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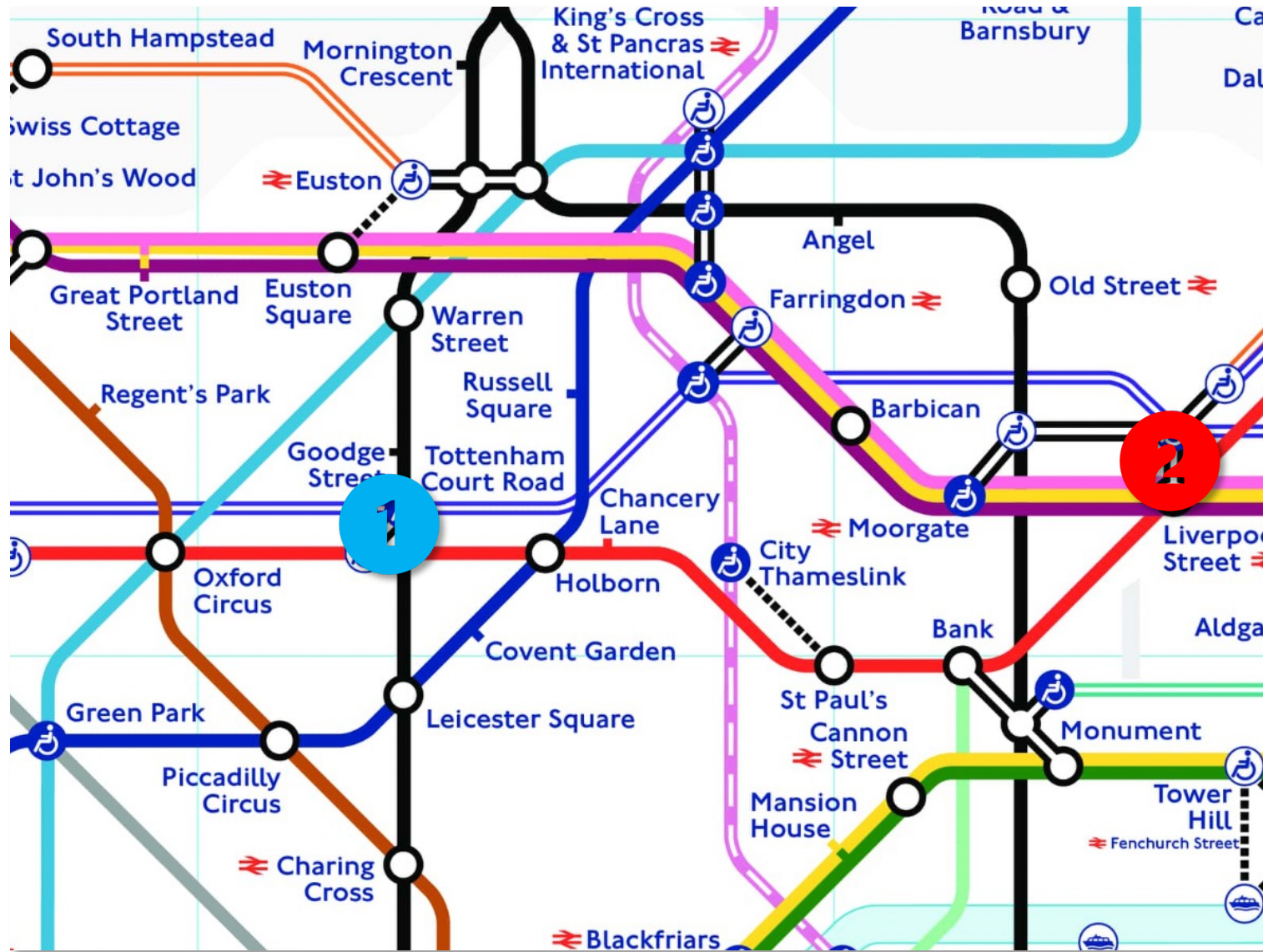
SPM M/EEG Course, London, May 2023

Bayesian Inference

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Wellcome Centre for Human Neuroimaging, UCL

Special thanks to Peter Ziedman, Chris Mathys,
Jean Daunizeau, J r mie Mattout and Karl
Friston for previous versions of this talk



Which route would you choose?

Overview

Brief primer on ill-posed problems

Random variables and PDFs

Axioms of probability

Bayes rule and approximate inference

Demo: variational Bayes in SPM

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Primer

Formally, define the probability of an event, e :

$$p(e) = \frac{\sum e}{\sum s} , \in [0,1]$$

where s the sample space of all possible outcomes.

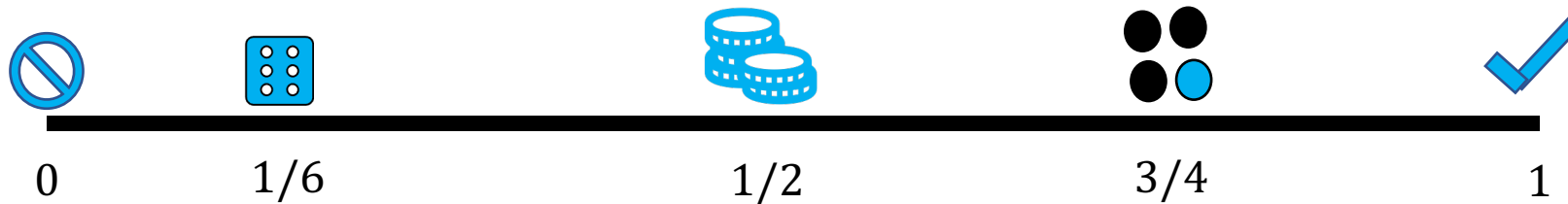
Holds under the assumption that each outcome in the sample space is equally likely

Primer

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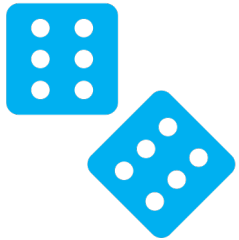
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Primer

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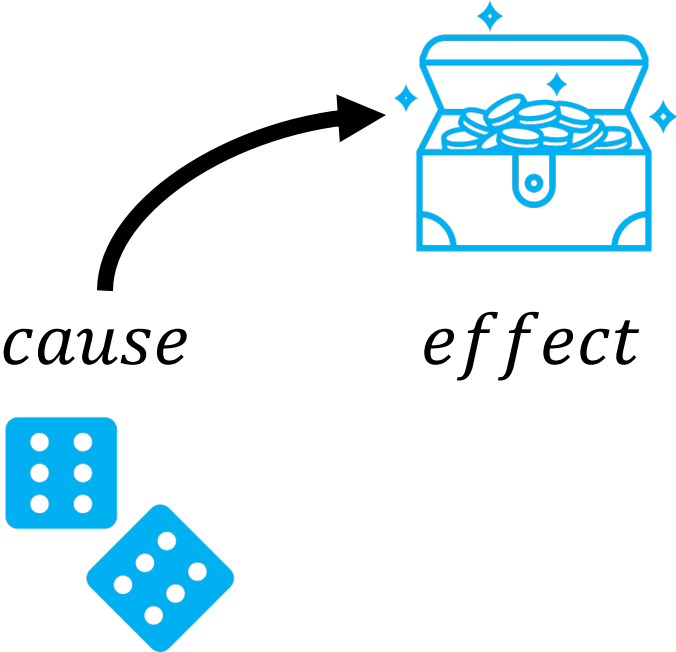


