Introduction to Computational Modeling: Generative Models

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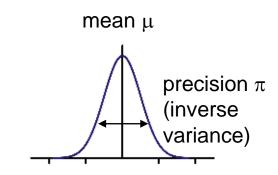






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A brief note on mathematical notations



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

$$\mu$$
 = mean; σ^2 = variance

 $= E[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}]$

- same thing, just expressed wrt. precision
 - $p(x) = N(x; \mu, \lambda^{-1})$ – for scalars:

 μ = mean; λ = 1/ σ ² = precision

 $p(\mathbf{x}) = N(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda^{-1})$ – for vectors:

 Λ = precision matrix

Systems

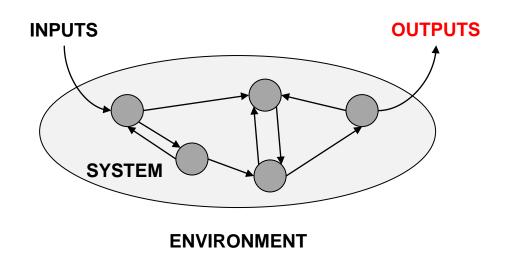
- system = a set of entities that interact to form a unified whole
- biological systems are open systems: they interact with their environment (exchange of energy, matter, information)

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 observations of outputs are affected 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? ightarrow parameters heta
 - 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

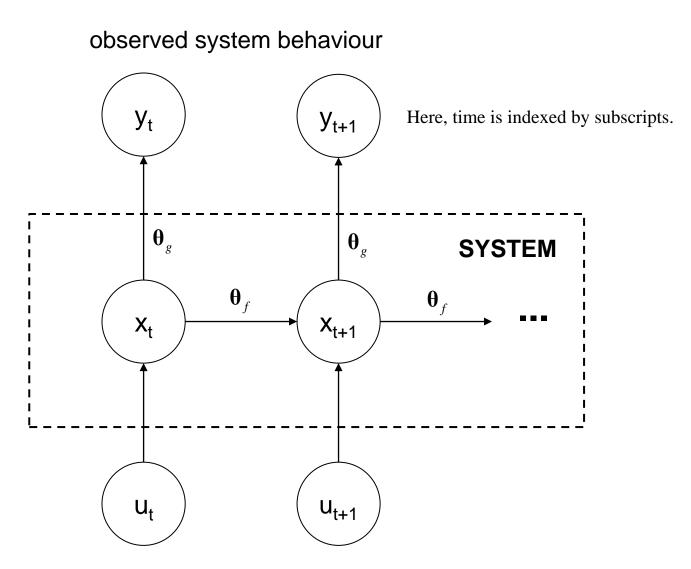
State space representation

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

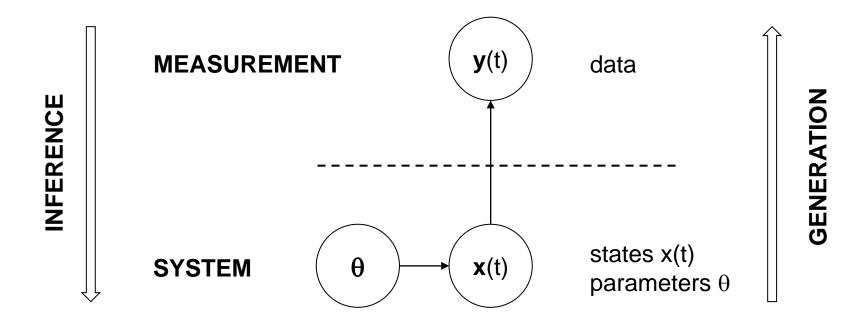
stochastic models

- state noise:
$$\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} = f\left(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{\theta}_f, \mathbf{u}(t)\right) + \omega(t)$$
 SDEs

