Advanced probabilistic methods

Lecture 7: Model selection

Pekka Marttinen

Aalto University

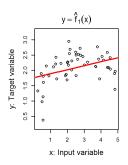
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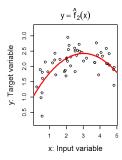
Lecture 7 overview

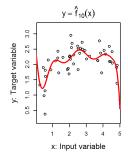
- Bayesian model selection
 - marginal likelihood
 - BIC, Laplace approximation
 - VB lower bound (ELBO)
- Predictive model selection
 - AIC, (DIC, WAIC, etc.)
 - Cross-validation
- Lecture based on (suggested reading):
 - Barber: Ch. 12 (Bayesian model selection)
 - simple_elbo.pdf (how to derive the ELBO for the simple model analytically)
 - For predictive model selection: Hastie et al. The Elements of Statistical Learning, (available at http://statweb.stanford.edu/~tibs/ElemStatLearn/): Ch. 7.1, 7.2, 7.4, 7.5, 7.10 (for AIC and CV)

Model selection

- Possible goal may be to learn
 - the most useful model, for example the one that best predicts future observations
 - the most probable model, for example when comparing between scientific hypotheses and different hypotheses correspond to different models







Bayesian model selection

• Consider m models M_i with parameters θ_i and associated priors,

$$p(x, \theta_i|M_i) = p(x|\theta_i, M_i)p(\theta_i|M_i), \quad i \in 1, ..., m,$$

We can compute the model posterior probabilities

$$p(M_i|x) = \frac{p(x|M_i)p(M_i)}{p(x)},$$

where

$$p(x|M_i) = \int p(x| heta_i, M_i) p(heta_i|M_i) d heta_i$$
 and $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m p(x|M_i) p(M_i)$

Bayes factors

For comparing two models, we compute the Bayes' factor

$$\underbrace{\frac{p(M_i|x)}{p(M_j|x)}}_{\text{Posterior odds}} = \underbrace{\frac{p(x|M_i)}{p(x|M_j)}}_{\text{Bayes' factor Prior odds}} \times \underbrace{\frac{p(M_i)}{p(M_j)}}_{\text{Prior odds}},$$

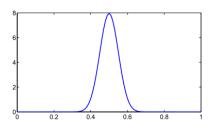
• Bayes factor is the ratio of **marginal likelihoods** $p(D|M_i)$ and it tells how much more seeing the data D has increased the probability of model M_i as opposed to model M_j .

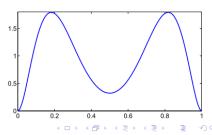
Bayes factor example (1/3)

- **Problem:** given *N* throws of a coin, determine whether a coin is biased or unbiased.
- Let θ denote the probability of heads. The probability of observing h heads and N-h tails in a sequence of N throws is

$$p(H = h) = \binom{N}{h} \theta^{h} (1 - \theta)^{N-h}$$

• The difference between models is encoded in the prior distribution of θ (**Left**: fair coin, **Right**: biased coin)





Bayes factor example (2/3)

M_{fair} ('Coin is fair') corresponds to prior

$$egin{aligned} p(heta|M_{ extit{fair}}) &= extit{Beta}(heta| extit{a}, extit{b}) \ &= extit{B}(extit{a}, extit{b})^{-1} heta^{ extit{a}-1}(1- heta)^{b-1} \end{aligned}$$

where a = b = 50.

Probability of h heads in N throws of the coin is given by

$$\begin{split} \rho(x|M_{fair}) &= \int \rho(x|\theta,M_{fair})\rho(\theta|M_{fair})d\theta \\ &= \binom{N}{h}B(a,b)^{-1}\int \theta^h(1-\theta)^{N-h}\theta^{a-1}(1-\theta)^{b-1}d\theta \\ &= \binom{N}{h}B(a,b)^{-1}\int \theta^{h+a-1}(1-\theta)^{N-h+b-1}d\theta \\ &= \binom{N}{h}B(a,b)^{-1}B(h+a,N-h+b) \end{split}$$

Bayes factor example (3/3)

M_{biased} ('Coin is biased') corresponds to assuming

$$p(\theta|\textit{M}_2) = 0.5 \times \textit{Beta}(\theta|3,10) + 0.5 \times \textit{Beta}(\theta|10,3)$$

We get

$$p(x|M_2) = \frac{1}{2} \binom{N}{h} \left\{ \frac{B(h+3, N-h+10)}{B(3, 10)} + \frac{B(h+10, N-h+3)}{B(10, 3)} \right\}$$

• For example with h = 50 and N = 70, we get

$$BF_{fair,biased} = \frac{p(x|M_{fair})}{p(x|M_{biased})} = 0.087.$$

This indicates that if the models are a priori equally likely, after seeing the data, M_{biased} is about 11 times more probable than M_{fair} .

