## Part V

## History of Probabilistic Numerical Methods



Bayesian Numerical Analysis
P. DIACONIS, Stanford University.

Statistical Decision Theory and Related Topics IV, 1, 163-175, 1988.

Seeing standard procedures emerge from the Bayesian approach may convince readers the argument isn't so crazy after all. The examples suggest the following program: Take standard numerical analysis procedures and see if they are Bayes (or admissible, or minimax). [..] The Bayesian approach yields more than the Bayes rule; it yields a posterior distribution. This can be used to give confidence sets as in Wahba (1983).

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## Tenth Job: Extension to More Challenging Integrals

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Three extensions that we will discuss:
(1) Integrals over manifolds:

$$
\int_{\mathcal{M}} x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)
$$

(3) Integrals with densities known up to normalisation:

$$
\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t), \quad \tilde{\pi} \propto \pi
$$

- Integrals with unknown densities:

$$
\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t), \quad\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n} \stackrel{\| D}{\sim} \pi
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In each case the aim is to perform principled Bayesian uncertainty quantification for the value of the integral $Q=\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)$.

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## Extension 1: Integrals Over Manifolds



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$$
L_{o}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{o}\right)=L_{e}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{o}\right)+\int_{\mathbb{S}^{2}} L_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}\right) \rho\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{o}\right)\left[\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}\right]_{+} \mathrm{d} \pi\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}\right)
$$

- $L_{o}\left(\omega_{o}\right)=$ outgoing radiance
- $L_{e}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{o}\right)=$ amount of light emitted by the object itself
- $L_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}\right)=$ amount of light reaching object from direction $\boldsymbol{\omega}_{i}$
- $\rho=$ bidirectional reflectance distribution function
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To be computed

- for each pixel, and
- for each RGB channel.


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Idea: Construct a RKHS of functions $x: \mathbb{S}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
One such kernel, that leads to a Sobolev space of smoothness $\frac{3}{2}$ on $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ :
$k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=\frac{8}{3}-\left\|t-t^{\prime}\right\|_{2}$ for all $t, t^{\prime} \in \mathbb{S}^{2}$.

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For a certain spherical t-design $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$, a convergence rate of ewce $(M)=O\left(n^{-\frac{3}{4}}\right)$ is achieved by the method $M=(A, b)$ where $b$ is the Bayesian Quadrature posterior mean and this is worst-case optimal:


## Extension 1: Integrals Over Manifolds

Full uncertainty quantification for integrals on manifolds:




## Extension 2: Unknown Normalisation Constant

Integrals with densities known up to normalisation

$$
\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t), \quad \tilde{\pi} \propto \pi
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occur in applications of Bayesian statistical methods:

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p(\text { params } \mid \text { data })=\frac{p(\text { data } \mid \text { params }) p(\text { params })}{\int p(\text { data } \mid \text { params }) \mathrm{d} p(\text { params })} \quad \leftarrow \text { unknown }(*)
$$

Cannot compute with Bayesian quadrature, since relies on the following integrals having a closed form:


MCMC? Compute the denominator (*) with Bayesian Quadrature first?
To address these problems we will instead go to some effort to force (**) to have a closed form... via Stein's Method.

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## A Brief History of Stein

## A BOUND FOR THE ERROR IN THE NORMAL APPROXIMATION TO THE DISTRIBUTION OF A SUM OF DEPENDENT RANDOM VARIABLES

CHARLES STEIN
Stanford University


## A Brief History of Stein

Original aim was a central limit theorem for correlated variables:

## Stein, 1972

Supnose $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ is a stationary sequence of random variables.

- Choose $A, B \subset \mathbb{N}$ such that $\inf _{i \in A, j \in B}|i-j| \geq k$.
- Choose arbitrary functions $Y \equiv Y\left(X_{A}\right), Z \equiv Z\left(X_{B}\right)$.
- Assume that there exists $\alpha_{k}$ such that, for all such choices, $|\operatorname{Corr}(Y, Z)| \leq \alpha_{k}$.
- Assume that, for $k$ sufficiently large, $\alpha_{k} \leq e^{-\lambda k}$.

Then

$$
\left|\mathbb{P}\left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}}{\left(\mathbb{V}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}\right)\right)^{1 / 2}} \leq a\right]-\Phi(a)\right|=O\left(n^{-1 / 2}\right) .
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A specific approach that led to some general methods for bounding the distance $d\left(\pi^{\prime}, \pi\right)$ between two distributions $\pi, \pi^{\prime}$.

