

Deterministic Bayesian inference methods for the Naomi model

HIV Inference Lab Group Meeting

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The Naomi model

- Naomi is a complicated spatio-temporal evidence synthesis model
- Used by countries to produce HIV estimates in a yearly process supported by UNAIDS
- Fast inference is important to allow for interactive review and development of estimates
- Inference for Naomi is currently conducted using Template Model Builder (TMB) (Kristensen et al. 2015)



Figure 1: A supermodel

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Upload inputs

Review inputs

Model options

Fit model

Calibrate model

Review output

Save results

BACK / CONTINUE

Spectrum file (required)

Select new file

Browse

Area boundary file (required)

Select new file

Browse

Population (required)

Select new file

Browse

Household Survey (required)

Select new file

Browse

ART

Select new file

Browse

ANC Testing

Select new file

Browse

BACK / CONTINUE

Figure 2: Example of the user interface from <https://naomi.unaids.org/>

Why do we use TMB

1. It runs quickly
2. It is flexible enough to be compatible with the model
3. We don't have better options

What problem we are trying to solve

- Ideally we want exact Bayesian inference: compute the posterior distribution of the parameters of the model given the data
- Computationally this amounts to solving a difficult integral
- We can't solve this, but we can give approximate answers

Goal: approximate this integral for Naomi better than TMB does. In doing so, more accurately reflect uncertainty over hyperparameters

Two deterministic methods

- We use two deterministic¹ methods to approximate our integral
 1. The Laplace approximation
 2. Quadrature

¹In contrast to the most famous approximate Bayesian inference method, Markov chain Monte Carlo, which is fundamentally stochastic.

The Laplace approximation

- Pretend the posterior distribution is a Gaussian! Then it's easy

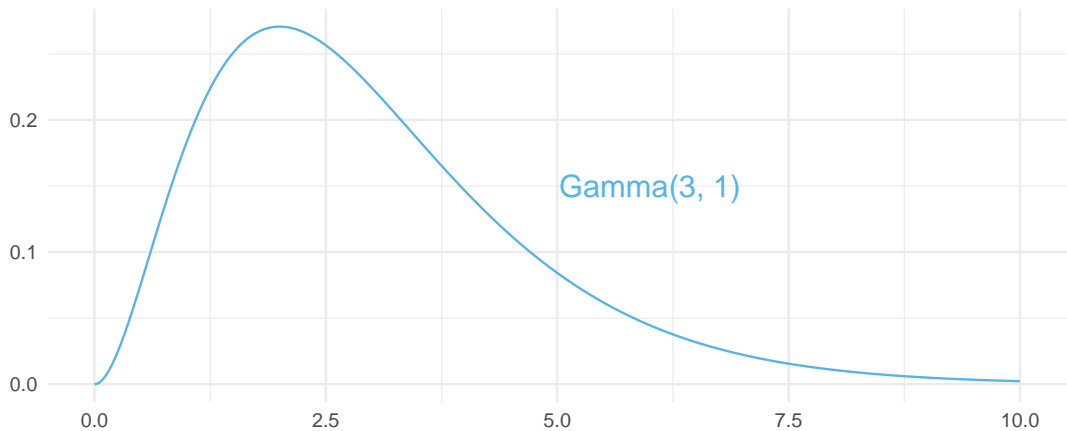


Figure 3: A Gamma prior with $a = 3$ and $b = 1$.

