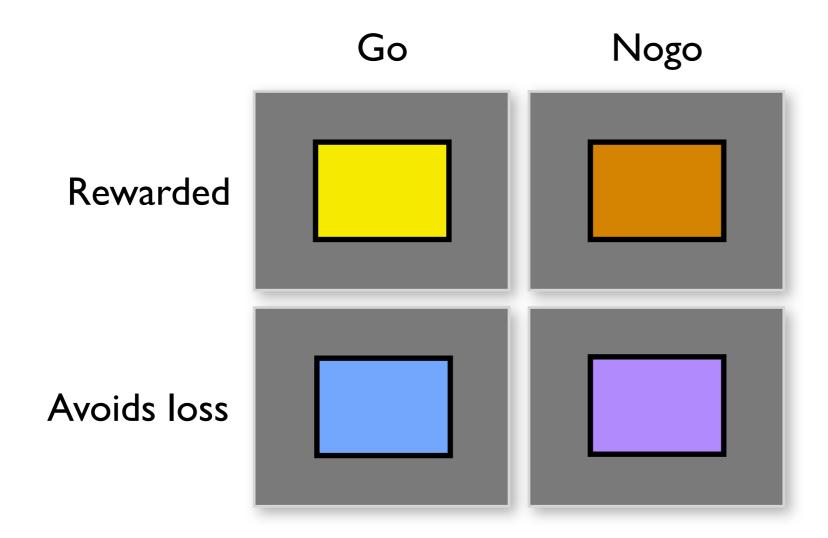
Modelling behavioural data

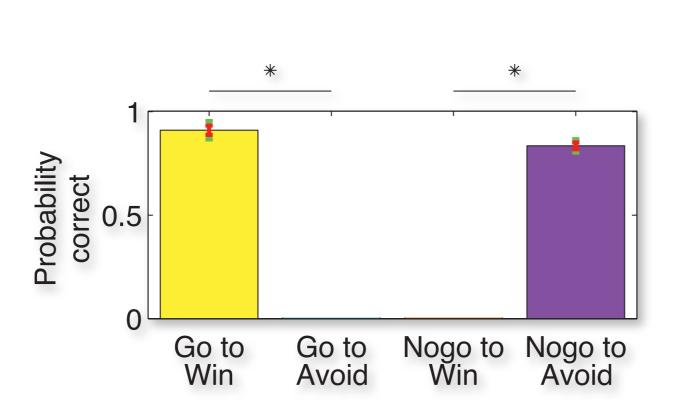
Quentin Huys
MA PhD MBBS MBPsS

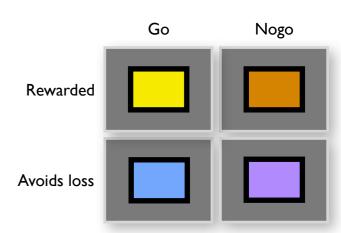
Translational Neuromodeling Unit, ETH Zürich Psychiatrische Universitätsklinik Zürich

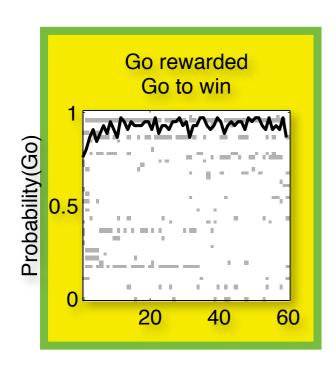
Outline

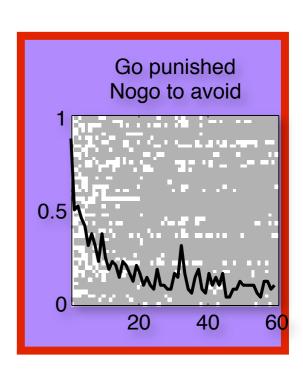
- An example task
- Why build models? What is a model
- Fitting models
- Validating & comparing models
- Model comparison issues in psychiatry



