### Overview

# Model Comparison Machine Learning and Pattern Recognition

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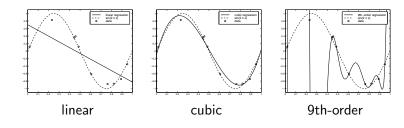
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(These slides have been adapted from previous versions by Charles Sutton, Amos Storkey and David Barber

- ► The model selection problem
- Overfitting
- Validation set, cross validation
- Bayesian Model Comparison
- Reading: Murphy 1.4.7, 1.4.8, 6.5.3, 5.3; Barber 12.1-12.4, 13.2 up to end of 13.2.2

### Model Selection

- ► We may entertain different models for a dataset, M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, ..., e.g. different numbers of basis functions, different regularization parameters
- ▶ How should we choose amongst them?
- Example from supervised learning



# Loss and Training Error

► For input x the true target is y(x) and our prediction is f(x). The loss function

 $L(y(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}))$ 

assesses errors in prediction

- Examples
  - squared error loss  $(y(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}))^2$ ,
  - ▶ 0-1 loss  $I(y(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}))$  for classification,
  - log loss  $-\log p(y(\mathbf{x})|f(\mathbf{x}))$  (probabilistic predictions)
- Training error

$$E_{tr} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} L(y(\mathbf{x}^n), f(\mathbf{x}^n))$$

▶ Training error consistently decreases with model complexity

1/20

# Overfitting

Validation Set

Generalization (or test) error

$$E_{gen} = \int L(y(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x})) \ p(\mathbf{x}, y) \ d\mathbf{x} \ dy$$

Overfitting (Mitchell 1997, p. 67)

A hypothesis f is said to **overfit** the data if there exists some alternative hypothesis f' such that f has a smaller training error than f', but f' has a smaller generalization error than f.

- Partition the available data into two: a training set (for fitting the model), and a *validation* set (aka hold-out set) for assessing performance
- Estimate the generalization error with

$$E_{val} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{v=1}^{V} L(y(\mathbf{x}^v), f(\mathbf{x}^v))$$

where we sum over cases in the validation set

- Unbiased estimator of the generalization error
- Suggested split: 70% training, 30% validation

5 / 20

# Cross Validation: Example

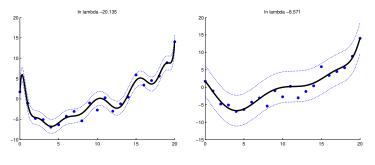


Figure credit: Murphy Fig 7.7

- ▶ Degree 14 polynomial with N = 21 datapoints
- ▶ Regularization term  $\lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$
- How to choose  $\lambda$ ?

### **Cross Validation**

- ▶ Split the data into *K* pieces (folds)
- Train on K-1, test on the remaining fold
- ► Cycle through, using each fold for testing once
- ▶ Uses all data for testing, cf. the hold-out method

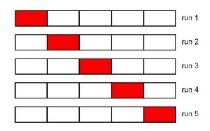


Figure credit: Murphy Fig 1.21(b)

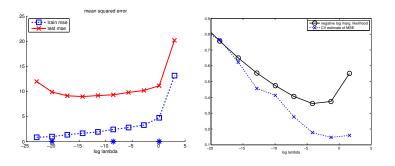


Figure credit: Murphy Fig 7.7

- Left-hand end of x-axis  $\equiv$  low regularization
- $\blacktriangleright$  Notice that training error increases monotonically with  $\lambda$
- Miminum of test error is for an intermediate value of  $\lambda$
- Both cross validation and a Bayesian procudure (coming soon) choose regularized models

# Comparing models

Bayes factor = 
$$\frac{P(\mathcal{D}|M_1)}{P(\mathcal{D}|M_2)}$$

$$\frac{P(M_1|\mathcal{D})}{P(M_2|\mathcal{D})} = \frac{P(M_1)}{P(M_2)} \cdot \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|M_1)}{P(\mathcal{D}|M_2)}$$
  
Posterior ratio = Prior ratio × Bayes factor

Strength of evidence from Bayes factor (Kass, 1995; after Jeffreys, 1961)

| 1 to 3    | Not worth more than a bare mention |
|-----------|------------------------------------|
| 3 to 20   | Positive                           |
| 20 to 150 | Strong                             |
| > 150     | Very strong                        |
|           |                                    |

## Bayesian Model Comparison

► Have a set of different possible models

$$\mathcal{M}_i \equiv p(\mathcal{D}|\theta, M_i) \text{ and } p(\theta|M_i)$$

for  $i = 1, \ldots, K$ 

- Each model is set of distributions that have associated parameters. Usually some models are more complex (have more parameters) than others
- ▶ Bayesian way: Have a prior p(M<sub>i</sub>) over the set of models M<sub>i</sub>, then compute posterior p(M<sub>i</sub>|D) using Bayes' rule

$$p(M_i|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(M_i)p(\mathcal{D}|M_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} p(M_j)p(\mathcal{D}|M_j)}$$

 $d\theta$ 

$$p(\mathcal{D}|M) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\theta, M) p(\theta|M)$$

This is called the *marginal likelihood* or the *evidence*.

