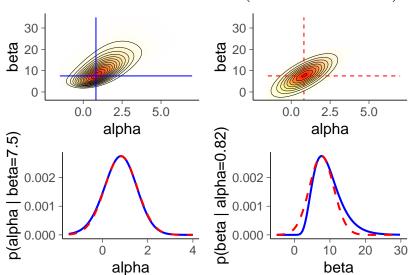
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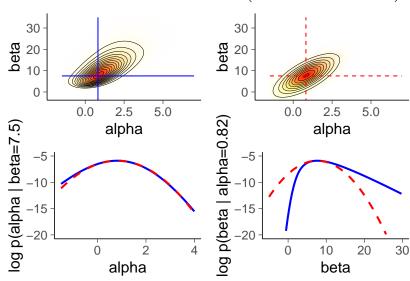
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where  $I(\theta)$  is called *observed information* 

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 $Hessian H(\theta) = -I(\theta)$ 

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- $I(\hat{\theta})$  is the second derivatives at the mode and thus describes the curvature at the mode
- if the mode is inside the parameter space,  $I(\hat{\theta})$  is positive
- if  $\theta$  is a vector, then  $I(\theta)$  is a matrix

 BDA3 Ch 4 has an example where it is easy to compute first and second derivatives and there is easy analytic solution to find where the first derivatives are zero

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  - autodiff or finite-difference for gradients and Hessian
  - e.g. in R, demo4\_1.R:

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{bioassayfun} & <-\mbox{ function}(w,\mbox{ df})\ \{ & \mbox{ } z <-\mbox{ } w[1] + w[2]*df\$x \\ & -\mbox{sum}(\mbox{ df}\$y*(z) - \mbox{ df}\$n*\mbox{log1p}(\mbox{exp}(z))) \\ \} \\ \mbox{theta0} & <-\mbox{ } c(0\,,0) \\ \mbox{optimres} & <-\mbox{ optim}(w0,\mbox{ bioassayfun}\,,\mbox{ } gr=\mbox{NULL},\mbox{ df1}\,,\mbox{ hessian=T)} \\ \mbox{thetahat} & <-\mbox{ optimres}\$\mbox{par} \\ \mbox{Sigma} & <-\mbox{ solve}(\mbox{optimres}\$\mbox{hessian}) \\ \end{array}
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  - uses autodiff for gradients
  - uses finite differences of gradients to compute Hessian

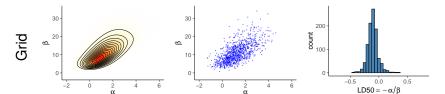
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    - second order autodiff in progress

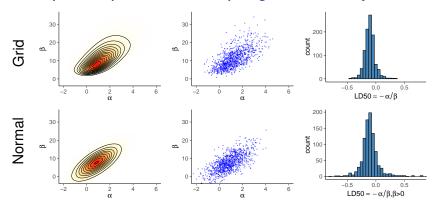
 Optimization and computation of Hessian requires usually much less density evaluations than MCMC

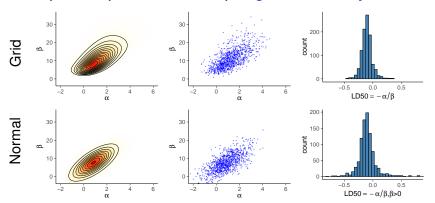
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  - Rasmussen & Williams: Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning
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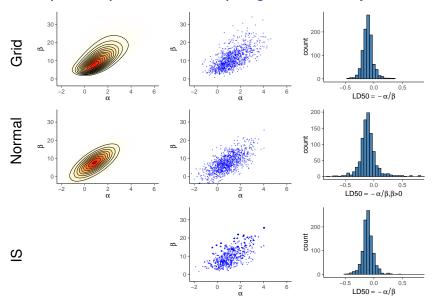
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- Accuracy can be improved by importance sampling (Ch 10)

