
The role of tail dependence in estimating posterior expectations

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Abstract

1 Many tasks in modern probabilistic machine learning and statistics require estimating
2 expectations over posterior distributions. While many algorithms have
3 been developed to approximate these expectations, reliably assessing their performance
4 in practice, in absence of ground truth, remains a significant challenge.
5 In this work, we observe that the well-known k -hat diagnostic for importance sampling
6 (IS) [1] can be unreliable, as it fails to account for the fact that the common
7 self-normalized IS (SNIS) estimator is a ratio. First, we demonstrate that examining
8 separate k -hat statistics for the numerator and denominator can be insufficient.
9 Then, we propose a new statistic that accounts for the dependence between the
10 estimators in the ratio. In particular, we find that the concept of tail dependence
11 between numerator and denominator weights contains essential information for
12 determining effective performance of the SNIS estimator.

13 1 Introduction and background

14 Algorithms for Bayesian computation continue to be used for increasingly complex probabilistic
15 models, remaining an active research field [2]. Yet, in the absence of ground truth, it remains
16 challenging in practice to determine how and in which sense an approximate inference algorithm
17 has found a “good” solution, as studied by several recent works, for Markov Chain Monte Carlo
18 (MCMC) [3–5], variational inference (VI) [6–8], and importance sampling [1, 9–11] (the latter two
19 being closely connected). In this work, we focus on diagnostics that apply to IS and VI algorithms.

20 **Problem statement.** Let $\theta \in \Theta$ (commonly, \mathbb{R}^{d_θ}) be the parameter of a Bayesian statistical model
21 $\{p(y|\theta)\}_\theta$ for data $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ with posterior PDF $\pi(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} Z_\pi^{-1} \cdot \tilde{\pi}(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = Z_\pi^{-1} \cdot \prod_n p(y_n|\theta) \cdot \pi(\theta)$
22 with $\mathcal{D} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$, Z_π the normalizer and prior PDF $\pi(\theta)$. Formally, we aim at constructing Monte
23 Carlo estimates of a posterior expectation $I \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, defined as

$$I \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{E}_{\pi(\theta|\mathcal{D})}[f(\theta)] = \int f(\theta)\pi(\theta|\mathcal{D})d\theta, \quad (1)$$

24 where $f : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is a suitably integrable test function. In particular, we are interested in
25 obtaining diagnostics to determine the quality of an estimator \hat{I} . As a concrete example, when we
26 set $f(\theta) = p(y^{(n+1)}|\theta)$ for a test point $y^{(n+1)}$, I is often written as $p(y^{(n+1)}|\mathcal{D})$, i.e., the evaluation
27 of the posterior predictive PDF $p(y|\mathcal{D})$ at point $y^{(n+1)}$.¹

28 **Self-normalized IS, combination with VI.** Approximating integrals like in Eq. (1) accurately is
29 challenging. MCMC is a natural solution, but there are notable cases where it is not appropriate. For

¹Such integrals can be used for estimating the predictive performance of a posterior [12] or the influence of a particular observation.

30 example, when even exact i.i.d. sampling from $\pi(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ is inefficient, or when it is too expensive. In
 31 these cases one usually resorts to IS [13], where we obtain samples from a chosen proposal PDF q ,
 32 as $\theta^{(s)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} q(\theta)$, and construct estimators for I as

$$\hat{I}_{\text{SNIS}} = \sum_{s=1}^S \bar{w}^{(s)} f(\theta^{(s)}) \quad , \quad \bar{w}^{(s)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{w^{(s)}}{\sum_{s'=1}^S w^{(s')}} \quad , \quad w^{(s)} = w(\theta^{(s)}) = \frac{\tilde{\pi}(\theta^{(s)}|\mathcal{D})}{q(\theta^{(s)})}. \quad (2)$$

33 Many theoretical properties of this estimator are known (see, e.g., [14] for a review). When the
 34 normalizing constant Z_π is unknown (i.e., almost always), the normalization of the weights in Eq. (2)
 35 is not optional. In practice, it is difficult to find a good proposal, i.e., leading to estimates that are
 36 close to I . It is natural to use proposals that are the result of a VI algorithm [6], which is done
 37 implicitly or explicitly in the VI literature. See [6, 15–25] as examples for the many connections
 38 between VI and IS. A consequence of using a bad proposal is that the distribution of the weights w_s
 39 tends to have a few very large values.

40 **Pareto-smoothed IS.** Exploiting the above observation, [1] proposed Pareto-smoothed IS (PSIS),
 41 which replaces the largest M unnormalized weights² to get SNIS estimators with better behaviour.
 42 They fit a generalized Pareto distribution (GPD) to the weights $\{w^{(s)}\}_{s=1}^S$. The new (“smoothed”)
 43 weights introduce bias but reduce variance. The GPD has three parameters, the most important of
 44 which is the shape parameter k . [1] propose to use an estimate of k , i.e., \hat{k} , as a diagnostic for IS.

45 **The \hat{k} diagnostic.** [1] use the estimated value of k , i.e., \hat{k} , as a diagnostic for deciding whether
 46 the SNIS estimates with PSIS-corrected weights are reliable. The GPD has $1/k$ finite fractional
 47 moments when the true $k > 0$, which suggests finite variance as soon as $k < 0.5$. Note that this
 48 guarantees finite variance only for the normalizing constant estimator $\hat{Z}_\pi = 1/S \sum_{s=1}^S w^{(s)}$, which
 49 is implicit in the denominator of SNIS [26]. [1] find empirically that when $S > 2000$, estimation
 50 with PSIS-corrected weights is reliable for $\hat{k} < 0.7$, a threshold less stringent than 0.5. An advantage
 51 of \hat{k} is that it is not an IS estimate itself, unlike the effective sample size (ESS) [10], attempting to
 52 address the issues with variance-based diagnostics [9].

53 2 Methodology

54 Several works [26–28] have shown theoretically and empirically that accurately estimating posterior
 55 expectations such as I in Eq. (1) involves more than simply finding a proposal $q(\theta)$ that is close to
 56 the posterior $\pi(\theta|\mathcal{D})$. This is because the SNIS estimator is a ratio estimator, as I itself is the ratio
 57 of two integrals,

$$I = \frac{\int f(\theta) \tilde{\pi}(\theta|\mathcal{D}) d\theta}{\int \tilde{\pi}(\theta|\mathcal{D}) d\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{I_{\text{num}}}{Z_\pi} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{I_{\text{num}}}{I_{\text{den}}}, \quad (3)$$

58 where we relabelled the normalizing constant I_{den} . Therefore, we can write the SNIS estimator as

$$\hat{I}_{\text{SNIS}} = \frac{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w^{(s)} f(\theta^{(s)})}{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w^{(s)}} = \frac{\hat{I}_{\text{num}}}{\hat{I}_{\text{den}}}, \quad \theta^{(s)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} q(\theta), \quad (4)$$

59 where the two estimators \hat{I}_{num} and \hat{I}_{den} are unbiased, but \hat{I}_{SNIS} is not. As elaborated in [26], the
 60 asymptotic variance of the SNIS estimator is driven by the variance of the numerator estimator, the
 61 variance of the denominator, and the covariance between them. For convenience, we define two
 62 unnormalized importance weight functions, the one used in the numerator for \hat{I}_{num} and the one used
 63 in \hat{I}_{den} , as

$$w_{\text{num}}(\theta) = \frac{f(\theta) \tilde{\pi}(\theta|\mathcal{D})}{q(\theta)}, \quad w_{\text{den}}(\theta) = \frac{\tilde{\pi}(\theta|\mathcal{D})}{q(\theta)}. \quad (5)$$

64 We can then write the SNIS estimator as a ratio of two unbiased IS estimators,

$$\hat{I}_{\text{SNIS}} = \frac{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w_{\text{num}}(\theta^{(s)})}{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w_{\text{den}}(\theta^{(s)})}, \quad \theta^{(s)} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} q(\theta). \quad (6)$$

²See [1] for the choice of M .

65 Given that there are two IS weights, $w_{\text{num}}(\theta^{(s)})$, $w_{\text{den}}(\theta^{(s)})$ in the above, it is natural to consider
 66 that one may track reliability \hat{I}_{SNIS} by computing two diagnostics \hat{k}_{num} , \hat{k}_{den} separately for weights
 67 $\{w_{\text{num}}^{(s)}\}_{s=1}^S$ and $\{w_{\text{den}}^{(s)}\}_{s=1}^S$. [1] explored this option empirically, reporting that in their experiments
 68 it was sufficient to take $\max(\hat{k}_{\text{num}}, \hat{k}_{\text{den}})$ to determine reliability of the ratio. In this work, we will
 69 argue that this heuristic misses useful information and propose a new diagnostic.

70 2.1 Capturing error cancellation with tail dependence

71 The diagnostics \hat{k}_{num} and \hat{k}_{den} describe how well \hat{I}_{num} and \hat{I}_{den} respectively approximate I_{num} and
 72 I_{den} , serving as an (improved) substitute for estimates of variance (like the ESS). Yet, the variance
 73 of the SNIS estimator \hat{I}_{SNIS} is not only affected by the variance of the numerator of Eq. (6), the
 74 variance of the denominator. It is also affected by the covariance $\text{Cov}_q[\hat{I}_{\text{num}}, \hat{I}_{\text{den}}]$ [26].

