Introduction to Computational Modeling: Generative Models

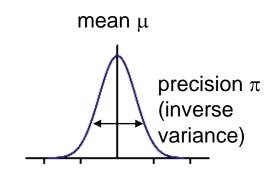
Klaas Enno Stephan







A brief note on mathematical notations



- For example: Gaussian (Normal) distributions
 - for scalars: $p(x) = N(x; \mu, \sigma^2)$ $\mu = \text{mean}; \sigma^2 = \text{variance}$
 - for vectors: $p(\mathbf{x}) = N(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ $\Sigma = \text{covariance matrix}$ = $E[(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T]$

- same thing, just expressed wrt. precision
 - for scalars: $p(x) = N(x; \mu, \lambda^{-1})$ $\mu = \text{mean}; \lambda = 1/\sigma^2 = \text{precision}$
 - for vectors: $p(\mathbf{x}) = N(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda^{-1})$ $\Lambda = \text{precision matrix}$

Systems

- system = a set of entities that interact to form a unified whole
- biological systems are open systems: they interact with their environment (exchange of energy, matter, information)

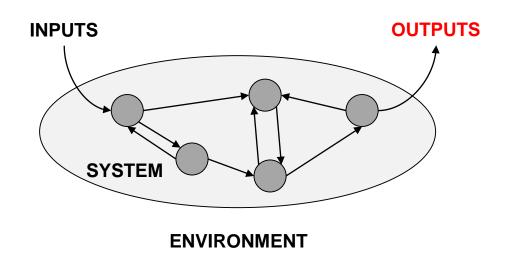
isolated system INPUTS OUTPUTS SYSTEM ENVIRONMENT OUTPUTS SYSTEM ENVIRONMENT

Stephan: Translational Neuromodeling & Computational Psychiatry, in prep.

System models

- mathematically formal description of a system's behavior (at an algorithmic or biophysical level that cannot be observed directly)
- central concept: hidden (latent) system states cause noisy measurements

- system models describe (at least) three things:
 - how system states evolve in time
 - how states determine system outputs
 - how outputs are corrupted by noise



NB: Outputs can be

- actions (from the system's perspective)
- data (from an outside observer's view)

States, parameters, inputs

- mandatory system components:
 - what are the relevant variables whose dynamics are of interest? \rightarrow states $\mathbf{x}(t)$
 - what are structural determinants of their interactions? \rightarrow parameters θ
 - what perturbations need to be considered? \rightarrow inputs $\mathbf{u}(t)$
- system states:

state vector

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_N(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

neurophysiological or algorithmic variables

state (or evolution) equations, e.g.:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right)$$
 as differential equation

$$\mathbf{x}(t+1) = f(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t))$$
 as difference equation

For a discussion of system theory in the context of neuroimaging, see Stephan 2004, J. Anat.

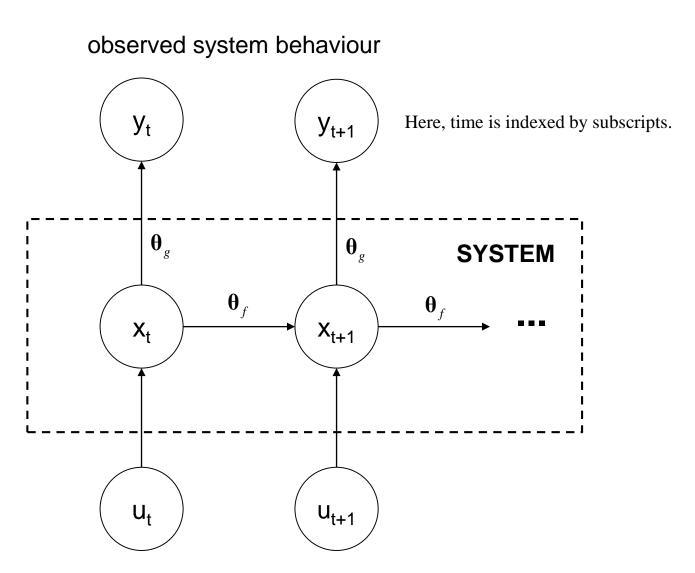
State space representation

measurement (or observation, response) equation:

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = g(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_g) + \mathbf{\varepsilon}(t)$$

