

Outline

Last week

- What is cross-validation
- LOO-PIT checking
- Fast cross-validation (PSIS and K -fold)
- When is cross-validation applicable?

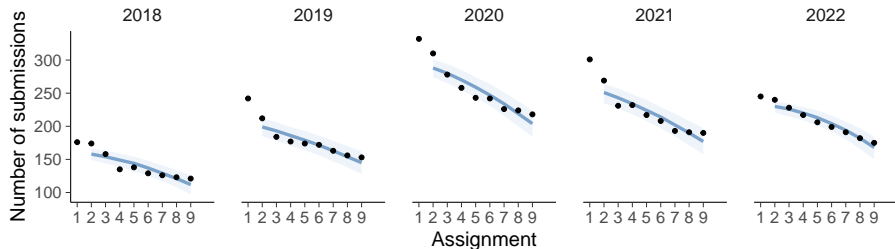
This week

- LOO model comparison and selection (elpd_diff, se)
- Related methods (WAIC, *IC, BF)
- Hypothesis testing
- Potential overfitting
- Model expansion and averaging

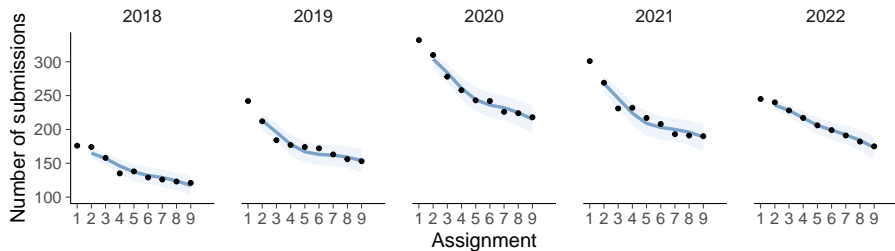
Student retention – Posterior predictive distributions

with tidybayes

Latent hierarchical linear model



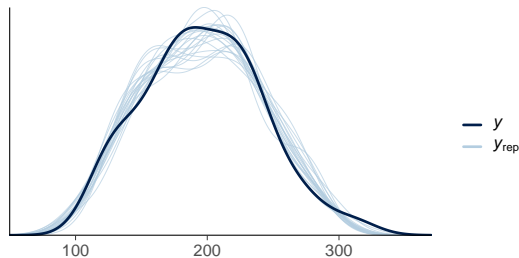
Latent hierarchical linear model + spline



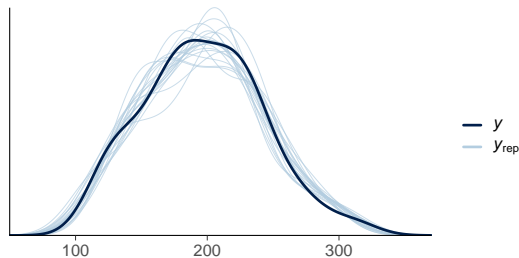
Student retention – Marginal PPC

```
pp_check(fit, ndraws=100)
```

Latent hierarchical linear model

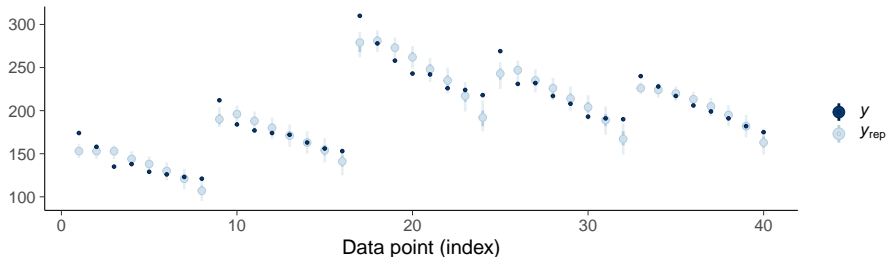


Latent hierarchical linear model + spline

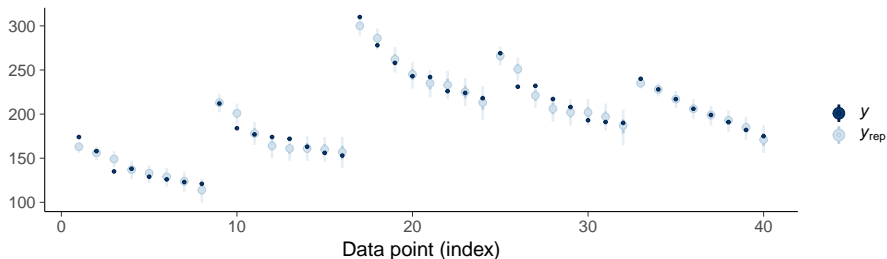


Student retention – LOO intervals

LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear



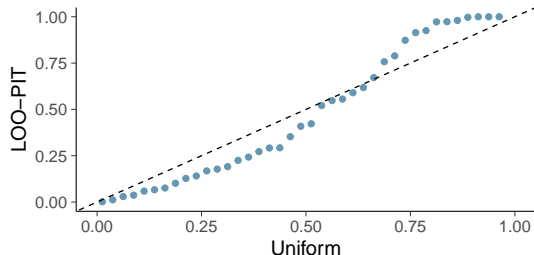
LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear + spline



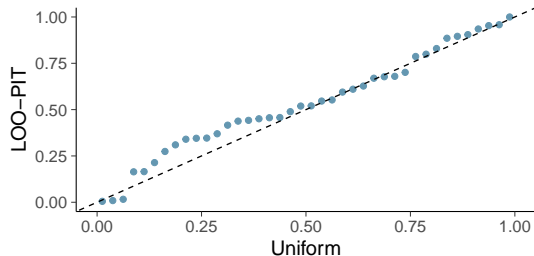
Student retention – LOO-PIT checking

```
pp_check(fit, type = "loo_pit_qq", ndraws=4000)
```

LOO-PIT check – latent hierarchical linear



LOO-PIT check – latent hierarchical linear + spline



Student retention – R^2

Latent hierarchical linear vs. latent hierarchical linear + spline

```
> loo_R2(fit4) |> round(digits=2)
```

	Estimate	Est. Error	Q2.5	Q97.5
R2	0.92	0.02	0.88	0.95

```
> loo_R2(fit6) |> round(digits=2)
```

	Estimate	Est. Error	Q2.5	Q97.5
R2	0.97	0.01	0.95	0.98

R^2 measures the goodness of the mean of the predictive distribution

Gelman, Goodrich, Gabry, and Vehtari (2019). R-squared for Bayesian regression models. *The American Statistician*, 73(3):307-309.

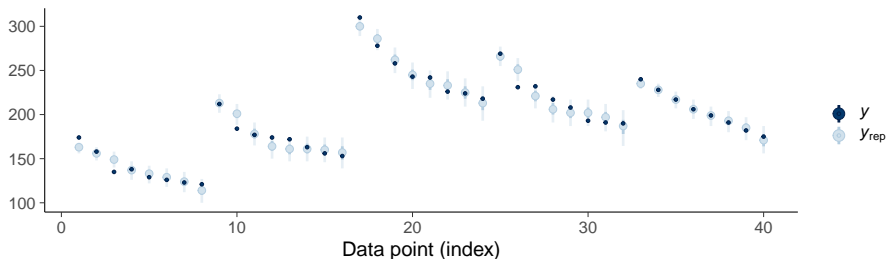
Student retention – log score – elpd

- information theoretical goodness of the whole distribution
- elpd = expected log predictive density (probability)
- elpd_loo = estimated with LOO predictive densities / probs
$$\sum_{n=1}^N \log p(y_i | x_i, x_{-i}, y_{-i})$$

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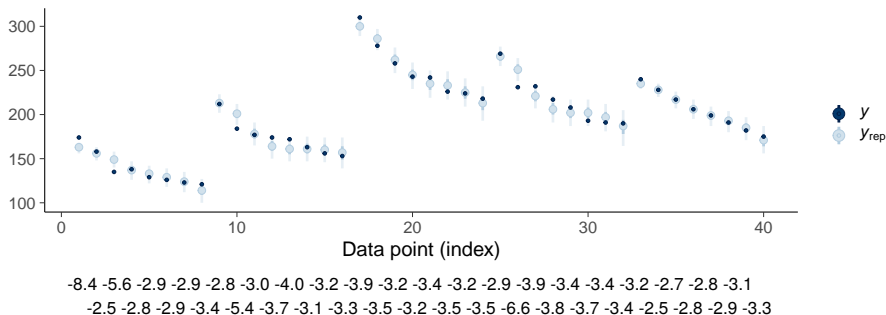
LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear + spline



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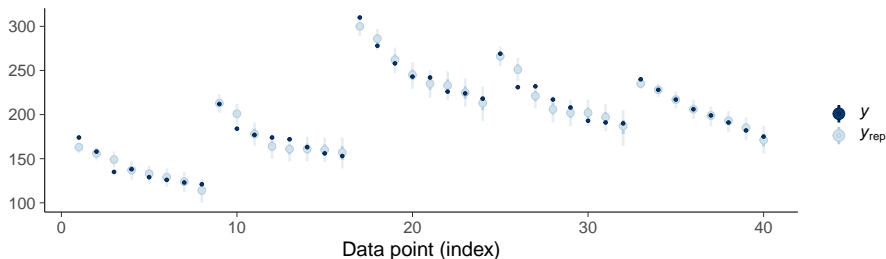
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LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear + spline



-8.4 -5.6 -2.9 -2.9 -2.8 -3.0 -4.0 -3.2 -3.9 -3.2 -3.4 -3.2 -2.9 -3.9 -3.4 -3.4 -3.2 -2.7 -2.8 -3.1
-2.5 -2.8 -2.9 -3.4 -5.4 -3.7 -3.1 -3.3 -3.5 -3.2 -3.5 -3.5 -6.6 -3.8 -3.7 -3.4 -2.5 -2.8 -2.9 -3.3

$\Sigma = -141.7$

Student retention – elpd_loo

Latent hierarchical linear + spline

```
> loo(fit6)
```

Computed from 4000 by 40 log-likelihood matrix

	Estimate	SE
elpd_loo	-141.7	7.2
p_loo	10.9	2.5

Student retention – elpd_loo

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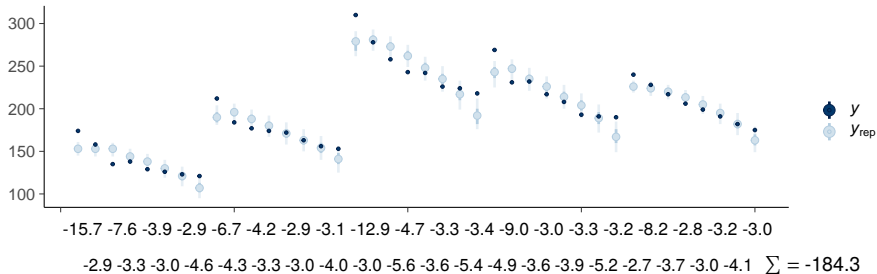
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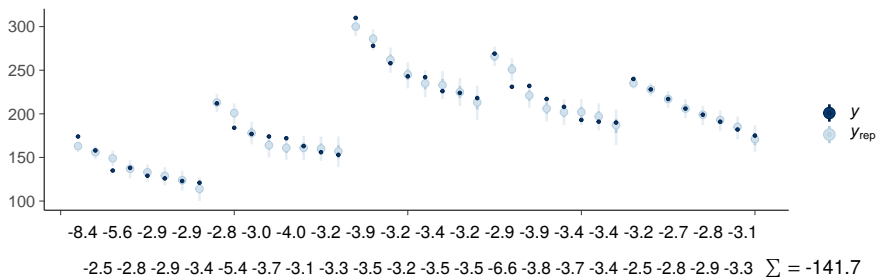
	Estimate	SE
elpd_loo	-184.3	17.3
p_loo	24.3	5.8