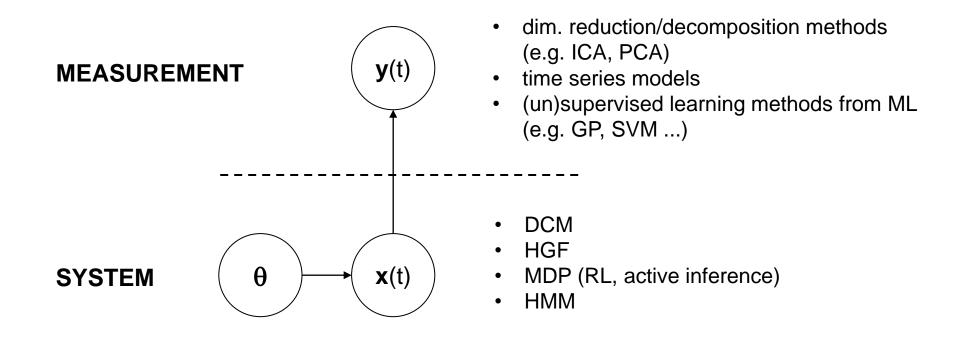
- \rightarrow states $\mathbf{x}(t)$ not fully determined by initial state, parameters and inputs
- → much tougher inference problem!

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



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. i.i.d. 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):

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

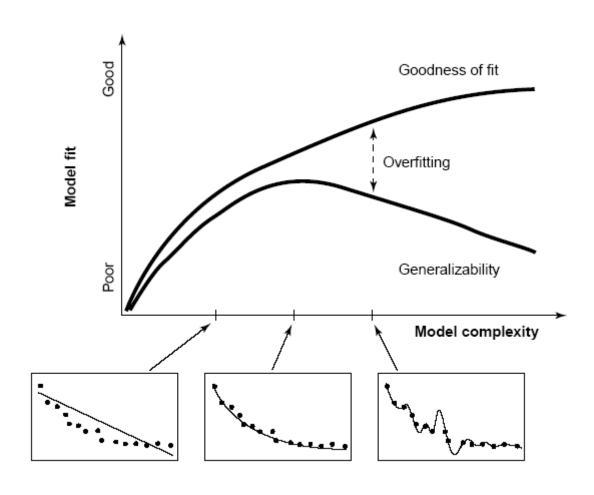
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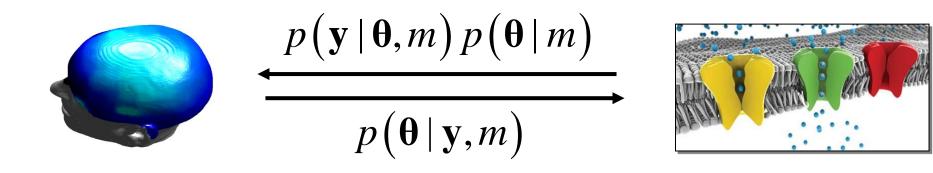
Overfitting

- 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 distribution of parameters
- Together, likelihood and prior define a generative model.



Pitt & Myung (2002) TICS

Generative models

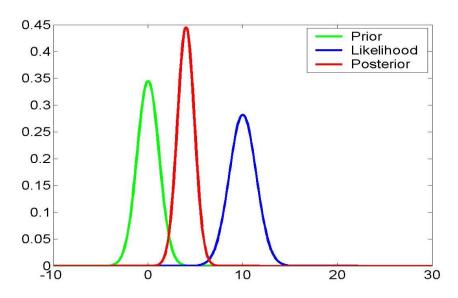


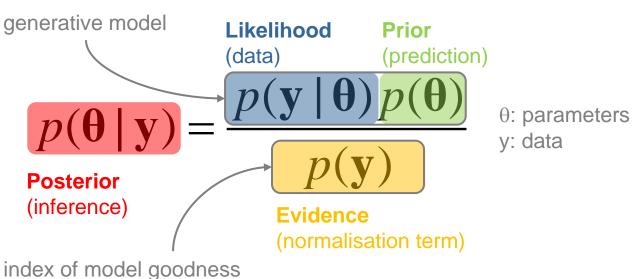
1. a probabilistic forward mapping from parameters to data, defined by likelihood and prior (joint probability)