75 A straightforward idea to capture this missing piece of information from \hat{k}_{num} and \hat{k}_{den} is to construct
 76 an estimate of $\text{Cov}_q[\hat{I}_{\text{num}}, \hat{I}_{\text{den}}]$, using the same samples from q used to estimate I . Yet, doing so
 77 would suffer the same drawbacks of variance-based diagnostics, which was a motivation for \hat{k} [1].
 78 Thus, we will develop a diagnostic that is not a direct estimate of $\text{Cov}_q[\hat{I}_{\text{num}}, \hat{I}_{\text{den}}]$. Like [1], we
 79 also exploit the fact that the distribution of w_{num} and w_{den} can be well approximated with a power-
 80 law distribution in the tails. Specifically, we will look at a suitable notion of dependence between
 81 the tails of w_{num} and w_{den} . This notion will replace the covariance $\text{Cov}_q[\hat{I}_{\text{num}}, \hat{I}_{\text{den}}]$ as our target
 82 estimate. In fact, covariance, up to normalization, is equivalent to Pearson's correlation ρ , which is
 83 only a very specific form of dependence, with many known limitations [29].

84 **Dependence and error cancellation.** An intuition for why higher covariance between the estima-
 85 tors $\text{Cov}_q[\hat{I}_{\text{num}}, \hat{I}_{\text{den}}]$, or other dependence metrics, can lead to lower error is that, in a ratio, error
 86 cancellation can happen. Error cancellation in ratios has been exploited to derive better convergence
 87 rates for other numerical integration methods [30]. In IS, it is known that large IS weights lead to
 88 high errors. Therefore, error cancellation in the ratio of Eq. (6) could happen when a large weight in
 89 the numerator is offset by another similarly large weight in the denominator. We now formalize this
 90 using the notion of tail dependence.

91 **Definition 1 (Upper tail dependence coefficient and tail dependence)** Let W_1, W_2 be two real-
 92 valued random variables. Let their (continuous) marginal CDFs be F_1, F_2 . Then,

$$\lim_{q \rightarrow 1^-} \mathbb{P}[W_2 > F_2^{-1}(q) | W_1 > F_1^{-1}(q)] = \lambda_U, \quad (7)$$

93 provided the limit exists, is known as upper tail dependence coefficient $\lambda_U \in [0, 1]$. If $\lambda_U > 0$,
 94 we say that W_1, W_2 are asymptotically tail dependent, with the magnitude of λ_U determining the
 95 strength of dependence.

96 Next, we discuss how to relate the above concept to the estimation of I .

97 2.2 Proposed reliability checks

98 We propose to diagnose whether the estimate in Eq. (6) is reliable by examining three quantities:
 99 \hat{k}_{num} , \hat{k}_{den} and a new diagnostic that is constructed as an approximation of the tail dependence
 100 coefficient λ_U between $w_{\text{num}}, w_{\text{den}}$. Our aim is to study how these quantities relate to the effective
 101 performance of \hat{I}_{SNIS} as an estimator of I , which we define as follows.

102 **Definition 2 (Effective performance)** We define the effective performance of an estimator \hat{I} of I
 103 as ensuring that the value of (\hat{I}/I) is close to 1 with high probability. This takes into account the
 104 possibility of I being very small, e.g., 10^{-7} following the recommendation of [9]. In log-space, it is
 105 equivalent to look at how $\log I - \log \hat{I}$ is close to zero (recall $I > 0$).

106 **Semi-parametric estimation of tail dependence** In mathematical finance, various estimators
 107 of tail dependence have been developed [31–33]. We begin by studying semi-parametric estima-
 108 tors, following the assumption used by [1] and common in heavy-tailed distribution inference [34].