Student retention – log score – elpd

LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear

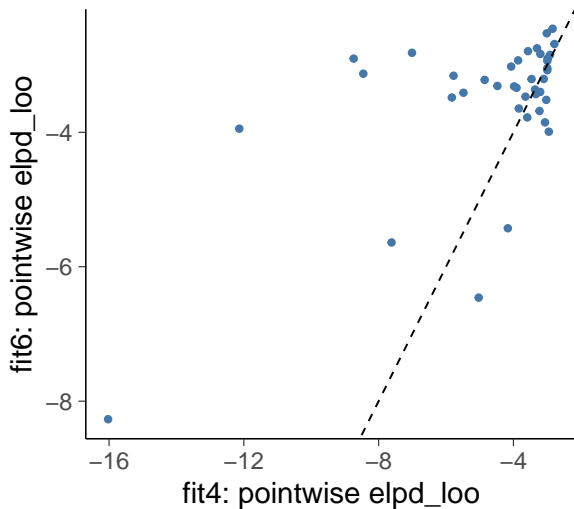


LOO predictive intervals – latent hierarchical linear + spline



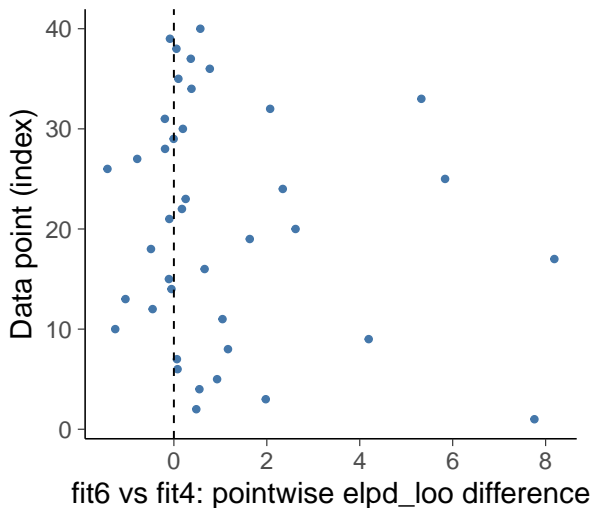
Student retention – elpd_loo

Latent hierarchical linear (fit4) vs latent hierarchical linear + spline (fit6)



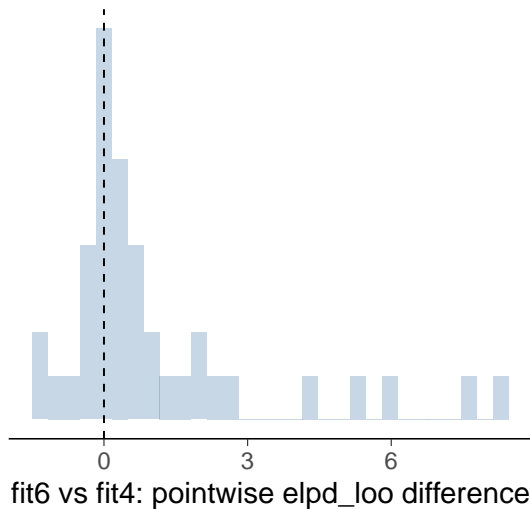
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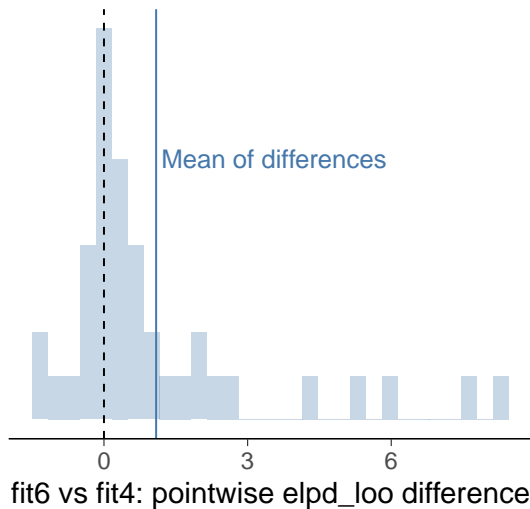
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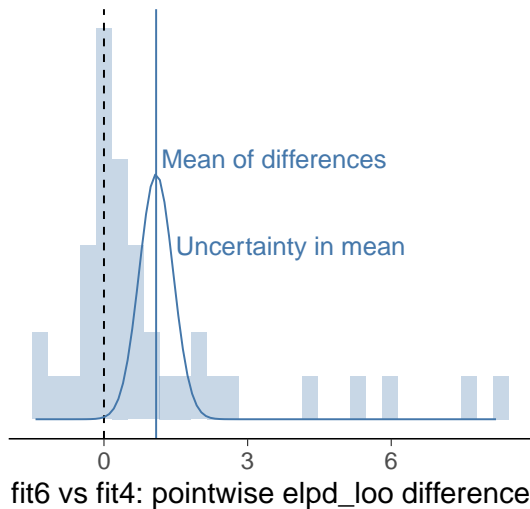
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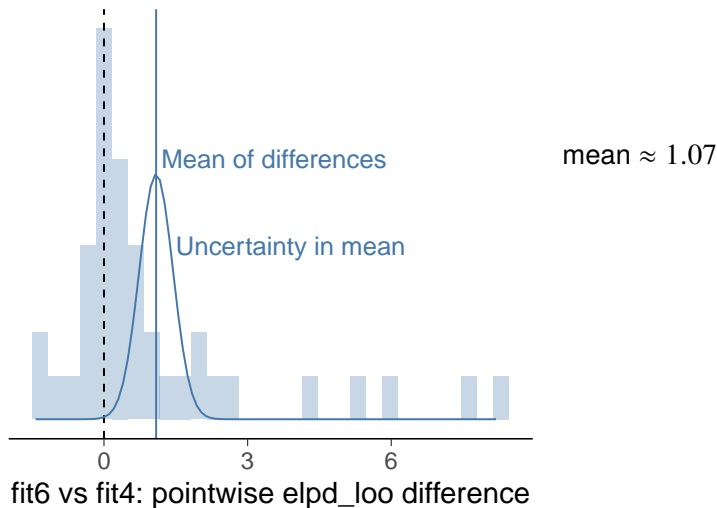
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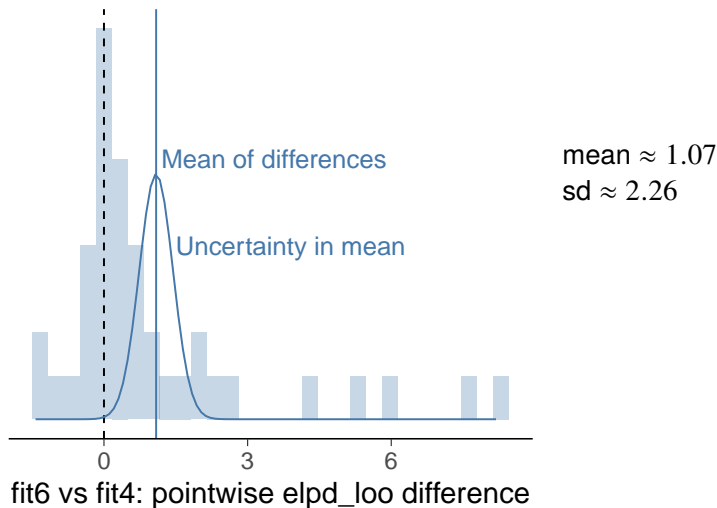
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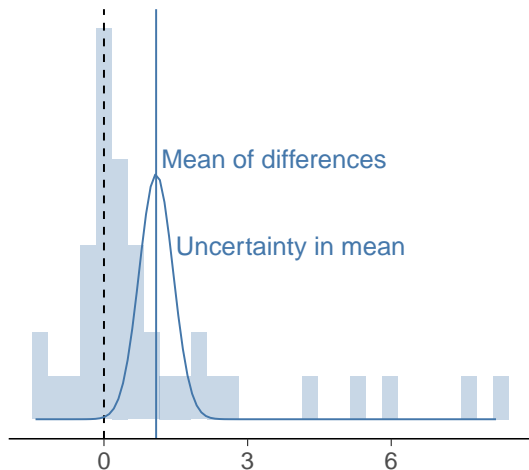
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mean ≈ 1.07

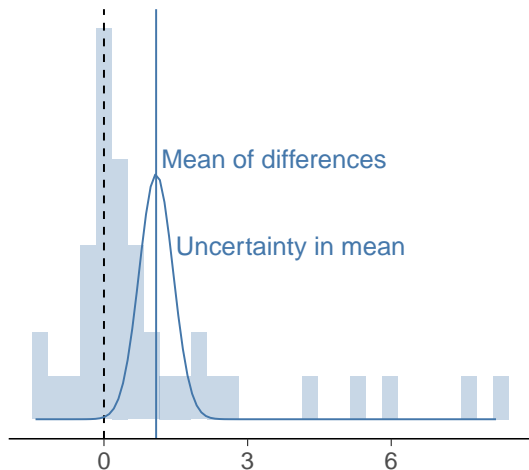
sd ≈ 2.26

SE = $\text{sd}/\sqrt{40} \approx 0.36$

fit6 vs fit4: pointwise elpd_loo difference

Student retention – elpd_loo

Latent hierarchical linear (fit4) vs latent hierarchical linear + spline (fit6)



mean ≈ 1.07

sd ≈ 2.26

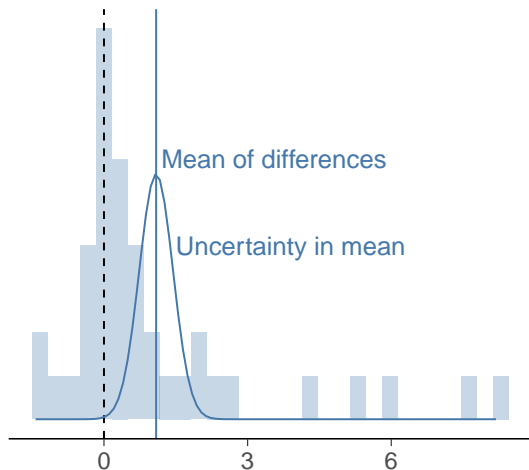
SE = $\text{sd}/\sqrt{40} \approx 0.36$

sum ≈ 42.6

fit6 vs fit4: pointwise elpd_loo difference

Student retention – elpd_loo

Latent hierarchical linear (fit4) vs latent hierarchical linear + spline (fit6)



$$\text{mean} \approx 1.07$$

$$\text{sd} \approx 2.26$$

$$\text{SE} = \text{sd} / \sqrt{40} \approx 0.36$$

$$\text{sum} \approx 42.6$$

$$\text{SE} = \text{sd} * \sqrt{40} \approx 14.3$$

fit6 vs fit4: pointwise elpd_loo difference

Student retention – elpd_loo

Latent hierarchical linear + spline

```
> loo( fit6 )
```

	Estimate	SE
elpd_loo	-141.7	7.2
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Latent hierarchical linear

```
> loo( fit4 )
```

	Estimate	SE
elpd_loo	-184.3	17.3
p_loo	23.8	5.7


```
> loo_compare(loo( fit4 ), loo( fit6 ))
```

	elpd_diff	se_diff
fit6	0.0	0.0
fit4	-42.6	14.3

LOO difference uncertainty estimate (SE) reliability

1. The models make very similar predictions
2. The models are misspecified with outliers in the data
3. The number of observations is small

