

Leave Pima Indians alone

Nicolas Chopin
(joint work with James Ridgway)

ENSAE-CREST

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Fast approximations
- 3 Sampling-based methods
- 4 Numerical study
- 5 Variable selection
- 6 Conclusions

Introduction

- Fast approximations
- Sampling-based methods
- Numerical study
- Variable selection
- Conclusions

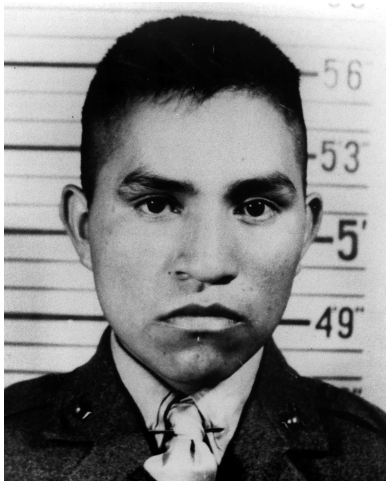
Pima maze



Introduction

- Fast approximations
- Sampling-based methods
- Numerical study
- Variable selection
- Conclusions

Ira Hayes



Nicolas Chopin (joint work with James Ridgway)

Leave Pima Indians alone

Binary regression models

Models with data $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$, predictors $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$, and likelihood

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n_{\mathcal{D}}} F(y_i \boldsymbol{\beta}^T \mathbf{x}_i)$$

where $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is a CDF.

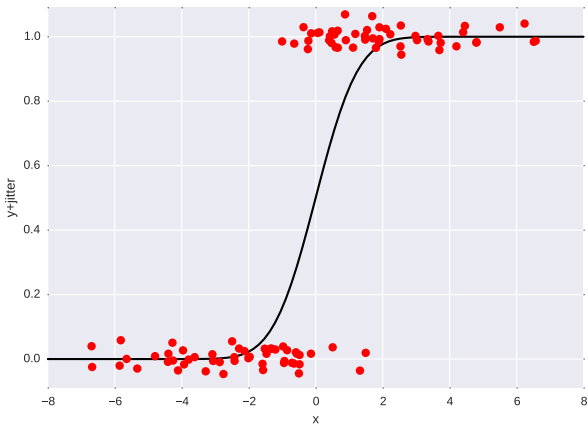
Common examples:

- $F = \Phi$ (probit),
- $F = L$ (logit), where $L(z) = 1/(1 + e^{-z})$.

Introduction

- Fast approximations
- Sampling-based methods
- Numerical study
- Variable selection
- Conclusions

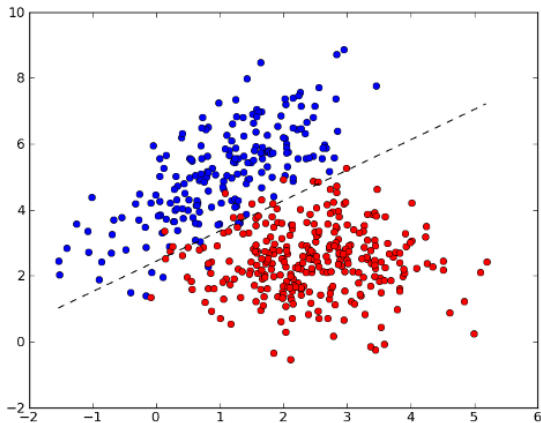
When $\rho = 1$



Introduction

- Fast approximations
- Sampling-based methods
- Numerical study
- Variable selection
- Conclusions

Connection with classification



Properties

- Unless there is **complete separation** in the data, the log-likelihood is concave: MLE is uniquely defined.
- One nice way to deal with complete separation is to add a proper prior, e.g. Gaussian or Cauchy. (Under Gaussian prior, log-post is concave.)
- Good practice is to standardise the predictors before eliciting the prior (Gelman et al, 2008).

