## The relation between cross-validation log-scores, weight of evidence, and Bayes factors

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The probability calculus tells us unequivocally how our degree of belief in a hypothesis  $H_h$  given data D and knowledge K is related to our degree of belief in observing those data when we entertain that hypothesis as true:

$$P(H_h \mid D K) = \frac{P(D \mid H_h K) P(H_h \mid K)}{\sum_h P(D \mid H_h K) P(H_h \mid K)}.$$
 (1)

This post-data degree of belief is of course conditional on the set  $\{H_h\}$  of mutually exclusive and exhaustive hypotheses under consideration (implicit in the knowledge K).

We can combine the post-data beliefs in two hypotheses in different ways to form a quantitative ideas of how much the data is giving evidence for one or the other. For example their ratio or the logarithm of their ratio, often called *weight of evidence* and *Bayes factor* (Good 1950; Osteyee et al. 1974; MacKay 1992; Kass et al. 1995; see also Jeffreys 1983 chs V, VI, A). 'It is historically interesting that the expression "weight of evidence", in its technical sense, anticipated the term "likelihood" by over forty years' (Osteyee et al. 1974 § 1.4.2 p. 12).

The literature in probability and statistics has also employed for quite some time various other ad-hoc measures to assess our beliefs in a set of hypotheses given some data. Here I consider one in particular, the *leave-one-out cross-validation log-score* (Krnjajić et al. 2011; Geisser et al. 1979; Vehtari et al. 2002; 2012; Draper et al. 2014; Piironen et al. 2017):

$$\frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \ln P(D_i \mid D_{-i} H_h K)$$
 (2)

where every  $D_i$  is one datum in the data  $D \equiv \bigwedge_i D_i$ , and  $D_{-i}$  denotes the data with datum  $D_i$  excluded. The intuition behind this measure is more or less this: 'let's see what my belief in one datum should be, on average, once I've observed the other data, if I consider  $H_h$  as true'. 'On average' means considering such belief for every single datum in turn, and then taking the geometric mean (arithmetic mean on a log scale).

This is a reasonable intuition, and the log-score (2) and post-data probability (1) often lead to qualitatively similar results in comparing two hypotheses. There are exceptions, though.

My point of view, which hinges on the logical foundations of the probability calculus (Pólya 1941; 1949; 1968; Cox 1946; Hailperin 1996; Jaynes 2003; Paris 2006; Snow 1998; Terenin et al. 2017), is that every intuitively built quantitative assessment of belief is either (1) an approximation of a formula that can be derived from the probability calculus, or (2) wrong.

I shall now show that the log-score above can be viewed as an approximation of the logarithm of the post-data probability (1); or, if you like, that the post-data probability can be seen as a refined version of the log-score.

We can obviously write

$$P(D \mid H K) \equiv \left[ \underbrace{P(D \mid H K) \times \dots \times P(D \mid H K)}_{d \text{ times}} \right]^{1/d}$$
 (3)

where we have dropped the subscript h for simplicity. By the rules of probability we have

$$P(D | H K) = P(D_i | D_{-i} H_h K) \times P(D_{-i} | H_h K)$$
(4)

and this holds no matter what specific  $i \in \{1, ..., d\}$  we choose (temporal ordering and similar matters are completely irrelevant in the formula above: it's a logical relation between propositions). So let's expand each

of the d factors in the identity (3) using the product rule (4), but using a different datum in each of them. The result can be displayed thus:

$$P(D \mid H K) \equiv \left[ P(D_1 \mid D_{-1} H K) \times P(D_{-1} \mid H K) \times P(D_2 \mid D_{-2} H K) \times P(D_{-2} \mid H K) \times \dots \times P(D_d \mid D_{-d} H K) \times P(D_{-d} \mid H K) \right]^{1/d}.$$

$$\downarrow \text{log-score}$$
(5)

Note that upon taking the logarithm of this expression, the d factors vertically aligned on the left add up to the log-score (2), as indicated.

Now note that the mathematical reshaping of  $P(D \mid HK)$  – that is, the root-product identity (3) and the expansion (5) – can be done for each of the remaining factors  $P(D_{-i} \mid HK)$ , and so on recursively. Here is an explicit example for d=3:

$$P(D \mid H K) \equiv \begin{cases} P(D_{1} \mid D_{2} D_{3} H K) \times \left[ P(D_{2} \mid D_{3} H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P(D_{2} \mid H K) \right]^{1/2} \times \\ P(D_{3} \mid D_{2} H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid D_{1} H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid D_{1} D_{2} H K) \times P(D_{3} \mid H K) \times P$$

In this example, the logarithm of the three vertically aligned factors in the left column is, as already noted, the log-score (2). We also note that the logarithm of the six vertically aligned factors in the central column is an average of the log-scores calculated for the three distinct subsets of pairs of data  $\{D_1 D_2\}$ ,  $\{D_1 D_3\}$ ,  $\{D_2 D_3\}$ . Likewise, the logarithm of the six factors vertically aligned on the right is the average of the log-scores for the three subsets of data singletons  $\{D_1\}$ ,  $\{D_2\}$ ,  $\{D_3\}$ .

In the general case with d data there are  $k \binom{d}{k}$  possible leave-one-out partitions formed out of k data points. We therefore obtain

$$\ln P(D \mid H K) \equiv \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \ln P(D_i \mid D_{-i} H K) +$$

$$\frac{1}{d} \sum_{i \in \{1, \dots, d\}} \frac{1}{d-1} \sum_{j \in \{1, \dots, d\}}^{j \neq i} \ln P(D_{-i,j} \mid D_{-i,-j} H K) + \dots +$$

$$\binom{d}{k}^{-1} \frac{1}{k} \sum_{k-\text{tuples}} \ln P(D_{i_1} \mid D_{i_2} \dots D_{i_k} H K) + \dots +$$

$$\frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \ln P(D_i \mid H K),$$

$$\equiv \sum_{k=1}^{d} \left[ k \binom{d}{k} \right]^{-1} \sum_{k-\text{tuples}} \ln P(D_{i_1} \mid D_{i_2} \dots D_{i_k} H K).$$
order doesn't matter
$$(7)$$

\*\*\* with similar procedure we can included all k-fold scores.

## **Bibliography**

- ('de X' is listed under D, 'van X' under V, and so on, regardless of national conventions.)
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