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 - model checking and model extension to avoid misspecified models (Bayesian workflow)
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 - model checking and model extension to avoid misspecified models (Bayesian workflow)
3. The number of observations is small
 - in nested case the skewness favors the simpler model
 - any inference with small n is difficult
 - if $|\text{elpd_loo}| > 4$, model is well specified, and $n > 100$ then the normal approximation is good

Log score and elpd_loo

- Log score is not easily interpretable
- but is information theoretically good utility for the goodness of the whole distribution
- and thus is useful in model comparison

Log score and elpd_loo

- Interpretation in discrete case
 - log probability

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 - $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \exp(\text{elpd}_{\text{loo},n}) \approx 4\%$ probability that we predict the observed value
 - compare to guessing uniformly from the data range [121,310] having $1/(310 - 121 + 1) \approx 0.5\%$ probability

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Log score and elpd_loo

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 - $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \exp(\text{elpd}_{\text{loo},n}) \approx 4\%$ probability that we predict the observed value
 - compare to guessing uniformly from the data range [121,310] having $1/(310 - 121 + 1) \approx 0.5\%$ probability (log score -210)
- Interpretation in continuous case
 - can be compared to a simple reference distribution

Student retention – loo computation

PSIS-LOO

```
> fit4 <- add_criterion(fit4, 'loo')
```

Pareto k diagnostic values:

		Count	Pct.	Min. n_eff
(-Inf, 0.5]	(good)	28	70.0%	399
(0.5, 0.7]	(ok)	7	17.5%	77
(0.7, 1]	(bad)	4	10.0%	46
(1, Inf)	(very bad)	1	2.5%	49

PSIS-LOO + moment matching

```
> ... (fit4, 'loo', moment_match=TRUE, reloo=TRUE, overwrite=TRUE)
```

Pareto k diagnostic values:

		Count	Pct.	Min. n_eff
(-Inf, 0.5]	(good)	30	75.0%	165
(0.5, 0.7]	(ok)	10	25.0%	77
(0.7, 1]	(bad)	0	0.0%	<NA>
(1, Inf)	(very bad)	0	0.0%	<NA>

Paananen, Piironen, Bürkner, and Vehtari (2021). Implicitly adaptive importance sampling. *Statistics and Computing*, 31, 16.

Student retention – loo computation

PSIS-LOO

```
> fit6 <- add_criterion(fit6 , 'loo ')
```

Pareto k diagnostic values:

		Count	Pct.	Min.	n_eff
(- Inf , 0.5]	(good)	34	85.0%	558	
(0.5 , 0.7]	(ok)	5	12.5%	226	
(0.7 , 1]	(bad)	1	2.5%	215	
(1 , Inf)	(very bad)	0	0.0%	<NA>	

PSIS-LOO + moment matching

```
> ... ( fit6 , 'loo ' , moment_match=TRUE, overwrite=TRUE)
```

Pareto k diagnostic values:

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looic?

```
> loo(fit6)
```

Computed from 4000 by 40 log-likelihood matrix

	Estimate	SE
elpd_loo	-141.7	7.2
p_loo	10.9	2.5
looic	283.4	14.4

Monte Carlo SE of elpd_loo is 0.1.

- loo output shows also looic
- for historical non-Bayesian reasons it's $-2 * \text{elpd_loo}$
 - connection to deviance and information criteria
 - you can just ignore it

Information criteria

Information criteria estimate predictive performance, too

- AIC uses maximum likelihood estimate for prediction

Vehtari & Ojanen (2012). A survey of Bayesian predictive methods for model assessment, selection and comparison. *Statistics Surveys*, 6:142-228.

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- AIC uses maximum likelihood estimate for prediction
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- TIC, NIC, RIC, PIC, BPIC, QIC, AICc, ...
- WAIC is the only Bayesian information criterion

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WAIC vs PSIS-LOO

- WAIC has the same target and assumptions as LOO

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WAIC vs PSIS-LOO

- WAIC has the same target and assumptions as LOO
- PSIS-LOO is more accurate

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- PSIS-LOO has much better diagnostics

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- Multiplying by -2 doesn't give any benefit (Watanabe didn't multiply by -2)

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Marginal likelihood and Bayes factor

Bayes Factor $\frac{p(y|M_1)}{p(y|M_2)}$

Marginal likelihood $p(y|M_1) = \int p(y|\theta, M_1)p(\theta|M_1)d\theta$

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Marginal likelihood with chain rule:

$$p(y|M_1) = p(y_1|M_1)p(y_2|y_1, M_1), \dots, p(y_n|y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}, M_1)$$

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Marginal likelihood and Bayes factor

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where

$$p(y_1|M_1) = \int p(y_1|\theta, M_1)p(\theta|M_1)d\theta$$

$$p(y_2|y_1, M_1) = \int p(y_2|\theta, M_1)p(\theta|y_1, M_1)d\theta$$

...

$$p(y_n|y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}, M_1) = \int p(y_n|\theta, M_1)p(\theta|y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}, M_1)d\theta$$

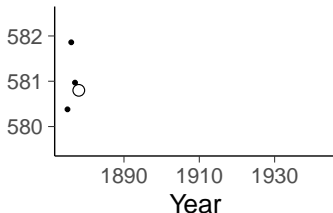
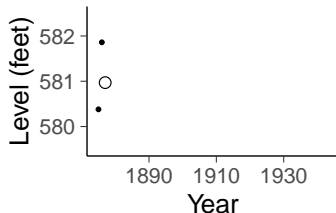
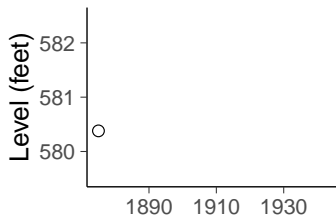
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Marginal likelihood / Bayes factor

- Like leave-future-out 1-step-ahead cross-validation but starting with 0 observations

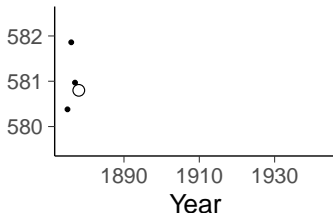
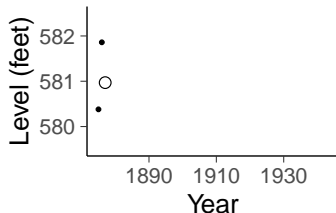
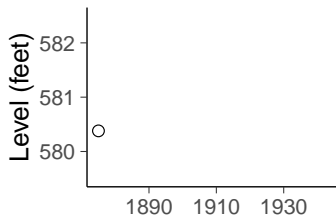
Marginal likelihood / Bayes factor

- Like leave-future-out 1-step-ahead cross-validation but starting with 0 observations



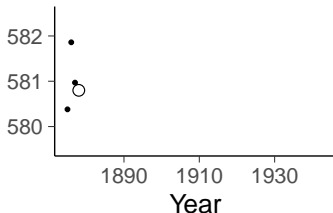
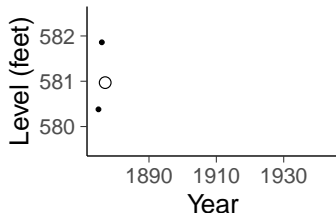
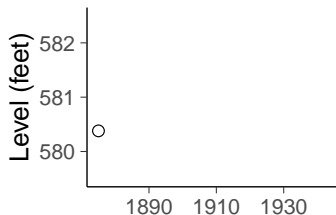
Marginal likelihood / Bayes factor

- Like leave-future-out 1-step-ahead cross-validation but starting with 0 observations
 - which makes it very sensitive to prior



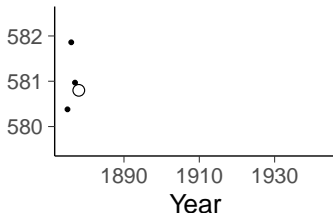
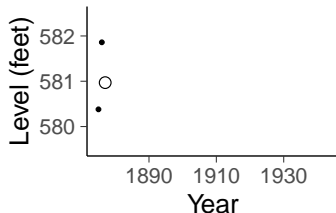
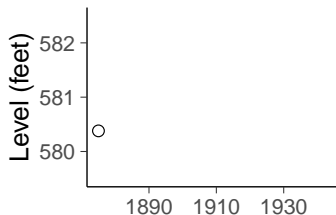
Marginal likelihood / Bayes factor

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Marginal likelihood / Bayes factor

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 - which makes it very sensitive to prior and
 - unstable in case of misspecified models also asymptotically
- Oelrich, Ding, Magnusson, Vehtari, and Villani (2020). When are Bayesian model probabilities overconfident?
arXiv:2003.04026.

Predictive model selection

- Student retention
 - latent hierarchical linear vs.
 - latent hierarchical linear + spline

is a good example where predictive model selection is useful

Sometimes cross-validation is not needed

- In a simple nested case, often easier and more accurate to analyze posterior distribution of more complex model directly

- instead of comparing

- Model 1: $y \sim \text{normal}(\alpha, \sigma)$

- vs

- Model 2: $y \sim \text{normal}(\alpha + \beta x, \sigma)$

- look at the posterior of β directly

Beta blockers

- An experiment was performed to estimate the effect of beta-blockers on mortality of cardiac patients
- A group of patients were randomly assigned to treatment and control groups:
 - out of 674 patients receiving the control, 39 died
 - out of 680 receiving the treatment, 22 died

Beta blockers

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 - out of 680 receiving the treatment, 22 died

```
d_bin2 <- data.frame(N = c(674, 680),  
                     y = c(39,22),  
                     grp2 = c(0,1))
```

```
fitb1 <- brm(y | trials(N) ~ 1,  
             family = binomial(),  
             data = d_bin2)
```

```
fitb2 <- brm(y | trials(N) ~ 1 + grp2,  
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Beta blockers

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```
d_bin2b <- data.frame(y = c(rep(1,39), rep(0,674-39),  
                             rep(1,22), rep(0,680-22)),  
                      grp2 = c(rep(0, 674), rep(1, 680)))
```

```
fitb1 <- brm(y ~ 1, family = bernoulli(), data = d_bin2b)
```

```
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```

Beta blockers

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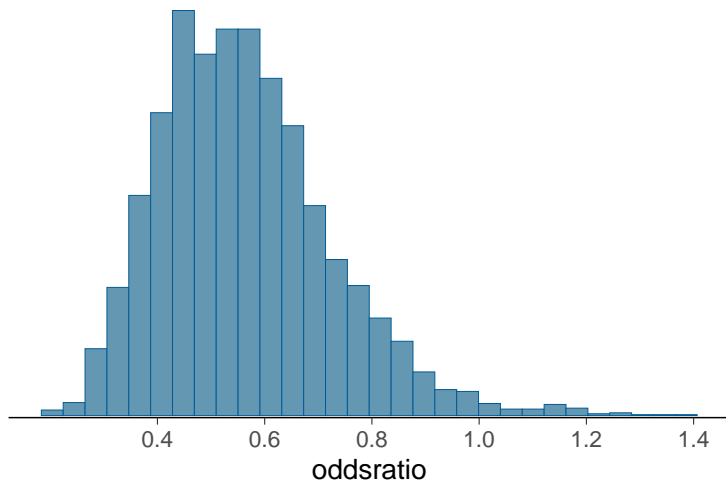
```
fitb2 <- brm(y ~ 1 + grp2, family = bernoulli(), data = d_bin2b)
```