Fair a six-sided die, the sample space:

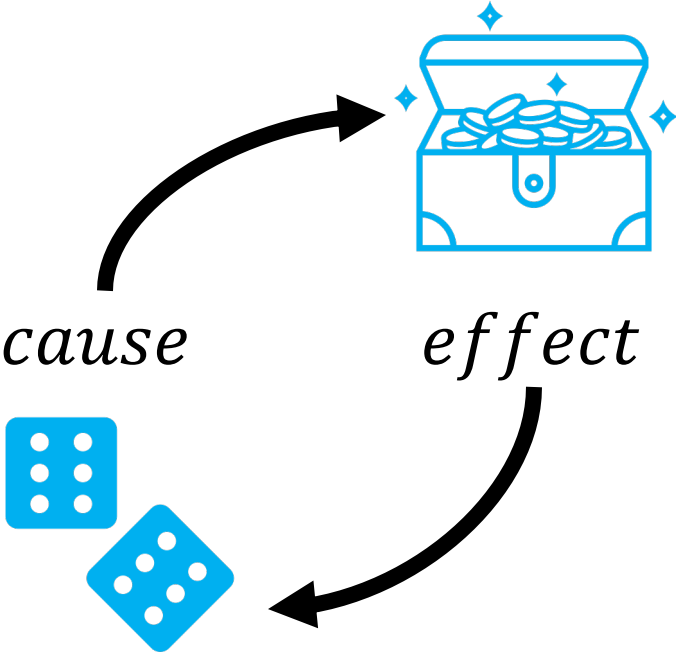
$$s \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \text{ i. e., } \sum s=6$$

$$\text{if } e \in \{2,4,6\} \text{ i. e., } \sum e = 3 \Rightarrow p(e) = \frac{3}{6} = 0.5$$

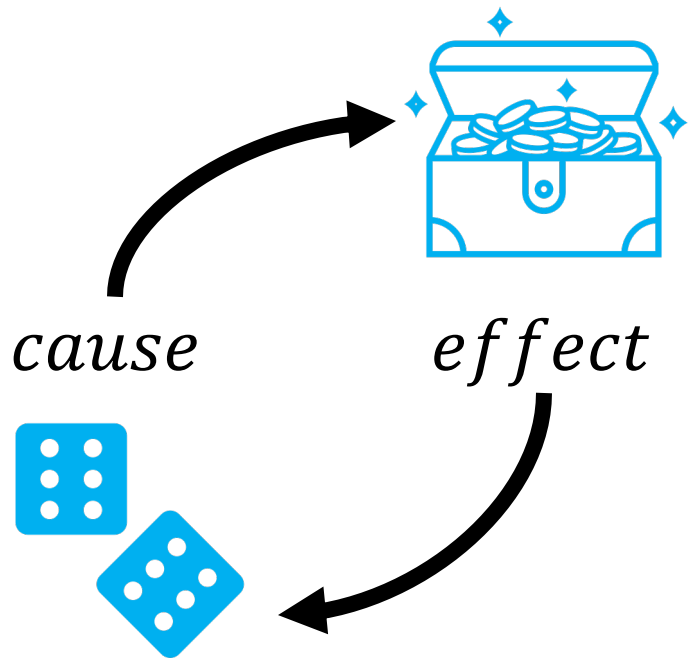
Ill-posed problem



Ill-posed problem



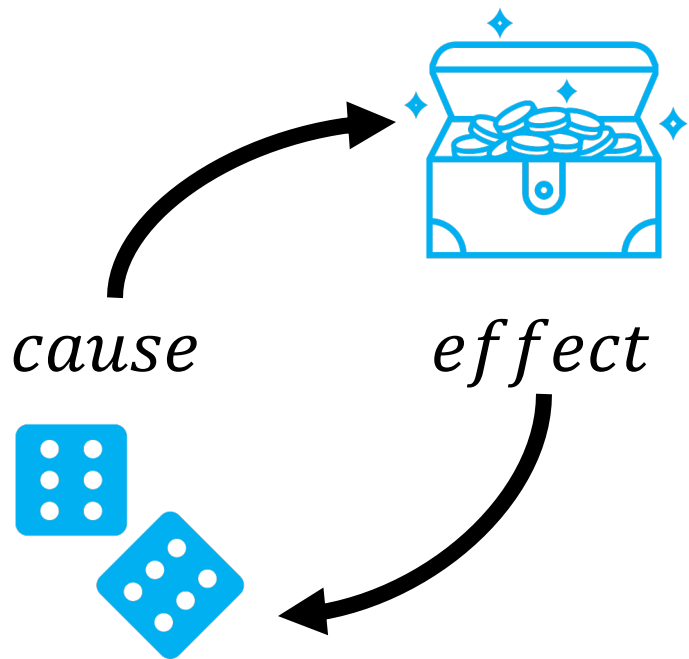
Ill-posed problem



Forward: $p(\text{effect}|\text{cause}) \in [0,1]$

Inverse: $p(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) \in [0,1]$

Ill-posed problem



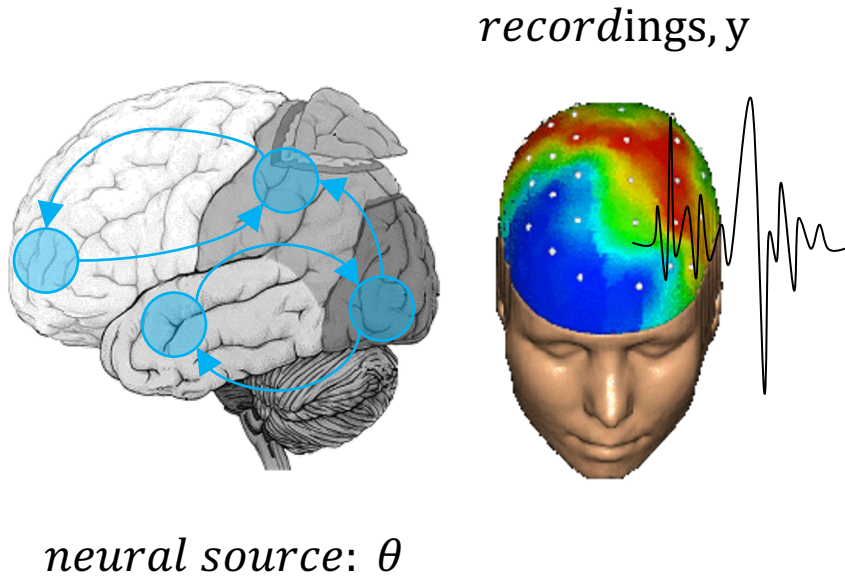
$$p(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{p(\text{effect}|\text{cause})p(\text{cause})}{p(\text{effect})}$$