Laplace approximation for marginal likelihood*

• Laplace approximation for p(x|M)

$$\log p(x|M) \approx \log p(x|\widehat{\theta}, M) + \log p(\widehat{\theta}|M) + \frac{D}{2}\log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}\log|H_{\widehat{\theta}}|,$$

where

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(x|\theta, M) p(\theta|M)$$

is the MAP estimate and $H_{\widehat{\theta}}$ is the Hessian (second derivative for univariate θ) of

$$f(\theta) = -\log \left[p(x|\theta, M) p(\theta|M) \right]$$

at $\widehat{\theta}$.



BIC approximation for marginal likelihood*

BIC approximation¹

$$\mathsf{BIC}(M) = \log p(x|\widehat{\theta}, M) - \frac{D}{2} \log N$$

is obtained from the Laplace approximation by assuming $p(\theta) = const$, $H \approx NI_D$, and $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Note that we can compute the approximate Bayes factor using

$$\mathsf{BF}_{12} = \frac{\mathsf{exp}(\mathsf{BIC}(M_1))}{\mathsf{exp}(\mathsf{BIC}(M_2))},$$

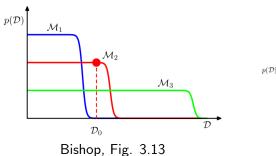
or similarly by plugging in exponentiated Laplace approximation (Laplace is better, both to be used with caution, especially with small N).

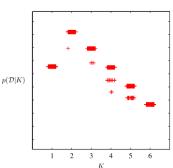


¹Sometimes there is -2 in the front.

Bayesian model selection and Occam's razor

- ullet When complexity of M increases, $p(x|\widehat{\theta},M)$ always increases
- On the other hand, p(x|M) is the highest for the simplest model that can explain the data (=Occam's razor principle)
- Left: illustration with model complexity increasing from M_1 to M_3
- **Right:** p(x|K) for the number K of GMM components for the 'Old Faithful' data (approximated using the ELBO, see the next slides)





Bishop, Fig. 10.7 📱 🔊 🦠

Variational lower bound (ELBO)

ullet The derivation of the VB algorithm was based on minimizing $\mathit{KL}(q||p)$ in

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{L}(q) + \mathit{KL}(q||p)$$

• When conjugate priors and exponential family distributions are used, we can compute the variational lower bound $\mathcal{L}(q)$ directly

$$\mathcal{L}(q) = \int q(\mathbf{z}) \log \left\{ rac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z})}
ight\} d\mathbf{z}$$

- Computing $\mathcal{L}(q)$ gives:
 - lacksquare alternative way to define the factor updates by maximizing $\mathcal{L}(q).$
 - $oldsymbol{arOmega}$ simple check of the VB algorithm $\mathcal{L}(q)$ should never decrease.
 - o criterion to monitor convergence.
 - lacktriangledown an estimate of $\log p(x)$ to be used in **model selection**



Simple example: computing the ELBO

The model:

$$p(x_n|\theta,\tau) = (1-\tau)N(x_n|0,1) + \tau N(x_n|\theta,1), \quad n = 1,..., N.$$

Prior:

$$au \sim \textit{Beta}(lpha_0, lpha_0) \qquad heta \sim \textit{N}(0, eta_0^{-1})$$

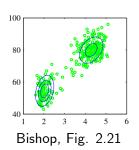
• After factorizing log $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \tau, \theta)$, ELBO can be written as:

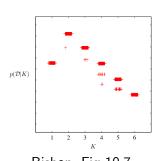
$$\begin{split} \mathcal{L}(q) &= E_{q(\tau)}[\log p(\tau)] + E_{q(\theta)}[\log p(\theta)] + E_{q(\mathbf{z})q(\tau)}[\log p(\mathbf{z}|\tau)] \\ &+ E_{q(\mathbf{z})q(\theta)}[\log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z},\theta)] - E_{q(\mathbf{z})}[\log q(\mathbf{z})] - E_{q(\tau)}[\log q(\tau)] \\ &- E_{q(\theta)}[\log q(\theta)]. \end{split}$$

 All of the terms have analytic form (see simple_elbo.pdf and the next exercise).

Using the ELBO for model selection

- The ELBO \mathcal{L}_K for a GMM with K components gives a lower bound of $\log p_K(x)$, where $p_K(x)$ is the marginal likelihood.
- However, VB approximates only a single mode and a GMM with K components has K! equivalent modes (label switching). Hence, we add log(K!) to \mathcal{L}_K when doing model selection (**right**).





Bishop, Fig 10.7

Selecting models for prediction, concepts (1/2)

- X: input variables, Y: target variable, $\widehat{f}(X)$: prediction model estimated from a training data \mathcal{T} .
- Loss function measures the (lack of) accuracy of prediction
- Squared loss

$$L(Y, \widehat{f}(X)) = (Y - \widehat{f}(X))^2$$

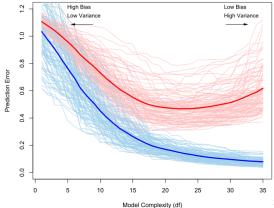
Loss based on log-likelihood

$$L(Y, \theta(X)) = -2\log p(Y|\theta(X)),$$

where $\theta(X)$ is a parameter of the prediction model.