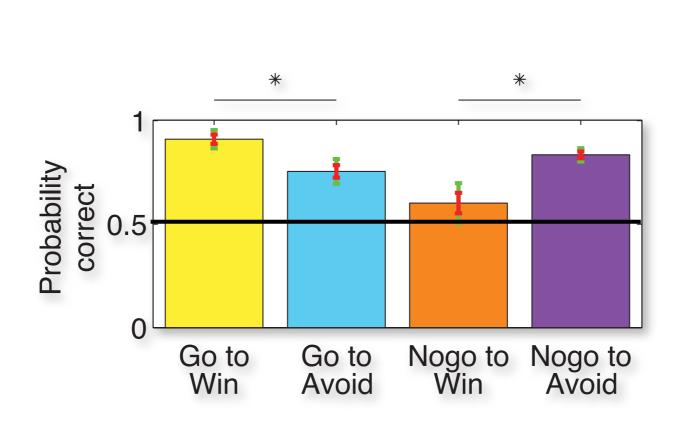


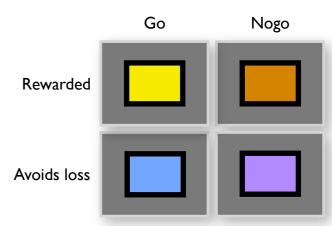


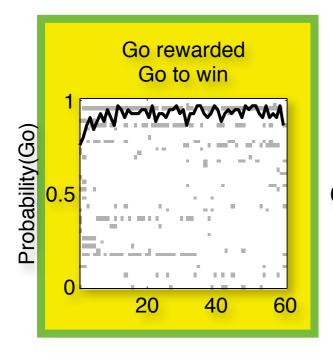


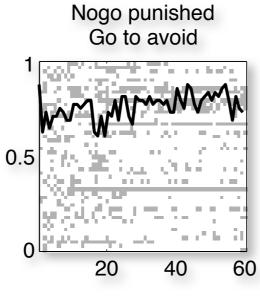


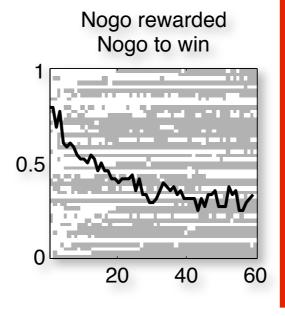
Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

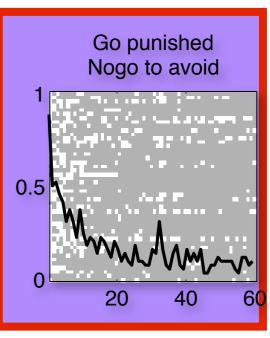






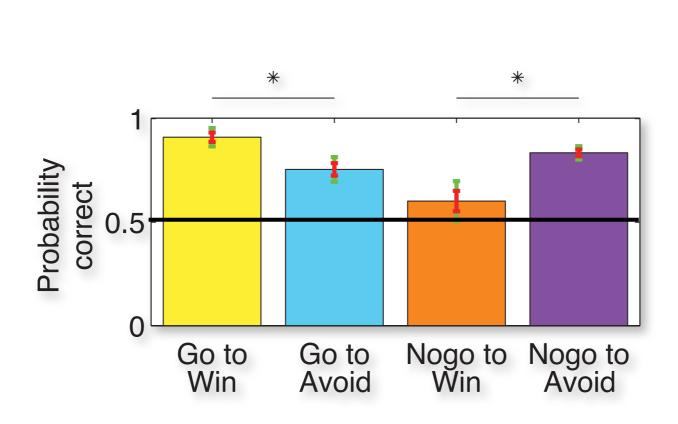


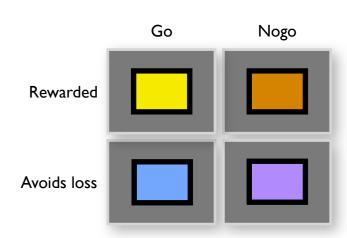


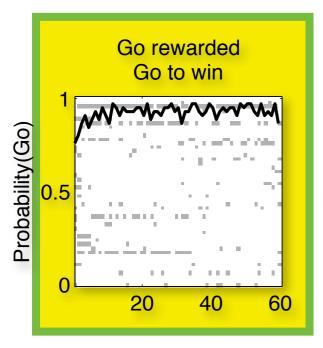


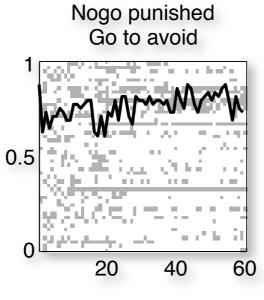
Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

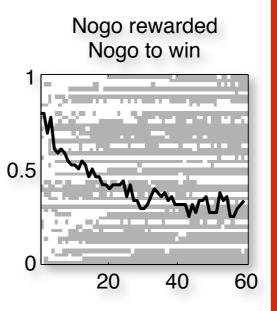
Quentin Huys, TNU/PUK Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Behavioural data modelling