Forward: $p(\text{effect}|\text{cause}) \in [0,1]$

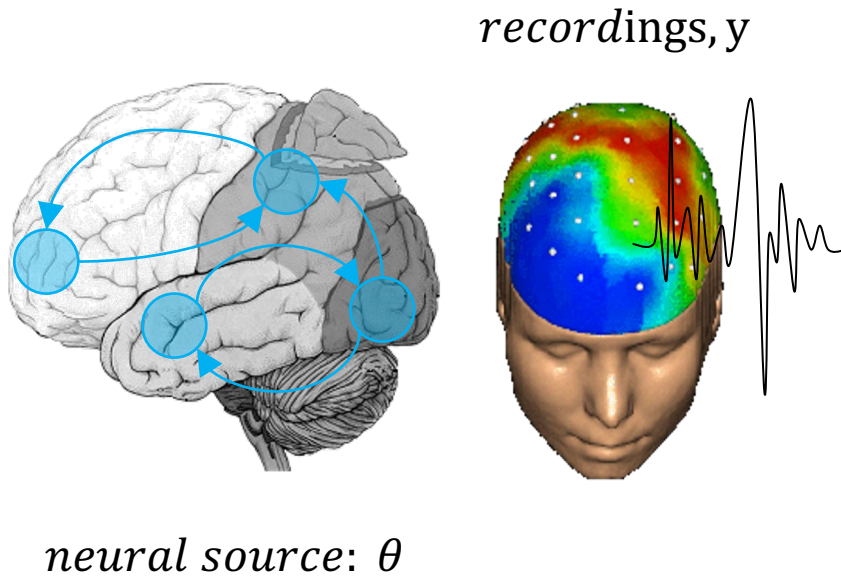
Inverse: $p(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) \in [0,1]$

Example of ill-posed problem*



*Example from Peter Zeidman and Chris Mathys

Example of ill-posed problem*



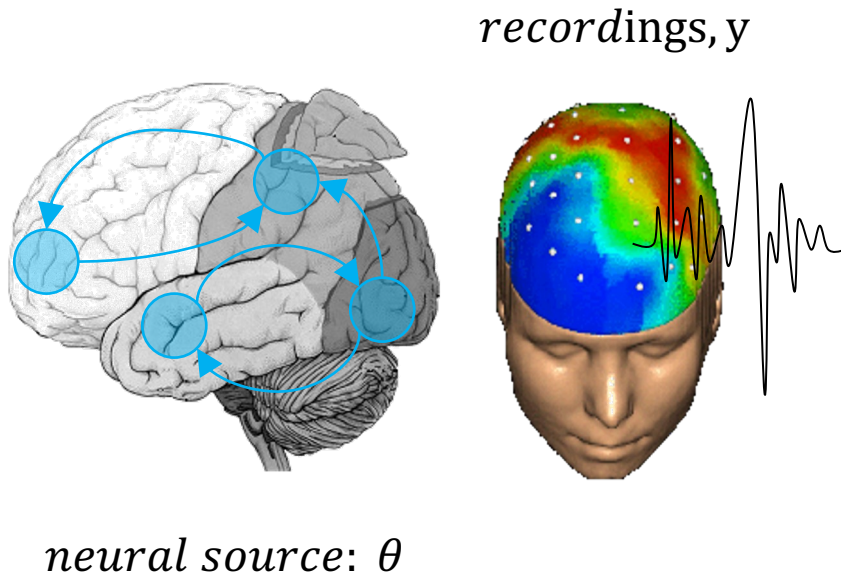
$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}, y = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 & \dots & 0.9 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0.4 & \dots & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$p(\theta = [\cdot] | y)$$

i. e., $p(\text{cause} | \text{effect})$

*Example from Peter Zeidman and Chris Mathys

Example of ill-posed problem*



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ill-posed problems

*Example from Peter Zeidman and Chris Mathys

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Random variables and PDFs

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Demo: variational Bayes in SPM

Random variables

Random variable, X is a function that assigns a real number to each outcome in the sample space, Ω , of a random process:

$$X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

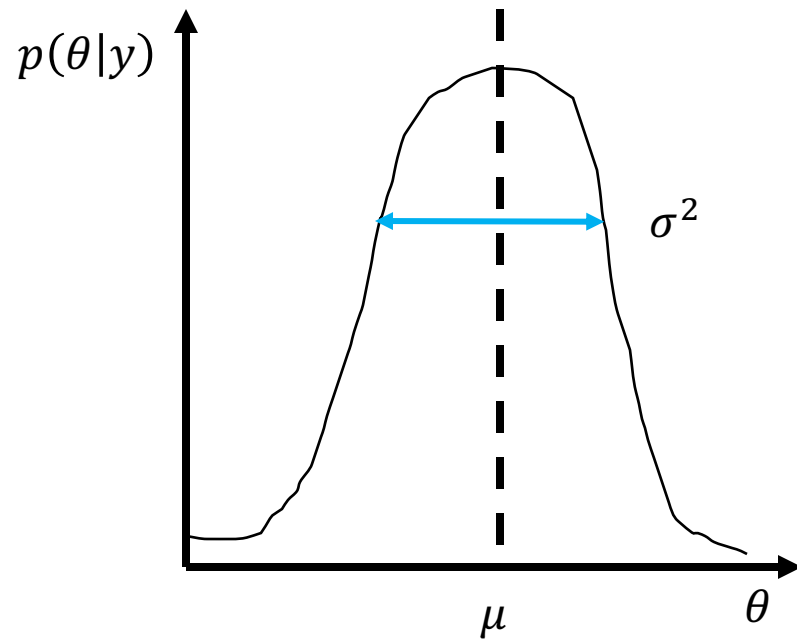
where \mathbb{R} denotes the set of real numbers.

We can have two types of random variables: discrete and continuous

Example of continuous random variable

Here, we want to infer:

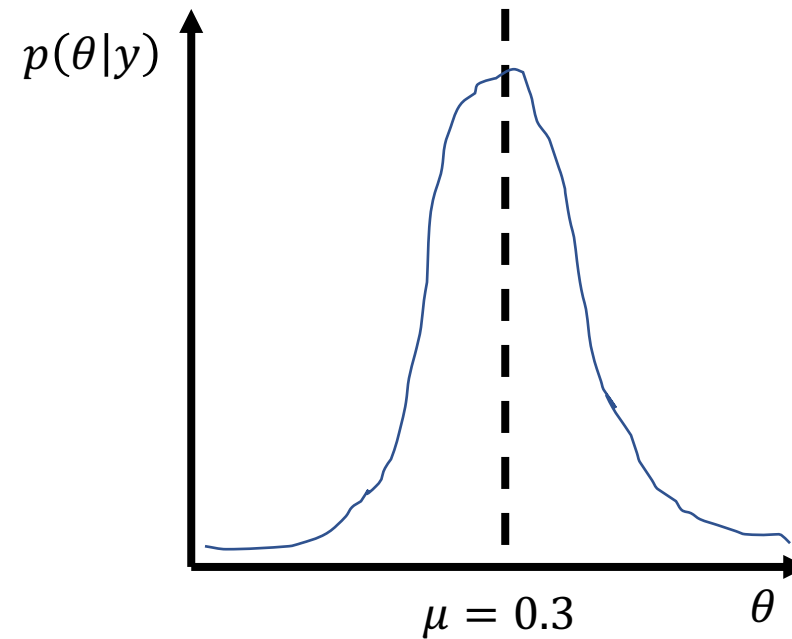
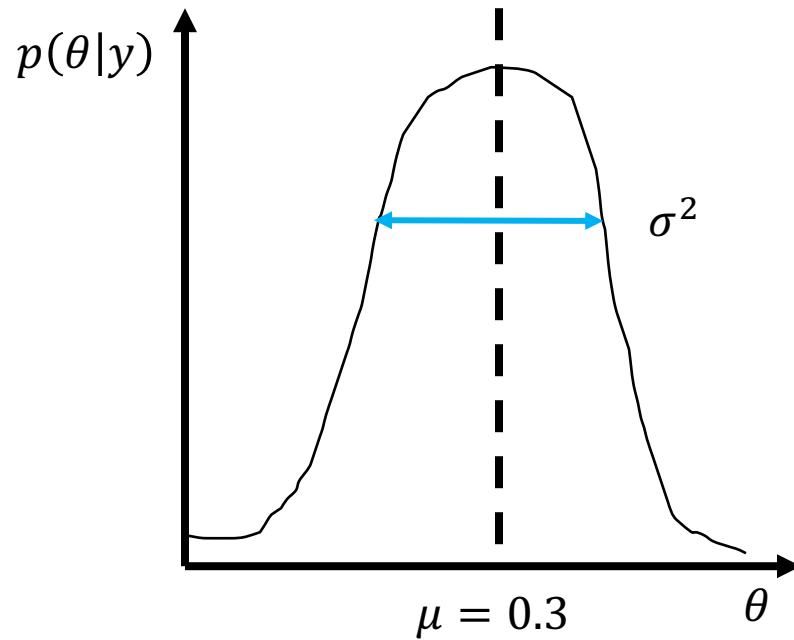
$$p(\theta|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$



