4: Asymptotic and connections to non-Bayesian approaches

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Introduction

We examine what happens to posterior distributions when $n \to \infty$. These results help us understand our models better, and they can suggest useful approximations (when computation is too difficult).

Taylor (UVA) "4" 2 / 22

Bayesian Consistency

A mathematical framework

- **1** likelihood we are using/assuming: $p(y \mid \theta)$
- 2 prior we are using $p(\theta)$
- **3** the true distribution $f(y) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(y_i)$
- **3** θ_0 is the minimizer of $KL(\theta)$

Taylor (UVA) "4" 3/22

Bayesian Consistency on finite parameter space

Theorem 1

Suppose there exists θ such that $f(y_i) = p(y_i \mid \theta)$ and the parameter space is finite. If $p(\theta_0) > 0$ (prior puts mass on the true value), then

$$p(\theta_0 \mid y) \rightarrow 1$$

as $n \to \infty$.

Convergence is with respect to f(y)!

Taylor (UVA) "4" 4 / 22

Bayesian Consistency

Recall that if $\bar{Y}_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu < 0$, then $\sum_i Y_i \stackrel{p}{\to} -\infty$.

The y_i are random here! We are keeping parameters fixed. Also $\theta \neq \theta_0$:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{p(y_i \mid \theta)}{p(y_i \mid \theta_0)} \right) \stackrel{p}{\to} E_f \left[\log \left(\frac{p(y_i \mid \theta)f(y_i)}{p(y_i \mid \theta_0)f(y_i)} \right) \right]$$
$$= KL(\theta_0) - KL(\theta) < 0$$

- so $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{p(y_i|\theta)}{p(y_i|\theta_0)} \right) \stackrel{p}{\to} -\infty$
- ② so $\log\left(\frac{p(\theta|y)}{p(\theta_0|y)}\right) = \log\frac{p(\theta)}{p(\theta_0)} + \sum_{i=1}^n \log\left(\frac{p(y_i|\theta)}{p(y_i|\theta_0)}\right) \xrightarrow{p} -\infty \text{ if } p(\theta_0) > 0$
- \bullet so $\frac{p(\theta|y)}{p(\theta_0|y)} \stackrel{P}{\to} 0$ as long as $p(\theta_0) > 0$
- so $p(\theta_0 \mid y) \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} 1$ as long as $p(\theta_0) > 0$

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Bayesian Consistency

Theorem 2

Suppose there exists θ such that $f(y_i) = p(y_i \mid \theta)$ and the parameter space is uncountable and compact. Let $A_{\epsilon} = \{\theta \in \Theta : \rho(\theta, \theta_0) < \epsilon\}$ be the ϵ -ball about θ_0 . For any $\epsilon > 0$, if $p(\theta \in A_{\epsilon}) > 0$, then

$$p(\theta \in A_{\epsilon} \mid y) \to 1$$

as $n \to \infty$.

Convergence is with respect to f(y)!

Taylor (UVA) "4" 6/22

Asymptotic Normality: Laplace's Method

These ideas are based on using a Taylor approximation for your posterior distribution.

- approximations are second-order (quadratic)
- $oldsymbol{2}$ centered about the posterior mode $\hat{ heta}$
- Assume the posterior is unimodal and symmetric
- Assume the mode is in the interior of the parameter space

Taylor (UVA) "4" 7/2

Asymptotic Normality: Laplace's Method

These ideas are based on using a Taylor approximation for your posterior distribution.

- approximations are second-order (quadratic)
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- 3 Assume the posterior is unimodal and symmetric
- Assume the mode is in the interior of the parameter space

$$\log p(\theta \mid y) \approx \underbrace{\log p(\hat{\theta} \mid y) + (\theta - \hat{\theta})' \left[\frac{d}{d\theta} \log p(\theta \mid y) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}}}_{0}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \hat{\theta})' \left[\frac{d^{2}}{d\theta^{2}} \log p(\theta \mid y) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}} (\theta - \hat{\theta})$$

$$= c - \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \hat{\theta})' \left[-\frac{d^{2}}{d\theta^{2}} \log p(\theta \mid y) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}} (\theta - \hat{\theta})$$

Asymptotic Normality: Laplace's Method

$$\log p(\theta \mid y) \approx c - \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \underbrace{\hat{\theta}}_{\text{mean}})' \underbrace{\left[-\frac{\mathsf{d}^2}{\mathsf{d}\theta^2} \log p(\theta \mid y) \right] \bigg|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}}}_{\text{precision}} (\theta - \hat{\theta})$$

$$\left[-\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log p(\theta \mid y) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}} = \left[-\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log p(\theta) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}} + \sum_{i=1}^n \left[-\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log p(y \mid \theta) \right] \Big|_{\theta = \hat{\theta}}$$

Taylor (UVA) 8/22

Asymptotic Normality

So we have, approximately for large n,

$$\theta \mid y_1, \dots, y_n \sim \mathsf{Normal}\left(\hat{\theta}, n^{-1}J(\hat{\theta})^{-1}\right)$$

- **①** $\hat{\theta}$ is the posterior mode. Using MLE (ignoring prior) is also justified.
- ② $J(\hat{\theta})$ is the Fisher Information (of an individual datum's likelihood) evaluated at the posterior mode.
- This result is known as the Bernstein-von Mises theorem. Proof omitted.

Taylor (UVA) "4" 9/2

Let $y_i \mid \mu, \theta \sim N(\mu, \exp(2\theta))$ and $p(\mu, \theta) \propto 1$ with $\theta = \log \sigma$. Then

$$p(\mu, \theta \mid y) \propto (2\pi)^{-n/2} \exp(-n\theta) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2 \exp(2\theta)} \sum_{i} (y_i - \mu)^2\right]$$
$$= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \exp(-n\theta) \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2 \exp(2\theta)} \left\{n(\mu - \bar{y})^2 + (n-1)s^2\right\}\right]$$

let's approximate this for some practice!

