

# Estimating Sparse High Dimensional Linear Models using Global-Local Shrinkage

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# Outline

- 1 Bayesian Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies
  - Linear Models
  - Bayesian Estimation of Linear Models
  - Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies
  
- 2 Bayesreg toolbox
  - The Bayesreg hierarchy
  - Gibbs sampling
  - The toolbox

# Outline

## 1 Bayesian Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies

- Linear Models
- Bayesian Estimation of Linear Models
- Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies

## 2 Bayesreg toolbox

- The Bayesreg hierarchy
- Gibbs sampling
- The toolbox

# Problem Description

- Consider the linear model

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0\mathbf{1}_n + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon},$$

where

- $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector of targets;
  - $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$  is a matrix of features;
  - $\boldsymbol{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is a vector of regression coefficients;
  - $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  is the intercept;
  - $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector of random disturbances.
- Let  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^*$  denote the *true* values of the coefficients
  - Task: we observe  $\mathbf{y}$ ,  $\mathbf{X}$  and must estimate  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^*$ 
    - We do not require that  $p < n$

# Sparse Linear Models (1)

- The value  $\beta_j^* = 0$  is special  
⇒ means that feature  $j$  is not associated with targets
- Define the index of sparsity by

$$\|\beta^*\|_0,$$

where  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_0$  is the  $\ell_0$  (counting) “norm”

- A linear model is **sparse** if  $\|\beta^*\|_0 \ll p$
- Sparsity is useful when  $p \geq n$ 
  - Enables us to estimate less entries of  $\beta$
  - If trying to find which  $\beta_j^* \neq 0$ , conditions on  $\|\beta^*\|_0$  required

## Sparse Linear Models (2)

- Why is sparsity useful?
- Loosely, an estimator sequence  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is asymptotically *efficient* if

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^*)^2]\} = 1/J(\theta^*)$$

where  $J(\theta^*)$  is the Fisher information.

- Estimators exist for which the above bound can be beaten but only on a set of **measure zero** (Hodges 51, Le Cam 53)
- Sparse models have a special set of measure zero
  - The set  $\beta_j^* = \{0\}$  has measure zero, but is extremely important
  - Good sparse estimators achieve superefficiency for  $\beta_j^* = 0$

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation of $\beta$

- Assume we have a probabilistic model for the disturbances  $\varepsilon_i$ 
  - Then, a standard way of estimating  $\beta$  is maximum likelihood

$$\{\hat{\beta}, \hat{\beta}_0\} = \arg \max_{\beta, \beta_0} \{p(\mathbf{y} | \beta, \beta_0, \mathbf{X})\}$$

- If  $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ , then  $\hat{\beta}$  is the **least squares** estimator.
- Has several drawbacks:
  - Requires  $p < n$  for uniqueness
  - Potentially high variance
  - Cannot produce sparse estimates
- Traditional “fixes” to maximum likelihood
  - Remove some covariates
  - Exploits sparsity

# Penalized Regression (1)

Method	Type	Comments
Ridge	Convex	(+) Computationally efficient (-) Suffers from potentially high estimation bias
Lasso Elastic net	Convex	(+) Convex optimisation problem (+) Can produce sparse estimates (-) Suffers from potentially high estimation bias (-) Can have model selection consistency problems
Non-convex shrinkers (SCAD, MCP, etc.)	Non-convex	(+) Reduced estimation bias (+) Improved model selection consistency (+) Can produce sparse estimates (-) Non-convex optimisation; difficult, multi-modal
Subset selection	Non-convex	(+) Model selection consistency (-) Computationally intractable (-) High statistically unstable



## Penalized Regression (2)

- All methods require an additional model selection step
  - Cross validation
  - Information criteria
  - Asymptotically optimal choices
- Quantifying **statistical uncertainty** is problematic
  - Uncertainty in  $\lambda$  difficult to incorporate
  - For sparse methods standard errors of  $\beta$  difficult
    - ⇒ Bootstrap requires special modifications
- Bayesian inference provides natural solutions to these problems

# Bayesian Linear Regression (1)

- Assuming normal disturbances, the Bayesian regression

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0 &\sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 \mathbf{1}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n), \\ \beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2 &\sim \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2) d\boldsymbol{\beta}, \end{aligned}$$

where

- $\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2)$  is a prior distribution over  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ ;
  - $\sigma^2$  is the noise variance.
- Inferences about  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  formed using the posterior distribution

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0 \mid \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \sigma^2) \pi(\boldsymbol{\beta} \mid \sigma^2).$$

Inference usually performed by MCMC sampling.

## Bayesian Linear Regression (2)

- “Spike-and-slab” variable selection

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0 &\sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0 \mathbf{1}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_n), \\ \beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \beta_j \mid I_j, \sigma^2 &\sim \left[ I_j \pi(\beta_j \mid \sigma^2) + (1 - I_j) \delta_0(\beta_j) \right] d\beta_j, \\ I_j &\sim \text{Be}(\alpha) \\ \alpha &\sim \pi(\alpha) d\alpha \end{aligned}$$

where

- $I_j \in \{0, 1\}$  are indicators and  $\text{Be}(\cdot)$  is a Bernoulli distribution;
  - $\delta_z(x)$  denotes a Dirac point-mass at  $x = z$ ;
  - $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  is the *a priori* inclusion probability.
- Considered “gold standard”  
 $\Rightarrow$  **computationally intractable** as involves exploring  $2^p$  models

# Bayesian Linear Regression (3)

- Variable selection with continuous shrinkage priors
- Treat the prior distribution for  $\beta$  as a Bayesian penalty
  - Taking

$$\beta_j \mid \sigma^2, \lambda \sim N(0, \lambda^2 \sigma^2)$$

leads to Bayesian **ridge regression**;

- or, taking

$$\beta_j \mid \sigma^2, \lambda \sim \text{La}(0, \lambda/\sigma)$$

where  $\text{La}(a, b)$  is a Laplace distribution with location  $a$  and scale  $b$  leads to Bayesian **lasso**.

- More generally ...

# Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies (1)

- The global-local shrinkage hierarchy  
⇒ generalises many popular Bayesian regression priors

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \sigma^2 &\sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0\mathbf{1}_n, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n), \\ \beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \beta_j \mid \lambda_j^2, \tau^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(0, \lambda_j^2\tau^2\sigma^2) \\ \lambda_j &\sim \pi(\lambda_j)d\lambda_j \\ \tau &\sim \pi(\tau)d\tau \end{aligned}$$

- Models priors for  $\beta_j$  as scale-mixtures of normals  
⇒ choice of  $\pi(\lambda_j)$ ,  $\pi(\tau)$  controls behaviour

# Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies (2)

- The global-local shrinkage hierarchy  
⇒ generalises many popular Bayesian regression priors

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- Local shrinkers  $\lambda_j$  control selection of important variables  
⇒ play the role of indicators  $I_j$  in spike-and-slab

# Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies (3)

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- Global shrinker  $\tau$  controls for multiplicity  
⇒ plays the role of inclusion probability  $\alpha$  in spike-and-slab

# Local Shrinkage Priors (1)

- What makes a good prior for local variance components?
- Denote the marginal prior of  $\beta_j$  by

$$\pi(\beta_j | \tau, \sigma) = \int_0^\infty \left( \frac{1}{\lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left( -\frac{\beta_j^2}{2\lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2} \right) \pi(\lambda_j) d\lambda_j$$

- Carvalho, Polson and Scott (2010) proposed two desirable properties of  $\pi(\beta_j | \tau, \sigma)$



## Local Shrinkage Priors (2)

- Two desirable properties:

- ① Should concentrate sufficient mass near  $\beta_j = 0$  such that

$$\lim_{\beta_j \rightarrow 0} \pi(\beta_j | \tau, \sigma) \rightarrow \infty$$

to guarantee fast rate of posterior contraction when  $\beta_j^* = 0$

- ② Should have sufficiently heavy tails so that

$$\mathbb{E}[\beta_j | \mathbf{y}] = \hat{\beta}_j + o_{\hat{\beta}_j}(1)$$

to guarantee asymptotic (in effect-size) unbiasedness

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## Local Shrinkage Priors (3)

- Classic shrinkage priors do not satisfy either property
  - Bayesian ridge takes  $\lambda_j \sim \delta_1(\lambda_j)d\lambda_j$ , leading to

$$\beta_j | \tau, \sigma^2 \sim N(0, \tau^2 \sigma^2).$$

which expects  $\beta_j$ s to be same squared magnitude

- 1 Does not model sparsity
  - 2 Large bias if  $\beta^*$  mix of weak and strong signals
- Bayesian lasso takes  $\lambda_j \sim \text{Exp}(1)$ , lead to

$$\beta_j | \tau, \sigma \sim \text{La}(0, 2^{-3/2} \sigma \tau)$$

which expects  $\beta_j$ s to be same absolute magnitude

- 1 Super-efficient at  $\beta_j^* = 0$  but not fast enough contraction,
- 2 Large bias if  $\beta^*$  sparse with few strong signals

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# The horseshoe prior (1)

- The “horseshoe” prior satisfies **both** properties
  - The horseshoe prior takes

$$\lambda_j \sim C^+(0, 1),$$

with  $C^+(0, A)$  a half-Cauchy distribution with scale  $A$ .

- Does not admit closed-form for marginal prior, but has bounds

$$\frac{K}{2} \log \left( 1 + \frac{4}{b^2} \right) < \pi(\beta_j | \tau, \sigma) < \frac{K}{2} \log \left( 1 + \frac{2}{b^2} \right),$$

where  $b = \beta_j \tau \sigma$  and  $K = (2\pi^3)^{-1/2}$ .

- ✓ Has a pole at  $\beta_j = 0$ ;
- ✓ Has polynomial tails in  $\beta_j$

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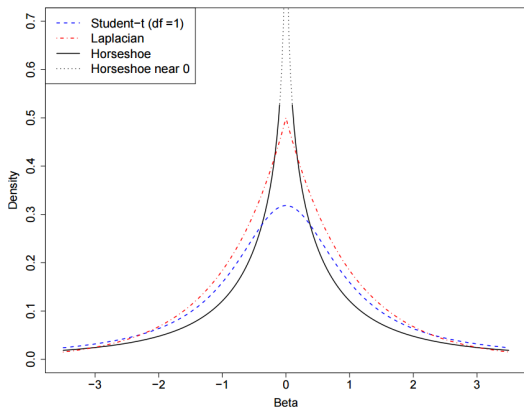
where  $b = \beta_j \tau \sigma$  and  $K = (2\pi^3)^{-1/2}$ .

- ✓ Has a pole at  $\beta_j = 0$ ;
- ✓ Has polynomial tails in  $\beta_j$



## The horseshoe prior (2)

- Flat, Cauchy-like tails and infinitely tall spike at the origin



The horseshoe prior and two close cousins: Laplacian and Student-t.

## Higher order horseshoe priors

- More generally, we can model  $\lambda_j$  as a product of  $k$  half-Cauchy variables
- The  $HS_k$  (our notation) prior is

$$\lambda_j \sim C_1 C_2 \dots C_k$$

where  $C_i \sim C^+(0, 1)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

- Generalises several existing priors
  - $HS_0$  is ridge regression;
  - $HS_1$  is the usual horseshoe;
  - $HS_2$  is the horseshoe+ prior (Bhadra et al, 2015).
- Tail weight and mass at  $\beta_j = 0$  increase as  $k$  grows  
 $\Rightarrow$  models  $\beta$  as increasingly sparse