Binary regression in Bayesian Computation papers

- a long chain of papers on Gibbs sampling for different variants of binary regression models (Albert & Chib, 1993; Holmes & Held, 2006; Fruwirth-Schnatter (2009); Gramacy and Polson, 2012; Polson et al, 2013)
- nearly any paper introducing any new **generic** way to compute a posterior includes a binary regression example:
 - SMC: C (2002), Del Moral et al (2006)
 - HMC and variants: Neal (2010), Shahbaba & Neal (2011), Girolami & Calderhead (2011)
 - NUTS: Hoffman and Gelman (2013)
 - nested sampling: C & Robert (2007)

Questions

- 1 Does it make sense to promote binary regression as a **benchmark** for Bayesian computation? (see similar practice in optimisation)
- 2 In practice, which method one should use???

Plan

- 1 review of fast approximation schemes:
 - Laplace (and variants)
 - EP
 - Variational Bayes? (see Consonni & Marin, 2007)
- 2 review of sampling-based approaches:
 - importance sampling
 - MCMC (Gibbs, RWHM)
 - HMC (and variants)
 - SMC
- 3 Discussion and comparison

Considered scenarios

- Model: probit and logit.
- prior: Gaussian and Cauchy (predictors are standardised).

Laplace

Based on a second order Taylor expansion of the log posterior:

$$\log p(\beta|\mathcal{D}) \approx \log p(\beta_{\text{MAP}}|\mathcal{D}) - \frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_{\text{MAP}})^T \mathbf{Q} (\beta - \beta_{\text{MAP}})$$

where \mathbf{Q} is minus the Hessian of $\log p(\beta|\mathcal{D})$ at $\beta = \beta_{\text{MAP}}$.

Exponentiate to get a Gaussian approximation of the posterior. In practice, use Newton-Raphson to obtain β_{MAP} and \mathbf{Q} .

Very fast. May not converge if p is very large.

Improved Laplace

For each marginal:

$$p(\beta_j | \mathcal{D}) \propto \frac{p(\boldsymbol{\beta})p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\beta})}{p(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{-j}|\beta_j, \mathcal{D})}$$

Choose a fine grid of β_j values; for each β_j value, compute a Laplace approximation of $p(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{-j}|\beta_j, \mathcal{D})$.

Note: more expensive, connection with INLA.

EM-Laplace

For a Student prior, Gelman et al (2008) derive an approximate EM scheme based on

$$\beta_j | \sigma_j^2 \sim N_1(0, \sigma_j^2), \quad \sigma_j^2 \sim \text{Inv - Gamma}(\nu/2, s_j \nu/2)$$

However, we will observe in our simulations that Laplace still works well for such a prior.

Expectation Propagation

Based on the following decomposition:

$$p(\beta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{p(\mathcal{D})} \prod_{i=0}^{n_{\mathcal{D}}} l_i(\beta), \quad l_i(\beta) = F(y_i\beta^T \mathbf{x}_i) \text{ for } i \geq 1,$$

$l_0 =$ prior, EP computes iteratively a parametric approx.:

$$q_{\text{EP}}(\beta) = \prod_{i=0}^{n_{\mathcal{D}}} \frac{1}{Z_i} q_i(\beta).$$

Taking q_i to be an unnormalised Gaussian density

$$q_i(\beta) = \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \beta^T \mathbf{Q}_i \beta + \beta^T \mathbf{r}_i \right\},$$

q_{EP} is a Gaussian with parameters $\mathbf{Q} = \sum_{i=0}^n \mathbf{Q}_i$, $\mathbf{r} = \sum_{i=0}^n \mathbf{r}_i$.

EP site update

Update each 'site' in turn: update q_i , while keeping q_j , $j \neq i$ fixed, by minimising the Kullback-Leibler divergence between

$$h(\beta) \propto l_i(\beta) \prod_{j \neq i} q_j(\beta)$$

and $q(\beta) \propto \prod_j q_j$.

Thanks to nice properties of exponential families, this boils to match the moments of h and q .

In binary regression, these site updates lead to explicit expressions (probit) or one-dimensional integrals that are easy to approximate accurately (logit).

