

# Riemannian Framework for Assessing Bayes Robustness

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## Motivation

Important to assess sensitivity of posterior inference to:

- Prior distribution;
- Likelihood;
- Data.

## Motivation

Important to assess sensitivity of posterior inference to:

- Prior distribution;
- Likelihood;
- Data.

Two observations:

- 'Distance'-based measures are commonly used with inadequate considerations of the geometry of the space of models;
- Perturbations and sensitivity measures are usually developed independent of the inferential methodology.

## Objective

Unify the perturbation mechanisms for prior, likelihood and data with inference under a Riemannian framework to develop sensitivity measures which are geometrically calibrated.

## Why bother with the geometry?

- The space of probability densities is a nonlinear manifold.
- Divergence measures are not true distances (positive definiteness, symmetry and triangle inequality).
- Geodesic distances provide geometrically calibrated measures of disparity between densities. Under the Fisher-Rao metric they are also bounded.
- Geometry might lead to statistical insights.

## Fisher–Rao metric

- Banach manifold of probability densities on  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$\mathcal{P} = \left\{ p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} : \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) dx = 1 \right\}.$$

- For a point  $p$  in  $\mathcal{P}$  define the **tangent space** as:

$$T_p(\mathcal{P}) = \left\{ \delta p : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta p(x) p(x) dx = 0 \right\}.$$

- The nonparametric **Fisher-Rao metric** then is:

$$\langle\langle \delta p_1, \delta p_2 \rangle\rangle_p = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta p_1(x) \delta p_2(x) \frac{1}{p(x)} dx.$$

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The metric is invariant to reparameterizations (Čencov 1982).

## Connection to Fisher Information matrix

- Consider the parametric family  $\mathcal{F} = \{f(x, \theta) | \theta \in \Theta\}$ .
- The tangent vectors at  $f(x, \theta)$  are  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta)$ .
- Then, the norm on  $\mathcal{F}$  is induced by the Fisher-Rao Riemannian metric

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} f(x, \theta) \right)^2 \frac{1}{f(x, \theta)} dx &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log(f(x, \theta)) \right)^2 f(x, \theta) dx \\ &= E_{\theta} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log(f(x, \theta)) \right]^2, \end{aligned}$$



## Fisher–Rao metric

**Issue:** difficult to use the metric directly as it changes from point to point on the manifold  $\mathcal{P}$ .

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**Issue:** difficult to use the metric directly as it changes from point to point on the manifold  $\mathcal{P}$ .

**Solution:** find a different representation, which simplifies the computations.

Different choices are available:

log representation; CDF representation; **positive square-root**.

## The Square-Root Representation (SRT): Bhattacharya (1943)

- Define the map  $\phi : \mathcal{P} \mapsto \Psi$  where the space  $\Psi$  is the space containing the positive square-root of all possible density functions.
- Using this mapping, define the square-root transform of probability density functions as  $\phi(p) = \psi = +p^{1/2}$ . The inverse mapping is simply  $\phi^{-1}(\psi) = p = \psi^2$ .

## The Square-Root Representation (SRT): Bhattacharya (1943)

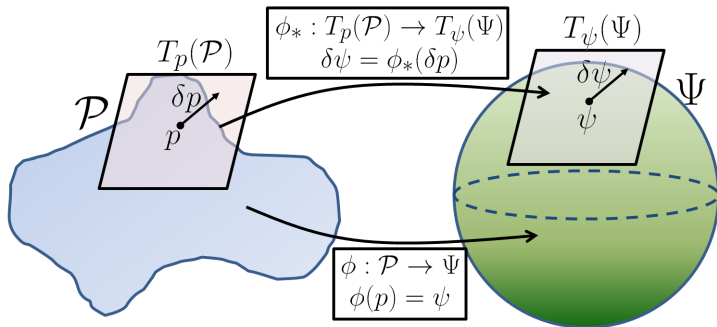
**Fact 1:** The space of all SRT representations of probability density functions is the positive orthant of the unit  $\mathbb{L}^2$  sphere:

$$\Psi = \left\{ \psi : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}; \int_{\mathbb{R}} |\psi(x)|^2 dx = 1 \right\}.$$

**Fact 2:**  $\Psi$  is a Hilbert manifold with the unique global chart which is the identify map.

**Fact 3:** The nonparametric Fisher-Rao metric equips  $\Psi$  with a Riemannian structure and reduces to the **standard  $\mathbb{L}^2$  metric**.

