Approximate Bayesian Computation

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Objective & Motivation

The objective of this presentation is to give an overview of the Approximate Bayesian Computation (ABC) algorithm through the replication of the paper **Approximate Bayesian computational methods** by Marin et al. (2012).

The paper talks about different variants of ABC by estimating the posterior of Moving Average models.

Objective & Motivation

ABC methods are known as likelihood-free techniques, thus are a useful approach in problems that the likelihood is intractable, e.g., likelihood not available in closed form, or likelihood too expensive to calculate.

- Coalecent models in population genetics (Tavaré et al., 1997);
- Species dynamics (Jabot and Lohier, 2016);
- Real-world model of HIV transmission (McKinley et al., 2018).

Objective & Motivation

In some settings where we have latent variables, the likelihood is expressed as:

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \int \ell^*(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{u}) d\boldsymbol{u}$$

Hence, ${\it y}$ is observed and ${\it u}$ is latent and ${\it \theta}$ is the parameter of interest.

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Rubin (1984) described the ABC algorithm as a thought experiment to explain how to sample from a posterior distribution. Tavaré et al. (1997) is usually considered the paper responsible for the proposing ABC for infering the posterior distribution.

Algorithm 1: Original ABC method

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{for } i = 1 \ to \ N \ \textbf{do} \\ & & \textbf{repeat} \\ & & \textbf{Sample } \theta' \sim \pi(\cdot) \\ & & \textbf{Generate } \textbf{z} \sim p(\cdot \mid \theta') \\ & & \textbf{until } \textbf{y} = \textbf{z}; \\ \end{tabular}
```

Below we have an schematic drawing with an example of the ABC method for Beta/Binomial model.

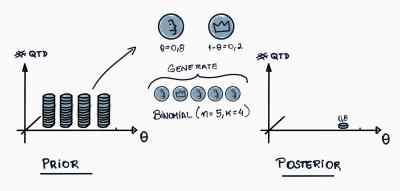


Figure 1: Schematic drawing of ABC method for Beta/Binomial model

The proof that the algorithm indeed results in an iid sample from the posterior is shown below. Let y be the observed, θ the parameter of interest and z the generated samples.

$$p(\theta_i) \propto \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{D}} \pi(\theta_i) p(\mathbf{z} \mid \theta_i) \mathbb{I}_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{z}) = \pi(\theta_i) p(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta_i) \propto \pi(\theta_i \mid \mathbf{y})$$

Pritchard et al. (1999) extended the original algorithm to the case of continuos sample spaces.

Algorithm 2: ABC method for discrete and continuous distributions

```
\begin{tabular}{l|l} \textbf{for } i = 1 \ to \ N \ \textbf{do} \\ \hline & \textbf{repeat} \\ & \mid \ \mathsf{Sample} \ \theta' \sim \pi(\cdot) \\ & \mid \ \mathsf{Generate} \ \textbf{z} \sim p(\cdot \mid \theta') \\ & \quad \textbf{until} \ \rho[\eta(\textbf{y}), \eta(\textbf{z})] \leq \epsilon; \\ \hline \end{tabular}
```

end

- $-\eta$: function defining a statistic (e.g. the mean),
- ρ : a distance function,
- $-\epsilon$: acceptance tolerance.

For this ABC algorithm, instead of the actual posterior, we get

$$\pi_{\epsilon}(\theta, \mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\pi(\theta)p(\mathbf{z} \mid \theta)\mathbb{I}_{A_{\epsilon, \mathbf{y}}}(\mathbf{z})}{\int_{A_{\epsilon, \mathbf{y}} \times \theta} \pi(\theta)p(\mathbf{z} \mid \theta)d\mathbf{z}d\theta}$$

Where, $A_{\epsilon, \mathbf{y}} = \{ \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{D} \mid \rho[\eta(\mathbf{z}), \eta(\mathbf{y}) \leq \epsilon]. \}$

Hence, for a tolerance (ϵ) "small enough", we expect a good approximation.

$$\pi_{\epsilon}(heta \mid extbf{ extit{y}}) = \int \pi_{\epsilon}(heta, extbf{ extit{z}} \mid extbf{ extit{y}}) d extbf{ extit{z}} pprox \pi(heta \mid extbf{ extit{y}})$$

We will use the Moving Average model, also denoted as MA(q), for assessing the performance of the ABC methods. The MA(q) process is a stochastic process defined by:

$$y_k = u_k + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i u_{k-i}$$

Where $(u_k)_{k\in\mathbb{Z}}\stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0,1)$. For a q=2, imposing the standard identifiability condition we obtain the following conditions:

$$-2<\theta_1<2, \qquad \theta_1+\theta_2>-1, \qquad \theta_1-\theta_2<1.$$

Hence, we use an uniform distribution over this triangular region as prior for θ . The likelihood of $\mathbf{y} \mid \theta$ is more complex because of the need to integrate \mathbf{u} .

We generate a synthetic sample of length 100 using $(\theta_1, \theta_2) = (0.6, 0.2)$. For q = 2 we can also numerically calculate the real posterior and the marginal distributions.

$$\pi(\theta \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto \pi(\theta) p(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta), \qquad \mathbf{y} \mid \theta \sim MVN(0, \Sigma)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & \theta_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & 1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & \theta_2 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \theta_2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & 1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & \theta_2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \theta_2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & 1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 & \theta_1 + \theta_2\theta_1 & \theta_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \theta_2 & \theta_1 + \theta_1\theta_2 & 1 + \theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

For this model, the ABC algorithm consists of:

- ullet Sample $oldsymbol{ heta}^*$ from the uniform triangular prior using rejection sampling;
- For each $k \in \{-1, 0, 1, ..., 100\}$, sample $u_k \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0, 1)$.
- For each $k \in \{1, 2, ..., 100\}$, calculate $z_k = u_k + \sum_{i=1}^2 \theta_i^* u_{k-i}$.

Two distance metrics are used. The raw distance between the series

$$\rho^{2}\{\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{y}\} = \sum_{k=1}^{n=100} (y_{k} - z_{k})^{2}$$

And the sum of the quadratic distances between the first q=2 autocovariances

$$\tau_j(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=j+1}^{n=100} x_k x_{k-j}, \qquad \rho^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{q=2} (\tau_j(\mathbf{y}) - \tau_j(\mathbf{z}))^2$$

Below we present the results of running ABC for the MA(2) process.

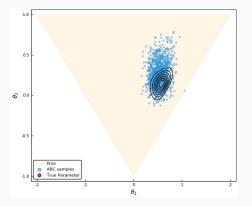


Figure 2: Comparison between the true posterior (*line in black*), with the samples produced using the ABC . The number of simulations is $N=10^6$, and the threshold ϵ corresponds to the quantile of accepting 0.1%. The ρ used was the distance of the autocovariances.

Calibration of ABC

Summary Statistics(η). As the number of observations grow, using the raw distance between each observation becomes too prohibitive. The alternative is to try using summary statistics, if possible, sufficient statistics.

Fearnhead and Prangle (2010) created a way of constructing appropriate summary statistics for ABC in a semi-automatic manner.

Tolerance threshold. The standard practice is to use ϵ as a quantile of the simulated distances.

Calibration of ABC

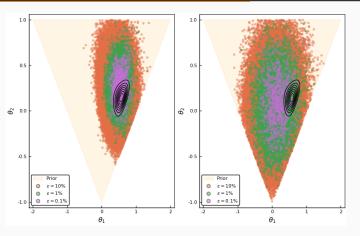


Figure 3: Comparison of ABC method when using autocovariance distance 1 (*left*) versus raw distance (*right*). The number of simulations is $N=10^6$ and different thresholds ϵ are used.

¹in the rest of the slides we will only use the autocovariance distances

Calibration of ABC

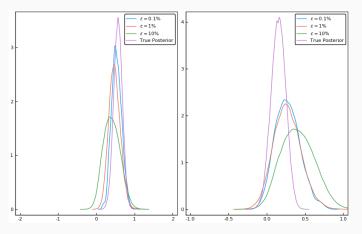


Figure 4: Comparison of ABC samples with the true posterior marginal distribution for θ_1 (*left*) and θ_2 (*right*).

end

Using non-informative priors is usually very inefficient, because it leads to lots of rejections. To tackle this problem, Marjoram et al. (2003) came up with MCMC-ABC.

Algorithm 3: MCMC-ABC