y = data, $\theta = parameters$, m = model

- 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





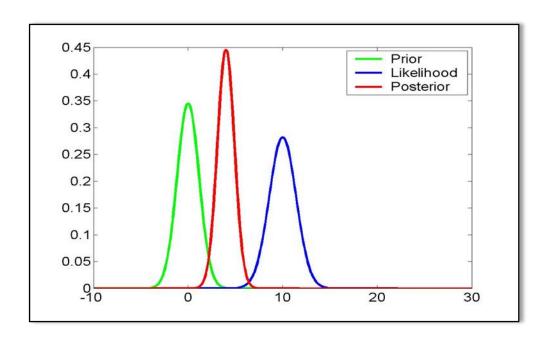


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

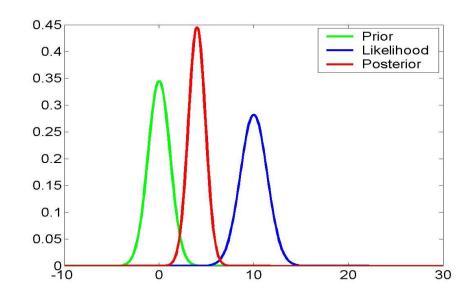
"... the theorem expresses how a degree of belief, expressed as a probability, should rationally change to account for the availability of related evidence."

Wikipedia

Bayesian inference: an animation



Bayes' rule



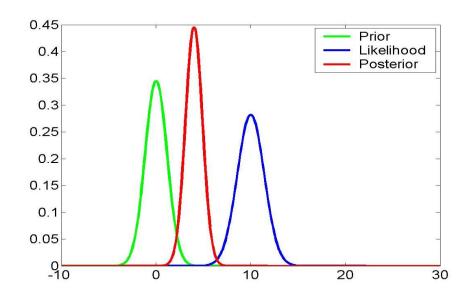


The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

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

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

Bayes' rule





The Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

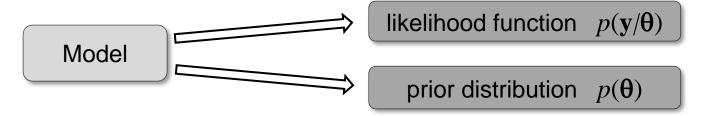
$$p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid \mathbf{y}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m)}{\int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{\theta}, m) p(\mathbf{\theta} \mid m) d\theta}$$

Evidence:

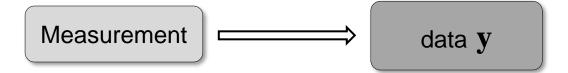
likelihood that data were generated by model m, averaging over all possible parameter values (as weighted by the prior).