9/20

# Computing the Marginal Likelihood

- Exact for conjugate exponential models, e.g. beta-binomial, Dirichlet-multinomial, Gaussian-Gaussian (for fixed variances)
- ► E.g. for Dirichlet-multinomial

$$p(\mathcal{D}|M) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha+N)} \prod_{i=1}^{r} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_i + N_i)}{\Gamma(\alpha_i)}$$

- Also exact for (generalized) linear regression (for fixed prior and noise variances)
- Otherwise various approximations (analytic and Monte Carlo) are possible

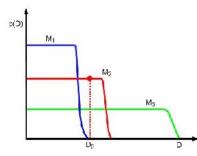
12/20

## **BIC** approximation

BIC = 
$$\log p(\mathcal{D}|\hat{\theta}) - \frac{\mathsf{dof}(\hat{\theta})}{2} \log N$$

- Bayesian information criterion (Schwarz, 1978)
- ▶  $\hat{\theta}$  is MLE
- $dof(\hat{\theta})$  is the degrees of freedom in the model ( $\sim$  number of parameters in the model)
- BIC penalizes ML score by a penalty term
- ▶ BIC is quite a crude approximation to the marginal likelihood

- Why Bayesian model selection? Why not compute best fit parameters and compare?
- ▶ More parameters=better fit to data. ML: bigger is better.
- But might be overfitting: only these parameters work. Many others don't.



 Prefer models that are unlikely to 'accidentally' explain the data.

13/20

#### **Binomial Example**

#### Example

You are an auditor of a firm. You receive details about the sales that a particular salesman is making. He attempts to make 4 sales a day to independent companies. You receive a list of the number of sales by this agent made on a number of days. Explain why you would expect the total number of sales to be binomially distributed.

If the agent was making the sales numbers up as part of a fraud, you might expect the agent (as he is a bit dim) to choose the number of sales at random from a uniform distribution. You are aware of the fraud possibility, and you understand there is something like a 1/5 chance this salesman is involved. Given daily sales counts of 1 2 2 4 1 4 3 2 4 1 3 3 2 4 3 3 2 3 3, do you think the salesman is lying?

### **Binomial Example**

#### Example

#### Data: 1 2 2 4 1 4 3 2 4 1 3 3 2 4 3 3 2 3 3

- $\mathcal{M} = 1$  From  $P_1(x|p)$  a binomial distribution Binomial(4). Prior on p is uniform.
- $\mathcal{M} = 2$  From  $P_2(x)$  a uniform distribution Uniform(0,...,4).
- Discuss what you would do?
- $\blacktriangleright P(\mathcal{M}=1) = 0.8.$

# Binomial Example

#### Example

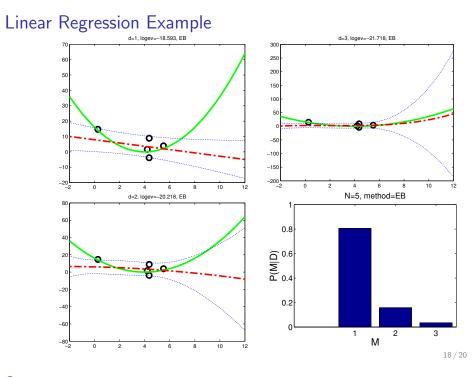
Data: 1 2 2 4 1 4 3 2 4 1 3 3 2 4 3 3 2 3 3

- *M* = 1 From *P*<sub>1</sub>(*x*|*p*) a binomial distribution Binomial(4).
  Prior on *p* is uniform.
- $\mathcal{M} = 2$  From  $P_2(x)$  a uniform distribution Uniform(0,...,4).
- $\blacktriangleright P(\mathcal{M}=1) = 0.8.$

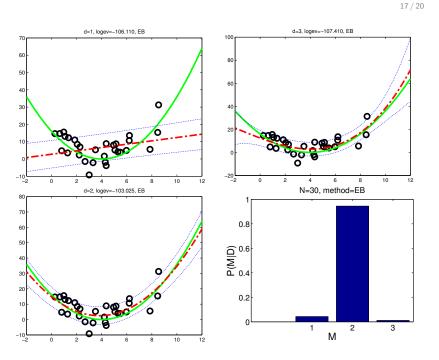
$$P(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}=1) = \int dp \ P_1(\mathcal{D}|p)P(p)$$
,  $P(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}=2) = P_2(\mathcal{D})$ 

$$P(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M})P(\mathcal{M})}{P(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}=1)P(\mathcal{M}=1) + P(\mathcal{D}|\mathcal{M}=2)P(\mathcal{M}=2)}$$

Left as an exercise! (see tutorial)



Summary



#### ► Training and test error, overfitting

- Validation set, cross validation
- Bayesian Model Comparison