Example of continuous random variable

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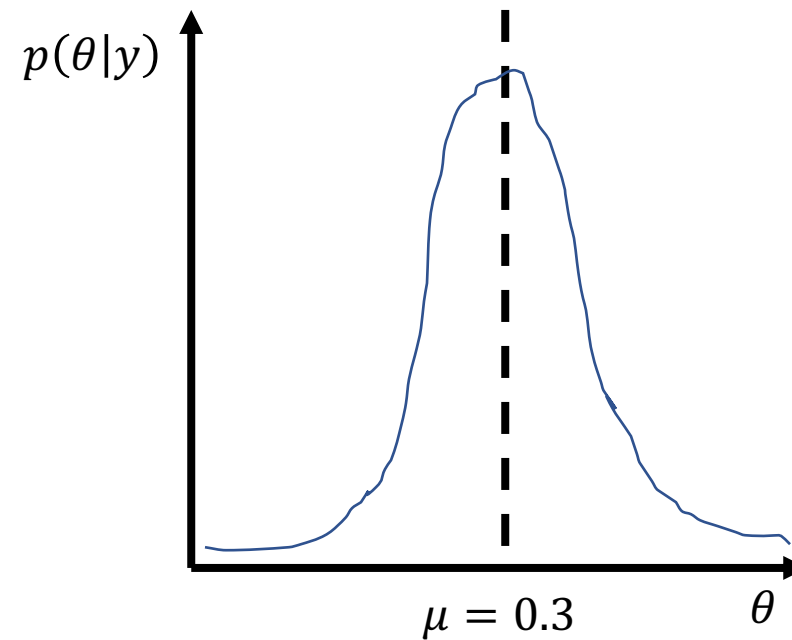
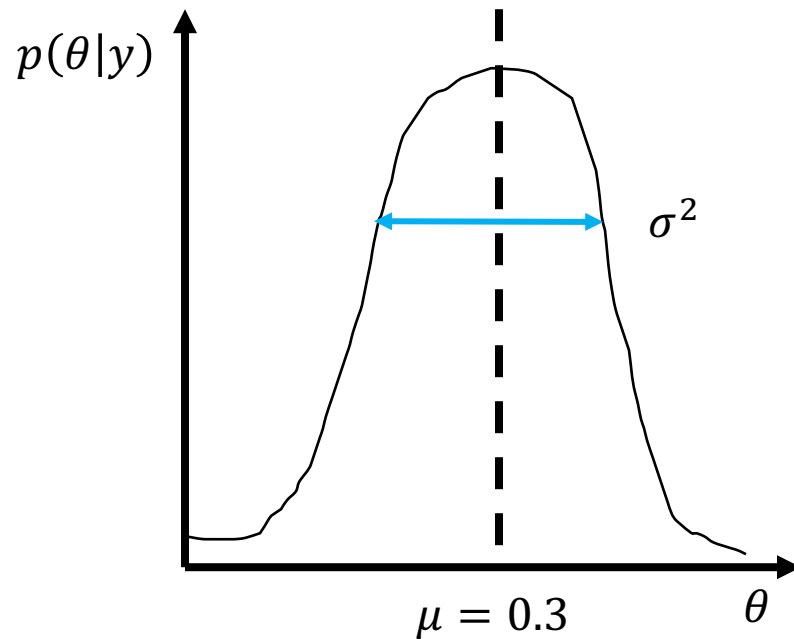
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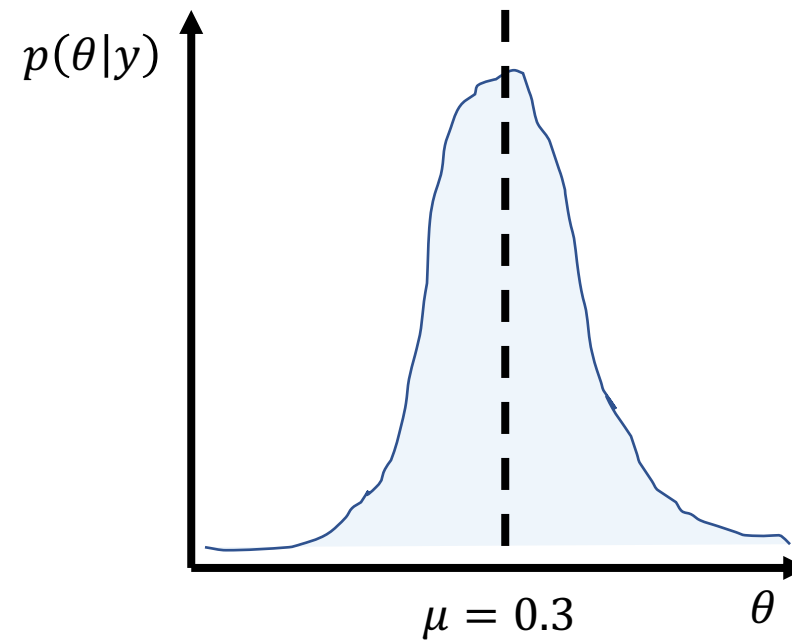
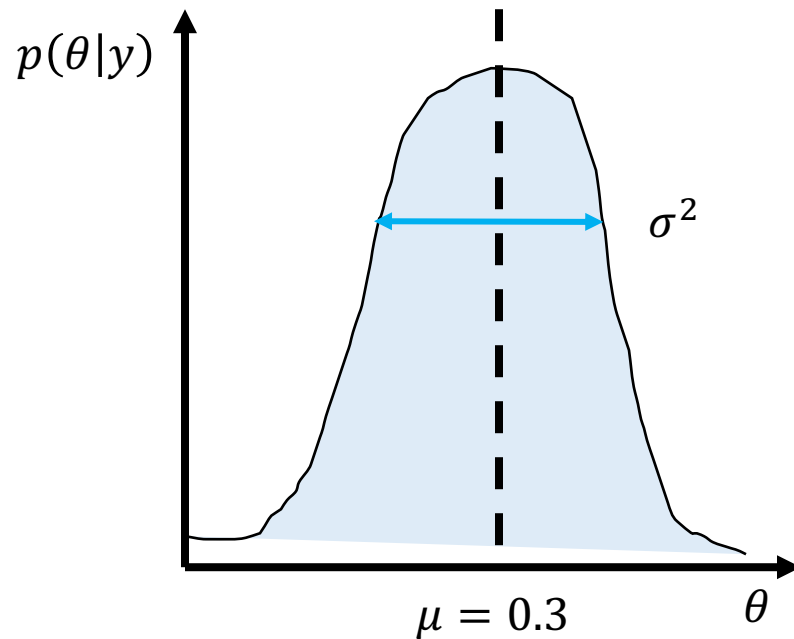
$$p(\theta|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2), \pi = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$