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"I regret that, in order to complete this paper in time for publication, I have been forced to submit it with many defects remaining. In particular the proof of the concrete results of Section 3 is somewhat incomplete."


## Stein's Method: A Modern Retrospective

The essence of Stein's method is most clearly distilled in Ley et al. [2017]:

## A p.d.f. $\pi$ is characterised by the pair $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{F})$, consisting of a Stein Operator $\mathcal{S}$ and a Stein Class $\mathcal{F}$, if it holds that

## Example 1 (Stein, 1972)

- $\pi$ is the p.d.f. for $N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$
- $\mathcal{S}: f \mapsto \nabla(f \pi) / \pi$
- $\mathcal{F}=\left\{f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\right.$ s.t. $f \pi \in W^{1,1}$ and $\left.\lim _{t \searrow-\infty} f(t) \pi(t)=\lim _{t \nearrow+\infty} f(t) \pi(t)\right\}$


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## Extension 2: Unknown Normalisation Constant

Our aim is to build a kernel $k$ for which

$$
\int_{D} k(\cdot, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)=0 \quad \iint_{D \times D} k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{d}(\pi \times \pi)\left(t \times t^{\prime}\right)=0
$$

each have a (trivial) closed form, via Stein's method.

The kernel $k$ will be associated with a RKHS of functions - this will be the set $\mathcal{S F}$ - that can be used within the Bayesian Quadrature method.

Full details in Oates et al. [2016a]

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Then (if $k_{\mathcal{F}}$ is sufficiently regular) the set $\mathcal{S F}$ can be endowed with RKHS structure, with kernel:
$k^{\prime}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=S_{t} S_{t^{\prime}} k_{\mathcal{F}}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)=\nabla_{t} \cdot \nabla_{t^{\prime}} k_{\mathcal{F}}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)+\frac{\nabla_{t} \pi(t)}{\pi(t)} \cdot \nabla_{t^{\prime}} k_{\mathcal{F}}\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$


Note that $k$ can be computed from $\tilde{\pi}!$ Moreover,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{D} k(\cdot, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t) & =\int_{D} S \cdot S_{t} k_{F}(,, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t) \\
& =S \cdot \int_{D} S_{t} k_{F}(\cdot, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t) \\
& =S \cdot \oint_{\partial D} k_{F}(\cdot, t) \cdot n(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t) \stackrel{k_{F}}{ } \text { "Suff reg". } S .0=0
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Detail: The kernel $1+k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$ is actually used for Bayesian Quadrature (to catch mean-shift).

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\end{aligned}
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Note that $k$ can be computed from $\tilde{\pi}!$ Moreover,

$$
\int_{D} k(\cdot, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)=\int_{D} \mathcal{S} \mathcal{S}_{t} k_{\mathcal{F}}(\cdot, t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)
$$



Detail: The kernel $1+k\left(t, t^{\prime}\right)$ is actually used for Bayesian Quadrature (to catch mean-shift).

## Extension 2: Unknown Normalisation Constant

Let $\mathcal{S}: f \mapsto \nabla(f \pi) / \pi$ and let $\mathcal{F}$ be an RKHS with kernel $k_{\mathcal{F}}$.
Then (if $k_{\mathcal{F}}$ is sufficiently regular) the set $\mathcal{S F}$ can be endowed with RKHS structure, with kernel:

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Suppose $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ arise from a Markov chain that targets $\pi$.

- Assume $D$ is bounded.
- Assume $\pi$ is bounded away from 0 on $D$
- Assume $\pi \in C^{2 a+1}(D)$ and $k_{\mathcal{T}} \in C^{2 b+2}(D \times D)$.
- Assume $k_{\mathcal{F}}$ is "sufficiently regular"
- Assume the Markov chain is uniformly ergodic.

Then, for $x \in \mathcal{S F}$, there exists $h_{0}>0$ such that

for arbitrary $\epsilon>0$. Here $h$ is the fill distance of $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$

Full details in Oates et al. [2016b].

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Then, for $x \in \mathcal{S F}$, there exists $h_{0}>0$ such that

$$
1_{h<h_{0}}(\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)-\underbrace{b(a)}_{\text {BQ estimator }})^{2}=O\left(n^{-1-\frac{2(a \wedge b)}{d}+\epsilon}\right),
$$

for arbitrary $\epsilon>0$. Here $h$ is the fill distance of $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$.