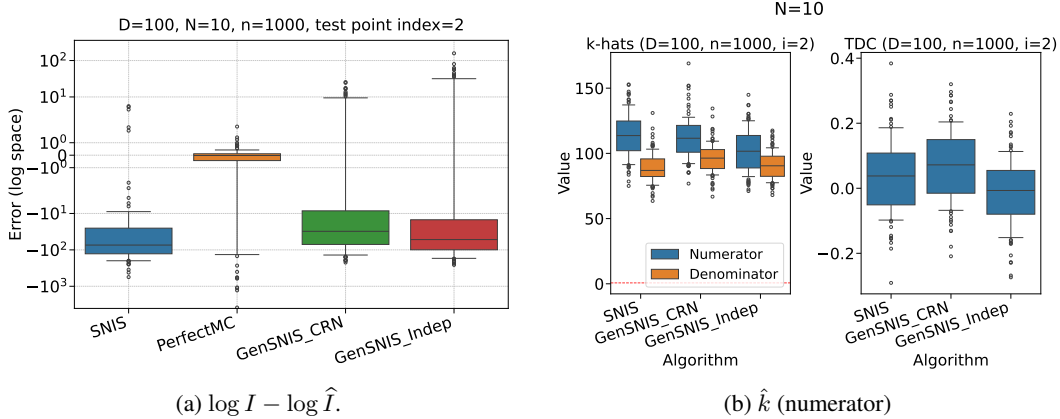


Figure 1: Results ($d_\theta = 100$) over 100 replications. We compare SNIS, GenSNIS (see Section 3) with a common random number (CRN) and GenSNIS with independent marginals. From Fig. 1a, we see that GenSNIS with CRN performs best; this cannot be captured by \hat{k} values, but only by the higher TDC. Note that in such high dimension all methods perform poorly. We found similar results for lower dimensions and showcase here only a high-dimensional case.

109 Specifically, we assume the distribution of $w_{\text{num}}, w_{\text{den}}$ is well approximated by a GPD in the tails.
 110 Similarly, to estimate tail dependence, we assume the *copula* of their joint distribution is well approximated
 111 by an extreme value copula [35], also only in the tails.³ We hypothesize that tail dependence
 112 between w_{num} and w_{den} improves \hat{I}_{SNIS} performance, similar to the effect of $\text{Cov}_q[w_{\text{num}}, w_{\text{den}}]$,
 113 but easier to estimate and more reliable.

114 3 Preliminary results on Bayesian linear regression and conclusions

115 We look at the distribution of $\log I - \log \hat{I}$ over different replications. We consider estimating the
 116 posterior predictive of a Bayesian linear regression (BLR) model where we can compute the exact
 117 value of I . That is, from Eq. (1), we set $f(\theta) = p(y^{(n+1)}|\theta)$ for a test point $y^{(n+1)}$, and $\pi(\theta|D)$ is a
 118 Gaussian with known mean and covariance (BLR posterior).⁴

119 To validate our hypothesis that tail dependence contains useful information, we check the behaviour
 120 of the diagnostics $\hat{k}_{\text{num}}, \hat{k}_{\text{den}}$ our tail dependence diagnostic $\hat{\lambda}_U$ estimated from a *Gumbel copula*
 121 $C(u_1, u_2; \rho, \theta)$ (which we found performing better than a t-copula), given by $2 - 2^{1/\theta}$.⁵ We find
 122 that, when k -diagnostics between competitors are similar for numerator and denominator, a higher
 123 tail dependence coefficient (TDC) explains the better performance. To explain our results, we need
 124 to introduce a recent generalization of the SNIS estimator proposed in [26], i.e., sampling from
 125 an extended space $\mathbb{R}^{d_\theta} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_\theta}$, as $\hat{I}_{\text{GenSNIS}} = \frac{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w_{\text{num}}(\theta_1^{(s)})}{\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S w_{\text{den}}(\theta_2^{(s)})}, [\theta_1^{(s)}, \theta_2^{(s)}] \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} q_{1,2}(\theta_1, \theta_2)$. SNIS
 126 is a special case where the joint is a degenerate joint with $\theta_1 = \theta_2$. Another special case is taking
 127 $q_{1,2}(\theta_1, \theta_2) = q_1(\theta_1)q_2(\theta_2)$, which is done in previous works including notably target-aware
 128 Bayesian inference [27]. Finally, for these experiments we consider the choice of $q_{1,2}(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ that
 129 uses a common random number (CRN) for numerator and denominator, but has different marginals.
 130 Concretely we used Gaussian proposals $\mathcal{N}(\theta_1; \mu_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $\mathcal{N}(\theta_2; \mu_2, \Sigma_2)$ for numerator and de-
 131 nominator, respectively. The parameters are set to the optimal ones (given by the BLR true poster-
 132 iors for numerator and denominator) perturbed by an error term. The SNIS estimator uses only one
 133 distribution $q(\theta)$, so we take the midpoint between the two optimal IS means and covariances for its
 134 parameters. Fig. 1 shows the results. We indeed find in other settings (for d_θ , noise variance, and co-
 135 variate distributions) that when \hat{k} values are similar for numerator and denominator, tail dependence
 136 explains the remaining performance if a difference exists. We plan to test further TDC metrics and
 137 Bayesian models.

³A copula of a bivariate joint distribution is the distribution on $[0, 1]^2$ after transforming the marginals to the uniform distribution. Many parametric copula families exist [36].

⁴See [37] for expressions about BLR including closed form posterior predictives.

⁵We use the estimate of $\hat{\rho}$ from the Python statsmodels package, while setting ν manually.

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