

INF367A: Probabilistic machine learning

Lecture 8: Model selection and evaluation

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Outline

Bayesian model selection

Marginal likelihood

BIC

Predictive model selection

Cross-validation

AIC

Model checking



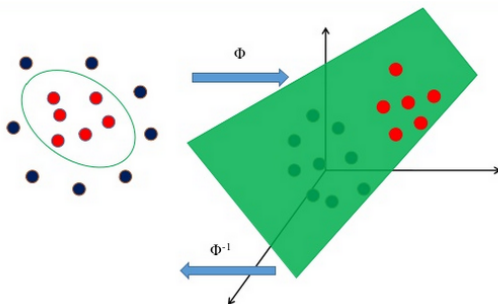
All models are wrong but some are useful

- ▶ How to determine which model is most useful?
- ▶ How to determine whether a model is useful at all?



Non-linear regression

- ▶ Linear models are computationally convenient but as simple models they are unable to capture complex non-linear relations
- ▶ Apply a non-linear transformation to data and perform linear regression on transformed data



Source: <https://www.slideshare.net/PeriklisGogas/presentation-machine-learning-56402108>



Non-linearities

- ▶ That is,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}),$$

where $\phi(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d'}$ is a non-linear transform

- ▶ Typically, d' is larger than d
- ▶ Computations are done the same way as before but \mathbf{x} is replaced by $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ (and the dimension of \mathbf{w} may change)
- ▶ For example, if $\phi(x) = (1, x, x^2)$ then

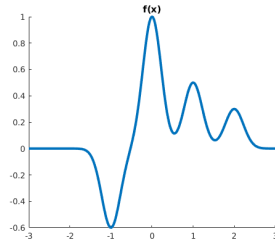
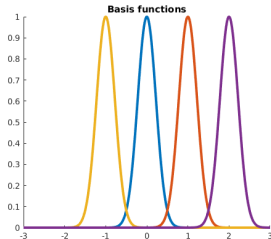
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \\ \dots & & \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$



Basis functions

► Examples:

- Polynomials of degree k : $\phi(x) = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^k)$
- Interactions between two features:
 $\phi((x^{(1)}, x^{(2)})) = (1, x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(1)}x^{(2)})$
- Radial basis functions, e.g., Gaussian: $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-(\epsilon \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}\|)^2}$, where \mathbf{c} is called a center point



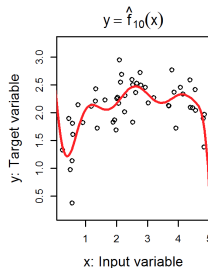
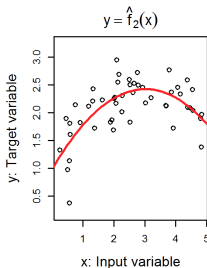
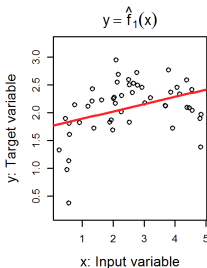
Which set of basis functions should we choose?

- ▶ There are lots of possibilities to choose the basis functions
- ▶ But which one is good for my particular data?
 - ▶ Could use domain knowledge but it is often not available
- ▶ \Rightarrow model selection



How to choose a model?

- ▶ Choose the most probable/“correct” model
 - ▶ Bayesian model selection
 - ▶ For example, compare between scientific hypotheses and the hypotheses correspond to different models
- ▶ Choose the most predictive model
 - ▶ For example, choose the model that best predicts future observations



Bayesian model selection

- ▶ Choose the **most probable** model given the observed data
 - ▶ Does not evaluate generalisation performance per se
 - ▶ Model selection done using the training data
- ▶ Here, a model is a family of probability distributions with a fixed set of parameters
 - ▶ for example, a family of linear predictors
 - ▶ or a family of quadratic predictors
 - ▶ ...



Bayesian model selection

- ▶ Consider m models M_i with associated parameters θ_i and associated priors,

$$P(D, \theta_i | M_i) = P(D | \theta_i, M_i)P(\theta_i | M_i) \quad i \in 1, \dots, m$$

- ▶ We can compute *model posterior probabilities*

$$P(M_i | D) = \frac{P(D | M_i)P(M_i)}{P(D)}$$

where

$$P(D | M_i) = \int_{\theta_i} P(D | \theta_i, M_i)P(\theta_i | M_i)d\theta_i$$

and

$$P(D) = \sum_{i=1}^m P(D | M_i)P(M_i)$$



Marginal likelihood

$$P(D|M_i) = \int_{\theta_i} P(D|\theta_i, M_i)P(\theta_i|M_i)d\theta_i$$

- ▶ Also called as *evidence*
- ▶ Probability of the data given the model
- ▶ The parameters are integrated out