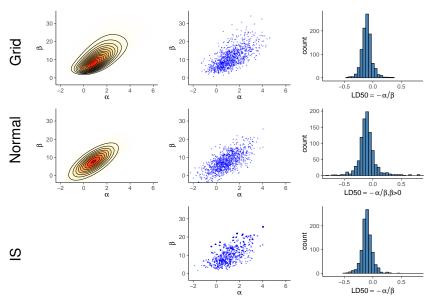






But the normal approximation is not that good here: Grid  $sd(LD50) \approx 0.1$ , Normal  $sd(LD50) \approx .75!$ 





Grid sd(LD50)  $\approx$  0.1, IS sd(LD50)  $\approx$  0.1

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- CmdStan(R) has Laplace algorithm
  - since version 2.33 (2023)
    - + Pareto-k diagnostic via posterior package
    - + importance resampling (IR) via posterior package

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```
real<lower=, upper=0> theta;
```

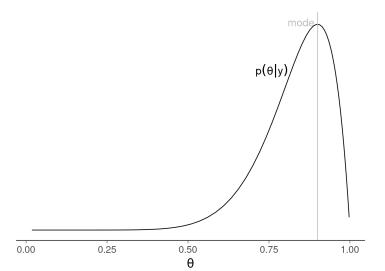
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  - density of the transformed parameter needs to include Jacobian of the transformation (BDA3 p. 21)

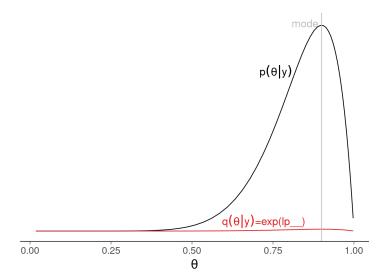
Binomial model  $y \sim Bin(\theta, N)$ , with data y = 9, N = 10

With Beta(1, 1) prior, the posterior is Beta(9 + 1, 1 + 1)



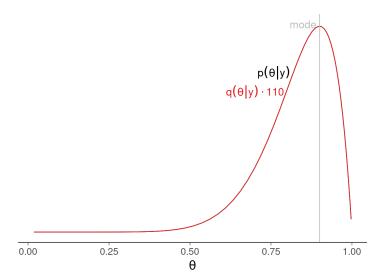
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Stan computes only the unnormalized posterior  $q(\theta|y)$ 



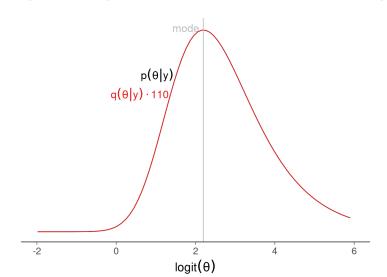
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For illustration purposes we normalize Stan result  $q(\theta|y)$ 

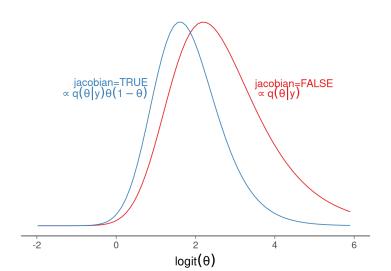


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Beta(9 + 1, 1 + 1), but x-axis shows the unconstrained  $logit(\theta)$ 

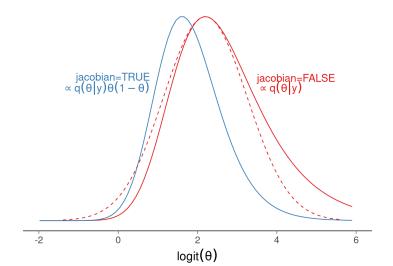


...but we need to take into account the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian of the transformation  $\theta(1-\theta)$ 



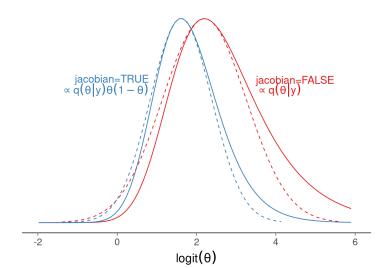
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Let's compare a wrong normal approximation...

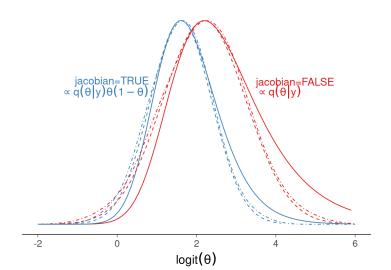


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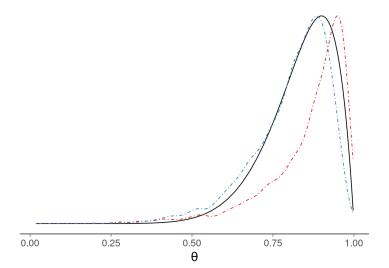
Let's compare a wrong normal approximation and correct one



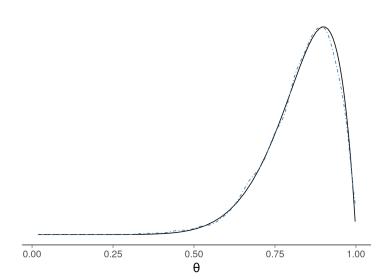
Let's compare a wrong normal approximation and correct one Sample from both approximations and show KDEs for draws



Let's compare a wrong normal approximation and correct one Inverse transform draws and show KDEs



Laplace approximation can be further improved with importance resampling



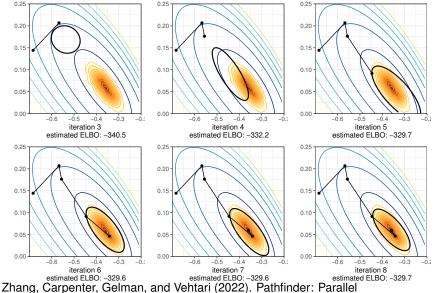
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- Instead of mode and Hessian at mode, e.g.
  - variational inference (Ch 13)
    - CS-E4820 Machine Learning: Advanced Probabilistic Methods
    - CS-E4895 Gaussian Processes
    - Stan has the ADVI algorithm (not very good implementation)
    - Stan has Pathfinder algorithm (CmdStanR github version)
    - instead of normal, methods with flexible flow transformations