# Horseshoe estimator

- The horseshoe estimator also takes

$$\tau \sim C^+(0, 1)$$

though most heavy tailed priors will perform similarly

- How does the horseshoe prior work in practice?
  - The horseshoe prior works well high dimensional, sparse regressions
  - Experiments show it performs similarly to “spike-and-slab” at variable selection
  - Continuous nature of prior means mixing is much better for large  $p$
  - Posterior mean has strong prediction properties

# Outline

- 1 Bayesian Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies
  - Linear Models
  - Bayesian Estimation of Linear Models
  - Global-Local Shrinkage Hierarchies
- 2 Bayesreg toolbox
  - The Bayesreg hierarchy
  - Gibbs sampling
  - The toolbox

# A Bayesian regression toolbox (1)

## Motivation

- We have lots of genomic/epigenomic data
  - Large numbers of genomic markers measured along genome
  - Associated disease outcomes (breast and prostate cancer, etc.)
  - Dimensionality is large (total  $p > 5,000,000$  in some cases).
  - Number of true associations expected to be small
  - Both association discovery and prediction of importance
- We wished to apply horseshoe-type methods
- But no flexible, easy-to-use and efficient toolbox existed
- So we (myself, Enes Makalic) wrote the Bayesreg toolbox for MATLAB and R

## A Bayesian regression toolbox (2)

- Requirements:
  - Handle large  $p$  (at least 10,000+)
  - Implement both normal and logistic linear regression
  - Implement the horseshoe priors
- Additionally:
  - Handle group-structures within variables, for example, genes
  - Perform (grouped) variable selection even when  $p > n$

# The Bayesreg hierarchy (1)

- Bayesreg uses the following hierarchy

$$\begin{aligned}z_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \omega_i^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(\mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0, \sigma^2 \omega_i^2), \\ \sigma^2 &\sim \sigma^{-2} d\sigma^2, \\ \omega_i^2 &\sim \pi(\omega_i^2) d\omega_i^2, \\ \beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \beta_j | \lambda_j^2, \tau^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(0, \lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2), \\ \lambda_j^2 &\sim \pi(\lambda_j^2) d\lambda_j^2, \\ \tau^2 &\sim \pi(\tau^2) d\tau^2,\end{aligned}$$

- We use scale-mixture representation of likelihood
- Continuous data  $z_i = y_i$ ; binary data  $z_i = (y_i - 1/2)/\omega_i^2$

## The Bayesreg hierarchy (2)

- Bayesreg uses the following hierarchy

$$\begin{aligned} z_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \omega_i^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(\mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0, \sigma^2 \omega_i^2), \\ \sigma^2 &\sim \sigma^{-2} d\sigma^2, \\ \omega_i^2 &\sim \pi(\omega_i^2) d\omega_i^2, \\ \beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \beta_j | \lambda_j^2, \tau^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(0, \lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2), \\ \lambda_j^2 &\sim \pi(\lambda_j^2) d\lambda_j^2, \\ \tau^2 &\sim \pi(\tau^2) d\tau^2, \end{aligned}$$

- The  $z_i$  follow a (potentially) heteroskedastic Gaussian  
 $\Rightarrow \pi(\omega_i)$  determines data model (normal, logistic, etc.)



## The Bayesreg hierarchy (3)

- Bayesreg uses the following hierarchy

$$\begin{aligned}z_i | \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \beta_0, \omega_i^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(\mathbf{x}_i' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_0, \sigma^2 \omega_i^2), \\ \sigma^2 &\sim \sigma^{-2} d\sigma^2, \\ \omega_i^2 &\sim \pi(\omega_i^2) d\omega_i^2,\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_0 &\sim d\beta_0, \\ \beta_j | \lambda_j^2, \tau^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(0, \lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2), \\ \lambda_j^2 &\sim \pi(\lambda_j^2) d\lambda_j^2, \\ \tau^2 &\sim \pi(\tau^2) d\tau^2,\end{aligned}$$

- The priors for  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  follow a global-local shrinkage hierarchy  
 $\Rightarrow \pi(\lambda_j^2)$  determines the estimator (horseshoe, lasso, etc.)

