Computational Statistics II

Unit C.2: data augmentation for probit and logit models

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Unit C.2

Main concepts

- Albert & Chib data augmentation for probit models;
- Pólya-gamma data augmentation for logit models;
- EM and MM algorithms for logit models.
- Associated R code: https://tommasorigon.github.io/CompStat/exe/un_B2.html
- Additional R code (EM tutorial): https://github.com/tommasorigon/logisticVB

Main references

- Albert, J. H., & Chib, S. (1993). Bayesian analysis of binary and polychotomous response data. JASA, 88(422), 669–679.
- Durante, D., & Rigon, T. (2019). Conditionally conjugate mean-field variational Bayes for logistic models. Statistical Science, 34(3), 472–485.
- Polson, N. G., Scott, J. G., & Windle, J. (2013). Bayesian inference for logistic models using Pólya-Gamma latent variables. JASA, 108(504), 1339–1349.

Probit and logit regression models (recap)

- One of the first data augmentation success stories, within the Bayesian framework, is the highly influential Albert & Chib (1993) paper for probit regression.
- Although this approach is nowadays sub-optimal in several contexts, it is worth recalling it for historical purposes.
- Let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^\mathsf{T}$ be a vector of the observed binary responses.
- Let **X** be the corresponding design matrix whose generic row is $\mathbf{x}_i = (1, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})^\mathsf{T}$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.
- We consider a generalized linear model such that

$$(y_i \mid \pi_i) \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \mathsf{Bern}(\pi_i), \qquad \pi_i = g(\eta_i), \qquad \eta_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_p x_{ip},$$

where $g(\cdot)$ is either the inverse logit transform or the cdf of a standard normal $\Phi(\cdot)$.

Probit data-augmentation

■ The likelihood function of a probit regression model is the following

$$egin{aligned} \pi(oldsymbol{y} \mid eta) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \Phi(oldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}eta)^{y_i} \{1 - \Phi(oldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}eta)\}^{1-y_i} \ &= \prod_{i=1}^n [\mathbb{1}(y_i = 1)\Phi(oldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}eta) + \mathbb{1}(y_i = 0)\{1 - \Phi(oldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}eta)\}]. \end{aligned}$$

Let us assume a multivariate Gaussian prior $\pi(\beta)$, leading to the posterior

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}} \{1 - \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})\}^{1 - y_{i}}}{\int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}} \{1 - \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})\}^{1 - y_{i}} d\boldsymbol{\beta}},$$

whose normalizing constant is often (but not always!) hard to approximate.

■ Whenever computations of the normalizing constant are numerically unstable, we may seek for a suitable data augmentation strategy that enables Gibbs-sampling and EM.

Probit data-augmentation

- We introduce a vector of latent variables $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_n)^\mathsf{T}$ taking values $z_i \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Let us consider the following generative mechanism:

$$z_i = \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i, \qquad \epsilon_i \stackrel{\mathsf{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(0,1), \qquad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

and transform the scores into binary variables $y_i = \mathbb{1}(z_i > 0)$, for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

■ The augmented likelihood of therefore is given by

$$\pi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \mid \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \phi(z_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta, 1) \{ \mathbb{1}(z_i > 0) \mathbb{1}(y_i = 1) + \mathbb{1}(z_i \leq 0) \mathbb{1}(y_i = 0) \}.$$

Exercise. Prove that the marginal distribution of $\pi(y, z \mid \beta)$ coincides with $\pi(y \mid \beta)$.

Gibbs sampling for probit models

- It is easy to show (try that as an exercise) that the full conditional distribution can be obtained in closed form and they can be easily simulated.
- The full conditional distribution of β is conjugate under a Gaussian prior $\beta \sim N(b, B)$, so that

$$(eta \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \sim \mathsf{N}_{\scriptscriptstyle p}(\mu, \Sigma), \quad \mu = \Sigma (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{b}), \quad \Sigma = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{B}^{-1})^{-1}.$$

lacktriangle The elements of the full conditional distribution $(z \mid y, eta)$ are independent and having density

$$\pi(z_i \mid y_i = 1, \beta) \propto \phi(z_i \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta, 1) \mathbb{1}(z_i > 0)$$

and

$$\pi(z_i \mid y_i = 0, \beta) \propto \phi(z_i \mid \mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \beta, 1) \mathbb{1}(z_i \leq 0).$$

In other words, the z_i 's follow a truncated normal distribution.

