General Bayesian updating

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Overview

- ▶ Bayesian statistics in a "big-data" world
- ▶ The problem of \mathcal{M} -open
- Decision theoretic solutions
- ▶ Illustrations

Background Motivation

 Bayesian analysis provide a coherent approach to updating of beliefs typically through the use of "Bayes Theorem"

$$\pi(\theta|x) \propto f(x|\theta)\pi(\theta)$$

where

- $f(x|\theta)$ is a sampling distribution (likelihood) for the data
- lacktriangledown $\pi(heta)$ represents prior beliefs on the unknown true value of heta
- $\pi(\theta|x)$ represents updated beliefs about the unknown θ in light of the data x
- o Bayesian analysis is rooted in decision theory (Savage 1954), it is axiomatic, intuitive, and coherent; where all aspects of uncertainty are accommodated through the specification of a joint probability model used as a vehicle to quantify uncertainty on all unknowns, $\pi(x,\theta) = f(x|\theta)\pi(\theta)$
 - All of Bayesian statistics is model based

Challenges from a big-data world

- However, Bayesian updating is also highly restrictive in the need to assume a joint probability for everything observed, and moreover assume that the model is true,
 - $f(x|\theta)$, true likelihood for all measurements
 - $f(x) = \int_{\theta} f(x|\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta$, true joint density ("the model") for x
- In modern applications such a requirement can be highly restrictive and cumbersome (\mathcal{M} -open problem)
- Information maybe highly heterogeneous, high-dimensional and non-stochastic
 - news snippets, twitter feeds,
 - $ightharpoonup x = \{ your genome, medical image, electronic health record \}$
 - partial information under privacy constraints, p-values

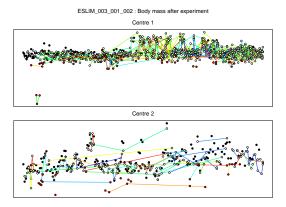
it's difficult to think of joint models for x, yet x is highly relevant to learning about θ

 Taken together, Bayesian inference can be challenging, even for supposedly simple problems

Motivation: International Mouse Phenotyping Consortium

- The International Mouse Phenotyping Consortium (http://www.mousephenotype.org/) is a 10 year study to systematically characterise the functional consequences of each of around 20,000 genes in the mouse genome
- Recording over 1500 measurements per mouse (leading to around 700 phenotypes), around 7 mice per knockout (× 2 sexes) and matched controls
- \circ IMPC will deliver complex multivariate measurements on around 560,000 mice \times 690 dependent phenotypes across 8 Centres
 - costing \$100M's

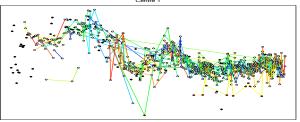
Example Data



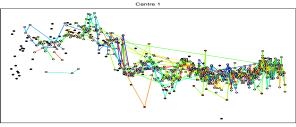
- Time points represents a (robust) mean of (transformed) measurement on a litter, on a particular day, at a specific Centre
- Lines connect repeated measurements; Black dots are controls; Circles are mutant lines
- Red dots are putative mutants that show systematic differences
 - controlling for meta-data collected on technician, reagents, ...

Many of the phenotypes show high dependence

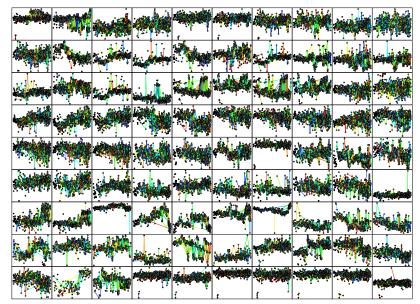




ESLIM_007_001_003 : Whole arena resting time



....and there are many phenotypes (90 of 690) of 35,000,000 data points



Bayesian analysis

- Formal Bayesian analysis approaches of such data structures are hard to formulate
- Of course we could use approximate models, for example Variational Bayes, but then what are we targeting?
- That is, what does $\pi(\theta|x)$ actually represent if I know that x does not arise from $f(x|\theta)$?

