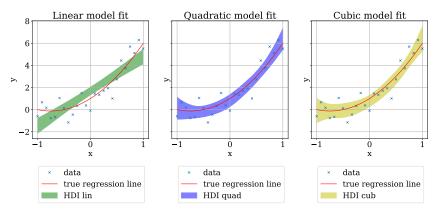
Bayesian model selection

Seminar physics 760 – Computational Physics



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Introduction



Bayes' Theorem – a quick reminder

$$\operatorname{prob}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|y) = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|y) = \frac{p(y|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \cdot p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{p(y)}$$

with

- ightharpoonup posterior $p(\theta|y)$
- ightharpoonup likelihood $p(y|\theta)$
- ightharpoonup prior $p(\theta)$
- ► marginal likelihood $p(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\theta p(y|\theta) p(\theta)$

This can be used for $model\ selection\ (?)$

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Parameter estimation



JAN and MARIUS already talked about this, so here we only sketch the basics again

marginal posterior
$$p(\theta_i|y, M) = \int p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|y, M) \prod_{j \neq i} d\theta_j$$
 (1)

best fit value(s)
$$p(\theta|y, M) = \max \Leftrightarrow \theta = \hat{\theta}$$

 $\langle \theta \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\theta p(\theta|y, M) \cdot \theta$ (2)

[Sivia and Skilling 2006]

Model comparison



Bayes factor

$$p(M_i|y) = \frac{p(M_i) \cdot p(y|M_i)}{p(y)}. \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{ij} &:= \underbrace{\frac{p(M_i|y)}{p(M_j|y)}}_{\text{posterior odds}} \\
&= \underbrace{\frac{p(y|M_i)}{p(y|M_j)}}_{\text{BAYES Factor prior odds}} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{p(M_i)}{p(M_j)}}_{\text{prior odds}} \\
&= B_{ij} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{p(M_i)}{M_j}}_{\text{prior odds}}.
\end{aligned}$$
(4)

How do we turn BAYES' theorem into a tool for model comparison?

| $ \ln B_{ij} $ | Odds | Strength of evidence |
|----------------|----------------|----------------------|
| < 1.0 | $\lesssim 3:1$ | Inconclusive |
| 1.0 | ~ 3:1 | Weak evidence |
| 2.5 | $\sim 12:1$ | Moderate evidence |
| 5.0 | $\sim 150:1$ | Strong evidence |

Table 1: Empirical scale for evaluating the strength of evidence when comparing two models M_i vs. M_j , adapted from [Trotta 2008]

[Trotta 2008]

Model comparison



Bayesian complexity

$$C_b = -2 \int d\theta p(\theta|y, M) \log(\mathcal{L}(\theta)) + 2 \log(\mathcal{L}(\tilde{\theta})), \tag{5}$$

$$C_b = \overline{\chi^2(\boldsymbol{\theta})} - \chi^2(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}), \tag{6}$$

- ▶ describes how many model parameters the data is able to constrain
- ▶ is a useful tool for examining models with an increasing number of parameters [Kunz, Trotta and Parkinson 2006]



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Monte-Carlo-Sampling



Benefits of Monte-Carlo-Sampling

$$\langle \boldsymbol{\theta} \rangle \approx \int p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|y) \boldsymbol{\theta} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}, \quad (7)$$

$$\langle f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \rangle \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} f(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}).$$
 (8)

also, marginal posterior distributions are obtained trivially by binning values of θ_i ignoring $\theta_{i\neq i}$ [Trotta 2008]





Figure 1: ArviZ [ArviZ: Exploratory analysis of Bayesian models — ArviZ dev documentation 2021] and PyMC3 [PyMC3 Documentation — PyMC3 3.10.0 documentation 2021]

Monte-Carlo-Sampling



But how exactly do we get samples $\theta^{(t)}$?