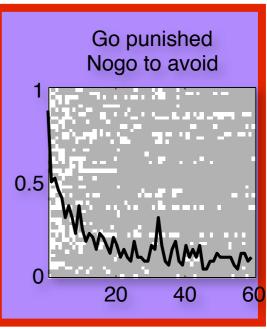












Think of it as four separate two-armed bandit tasks

Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Quentin Huys, TNU/PUK Behavioural data modelling

Analysing behaviour

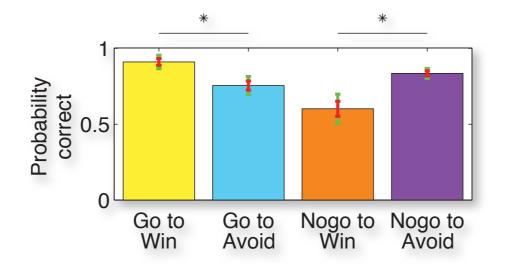
- Standard approach:
 - Decide which feature of the data you care about
 - Run descriptive statistical tests, e.g. ANOVA

- Many strengths
- Weakness
 - Piecemeal, not holistic / global
 - Descriptive, not generative
 - No internal variables

Analysing behaviour

Standard approach:

- Decide which feature of the data you care about
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- Many strengths
- Weakness
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Models

Holistic

 Aim to model the process by which the data came about in its "entirety"

Generative

 They can be run on the task to generate data as if a subject had done the task

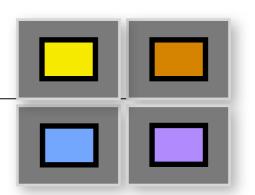
Inference process

- Capture the inference process subjects have to make to perform the task.
- Do this in sufficient detail to replicate the data.

Parameters

- replace test statistics
- their meaning is explicit in the model
- their contribution to the data is assessed in a holistic manner

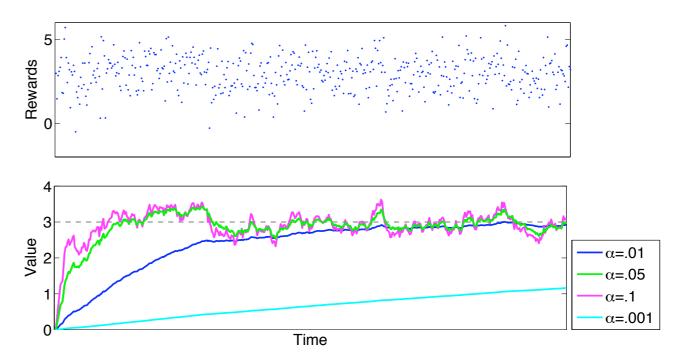
A simple Rescorla-Wagner model



Q values

$$Q_t(a_t, s_t) = Q_{t-1}(a_t, s_t) + \epsilon(r_t - Q_{t-1}(a_t, s_t))$$

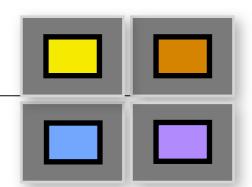
- a_t action on trial t; can be either 'go' or 'logo'
- s_t stimulus presented on trial t
- ϵ learning rate



Key points:

- Q is the key part of the hypothesis
- formally states the learning process in quantitative detail
- formalizes internal quantities that are used in the task

Actions



Q values

$$Q_t(a_t, s_t) = Q_{t-1}(a_t, s_t) + \epsilon(r_t - Q_{t-1}(a_t, s_t))$$

Action probabilities: "softmax" of Q value

$$p(a_t|s_t, h_t, \beta) = p(a_t|\mathcal{Q}(a_t, s_t), \beta)$$

$$= \frac{e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a_t, s_t)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a', s_t)}}$$

▶ Features:

$$p(a_t|s_t) \propto \mathcal{Q}(a_t, s_t)$$
$$0 \le p(a) \le 1$$

- links learning process and observations
 - choices, RTs, or any other data
 - link function in GLMs
 - man other forms