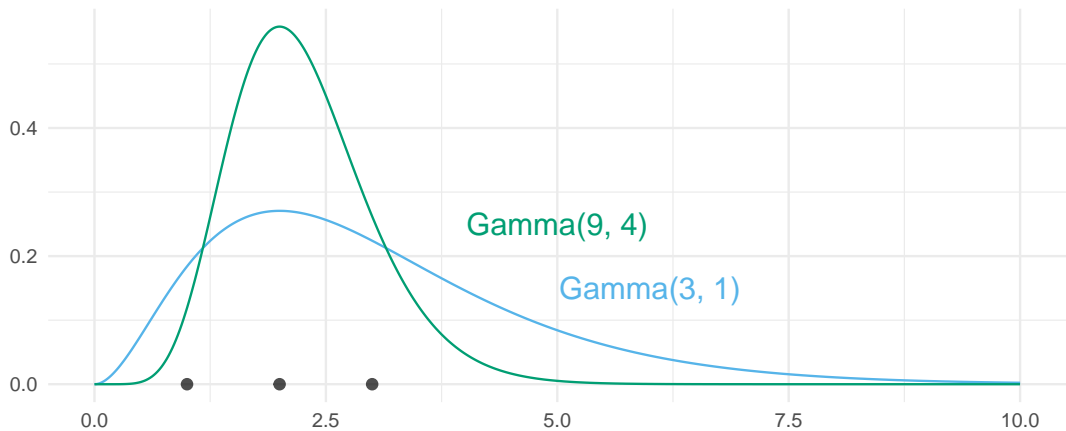


Figure 4: Draw 3 points from $\text{Poisson}(3)$, then compute the posterior.

```
fn <- function(x) dgamma(x, a + sum(y), b + length(y), log = TRUE)
```

```
# Here we are using numerical derivatives
```

```
ff <- list(  
  fn = fn,  
  gr = function(x) numDeriv::grad(fn, x),  
  he = function(x) numDeriv::hessian(fn, x)  
)
```

```
opt_bfgs <- aghq::optimize_theta(  
  ff, 1, control = aghq::default_control(method = "BFGS")  
)
```

Laplace approximation

```
laplace <- posterior +  
  stat_function(  
    data = data.frame(x = c(0, 10)),  
    aes(x),  
    fun = dnorm,  
    n = 500,  
    args = list(mean = opt_bfgs$mode, sd = sqrt(1 / opt_bfgs$hessian)),  
    col = cbpalette[3]  
  )
```

Laplace approximation

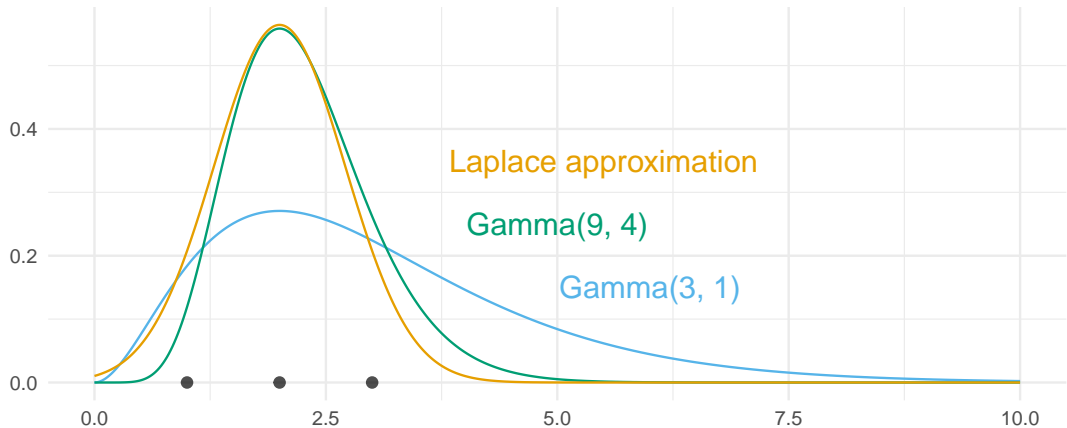


Figure 5: The Laplace approximation in this case is good near the mode but not in the tails.

Computation of the Laplace approximation

- This computation was simple, and involved
 1. Optimising a function to obtain `opt_bfgs`
 2. Taking the mode `opt_bfgs$mode` and the Hessian at the mode `opt_bfgs$hessian`

The marginal Laplace approximation

- If we don't want to pretend the whole posterior distribution is Gaussian, another option is to pretend some of its marginals are
- This is how TMB works: it's up to the user to choose which parameters should be Gaussian using the `random` option

Small interlude

- In spatio-temporal statistics we have data indexed by space and time
- To model this data, we use random effects also indexed by space and time
- There might be a lot of spatio-temporal locations

What about the hyperparameters?