Full details in Oates et al. [2016b].

## Extension 2: Unknown Normalisation Constant

## Consider again Darcy's PDE

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{t} \cdot\left[c(t ; \theta) \nabla_{t} x(t)\right] & =0 & \text { if } t_{1}, t_{2} \in(0,1) \\
x(t) & = \begin{cases}t_{1} & \text { if } t_{2}=0 \\
1-t_{1} & \text { if } t_{2}=1 \\
\nabla_{t_{1}} \times(t) & =0\end{cases} & \text { if } t_{1} \in\{0,1\},
\end{aligned}
$$

Data are a grid of observations $y_{i, j}=x\left(t_{i, j}\right)+\epsilon_{i, j}$ and IID $\epsilon_{i, j} \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$. The field $c$ is endowed with a prior

$$
\log c(t ; \boldsymbol{\theta})=\sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_{i} c_{i}(t)
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta} \sim \operatorname{Unif}(D), D=(-10,10)^{d}$ and $c_{i}$ are orthonormal.

## Aim: Estimate the posterior mean of the parameter $\theta$

Approac': Bayesian Probabilistic Numerical Method for the likelihood $\mathcal{L}_{n}(\theta ; y)$ (to avoid exact solution of the PDE), followed by Stein's method for integration with respect to $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \mathcal{L}_{n}(\boldsymbol{\theta} ; \boldsymbol{y})$.

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## Extension 2: Unknown Normalisation Constant

Performance of Bayesian Quadrature (via Stein's method) for estimation of $\int \theta_{1} \mathrm{~d} \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ :


Here $m$ is the number of PDE forward-solves used.

## Extension 3: Unknown p.d.f. $\pi$

Of course, knowing $\tilde{\pi}$ is mathematically equivalent to knowing $\pi$.
Consider now the situation where $t_{i} \sim \pi$ are IID and that is all that is known.

## Idea:

Model both the integrand $x$ and the p.d.f. $\pi$ as unknown objects:

- $x \sim \mathcal{G P}$ (Gaussian process model - standard BQ)
- $\pi(t)=\int \psi(t ; \varphi) P(\mathrm{~d} \varphi)$ (hierarchical mixture model)
- $P \sim \mathcal{D P}\left(\alpha, P_{0}\right)$ (Dirichlet process model)


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Recall: $P \sim \mathcal{D P}\left(\alpha, P_{0}\right)$ iff $\left(P\left(B_{1}\right), \ldots, P\left(B_{m}\right)\right) \sim \operatorname{Dir}\left(\alpha P_{0}\left(B_{1}\right), \ldots, \alpha P_{0}\left(B_{m}\right)\right)$

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Then condition $x$ on data $\left\{\left(t_{i}, x\left(t_{i}\right)\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ and condition $\pi$ on data $\left\{t_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$.
This implies to a posterior distribution over the integral $\int x(t) \mathrm{d} \pi(t)$ that accounts for uncertainty regarding both $x$ and $\pi$.

Motivation: Assessment of Cardiac Models


## Motivation: Assessment of Cardiac Models

## C)




## Motivation: Assessment of Cardiac Models



## Extension 3: Unknown p.d.f. $\pi$

## Suppose that:

- $x$ belongs to the RKHS associated to a kernel $k$, bounded on $D \times D, D \subset \mathbb{R}$.
- $\pi(\cdot)$ is a location-scale mixture of Gaussians; $\psi(\cdot ; \varphi)=\mathrm{N}\left(\cdot ; \varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right)$.
- Technical conditions on the Dirichlet process:
- $\varphi_{1} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varphi_{2} \in[\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]$ for fixed $\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma} \in(0, \infty)$.
- $P$, the true mixing distribution, has compact $\operatorname{supp}(P) \subset \mathbb{R} \times(\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma})$.
- $P_{0}$ has positive and continuous density on a rectangle $R$ such that
$\operatorname{supp}\left(P_{0}\right) \subseteq R \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times[\sigma, \sigma]$.
- $P_{0}$ satisfies the tail condition $P_{0}\left(\left\{\left(\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right):\left|\varphi_{1}\right|>t\right\}\right) \leq c \exp \left(-b|t|^{\delta}\right)$ for all $t>0$.