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\mu}\log p(\mu,\theta\mid y) \\ &= \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\mu}\left[-\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - n\theta - \frac{1}{2\exp(2\theta)}\left\{n(\mu-\bar{y})^2 + (n-1)s^2\right\}\right] \\ &= -\frac{n(\mu-\bar{y})}{\exp(2\theta)} \stackrel{\mathrm{set}}{=} 0 \end{aligned}$$

which means $\hat{\mu} = \bar{y}$

Taylor (UVA) "4" 11/22

$$\begin{split} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\log p(\mu,\theta\mid y) \\ &= \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\left[-\frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi) - n\theta - \frac{1}{2\exp(2\theta)}\left\{n(\mu-\bar{y})^2 + (n-1)s^2\right\}\right] \\ &= -n + \left\{n(\mu-\bar{y})^2 + (n-1)s^2\right\}\exp(-2\theta) \stackrel{\mathrm{set}}{=} 0 \end{split}$$
 which means $\hat{\theta} = \log\left\{\sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}s^2}\right\}$ after we plug in $\hat{\mu}$

Taylor (UVA) 12 / 22

The mean vector is

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \hat{\mu} \\ \hat{\theta} \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \bar{y} \\ \log\left\{\sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}s^2}\right\} \end{array}\right]$$

Now let's find the precision matrix

Taylor (UVA) "4" 13/22

$$\frac{d^2}{d\mu^2} \log p(\mu, \theta \mid y) = -\frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{n(\mu - \bar{y})}{\exp(2\theta)}$$
$$= -n \exp(-2\theta)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \log p(\mu, \theta \mid y) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left\{ n(\mu - \bar{y})^2 + (n - 1)s^2 \right\} \exp(-2\theta)$$
$$= -2 \left\{ n(\mu - \bar{y})^2 + (n - 1)s^2 \right\} \exp(-2\theta)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{d\mu d\theta} \log p(\mu, \theta \mid y)$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\mu} \left\{ n(\mu - \bar{y})^2 + (n - 1)s^2 \right\} \exp(-2\theta)$$

$$= 2n(\mu - \bar{y}) \exp(-2\theta)$$

When we plug in the estimates, then the precision matrix is

$$-\frac{d^2}{d\theta^2}\log p(\theta\mid y)\bigg|_{\theta=\hat{\theta}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{n^2}{(n-1)s^2} & 0\\ 0 & 2n \end{bmatrix}$$

SO

$$p(\mu, \theta \mid y) \approx \mathsf{N} \left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \bar{y} \\ \log \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n} s^2} \right\} \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{(n-1)s^2}{n^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2n} \end{array} \right] \right)$$

Taylor (UVA) "4" 15/22

We go through some common examples where one of the above assumptions is not met. In these cases, using asymptotics is not allowed.

Taylor (UVA) "4" 16 / 22

A *model* is **underidentified** given data y if the likelihood, $p(y \mid \theta)$, is equal for a range of values θ .

A *model* is **weakly identified** given data y if the likelihood, $p(y \mid \theta)$, is close to being equal for a range of values θ .

These can be problematic because $\hat{\theta}$ will not have any specific number/vector θ to which it can converge. These are violations of assumption (3).

Taylor (UVA) "4" 17 / 22

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} u \\ v \end{array}\right] \left| \rho \sim \mathsf{Normal}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & \rho \\ \rho & 1 \end{array}\right]\right)$$

If v is latent/hidden, then we work with the marginal likelihood $p(u \mid \rho)$:

$$u \mid \rho \sim \mathsf{Normal}\left(0,1\right)$$

Notice that this is free of ρ !

$$p(\rho \mid u) \propto p(u \mid \rho)p(\rho) \propto p(\rho)$$

Here we say the *parameter* is **nonidentified**.

Taylor (UVA) "4" 18 / 22

Sometimes it is harder to spot nonidentifiable parameters. It may be the case that $p(y \mid \theta)$ yields the same function in y for two different values of θ . If this is true, then for any particular data set y, $p(y \mid \theta)$ will be equal for these two values of θ .

Example
$$y \mid \theta \sim \text{Normal}(0, \theta^2)$$
. Then $p(y \mid \theta) = p(y \mid -\theta)!$

We can fix this easily by restricting the parameter space. The model is no longer underidentified if $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^+$. When this happens, we call this problem **aliasing**.

Another example of **aliasing**. If you look at a histogram of y and it's bimodal, then a possibly suitable model is the **normal mixture model**:

$$p(y_i \mid \mu_1, \mu_2, \sigma_1^2, \sigma_2^2, \lambda)$$

$$= \lambda \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} (y_i - \mu_1)^2\right]$$

$$+(1 - \lambda) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_2^2} (y_i - \mu_2)^2\right]$$

When the number of parameters increases with the sample size, the standard asymptotics won't apply. For example, if $p(y_i \mid \theta_i)$ is the likelihood, and θ_i is a different parameter for each datum. This happens with Gaussian Process Models, which we talk about in Chap 21.

Taylor (UVA) "4" 21/22

Unbounded likelihoods might also be a problem. Assume

$$p(y \mid \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right].$$

If y = 0, then this simplifies to

$$p(y \mid \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

which goes to ∞ as $\sigma^2 \to 0$. The theoretical probablity of you getting y=0 is obviously 0, but it is possible to get 0s computationally if you have an **underflow** problem. Double precision floating point numbers give you about 15-17 digits of precision.

Taylor (UVA) "4" 22 / 2: