# Introduction to Computational Modeling: Generative Models

Klaas Enno Stephan

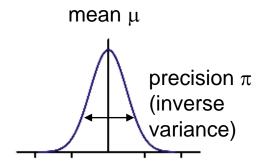






Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich

#### 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**

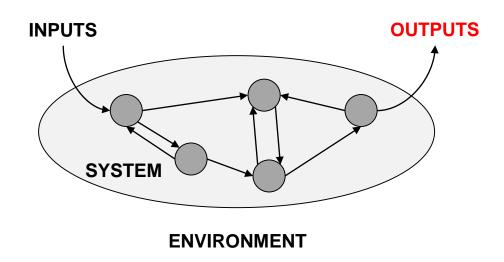
- system = a set of entities that interact to form a unified whole
- biological systems are open systems: they interact with their environment (exchange of energy, matter, information)

# isolated system INPUTS OUTPUTS SYSTEM ENVIRONMENT OUTPUTS SYSTEM ENVIRONMENT

# 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  $\theta$
  - 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.

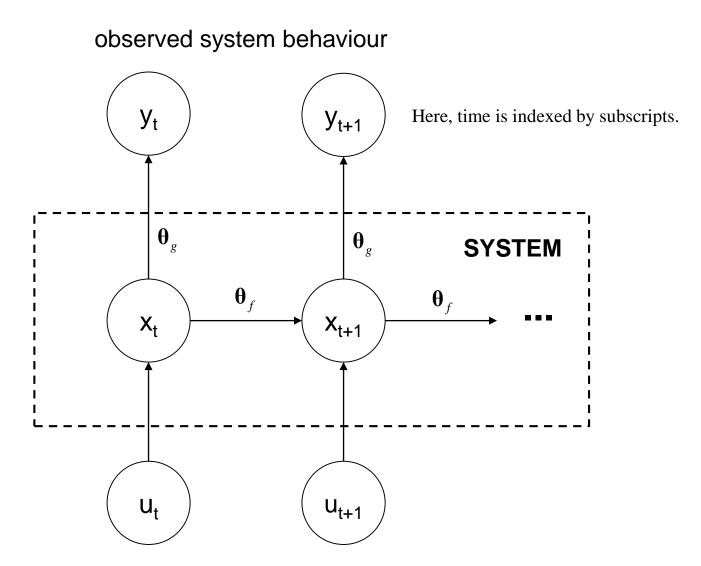
#### State space representation

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

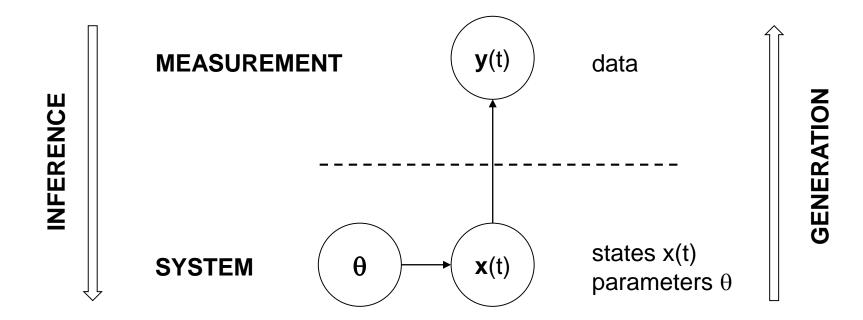
- no state noise:  $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right)$  ODEs
- $\rightarrow$  states  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  fully determined by initial state x(0), parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  and inputs  $\mathbf{u}(t)$
- → if inputs and initial state are known,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

#### stochastic models

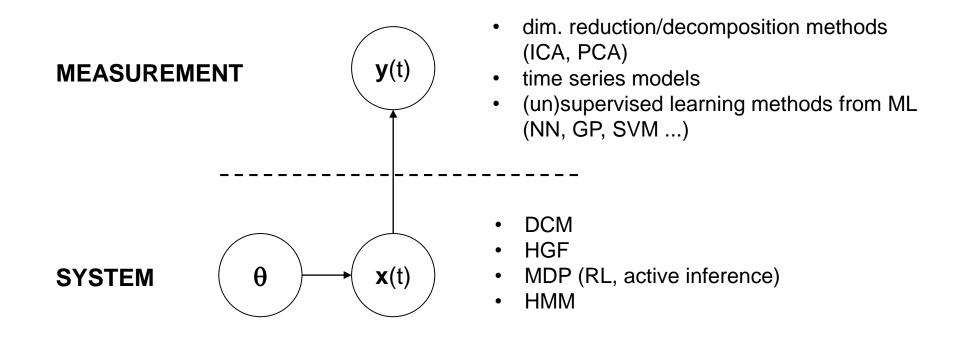
- state noise:  $\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right) + \omega(t)$  SDEs
- $\rightarrow$  states  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  not fully determined by initial state, parameters and inputs
- → much tougher inference problem!

