Case Study: Approximate Bayesian Inference for Latent Gaussian Models by Using Integrated Nested Laplace Approximations

BIOSTAT830: Graphical Models

December 08, 2016

Introduction - INLA

- Inference for latent Gaussian Markov random field (GMRF) models, avoiding MCMC simulations
- Fast Bayesian inference using accurate, multiple types of approximations to
 - $pr(\theta \mid \mathbf{y})$: marginal density for the model parameters
 - ▶ pr(x_i | y): marginal posterior densities for one (or more) latent variables.
- Can be used for model criticisms:
 - 1. Fast cross-validation
 - 2. Bayes factors and deviation information criterion (DIC) can be efficiently calculated for model comparisoins
- Software inla available from R; very easy to use

Supported Models

Hierarchical GMRF of the form:

likelihood :
$$y_j \mid \eta_j, \theta_1 \sim pr(y_j \mid \eta_j, \theta_1), j \in J$$
,
linear predictor : $\eta_i = \text{Offset}_i + \sum_{k=0}^{n_f-1} w_{ki}f_k(c_{ki}) + \mathbf{z}'_i\beta + \epsilon_i$,
 $i = 0, \dots, n_\eta - 1$.

- ▶ $J \subset \{0, 1, ..., n_\eta 1\}$, i.e., not all latent η are observed through data y
- ▶ $pr(y_j | \eta_j, \theta_1)$: likelihood of data; known link function
- $\bullet \ \epsilon = (\epsilon_0, \dots, \epsilon_{n_\eta 1})' \mid \lambda_\eta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \lambda_\eta \mathbf{I}); \ \lambda_\eta \text{ denotes precision}$
- $\eta = {\eta_i}$: a vector of linear predictors, e.g., in GLM
- *w_k*: in the *k*-th nonlinear effect, the known weights, one for each observed data point

Supported Models (continued)

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 $i = 0, \dots, n_\eta - 1$.

• $f_k(c_{ki})$: nonlinear effect of covariate k for observation i

- 1. Nonlinear effects: time trends and seasonal effects, two dimensional surfaces, iid random intercepts, slopes and spatial random effects.
- 2. The unknown functions $\boldsymbol{f}_k = (f_{0k}, \dots, f_{m_k-1,k})'$ are modelled as GMRF given some parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{f_k}$: $\boldsymbol{f}_k \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{f_k} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{Q}_k^{-1})$
- *z_i*: A vector of *n_β* covariates assumed to have a linear effect
 β: The vector of unknown parameters

Supported Models (continued)

- $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{\eta}', \mathbf{f}'_0, \dots, \mathbf{f}'_{n_f-1}, \beta')'$: full vector of latent variables; Dimension: $n = n_{\eta} + \sum_{j=0}^{n_f-1} m_j + n_{\beta}$; note we parameterized \mathbf{x} by $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ instead of $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$
- All the elements of vector x are defined as GMRFs:

$$pr(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{2}) = \prod_{i=0}^{n_{\eta}-1} pr(\eta_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{f}_{0}, \dots, \boldsymbol{f}_{n_{f}-1}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \lambda_{\eta}^{-1}) \prod_{k=0}^{n_{f}-1} pr(\boldsymbol{f}_{k} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_{f_{k}}) \\ \times \prod_{m=0}^{n_{\beta}-1} pr(\boldsymbol{\beta}_{m}),$$

where

$$\eta_i \mid \boldsymbol{f}_0, \ldots, \boldsymbol{f}_{n_f-1}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n_f-1} f_k(c_{ki}) + \boldsymbol{z}'_i \boldsymbol{\beta}, \lambda_\eta\right), \boldsymbol{\beta}_m \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \lambda_\beta)$$

and $\theta_2 = \{\log \lambda_\eta, \theta_{f_0}, \dots, \theta_{f_{n_f}-1}\}$ is a vector of unknown hyperparameters.

