## Part III

## History of Probabilistic Numerical Methods



Average Case $\epsilon$-Complexity in Computer Science: A Bayesian View
J. B. KADANE, Carnegie-Mellon University; G. W. WASILKOWSKI, Columbia University/

In Bayesian Statistics 2, Proceedings of the Second Valencia International Meeting (pp. 361-374), 1985.

Relations between average case $\epsilon$-complexity and Bayesian Statistics are discussed. An algorithm corresponds to a decision function and the choice of information to the choice of an experiment. [...] We hope that the relation reported here can lead to further fruitful results for both fields.

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## Recap: Numerical Analysis as Bayesian Inversion

The Bayesian approach, popularised in Stuart (2010), can be used:

- a prior measure $P_{x}$ is placed on $\mathcal{X}$
- a posterior measure $P_{x \mid a}$ is defined as the "restriction of $P_{x}$ to those functions $x \in \mathcal{X}$ for which

is satisfied" (to be formalised).
$\Longrightarrow$ Principled and general uncertainty quantification for numerical methods.


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A(x)=a \quad \text { e.g. } \quad A(x)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
-\Delta x\left(t_{1}\right) \\
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## Sixth Job: Analysis of the Gaussian Case



## Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a Hilbert space (i.e. a complete inner product space) of real-valued functions on $D$. Let $L_{t}: x \mapsto x(t)$ denote the evaluation functional at a point $t \in D$. Then $\mathcal{X}$ is a reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS) if there exists $C$ such that

$$
\left|L_{t} x\right| \leq C\|x\| \mathcal{X}
$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

## Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

## Riesz Representation Theorem

Let $\mathcal{X}^{*}$ denote the dual of $\mathcal{X}$ (i.e. the space of continuous linear functionals on $\mathcal{X}$ ). Then $x \mapsto\langle\cdot, x\rangle_{\mathcal{X}}$ is an isometric isomorphism from $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{X}^{*}$.

## Since $L_{t}$ is an element of $\mathcal{X}^{*}$, there exists an element $k_{t}$ of $\mathcal{X}$ such that $L_{t}=\left\langle\cdot, k_{t}\right\rangle_{\chi}$

 This allows us to define the kernel $k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=\left\langle k_{t}, k_{t^{\prime}}\right\rangle_{\mathcal{X}}$It can be shown that $k$ characterises $\mathcal{X}$. The relation $x(t)=\langle x, k(\cdot, t)\rangle_{\mathcal{X}}$ is called the reproducing property

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## Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Spaces

The native space of an RKHS is

$$
\left\{x: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}:\|x\|_{\mathcal{X}}<\infty\right\}
$$

How is the native space related to the kernel?

Recall, from Mercer's theorem if $\int \sqrt{k(t, t)} \mathrm{d} \nu(t)<\infty$, then


Then the native space of the RKHS associated to $k$ is:


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$$
k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{i} \psi_{i}(t) \psi_{i}\left(t^{\prime}\right)
$$

Then the native space of the RKHS associated to $k$ is:

$$
\left\{x=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_{i} \lambda_{i}^{\frac{1}{2}} \psi_{i}:\|x\|_{\mathcal{X}}^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_{i}^{2}<\infty\right\}
$$

## Approximation in RKHS

Examples of native spaces (notation: $\left.z_{+}^{k}:=(\max (0, z))^{k}\right)$ :

| Kernel $k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$ | Native Space |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\exp \left(-\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|^{2}\right)$ | $\cap_{m \in \mathbb{N}} H^{m}(D)$ |
| $\left(c^{2}+\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|^{2}\right)^{-\beta}, \beta>\frac{d}{2}$ | $H^{\beta-\frac{d}{2}}(D)$ |
| $\left(1-\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|\right)_{+}^{2}$ | $H^{\frac{d}{2}+\frac{1}{2}}(D)$ |
| $\left(1-\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|\right)_{+}^{4}\left(4\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|+1\right)$ | $H^{\frac{d}{2}+\frac{3}{2}}(D)$ |

## Here


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Here

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H^{m}(D)=\left\{x: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text { s.t. } \quad\|x\|_{H^{m}(D)}^{2}=\sum_{|\alpha| \leq m}\left\|D^{\alpha} x\right\|_{L^{2}(D)}^{2}<\infty\right\}
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Notation: $|\alpha|=\alpha_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{d}, D^{\alpha}=\frac{\alpha^{|\alpha|}}{\partial x_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \ldots \partial x_{m}^{\alpha_{m}}},\|x\|_{L^{2}(D)}^{2}:=\int x(t)^{2} \mathrm{~d} t$.