■ Homework 2. Implement this Gibbs sampling using the Pima indian dataset.

Yes, but what about skew-normals?

Recently, it is has been recognized that the "intractable" posterior density

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}} \{1 - \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})\}^{1-y_{i}}}{\int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}) \prod_{i=1}^{n} \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})^{y_{i}} \{1 - \Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta})\}^{1-y_{i}} d\boldsymbol{\beta}},$$

is actually a known distribution!

- Indeed, the distribution of $(\beta \mid y)$ is a unified skew normal (SUN).
- Do we still need data-augmentation steps? Depending on the context, iid sampling from a SUN distribution is relatively easy (large p) or problematic (large n).

Reference

 Durante, D. (2019). Conjugate Bayes for probit regression via unified skew-normal distributions. *Biometrika*, 106(4), 765–779.

The logit regression model

- The logit regression model is often termed the canonical choice for binary regression; see e.g. the classic monograph by McCullagh and Nelder (1986).
- The first key reason is its improved interpretability, as the regression coefficients β can be nicely interpreted as log-odds ratios.
- The second reason is its analytical tractability, since the logit case is an exponential family of distributions.
- The latter property have a large number of implications, both within the frequentist and Bayesian framework; see e.g. the classic paper by Diaconis and Ylvisaker (1979).
- The likelihood function of a logit regression model is the following

$$\pi(\mathbf{y} \mid \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\exp(y_i \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta)}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta)}.$$

The Pólya-gamma distribution

- In a relatively recent paper, Polson et al. (2013) described a data-augmentation scheme for logistic regression based on the Pólya-gamma distribution.
- Definition (Pólya-gamma). A positive random variable Z has a Pólya-gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ denoted as $Z \sim PG(\alpha, \gamma)$, if

$$Z \stackrel{d}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{G_k}{(k-1/2)^2 + \gamma^2/(4\pi^2)},$$

where $G_k \sim GA(\alpha, 1)$ are independent random variables.

- Remark. The density $\pi(z \mid \alpha, \gamma)$ of a Pólya-gamma random variable $Z \sim PG(\alpha, \gamma)$ is expressed in terms of an infinite summation, but it can be easily simulated.
- lacktriangle In R this can be done using the rpg.devroye function of the BayesLogit R package.

Technical results about the Pólya-gamma distribution

■ Technical lemma 1. The Laplace transform characterizing the law of $V \sim PG(\alpha, 0)$ for any $\lambda > 0$ is readily available as

$$\mathbb{E}\{\exp(-\lambda V)\} = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda}{2\pi^2(k-1/2)^2}\right)^{-\alpha} = \cosh(\sqrt{\lambda/2})^{-\alpha}.$$

■ Technical lemma 2. The general family of distributions $Z \sim PG(\alpha, \gamma)$ is generated through the exponential tilting of $V \sim PG(\alpha, 0)$, since

$$\pi(z \mid \alpha, \gamma) = \frac{e^{-\gamma^2/2}\pi(v \mid \alpha, 0)}{\mathbb{E}\{\exp(-\gamma^2/2)\}} = \cosh(\gamma/2)^{\alpha}e^{-\gamma^2/2}\pi(v \mid \alpha, 0).$$

This can be again proved using the Laplace transform and appealing to the Weierstrass factorization theorem.

■ Intriguing idea? The Pólya-gamma is also infinitely divisible ⇒ CRM / NRMI can be constructed. The characterizing Lévy-intensity is available as an infinite series.