## Fisher–Rao metric under SRT



$$d_{FR}(p_1, p_2) = \cos^{-1}(\langle \psi_1, \psi_2 \rangle)$$

## Geometry of unit Hilbert sphere is well-known

- Tangent space at a point  $\psi \in \Psi$ :  $T_\psi(\Psi) = \{\delta\psi : \langle \delta\psi, \psi \rangle = 0\}$ .
- The  $\mathbb{L}^2$  Riemannian metric is:  $\langle \delta\psi_1, \delta\psi_2 \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta\psi_1(x)\delta\psi_2(x)dx$ .
- Geodesic distance:

$$d_{FR}(p_1, p_2) = \theta = \cos^{-1}(\langle \psi_1, \psi_2 \rangle).$$

- $0 \leq d_{FR}(p_1, p_2) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ .
- The geodesic path between  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$ , indexed by  $\tau \in [0, 1]$ , is  
$$\eta(\tau) = (\sin(\theta))^{-1}[\sin(\theta - \tau\theta)\psi_1 + \sin(\tau\theta)\psi_2]$$

## Geometry of unit Hilbert sphere is well-known

- Exponential map  $\exp : T_{\psi_1}(\Psi) \mapsto \Psi$ , to map tangent vectors back to sphere:

$$\exp_{\psi_1}(\delta\psi) = \cos(\|\delta\psi\|)\psi_1 + \sin(\|\delta\psi\|)\delta\psi(\|\delta\psi\|)^{-1}.$$

- Inverse Exponential map  $\exp_{\psi_1}^{-1} : \Psi \mapsto T_{\psi_1}(\Psi)$ :

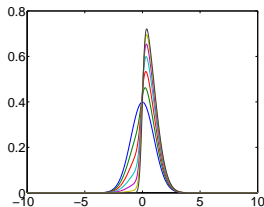
$$\exp_{\psi_1}^{-1}(\psi_2) = [\theta(\sin(\theta))^{-1}(\psi_2 - \cos(\theta)\psi_1)].$$

These are tremendously useful!

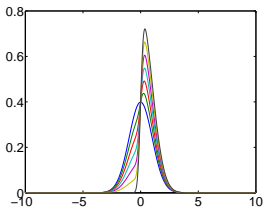
## Example: Normal and Skew-normal

$p_1 \sim N(0, 1)$ ;  $p_2 \sim SN(5)$ .

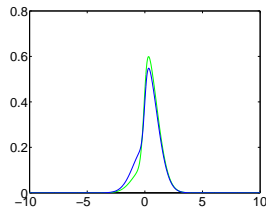
*Fisher-Rao Geodesic*



*Straight Line*



*Midpoint*



$$d_{FR}(p_1, p_2) = 0.6700; KL(p_1, p_2) = 6.6692; KL(p_2, p_1) = 0.5520$$

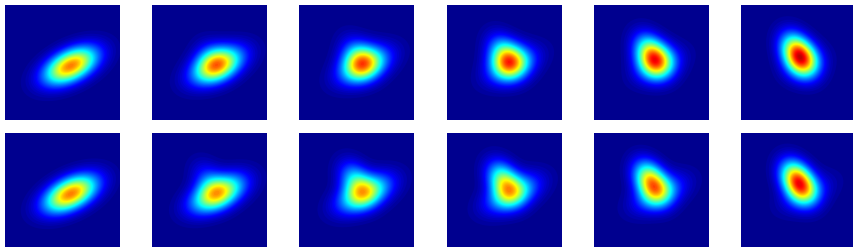
- Linear interpolation midpoint is shown in blue.
- Fisher-Rao geodesic midpoint is shown in green.



## Example: Bivariate normals

$p_1 \sim N(\mu_1, \Sigma_1)$  and  $p_2 \sim N(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$  where

$$\mu_1 = \begin{bmatrix} .5 \\ .2 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.2 & .4 \\ .4 & .6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \mu_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ .5 \end{bmatrix}, \Sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} .5 & -.2 \\ -.2 & .7 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$d_{FR}(p_1, p_2) = 0.7157; KL(p_1, p_2) = 1.2522; KL(p_2, p_1) = 1.3653.$$

## GEOMETRIC $\epsilon$ - PERTURBATION CLASS

## Geometric $\epsilon$ -perturbation of prior

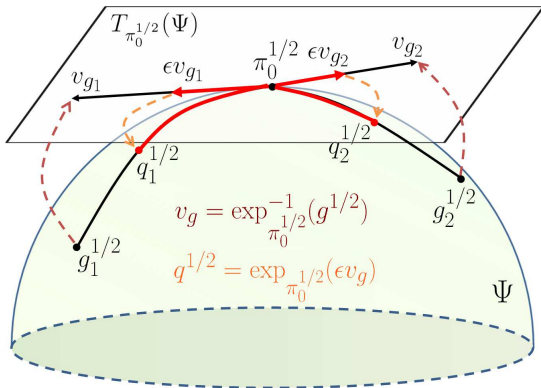
- Let  $\mathcal{G} = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$  denote a finite class of contaminants.
- We construct a set of tangent vectors  $v_{g_1}, \dots, v_{g_n} \in T_{\pi_0^{1/2}}(\Psi)$  using the inverse exponential map as  $v_{g_i} = \exp_{\pi_0^{1/2}}^{-1}(g_i^{1/2})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .

### Definition

For a class of densities  $\mathcal{G} = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$ , the geometric  $\epsilon$ -contamination class corresponding to the baseline prior  $\pi_0$  is defined as

$$\Gamma = \left\{ [\exp_{\pi_0^{1/2}}(\epsilon v_{g_i})]^2; 0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1, g_i \in \mathcal{G}, i = 1, \dots, n \right\}. \quad (1)$$

## Geometric $\epsilon$ -perturbation of prior



## Two fundamental properties

### Theorem

- *Any perturbation of the baseline prior should not have an effect on the sampling distribution.*
- *Given two perturbations of the baseline prior, the Riemannian metric on the space of joint densities should be independent of the sampling distribution.*

### Theorem

- *The effects of simultaneous perturbations of the prior and likelihood on the joint density should be separable.*
- *Two separate perturbations of the prior and likelihood should be orthogonal to each other on the space of joint densities.*

## GLOBAL SENSITIVITY MEASURES

## Geodesic distance as sensitivity measure

- We assess global sensitivity to perturbations of the prior or likelihood using the Fisher-Rao geodesic distance between the baseline posterior and the perturbed posterior
- Upper bound of  $\pi/2$  provides a natural scale.
- **Intrinsic distance** captures the geometry of the space of densities.
- One can additionally assess sensitivity of functionals of the posterior by computing them at the nearest and farthest perturbed posteriors.

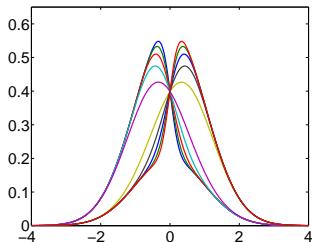
## Simple example

- Data: 50 data points simulated from the baseline model.
- Baseline model:

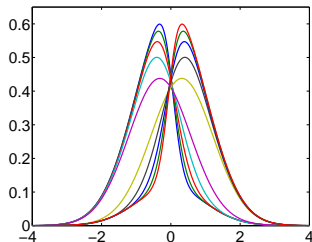
$$x_i | \theta \stackrel{i.i.d}{f} \sim N(\theta, 1);$$

$$\theta \sim \pi_o = N(0, 1).$$

- Prior perturbation class:  $SN(\alpha)$ ,  $-5 \leq \alpha \leq 5$ .



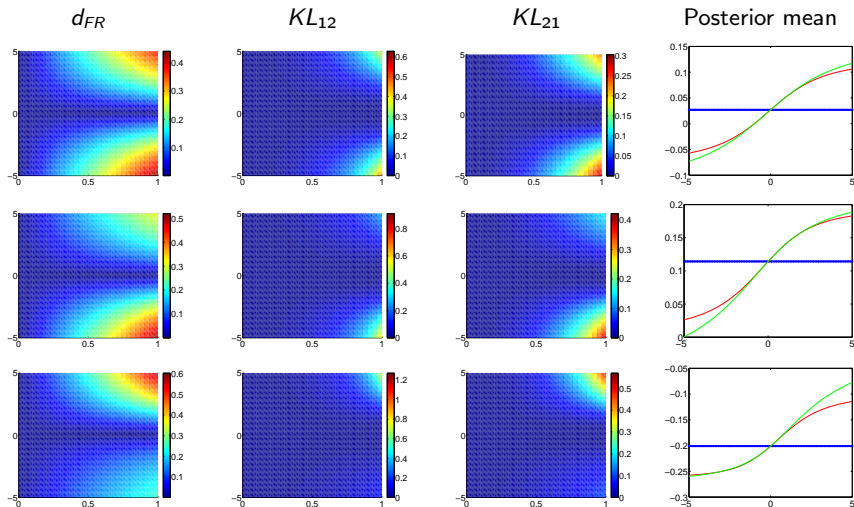
(a)



(b)



## Simple example



Last column is posterior mean for varying values of  $\alpha$  and  $\epsilon = 0.5$

(baseline=blue, geometric contamination=green, linear contamination=red).