Selecting models for prediction, concepts (2/2)

$$\mathsf{Err}_{\mathcal{T}} = E\left[L(Y,\widehat{f}(X))|\mathcal{T}\right]$$
 (test/prediction/generalization error)
$$\overline{\mathsf{err}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(y_i,\widehat{f}(x_i))$$
 (training error)

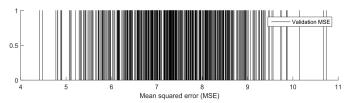


Predictive model selection criteria

- Predictive model selection criteria aim to approximate expected prediction accuracy in a new data set, either
 - analytically (e.g. AIC, DIC, WAIC), or
 - by efficient sample re-use (e.g. cross-validation)
- Hence, they aim to find a model that is suitable for prediction.
- Asymptotically, AIC and leave-one-out cross validation are equivalent.

Example (validation vs. test error)*

- Data (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) is simulated using $y_i = \sum_{i=1}^{30} w_i x_i + \epsilon_i$, where $w_i \sim U(-1, 1)$, and $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, 0.1^2)$.
- 500 candidate models created by randomly selecting 10 covariates out of 30, and fitting a linear model with the selected covariates.
- $n_{Train} = 300$ and $n_{Valid} = 60$. Validation MSEs for different models:



• Question: What is your best guess for the test set MSE for the best model?

AIC, basic idea*

It can be shown that for large N

$$-2 \cdot E\left[\log p(\widetilde{y}|\widehat{\theta})\right] \approx -\frac{2}{N}\log p(y|\widehat{\theta}) + 2 \cdot \frac{d}{N}$$

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

$$\log p(y|\widehat{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(y_i|\widehat{\theta})$$

is the log-likelihood.

• This gives rise to:

$$AIC = -\frac{2}{N}\log p(y|\widehat{\theta}) + 2 \cdot \frac{d}{N}$$

(the smallest AIC is the best)

 Main point: AIC is one possible analytical approximation for the expected prediction accuracy measured using log probability of future data².

²For more Bayesian variants, see, e.g., Gelman et al. Stat. Comput. (2014)

Cross-Validation $(CV)^3$, basic idea*



• Let $\kappa : \{1, ..., N\} \longmapsto \{1, ..., K\}$ denotes the fold to which observation i belongs. Then

$$CV(\widehat{f}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(y_i, \widehat{f}^{-\kappa(i)}(x_i)),$$

where $\hat{f}^{-\kappa(i)}$ is the predictor model trained without fold $\kappa(i)$.

• CV yields an estimate of the expected prediction error $E\left[L(Y, \widehat{f}(X))\right]$.

³See, e.g., Vehtari et al., Stat. Comput. (2017).

A wrong way to do cross-validation*

- A (wrong!) strategy for building a classifier with a large number of predictors
 - Pre-screening of the predictors: find a subset of predictors with strong univariate correlation with the class label
 - Using the set of predictors from pre-screening, build a multivariate classifier
 - Use cross-validation to estimate the unknown tuning parameter and to estimate the prediction error of the final model
- Question: what's the problem?

The correct way*

- The correct way for building a classifier with a large number of predictors
 - lacktriangle Divide the samples into K folds
 - 2 For each fold k = 1, ..., K
 - Find a subset of predictors with strong univariate correlation with the class labels, using all samples except those in fold k.
 - Build a multivariate classifier using this set of predictors (excluding fold k)
 - ullet Use the classifier to predict the class labels for the samples in fold k
- The class labels of the test fold should not be used at any point before predicting them in CV!

Remarks

- Bayesian model selection
 - asymptotically consistent
 - suitable when trying to find the "true" model from a set of distinct interpretable alternatives
 - heavy penalty on complexity → may produce too sparse models for prediction
 - may be sensitive to the prior on the parameters
- Predictive model selection
 - no consistency guarantees
 - no need to assume a true model
 - \bullet less penalty for model complexity \to more complex models that may be suitable for prediction
- In practice people seem to use the two ways interchangeably for both goals: prediction and comparing hypotheses.

Model selection, summary

- There are two **different goals** for model selection: learning the correct model or selecting a model for prediction
- The **Bayesian model selection** gives probabilities of different models and may be more suitable if the goal is to learn the correct model.
- **Predictive model selection** criteria may be better if the goal is to use the model for prediction.
- BIC approximates Bayesian model selection, AIC and CV are related to predictive model selection.
- ELBO can be used to approximate the logarithm of the marginal likelihood $\log p_m(x)$ for model m, which can be used for Bayesian model selection.