## Approximation in RKHS

Consider the task of estimation of $x \in \mathcal{X}$ based on the information that

$$
\begin{aligned}
x\left(t_{1}\right) & =c_{1} \\
& \vdots \\
x\left(t_{n}\right) & =c_{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This is clearly ill-posed if $\operatorname{dim}(\mathcal{X})>n$.
Consider instead the regularised problem:

What is the relevance of the interpolant $\hat{x}$ ? It is the posterior mean under the Gaussian process prior $P_{x}=\mathcal{G} \mathcal{P}(0, k)$ combined with the data $\left\{\left(t_{i}, x\left(t_{i}\right)\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$

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\\
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In general $|\hat{x}(t)-x(t)| \leq p_{\mathcal{X}}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\|x\|_{\mathcal{X}}$ where $p_{\mathcal{X}}$ is the power function associated to $\mathcal{X}$. Our aim now is to understand more about $p_{\mathcal{X}}$.

## Consider the kernel matrix



## exists then, from linear algebra, there exist functions such that

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\varphi_{i}\left(t_{j}\right)=\delta_{i j}, \quad \varphi_{i} \in \operatorname{span}\left\{k\left(, t_{j}\right), j=1, \ldots, n\right\}
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## Representer Theorem

The regularised estimate $\hat{x}$ is given by $\hat{x}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \varphi_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \times\left(t_{i}\right) \varphi_{1}$

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\boldsymbol{K}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
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k\left(t_{n}, t_{1}\right) & \ldots & k\left(t_{n}, t_{n}\right)
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If $K^{-1}$ exists then, from linear algebra, there exist functions such that

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Derivation of the power function:

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|x(t)-\hat{x}(t)|=\left|x(t)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} x\left(t_{i}\right) \varphi_{i}(t)\right|
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To study $\hat{x}$ (the posterior mean in a Gaussian process regression) we need to consider the mathematical properties of


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& \leq\|x\|_{x} \| k(\cdot, t)-\left.\sum^{n} \varphi_{i}(t) k\left(\cdot, t_{i}\right)\right|_{\chi} \quad \text { (Cauchy-Schwarz) }
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## Approximation in RKHS

Equip $D \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ with the Euclidean norm $\|\cdot\|$.
Let $h=\sup _{t \in D} \min _{i=1, \ldots, n}\left\|t-t_{i}\right\|$ denote the fill distance of the points $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ in $D$.
Then bounds of the form $p_{\mathcal{X}}\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right) \leq F(h)$ can be obtained (e.g. see Sec. 11.3 of Wendland [2004]):

and that's enough theoretical background!

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| $\left(1-\left\\|t-t^{\prime}\right\\|\right)_{+}^{2}$ | $H^{\frac{d}{2}+\frac{1}{2}}(D)$ | $h^{\frac{1}{2}}$ |
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## Seventh Job: Solution of Integrals, in Detail

## Solution of Integrals

Consider estimation of the Quantity of Interest

$$
Q(x)=\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \nu(t)
$$

where $x$ is an integrand of interest and $\nu$ is a measure on $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d}$.

In the Bayesian approach to Probabilistic Numerics, we must select an information operator

l.e. we must select points $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ at which to evaluate the integrand. But how?

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## Monte Carlo \& Quasi-Monte Carlo Points



Monte Carlo
$\mathcal{F}=$
$L^{2}(D)$
$O_{P}\left(n^{-1 / 2}\right)$


Sobol Sequence
$H^{1}(D)$
$O\left(n^{-1}\right)$


Higher-Order Digital Net
$H_{\text {mix }}^{\beta}:=H_{1}^{\beta}(D) \times \cdot \times H_{1}^{\beta}(D)$
$O\left(n^{-\beta}\right)$

Here we show worst case error $\operatorname{ewCE}^{\operatorname{WCl}}(M)$ for the method $M=(A, b)$ where $b(a)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}$. i.e. an un-weighted average of function evaluations at the points $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$.