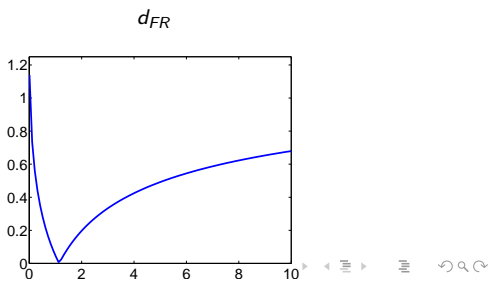
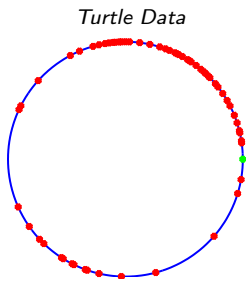
## Directional Data example

- Data: 76 directions of turtle movement after applying a treatment.
- Baseline model:

$$x_i | \theta \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} f = vM(\theta, \hat{\kappa}), \quad \hat{\kappa} = 1.14;$$

$$\theta \sim \pi_o = vM(0, 0.01).$$

**Goal:** assess global sensitivity to changing  $\hat{\kappa}$ . We will do this by varying the concentration parameter in the likelihood from 0.01 to 10.



## Example: Generalized Mixed Effects Model

- Data: Binary response—presence or absence of bacteria;  
predictors—treatment (placebo, drug, drug+), week of test.
- Baseline model:

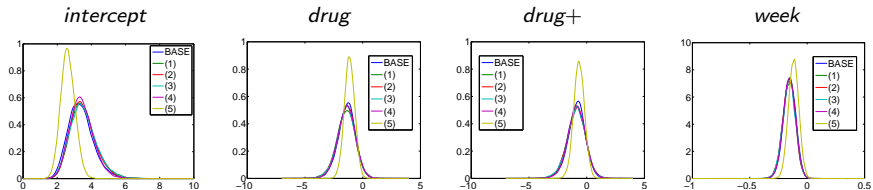
$$Y_{ij} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_{ij}); \quad \text{logit}(p_{ij}) = \mu + \sum_{k=1}^3 x_{ij}^k \beta^k + V_i;$$

$$\mu \sim N(0, 100); \quad \beta^k \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} N(0, 100);$$

$$V_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2); \quad \tau = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sim \Gamma(0.01, 0.01),$$

- **Goal:** assess global sensitivity of marginal posteriors of  $\mu$  and  $\beta$  to the following choices of priors on  $\sigma^2$ :
  - Half-normal with variance 100 on  $\sigma$ ;
  - Half-Cauchy with scale 100 on  $\sigma$ ;
  - Uniform(0,100) on  $\sigma$ ;
  - $\Gamma(1, 2)$  on  $\tau$ ;
  - $\Gamma(1, 2)$  on  $\tau$ .

## Example: Generalized Mixed Effects Model



Fixed Effect	Model				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
intercept	0.1054	0.0864	0.0982	0.0740	0.6716
drug	0.0716	0.0499	0.0590	0.0435	0.3835
drug+	0.0666	0.0580	0.0683	0.0445	0.3432
week	0.0524	0.0572	0.0630	0.0311	0.3670

## LOCAL SENSITIVITY MEASURES

## Local perturbation measures based on $\epsilon$ -perturbation

- Use directional derivatives to derive local sensitivity measures under the geometric  $\epsilon$ -perturbation class.
- Utilize the underlying geometry of the space to develop sensitivity measures for posterior functionals.
- Second-order analysis on the geodesic distance itself can be used obtain finer measures.

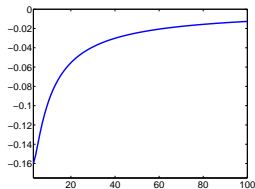
## Toy example

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- Baseline model:

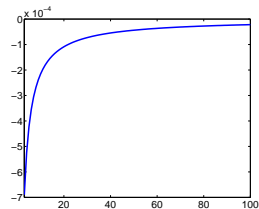
$$x_i | \theta \stackrel{i.i.d}{f} \sim N(\theta, 1); \theta \sim \pi_o = N(0, 1).$$

- Prior perturbation class:  $t_\nu, \nu = 3, 4, \dots, 100$ .
- Candidate prior for Bayes factor:  $\pi_1 = N(0, 5)$ .

