# Model comparison

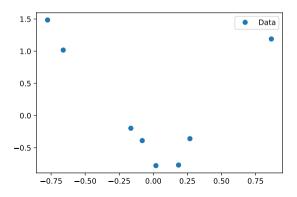
**Brooks Paige** 

COMP0171

### Model selection and comparison

One thing we haven't talked about too much is model selection.

A prototypical example, which we mentioned briefly during the first week: what degree polynomial should I fit to this data?



$$posterior = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{evidence}$$

$$posterior = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{evidence} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

$$\text{posterior} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{M})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M})}{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M})}$$

$$posterior = \frac{likelihood \times prior}{evidence} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{M})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M})}{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M})}$$

We use the **evidence**,  $p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$ , for model comparison.

- Also known as the marginal likelihood as it describes the probability of the data with parameters marginalized out
- Usually the normalizing constant of a Bayesian model

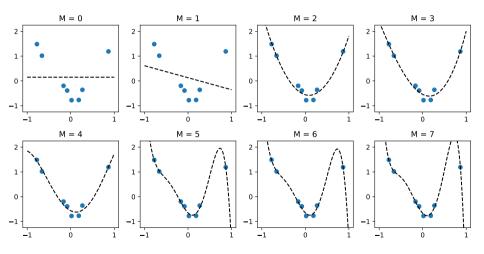
posterior = 
$$\frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{evidence}} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{M})p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M})}{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M})}$$

We use the **evidence**,  $p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$ , for model comparison.

- Also known as the marginal likelihood as it describes the probability of the data with parameters marginalized out
- Usually the normalizing constant of a Bayesian model

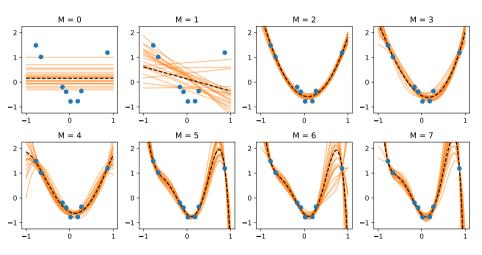
Given two possible model families, e.g.  $\mathcal{M}_0$  and  $\mathcal{M}_1$ , we can compare them using the marginal likelihood.

### MAP estimation



More complex models: lower training error

## Bayesian estimation

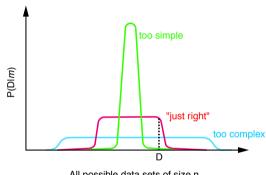


More complex models: more possible "explanations" for the data

## Bayesian Occam's Razor

William of Occam, Occam's Razor: "Entities should not be multiplied beyond necessity"

In general, we would prefer simple models over complex models, when either would suffice.



All possible data sets of size n

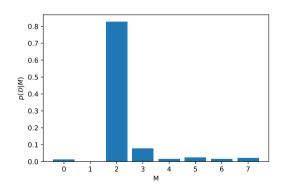
Models that are **too simple** are unlikely to have generated the dataset.

Models that are **too complex** could have generated many possible datasets, so producing this particular one at random is unlikely as well.

### Model evidence

For each model M, we can compute  $p(\mathcal{D}|M)$ .

- A quadratic model looks promising!
- A cubic model is plausible
- Higher-order than that is very unlikely



### Model comparison as inference

Given two possible model families, e.g.  $\mathcal{M}_0$  and  $\mathcal{M}_1$ , we can compare them using the marginal likelihood.

Bayes' rule over "models" is just Bayes' rule:

$$p(\mathcal{M}_0|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}_0)p(\mathcal{M}_0)}{\sum_{i=0}^{1} p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}_i)p(\mathcal{M}_i)}$$

$$p(\mathcal{M}_1|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}_1)p(\mathcal{M}_1)}{\sum_{i=0}^{1} p(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}_i)p(\mathcal{M}_i)}$$

- This was a linear Gaussian regression model, so it has a closed form
- Next slide: estimating it with the Laplace approximation

- This was a linear Gaussian regression model, so it has a closed form
- Next slide: estimating it with the Laplace approximation
- Q: could we use the ELBO as a proxy? Maybe! (it depends on how tight the lower bound is...)

- This was a linear Gaussian regression model, so it has a closed form
- Next slide: estimating it with the Laplace approximation
- Q: could we use the ELBO as a proxy? Maybe! (it depends on how tight the lower bound is...)
- No easy / foolproof way to do it from MCMC samples

- This was a linear Gaussian regression model, so it has a closed form
- Next slide: estimating it with the Laplace approximation
- Q: could we use the ELBO as a proxy? Maybe! (it depends on how tight the lower bound is...)
- No easy / foolproof way to do it from MCMC samples
- Note it can be estimated using importance sampling (not covered here)

The **Laplace approximation** we covered last week approximates posterior distributions with Gaussians. (Fortunately, we know how to normalize Gaussians!)

To estimate the normalizing constant instead of the posterior, start by taking the same Taylor approximation at the mode  $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \mathbf{H} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})$$

The **Laplace approximation** we covered last week approximates posterior distributions with Gaussians. (Fortunately, we know how to normalize Gaussians!)

To estimate the normalizing constant instead of the posterior, start by taking the same Taylor approximation at the mode  $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^*) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)^{\top} \mathbf{H} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)$$
$$p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx p(\mathcal{D} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^*) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*) \right\}$$

where 
$$\Lambda = -\mathbf{H} = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}).$$

The **Laplace approximation** we covered last week approximates posterior distributions with Gaussians. (Fortunately, we know how to normalize Gaussians!)

To estimate the normalizing constant instead of the posterior, start by taking the same Taylor approximation at the mode  $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \mathbf{H} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})$$
$$p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx p(\mathcal{D} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \right\}$$

where 
$$\Lambda = -\mathbf{H} = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}).$$

This suggests we can (approximately) normalize the distribution by normalizing the approximation, as f

$$p(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}.$$

First, note that for  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$\int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{(2\pi)^{D/2}}{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}.$$

First, note that for  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$\int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{(2\pi)^{D/2}}{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}.$$

$$\int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \approx \int p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

First, note that for  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$\int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{(2\pi)^{D/2}}{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}.$$

$$\int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \approx \int p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
$$= p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) \int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*)\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

First, note that for  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ 

$$\int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{(2\pi)^{D/2}}{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}.$$

$$\int p(\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \approx \int p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

$$= p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star})\right\} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

$$= p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) \frac{(2\pi)^{D/2}}{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}.$$

Taking logarithms of both sides, we have the approximation

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) + \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) + \frac{D}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|$$

Taking logarithms of both sides, we have the approximation

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \underbrace{\log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \frac{D}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|}_{\text{"Occam factor"}}$$

Taking logarithms of both sides, we have the approximation

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \underbrace{\log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|}_{\text{"Occam factor"}}$$

The **Occam factor** here is a general means for penalizing model complexity. Of particular note:

- Partially, this depends on the prior. But it is not just the prior!
- It also depends on  $\Lambda = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\theta|\mathcal{D})|_{\theta=\theta^*}$ , the Hessian at the MAP estimate  $\theta^*$ .

Taking logarithms of both sides, we have the approximation

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \underbrace{\log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\star}) + \frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|}_{\text{"Occam factor"}}$$

The **Occam factor** here is a general means for penalizing model complexity. Of particular note:

- Partially, this depends on the prior. But it is not just the prior!
- It also depends on  $\Lambda = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\theta|\mathcal{D})|_{\theta=\theta^*}$ , the Hessian at the MAP estimate  $\theta^*$ .

Intuitively, this will prefer "broader" rather than "peaky" posteriors.