```
> loo_compare(loo(fitb1), loo(fitb2))
```

	elpd_diff	se_diff
fitb2	0.0	0.0
fitb1	-1.6	2.3

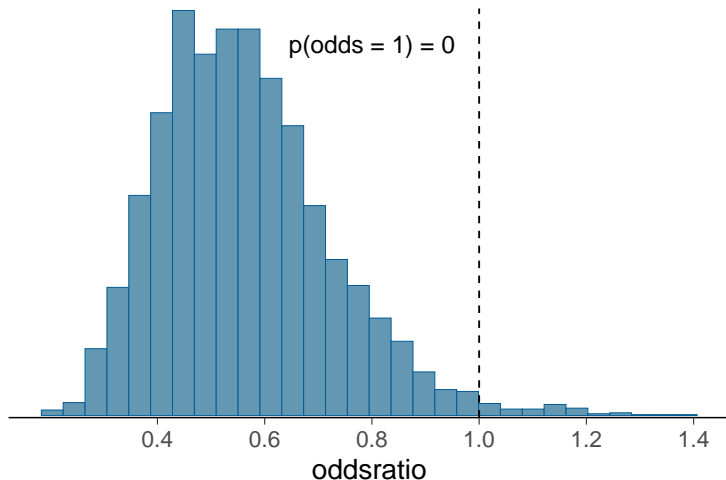
Bayesian inference

- Instead of model selection, report full posterior and
 - compare to expert information
 - combine with utility/cost function



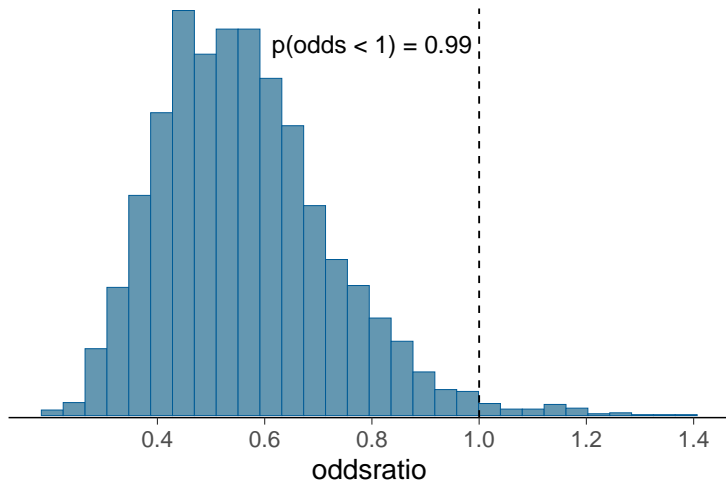
Bayesian inference

- Instead of model selection, report full posterior
 - for continuous posterior there is zero probability that e.g. treatment effect is exactly zero



Bayesian inference

- Instead of model selection, report full posterior
 - for continuous posterior we could report the probability that we know the sign of the effect

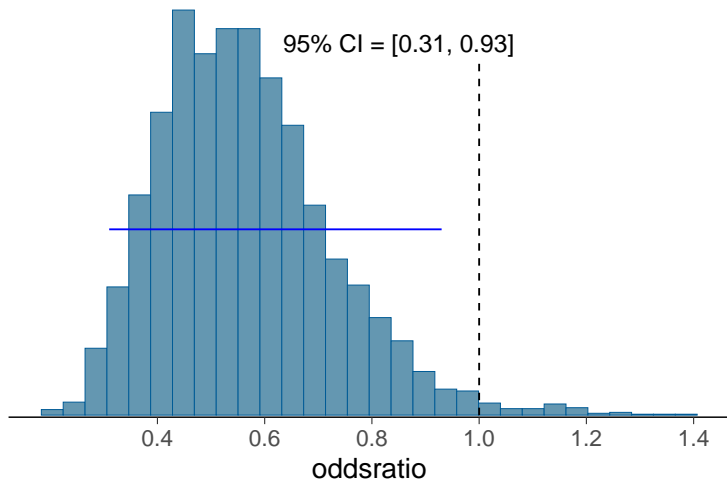


Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Sometimes people want to make a dichotomous choice
 - model selection
 - hypothesis testing

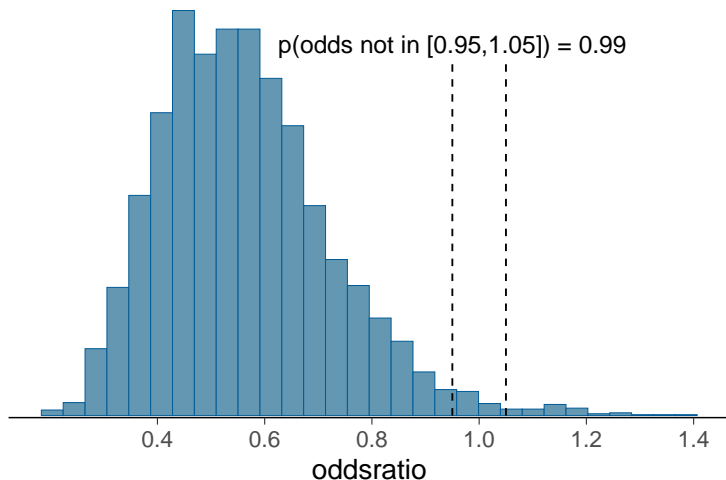
Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Instead of model selection, report full posterior and
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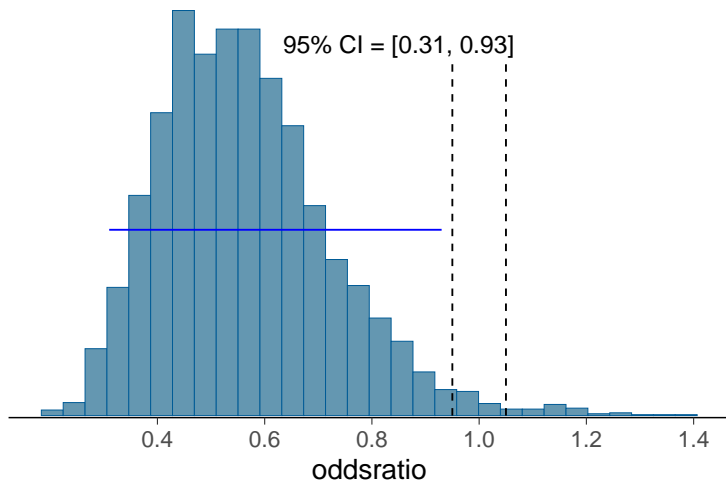
Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Equivalence testing (region of practical equivalence)
 - what is the probability that the effect is closer than ϵ to null, where ϵ is based on what is practically useful effect size



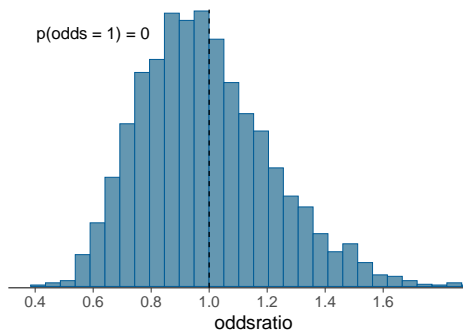
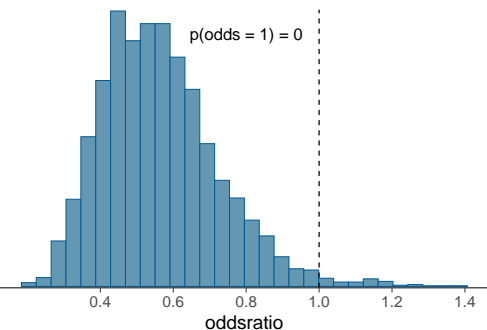
Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Equivalence testing (region of practical equivalence)
 - some people combine posterior interval and region of practical equivalence



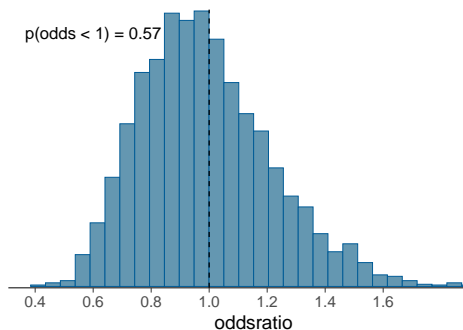
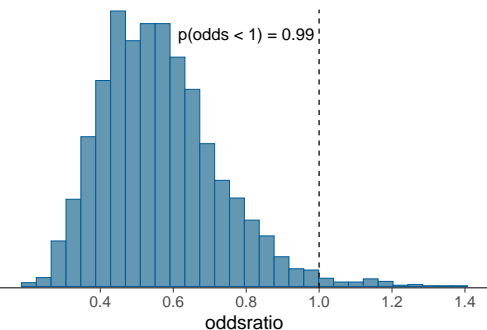
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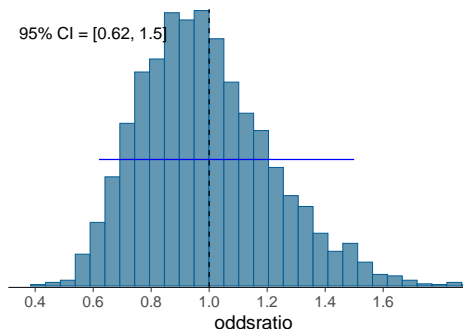
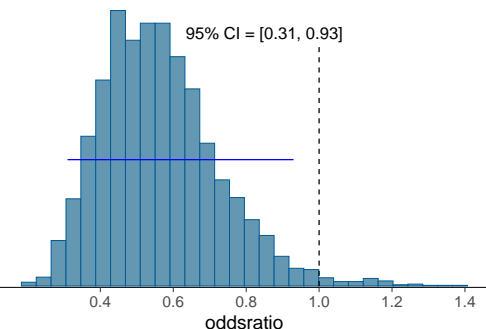
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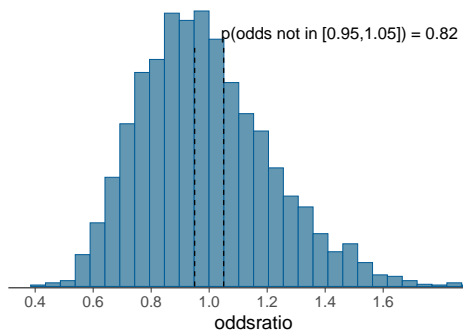
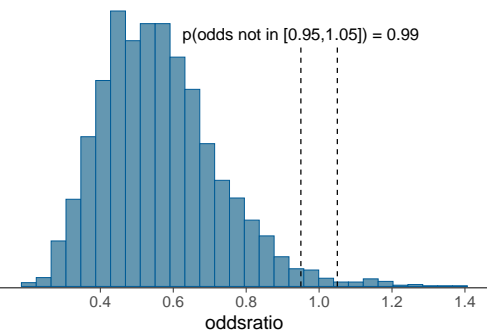
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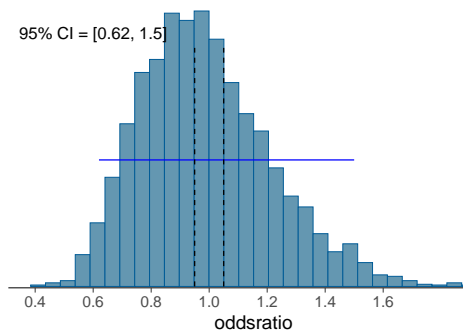
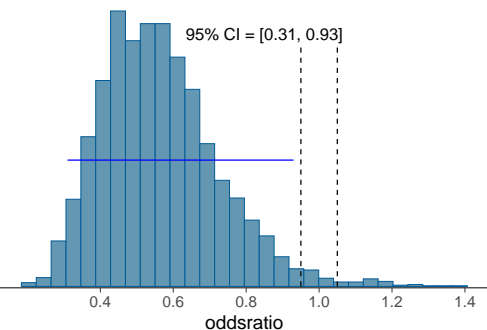
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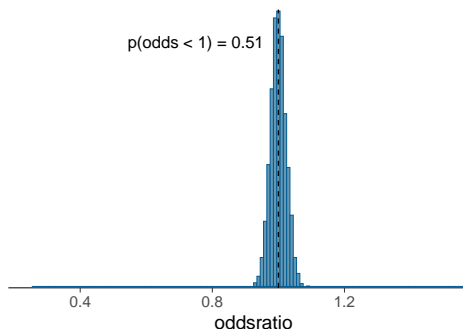
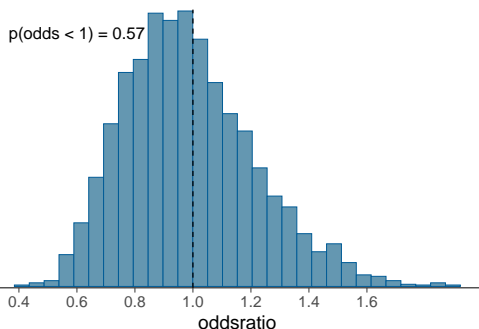


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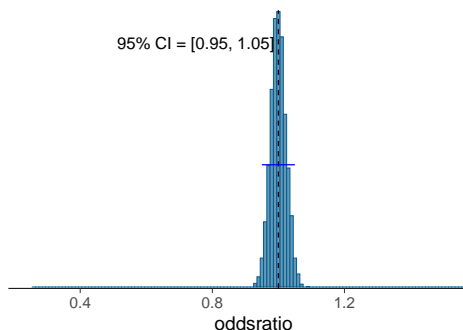
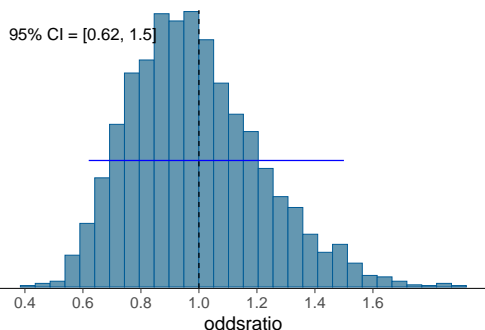
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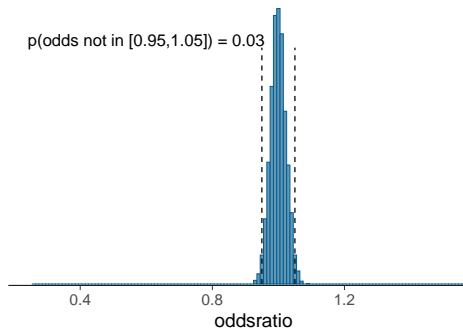
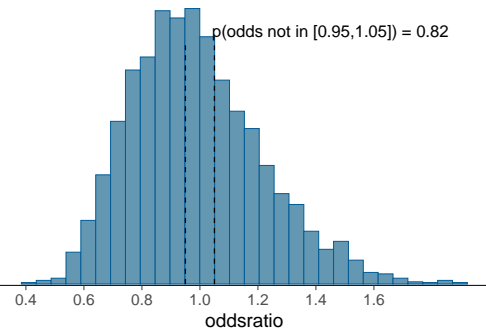
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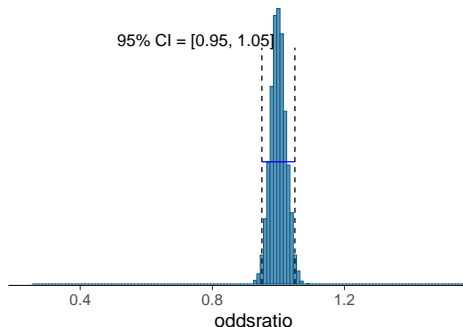
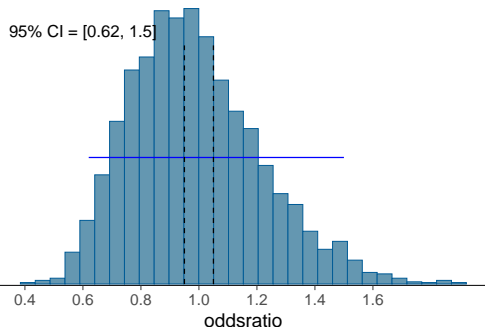
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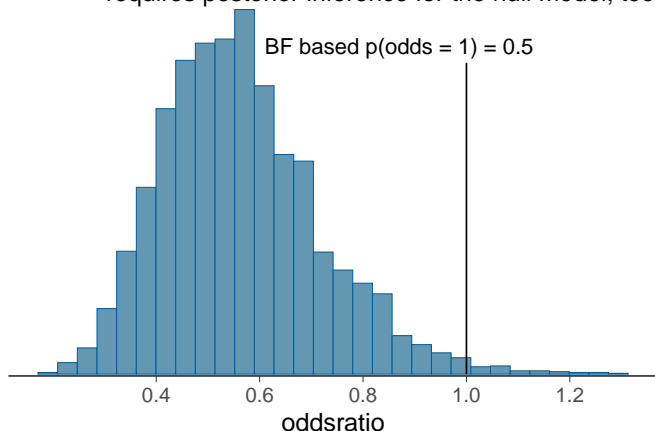
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Bayesian hypothesis testing

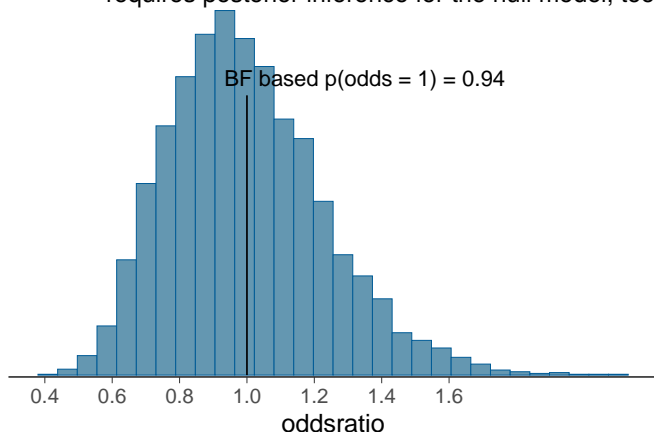
- Bayes factor
 - null model has, e.g., the treatment effect fixed to 0
 - assumes that there is non-zero probability that the treatment effect can be exactly zero (point mass)