- TMB uses optimisation to find the hyperparameters which maximise the marginal Laplace approximation
- This is the “outer” optimisation loop, where the “inner” is for computation of the Gaussian distribution

Inference for the latent field is based on a single value of the hyperparameters (the mode) – so called empirical Bayes \implies no uncertainty in the hyperparameters taken into account! How can you sleep at night.

Quadrature

- This brings us to our other method for solving integrals deterministically
 - Say we have a function, then quadrature has two ingredients
1. Nodes: points to evaluate the function at
 2. Weights: importance of function evaluation at that point

Trapezoid rule example

- Let's compute $\int_0^\pi \sin(x)dx = 2$ using quadrature

```
trapezoid_rule <- function(x, spacing) {  
  # Assumes nodes are evenly spaced  
  w <- rep(spacing, length(x)) # Weights given by space between nodes  
  w[1] <- w[1] / 2 # Apart from the first which is halved  
  w[length(x)] <- w[length(x)] / 2 # And the last, also halved  
  sum(w * x) # Compute the weighted sum  
}
```

Number of nodes: 10
Trapezoid rule estimate: 1.98
Truth: 2

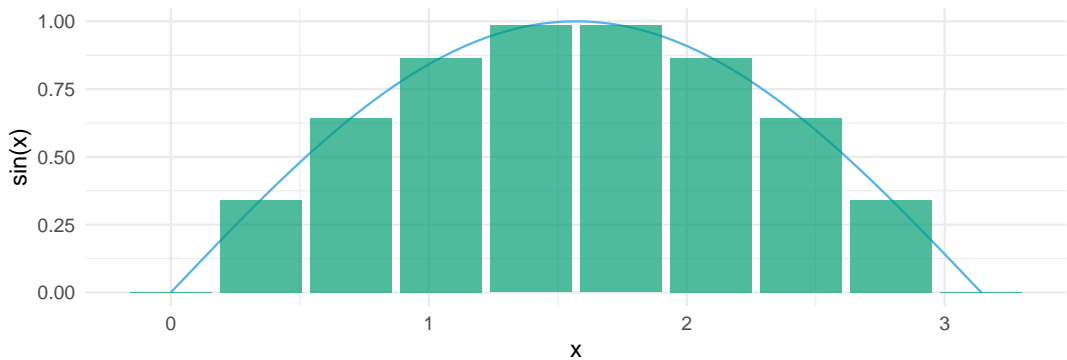


Figure 6: With 10 nodes it's 0.02 off.

Number of nodes: 30
Trapezoid rule estimate: 1.998
Truth: 2

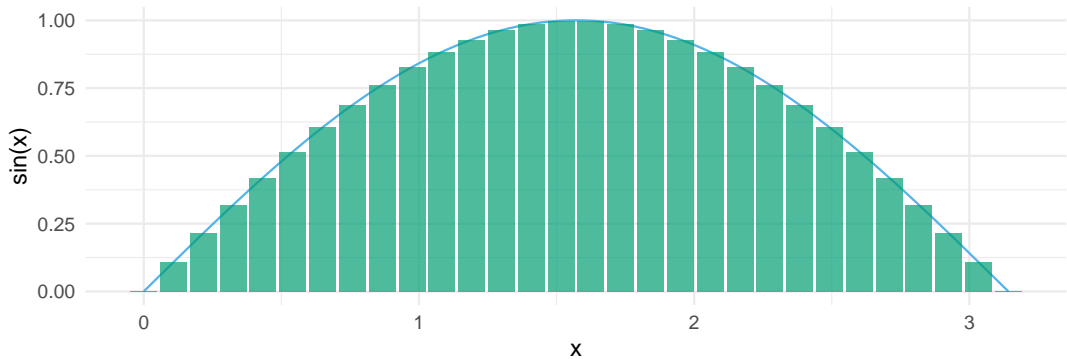


Figure 7: With 30 nodes it's 0.002 off.