#### Models with/without latent states

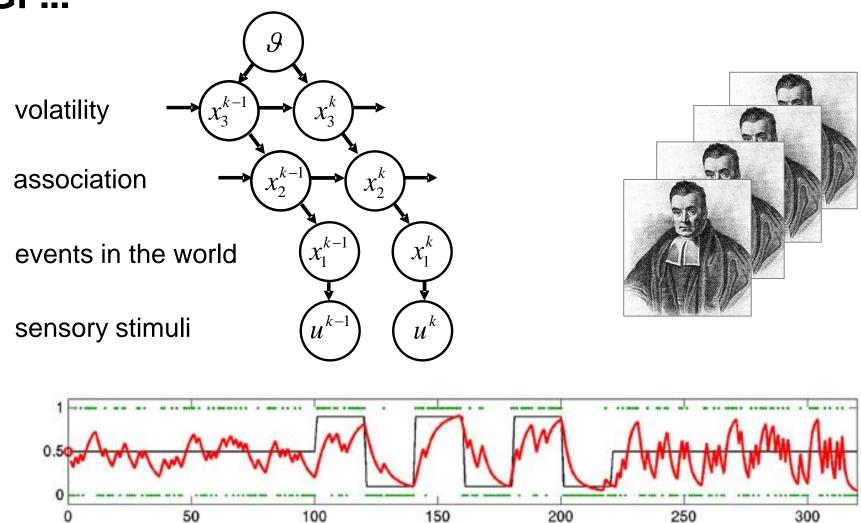
- many ways to categorise modeling approaches
- one possibility: distinguish presence vs. absence of latent states



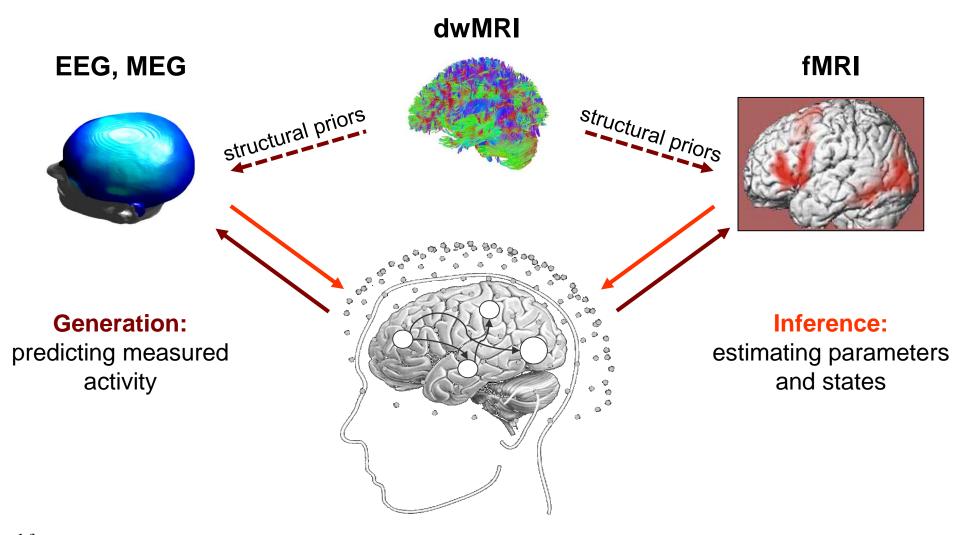
# **Examples of approaches with/without latent states**



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):