General remarks

- Since the approximation methods covered in the previous section are faster by orders of magnitude than sampling-based methods, we will assume that a Gaussian approximation $q(\beta)$ (from Laplace or EP) has been computed in a preliminary step.
- Complexity: Laplace is $O(n_{\mathcal{D}} + p^3)$, EP is $O(n_{\mathcal{D}}p^3)$.

Importance sampling

Proposal q set to some Gaussian approx of the posterior. Then to approximate $p(\mathcal{D})$, generate $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N \sim q$, compute

$$Z_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N w(\beta_n), \quad w(\beta) := \frac{p(\beta)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta)}{q(\beta)}$$

and to approximate the posterior expectation of φ , compute

$$\varphi_N = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N w(\beta_n)\varphi(\beta_n)}{\sum_{n=1}^N w(\beta_n)}.$$

IS pros and cons

Pros:

- simple, generic
- embarrassingly parallel
- approximates the marginal likelihood at no extra cost
- IID sampling: MC error is easy to assess
- can plug in QMC points

Cons:

- ESS may collapse when p is large.

MCMC general remarks

The following points

- choice of starting point
- MCMC convergence assessment

are not big issues for binary regression models.

More important issues for us are:

- chain autocorrelations
- difficulty to parallelise

Gibbs

Well-known, based on data augmentation:

$$z_i = \beta^T \mathbf{x}_i + \epsilon_i$$
$$y_i = \text{sgn}(z_i)$$

then sample iteratively (probit/Gaussian case):

- 1 $\beta | \mathbf{z}$ (regression posterior, tractable)
- 2 $\mathbf{z} | \beta, \mathbf{y}$ (product of truncated Gaussians)

Gibbs is particularly **not generic**: any change in the prior of F requires deriving a new algorithm. This can also change the complexity (e.g. from $\mathcal{O}(p^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(p^3)$ when using a Student prior).

Random walk Metropolis-Hastings

One iteration of RWMH

Input: β

Output: β'

1. Sample $\beta^* \sim N_p(\beta, \Sigma)$
2. With probability $1 \wedge r$,

$$r = \frac{p(\beta^*)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta^*)}{p(\beta)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta)},$$

set $\beta' = \beta^*$; otherwise set $\beta' = \beta$

In practice, choose Σ as some fraction of Σ_q .

HMC

Consider (β, α) , $\beta \sim p(\beta|\mathcal{D})$, $\alpha \sim N_p(0, M^{-1})$, with joint un-normalised density $\exp\{-H(\beta, \alpha)\}$,

$$H(\beta, \alpha) = E(\beta) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha^T M\alpha, \quad E(\beta) = -\log\{p(\beta)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta)\}.$$

The physical interpretation of HMC is that of a particle at position β , with velocity α , potential energy $E(\beta)$, kinetic energy $\frac{1}{2}\alpha^T M\alpha$, and thus total energy given by $H(\beta, \alpha)$. The particle is expected to follow a trajectory such that $H(\beta, \alpha)$ remains constant over time.

HMC iteration

One iteration of HMC

Input: β

Output: β'

1. Sample momentum $\alpha \sim N_p(0, \mathbf{M})$.
2. Perform L leap-frog steps, starting from (β, α) ; call (β^*, α^*) the final position.
3. With probability $1 \wedge r$, $r = \exp\{H(\beta, \alpha) - H(\beta^*, \alpha^*)\}$ set $\beta' = \beta^*$; otherwise set $\beta' = \beta$.

Leapfrog step

Leapfrog step

Input: (β, α)

Output: (β_1, α_1)

1. $\alpha_{1/2} \leftarrow \alpha - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \nabla_{\beta} E(\beta)$
2. $\beta_1 \leftarrow \beta + \epsilon \alpha_{1/2}$
3. $\alpha_1 \leftarrow \alpha_{1/2} - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \nabla_{\beta} E(\beta_1)$

HMC variants

- Riemannian HMC (Girolami and Calderhead, 2011): simply too expensive
- NUTS (No U-Turn Sampler, Hoffman & Gelman, 2013): HMC with on-the-fly calibration of L and ϵ . Included in our comparisons.