Our research

 We have been considering a more general framework for updating of beliefs

$$\pi(\theta) \to \pi(\theta|x)$$

on a well defined θ of interest given information x, without having to assume a known component $x \sim f(x)$

- The update needs to be coherent (to be defined later), principled (decision theoretic) and open to inspection
- \circ The central idea is the replacement of $f(x|\theta)$ with a general loss function $l(x,\theta)$ that is used to connect information in the data to the value of θ minimising the population expected loss
 - \blacktriangleright and $l(x,\theta)$ can accommodate partial information, non-stochastic information, ...
- o Importantly the procedure should coincide with Bayesian inference if $f(x)=\int f(x|\theta)\pi(\theta)\mathrm{d}\theta$ is assumed known

Toy Example – not only big problems cause problems

 \circ Consider that you want to infer the *median* patient survival time, θ , for a particular population,

$$\theta = F_0^{-1}(0.5)$$

where F_0 is the unknown distribution of survival times Suppose:

- \circ You hold subjective prior beliefs on θ , expressible via $\pi(\theta)$
- \circ You don't know F_0
- You obtain independent observations of survival times $x = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$

It feels that an update of beliefs, $\pi(\theta) \to \pi(\theta|x)$, should be possible Yet the Bayesian solution to this problem is highly non-trivial

Functionals of interest

o Instead we consider learning about the minimiser of some functional,

$$L(\theta) = \int l(\theta, x) dF_0(x),$$

 $\theta_0 = \arg \inf_{\theta \in \Theta} L(\theta)$

for some loss function $l(\theta, x)$ introduced to target θ_0 , where $F_0(x)$ is the unknown distribution function from which i.i.d. observations arise

o It may be easier to think of this as

$$\theta_0 = \arg\min_{\theta} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n \to \infty} l(\theta, x_i) \right]$$
 $x_i \sim f_0(x)$

for f_0 unknown, and θ_0 represents the optimal value of θ under an infinite sample size

Update

 \circ If $\pi(\theta)$ represents prior beliefs about this θ_0 , and x is observed from F_0 , then we will argue that a valid and coherent update of $\pi(\cdot)$ is to the posterior $\pi(\cdot|x)$, where

$$\pi(\theta|x) \propto \exp\{-l(\theta,x)\} \pi(\theta).$$

- o It is important to note that:
 - lacktriangledown $\pi(heta|x)$ does not involve the unknown $f_0(x)$ and
 - ▶ this update is not an approximation, but a valid representation of beliefs about the value of θ_0 in more general circumstances when f(x) is unknown (\mathcal{M} -open problems)
- \circ We have replaced the more ambitious task of learning about a "true" parameter for $f(x|\eta)$, with that of learning about a θ_0

Model Sufficiency

- \circ Underlying the justification is the notion of model sufficiency, namely that θ_0 is sufficient for the analyst to make a decision and that if θ_0 was ever known then the data x contains no further information to the decision process
- \circ That is, given θ_0 then the inference task is solved and the optimal action will be revealed $U(a,\theta_0)$, where U denotes a utility function on action space a
- \circ In this sense $\pi(\theta|x)$ is sufficient for the decision task, and the remaining information in x can be discarded
- For example, the use of a logistic regression classification model, is a statement that knowledge of he MAP estimates under an infinite sample reveals the optimal action

Constructing the update

- We have two independent pieces of information in $\{\pi(\theta), x\}$
- \circ We consider a coherent scoring rule on the space of probability measures, given $\{\pi(\theta),x\}$, and then show that the optimal distribution with highest score, $\pi(\theta|x)$, can be identified
- As the data and the prior represent independent pieces of information we will naturally assume additivity of loss
- \circ So we can score any distribution (model), $\pi'(\theta)$, on θ using

$$S(\pi'; \{x, \pi\}) = L_x(\pi', x) + L_{\pi}(\pi', \pi)$$

= loss to data + loss to prior

and we will then select the optimal model (distribution) π' which minimizes expected loss, over the space of all valid probability measures

$$\tilde{\pi} = \arg\min_{\pi'} S(\pi'; \{x, \pi\})$$

This is optimisation of probability measures, rather than parameters. This is the formal way to proceed (Key, Pericchi, Smith; B&S)

Scoring belief distributions

 \circ The empirical loss to each datum, $L_x(\pi', x_i)$, is given by

$$L_x(\pi', x_i) = \int_{\theta} l(\theta, x_i) \pi'(\theta) d\theta$$

where $l(\theta,x_i)$ is the loss-function targeting θ_0

 \circ The loss to the prior, $L_{\pi}(\pi',\pi)$, will be some divergence score between probability measures,

$$D(\pi', \pi) = \int g(\mathrm{d}\pi'/\mathrm{d}\pi)\mathrm{d}\pi'$$

where g is a convex function measuring divergence from $(0,\infty)$ to the real line and g(1)=0. See Ali and Silvey (1966).