ENVIRONMENT

inputs



Deterministic vs. stochastic state space models

deterministic models

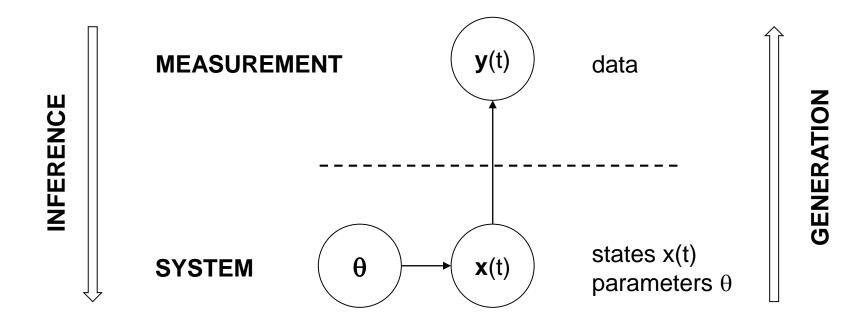
- no state noise: $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right)$ ODEs
- \rightarrow states $\mathbf{x}(t)$ fully determined by initial state x(0), parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and inputs $\mathbf{u}(t)$
- → if inputs and initial state are known, inference on parameters sufficient to reconstruct state trajectories

stochastic models

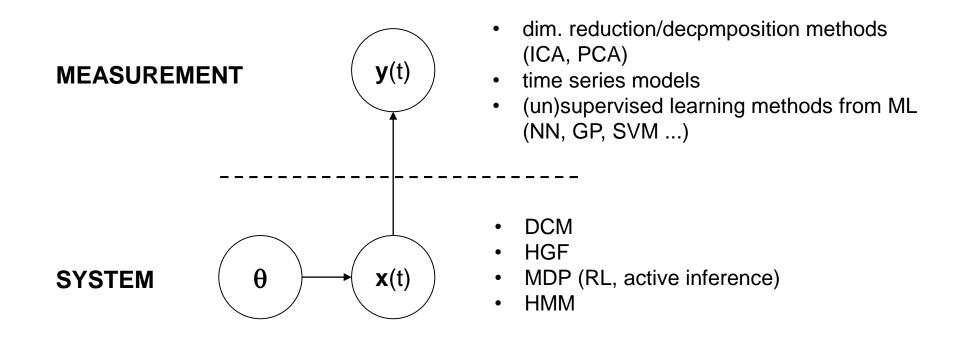
- state noise: $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right) + \omega(t)$ SDEs
- \rightarrow states $\mathbf{x}(t)$ not fully determined by initial state, parameters and inputs
- → much tougher inference problem!

Models with/without latent states

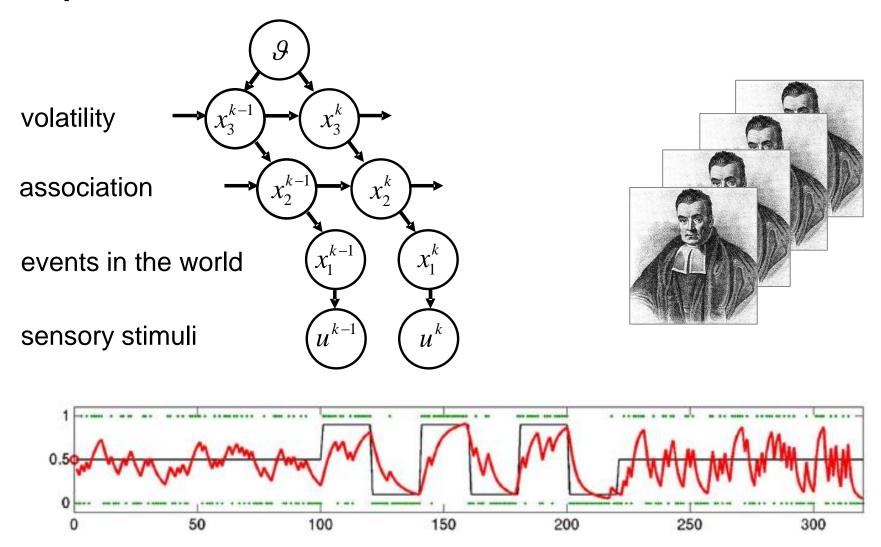
- many ways to categorise modeling approaches
- one possibility: distinguish presence vs. absence of latent states