SMC

We consider tempering SMC, i.e. SMC for sequence

$$\pi_t(\beta) \propto q(\beta)^{1-\delta_t} \{p(\beta)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta)\}^{\delta_t}$$

with $0 = \delta_0 < \dots < \delta_T = 1$.

Principle: sequence of importance sampling steps, from π_{t-1} to π_t . When weight degeneracy becomes too high, resample, and move particles through MCMC (e.g. random walk Metropolis).

The algorithm can choose the δ_j on the fly (Jasra et al, 2011).

SMC algorithm

- 0 Sample $\beta_n \sim q(\beta)$ and set $\underline{\delta} \leftarrow 0$.
- 1 Let, for $\delta \in [\underline{\delta}, 1]$,

$$\text{EF}(\delta) = \frac{1}{N} \frac{\left\{ \sum_{n=1}^N w_\gamma(\beta_n) \right\}^2}{\left\{ \sum_{n=1}^N w_\gamma(\beta_n)^2 \right\}}, \quad u_\delta(\beta) = \left\{ \frac{p(\beta)p(\mathcal{D}|\beta)}{q(\beta)} \right\}^\delta.$$

If $\text{EF}(1) \geq \tau$, stop and return $(\beta_n, w_n)_{n=1:N}$, $w_n = u_1(\beta_n)$.
Otherwise, use bisection method to solve in δ equation $\text{EF}(\gamma) = \tau$.

- 2 Resample according to normalised weights
 $W_n = w_n / \sum_{m=1}^N w_m$; with $w_n = u_\delta(\beta_n)$.
- 3 Update the β_n 's through m MCMC steps (w.r.t. $\pi_t(\beta)$).
- 4 Set $\underline{\delta} \leftarrow \delta$. Go to Step 1.

Remarks on SMC

- Completely automatic: we can use the current set of particles to adjust the random walk proposal, the number of MCMC steps, and so on.
- Will often collapse to a **single** IS step (when ESS from q to posterior is not too low)

First set of datasets

Dataset	$n_{\mathcal{D}}$	p
Pima (Indian diabetes)	532	8
German (credit)	999	25
Heart (Statlog)	270	14
Breast (cancer)	683	10
Liver (Indian Liver patient)	579	11
Plasma (blood screening data)	32	3
Australian (credit)	690	15
Elections	2015	52

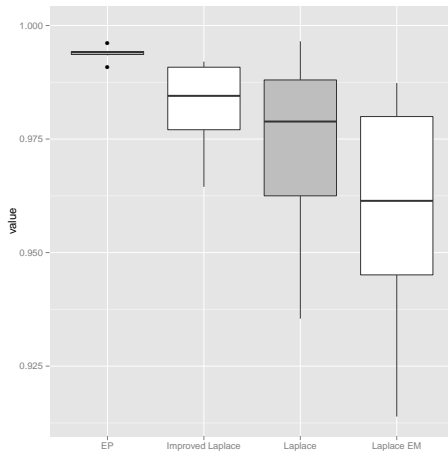
This is a superset of datasets considered in most papers.

Fast approximations

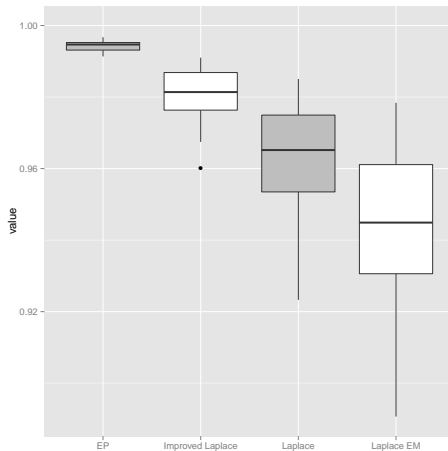
Logit/Cauchy scenario. We compare: Laplace, Improved Laplace, EM-Laplace, and EP, in term of

- marginal accuracies (one minus half the L_1 distance between approximate and true marginals)
- approximation error for marginal likelihood