 \circ From the convexity of the g-divergence we can equivalently write the optimisation as

$$\tilde{\pi} = \arg\min_{\pi'} \left[L_x(\pi', x) \right] \text{ s.t. } D(\pi', \pi) \leq C$$

Equivalent constraint based optimisation

 $\circ\,$ From the convexity of the g-divergence we can equivalently write the optimisation as

$$\tilde{\pi} = \arg\min_{\pi'} \left[L_x(\pi', x) \right] \text{ s.t. } D(\pi', \pi) \leq C$$

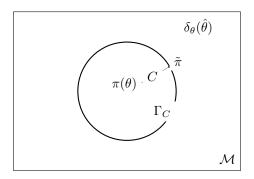


Figure: Graphical representation of solution $\tilde{\pi}$ as the minimiser of $L_x(\pi',x)$ subject to a constraint that $D(\pi',\pi) < C$

Canonical forms for $l(\theta, x_i)$

o If we have a good proxy model for F_0 , or if we know we're in \mathcal{M} -closed, then the natural choice for $l(\theta,x_i)$ is the self-information loss (negative log-likelihood),

$$l(\theta, x_i) = -\log f(x_i; \theta)$$

and for \mathcal{M} -closed this is the "honest" loss function (proper local scoring rule)

 though equally, say for survival analysis, a partial-likelihood provides a valid update

$$l(\theta, x_i) = -\log g(x_i; \theta)$$

o or for inference on the median of a population

$$l(\theta, x_i) = |\theta - x_i|$$

The key point is that $l(\cdot)$ is targeting θ_0 , sufficient for Your decision

Loss to prior

- \circ The g-divergence $D(\pi',\pi)=\int g(\mathrm{d}\pi'/\mathrm{d}\pi)\mathrm{d}\pi'$ provides a large class of loss function; and some special cases include
 - $g(s) = 1 \sqrt{s}$, the Hellinger divergence, which is equivalent to the L1 metric;
 - $g(s) = s^{-1} 1$ yields the chi-squared divergence
- \circ For coherency it turns out $D(\pi',\pi)$ must be the Kullback Leibler loss between updated π' and the prior ; i.e. $g(s)=-\log s$,

$$L_{\pi}(\pi', \pi) = KL(\pi', \pi) = \int_{\Theta} \pi'(\theta) \log \frac{\pi'(\theta)}{\pi(\theta)} d\theta$$

for proof see Bissiri, Holmes & Walker

o By coherency we mean

$$\pi(\theta) \to \tilde{\pi}(\theta|x_{1:n}) \equiv \pi(\theta) \to \tilde{\pi}(\theta|x_{1:j}) \to \tilde{\pi}(\theta|x_{1:j}, x_{j+1:n})$$

Updating

 \circ We require $\tilde{\pi}$ to minimize $[L_x(\pi',x)+L_{\pi}(\pi',\pi)]$,

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\pi} &= \arg\min_{\pi'} \left[L_x(\pi', x) + L_{\pi}(\pi', \pi) \right] \\ &= \operatorname{a.m} \left[\int_{\Theta} \pi'(\theta) l(\theta, x) d\theta + \int_{\Theta} \pi' \log \frac{\pi'(\theta)}{\pi(\theta)} d\theta \right] \\ &= \operatorname{a.m.} \left[\int_{\Theta} \pi'(\theta) \log \left(\frac{\pi'(\theta)}{\pi(\theta) \exp[-l(\theta, x)]} \right) d\theta \right] \end{split}$$

 $ilde{ au}$ From which we see that the optimal measure $ilde{\pi}$ follows

$$\tilde{\pi}(\theta) \propto \arg\min_{\pi'} \left[KL(\pi', \pi(\theta) \times \exp[-l(\theta, x)]) \right]$$