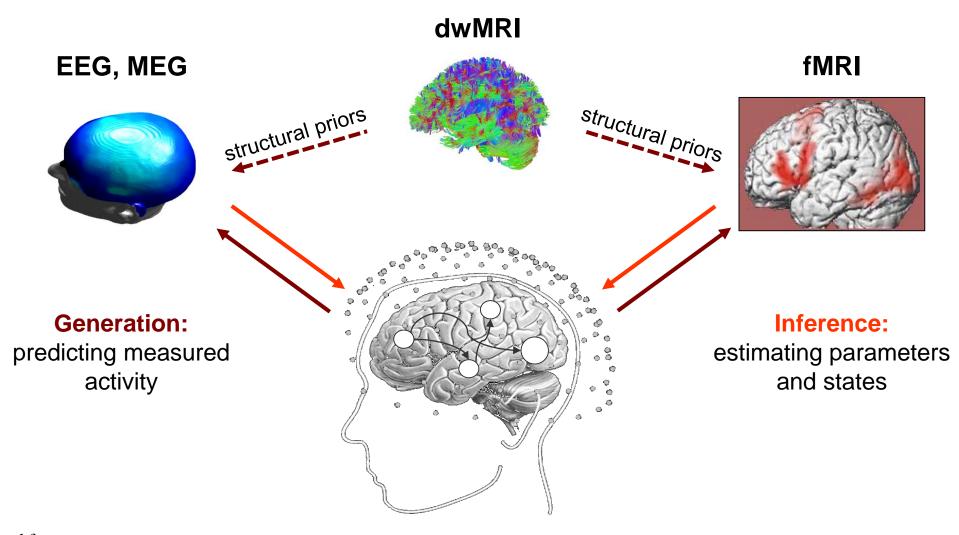
Examples of approaches with/without latent states



Examples of models discussed later in the course: HGF...



... and DCMs of fMRI and EEG/MEG data



adapted from: Stephan et al. 2017, *NeuroImage*

Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

- Given a system model and measured data, we would like to estimate the values of the model parameters.
- Once we have specified our assumptions about the nature of the observation noise (e.g. IID Gaussian), we can compute the **likelihood** $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{\theta})$, i.e.: Given a particular value of $\mathbf{\theta}$, how likely are the observed data y under the chosen model?
- We could then search for the parameter value that maximises the (log) likelihood. This is the parameter value for which the model fits the data best.
- This is known as maximum likelihood estimation (MLE):

$$\hat{\mathbf{\theta}}_{ML} = \arg\max_{\theta} \ln p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{\theta})$$

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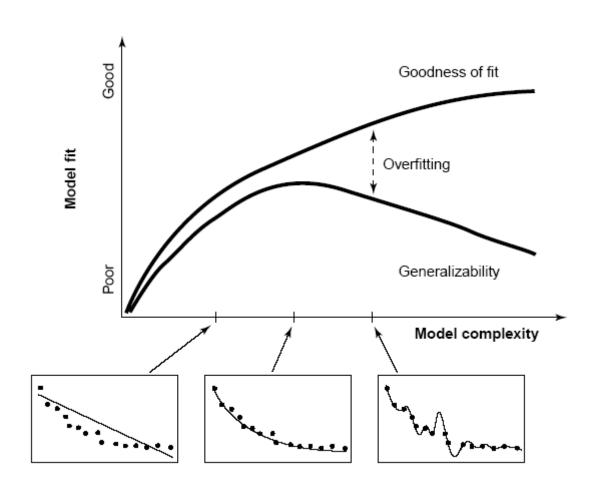
 More in tomorrow's talk on maximum likelihood estimation.

 e.:
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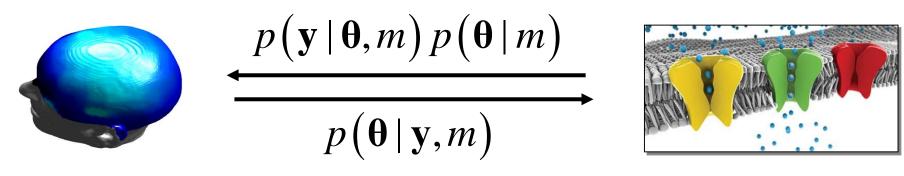
Overfitting

- MLE has various limitations.
 For example, for complex models and limited data,
 overfitting is a severe problem (see talks by Yu and Stefan).
- For more robust inference, we turn to Bayesian methods
 - → need to define a prior distribution of parameters
- Together, likelihood and prior define a generative model.



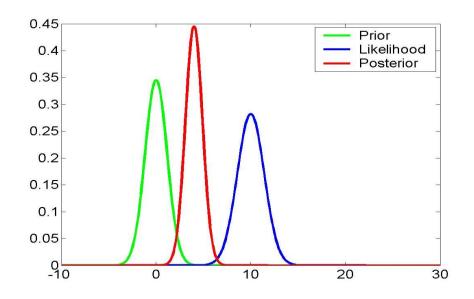
Pitt & Myung (2002) TICS

Generative models

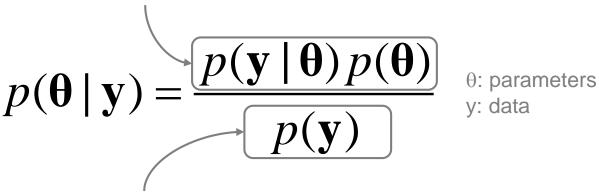


- y = data, $\theta = parameters$, m = model
- 1. a probabilistic forward mapping from parameters to data, defined by likelihood and prior (joint probability)
- 2. enforce mechanistic thinking: how could the data have been caused?
- 3. generate synthetic data (observations) by sampling from the prior can model explain certain phenomena at all?
- 4. model inversion = inference about parameters \rightarrow posterior p(θ |y,m)
- 5. natural basis for model comparison \rightarrow model evidence p(y|m)