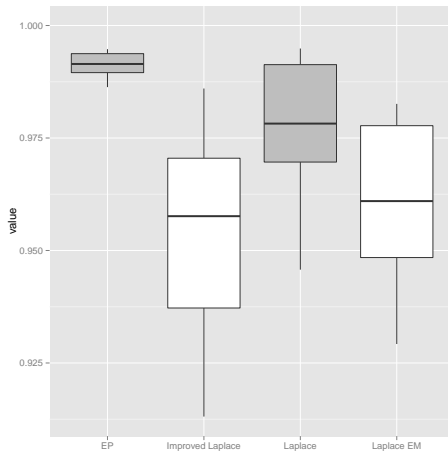
Pima



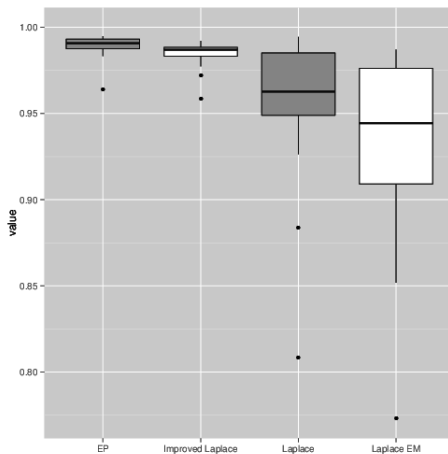
Heart



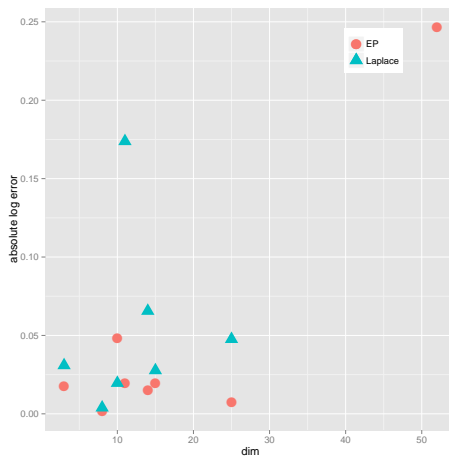
Breast



German credit



Marginal likelihoods

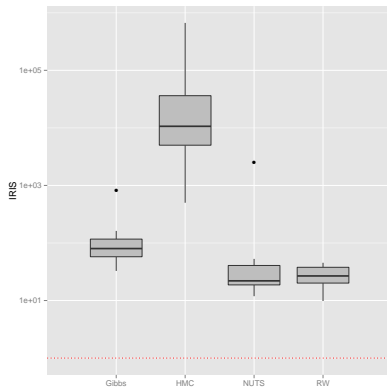


Sampling-based methods: importance sampling

Dataset	IS			IS-QMC	
	EF = ESS/ N	CPU time	MT speed-up	MSE \times (expect)	MSE \times (evid)
Pima	99.5%	37.54 s	4.39	28.9	42.7
German	97.9%	79.65 s	4.51	13.2	8.2
Breast	82.9%	50.91 s	4.45	2.6	6.2
Heart	95.2%	22.34 s	4.53	8.8	9.3
Liver	74.2 %	35.93 s	4.76	7.6	11.3
Plasma	90.0%	2.32 s	4.28	2.2	4.4
Australian	95.6%	53.32 s	4.57	12	20.3
Elections	21.39%	139.48 s	3.87	617.9	3.53

(Probit/Gaussian scenario, to make like easier for Gibbs)