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

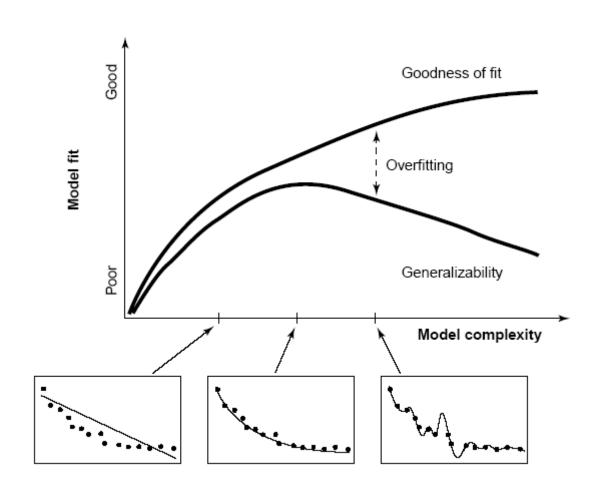
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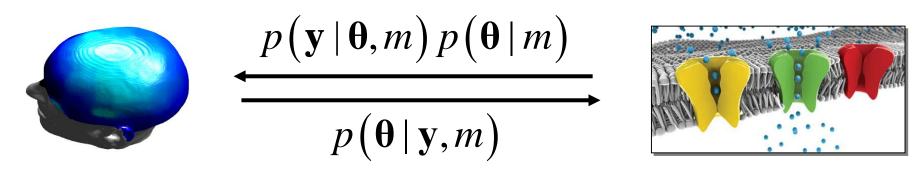
# **Overfitting**

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



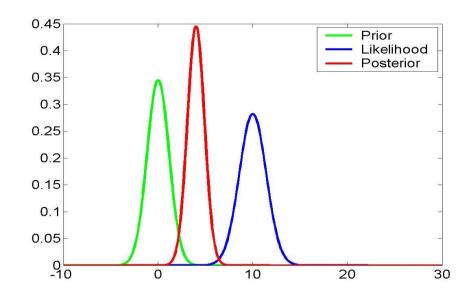
Pitt & Myung (2002) TICS

#### **Generative models**

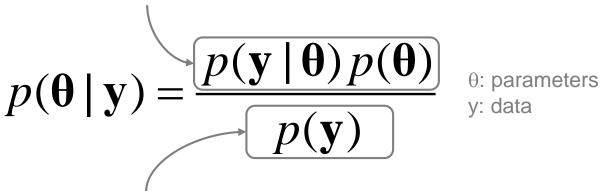


- y = data,  $\theta = parameters$ , m = model
- 1. a probabilistic forward mapping from parameters to data, defined by likelihood and prior (joint probability)
- 2. enforce mechanistic thinking: how could the data have been caused?
- 3. generate synthetic data (observations) by sampling from the prior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

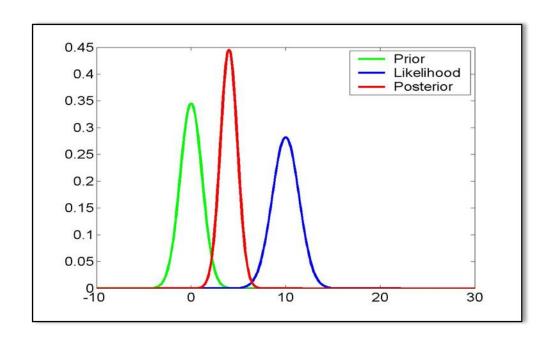


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

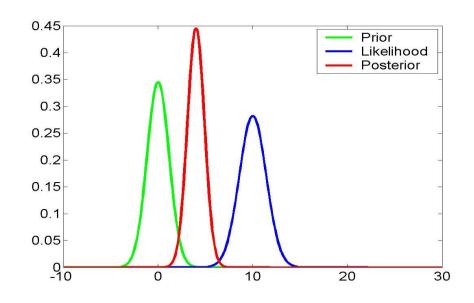
"... the theorem expresses how a degree of belief, expressed as a probability, should rationally change to account for the availability of related evidence."

Wikipedia

# Bayesian inference: an animation



#### Bayes' rule



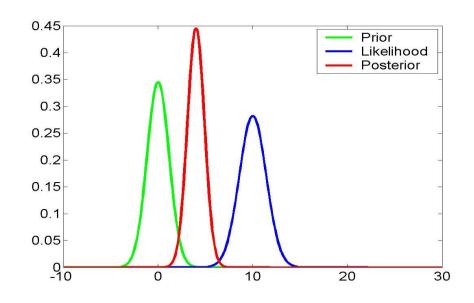


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

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

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

#### Bayes' rule





The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

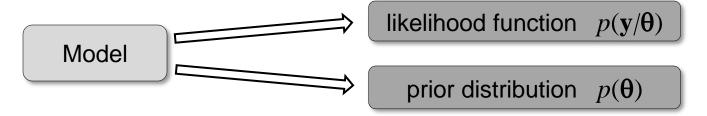
$$p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}$$

#### **Evidence:**

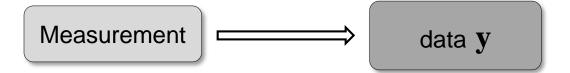
likelihood that data were generated by model m, averaging over all possible parameter values (as weighted by the prior).