Then the posterior distribution over the unknown value of the integral converges to the truth in Wasserstein metric at the rate

$$
O_{P}\left(n^{-1 / 4+\epsilon}\right) .
$$

$$
\text { (Recall: } d_{\text {Wass }}=\int\left|\theta-\theta_{0}\right| p_{n}(\theta) \mathrm{d} \theta \text { where } \theta_{0} \text { is the true value of } \theta \text {.) }
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- $\varphi_{1} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varphi_{2} \in[\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]$ for fixed $\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma} \in(0, \infty)$.
- $P$, the true mixing distribution, has compact supp $(P) \subset \mathbb{R} \times(\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma})$.
- $P_{0}$ has positive and continuous density on a rectangle $R$ such that

$$
\operatorname{supp}\left(P_{0}\right) \subseteq R \subseteq \mathbb{R} \times[\underline{\sigma}, \bar{\sigma}]
$$

- $P_{0}$ satisfies the tail condition $P_{0}\left(\left\{\left(\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right):\left|\varphi_{1}\right|>t\right\}\right) \leq c \exp \left(-b|t|^{\delta}\right)$ for all $t>0$.

Then the posterior distribution over the unknown value of the integral converges to the truth in Wasserstein metric at the rate

$$
O_{P}\left(n^{-1 / 4+\epsilon}\right) .
$$

(Recall: $d_{\text {Wass }}=\int\left|\theta-\theta_{0}\right| p_{n}(\theta) \mathrm{d} \theta$ where $\theta_{0}$ is the true value of $\theta$.)

## Extension 3: Unknown p.d.f. $\pi$


(Implementation is straight-forward with a stick-breaking construction. Exploits well-known conjugacy results for DP mixture models; Oates et al. [2017].)

## Eleventh Job: Non-Bayesian Methods?

## Probabilistic Models for Rounding Error

Hull and Swenson [1966] and others supposed that rounding, i.e. representation of a real number

$$
x=0 . a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} \ldots \in[0,1]
$$

in a truncated form

$$
\hat{x}=0 . a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} \ldots a_{n}
$$

is such that the error $e=x-\hat{x}$ can be reasonably modelled by a uniform random variable

$$
e \sim \operatorname{Unif}\left(-5 \times 10^{-(n+1)}, 5 \times 10^{-(n+1)}\right)
$$

This implies a distribution over the unknown value of $x$.
The proposal of Hull and Swenson [1966] and others was to replace the last digit $a_{n}$, in each stored number that arises in the numerical solution of an ODE, with a uniformly chosen element of \{0,

NB: This work focused on rounding error, rather than e.g. the (time) discretisation error that is intrinsic to numerical ODE solvers; this could reflect the limited precision arithmetic that was available from the computer hardware of the period.

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## Probabilistic Models for Discretisation Error

Conrad et al. [2016] and others supposed that discretisation, i.e. representation of a infinite-dimensional object

$$
x(\cdot)
$$

in a discrete form

$$
\hat{x}(\cdot)=a_{1} \phi_{1}(\cdot)+\cdots+a_{m} \phi_{m}(\cdot)
$$

is such that the error $e=x-\hat{x}$ can be reasonably modelled by a random process, such as a Gaussian process:

$$
e \sim \mathcal{G P}\left(0, k_{e}\right) .
$$

This implies a distribution over the unknown value of $x$.
In particular, when $\phi_{i}$ are finite elements, we can model

where $e_{i}$ is a Gaussian process constrained to share the same support as $\phi_{i}$ and vanish at nodal points. This enables to "trivial" modification of finite element methods. (i.e. "Randomise the finite elements"; $\phi_{i} \mapsto \phi_{i}+e_{i}$.)

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## Bayesian vs Non-Bayesian

Properties of (some) non-Bayesian methods:

- Often trivial modification of classical code, to "inject noise"
- Computationally competitive with classical methods
- However, simple models for error e can be inappropriate - and controversial

Properties of (some) Bayesian methods:

- Statistically well-founded
- Coherent framework in which to combine methods (see Part VI)
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## Conclusion

In Part V it has been argued that:

- Several extensions of Bayesian Quadrature can be developed.
- Dirichlet process mixture models are a convenient means to construct a non-parametric distribution on the space of p.d.f.s $\pi$.
- Non-Bayesian probabilistic numerical methods have been developed - but are rather different to Bayesian probabilistic numerical methods (more like a perturbation analysis?)

Open question: In what sense are filtering methods for ODEs an (approximate) Bayesian method?

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