Principles of generative modeling

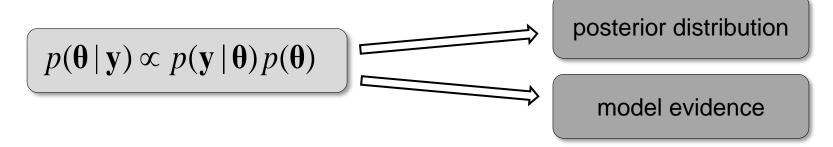
⇒ Specifying a generative model



⇒ Observation of data



⇒ Model inversion



Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation

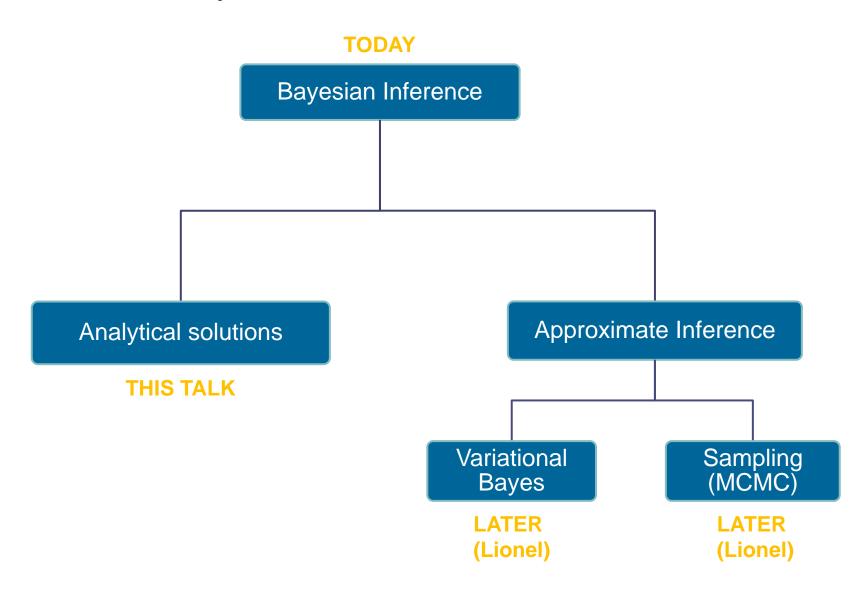
- A simple way to use a generative model (and go beyond MLE) is to compute MAP estimates.
- This finds parameter values that maximize the log joint:

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

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

- Advantages:
 - prior serves to regularize → can prevent overfitting
 - does not require computing the model evidence
 - simple to implement (e.g. numerical optimization methods)
- 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 × Normal
 - Beta ∞ Binomial x Beta
 - Dirichlet ∞ Multinomial x Dirichlet

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

A simple example: univariate Gaussian belief update

Likelihood & prior

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

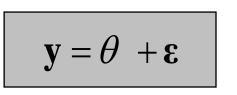
$$p(\theta) = N(\mu_{prior}, \sigma_{prior}^2)$$

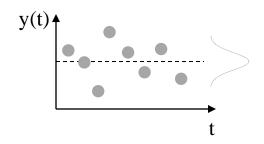
Posterior $p(\theta | y) = N(\mu_{post}, \lambda_{post}^{-1})$ (for a single observation y)

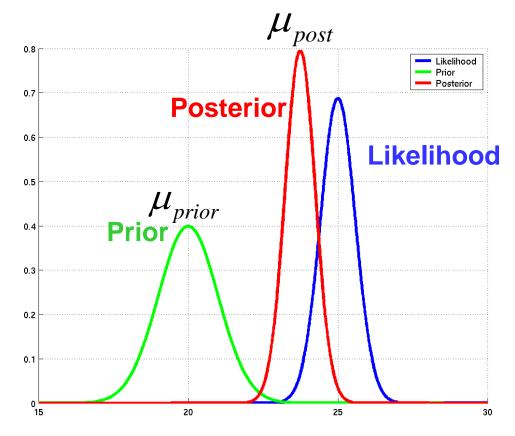
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_{post}^{2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{e}^{2}} + \frac{1}{\sigma_{prior}^{2}}$$

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

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







A simple example: univariate Gaussian belief update

Likelihood & prior

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

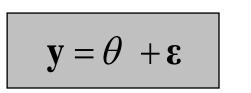
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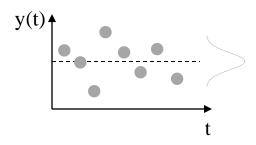
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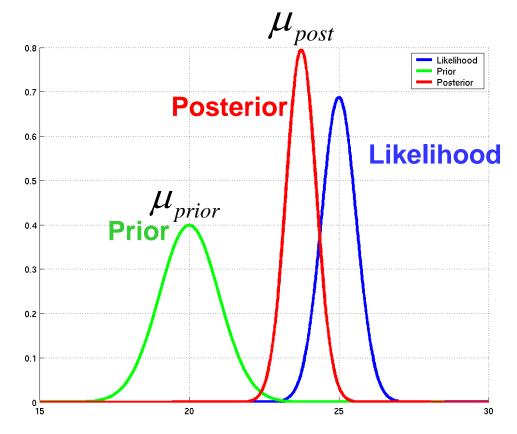
$$\begin{split} \lambda_{post} &= \lambda_e + \lambda_{prior} \\ \mu_{post} &= \frac{\lambda_e}{\lambda_{post}} y + \frac{\lambda_{prior}}{\lambda_{post}} \mu_{prior} \end{split}$$

relative precision weighting:

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





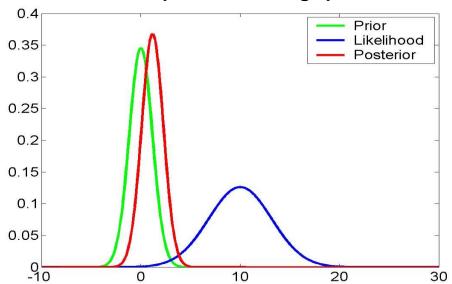


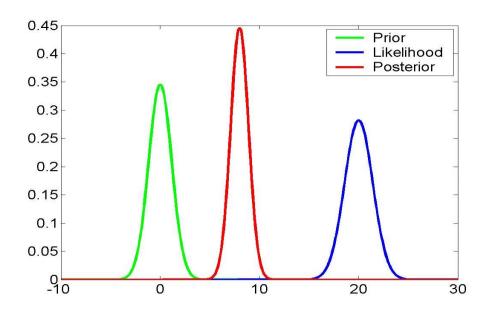
Adapted from a slide by Will Penny.

Choice of priors

- Objective priors:
 - "non-informative" priors (e.g. Jeffreys prior)
- Subjective priors:
 - subjective but not arbitrary
 - express beliefs that result from an understanding the problem or system
 - can accommodate objective constraints (e.g., non-negativity)
- Shrinkage priors:
 - emphasise regularization and sparsity
- Empirical priors:
 - either derived from independent data ...
 - ... or estimated from the same data ("empirical Bayes"); this requires a hierarchical model

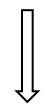
Example of a shrinkage prior



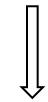


Model comparison and selection

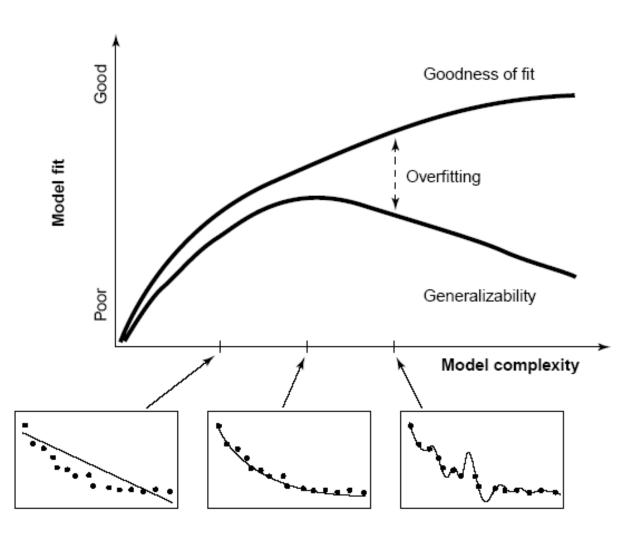
Given competing hypotheses on structure & functional mechanisms of a system, which model is the best?