Bayes factor

- ▶ Bayesian alternative to classical hypothesis testing (models represent hypotheses)
- ▶ The *Bayes factor* is a ratio of marginal likelihoods:

$$BF(M_i, M_j) = \frac{P(D | M_i)}{P(D | M_j)}$$

- ▶ For compare two, model we compute their posterior ratio:

$$\frac{P(M_i | D)}{P(M_j | D)} = \frac{P(D | M_i)}{P(D | M_j)} \times \frac{P(M_i)}{P(M_j)}$$

Posterior odds = Bayes factor \times Prior odds



Example



Laplace approximation for marginal likelihood (1/4)

- ▶ We want to approximate marginal likelihood

$$P(D|M_i) = \int P(D|\theta, M_i)P(\theta|M_i)d\theta$$

when $n \rightarrow \infty$

- ▶ Laplace approximation for $P(D|\theta, M_i)P(\theta|M_i)$:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\theta) &= -\log P(D|\theta, M_i)P(\theta|M_i) \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^n \log P(D_i|\theta, M_i) - \log P(\theta|M_i) \end{aligned}$$



Laplace approximation for marginal likelihood (2/4)

- We get

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{E}(\theta) &= E(\hat{\theta}) + \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \hat{\theta})^T \frac{\partial^2 E(\hat{\theta})}{\partial^2 \theta} (\theta - \hat{\theta}) \\ &= E(\hat{\theta}) + \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \hat{\theta})^T n \cdot F(\hat{\theta})(\theta - \hat{\theta})\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}F(\theta) &= \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial^2 E(\theta)}{\partial^2 \theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial^2 \log P(D_i | \theta, M_i)}{\partial^2 \theta} + \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial^2 \log P(\theta | M_i)}{\partial^2 \theta} \right)\end{aligned}$$

- We note that $F(\theta)$ is about an average of second derivatives over all data points



Laplace approximation for marginal likelihood (3/4)

- Let's plugin $\tilde{E}(\theta)$ back in our formulation:

$$\begin{aligned}\int P(D|\theta, M_i)P(\theta|M_i)d\theta &\approx \int e^{-\tilde{E}(\theta)}d\theta \\ &= \int e^{-E(\hat{\theta})}e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta-\hat{\theta})^T n \cdot F(\hat{\theta})(\theta-\hat{\theta})}d\theta \\ &= e^{-E(\hat{\theta})} \int e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta-\hat{\theta})^T n \cdot F(\hat{\theta})(\theta-\hat{\theta})}d\theta \\ &= e^{-E(\hat{\theta})} \left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right)^{\frac{d}{2}} |F(\hat{\theta})|^{-\frac{1}{2}}\end{aligned}$$

where the last integration follows from the normalization constant of multivariate Gaussian



Laplace approximation for marginal likelihood (4/4)

- It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\log P(D | M_i) &\approx -E(\hat{\theta}) + \frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{d}{2} \log n - \frac{1}{2} \log |F(\hat{\theta})| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(D_i | \theta, M_i) + \log P(\theta | M_i) \\ &\quad + \frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{d}{2} \log n - \frac{1}{2} \log |F(\hat{\theta})|\end{aligned}$$

- Here all other terms except $\sum_{i=1}^n \log P(D_i | \theta, M_i)$ and $\frac{d}{2} \log n$ converge to a constant when $n \rightarrow \infty$



Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

- ▶ Definition¹:

$$BIC(M) = \log P(D|\hat{\theta}, M) - \frac{d}{2} \log n$$

where $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(D|\theta, M)P(\theta|M)$ are the MAP parameters, d is the number of parameters in model M and n is the sample size

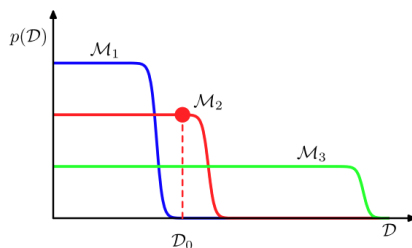
- ▶ Large values are good
- ▶ Approximates the logarithm of marginal likelihood when $n \rightarrow \infty$
- ▶ Intuitively, log-likelihood minus a complexity penalty



¹Sometimes BIC is multiplied by -2

Bayesian model selection and Occam's razor

- ▶ When complexity of M increases, $P(D|\hat{\theta}, M)$ always increases
- ▶ On the other hand, $P(D|M)$ is the highest for the simplest model that can explain the data (= Occam's razor principle)
- ▶ Note: Bayesian model selection uses the training set