Fitting models I

Maximum likelihood (ML) parameters

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$$

where the likelihood of all choices is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \log p(\{a_t\}_{t=1}^T | \{s_t\}_{t=1}^T, \{r_t\}_{t=1}^T, \underbrace{\theta}_{\beta, \epsilon})$$

$$= \log p(\{a_t\}_{t=1}^T | \{\mathcal{Q}(s_t, a_t; \epsilon)\}_{t=1}^T, \beta)$$

$$= \log \prod_{t=1}^T p(a_t | \mathcal{Q}(s_t, a_t; \epsilon), \beta)$$

$$= \sum_{t=1}^T \log p(a_t | \mathcal{Q}(s_t, a_t; \epsilon), \beta)$$

Fitting models II

- No closed form
- Use your favourite method
 - gradients
 - fminunc / fmincon...
- Gradients for RW model

$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}(\theta)}{d\theta} = \frac{d}{d\theta} \sum_{t} \log p(a_{t}|\mathcal{Q}_{t}(a_{t}, s_{t}; \epsilon), \beta)$$

$$= \sum_{t} \frac{d}{d\theta} \beta \mathcal{Q}_{t}(a_{t}, s_{t}; \epsilon) - \sum_{a'} p(a'|\mathcal{Q}_{t}(a', s_{t}; \epsilon), \beta) \frac{d}{d\theta} \beta \mathcal{Q}_{t}(a', s_{t}; \epsilon)$$

$$\frac{d\mathcal{Q}_{t}(a_{t}, s_{t}; \epsilon)}{d\epsilon} = (1 - \epsilon) \frac{d\mathcal{Q}_{t-1}(a_{t}, s_{t}; \epsilon)}{d\epsilon} + (r_{t} - \mathcal{Q}_{t-1}(a_{t}, s_{t}; \epsilon))$$

Little tricks

Transform your variables

$$\beta = e^{\beta'}$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta' = \log(\beta)$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\epsilon'}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon' = \log\left(\frac{\epsilon}{1 - \epsilon}\right)$$

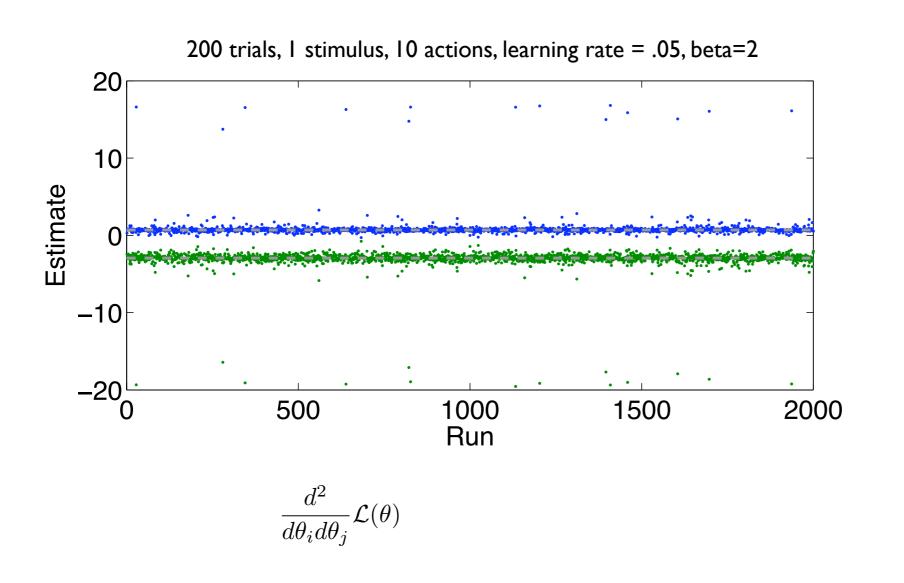
$$\frac{d \log \mathcal{L}(\theta')}{d\theta'}$$