The data augmentation

- Let $z = (z_1, ..., z_n)^{\mathsf{T}}$ be a vector of latent iid random variables following a PG(1,0).
- Then, we define the following augmented likelihood

$$\pi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \mid \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \pi(z_i \mid 1, 0) \exp\{(y_i - 1/2) \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta - z_i (\mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta)^2 / 2\}.$$

■ Thanks to the technical lemma 1, we immediately recognize that this is a valid data augmentation, since

$$\pi(\mathbf{y} \mid \beta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \pi(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \mid \beta) d\mathbf{z}.$$

■ The augmented log-likelihood is quadratic in β , as in the probit case, therefore facilitating posterior computations.

Gibbs sampling for logit models

■ The full conditional distribution of β is conjugate under a Gaussian prior $\beta \sim N(b, B)$, so that

$$(eta \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \sim \mathsf{N}_{P}(\mu, \Sigma), \quad \mu = \Sigma \{ \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{y} - 1/2) + \mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \}, \quad \Sigma = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{B}^{-1})^{-1},$$
 where $\mathbf{Z} = \mathsf{diag}(z_1, \dots, z_n).$

Using the technical lemma 2, we recognize that the elements of the full conditional distribution $(z \mid y, \beta)$ are independent and such that

$$(z_i \mid \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \sim PG(1, \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\beta}), \qquad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Note that z_i is independent on \mathbf{y} given β .

- This enables a straightforward Gibbs sampling strategy, provided we can efficiently sample the Pólya-gamma random variables.
- Improved strategies can be devised if $y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, \pi_i)$.

R implementation

```
logit_Gibbs <- function(R, burn_in, y, X, B, b) {</pre>
 p <- ncol(X); n <- nrow(X)
 out <- matrix(0, R, p) # Initialize an empty matrix to store the values
 P <- solve(B) # Prior precision matrix
 Pb <- P ** b; Xy <- crossprod(X, y - 1 / 2) # Terms appearing in the Gibbs sampling
 beta <- rep(0, p) # Initialization
  # Gibbs sampling
 for (r in 1:(R + burn in)) {
   eta <- c(X %*% beta)
   omega <- rpg.devroye(num = n, h = 1, z = eta) # Sampling the Pólya-qamma latent variables
   eig <- eigen(crossprod(X * sqrt(omega)) + P, symmetric = TRUE)
    Sigma <- crossprod(t(eig$vectors) / sqrt(eig$values))
   mu <- Sigma %*% (Xy + Pb)
    A1 <- t(eig$vectors) / sgrt(eig$values)
    beta <- mu + c(matrix(rnorm(1 * p), 1, p) %*% A1) # Sampling beta
   if (r > burn in) {
        out[r - burn_in, ] <- beta # Store the values after the burn-in period
    }
  0111.
```

The Pima indian dataset

- We consider once again the Pima indian dataset example of unit B.2.
- The Pólya-gamma Gibbs sampler has excellent mixing and it requires no tuning.

```
# Running the MCMC (R = 30000, burn_in = 5000)

fit_MCMC <- as.mcmc(logit_Gibbs(R, burn_in, y, X, B, b))

summary(effectiveSize(fit_MCMC)) # Effective sample size (beta)

# Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.

# 10018 13592 15411 15182 17369 18900

summary(R / effectiveSize(fit_MCMC)) # Integrated autocorrelation time (beta)

# Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.

# 1.587 1.728 1.950 2.051 2.209 2.995

summary(1 - rejectionRate(fit_MCMC)) # Acceptance rate (beta)

# Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.

# 1 1 1 1 1 1
```

The Newton-Raphson algorithm (recap)

- The Pólya-gamma data augmentation is also useful also for maximization purposes.
- For the sake of clarity, let us focus on the MLE, which is defined as

$$\hat{\beta} = \arg\max_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n y_i(\pmb{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \beta) - \log\{1 + \exp(\pmb{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \beta)\} \right].$$