comparison with MCMC



IRIS = Inefficiency relative to IS

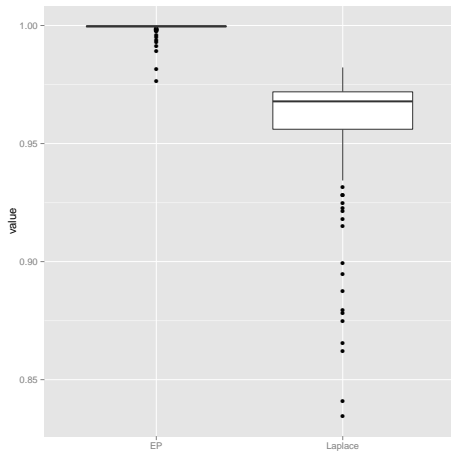
Bigger datasets

Dataset	$n_{\mathcal{D}}$	p
Musk	476	95
Sonar	208	61
DNA	400	180

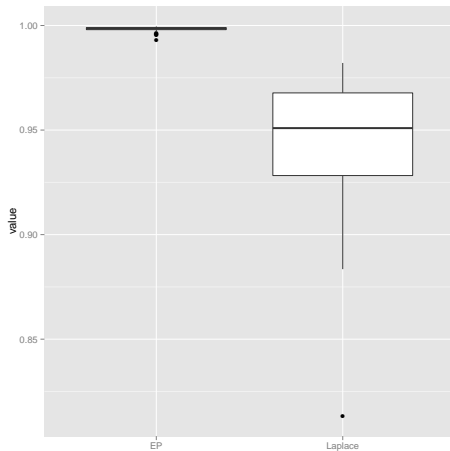
Bigger datasets, but also with higher correlations between predictors. We will look at the probit/Gaussian case.

IS no longer an option.

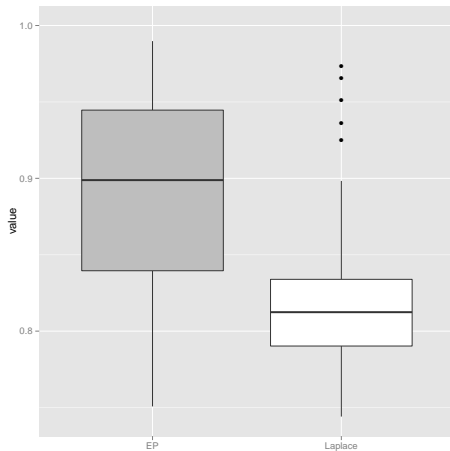
Approximations: Musk



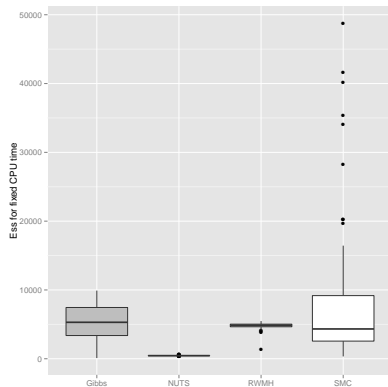
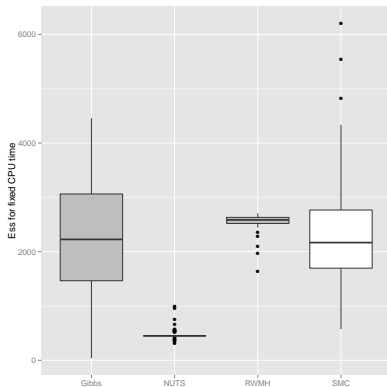
Approximations: Sonar



Approximations: DNA

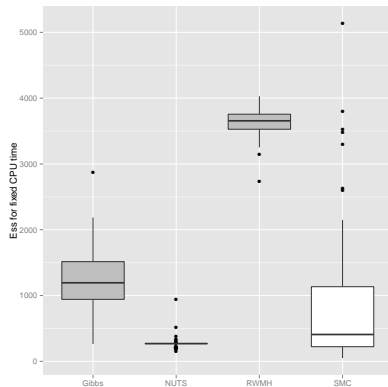
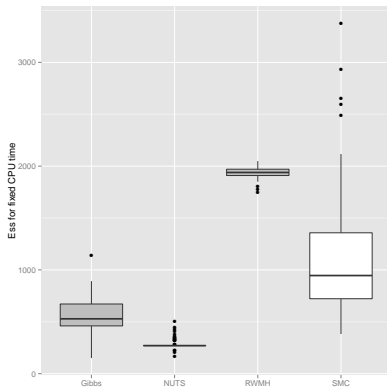