Best beliefs

Hence under this decision theoretic construction we are led to use

$$\tilde{\pi}(\theta) = \frac{\exp[-l(\theta, x)]\pi(\theta)}{\int_{\Theta} \exp[-l(\theta, x)]\pi(\theta)d\theta}$$
(1)

as our best updated measure of beliefs for θ

- \circ where $\int_{\Theta} \exp[-l(\theta,x)]\pi(\theta)d\theta$ is the prior predictive utility of the model $\pi(\theta)$
- \circ We have not had to assume knowledge of f(x), i.e. $\mathcal{M}\text{-closed}$, to get here
- o The solution coincides with other recent ideas on risk minimisation
 - ► Gibbs posteriors (Zhang, 2006)
 - ▶ PAC-Bayes − (Langford, 2005)

although we arrive at (1) through an axiomatic principle of coherency

Points to Note

- \circ If you really believe your model to be true then you're in \mathcal{M} -closed then we are led to use $l(\theta,x_i)=-\log f(x_i;\theta)$ and we recover Bayes Theorem
- So one way to view Bayesian updating is by maximising the posterior predictive log-likelihood

$$\int_{\theta} \left[\sum_{i} \log f(x_i; \theta) \right] \pi'(\theta) d\theta$$

Subject to a KL constraint,

$$KL(\pi'(\theta|x), \pi(\theta)) < C$$

- However, the update here has been obtained under much weaker conditions – just loss functions and a KL loss on the prior
- \circ In particular, we have treated the prior π as just another piece of information; so π could be elicited after the data has arrived, or during, or updated based on additional knowledge obtained

Illustration

- We illustrate the General Bayesian updating for understanding the contribution of genetic variation to risk of colon cancer involving right-censored time-to-event data
- Collaborators at the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford, obtained survival times on 918 cancer patients with germline genotype data at 100,000's of markers genome-wide
- For demonstration purposes we only consider one chromosomal previously identified as holding a potential association signal containing 15,608 genotype measurements

Illustration

- \circ The data table X then has n=918 rows and p=15,608 columns, where $(X)_{ij} \in \{0,1,2\}$ denotes the genotype of the i'th individual at the j'th marker.
- o Alongside this we have the corresponding $(n \times 2)$ response table of survival times Y with a column of event-times, $y_{i1} \in \Re^+$ and a column of indicator variables $y_{i2} \in \{0,1\}$, denoting whether the event is observed or right-censored at y_{i1} .

Full Bayesian Model

- For the full Bayesian model we require a joint model for the data and parameters
- o For example, a log-linear proportional hazards model

$$p(y \mid x, \beta) = h_0(y) \prod_i \frac{\exp(x_i \beta)}{\sum_{j \in R_i} \exp(x_j \beta)} \pi(\beta) \pi[h_0(\cdot)]$$

where $h_0(y)$ is the baseline hazard, assumed a nuisance parameter (process), and $\pi[h_0(\cdot)]$ would usually be a NP measure

 \circ If interest is in $\pi(\beta|x,y)$ then this is obtained from the marginal

$$\pi(\beta|x,y) = \int_{h_0} \pi(\beta, h_0|x, y) dh_0$$

 \circ But this is challenging as $h_0(y)$ is an infinite dimensional nuisance parameter for the decision

Use of Bayesian partial loss

 \circ Using our construction we can consider only the conditional order of events as partial-information relevant to the decision, β , via the cumulative loss function,

$$l(\beta, \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{\exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{ij} \beta_{j}\right)}{\sum_{l \in R_{i}} \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{lj} \beta_{j}\right)} \right), \tag{2}$$

where R_i denotes the risk set, those individuals not censored or at time t_i , and in this way obtain a conditional distribution $\pi(\beta|x)$

- \circ We assume, $\beta_j \sim N(0,v_j)$ and set $v_j = 0.5$ for our study, reflecting beliefs that associated coefficients will be modest; although we note that one advantage of our approach is that subjective prior information can be integrated into the analysis.
 - Note: this is substantive prior knowledge as we know that $||\beta_j||$'s will be small

General Bayes factors

 \circ To initially explore for evidence of effects; i.e. $\beta_j \neq 0$, we can calculate the general Bayes Factor of association at the j th marker as,

$$BF_{j} = \frac{\int_{\beta_{j}} \exp\left[-l(\beta_{j}|\boldsymbol{x}_{j})\right] \pi(\beta_{j}) d\beta_{j}}{\exp\left[-l(\beta_{j} = 0|\boldsymbol{x}_{j})\right]}$$