# Principles of generative modeling

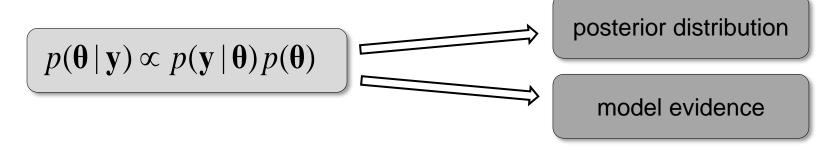
⇒ Specifying a generative model



⇒ Observation of data



**⇒** Model inversion



# Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation

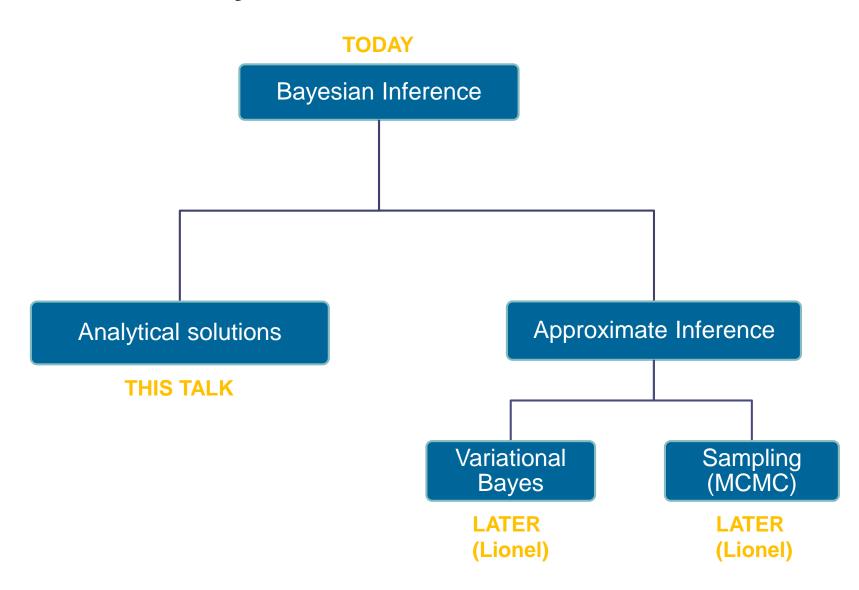
- A simple way to use a generative model (and go beyond MLE) is to compute MAP estimates.
- This finds parameter values that maximize the numerator of Bayes' theorem:

$$\hat{\mathbf{\theta}}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} \left[ p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{\theta}) p(\mathbf{\theta}) \right]$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \left[ \ln p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{\theta}) + \ln p(\mathbf{\theta}) \right]$$

- Advantages:
  - prior serves to regularize → can prevent overfitting
  - does not require one to evaluate the model evidence
  - simple to implement (e.g. numerical optimisation)
- Disadvantages:
  - does not provide the full posterior, only a point estimate
  - no information about uncertainty

#### **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

  - 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

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

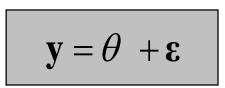
$$p(\theta) = N(\mu_{prior}, \sigma_{prior}^2)$$

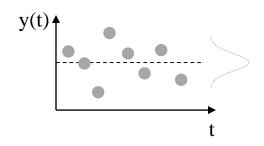
**Posterior**  $p(\theta | y) = N(\mu_{post}, \lambda_{post}^{-1})$  (for a single observation y)

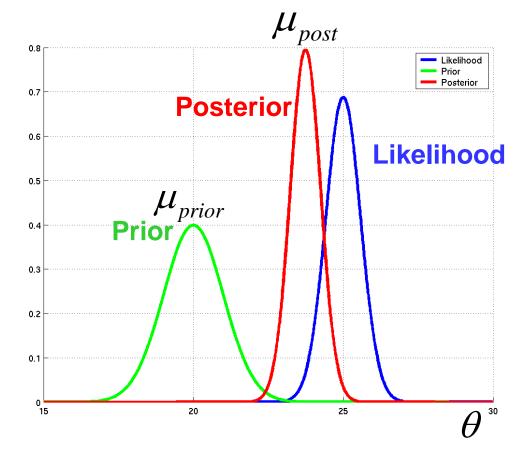
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_{post}^{2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{e}^{2}} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{prior}^{2}}$$

