LECTURE 14: BAYESIAN INFERENCE AND MONTE CARLO METHODS

STAT 545: INTRO. TO COMPUTATIONAL STATISTICS

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Point estimate discards information about uncertainty in heta

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- What is a good prior over θ ?
- What is a convenient prior over θ ?

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An exception: 'Conjugate priors' for exponential family distributions.

Let observations come from an exponential-family:

$$p(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)}h(x)\exp(\theta^{\top}\phi(x))$$
$$= h(x)\exp(\theta^{\top}\phi(x) - \zeta(\theta)) \quad \text{with } \zeta(\theta) = \log(Z(\theta))$$

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$$\propto \eta(\theta) \exp\left(\theta^{\top} \left(a + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \phi(x_i)\right) - \zeta(\theta)(b + N)\right)$$

CONJUGATE PRIORS (CONTD.)

Prior over θ : exp. fam. distribution with parameters (a, b).

Posterior: same family with parameters $(a + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \phi(x_i), b + N)$.

Rare instance where analytical expressions for posterior exists.

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Note the conjugate prior is an entire family of distributions.

- Actual distribution is chosen by setting the parameters (a, b) (a has the same dimension as ϕ , b is a scalar)
- · These might be set by e.g. talking to a domain expert.

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$$= \exp(\mathbb{1}(x=1)\log(\pi) + (1-\mathbb{1}(x=1))\log(1-\pi))$$

$$= (1-\pi)\exp\left(\mathbb{1}(x=1)\log\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+\exp(\theta)}\exp(\phi(x)\theta)$$

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Defining $\zeta(\theta) = \log Z(\theta)$ as in the previous slide,

$$p(x|\theta) = \exp(\phi(x)\theta - \zeta(\theta))$$

When $\theta = \log \frac{\pi}{1-\pi}$ is unknown, a Bayesian places a prior on it.

As before, define an exp. fam. prior with parameters \vec{a} :

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Then given data $X = (x_1, \ldots, x_N)$,

$$p(\theta|\vec{a},X) \propto p(\theta,X|\vec{a})$$

$$\propto \exp\left(\left(a_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}(x_i = 1)\right)\theta + (a_2 - N)\zeta(\theta)\right)$$

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Thus, the posterior is in the same family as the prior, but with updated parameters $(a_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}(x_i = 1), a_2 - N)$.

Looking at the prior more carefully, we see:

$$p(\theta|\vec{a}) \propto \exp(a_1\theta + a_2\zeta(\theta))$$

$$\propto \exp\left(a_1\log\frac{\pi}{1-\pi} + a_2\log(1-\pi)\right)$$

$$\propto \pi^{a_1}(1-\pi)^{(a_2-a_1)}$$

$$= \pi^{b_1-1}(1-\pi)^{(b_2-1)}$$

This is just the Beta (b_1, b_2) distribution, and you can check that the posterior is Beta $(b_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}(x_i = 1), b_2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}(x_i = 0))$.

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 b_1 and b_2 are sometimes called pseudo-observations, and capture our prior beliefs: before seeing any x's our prior is as if we saw b_1 successes and b_2 failures. After seeing data, we factor actual observations into the pseudo-observations.



What about the situation when the posterior $p(\theta|X)$ is no longer simple/available in closed form?

What information about $p(\theta|X)$ do we really need?

Typically, expectations of different functions g:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta|X}[g] = \int d\theta g(\theta) p(\theta|X)$$

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What is g for to calculate 1) mean, 2) variance, 3) $p(\theta > 10|X)$?

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Monte Carlo approximation:

- Obtain points by sampling from p(x): $x_i \sim p$
- · Approximate integration with summation

$$\hat{\mu} \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(x_i)$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(x_i)$$

If $x_i \sim p$,

$$\mathbb{E}_{p}[\hat{\mu}] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{p}[g] = \mu$$

Unbiased estimate

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(x_i)$$

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Unbiased estimate

$$Var_p[\hat{\mu}] = \frac{1}{N} Var_p[g],$$

Error = StdDev $\propto N^{-1/2}$

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}f\to\mathbb{E}_{p}(g)=\mu\quad\text{ as }N\to\infty$$

Consistent estimate (LLN)

MONTE CARLO SAMPLING

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error
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- · If unbiasedness is important to you.
- · Very simple.
- Very modular: easily incorporated into more complex models (Gibbs sampling)

MONTE CARLO SAMPLING (CONTD.)