  - expectation propagation (Ch 13)
  - speed of these is usually between optimization and MCMC
    - stochastic variational inference can be eeven slower than MCMC

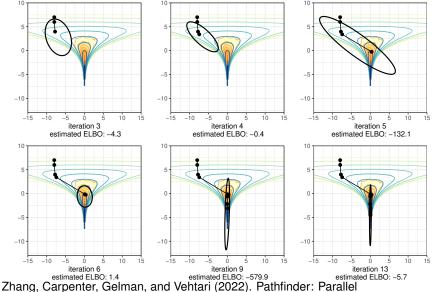
## Pathfinder: Parallel quasi-Newton variational inference.



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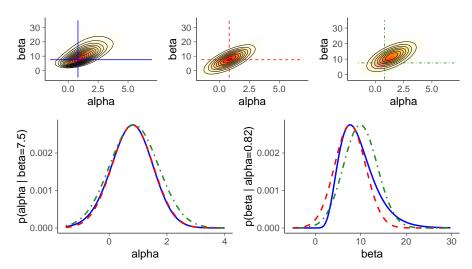
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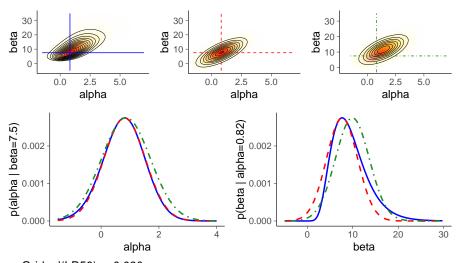
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Exact, Normal at mode, Normal with variational inference



# Distributional approximations

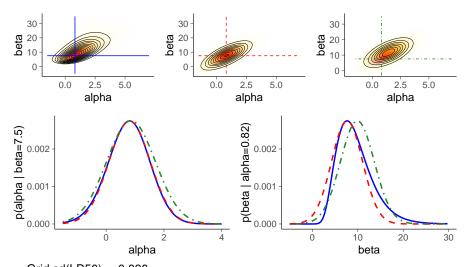
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  - with increasing number of posterior dimensions, the stochastic divergence estimate gets worse and flows have problems, too (Dhaka, Catalina, Andersen, Welandawe, Huggins, and Vehtari, 2021)

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  - see counter examples

- Assume "true" underlying data distribution f(y)
  - observations y<sub>1</sub>,..., y<sub>n</sub> are independent samples from the joint distribution f(y)
  - "true" data distribution f(y) is not always well defined
  - in the following we proceed as if there were true underlying data distribution
  - for the theory the exact form of f(y) is not important as long at it has certain regularity conditions

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- e.g. if we never observe u and v at the same time and the model is

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathsf{N} \left( \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

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 e.g. u and v could be length and weight of a student; if only one of them is measured for each student, then ρ is non-identifiable

- Under- and non-identifiability
  - a model is under-identifiable, if the model has parameters or parameter combinations for which there is no information in the data
  - then there is no single point θ<sub>0</sub> where posterior would converge
  - e.g. if the model is

$$y \sim N(a+b+cx,\sigma)$$

- posterior would converge to a line with prior determining the density along the line
- e.g. if we never observe u and v at the same time and the model is

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \sim N \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

then correlation  $\rho$  is non-identifiable

- e.g. u and v could be length and weight of a student; if only one of them is measured for each student, then ρ is non-identifiable
- Problem also for other inference methods like MCMC

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- But a finite data from this data generating process may lack the joint height and weight observations, and thus the the finite data likelihood doesn't have information about ρ