Bayes' rule



Likelihood × **prior**: generative model



Model evidence: normalisation term and index for model goodness

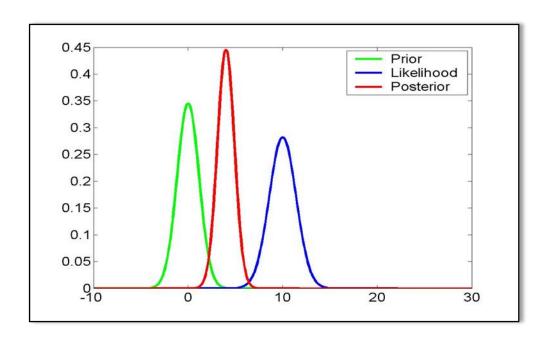


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

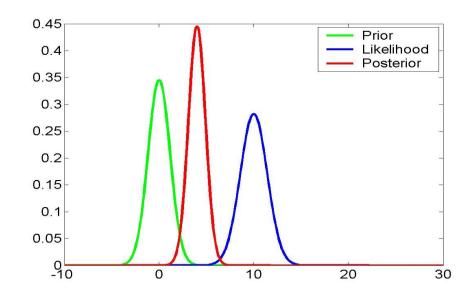
"... the theorem expresses how a degree of belief, expressed as a probability, should rationally change to account for the availability of related evidence."

Wikipedia

Bayesian inference: an animation



Bayes' rule



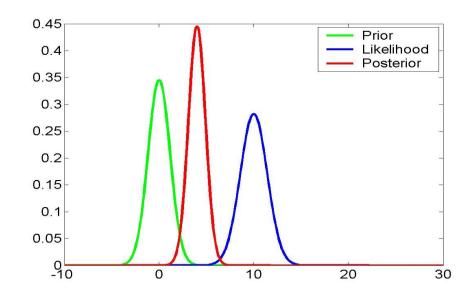


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

$$p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}{p(\mathbf{y} \mid m)}$$

No change – just making the choice of a particular model explicit.

Bayes' rule





The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

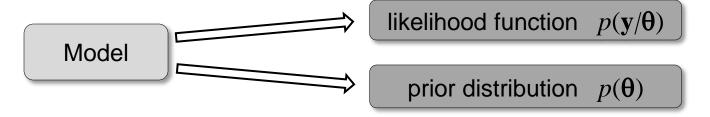
$$p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}$$

Evidence:

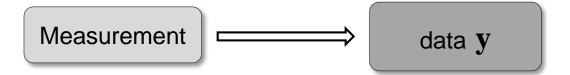
likelihood that data were generated by model m, averaging over all possible parameter values (as weighted by the prior).