Prior

- Specify priors on the hyperparameters: $\theta_2 = \{\log \lambda_{\eta}, \theta_{f_0}, \dots, \theta_{f_{n_f}-1}, \log \lambda_{\beta}\}$
- Need not be Gaussian

Examples

Time series model: c_k = t for time, f_k for nonlinear trends or seasonal effects

$$\eta_t = f_{trend}(t) + f_{seasonal}(t) + oldsymbol{z}_t'oldsymbol{eta}$$

Generalized additive models (GAM):

- 1. $pr(y_i \mid \eta_i, \theta_1)$ belongs to an exponential family
- 2. cki's are univariate, continuous covariates
- 3. f_k 's are smooth functions

Examples

- Generalized additive mixed models (GAMM) for longitudinal data
 - ► Individuals: i = 0, · · · , n_i − 1, observed at time points t₀, t₁, A GAMM extends a GAM by introducing individual specific random effects:

$$\eta_{it} = f_0(c_{it0}) + \ldots + f_{n_f-1}(c_{it,n_f-1}) + b_{oi} w_{it0} + \ldots + b_{n_b-1,i} w_{it,n_b-1},$$

where η_{it} is the linear predictor for individual *i* at time *t*, $c_{itk}, k = 0, \ldots, n_f - 1, w_{itq}, q = 0, \ldots, n_b - 1$ are covariate values for individual *i* at time *t*, and $b_{0i}, \ldots, b_{n_b-1,i}$ is a vector of n_b individual-specific random intercepts (if $w_{itq} = 1$) or slopes.

▶ Just define r = (i, t) and $c_{kr} = c_{kit}$ for $k = 0, ..., n_f - 1$ and $c_{n_f-1+q,r} = w_{qit}$, $f_{n_f-1+q}(c_{(n_f-1+q),r}) = b_{qi}w_{qit}$ for $q = 0, ..., n_b$.

► Geoadditive models (Kammann and Wand, 2003, JRSS-C):

$$\eta_i = f_1(c_{0i}) + \ldots + f_{n_f-1}(c_{n_f-1,i}) + f_{spatial}(s_i) + \mathbf{z}'_i \beta,$$

where s_i indicates the location of observation *i* and $f_{spatial}$ is a spatially correlated effect.

Examples

► ANOVA-type interaction model: For the effect of two continuous covariates w and v:

$$\eta_i = f_1(w_i) + f_2(v_i) + f_{1,2}(w_i, v_i) + \ldots,$$

where f_1 , f_2 are the main effects and $f_{1,2}$ is a two dimensional interaction surface. As a special case, we just define $c_{1i} = w_i$, $c_{2i} = v_i$ and $c_{3i} = (w_i, v_i)$,

- Univariate stochastic volatility model
 - Time series models with Gaussian likelihood where the variance (not the mean) of the observed data is part of the latent GMRF model:

$$y_i \mid \eta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \exp(\eta_i)),$$

and, for example, model the latent field η as an autoregressive model of order 1.

Bayesian for Spatial and Spatio-temporal Models (Blangiardo and Cameletti, 2015, Wiley)



INLA for Spatial Area Data: Suicides in London

- Disease mapping is commonly used in small area studies to assess the pattern of a disease
- To identify areas characterized by unusually high or low relative risk (Lawson 2009)

London Cholera Outbreak in 1854



Cholera map in dot style; dots represent deaths from cholera in London in 1854 to detect the source of the disease

Example: Suicide Mortality

- ► 32 Boroughs in London; 1989-1993
- ▶ For the *i*-th area, the number of suicides *y_i*:

$$y_i \sim Poisson(\lambda_i),$$

where $\lambda_i = \rho_i E_i$, a product of rate ρ_i and the expected number of suicides E_i

Linear predictor defined on logarithmic scale:

$$\eta_i = \log(\rho_i) = \alpha + v_i + \nu_i,$$

where α is the intercept, $v_i = f_1(i)$ and $\nu_i = f_2(i)$ are two area specific effects.