 - requires posterior inference for the null model, too



with `bridgesampling` package, see also BDA3 13.10

Bayesian hypothesis testing

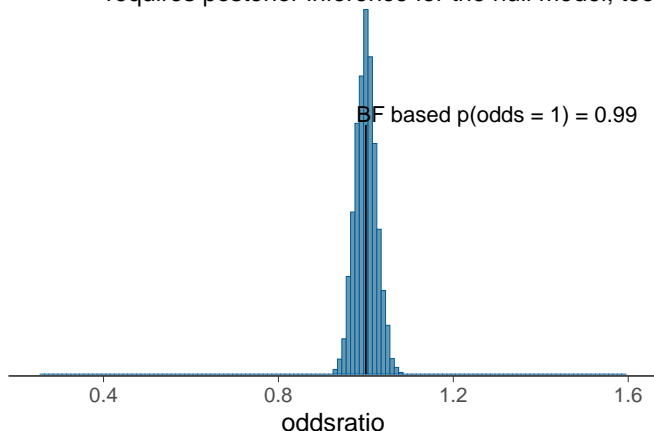
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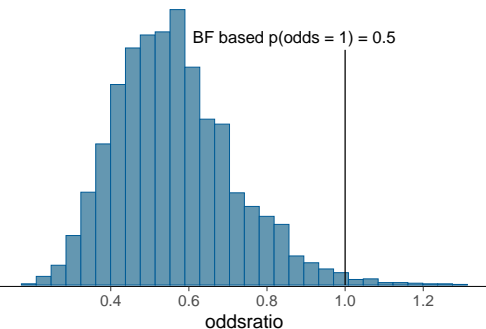


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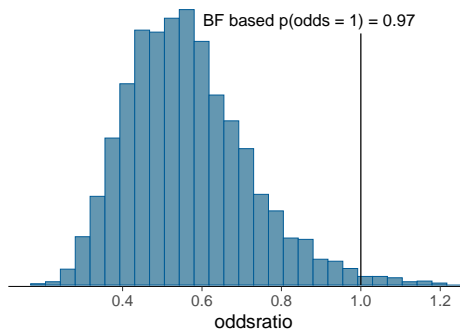
Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Bayes factor
 - sensitive to the prior choice even when the posterior is not

normal(0,3.5)



normal(0,100)



with `bridgesampling` package, see also BDA3 13.10

Bayesian hypothesis testing

- Predictive performance
 - is there difference in predictive performance with, e.g., treatment effect fixed to zero or unknown treatment effect
 - requires posterior inference for the null model or projection from the full to null
 - looking at the posterior is better if parameters are independent

Bayesian hypothesis testing

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 - is there difference in predictive performance with, e.g., treatment effect fixed to zero or unknown treatment effect
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 - looking at the posterior is better if parameters are independent

In the beta blockers example

- Leave-one-person-out works, but is less efficient than looking at the posterior (see <https://users.aalto.fi/~ave/modelselection/betablockers.html>)

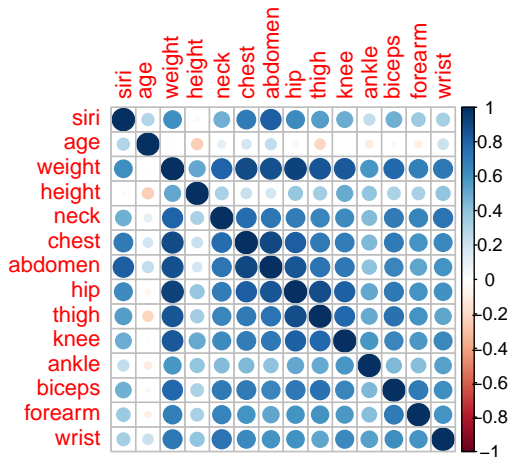
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> loo_compare(loo(fitb1), loo(fitb2))
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fitb2    0.0      0.0
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Bodyfat: many predictors

- Predict bodyfat percentage
- The reference value (siri) is obtained by immersing person in water. $n = 251$.
- Which measurements to use in the future?

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Prediction

- Goal: prediction

Prediction

- Goal: prediction
- Use all the predictors and sensible prior

Prediction

- Goal: prediction
- Use all the predictors and sensible prior
 - no model selection needed

Predictive performance based variable selection

- Goal:
 - minimize future measurement cost
 - easier explainability of the model

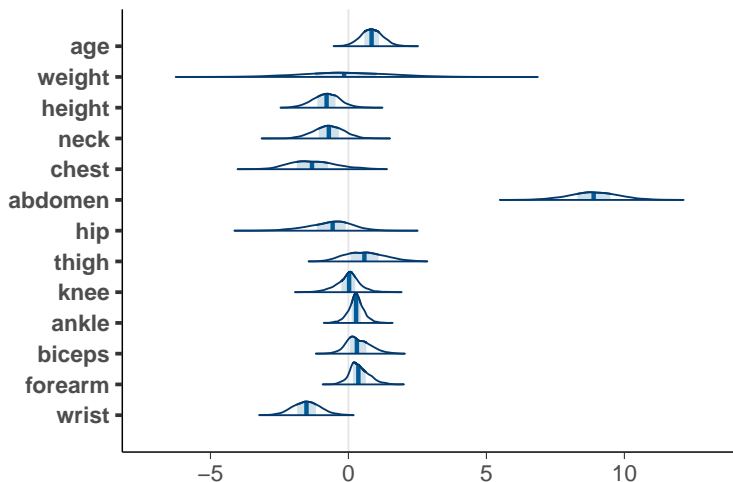
Predictive performance based variable selection

- Goal:
 - minimize future measurement cost
 - easier explainability of the model
- Select the minimal number of covariates with similar predictive performance as the full model

Hypothesis testing and posterior dependencies

Looking at the marginal posterior $p(\beta < 0)$ can be misleading when there are many parameters

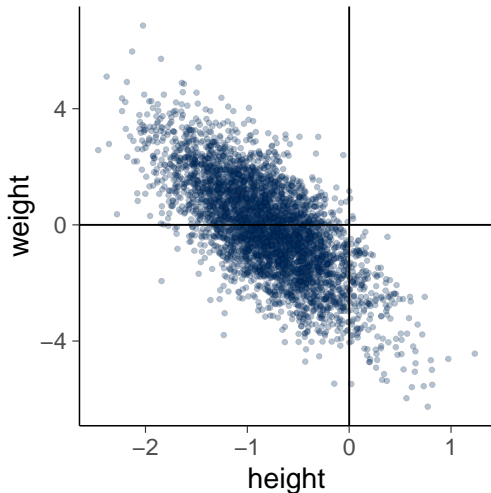
Marginal posteriors of coefficients in bodyfat example



Hypothesis testing and posterior dependencies

Looking at the marginal posterior(s) can be misleading when there are many parameters

Bivariate marginal of weight and height



Hypothesis testing and posterior dependencies

In bodyfat example, starting from full model