Principles of generative modeling

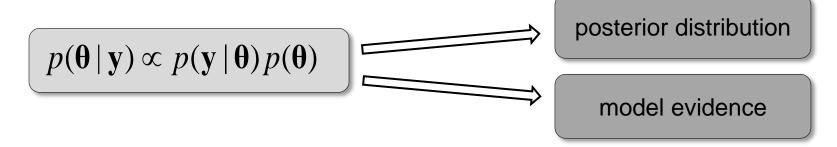
⇒ Specifying a generative model



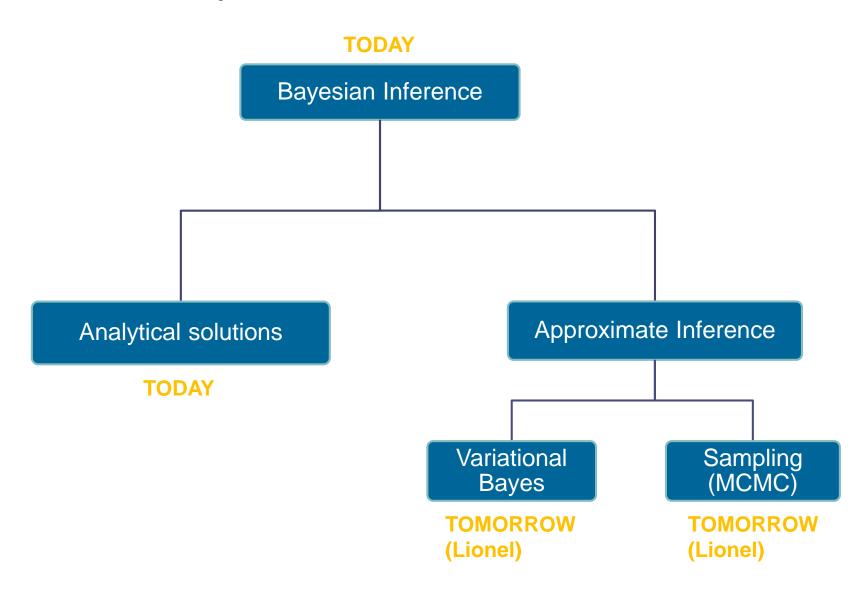
⇒ Observation of data



⇒ Model inversion



Methods for Bayesian inference



How is the posterior computed = how is a generative model inverted?

- compute the posterior analytically
 - requires conjugate priors
- variational Bayes (VB)
 - often hard work to derive, but fast to compute
 - uses approximations (approx. posterior, mean field)
 - problems: local minima, potentially inaccurate approximations
- sampling methods (e.g. Markov Chain Monte Carlo, MCMC)
 - theoretically guaranteed to be accurate (for infinite computation time)
 - problems: may require very long run time in practice, only heuristics to decide about convergence in practice

Conjugate priors

- for a given likelihood function, the choice of prior determines the algebraic form of the posterior
- for some probability distributions a prior can be found such that the posterior has the same algebraic form as the prior
- such a prior is called "conjugate" to the likelihood
- examples:
 - Normal ∞ Normal x Normal
 - Beta ∞ Binomial x Beta
 - Dirichlet ∞ Multinomial x Dirichlet

$$p(\mathbf{\theta} | \mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{\theta}) p(\mathbf{\theta})$$
same form

A simple example: univariate Gaussian belief update

Likelihood & prior

$$p(y \mid \theta) = N(\theta, \sigma_e^2)$$

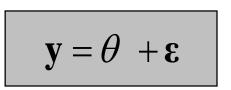
$$p(\theta) = N(\mu_{prior}, \sigma_{prior}^2)$$

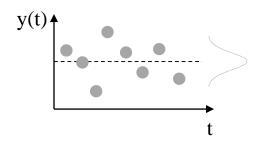
Posterior $p(\theta | y) = N(\mu_{post}, \lambda_{post}^{-1})$ (for a single observation y)

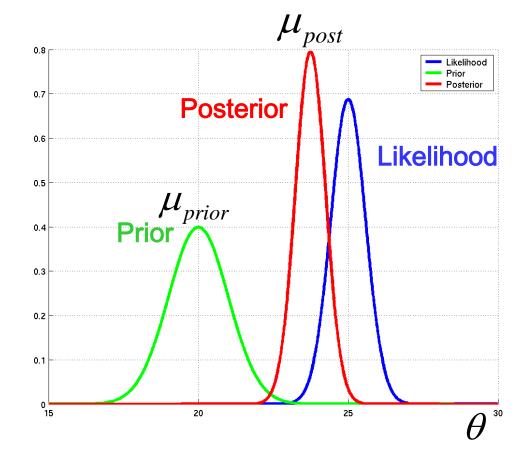
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_{post}^{2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{e}^{2}} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{prior}^{2}}$$

$$\mu_{post} = \sigma_{post}^{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{e}^{2}} y + \frac{1}{\sigma_{prior}^{2}} \mu_{prior} \right)$$

posterior mean = variance-weighted combination of prior mean and data







A simple example: univariate Gaussian belief update

Likelihood & prior

$$p(y \mid \theta) = N(\theta, \lambda_e^{-1})$$

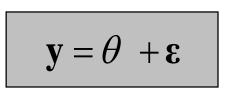
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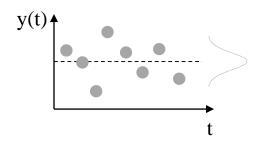
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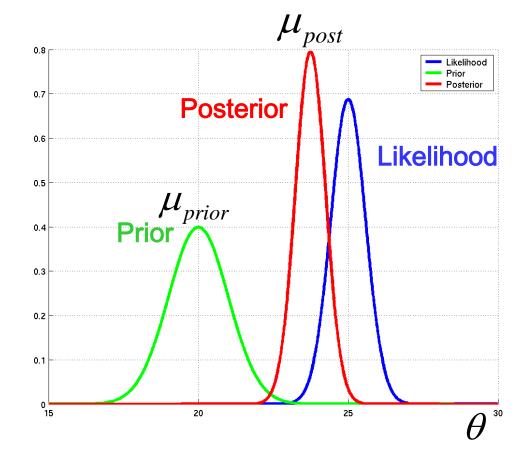
$$\begin{split} \lambda_{post} &= \lambda_e + \lambda_{prior} \\ \mu_{post} &= \frac{\lambda_e}{\lambda_{post}} y + \frac{\lambda_{prior}}{\lambda_{post}} \mu_{prior} \end{split}$$