Sequential Monte Carlo (SMC)

First let us introduce an auxiliary temperature parameter $\beta \in [0,1]$ and write

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|y)_{\beta} = \frac{p(y|\boldsymbol{\theta})^{\beta} \cdot p(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{Z_{\beta}},$$

with $Z_{\beta} = \int d\boldsymbol{\theta} p(y|\boldsymbol{\theta})^{\beta} \cdot p(\boldsymbol{\theta}).$

Main idea: gradually sample from simple distribution ($\beta=0$) to complex/true distribution ($\beta=1$) using Metropolis-Hastings

SMC then allows us to estimate the marginal likelihood as

$$\hat{p}(y) = \prod_{i} \widehat{\frac{Z_{\beta_i}}{Z_{\beta_{i-1}}}}.$$
(9)

[Gunawan et al. 2020; PyMC3 Documentation — Sequential Monte Carlo 2021]

SAVAGE-DICKEY-Density-Ratio (SDDR)



consider model M_j with free parameters ω, ψ and a submodel M_i with one free parameter ψ and fixed $\omega = \omega_{\star}$. Let us further assume separable priors

$$p(\omega, \psi|M_j) = p(\omega|M_j)p(\psi|M_i).$$

We can then write the BAYES factor as

Savage Dickey-Density-Ratio

$$B_{ij} = B_{ji}^{-1} = \frac{p(\omega|y, M_j)}{p(\omega|M_j)} \Big|_{\omega = \omega_*} (SDDR).$$
 (10)

[Trotta 2007]



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- remember the flipping of a biased coin from the lecture
- ▶ we want to verify that the coin is biased by using the BAYES factor
- ▶ two models: M_1 assumes a fair coin, M_2 assumes biased coin

Posterior of the coin flip problem

$$p(\theta|y, M_i) = \frac{p(y|\theta, M_i) \cdot p(\theta|M_i)}{p(y|M_i)}$$
(11)

to get $p(y|M_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\theta p(y|\theta, M_i) p(\theta|M_i)$ we need to specify a prior $p(\theta|M_i)$ and a likelihood $p(y|\theta, M_i)$



Choosing a prior

$$f(\theta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}$$
$$:= \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \theta^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta - 1}.$$

[PyMC3 Documentation - Bayes Factors and Marginal Likelihood 2021]

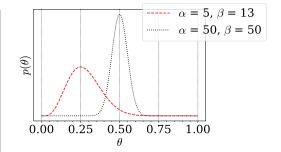


Figure 2: Beta-distribution as $prior\ p(\theta|M_i)$ for the two different models



Choosing a likelihood

Since we can assume i.i.d. outcomes of the coin flip a natural choice is a Binomial distribution. If we observe k heads out of N coin throws (y = (N, k))

$$p(y|\theta, M_i) = \binom{N}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{N-k}.$$

We simulated data for N = 50 and the biased coin with p(H) = 0.25.



Finally computing the BAYES factor

$$p(y|M_i) \propto \int_0^1 d\theta \frac{1}{B(\alpha,\beta)} \cdot \theta^{\alpha+k-1} \cdot (1-\theta)^{N-k+\beta-1} = \frac{B(\alpha+k,\beta+N-k)}{B(\alpha,\beta)}$$

$$\Rightarrow B_{21} = B_{12}^{-1} = \frac{B(\alpha_2+k,\beta_2+N-k) \cdot B(\alpha_1,\beta_1)}{B(\alpha_1+k,\beta_1+N-k) \cdot B(\alpha_2,\beta_2)} = 9.5839$$

Can we reproduce this numerically?

[PyMC3 Documentation – Bayes Factors and Marginal Likelihood 2021]



let us obtain 2000 samples from the posterior distribution using the same *likelihood* and *priors* via the SMC algorithm provided by PyMC3

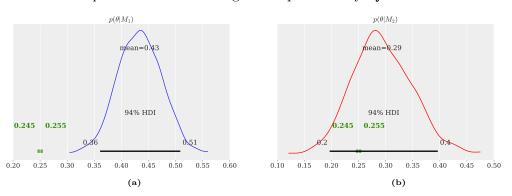


Figure 3: The marginal posterior for $\alpha = \beta = 50$ (3a) and $\alpha = 5, \beta = 13$ (3b) of 2000 samples. HDI means highest density interval. The highlighted green intervals denote the expected value.