Example of continuous random variable

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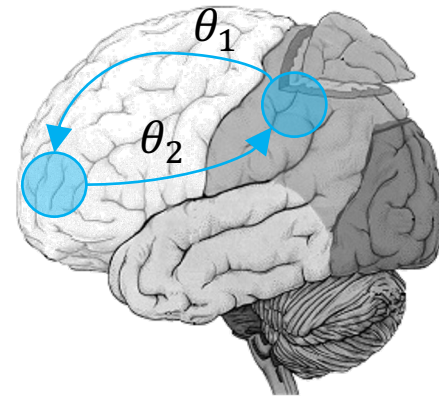
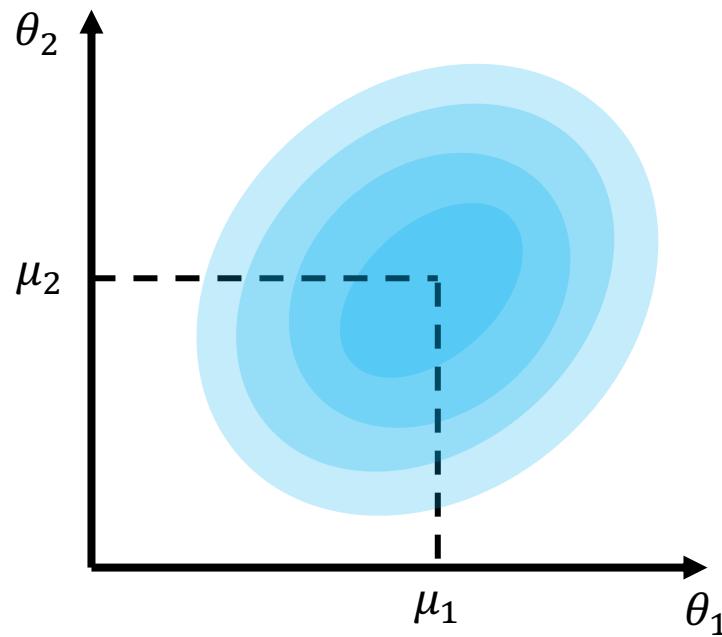
$$p(\theta|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2), \pi = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$



Example of continuous random variable

Here, we want to infer:

$$p(\bar{\theta}|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\mu}, \Sigma), \quad \bar{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$



neural source: θ

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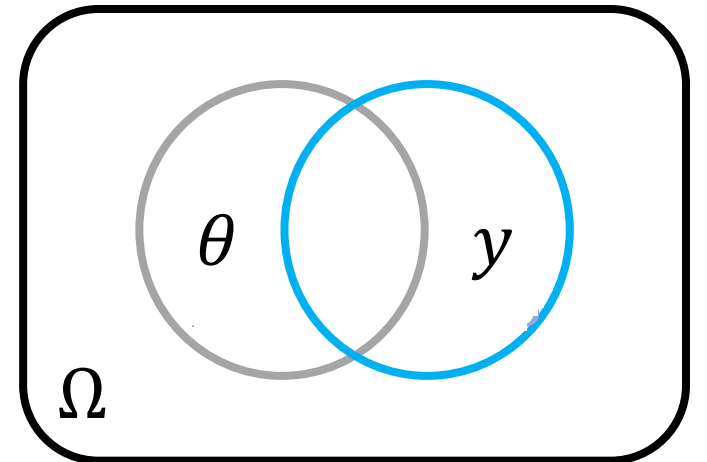
Demo: variational Bayes in SPM

Different kinds of probabilities

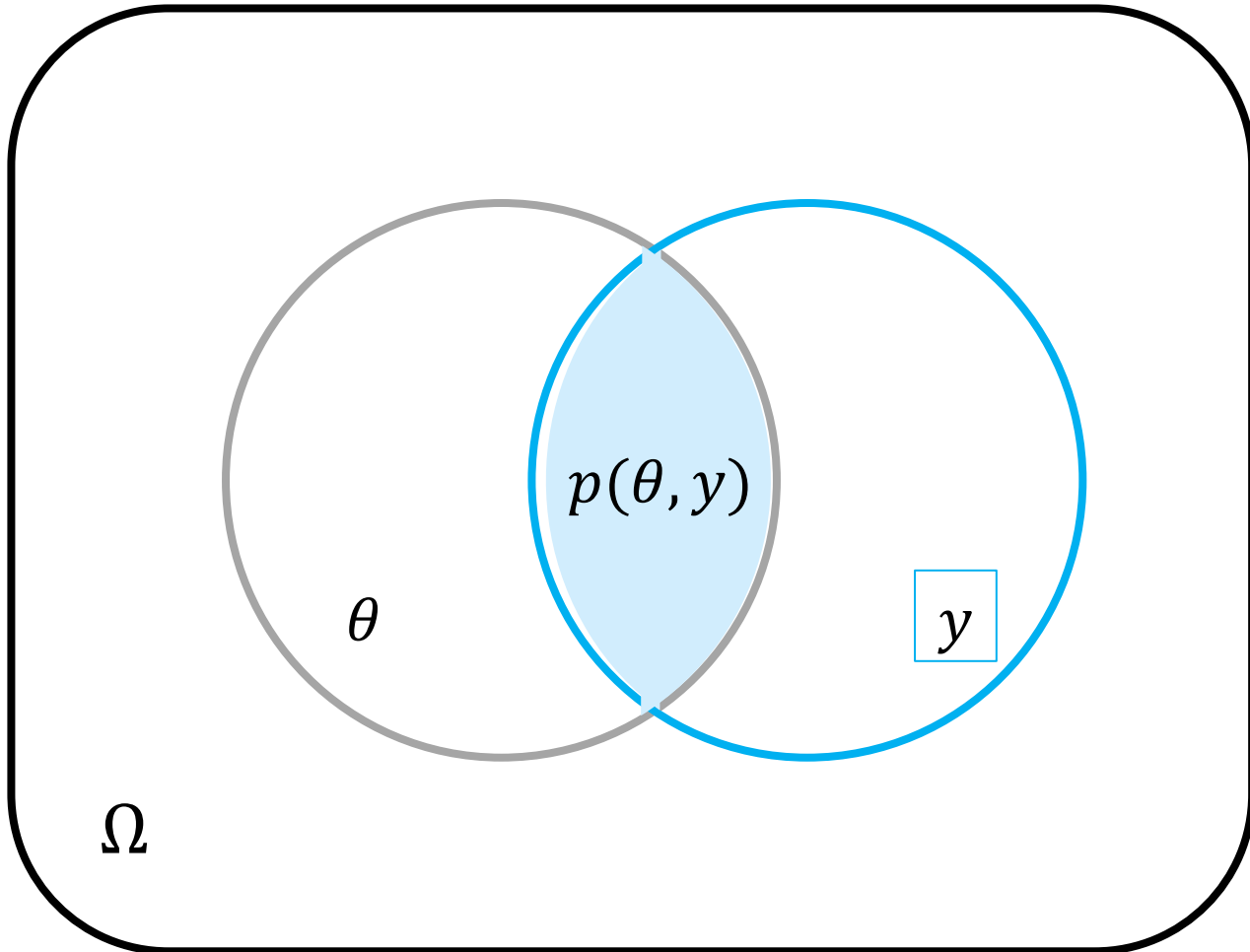
We assume a probability space Ω with subsets y and θ .