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

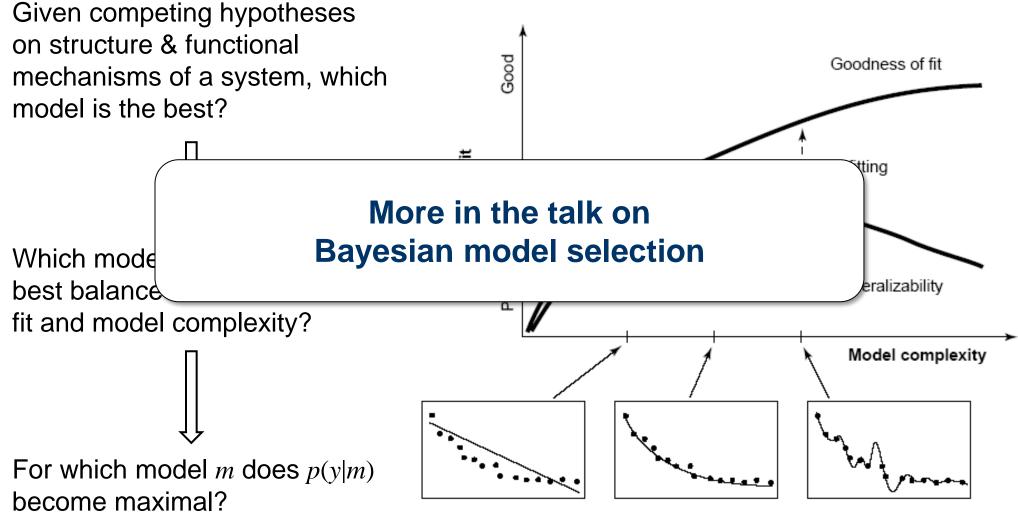


For which model m does p(y|m) become maximal?



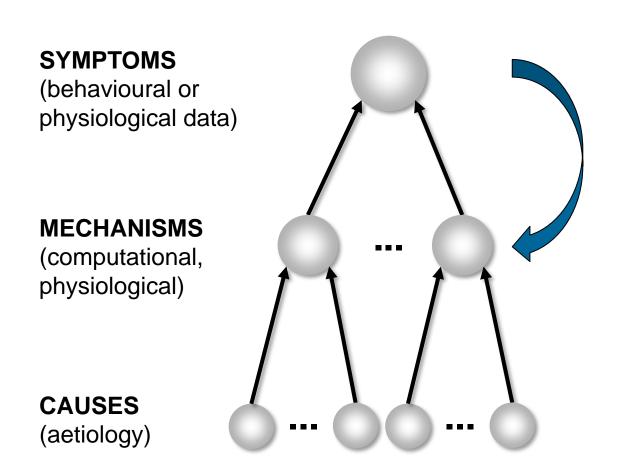
Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

Model comparison and selection



Pitt & Miyung (2002) TICS

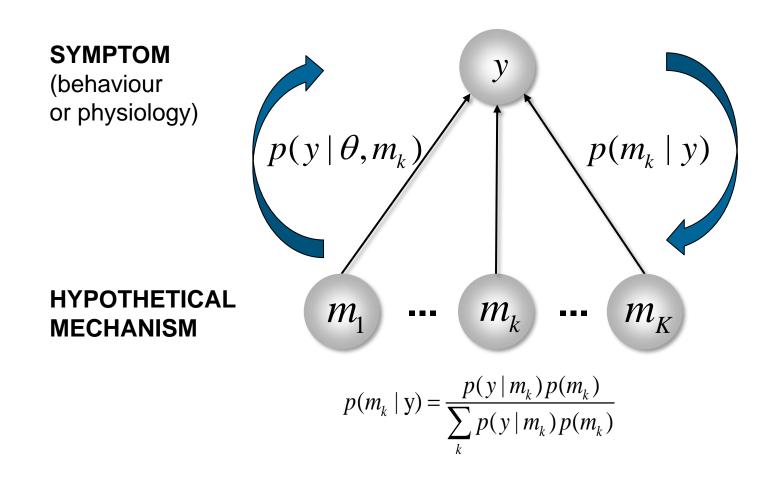
Generative models as basis for computational assays: key clinical questions