Avoid over/underflow

$$y(a) = \beta \mathcal{Q}(a)$$

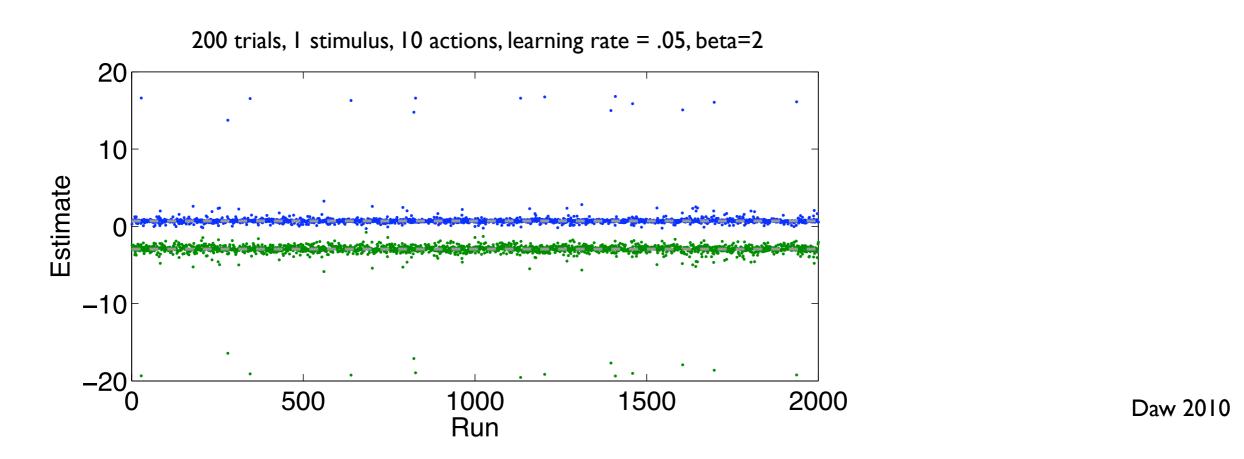
$$y_m = \max_a y(a)$$

$$p = \frac{e^{y(a)}}{\sum_b e^{y(b)}} = \frac{e^{y(a) - y_m}}{\sum_b e^{y(b) - y_m}}$$



Daw 2010

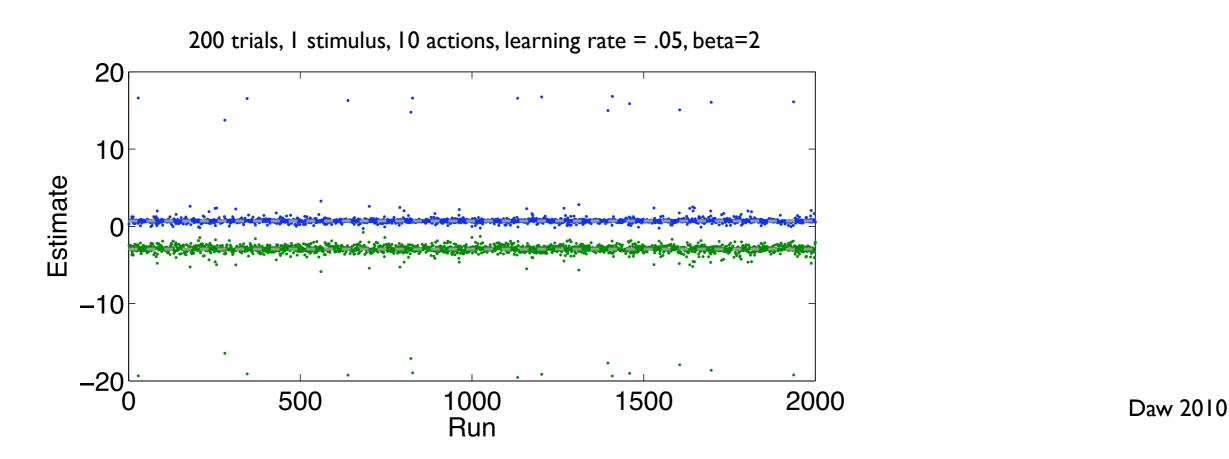
- ML is asymptotically consistent, but variance high
 - 10-armed bandit, infer beta and epsilon



Hessian $\frac{d^2}{d\theta_i d\theta_j} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$ can be used to derive confidence intervals and identify poorly constrained estimates