From this, we can define 3 kinds of probabilities:

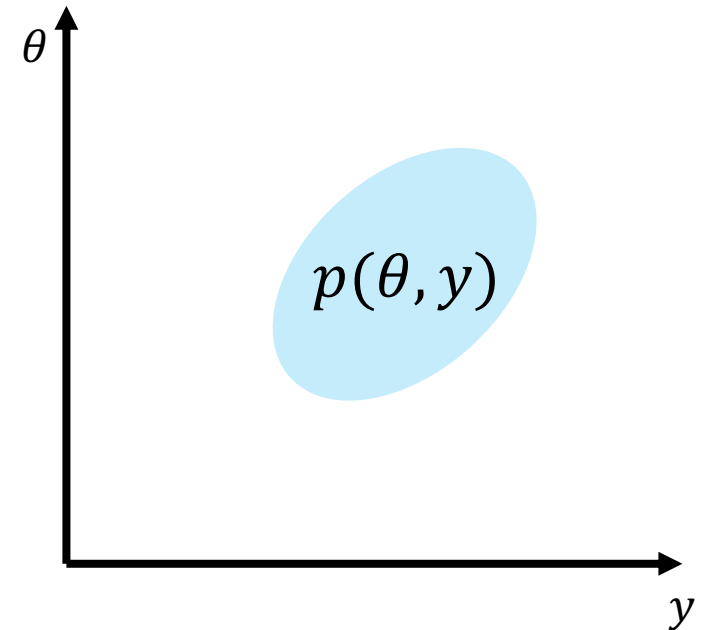
1. Joint probabilities e.g., $p(\theta, y)$



Joint probability



$$\int p(y, \theta) d\theta dy = 1$$

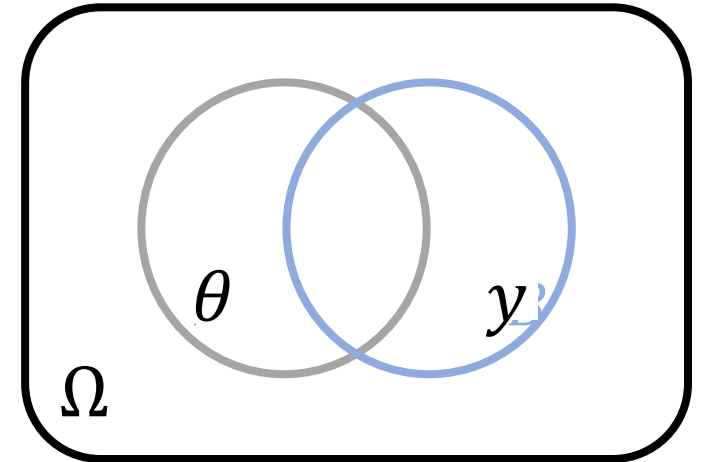


Different kinds of probabilities

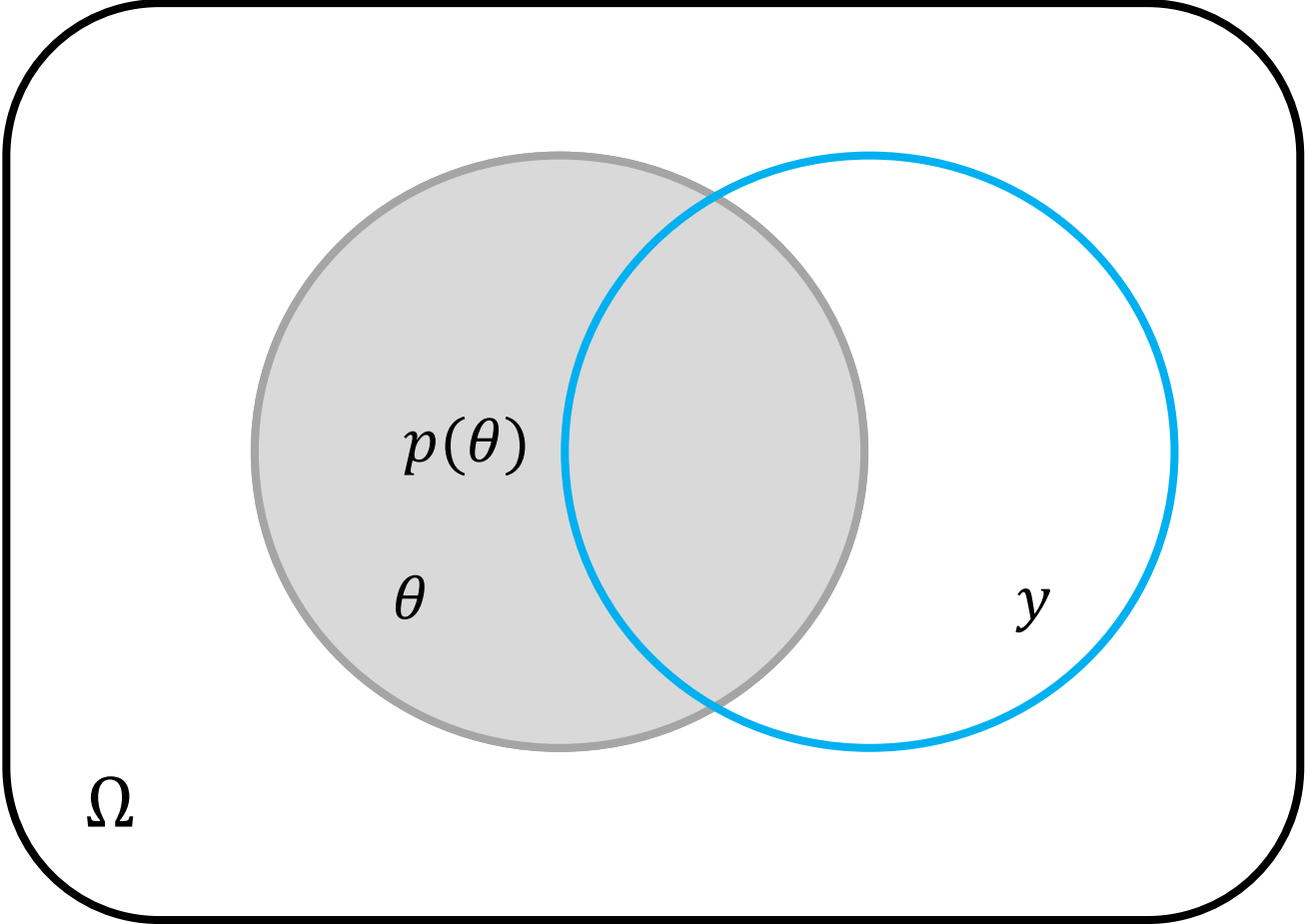
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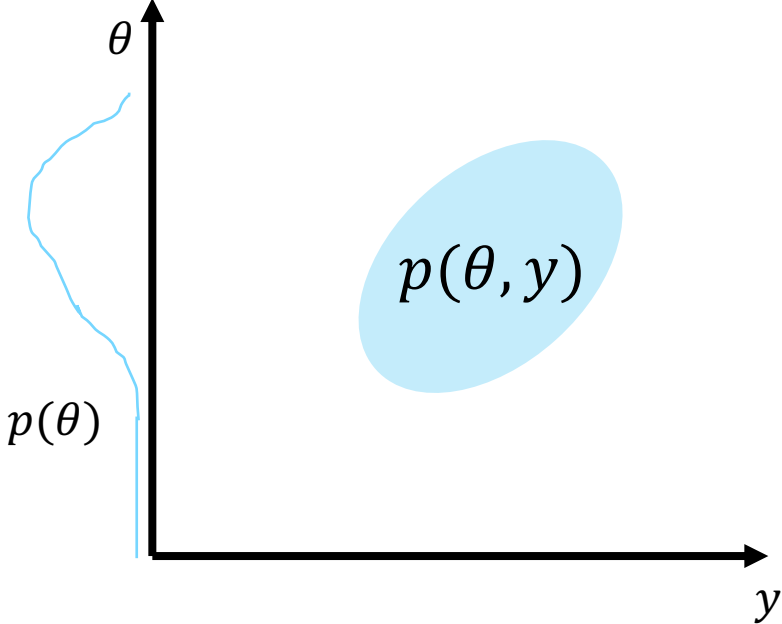
1. Joint probabilities e.g., $p(\theta, y)$
2. Marginal probabilities e.g., $p(\theta)$