# Gibbs sampling (1)

- Sampler for  $\beta \mid \dots$

- Is a multivariate normal of the form

$$\beta \mid \dots \sim N(\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{A}^{-1})$$

where  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{D})$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  is diagonal.

- This form allows for specialised sampling algorithms
  - If  $p/n < 2$  we use Rue's algorithm  $O(p^3)$
  - Otherwise we use Bhattacharya's algorithm,  $O(n^2p)$
- Sampler for  $\sigma^2 \mid \dots$ 
  - We integrate out the  $\beta$ s to improve mixing
  - Conditional distribution is an inverse-gamma  
 $\Rightarrow$  Uses quantities computed when sampling  $\beta$

## Gibbs sampling (2)

Sampler for  $\lambda_j \mid \dots$

- Recall that  $\lambda_j \sim C^+(0, 1)$ 
  - Conditional distribution for  $\lambda_j$  is

$$\pi(\lambda_j \mid \beta_j, \tau, \sigma) \propto \left( \frac{1}{\lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left( -\frac{\beta_j^2}{2\lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2} \right) (1 + \lambda_j^2)^{-1}$$

which is not a standard distribution

- When we started this work in 2015, only one slow slice sampler (monomvn) existed for horseshoe
- Since our implementation there have been several competing samplers

## Alternative Horseshoe Samplers

- Slice sampling
  - Heavy tails can cause mixing issues
  - Requires CDF inversions
  - Does not easily extend to higher-order horseshoe priors
- NUTS sampler (Stan implementation)
  - Very slow
  - Numerically unstable for true horseshoe
  - Unable to handle heavier tailed priors
- Elliptical slice sampler
  - Computationally efficient
  - Cannot be applied if  $p > n$
  - Cannot handle grouped variable structures

## Our approach (1)

- Based on auxiliary variables
- Let  $x$  and  $a$  be random variables such that

$$x^2 | a \sim IG(1/2, 1/a), \quad \text{and} \quad a \sim IG(1/2, 1/A^2)$$

then  $x \sim C^+(0, A)$ , where  $IG(\cdot, \cdot)$  denotes the inverse-gamma distribution with pdf

$$p(z | \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} z^{-\alpha-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\beta}{z}\right)$$

- Inverse-gamma conjugate with normal for scale parameters
  - Also conjugate with itself

## Our approach (2)

- Rewrite prior for  $\beta_j$  as

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_j | \lambda_j^2, \tau^2, \sigma^2 &\sim N(0, \lambda_j^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2) \\ \lambda_j^2 | \nu_j &\sim IG(1/2, 1/\nu_j) \\ \nu_j &\sim IG(1/2, 1)\end{aligned}$$

- Leads to simple Gibbs sampler for  $\lambda_j$  and  $\nu_j$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_j^2 | \cdot &\sim IG\left(1, \frac{1}{\nu_j} + \frac{\beta_j^2}{2\tau^2\sigma^2}\right), \\ \nu_j | \cdot &\sim IG\left(1, 1 + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- Both are simply inverted exponential random variables  
⇒ extremely quick and stable sampling

## Higher order horseshoe priors

- The  $HS_k$  prior is  $\lambda_j \sim C_1 C_2 \dots C_k$ , where  $C_i \sim C^+(0, 1)$ .
- Prior for  $\lambda_j$  has very complex form, but
  - Can rewrite prior as the hierarchy

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_j &\sim C^+(0, \phi_j^{(1)}) \\ \phi_j^{(1)} &\sim C^+(0, \phi_j^{(2)}) \\ &\vdots \\ \phi_j^{(k-1)} &\sim C^+(0, 1)\end{aligned}$$

- We can apply our expansion to easily sample  $\lambda_j$  and the  $\phi_j^{(\cdot)}$ s  
 $\Rightarrow$  currently only sampler that can efficiently handle  $k > 1$