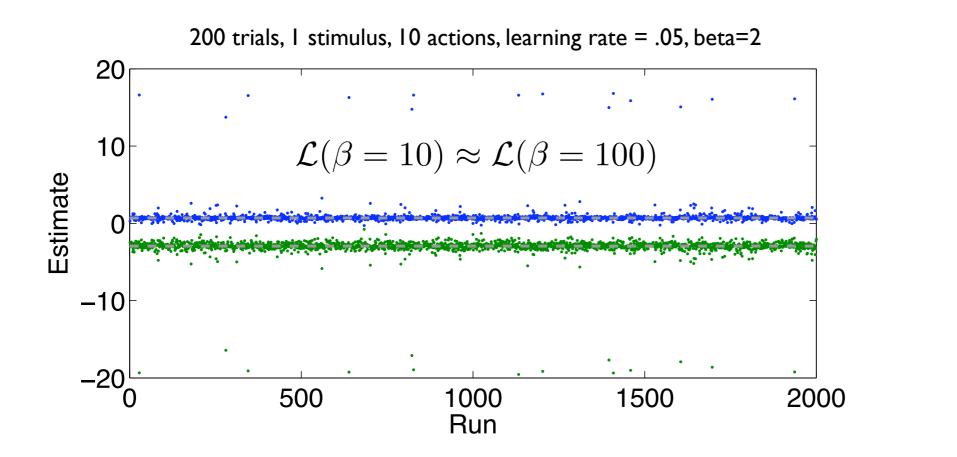
Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Quentin Huys, TNU/PU Behavioural data modelling

- ▶ ML is asymptotically consistent, but variance high
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- Hessian $\frac{d^2}{d\theta_i d\theta_j} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$ can be used to derive confidence intervals and identify poorly constrained estimates
- ▶ ML can overfit... more later

- ▶ ML is asymptotically consistent, but variance high
 - 10-armed bandit, infer beta and epsilon



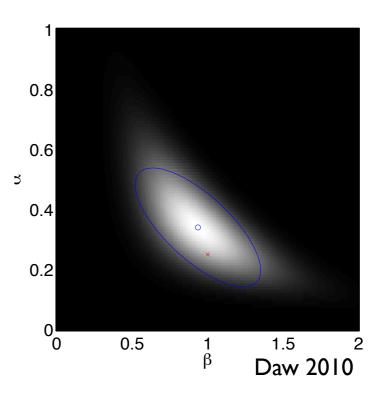
Daw 2010

- Hessian $\frac{d^2}{d\theta_i d\theta_j} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$ can be used to derive confidence intervals and identify poorly constrained estimates
- ▶ ML can overfit... more later

- ▶ ML is asymptotically consistent, but variance high
 - I0-armed bandit, infer beta and epsilon

200 trials, I stimulus, I0 actions, learning rate = .05, beta=2 $\mathcal{L}(\beta=10) \approx \mathcal{L}(\beta=100)$

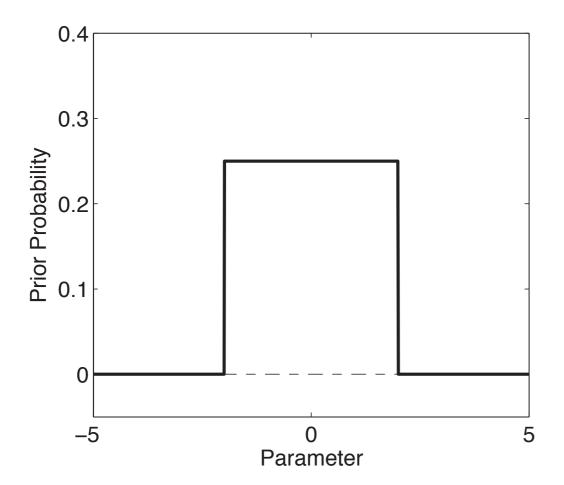
beta and epsilon can trade off



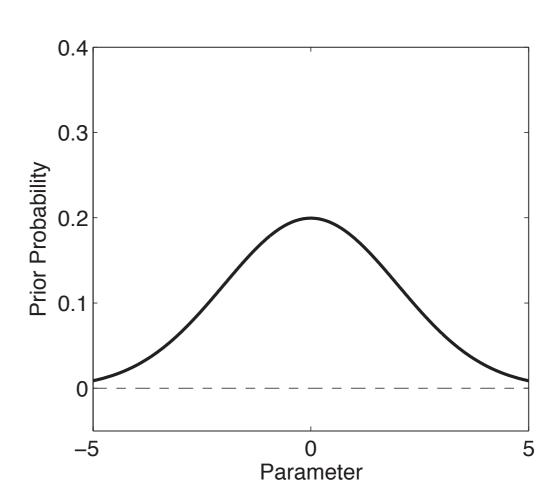
- Hessian $\frac{d^2}{d\theta_i d\theta_j} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$ can be used to derive confidence intervals and identify poorly constrained estimates
- ▶ ML can overfit... more later