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

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







# A simple example: univariate Gaussian belief update

#### Likelihood & prior

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

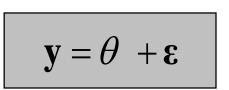
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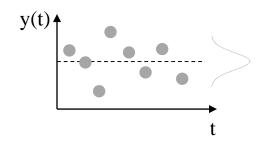
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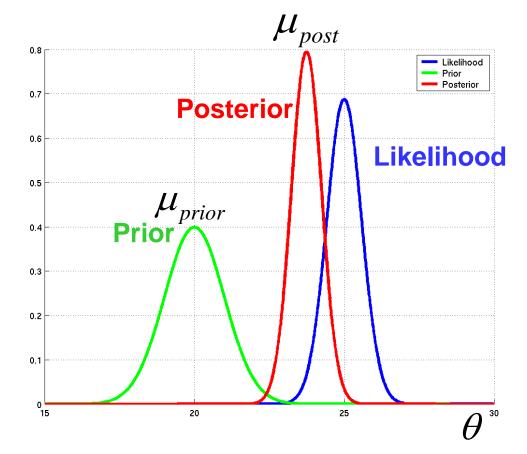
$$\begin{split} \lambda_{post} &= \lambda_e + \lambda_{prior} \\ \mu_{post} &= \frac{\lambda_e}{\lambda_{post}} y + \frac{\lambda_{prior}}{\lambda_{post}} \mu_{prior} \end{split}$$

#### relative precision weighting:

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





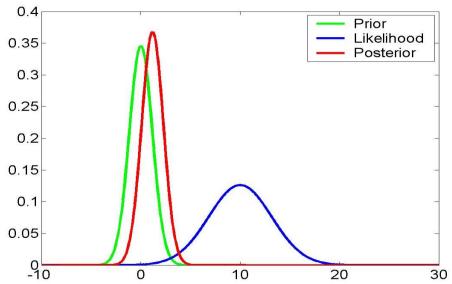


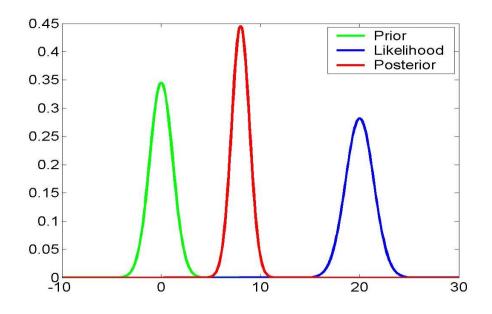
Adapted from a slide by Will Penny.

# **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

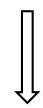




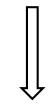


#### Model comparison and selection

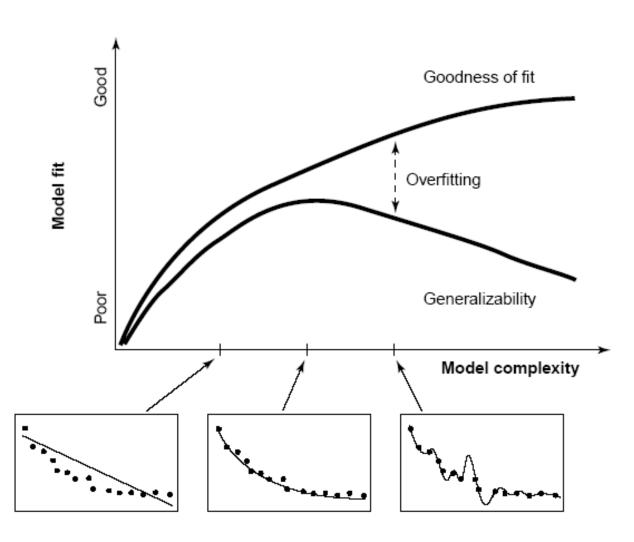
Given competing hypotheses on structure & functional mechanisms of a system, which model is the best?