- Extensions to the MAP case (penalized MLE) is often straightforward.
- The textbook approach for this problem is the Newton-Raphson method, which gives

$$oldsymbol{eta}^{(r+1)} = oldsymbol{eta}^{(r)} + (oldsymbol{X}^\intercal oldsymbol{H}^{(r)} oldsymbol{X})^{-1} oldsymbol{X}^\intercal (oldsymbol{y} - oldsymbol{\pi}^{(r)}),$$

with
$${\it \textbf{H}}^{(r)}={\rm diag}\{\pi_1^{(r)}(1-\pi_1^{(r)}),\ldots,\pi_n^{(r)}(1-\pi_n^{(r)})\}.$$

Potential pitfalls

 The Newton-Raphson iterative scheme does not guarantee a monotonic sequence, implying that the algorithm could fail.

```
y <- c(rep(0,50), 1, rep(0,50), 0, rep(0, 5), rep(1, 10)) # Binary outcomes
X <- cbind(1, c(rep(0, 50), 0, rep(0.001, 50), 100, rep(-1, 15))) # Design matrix
```

- The MLE is $\hat{\beta} = (-4.603, -5.296)$ and $\log \pi(\mathbf{y} \mid \hat{\beta}) = -15.156$.
- However, the glm R command, which makes use of Newton-Raphson, does not reach the correct value and raises a warning.

```
coef(glm(y ~ X[, -1], family = "binomial")) # Estimation using Newton-Raphson.

## Warning: glm.fit: fitted probabilities numerically 0 or 1 occurred

## (Intercept) X[, -1]

## -3.372166e+15 -2.085057e+13
```

The EM algorithm for logistic regression

- An EM strategy automatically leads to a much higher numerical stability, due to the monotonic property.
- Expectation step. In first place, note that

$$\mathcal{Q}(\beta \mid \beta^{(r)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - 1/2) \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta - \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}(z_i) (\mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \beta)^2 + \mathsf{const},$$

where the expectation is taken w.r.t. Pólya-gamma density, $\pi(z_i \mid y, \beta^{(r)})$ whose expectation is known:

$$\mathbb{E}(z_i) = \hat{z}_i^{(r)} = \frac{\tanh(\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)}/2)}{2\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)}}.$$

■ Maximization step. Hence, we aim at maximizing $Q(\beta \mid \beta^{(r)})$, obtaining

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r+1)} = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \mathcal{Q}(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)}) = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \hat{\boldsymbol{Z}}^{(r)} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{y} - 1/2),$$

where
$$\hat{Z}^{(r)} = diag(\hat{z}_1^{(r)}, \dots, \hat{z}_n^{(r)}).$$

The EM for logistic regression

- It turns out that the Pólya-gamma data augmentation not only leads to a stable algorithm, but it has also a sharp connection with the Newthon-Rapson method.
- With some algebraic manipulation, we can show that

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r+1)} = (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \hat{\boldsymbol{Z}}^{(r)} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{y} - 1/2) = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)} + (\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \hat{\boldsymbol{Z}}^{(r)} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}} (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(r)}),$$

- In other terms, the Pólya-gamma EM coincides with a Newton-Rapshon step, having replaced the diagonal matrix $\mathbf{H}^{(r)}$ with $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}^{(r)}$.
- Interestingly, the following inequalities hold true

$$\pi_i^{(r)}(1-\pi_i^{(r)}) \leq \frac{\tanh(\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)}/2)}{2\boldsymbol{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)}} \leq \frac{1}{4}.$$

■ The first inequality implies that the EM will perform smaller but safer steps compared to the Newton-Rapshon algorithm.