Marginal probability



$$p(\theta) = \int p(y, \theta) dy$$



Example for discrete random variables

- Let A be the statement 'the sun is shining'
- Let B be the statement 'it is raining'
- \bar{A} negates A , \bar{B} negates B

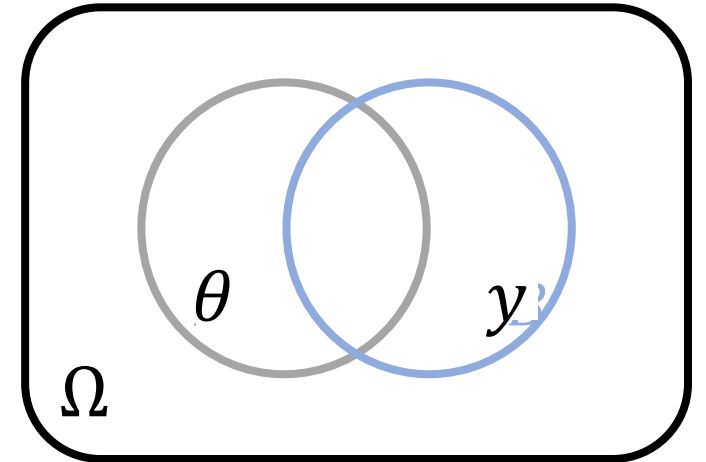
| | | | |
|------------------------|-----|-----------|--|
| | B | \bar{B} | Marginal probabilities |
| A | 0.1 | 0.5 | |
| \bar{A} | 0.2 | 0.2 | |
| Marginal probabilities | | | Sum of all probabilities $\sum p(\cdot, \cdot) = 1$ |

Different kinds of probabilities

We assume a probability space Ω with subsets y and θ .

From this, we can define 3 kinds of probabilities:

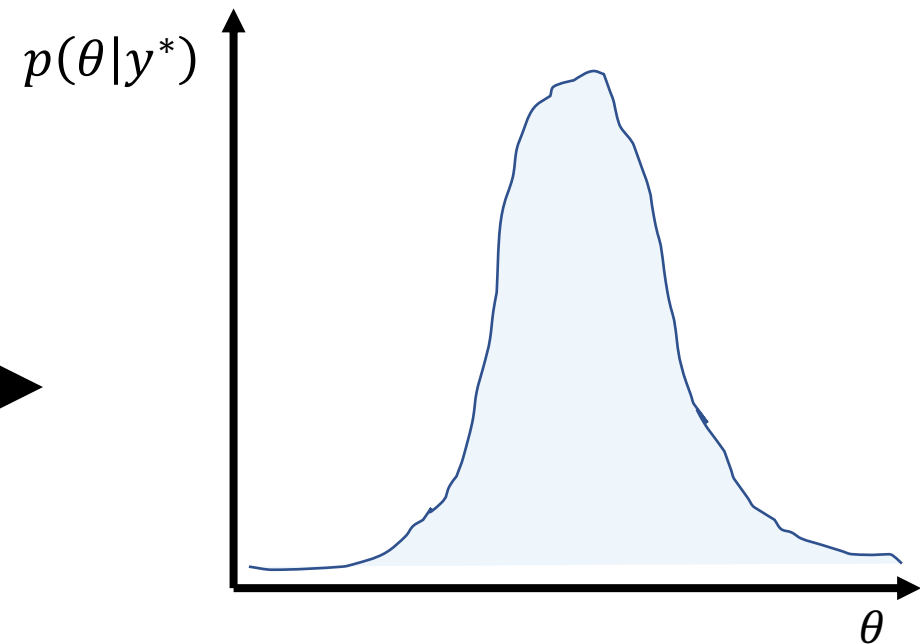
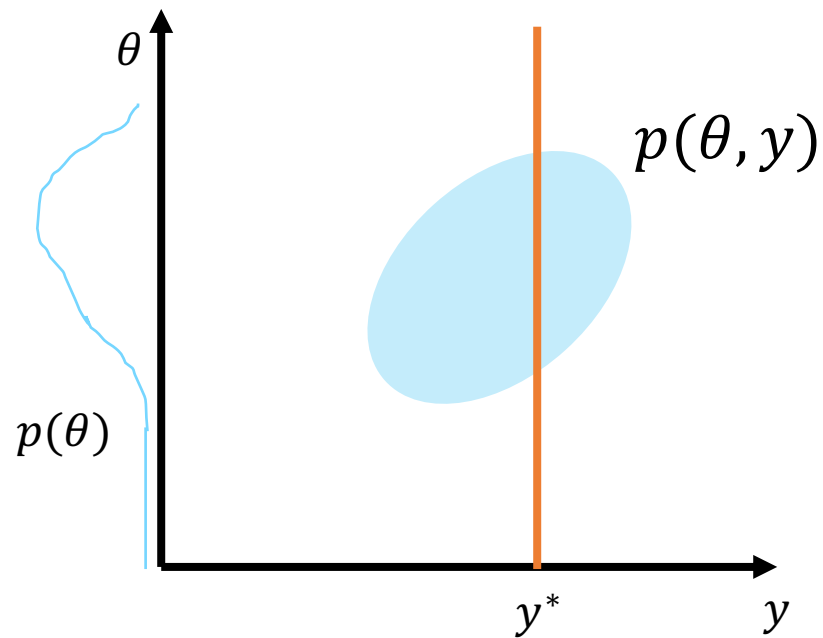
- Joint probabilities e.g., $p(\theta, y)$
- Marginal probabilities e.g., $p(y)$
- Conditional probabilities e.g., $p(\theta|y)$