Besag-York-Mollie (BYM) model (Besag et al. 1991)

v_i: spatially structured residual, modeled using an intrinsic conditional autoregressive structure (iCAR):

$$\begin{aligned} v_i \mid v_{j \neq i} \sim Normal(m_i, s_i^2) \\ m_i &= \frac{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} v_j}{|\mathcal{N}(i)|} \\ s_i^2 &= \frac{\sigma_v^2}{|\mathcal{N}(i)|}, \end{aligned}$$

where $|\mathcal{N}(i)|$ is the number of areas which share boundaries with the *i*-th one.

• ν_i : unstructured residual; modeled by exchangeable prior:

$$\nu_i \sim Normal(0, \sigma^2)$$

Priors

- $\log \tau_{\nu} \sim \log Gamma(1, 0.0005)$
- $\log \tau_v \sim \log Gamma(1, 0.0005)$

- 1. Posterior for borough-specific relative risks of suicides, compared to the whole of London: $pr(\exp(v_i + \nu_i) | \mathbf{y})$
- 2. Posterior exceedance probability: $pr(\exp(v_i + v_i) > 1 | \mathbf{y})$
- 3. Fraction of structured variance component

Incorporating Risk Factors

- Extension: when risk factors are available and the aim of the study is to evaluate their effect on the risk of death (or disease)
- Ecological regression model
- ► For example: Index of social deprivation (x₁), index of social fragmentation (describing lack of social connections and of sense of community) (x₂)

Model:

$$\eta_i = \alpha + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + v_i + \nu_i$$

Can be fitted using the R-INLA package

London Suicide Rates Mapping



(a) Distribution of the borough specific relative risks of suicides $\zeta_i = \exp(v_i + \nu_i)$ in the disease mapping model

(b) Distribution of the borough specific posterior probability $p(\zeta_i > 1 \mid \boldsymbol{y})$ in the disease mapping model



(c) Distribution of the borough specific relative risks of suicides $\zeta_i = \exp(v_i + \nu_i)$ in the ecological regression model

(d) Distribution of the borough specific posterior probability $p(\zeta_i > 1 \mid y)$ in the ecological regression model

Figure 1: Borough specific relative risks and posterior probabilities.

Figure 1: suicide_rates

Other Spatial Examples (FiveThirtyEight)

Stephen Curry Is One Of The Best

All of his shots, 2015-16 regular season



Figure 2: Stehpen Curry

Background: Gaussian Markov Random Fields (GMRF)

- GMRF: $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)'$ with Markov property that for some $i \neq j, x_i \perp x_j \mid \mathbf{x}_{-ij}$
- Can be encoded by precision matrix $Q: Q_{ij} = 0$ if and only if $x_i \perp x_j \mid \mathbf{x}_{-ij}$
- Density function with mean vector µ:

$$pr(\mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} |\mathbf{Q}|^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)'\mathbf{Q}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)\}$$

- Most cases: Q is sparse: only O(n) of the n² entries are nonzero
- Can handle extra linear constraints: Ax = e for a k × n matrix
 A of rank k
- Computational note: Simulation usually based on lower Cholesky decomposition Q = LL', with L preserving the sparseness in Q. See Section 2.1 in Rue et al. (2009) for more details.