## Bayesian Quadrature

Bayesian Quadrature is a Bayesian probabilistic numerical method based on a Gaussian prior $P_{x}: x \sim \mathcal{G P}(0, k)$.

The mean of the posterior $Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$ is denoted $b(a)$. It satisfies

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b(a)=\int \hat{x}(t) \mathrm{d} \nu(t)
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## where $\hat{x}$ is the RKHS interpolant based on the information $A(x)=a$.

The performance of the posterior mean $b$, viewed as a classical numerical method, can be studied with our established results on RKHS interpolants:

Suppose $D$ is a bounded subset of $\mathcal{X}$. Then:

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\begin{aligned}
|D(A(x))-Q(x)| & \leq\|\hat{x}-x\|_{L^{2}(\nu)} \quad \text { (regression bound) } \\
& \leq\|\hat{x}-x\|_{\infty} \quad \text { (sup bound) } \\
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\operatorname{exce}(M)=O\left(n^{-1 / d}\right)
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## for all $\epsilon>0$.

- Recall that $\hat{b}$ is the trapezoidal rule - so this matches known results.
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The mean $b(a)$ of the posterior $Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$ can be considered as a classical numerical method and we can ask about optimal information for $b$, either in the sense of worst-case or average-case optimal.

The variance of the posterior $Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$ is equal to ewCE $(M)^{2}$ where $M=(A, b)$
(This is a special case of the fact from Bayesian decision theory that (for equaliser rules) minimax $\leftrightarrow$ Bayes.)

For the $\mathcal{X}=H^{1}(D)$ example, with $D=[0,1]$ the kernel $k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=\min \left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$, we will prove later that optimal information (i.e. the points $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ that minimise the posterior variance) are a uniform grid over $[0,1]$.

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## Posterior Contraction

Of course, we are not interested in just the mean of $Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$ but the full distribution $Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$ itself.

A basic question is "does this probability mass contract to the true value $Q(x)$ ?"


For Bayesian Quadrature, where $P_{x}$ is Gaussian, this can be answered through the properties of Gaussians:

For Bayesian Quadrature, if the true integrand satisfies $\|x\|_{\mathcal{X}}<\infty$, then for all $\epsilon>0$ there exists $C_{\epsilon}$ such that:

where $I_{\text {true }}$ is the true value of the integral and $M=(A, B), B=Q_{\#} P_{x \mid a}$.

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## Calibration



THINGS GOT REALLY INTERESTING WHEN THE STATISTICIAN STARTED DOING WARD ROUNDS.

## Calibration of Bayesian Quadrature

Given a specific kernel, e.g. Matérn kernel below:

$$
k_{\alpha}\left(t, t^{\prime} ; \sigma, \lambda\right):=\lambda^{2} \prod_{i=1}^{d} \frac{2^{1-\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2 \alpha}\left|t_{i}-t_{i}^{\prime}\right|}{\sigma}\right)^{\alpha} K_{\alpha}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2 \alpha}\left|t_{i}-t_{i}^{\prime}\right|}{\sigma}\right)
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we need to specify hyper-parameters $(\lambda, \sigma)$.
These hyper-parameters can greatly influence the posterior mean and variance. From a Bayesian perspective, these need to be set adequately to obtain good quantification of uncertainty.

In this Part, we consider empirical Bayes, which entails maximising the marginal likelihood of the data over the hyper-parameters:
$\operatorname{argmax}_{\sigma, \lambda} p\left(\left\{x\left(t_{i}\right)\right\}^{n}=1 \mid \sigma, \lambda,\left\{t_{i}\right\}^{n}=1\right)$

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## Calibration on Test Functions







## Calibration on Test functions



- Empirical Bayes can be over-confident when $n$ is small.
- Alternative option would be marginalisation - but requires that a hyper-prior be specified.


## Conclusion

In Part III it has been argued that:

- For Gaussian priors $P_{x}$, the theory of approximation in RKHS is important.
- For Bayesian Quadrature, the analysis of the full posterior $Q_{\#} P_{x l_{a}}$ reduced to analysis of the posterior mean $b(a)$ and was classical.
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