Priors

Not so smooth

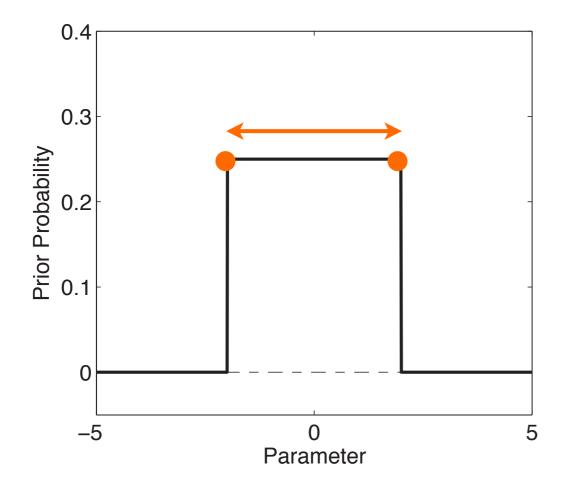


Smooth

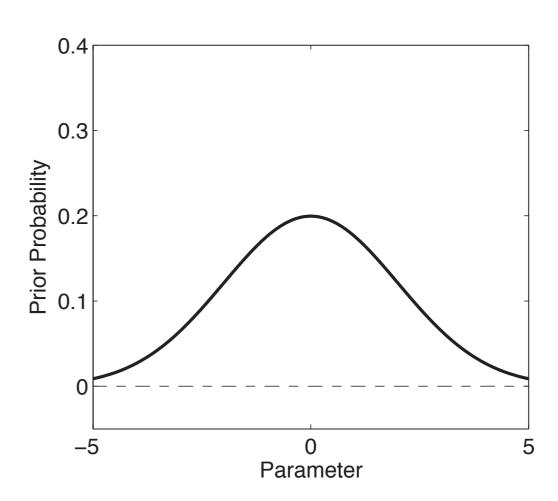


Priors

Not so smooth



Smooth



Priors

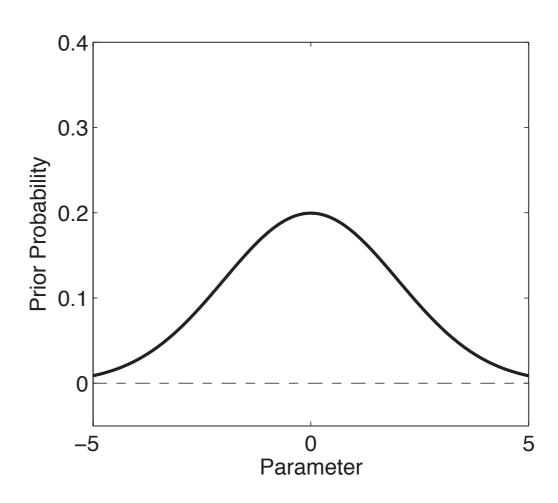
Not so smooth

0.4 0.3 Prior Probability 0.0 7.0 0 0 -5 Parameter 0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2

0.0

Switches Dombrovski et al. 2010

Smooth



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Maximum a posteriori estimate

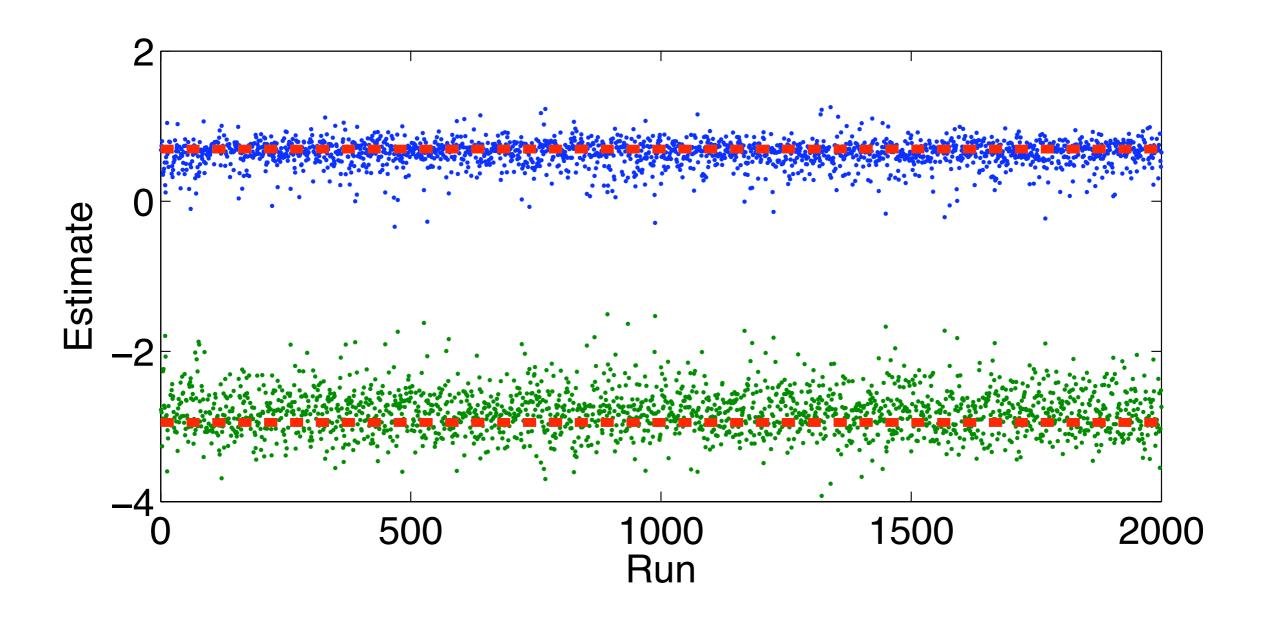
$$\mathcal{P}(\theta) = p(\theta|a_{1...T}) = \frac{p(a_{1...T}|\theta)p(\theta)}{\int d\theta p(\theta|a_{1...T})p(\theta)}$$