Background: Gaussian approximation (under regularity conditions)

- Find a Gaussian density q(z) to approximate a density $p(z) = \frac{1}{Z}f(z)$, where $Z = \int f(z)dz$
 - One-dimensional case
 - Multi-dimensional case
- Need to find mode z_0 (Newton or quasi-Newton methods)
- Need not know the normalizing constant Z
- Central Limit Theorem, approximate becomes better as sample size *n* increases if *f*(*z*; *Data*) is a posterior distribution of model parameters
- Typically better for marginal and conditional posteriors than joint posteriors (marginals are averages across other distributions!)
- Can use transformations (e.g., logit or log) to approximate a distribution over a constrained space
- Not so useful if there is skewness, or if interested in extreme values that are far from the mode

Background: Gaussian approximation - Density at Extreme Values (Bishop CM, 2006, Sec 4.4)



Figure 4.14 Illustration of the Laplace approximation applied to the distribution $p(z) \propto \exp(-z^2/2)\sigma(20z+4)$ where $\sigma(z)$ is the logistic sigmoid function defined by $\sigma(z) = (1 + e^{-z})^{-1}$. The left plot shows the normalized distribution p(z) in yellow, together with the Laplace approximation centred on the mode z_0 of p(z) in red. The right plot shows the negative logarithms of the corresponding curves.

Background: Gaussian Approximations

Approximate density of the form

$$pr(\mathbf{x}) \propto \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} + \sum_{i\in\mathcal{I}}g_i(x_i)\right\},$$

where $g_i(x_i) = \log(pr(y_i | x_i, \theta))$ in our setting.

- Gaussian approximation pr_G(x): obtained by matching the modal configuration and curvature at the mode (model could be computed by Newton-Raphson method)
- Let the mode be x^{*}, the precision matrix be Q^{*} + diag(c^{*}) (hint: use expansion to the second order g_i(x_i) ≈ g_i(x^{*}) + b_ix_i - ½c_ix_i²)
- Property: because the second summation does not involve x_i and x_j in one g(), the resulting Q* preserves the Markov property in the original latent Gaussian model on x

Background: Laplace Approximation

Approximate marginal posterior:

$$pr(\theta \mid \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\int pr(\mathbf{x}, \theta, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x}}{\int pr(\mathbf{x}, \theta, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{x} d\theta}$$
$$\propto \frac{pr(\theta, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\tilde{pr}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta, \mathbf{y})} \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*(\theta)}$$

where $\mathbf{x}^*(\mathbf{\theta}) = \arg \max_{\mathbf{x}} pr(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, \mathbf{y}).$

Key difference with Tierney and Kadane (1986) JASA: here in latent Gaussian models, the dimension of latent field x is n, could change with the number of observations n_d; Not the case in TK1986

Goal of INLA: Approximate Marginal Posteriors

Marginal posterior for each θ_k and x_j by numerical integration over θ:

$$pr(heta_k \mid oldsymbol{y}) pprox \int ilde{pr}(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{y}) doldsymbol{ heta}_{-k}$$
 $pr(x_j \mid oldsymbol{y}) pprox \int ilde{pr}(x_j \mid oldsymbol{ heta}, oldsymbol{y}) ilde{pr}(oldsymbol{ heta} \mid oldsymbol{y}) doldsymbol{ heta}$

INLA in Three Steps

- ▶ **Goal**: Compute posterior marginal $pr(x_i | y)$, i = 1, ..., n.
- Step I: Laplace approximation to pr(θ | y); Will be used to integrate out uncertainty about θ
- Step II: Simplified Laplace approximation to pr(x_i | θ, y) over selected θ values: {θ_k}
- Step III: Combines the previous two steps using numerical integration

INLA - Step I: Approximate $pr(\theta \mid \mathbf{y})$

$$\bullet \ \boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

- 1. Locate the mode θ^* for $\tilde{pr}(\theta \mid \mathbf{y})$: optimize $\log(\tilde{pr}(\theta \mid \mathbf{y}))$ by quasi-Newton method; Compute the Hession matrix \mathbf{H} at $\theta = \theta^*$
- 2. Construct a representation for general θ values for exploration: $\theta = \theta(z) = \theta^* + V \Lambda^{1/2} z$, where $\Sigma = H^{-1}$ and Σ has been spectrally decomposed as $\Sigma = V \Lambda V'$
- Explore log(p̃r(θ | y)) over a grid of {θ_k} by using the z-parametrization. Need stepsize δ_z in each z-direction. For each grid points, assign weight Δ_k (see next slide for an example with m = 2)
- 4. Can approximate $pr(\theta_j \mid \mathbf{y})$ already!