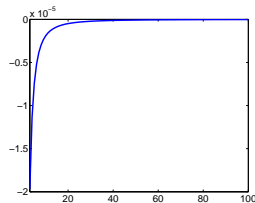
*Bayes Factor*



*Posterior Mean*



*Geodesic*

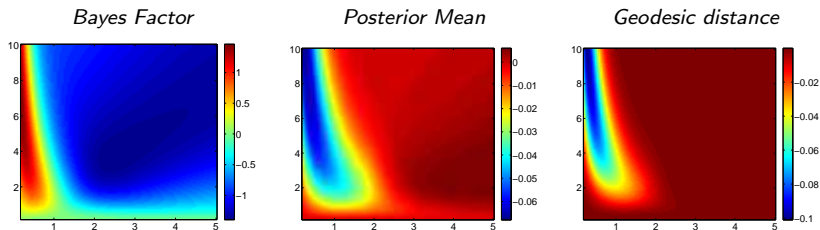


## Local analysis for Turtle data

- Data: 76 directions of turtle movement after applying a treatment.
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$$x_i | \theta \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} f = vM(\theta, \hat{\kappa}), \hat{\kappa} = 1.14; \quad \theta \sim \pi_0 = vM(0, 0.01).$$

- Prior perturbations: wrapped Laplace with skewness parameter  $0.2 \leq \eta \leq 5$ , and concentration parameter  $0.2 \leq \lambda \leq 10$ .
- $\eta < 1$  is skewed anti-clockwise; and,  $\eta > 1$  is skewed clockwise;  $\eta = 1$  is symmetric.





## Detecting Influential Observations

## Influential Observations

- If  $p_0$  is the baseline posterior obtained with all observations, denote  $p_k$  to be posterior obtained having deleted the  $k$ th observation.
- The influence measure for the  $k$ th observation then is

$$I(k) = d_{FR}(p_0, p_k).$$

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- **Issue:** posterior may not be available in closed form and numerical computation of the marginal likelihood may not be possible.
- **Solution:** Estimate distance using Monte-Carlo based on MCMC samples or importance sampling. **This estimate is consistent.**

## Example: Linear regression

- *Data*: response—natural log of survival time; predictors—blood clotting score, prognostic index, enzyme test, liver test, age, gender (binary), moderate alcohol use (binary), heavy alcohol use (binary);  $n=54$ .
- *Baseline model*:

$$y|\theta, X \sim f = N(X\theta, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{54});$$

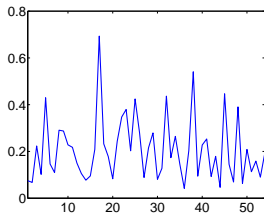
$$\theta \sim \pi = N(\mathbf{0}, 1000\mathbf{I}_9).$$

- Easy to evaluate baseline and case-deletion posterior. But  $d_{FR}$  is a high-dimensional integral.
- If  $\{\theta_i\}$  is a sample from the baseline posterior, then

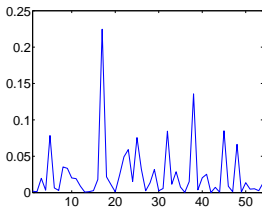
$$\hat{I}(k) = \hat{d}_{FR}(p_0, p_k) = \cos^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sqrt{\frac{p_k(\theta_i|y, X)}{p_0(\theta_i|y, X)}} \right].$$

## Example: Linear regression

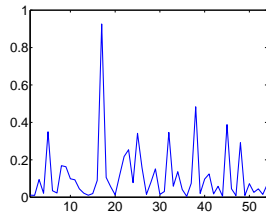
$\hat{I}$



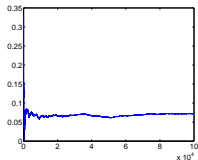
Cook's Distance



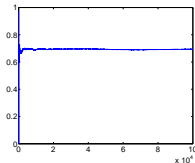
Peng–Dey (1995)



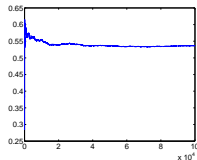
Case 2



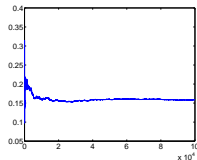
Case 17



Case 38



Case 52



## Points to ponder over

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- Several measures in literature might perform better and might even be easy to implement. But, the objective of our work is to unify the robustness assessment endeavour under a geometric framework.
- Our claim is that the measures provided are 'geometrically calibrated' with a natural scale.
- The framework is really easy to implement in practice!

## Future and Current work (plenty!)

- Develop good estimators for FR distance when posteriors are unavailable analytically.
- Geometric Variational Bayes—we have some preliminary results which appear promising. The nonparametric manifold should make a seamless transition to the nonparametric Bayesian framework. (Nonparametric Invariant prior mimicing the Jeffreys prior).
- Investigate posterior consistency in topological neighbourhoods induced by the FR metric.
- .....

*If you can't convince them, confuse them.*

*-Harry Truman*