 \circ This involves a one-dimensional integral via importance sampling for the prior expected loss in using β_i on the numerator

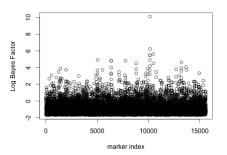


Figure: Log Bayes Factor vrs marker index along chromosome

Comparing BFs with p-values

 It is interesting to compare the evidence of association provided by the Bayes Factor to that obtained using a conventional Cox PH analysis

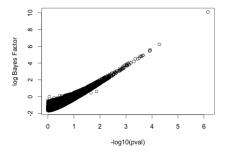


Figure: Log Bayes Factor vrs -log10 p-value of association

 We see general agreement, although interestingly there appears to be greater dispersion at markers of weaker association

Comparing BFs with p-values

We colour the points by the standard error of the MLE

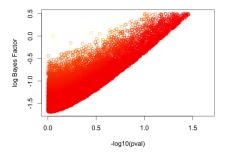


Figure: Log BF vrs -log10 p-value coloured by standard error in MLE

 We can see a tendency for markers with less information, greater standard error, to get attenuated towards a logBF of 0

Comparing BFs with p-values

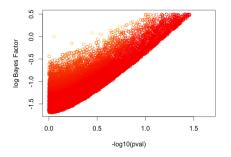


Figure: Log BF vrs -log10 p-value coloured by standard error in MLE

High standard errors relate to genotypes of rarer alleles and the
attenuation reflects a greater degree of uncertainty for association at
these markers that contain less information; whereas the p-value is
uniform under the null no matter what the power is in the alternative

Multivariate variable selection

 We can explore the uncertainty in the multiple regression model via the cumulative loss function

$$l(\beta, \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(\frac{\exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{ij} \beta_{j}\right)}{\sum_{l \in R_{i}} \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{lj} \beta_{j}\right)} \right),$$

 \circ We assume proper priors, $\pi(\beta)$ on the regression coefficient,

$$\pi(\beta_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \delta_j = 0\\ \mathsf{N}(0, v_j) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\delta_j \in \{0,1\}$ is an indicator variable selection on covariate relevance with, $\pi(\delta_j) = \text{Bin}(a_j)$

 \circ In this way the joint marginal posterior $\pi(\delta|x)$ quantifies beliefs about which variables are important to the regression

Prior-predictive Utility

As we are using the partial-loss (likelihood) model we have

$$\pi(\delta|x) = \left[\int_{\beta} \exp[-l(\beta, \delta, \theta)] \pi(\beta|\delta) d\beta \right] \pi(\delta)$$

where the first term is the marginal partial-loss or prior-predictive utility

 We can implement a MCMC algorithm for this General Bayesian model (with efficient independence proposal densities) without specifying a full probability model

Posterior probability of marker inclusion

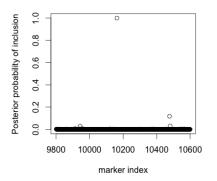


Figure: Posterior marginal inclusion probability from multiple marker model

 The model suggest overwhelming evidence for a single marker in the region of index 10200 but also weaker evidence of independent signal in a couple of other regions

Current work / Open Questions

- We have a constructive, decision theoretic, approach to coherent Bayesian updating in the absence of a true model
 - ▶ this is not an approximation but a valid representation of beliefs
- This allows the modeller to concentrate on those aspects important to the decision
- The method has clear connections with penalised log-likelihood (c.f. Lasso, splines etc) but here for penalised probability measures
 - We are selecting $\widehat{\pi(\theta)}$ rather than $\widehat{\theta}$
- \circ Interpretation of the normalising constant $\int_{\Theta} \exp[-l(\theta,x)]\pi(\theta)d\theta$ which arises in model-choice $\pi(M_i)$ for models $M\in\{M_1,\ldots,M_k\}$ as,

$$L(M_i, x) = \int_{\Theta} \exp[-l(\theta, x)] \pi_{M_i}(\theta) d\theta$$

- But in general $\int_{r} \exp[-l(\theta, x)] dx \neq 1$
- Do we obtain the same parsimony as for M-closed Bayes Factors?
 Does it make sense to consider normalised relative loss and impose this constraint?