## Group structures (1)

Group structures exist naturally in predictor variables

- A multi-level categorical predictor - a group of dummy variables
- A continuous predictor - composition of basis functions (additive models)
- Prior knowledge such as genes grouped in the same biological pathway - a natural group
- We wanted our toolbox to take exploit such structures



## Group structures (2)

- We add additional group-specific shrinkage parameters
  - For convenience we assume  $K$  levels of disjoint groupings
  - Assume  $\beta_j$  belongs to group  $g_k$  at level  $k$

$$\beta_j \mid \dots \sim N(0, \lambda_j^2 \delta_{1,g_1}^2 \cdots \delta_{K,g_K}^2 \tau^2 \sigma^2)$$

- Group shrinkers are given appropriate prior distributions
  - Our horseshoe sampler trivially adapted to group shrinkers  
 $\Rightarrow$  conditional distribution of  $\delta_{k,g_k}$  is inverse-gamma
  - In contrast, slice-sampler requires inversions of gamma CDFs
- Paper detailing this work about to be submitted

## Group structures (3)

		Variables									
		1	2	3	4	...	$p-3$	...	$p$	Group level	
Individual shrinkage parameters		$\lambda_1$	$\lambda_2$	$\lambda_3$	$\lambda_4$	...	$\lambda_{p-3}$	$\lambda_{p-2}$	$\lambda_{p-1}$	$\lambda_p$	
Group shrinkage parameters	}	-	$\delta_{1,1}$	...			$\delta_{1,G_1}$	-	1		
		:									:
		$\delta_{K,1}$	-	...			$\delta_{K,G_{K-1}}$	$\delta_{K,G_K}$	$K$		
Global shrinkage parameter		$\tau$									

An illustration of possible group structures of total  $p$  number of variables with 1 level of individual variables,  $K$  levels of grouped variables and 1 level of all variables.

# The Bayesreg toolbox (1)

The Bayesreg toolbox currently has:

- Data models
  - Gaussian, logistic, Laplace, Robust student- $t$  regression
- Priors
  - Bayesian ridge and  $g$ -prior regression
  - Bayesian lasso
  - Horseshoe
  - Higher order horseshoe (horseshoe+, etc.)
- Other features
  - Variable ranking
  - Some basic variable selection criteria
  - Easy to use

## The Bayesreg toolbox (2)

- In comparison to Stan:
  - On simple problem with  $p = 10$  and  $n = 442$
  - Stan took 50 seconds to produce 1,000 samples
  - Bayesreg took  $< 0.1s$
- In comparison to other slice-sampling implementations:
  - Speed and mixing for small  $p$  considerable better
  - For large  $p$  performance is similar
  - Scope of options much smaller (no horseshoe+, no grouping)
- Currently being used by group at University College London to fit logistic regressions for brain lesion work involving  $p = 50,000$  predictors

## The Bayesreg toolbox (3)

- In current development version:
  - Negative binomial regression for count data
  - Multi-level variable grouping
  - Higher order horseshoe priors (beyond  $HS_2$ )
- To be added in the near future:
  - Posterior sparsification tools
  - Autoregressive (time-series) residuals
  - Additional diagnostics

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# Sparse Bayesian Point Estimates

- We obtain  $m$  samples from the posterior
  - What if we want a single point estimate?
- An attractive choice is the Bayes estimator with squared-prediction loss
  - (Potentially) admissible, invariant to reparameterisation
  - Reduces to posterior mean  $\bar{\beta}$  of  $\beta$  in standard parameterisation
- Ironically, even if the prior promotes sparsity (i.e., horseshoe), the posterior mean will not be sparse
  - The *exact* posterior mode may be sparse, but is impossible to find from samples
- A number of simple sparsification rules exist
  - Most do not work when  $p > n$
  - Largely consider only marginal effects