INLA - Step I-3



Fig.1. Illustration of the exploration of the posterior marginal for θ: in (a) the mode is located and the Hessian and the co-ordinate system for z are computed; in (b) each co-ordinate direction is explored (•) until the log-density drops below a certain limit; finally the new points (•) are explored

INLA - Step II: Approximate $pr(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{y})$

- Now we have a set of weighted points {θ_k}, we obtain for each x_i the marginal posterior given each selected θ_k Three options:
- 1. Gaussian approximation: simplest and cheapest: $\tilde{pr}_G(x_i \mid \theta, y)$; There could be errors in the location or due to the lack of skewness
- 2. Laplace approximation

$$\tilde{pr}_{LA}(x_i \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{y}) \propto \frac{pr(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{y})}{\tilde{pr}_{GG}(\boldsymbol{x}_{-i} \mid x_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{y})}\Big|_{\boldsymbol{x}_{-i} = \boldsymbol{x}^*_{-i}(x_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})}$$

Too expensive: recomputed $\tilde{pr}_{GG}()$ at every x_i . Has some fixes (see Section 3.2.3 of Rue et al. 2009)

3. Simplified Laplace approximation: Correct Gaussian approximation for location and skewness AND has computing time $O(n^2 \log n) \exp(m)$.

Comparing MCMC and INLA

- MCMC: Stochastic simulation of the posterior; Accurate if computing time is not a concern (rarely true)
- Easy posterior inferene for functions of unknowns
- Components of latent field x strongly dependent; θ and x are also strongly dependent. Chains will mix painfully slow
- Usually requires blockwise proposal-and-rejection scheme (aka block MCMC)
- The Monte Carlo error decays at rate $\mathcal{O}(N^{-1/2})$.
- Time: hours to days for some spatial models (see Rue et al, 2009)

Comparing MCMC and INLA

- INLA: Deterministic; Using analytic approximations
- Suitable for latent GMRF; Sparse precision matrix can speed up computations; Approximation bias found to be smaller than typical MCMC in some cases
- Variational Bayes: Also deterministic approximation; Iterative algorithm; Usually require exponential-family likelihood and priors on θ
- ► Time: seconds or minutes

INLA - Summary

- Compute the posterior marginals for latent Gaussian Markov Random Field Models based on deterministic Laplace approximations
- Much faster than MCMC with small approximation biases
- Practically exact results by INLA over a randge of commonly used latent Gaussian models; Also has tools for assessing approximation errors to decide if they are non-neglegible (not discussed see Section 4 of Rue et al. 2009)
- Could be a basis for greater automation and parallel implementation; Core is the sparse matrix algorithms; Essentially no tunning.
- Disadvantage: computing time exponential of m, the dimension of hyperparameters θ
- Could be used as a baseline model to explore smooth effects

Extensions (Not Discussed)

- Approximate posterior marginals for a subset of x_S
- Approximate marginal likelihood (e.g. for Bayes factor)
- Approximate predictive measures for model crticism and comparison
- Approximate Deviance Information Criteria (Spiegelhalter, 2002, Bayesian measure of model complexity and fit)

Comment

- Next and Final lecture: Network Analysis
- Required reading:
 - Rue, Martino and Chopin (2009) Approximate Bayesian Inference for Latent Gaussian Models by using Integrated Nested Laplace Approximations. JRSS-B, 71(2): 319-392.
- Additional References:
 - INLA Tutorials
 - Simpson et al. (2015). Going off grid: computationally efficient inference for log-Gaussian Cox processes. Biometrika.
- Other resouces:
 - R-INLA project
 - All models implemented in R inla package