relative precision weighting:

posterior mean = precision-weighted combination of prior mean and data





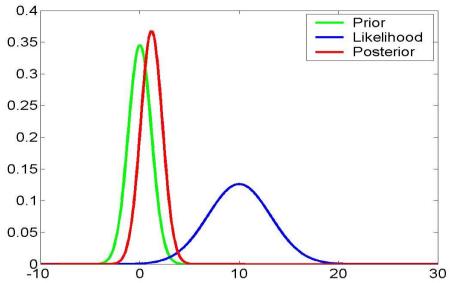


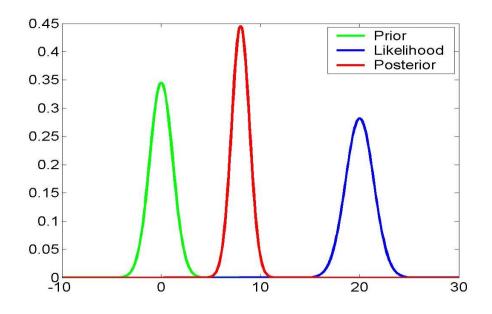
Adapted from a slide by Will Penny.

Choice of priors

- Objective priors:
 - "non-informative" priors
- Subjective priors:
 - subjective but not arbitrary
 - express beliefs that result from an understanding the problem or system
 - can be result of previous empirical results
 - can accommodate objective constraints (e.g., non-negativity)
- Shrinkage priors:
 - emphasise regularization and sparsity
- Empirical priors:
 - learn parameters of prior distributions from the data ("empirical Bayes")
 - rest on a hierarchical model

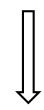






Model comparison and selection

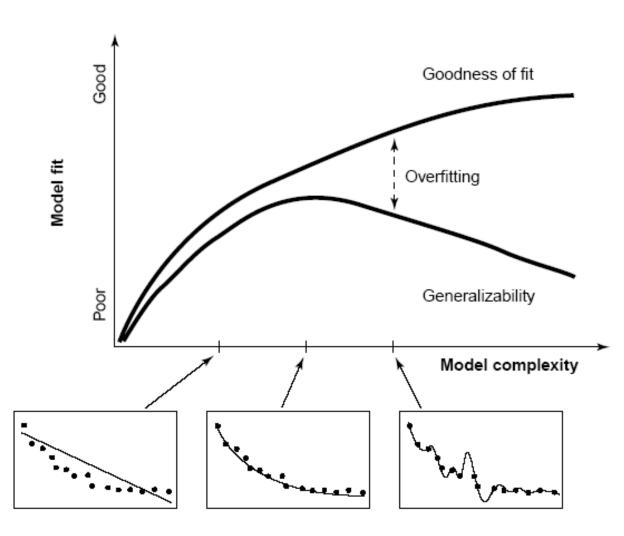
Given competing hypotheses on structure & functional mechanisms of a system, which model is the best?



Which model represents the best balance between model fit and model complexity?