Conditional probability

$$p(\theta|y) = \int p(y, \theta) dy$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta, y) &= p(y|\theta)p(\theta) \\ &= p(\theta|y)p(y) \end{aligned}$$



Example for discrete random variables

- Let A be the statement 'the sun is shining'
- Let B be the statement 'it is raining'
- \bar{A} negates A , \bar{B} negates B

What is the probability that the sun is shining given that it is not raining?

| | B | \bar{B} | Marginal probabilities |
|------------------------|-----|-----------|--|
| A | 0.1 | 0.5 | 0.6 |
| \bar{A} | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.4 |
| Marginal probabilities | 0.3 | 0.7 | Sum of all probabilities $\sum p(\cdot, \cdot) = 1$ |

Axioms of probability

1. $\int p(y, \theta) d\theta dy = 1$ (*Normalisation*)

2. $p(\theta) = \int p(y, \theta) dy$ (*Marginalisation – the sum rule*)

3. $p(\theta, y) = p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$
 $= p(\theta|y)p(y)$ (*Conditioning – the product rule*)

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Bayes' rule

Product rule states that:

$$p(\theta|y)p(y) = p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

Next, we rearrange:

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

Apply the sum and product rules:

$$p(y) = \int p(y, \theta) d\theta = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta$$

Bayes' rule

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

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Demo

General linear model formulation:

$$[20 \cdot 1] \quad [20 \cdot 1]$$

$$\bar{y} = x \bar{\beta} + \bar{\epsilon}$$

$$[20 \cdot 2] \quad [2 \cdot 1]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 18 \\ 1 & 32 \\ 1 & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where, $\bar{\epsilon}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

Demo

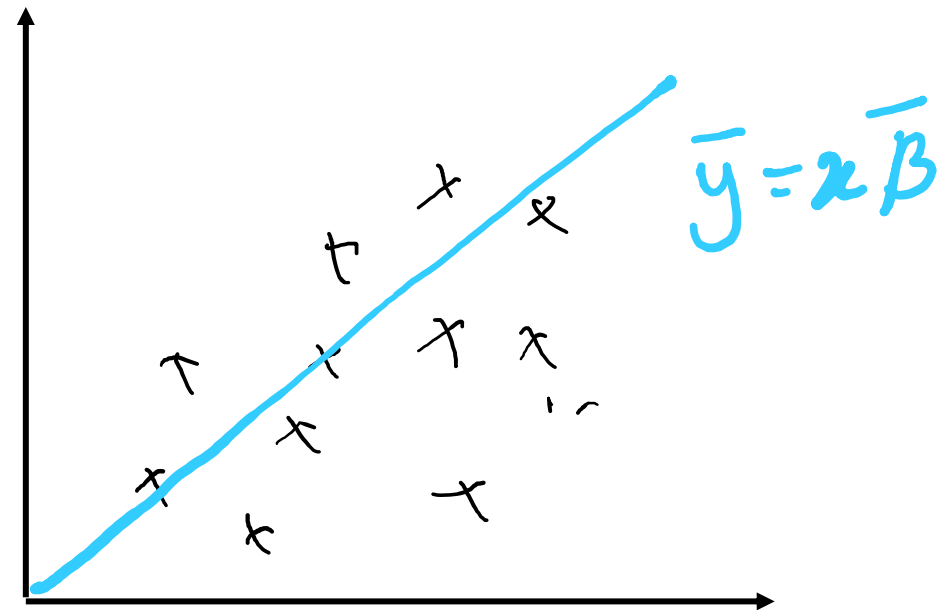
General linear model formulation:

$$\begin{matrix} [100 \cdot 1] & [100 \cdot 1] \\ \bar{y} = x \bar{\beta} + \bar{\epsilon} \end{matrix}$$

$$[100 \cdot 2][2 \cdot 1]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 18 \\ 1 & 32 \\ 1 & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where, $\bar{\epsilon}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$



Demo

Likelihood:

$$p(y|\bar{\beta}) \sim \mathcal{N}(x\bar{\beta}, \Sigma)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & & \\ & \sigma^2 & \\ & & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

Prediction is given by $x\bar{\beta}$; uncertainty can be thought of as following a normal distribution over that prediction.

Demo

Likelihood:

$$p(y|\bar{\beta}) \sim \mathcal{N}(x\bar{\beta}, \Sigma)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^2 & & \\ & \sigma^2 & \\ & & \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Prior:

$$p(\bar{\beta}) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

Prediction is given by $x\bar{\beta}$; uncertainty can be thought of as following a normal distribution over that prediction.

Demo

Posterior:
$$p(\bar{\beta} | y) = \frac{p(y | \bar{\beta}) p(\bar{\beta})}{p(y)}$$

where,
$$p(y) = \int p(y | \bar{\beta}) p(\bar{\beta}) d\beta$$

Variational inference

- Calculate the evidence by marginalising out the parameters from the joint density:

$$p(y) = \int p(y|\bar{\beta})p(\bar{\beta})d\beta$$

- The evidence integral is **not** available in closed form + computing this requires variational inference.
- We introduce a variational density q that can be integrated: $q(\bar{\beta}) \approx p(\bar{\beta}|y)$
- We now make a move from $p(y) \rightarrow \log p(y)$ to make the computations easier.

Deriving the free energy

Assumptions: $p(\bar{\beta}|y) \neq 0$ and $q(\bar{\beta}) \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned}\log p(y) &= \log p(y) + \int \log \frac{p(\bar{\beta}|y)}{p(\bar{\beta}|y)} d\beta \\ &= \int q(\bar{\beta}) \log p(y) d\beta + \int q(\bar{\beta}) \log \frac{p(\bar{\beta}|y)}{p(\bar{\beta}|y)} d\beta \\ &= \int q(\bar{\beta}) \log \frac{p(\bar{\beta}, y)}{p(\bar{\beta}|y)} d\beta \\ &= \int q(\bar{\beta}) \log \frac{p(\bar{\beta}, y)}{q(\bar{\beta})} d\beta + \int q(\bar{\beta}) \log \frac{q(\bar{\beta})}{p(\bar{\beta}|y)} d\beta\end{aligned}$$

Free energy **KL-divergence**

divergence is 0
iff $q(\cdot) = p(\cdot | y)$

Demo

Posterior:
$$p(\bar{\beta}|y) = \frac{p(y|\bar{\beta})p(\bar{\beta})}{p(y)}$$

where,
$$p(y) = \int p(y|\bar{\beta})p(\bar{\beta})d\beta$$

$$p(\bar{\beta}|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) \text{ and } \log p(y) \approx F$$

Matlab demo

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Probability theory is nothing but common sense
reduced to calculation.

— Pierre-Simon Laplace, 1819