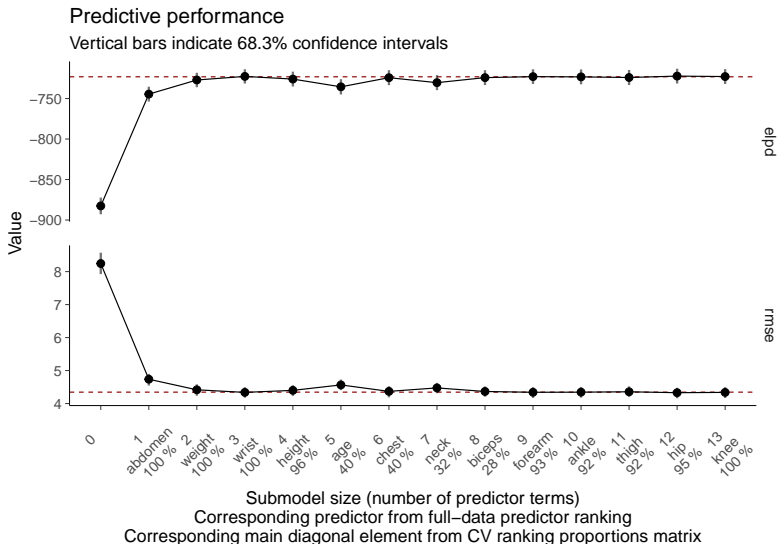
- BF in favor of removing weight ($p=0.92$)
- LOO in favor of removing weight ($p=0.99$)

In bodyfat example, starting from model $y \sim \text{abdomen}$

- BF in favor of adding weight ($p=1.0$)
- LOO in favor of adding weight ($p=1.0$)

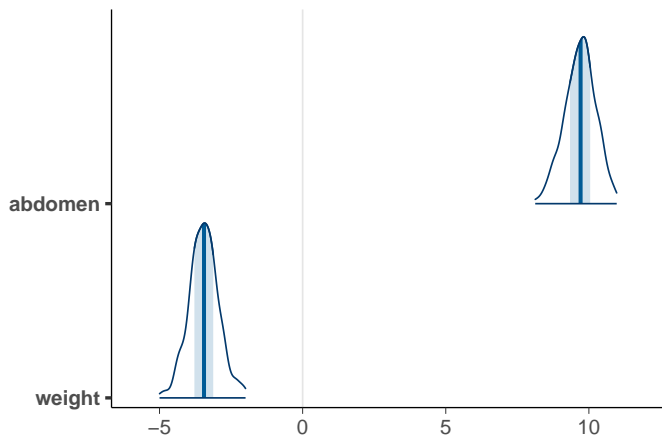
Predictive performance based variable selection

Projection predictive variable selection selects the minimal set of variables with similar predictive performance as the full model



Projected posterior

Projection predictive variable selection selects the minimal set of variables with similar predictive performance as the full model



More about projpred in the end of the course

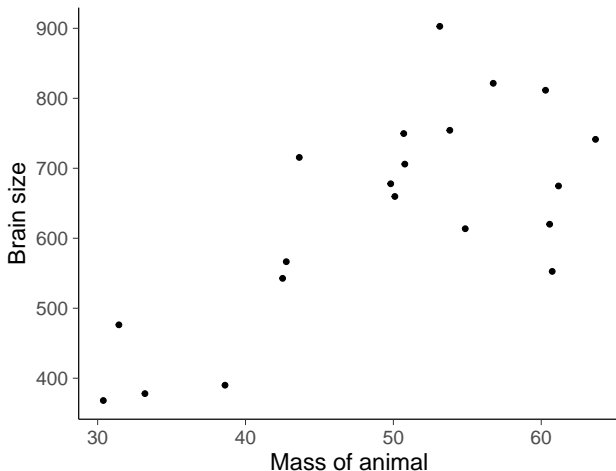
Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

- Classic example is polynomial model with increasing number of components
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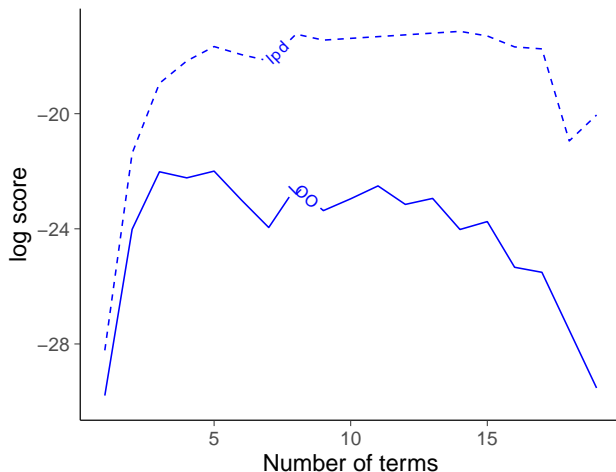
Simulated data by Richard McElreath



Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

- Classic example is polynomial model with increasing number of components
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Polynomial basis functions



Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

- Gaussian process can be used as a prior on function space
 - GP can be approximated with basis functions

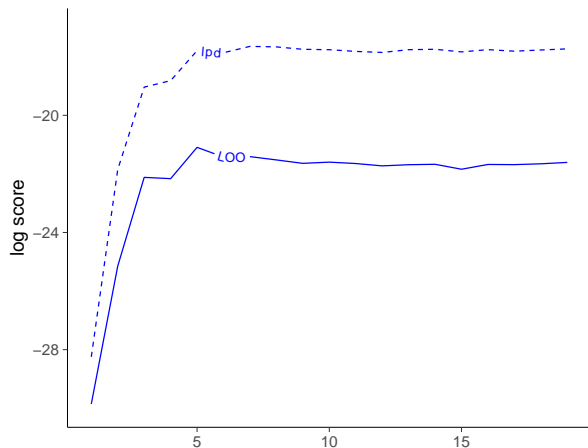
Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

- Gaussian process can be used as a prior on function space
 - GP can be approximated with basis functions
 - more basis functions makes the approximation more accurate, but doesn't inflate the prior on function space

Model is not needed to avoid overfitting

- Gaussian process can be used as a prior on function space
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GP basis functions

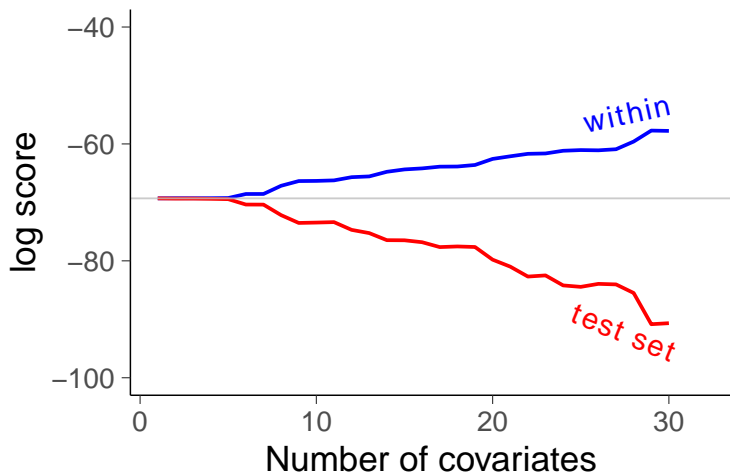


Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

logistic regression: 30 **completely irrelevant** variables,
100 observations

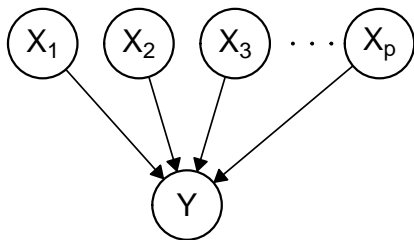
Model selection needed to avoid overfitting?

logistic regression: 30 **completely irrelevant** variables,
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Prior on parameters vs predictions

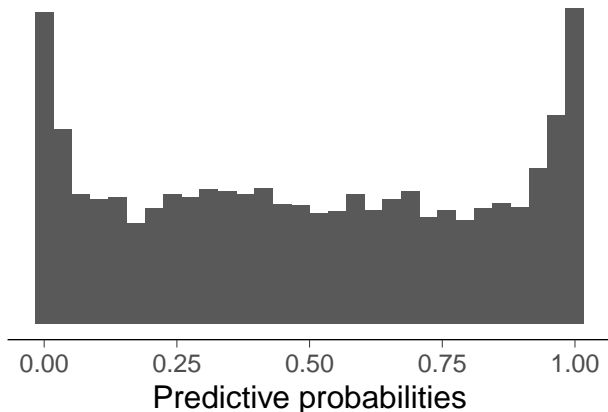
$N(0,3)$ prior on each coefficient



Prior on parameters vs predictions

$N(0,3)$ prior on each coefficient

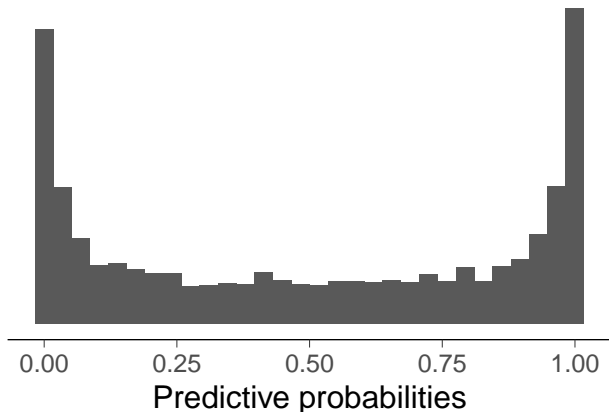
1 variable



Prior on parameters vs predictions

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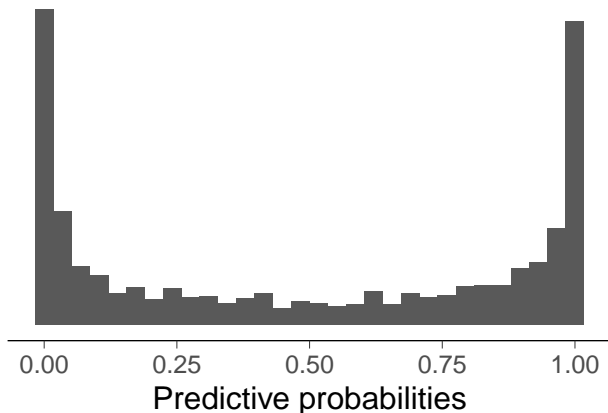
2 variables



Prior on parameters vs predictions

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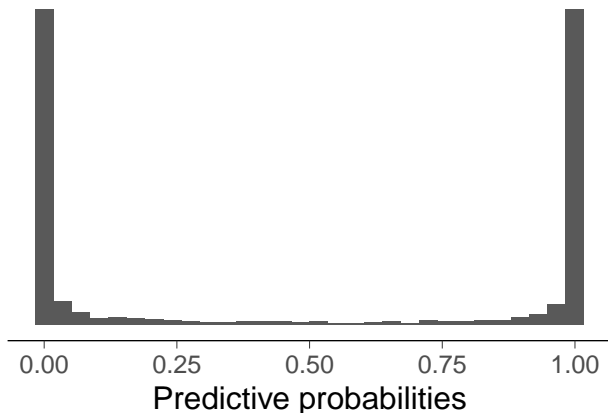
3 variables



Prior on parameters vs predictions

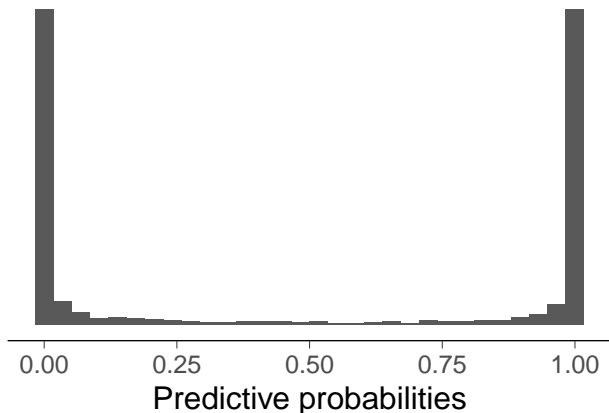
$N(0,3)$ prior on each coefficient

30 variables



Prior on parameters vs predictions

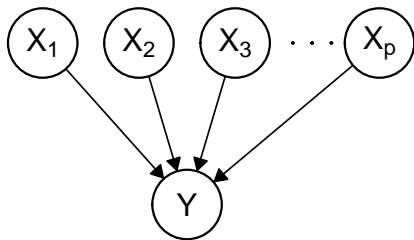
$N(0,3)$ prior on each coefficient