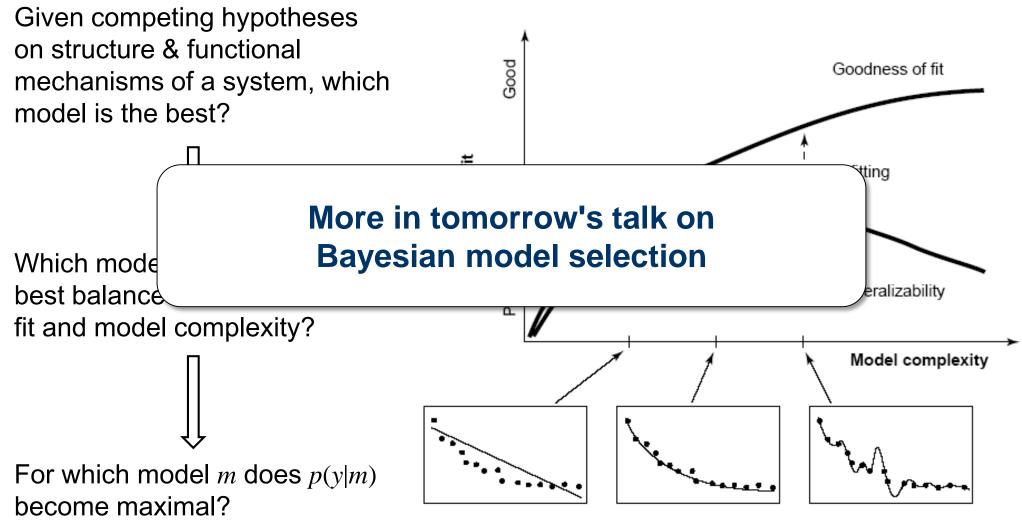


For which model m does p(y|m) become maximal?



Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

Model comparison and selection



Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

Generative models as computational assays for addressing key clinical questions

SYMPTOMS

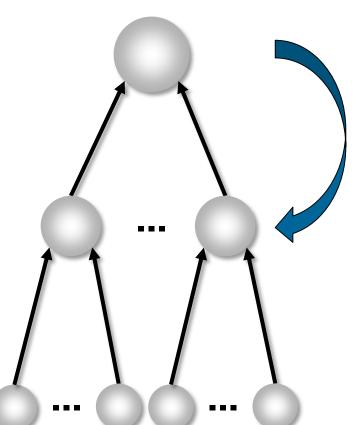
(behavioural or physiological data)

MECHANISMS

(computational, physiological)

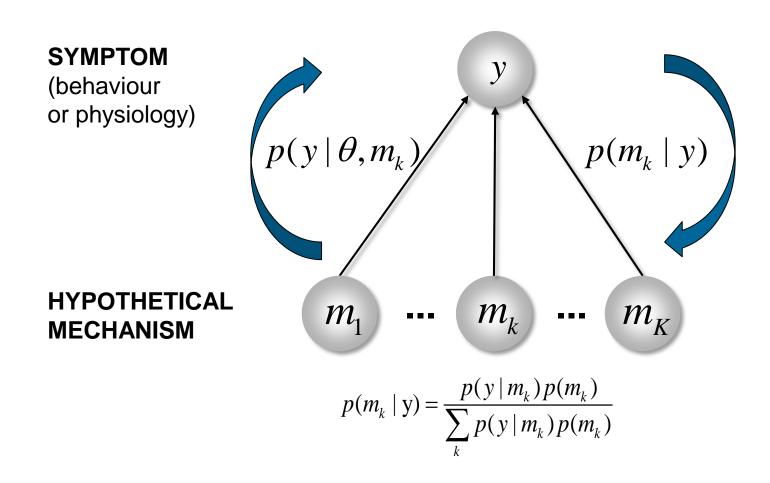
CAUSES

(aetiology)

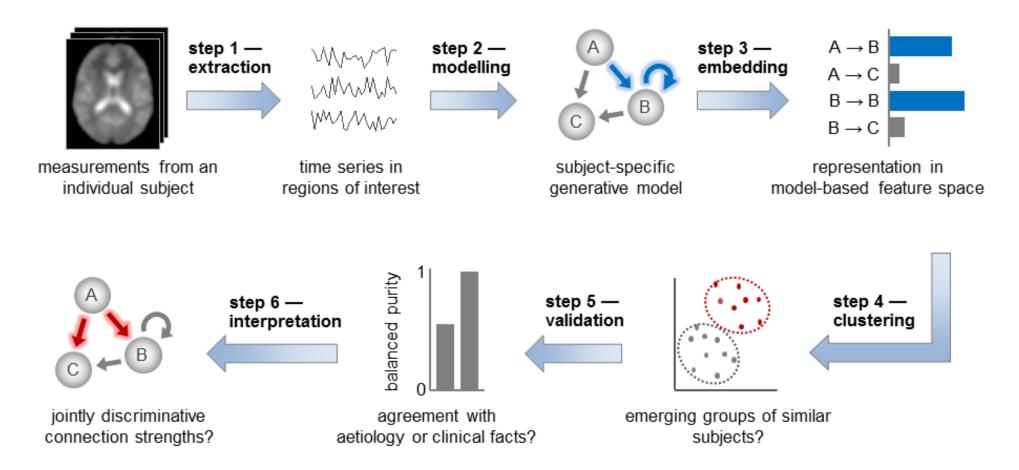


- differential diagnosis of alternative disease mechanisms
- 2 stratification / subgroup detection into mechanistically distinct subgroups
- **3 prediction** of clinical trajectories and treatment response