An aside: Monte Carlo should be your method of last resort!

Don't hesitate using numerical integration

· Numerical integration can be much faster and more accurate

Contrast

- > integrate(function(x) x * exp(-x), lower = 0, upper = Inf) with
- > mean(rexp(1000))

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- · Careful with batch/parallel processing.

R has a bunch of random number generators.

rnorm, rgamma, rbinom, rexp, rpoiss etc.

What if we want samples from some other distribution?

Inverse transform sampling

Let X have pdf
$$p(x)$$
, and cdf $F(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} p(u) du$

Let:

$$X \sim p(\cdot)$$

$$U = F(X)$$

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Equivalently, sample $U \sim \text{Unif}(0,1)$, and let $X = F^{-1}(U)$

Then $X \sim p(\cdot)$ (see wikipedia for proof)

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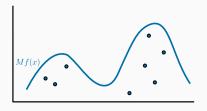
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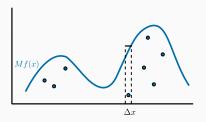
Usually hard to compute F^{-1} .

Let $p(x) = \frac{f(x)}{Z}$. Probability of a sample in $[x_0, x_0 + \Delta x] = p(x_0)\Delta x$.



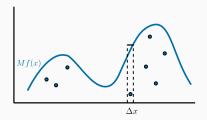
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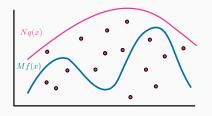
If we sample points uniformly below the curve Mf(x): Probability of a sample in $[x_0, x_0 + \Delta x] = \frac{Mf(x_0)\Delta X}{\int_X Mf(x_0)dx} = p(x_0)\Delta x$.

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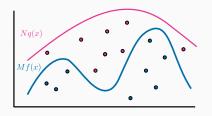
If we sample points uniformly below the curve Mf(x): Probability of a sample in $[x_0, x_0 + \Delta x] = \frac{Mf(x_0)\Delta X}{\int_X Mf(x_0)dx} = p(x_0)\Delta x$. How to do this (without sampling from p)?

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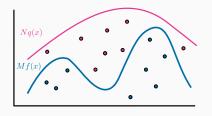
If $Mf(x) \leq Nq(x) \ \forall x$ for constant N and distribution $q(\cdot)$ Sample points uniformly under Nq(x). (sample $x_0 \sim q(\cdot)$, and assign it a uniform height in $[0, Nq(x_0)]$

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If $Mf(x) \leq Nq(x) \ \forall x$ for constant N and distribution $q(\cdot)$ Sample points uniformly under Nq(x). Keep only points under Mf(x).

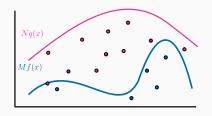
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Equivalent algorithm: (convince yourself)

- Propose $x^* \sim q(\cdot)$
- Accept with probability $Mf(x^*)/Nq(x^*)$

Let $p(x) = \frac{f(x)}{Z}$. Probability of a sample in $[x_0, x_0 + \Delta x] = p(x_0)\Delta x$.



We need a bound on f(x). A loose bound leads to lots of rejections. Probability of acceptance = $\frac{MZ}{N}$.

INTRACTABLE NORMALIZATION CONSTANTS

A probability density takes the form $p(x) = \frac{f(x)}{Z}$

- $Z = \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x) dx$ is the normalization contant
- · Ensures probability integrates to 1

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Consequently, evaluating p(x) is hard

However, rejection sampling doesn't need Z or p(x)

REJECTION SAMPLING (CONTD.)

Example 1:

$$p(x) \propto \exp(-x^2/2)|\sin(x)|$$

Example 2 (truncated normal):

$$p(x) \propto \exp(-x^2/2) \mathbf{1}_{\{x > c\}}$$

What is M for each case? What can we say about efficiency?