30 variables



A weak prior on parameters can be a strong prior on predictions that favors overfitting

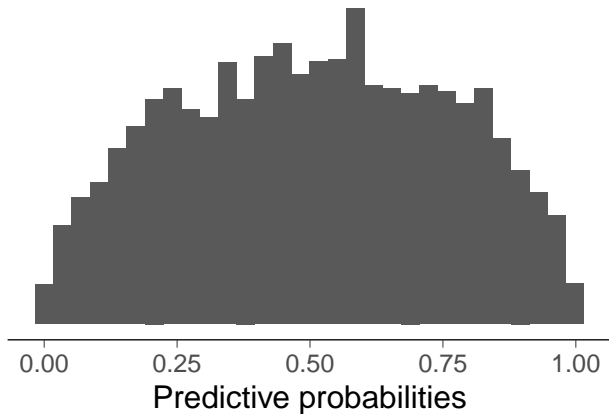
Better priors

$N(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}})$ prior on each coefficient



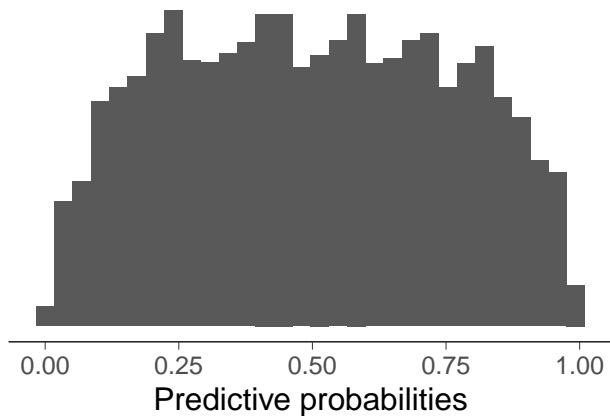
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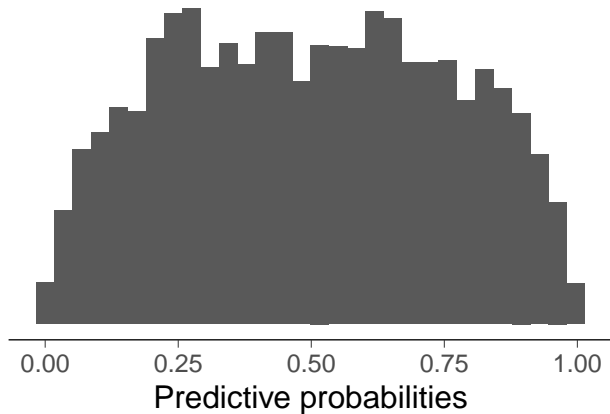
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2 variables



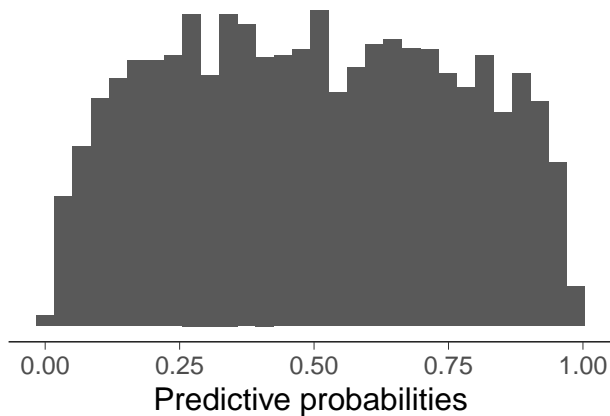
Better priors

$N(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}})$ prior on each coefficient
3 variables



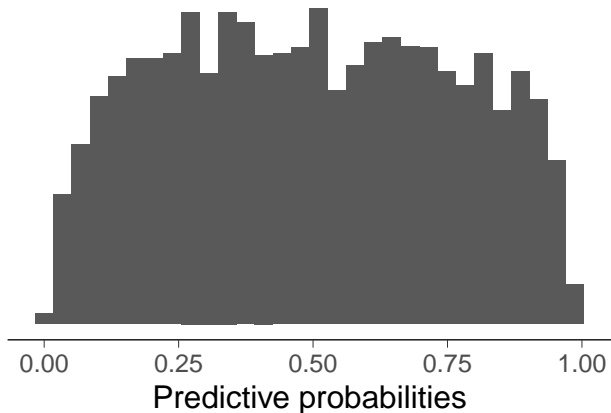
Better priors

$N(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}})$ prior on each coefficient
30 variables



Better priors

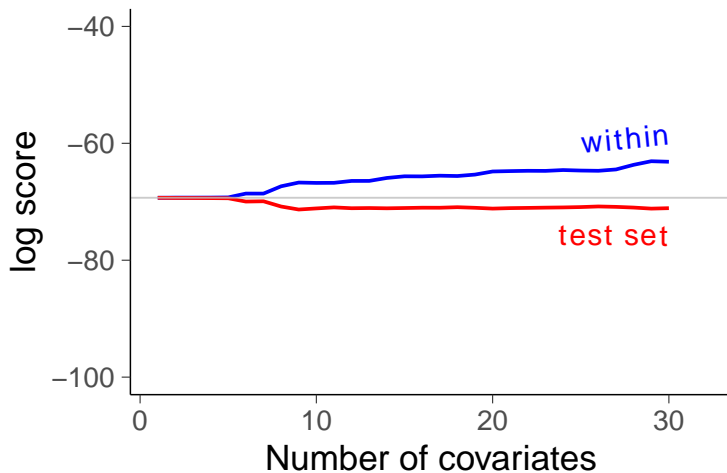
$N(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}})$ prior on each coefficient
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Prior on predictions (almost) fixed when the model gets bigger

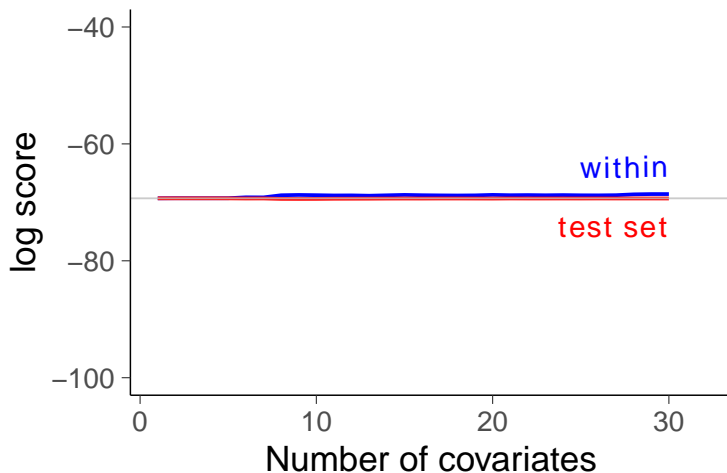
Better priors, no overfitting

logistic regression: 30 **completely irrelevant** variables,
100 observations, $N(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}})$ prior



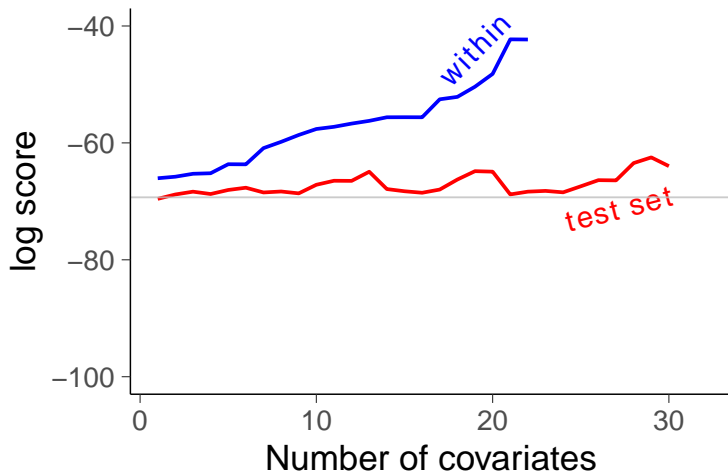
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logistic regression: 30 **completely irrelevant** variables,
100 observations, regularized horseshoe prior



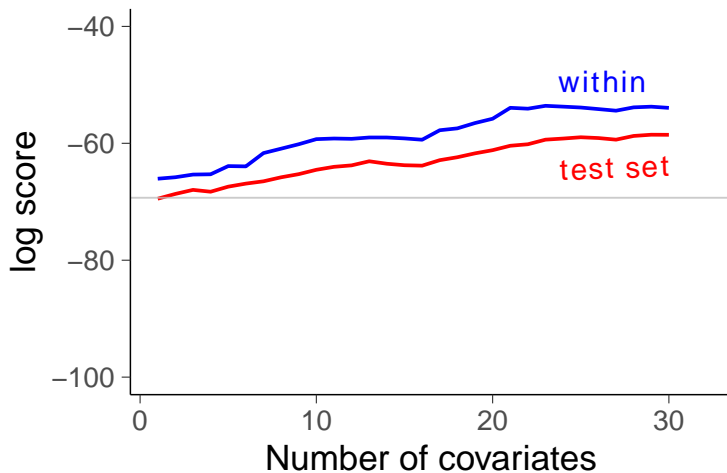
Many weak effects, wide prior on parameters

logistic regression: 30 **weakly relevant** variables,
100 observations, $N(0,3)$ prior



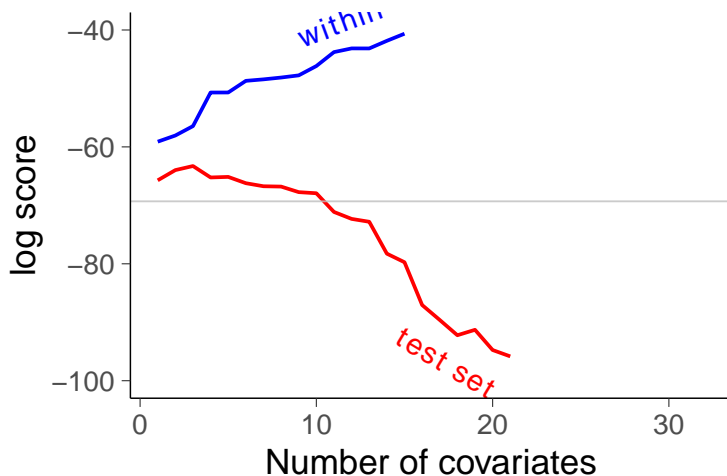
Many weak effects, better prior

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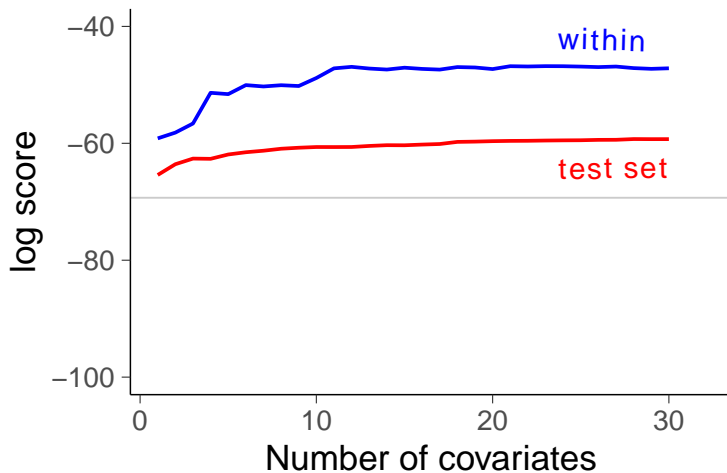
Correlating variables, wide prior on parameters

logistic regression: 30 **correlating relevant** variables,
100 observations, $N(0,3)$ prior



Correlating variables, better prior

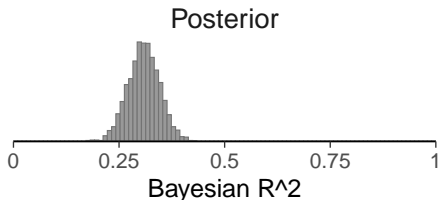
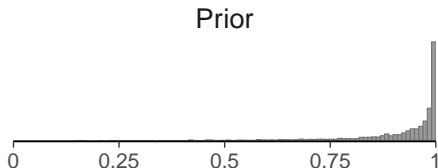
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Implied prior on R^2

Regression and Other Stories, Section 12.7 Models for regression coefficients:

Wide prior on coefficients favors overfitting

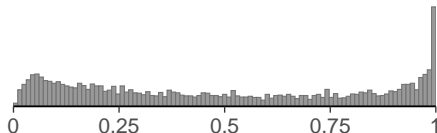


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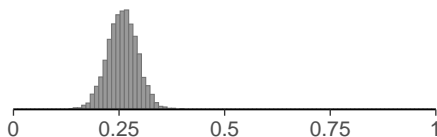
Regression and Other Stories, Section 12.7 Models for regression coefficients:

Scaled prior on coefficients

Prior



Posterior



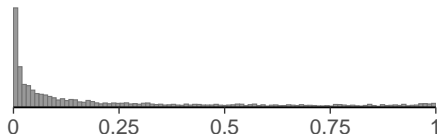
Bayesian R^2

Implied prior on R^2

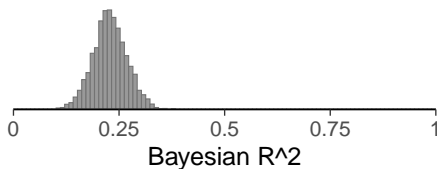
Regression and Other Stories, Section 12.7 Models for regression coefficients:

Regularized horseshoe prior on coefficients

Prior



Posterior



Better priors

For example:

- scaled: many weak effects
- regularized horseshoe, R2-D2: only some relevant
- R2-D2: defined directly for R^2
- PCA-type: highly correlating variables

$$p \gg n$$

- With good priors, possible to have more variables than observations