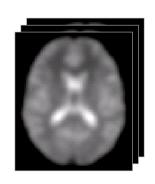
• Differential diagnosis: model selection

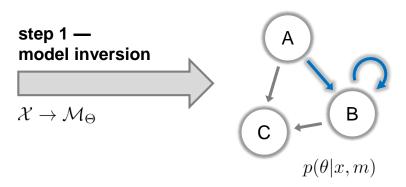


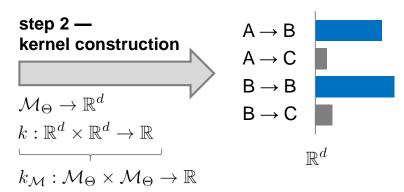
Stratification / subgroup detection: Generative embedding (unsupervised)



Prediction: Generative embedding (supervised)



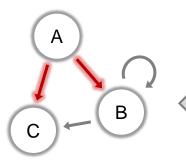


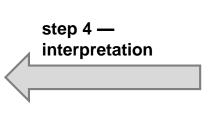


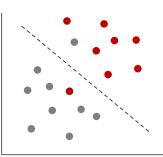
measurements from an individual subject

subject-specific inverted generative model

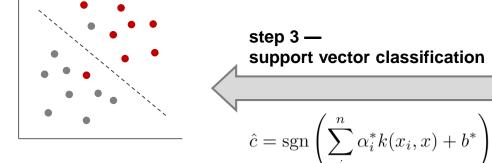
subject representation in the generative score space







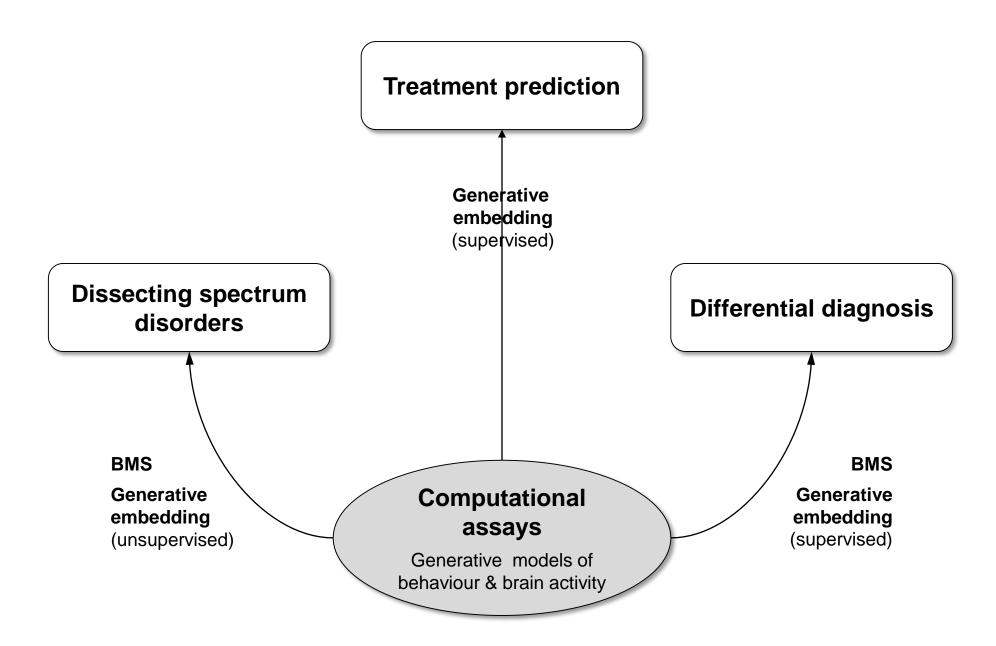
separating hyperplane fitted to discriminate between groups



model parameters

jointly discriminative

Brodersen et al. 2011, PLoS Comput. Biol.



adapted from: Stephan & Mathys 2014, *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*

Further reading

Bayesian inference:

Bishop CM (2006). Machine learning and pattern recognition. Springer, Heidelberg.

A simple introduction to General System Theory (in the context of neuroimaging):

Stephan KE (2004) On the role of general system theory for functional neuroimaging.
 Journal of Anatomy 205: 443-470.

A generative modeling strategy for clinical applications:

- Stephan KE, Mathys C (2014) Computational Approaches to Psychiatry. Current Opinion in Neurobiology 25:85-92.
- Stephan KE, Schlagenhauf F, Huys QJM, Raman S, Aponte EA, Brodersen KH, Rigoux L, Moran RJ, Daunizeau J, Dolan RJ, Friston KJ, Heinz A (2017) Computational Neuroimaging Strategies for Single Patient Predictions. NeuroImage 145:180-199

Thank you