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

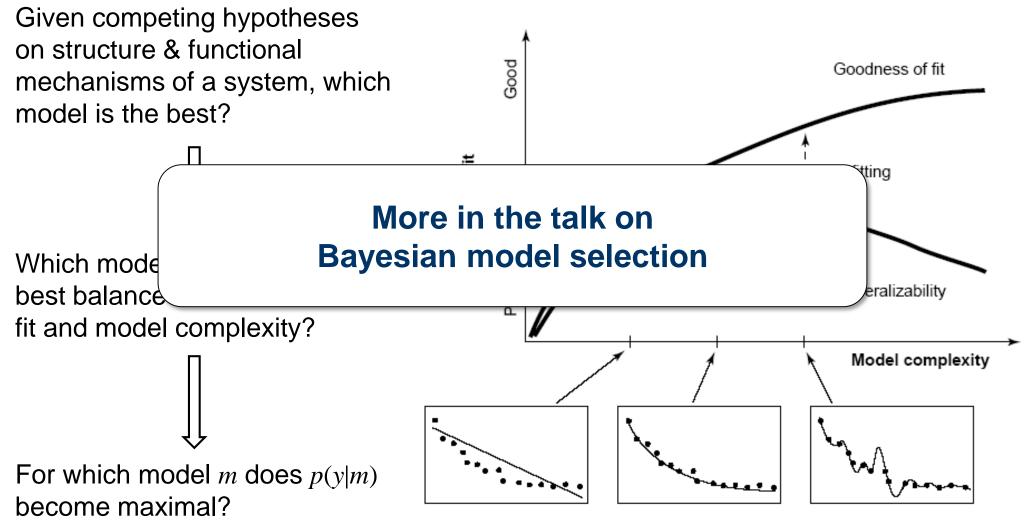


For which model m does p(y|m) become maximal?



Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

# Model comparison and selection



Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

# Reminder: key classes of targets for computational assays

#### **SYMPTOMS**

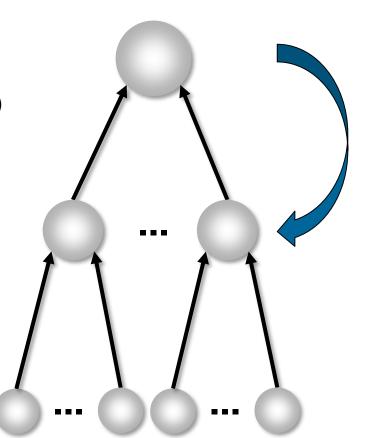
(behavioural or physiological data)

#### **MECHANISMS**

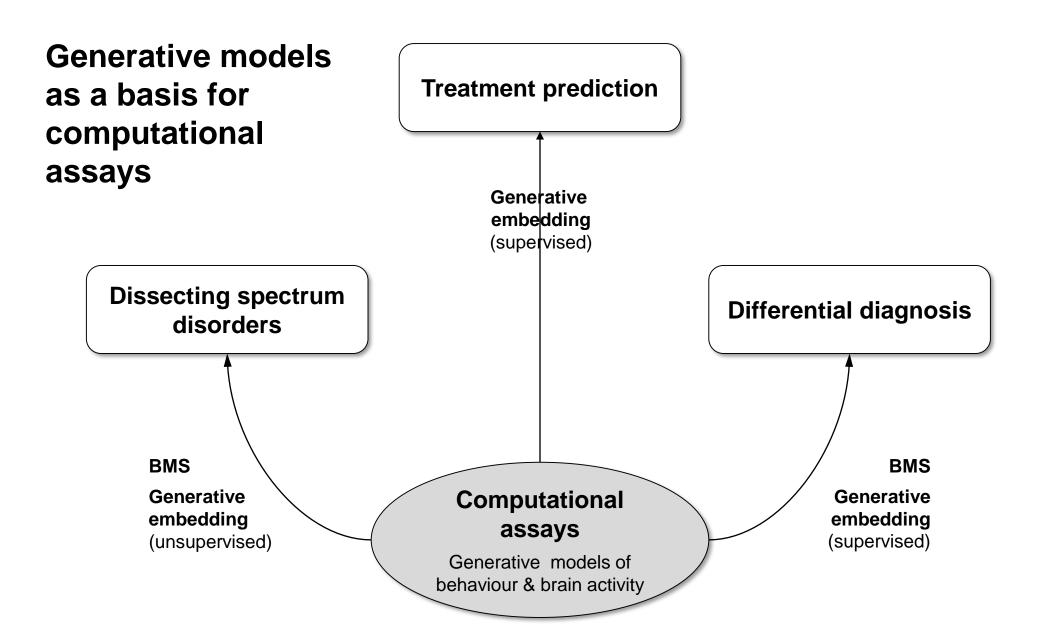
(computational, physiological)

#### CAUSES

(aetiology)



- differentialdiagnosis of alternativedisease mechanisms
- Stratification / subgroup detection into mechanistically distinct subgroups
- **3 prediction** of clinical trajectories and treatment response



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