Sampling-based methods: Musk



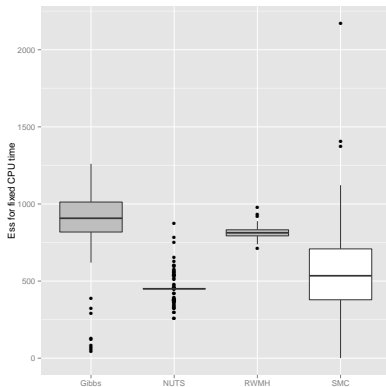
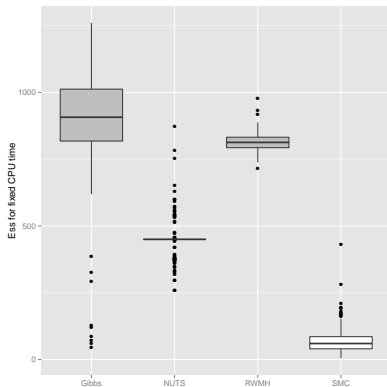
Left: posterior expectations, Right: posterior variances

Sampling-based methods: Sonar



Left: posterior expectations, Right: posterior variances

Sampling-based methods: DNA



Left: posterior expectations, Right: posterior variances

Variable selection

Add for each predictor β_j an indicator $\gamma_j \in \{0, 1\}$; prior for γ is Uniform over $\{0, 1\}^p$.

The posterior mixes discrete and continuous components;
 $p(\gamma|\mathcal{D})$ is severely multimodal.

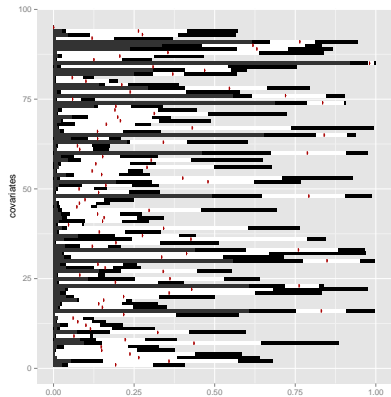
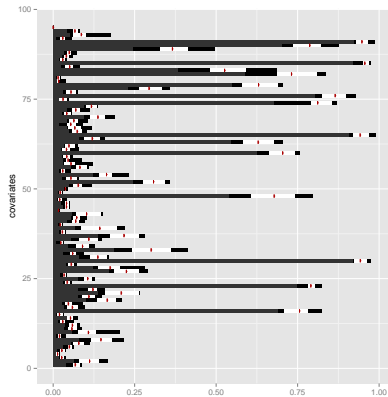
VS: proposed approach

To compute $p(\mathcal{D}|\gamma) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\gamma, \beta)p(\beta|\gamma) d\beta$, use:

- 1 either Laplace
- 2 or IS based on Laplace

To simulate from $p(\gamma|\mathcal{D})$, adapt the tempering SMC sampler of Schafer and Chopin (2013), for sampling binary vectors.

Results



Recommendations to end users (who wish to fit a binary regression model)

- EP is fast and accurate even in difficult cases.
- to improve on EP, one might run SMC; often this will collapse to IS and outperforms everything else significantly.
- That said, for large p , RWHM performs surprising well.
- HMC algorithms seem very difficult to calibrate.

Benchmarks for specialised algorithms

For specialised algorithms (Gibbs), benchmark=dataset.

It is not very clear that the Gibbs samplers developed for binary regression are very useful: corresponding papers tend to showcase these algorithms on datasets with $p < 50$, for which more generic methods fare much better.

Benchmarks for generic algorithms

For generic algorithms (e.g. RWHM), benchmark=posterior.

A binary regression posterior of dimension < 50 is very close to a Gaussian; i.e. it does not represent a very challenging benchmark. However, it is an useful **sanity check**.

More challenging benchmarks: $p \geq 100$, hierarchical regression, spike and slab prior, ...

More general remarks

Beware ML fast approximation schemes; they are fast and getting better and better. . .

Always compare new methods to well calibrated simple algorithms, like IS and RWHM.

Final word

Comments most welcome!