Source: Bishop, 3.13



Selection models for prediction

- ▶ Notation: feature vector \mathbf{x} , label y , prediction model $\hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x})$ where the parameters θ are estimated from a training data D
- ▶ Loss function measure the (lack of) accuracy of prediction
- ▶ Squared loss:

$$L(y, \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x})) = (y - \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

- ▶ Loss based on log-likelihood:

$$L(y, \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x})) = -2 \log P(y | \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}))$$

(the “-2” makes this match the squared loss for Gaussian models)



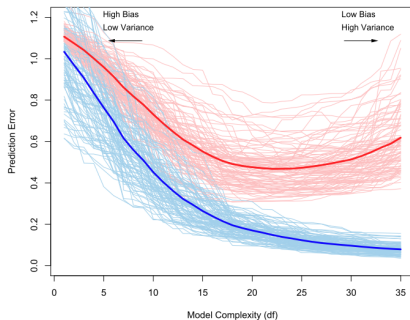
Selection models for prediction

- ▶ Test/prediction/generalization error:

$$Err_D = E \left[L(y, \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x})) | D \right]$$

- ▶ Training error:

$$\bar{err} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x}_i))$$



Training-validation-testing

- ▶ **Model selection:** estimate the performance of different models in order to choose the best one (use validation data)
- ▶ **Model evaluation** (or assessment): estimate the prediction error of the chosen model



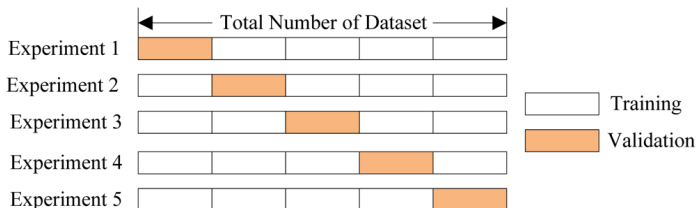
- ▶ The validation step can be approximated analytically (e.g., AIC) or by efficient sample re-use (e.g., cross-validation)



Example



Cross-validation



- Cross-validation (CV) error:

$$CV(\hat{f}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \hat{f}^{\kappa(i)}(\mathbf{x}_i))$$

where $\hat{f}^{\kappa(i)}$ is the predicting model trained without the fold to which observation i belongs to

- CV yields an estimate of the expected prediction error $E[L(y, \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}))]$



Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

- It can be shown that for **large** n

$$-2 \cdot E \left[\log P(\tilde{y} | \hat{\theta}, \mathbf{x}) \right] = -\frac{2}{n} \log P(y | \hat{\theta}, X) + 2 \cdot \frac{d}{n}$$

where \tilde{y} is an unobserved future observation and

$$\log P(D | \hat{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^d \log P(y | \hat{\theta}, X)$$

is the log-likelihood

- This leads to

$$AIC = -\frac{2}{n} \log P(y | \hat{\theta}, X) + 2 \cdot \frac{d}{n}$$

(the smaller the better)

- Main point: AIC is one possible analytical approximation for the expected prediction accuracy



BIC vs. AIC vs. cross-validation

- ▶ BIC penalizes complexity stronger than AIC
 - ▶ BIC tends to select simpler models
- ▶ AIC is asymptotically equivalent to leave-one-out cross-validation



Remarks

- ▶ Bayesian model selection
 - ▶ Asymptotically consistent
 - ▶ Suitable when trying to find a “true” model from a set of distinct alternatives
 - ▶ Heavy penalty on complexity \Rightarrow may produce too sparse models for prediction
- ▶ Predictive model selection
 - ▶ No consistency guarantees
 - ▶ No need to assume a true model
 - ▶ Less penalty for model complexity \Rightarrow more complex models that may be more suitable for prediction
- ▶ In practice, people use the two ways interchangeably for both goals: prediction and comparing hypotheses



Model checking (1/2)

- ▶ We have selected a model. But does it make any sense?
- ▶ Whenever possible, perform sanity checks:
 - ▶ Use domain knowledge
 - ▶ Visualize



Model checking (2/2)

- ▶ Residual errors

- ▶ Compute residual errors: $\epsilon_i = y_i - \hat{f}_\theta(\mathbf{x})$
- ▶ Plot the residuals
- ▶ Are your assumptions satisfied? (e.g., if you assume that errors are Gaussians, the histogram of residuals should look like a Gaussian)

- ▶ Test statistics

- ▶ Generate data sets (of same size as the original data) from the posterior predictive distribution
- ▶ Compute some descriptive statistics
- ▶ Do the statistics of the generated data sets differ systematically from the original data?



Further readings

- ▶ Bishop 3.4, 3.5