Number of nodes: 100
Trapezoid rule estimate: 2
Truth: 2

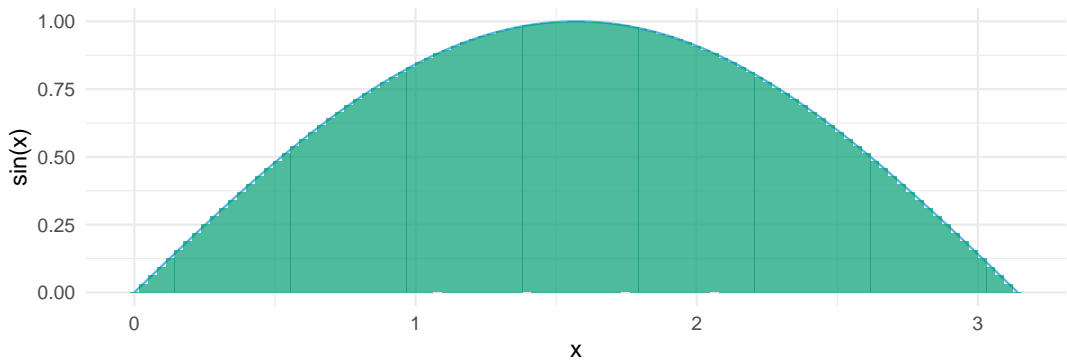


Figure 8: With 100 nodes it's pretty much correct.

Adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature

- Gauss-Hermite quadrature is a method for picking nodes and weights based on the theory of polynomial interpolation
- It works especially well for statistical problems where the integrand looks like something multiplied by a Gaussian distribution
- The “adaptive” part means the nodes and weights are changed depending on the integrand. This makes sense, especially when the integrand is also a function of the data
- Implemented by the `aghq` package (Stringer 2021)

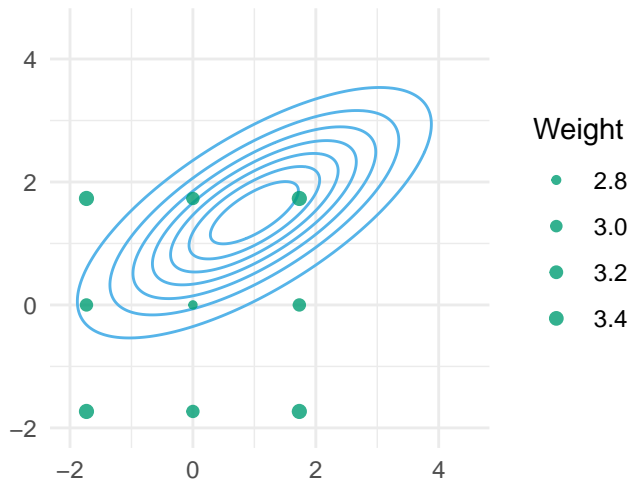


Figure 9: Unadapted points in two dimensions with $k = 3$.

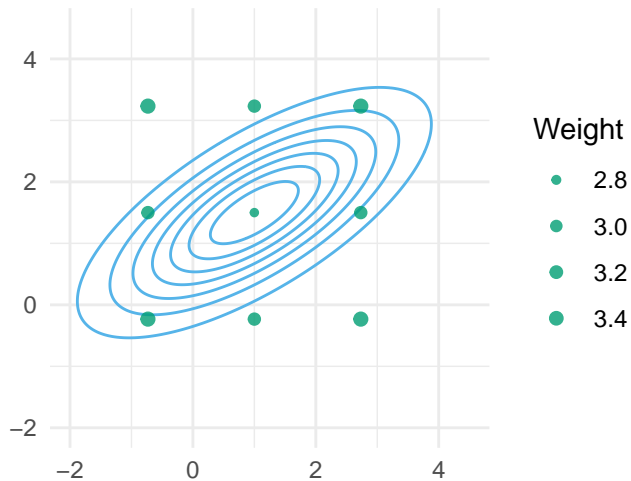


Figure 10: Add the mean $z + \hat{\theta}$.