We find
$$B_{21} = B_{12}^{-1} = 9.5829 \pm 0.4719$$
 (noice! \checkmark)



We wish to determine the true model underlying the generated data depicted in the figure below

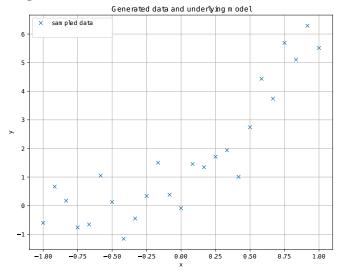


Figure 4: N=25 datapoints distributed with a gaussian noise of $\sigma=0.7$. Linear? Quadratic? Cubic?



we want to find the correct model by using

- ► Bayes factor
- ► SDDR (as sanity check)
- ► BAYESIAN complexity

We will tackle this problem numerically by sampling from the $posterior \rightarrow$ we need to assign priors and likelihoods again



a suitable choice for *prior* and *likelihood* are normal distributions, since the noise is Gaussian [Sivia and Skilling 2006].

Choosing a prior

The *priors* for the fit-parameters a,b and c are each described by a normal distribution with $\mu_{\text{prior}}=0$ and $\sigma_{\text{prior}}=2$

Choosing a likelihood

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\theta}, M_i) = \prod_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{(f(y_k; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - y_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right].$$

where $f(y_k; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is the fit function $f_i(x) = \sum_{\alpha=0}^i a_{\alpha} x^{\alpha}$, with i = 1, 2, 3

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Now lets generate 2000 samples following the *posterior*

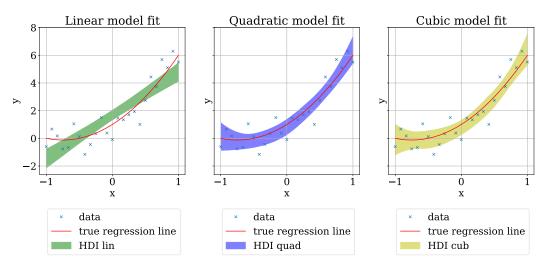


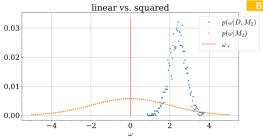
Figure 5: Result of parameter estimation with SMC. The data was generated with $\sigma = 0.7$

| Comparison M_1 vs. M_2 | $\ln(B_{12}(\sigma=0.7))$ |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| square vs. linear | 8.5507 ± 0.053 |
| cubic vs. linear | 7.6225 ± 0.094 |
| square vs. cubic | 0.9371 ± 0.1093 |

Table 2: Results of Bayes factor via SMC

| Comparison M_1 vs. M_2 | $\ln(B_{12}(\sigma=0.7))$ |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| square vs. linear | $> 2.4301 \pm 0.27613$ |
| square vs. cubic | 0.8091 ± 0.0265 |
| cubic vs. linear | $> 0.3329 \pm 0.1292$ |

Table 3: Results of BAYES factor via SDDR.



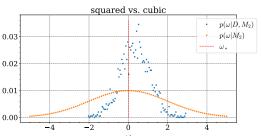


Figure 6: Computation of the SDDR ($\sigma = 0.7$)

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What about the complexity?

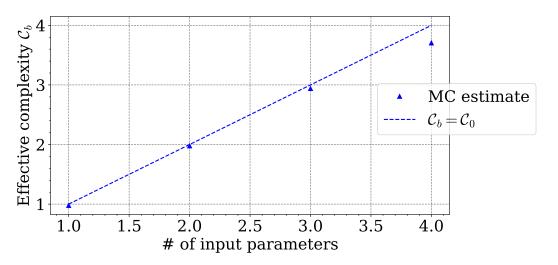
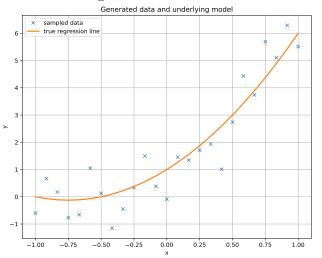


Figure 7: Numerical computation of the complexity C_b , 3 parameters are supported.



And the true regression line is...



$$f(x; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = a \cdot x^2 + b \cdot x + c$$
$$= 2 \cdot x^2 + 3 \cdot x + 1.$$
(again, nice! \checkmark)

Figure 8: True regression line

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Summary



Theory and methods

- ► Bayesian statistics provides the Bayes factor and Bayesian complexity as measures of model comparison
- ► Monte-Carlo-techniques can be used to compute both quantities

Examples

- ➤ We can say with weak to moderate confidence that the coin is biased
- ➤ We can say with weak to moderate evidence that the quadratic model is favoured over the others
- ► The Bayesian complexity diverges for dim $\theta > 3$

Outlook

► Highly scalable

▶ physics, actually



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