```
Use Algorithm 2 to get (\theta^{(0),z^{(0)}} from the target \pi_{\epsilon}(\theta,z\mid y).
for i=1 to N do
        repeat
                 Sample \theta' from the Markov kernel q(\cdot \mid \theta^{(i-1)})
                 Generate \mathbf{z} \sim p(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}')
                Sample u \sim U[0,1]
                if u \leq \frac{\pi(\theta')q(\theta^{(i-1)}|)}{\pi(\theta^{(i-1)})q(\theta^{(i-1)}|)} and \rho\{\eta(\mathbf{z}'),\eta(\mathbf{y})\}\leq \epsilon then
                         Set (\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{z}^{(i)}) = (\boldsymbol{\theta}', \boldsymbol{z}')
                 end
                 else
                         Set (\theta^{(i)}, z^{(i)}) = (\theta^{(i-1)}, z^{(i-1)})
                 end
        until \rho[\eta(\mathbf{y}), \eta(\mathbf{z})] < \epsilon;
```

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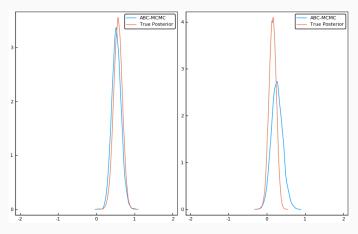


Figure 5: Comparison of ABC-MCMC samples with the true posterior marginal distribution for θ_1 (*left*) and θ_2 (*right*) using $\epsilon=0.1\%$.

Another variation of ABC is called *Noisy* ABC, that was proposed by Wilkinson (2013). The original ABC algorithm can be thought as a rejection algorithm using a uniform kernel ($\mathbb{I}_{A_{\epsilon},y(z)}$). The *Noisy* version generalizes this, allowing the use of different kernels, hence:

$$\pi_{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\mathbf{z} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})K_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z})}{\int \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\mathbf{z} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})K_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z})d\mathbf{z}d\boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

Now, instead of accepting if $\rho\{\eta(\mathbf{y}), \eta(\mathbf{z})\} \leq \epsilon$, we accept with probability $\frac{K_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z})}{\max\{K_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z}\})}$.

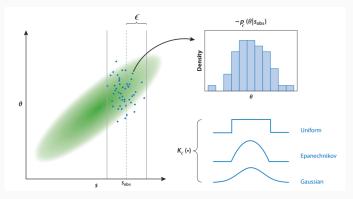


Figure 6: Illustration of *Noisy* ABC rejection kernels, where s is the statistic from the ABC sampler and s_{obs} is the observed value from the data. Figure from Beaumont (2019).

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