- If the likelihood is weakly informative for some parameters, priors and integration are more important

- If the number of parameter increases as the number of observation increases
  - in some models number of parameters depends on the number of observations
  - e.g. time series models  $y_t \sim N(\theta_t, \sigma^2)$  and  $\theta_t$  has prior in time
  - posterior of  $\theta_t$  does not converge to a point, if additional observations do not bring enough information

- Aliasing (valetoisto in Finnish)
  - special case of under-identifiability where likelihood repeats in separate points
  - . e.g. mixture of normals

$$p(y_i|\mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \lambda) = \lambda N(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + (1 - \lambda) N(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

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 For MCMC makes the convergence diagnostics more difficult, as it is difficult to identify aliasing from other multimodality

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  - e.g. Binomial model, with Beta(0,0) prior and observation y = n
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- Should have a positive prior probability/density where needed

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  - if  $\theta_0$  is on the edge of the parameter space, Taylor series expansion has to be truncated, and normal approximation does not necessarily hold
  - e.g.  $y_i \sim N(\theta, 1)$  with a restriction  $\theta \geq 0$  and assume that  $\theta_0 = 0$ 
    - posterior of  $\theta$  is left truncated normal distribution with  $\mu = \bar{y}$
    - in the limit  $n \to \infty$  posterior is half normal distribution
- Can be easy or difficult for MCMC

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  - Calibration
    - $\alpha$ %-posterior interval has the true value in  $\alpha$ % cases
    - $\alpha$ %-predictive interval has the true future values in  $\alpha$ % cases
    - approximate calibration with shorter intervals for likely true values more important than exact calibration with very bad intervals for all possible values.

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- Confidence interval is defined to have true value inside the interval in  $\alpha\%$  cases of repeated data generation from the data generating mechanism
  - doesn't need be useful to have perfect calibration

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- Bayesian inference
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- A lot of machine learning is not pure frequentist or Bayesian