- e.g. $p = 22283$, $n = 85$ demonstrated by Piironen, Paasiniemi, Vehtari (2020)

Variable selection

Variable selection

1. is not needed to avoid overfitting
2. can be used to reduce costs and improve explainability

Model selection can overfit

- Selection induced bias in cross-validation
 - same data is used to assess the performance and make the selection
 - the selected model fits more to the data
 - the CV estimate for the selected model is biased
 - recognized already, e.g., by Stone (1974)

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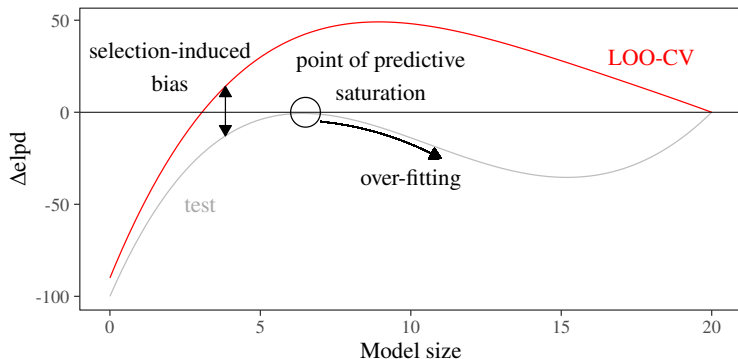
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- Performance of the selection process itself can be assessed using two level cross-validation, but it does not help choosing better models
- Bigger problem if there is a large number of models as in covariate selection

Model selection can overfit

- Variable selection with forward selection
 - start with null model
 - add the variable improving the predictive performance most
 - add the next variable improving... and so on

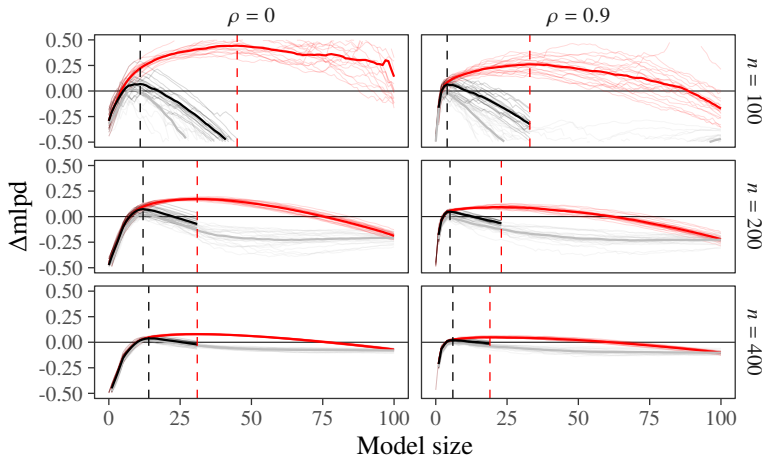
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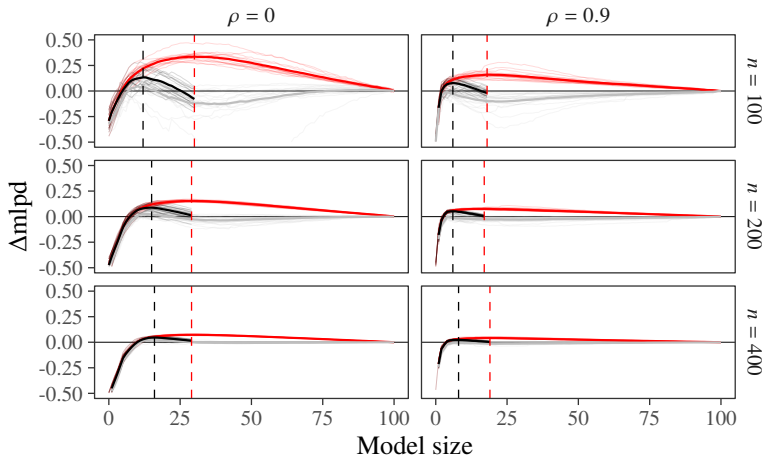
Model selection can overfit

Wide normal prior



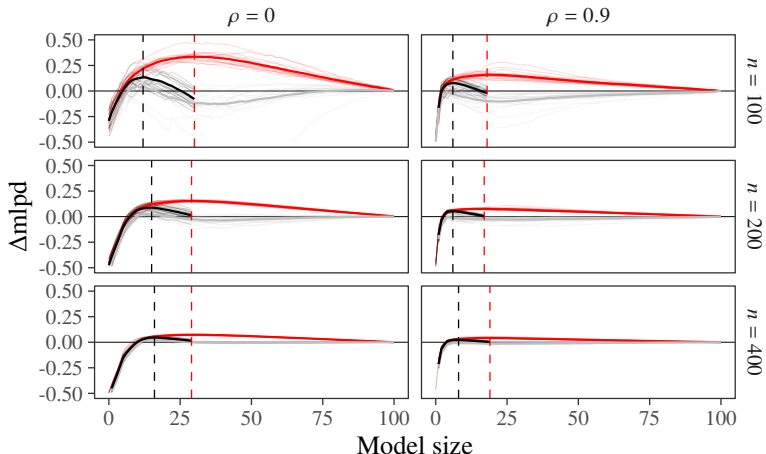
Model selection can overfit

R2D2 prior reduces overfit in model selection



Model selection can overfit

R2D2 prior reduces overfit in model selection



Reminder: variable selection is not needed with good priors to get good predictive performance, but may be useful for other purposes

Model averaging

- Prefer continuous model expansion

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- If needed integrate over the model space = model averaging
- Bayesian model averaging is just the usual integration over unknowns
- Bayesian stacking may work better than BMA in case of misspecified models or small data
 - Yao, Vehtari, Simpson, and Gelman (2018). Using stacking to average Bayesian predictive distributions (with discussion). *Bayesian Analysis*, 13(3):917-1003

Cross-validation and model selection

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 - small number of models
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 - small number of models
 - the difference between models is clear
- Be careful if using cross-validation to choose from a large set of models
 - selection process can lead to severe overfitting
- Overfitting in selection process is not unique for cross-validation

Take-home messages

- It's good to think predictions of observables, because observables are the only ones we can observe
- Cross-validation can simulate predicting and observing new data
- Cross-validation is good if you don't trust your model
- Different variants of cross-validation are useful in different scenarios
- Cross-validation has high variance, and **if** you trust your model you can beat cross-validation in accuracy

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