# Decoupled Shrinkage and Selection (DSS) estimator (1)

- Polson et al. (2016) recently introduced the DSS procedure
  - 1 Obtain samples for  $\beta$  from posterior distribution
  - 2 Form a new data vector incorporating the effects of shrinkage

$$\bar{y} = \mathbf{X}\bar{\beta}.$$

- 3 Find “sparsified” approximations of  $\bar{\beta}$  by solving

$$\beta_{\lambda} = \arg \min_{\beta} \{ \|\bar{y} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_0 \}$$

or a similar penalised estimator for different values of  $\lambda$

- 4 Select one of the sparsified models  $\beta_{\lambda}$
- The authors use adaptive lasso in place of intractable  $\ell_0$  penalisation



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## Decoupled Shrinkage and Selection (DSS) estimator (2)

- While clever, the initial DSS proposal has several weaknesses:
  - 1 It does not apply to non-continuous data
  - 2 Selection of degree of sparsification is done by an ad-hoc rule
  - 3 It cannot be applied to selection of groups of variables
- Current work being done with PhD student Zemei Xu addresses all three problems

# Generalised DSS estimator (1)

- We first generalise the procedure to arbitrary data types
  - Let  $p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{X})$  be the data model in our Bayesian hierarchy
  - Partition the parameter vector as  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})$
  - $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  are additional parameters, such as  $\sigma^2$  if the model is normal
- Given  $\mathbf{X}$ , the posterior predictive density defines a probability density over possible values of “ $\mathbf{y}$ ”, say  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$ , that could arise

$$p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \int p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{X}) \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

- Incorporates all posterior beliefs about  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Defines a complete distribution over  $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$

## Generalised DSS estimator (2)

- Recall the “ideal” sparsification scheme from DSS:

$$\beta_\lambda = \arg \min_{\beta} \left\{ \|\bar{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{X}\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_0 \right\}$$

- We can now replace the sum-of-squares goodness of fit term by an expected likelihood goodness-of-fit term

$$L_{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}}(\beta, \gamma) = -\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{\mathbf{y}}} [\log p(\tilde{\mathbf{y}} | \beta, \gamma)]$$

and use a sparsifying penalized likelihood estimator

- Simple for binary data as mixture of Bernoullis is a Bernoulli

## Generalised DSS estimator (3)

- Second problem solved by selecting using information criteria
  - Formed as sum of likelihood plus dimensionality penalty
- We adapt information criterion to the DSS problem by using

$$\text{GIC}(\lambda) = \min_{\gamma} \{L_{\bar{y}}(\beta_{\lambda}, \gamma) + \alpha(n, k_{\lambda}, \gamma)\}$$

where  $k_{\lambda} = \|\beta\|_0$  is the degrees-of-freedom of  $\beta_{\lambda}$ ;

- Some common choices for  $\alpha(\cdot)$ 
  - $\alpha(n, k_{\lambda}, \gamma) = (k_{\lambda}/2) \log n$  for the BIC;
  - $\alpha(n, k_{\lambda}, \gamma) = nk_{\lambda}/(n - k_{\lambda} - 2)$  for the corrected AIC
  - We also considered an MML criterion
- Select the  $\beta_{\lambda}$  that minimises the information criterion score

## Generalised DSS estimator (4)

- We have extended this further to selecting groups of variables
  - Very relevant for testing genes and pathways in genomic data
- We compared our generalised DSS to grouped spike-and-slab
  - Info criterion approach (using MML) outperformed original ad-hoc proposal of Polson et al.
  - Performed as well as spike-and-slab in overall selection error
  - However, over 20,000 times faster!
- Analysis of iCOGs data is about to begin
  - Very large dataset,  $n = 120,000$  and  $p = 2,000,000$ .



## Conclusion

- MATLAB Bayesreg toolbox
  - <http://au.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/60335-bayesian-regularized-linear-and-logistic-regression>
- R package available as package “**bayesreg**” from CRAN
- A pre-print describing the toolbox in detail:
  - “High-Dimensional Bayesian Regularised Regression with the BayesReg Package”, E. Makalic and D. F. Schmidt, arXiv preprint: <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1611.06649v1/>
- Thank you – **questions?**