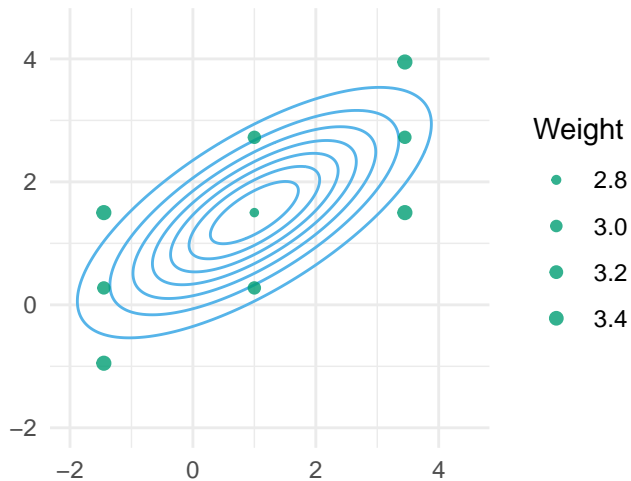


Figure 11: First option: rotate by the lower Cholesky $Lz + \hat{\theta}$.

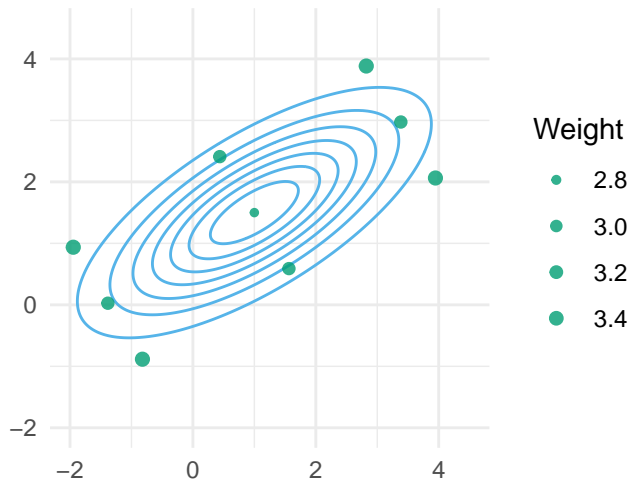


Figure 12: Second option: rotate using the eigendecomposition $E\Lambda^{1/2}z + \hat{\theta}$.

The plan

- Write and implement an algorithm for fast approximate Bayesian inference using the Laplace approximation and quadrature for the Naomi model
- Use TMB for writing the model in C++ and implementing the Laplace approximation via automatic differentiation
- Use a adaptive Gauss-Hermite quadrature to integrate the hyperparameters

Long prophesied

*My main comment is that several aspects of the computational machinery that is presented by Rue and his colleagues **could benefit from the use of a numerical technique known as automatic differentiation (AD)** ... By the use of AD one could obtain a system that is automatic from a user's perspective... the benefit would be a fast, flexible and easy-to-use system for doing Bayesian analysis in models with Gaussian latent variables*

- Hans J. Skaug (coauthor of TMB), RSS discussion of Rue, Martino, and Chopin (2009)

One challenge

- For Malawi, Naomi has 24 hyperparameters: too many for a dense grid
- Proposed solution: use principle components analysis

Thanks for listening!

- Working on a paper “Fast approximate Bayesian inference for small-area estimation of HIV indicators using the Naomi model” based on this work
 - Joint with Alex Stringer (Waterloo), Seth Flaxman (Oxford), Jeff Eaton (Imperial)
- Let me know if you'd be up for being an early reader!
- Code for this project is at athowes.github.io/elgm-inf

References I

- Kristensen, Kasper, Anders Nielsen, Casper W Berg, Hans Skaug, and Brad Bell. 2015. “TMB: automatic differentiation and Laplace approximation.” *arXiv Preprint arXiv:1509.00660*.
- Rue, Håvard, Sara Martino, and Nicolas Chopin. 2009. “Approximate Bayesian inference for latent Gaussian models by using integrated nested Laplace approximations.” *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series b (Statistical Methodology)* 71 (2): 319–92.
- Stringer, Alex. 2021. “Implementing Approximate Bayesian Inference Using Adaptive Quadrature: The Aghq Package.” <https://arxiv.org/abs/2101.04468>.