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$$\mathbb{E}_p[g] = \int g(x)p(x)\mathrm{d}x = \int g(x)\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}q(x)\mathrm{d}x = \mathbb{E}_q\left[\frac{g(x)p(x)}{q(x)}\right]$$

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Use Monte Carlo approximation to the latter expectation:

• Draw proposal x from $q(\cdot)$ and calculate weight $w(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$.

$$\int g(x)p(x)\mathrm{d}x \approx \frac{1}{N}\sum_{s=1}^{N}w(x_s)g(x_s)$$

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Use Monte Carlo approximation to the latter expectation:

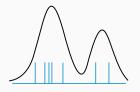
• Draw proposal x from $q(\cdot)$ and calculate weight $w(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$.

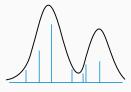
$$\int g(x)p(x)\mathrm{d}x \approx \frac{1}{N}\sum_{s=1}^{N}w(x_s)g(x_s)$$

Since
$$w(x) = p(x)/q(x) = \frac{f(x)}{Zq(x)}$$
:

- · We don't need a bounding envelope.
- · We need normalizn constant Z (but see later).

IMPORTANCE SAMPLING VS SIMPLE MONTE CARLO





Simple Monte Carlo/MCMC (left) uses sampling approximation Importance sampling (right) weights the samples

IMPORTANCE SAMPLING (CONTD)

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To reduce variance. E.g. rare event simulation.

Let
$$x \sim (0, 1)$$

• What is P(X > 5)?



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A better choice might be to bias the dice.

E.g.
$$q(x_i = v) \propto v$$
 (for $v \in \{1, ... 6\}$)

IMPORTANCE SAMPLING:

Define $S_X = \sum x_i$

$$p(S \ge 550) = \sum_{y \in \text{ all configs of 100 dice}} \delta(\sum y \ge 550) p(y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \text{ all configs of 100 dice}} \frac{p(y)}{q(y)} \delta(\sum y \ge 550) q(y)$$

For a proposal $X^* \sim q$,

$$w(X^*) = \frac{p(X^*)}{q(X^*)} = \frac{(1/6)^{100}}{\prod_i q(X_i^*)}$$

Use approximation $p(S \ge 550) \approx \sum_{j=1}^{N} w(X_j) \delta(\sum x_j^j \ge 550)$

$$Var[\mu_{imp}] = \mathbb{E}[\mu_{imp}^2] - \mu^2$$
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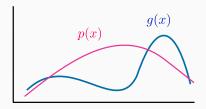
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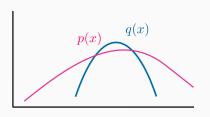
$$= 0 \qquad (!)$$



We achieve this lower bound when $q(x) \propto p(x)g(x)$. A slightly useless result, because

$$q(x) = \frac{p(x)g(x)}{\int_{\mathcal{X}} p(x)g(x)dx}$$

requires solving the integral we care about.

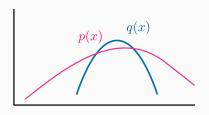


We want a small variance in the weights $w(x_i)$. Easy to check at $\mathbb{E}_a[w(x)] = 1$.

$$Var_q[w(x)] = \mathbb{E}_q[w(x)^2] - \mathbb{E}_q[w(x)]^2$$

$$= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \left(\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}\right)^2 q(x) dx - 1 \qquad = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{p(x)^2}{q(x)} dx - 1$$

Can be unbounded. E.g. $p = \mathcal{N}(0,2)$ and $q = \mathcal{N}(0,1)$.



A popular diagnosis statistic: effective sample size (ESS).

$$ESS = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} w(x_i)\right)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w(x_i)^2}$$

Small ESS \rightarrow Large variability in w's \rightarrow bad estimate. Large ESS promises you nothing!

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Can use to approximate importance sampling weights $w(x_i)$:

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Use $\tilde{w}(x)$ instead of w(x) in the Monte Carlo approximation. Is biased for finite N, but consistent as $N \to \infty$.