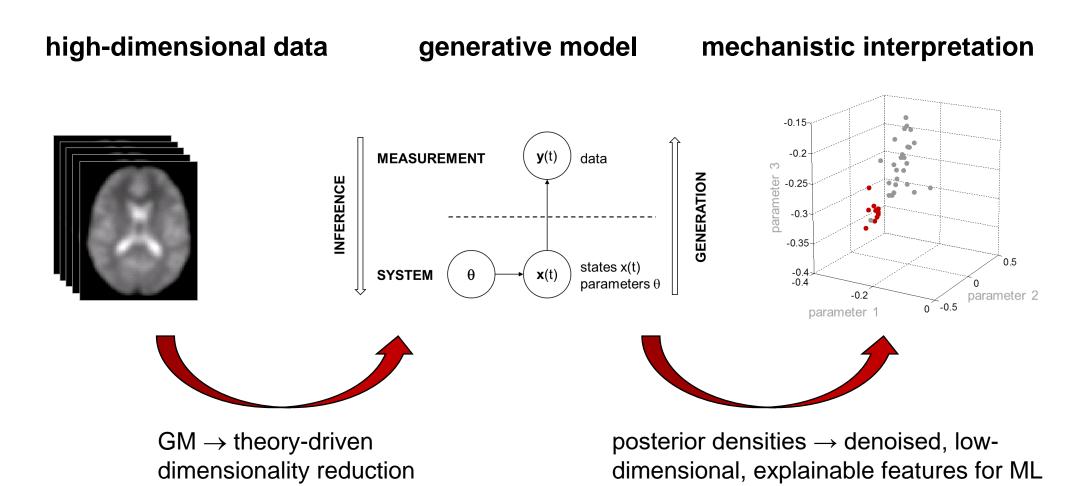
- detecting and differentiating disease mechanisms
- identifying mechanistically distinct subgroups
- **3 prediction** of clinical trajectories and treatment response

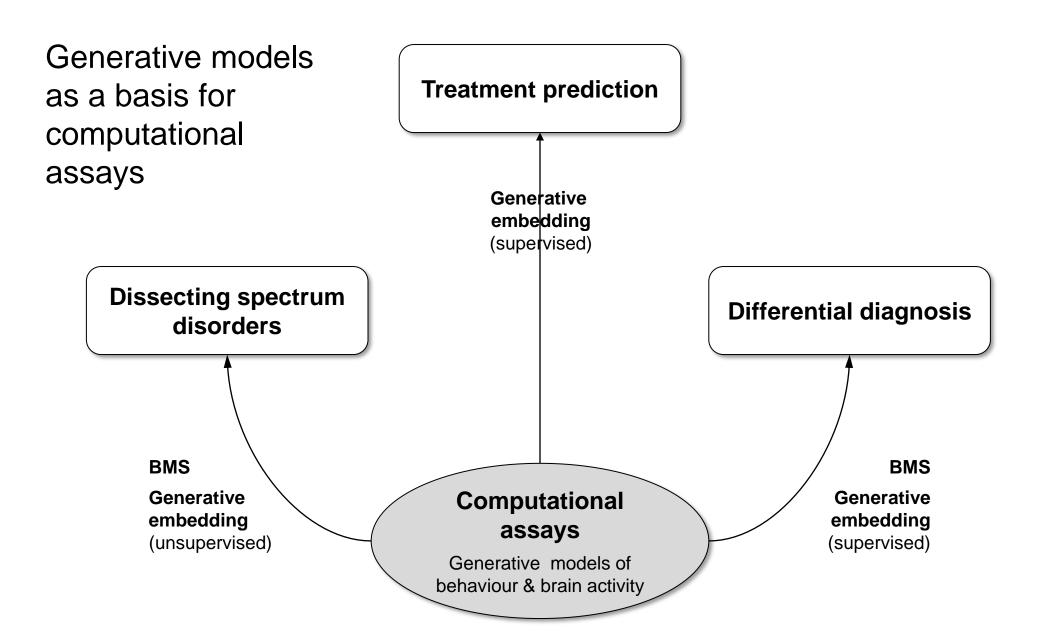
Stephan: Translational Neuromodeling & Computational Psychiatry, in prep.

Model selection for differentiating disease mechanisms



Generative embedding





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