Implementation in R

```
logit EM <- function(X, y, tol = 1e-16, beta start = NULL, maxiter = 10000) {
  # Initialization
  loglik <- numeric(maxiter)</pre>
  Xv \leftarrow crossprod(X, v - 0.5)
  eta <- c(X %*% beta)
  w \leftarrow tanh(eta / 2) / (2 * eta); w[is.nan(w)] \leftarrow 0.25
  loglik[1] \leftarrow sum(v * eta - log(1 + exp(eta)))
  # Iterative procedure
  for (t in 2:maxiter) {
    beta <- solve(qr(crossprod(X * w, X)), Xy)
    eta <- c(X %*% beta)
    w \leftarrow tanh(eta / 2) / (2 * eta); w[is.nan(w)] \leftarrow 0.25
    loglik[t] \leftarrow sum(v * eta - log(1 + exp(eta)))
    if (loglik[t] - loglik[t - 1] < tol) {</pre>
      return(list(beta = beta, Convergence = cbind(Iteration = (1:t) - 1,
         Loglikelihood = loglik[1:t])))
  stop("The algorithm has not reached convergence")
```

Solving the pitfalls of Newton-Raphson

- We compare the value of $\log \pi(\mathbf{y} \mid \beta^{(r)})$ obtained through the two algorithms and using the previously considered dataset.
- Both the EM and Newton-Raphson are initialized at $\beta^{(0)} = (0,0)$. Moreover, this means that $\pi_i^{(0)}(1-\pi_i^{(0)})=1/4$, implying that the first iteration will coincide.

Iteration	0	1	2	3	4	5
Newton-Raphson	-81.098	-38.814	-36.271	-35.433	-26.314	-733.671
EM	-81.098	-38.814	-36.778	-36.332	-36.168	-36.064

■ At the 5th iteration, the Newton-Raphson diverges, leading to a failure. Conversely, the EM slowly yet steadily increases the log-likelihood.

The MM algorithm for logistic regression

 We finally consider a MM algorithm for finding the MLE of a logistic regression, which is based on the following minorize function

$$g(\beta \mid \beta^{(r)}) = \log \pi(\mathbf{y} \mid \beta^{(r)}) + (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(r)})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} (\beta - \beta^{(r)}) + \frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta^{(r)})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{W} (\beta - \beta^{(r)}),$$
with $\mathbf{W} = 0.25 \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X}$.

- The minorize function indeed satisfies $g(\beta \mid \beta^{(r)}) \leq \log \pi(y \mid \beta)$.
- The maximization of leads to the following MM monotonic iterative procedure

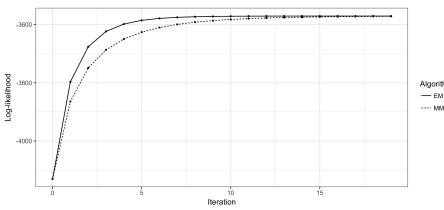
$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r+1)} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(r)} + 4(\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}\boldsymbol{X}^{\mathsf{T}}(\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{\pi}^{(r)}).$$

■ This leads to an algorithm that makes even smaller steps than the EM, but it has the advantage of not requiring a matrix inversion at every iteration.

Implementation in R

```
logit MM <- function(X, v, tol = 1e-16, beta start = NULL, maxiter = 10000) {
  # Initialization
  loglik <- numeric(maxiter)</pre>
  B <- 4 * solve(crossprod(X)) # Bohning and Lindsay matrix
  eta <- c(X %*% beta)
  prob <- 1 / (1 + exp(- eta))
  loglik[1] \leftarrow sum(v * eta - log(1 + exp(eta)))
  # Iterative procedure
  for (t in 2:maxiter) {
    beta <- beta + B %*% crossprod(X, y - prob))
    eta <- c(X %*% beta)
    prob <- 1 / (1 + exp(- eta))
    loglik[t] \leftarrow sum(y * eta - log(1 + exp(eta)))
    if (loglik[t] - loglik[t - 1] < tol) {</pre>
      return(list(beta = beta, Convergence = cbind(Iteration = (1:t) - 1,
        Loglikelihood = loglik[1:t])))
  stop("The algorithm has not reached convergence")
```

EM and MM comparison (simulated data)



Algorithm — EМ