$$\log \mathcal{P}(\theta) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p(a_t | \theta) + \log p(\theta) + const.$$

$$\frac{\log \mathcal{P}(\theta)}{d\alpha} = \frac{\log \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{d\alpha} + \frac{d p(\theta)}{d\theta}$$

- If likelihood is strong, prior will have little effect
 - mainly has influence on poorly constrained parameters
 - if a parameter is strongly constrained to be outside the typical range of the prior, then it will win over the prior

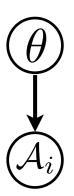
Maximum a posteriori estimate

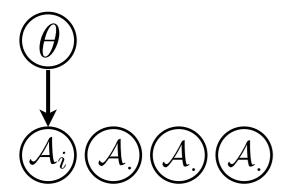


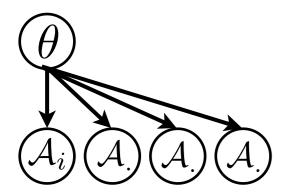
200 trials, I stimulus, I0 actions, learning rate = .05, beta=2 m_{beta} =0, m_{eps} =-3, n=I



What prior parameters should I use?

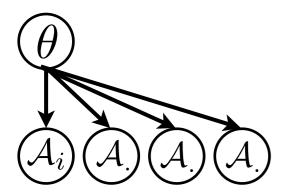






Fixed effect

conflates within- and between- subject variability

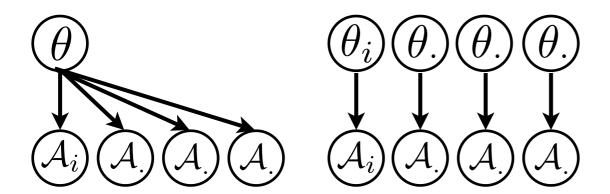


Fixed effect

conflates within- and between- subject variability

Average behaviour

- disregards between-subject variability
- need to adapt model



Fixed effect

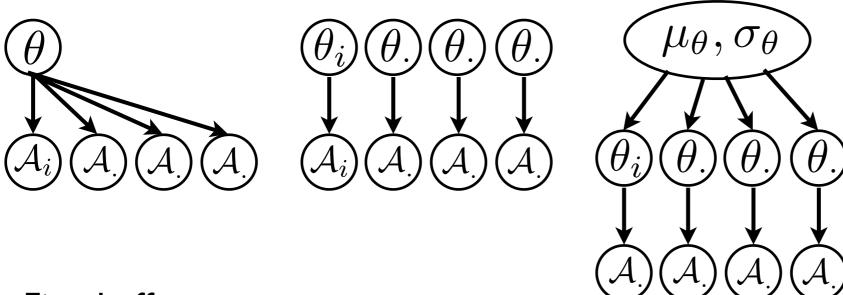
conflates within- and between- subject variability

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- disregards between-subject variability
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Summary statistic

- treat parameters as random variable, one for each subject
- overestimates group variance as ML estimates noisy



Fixed effect

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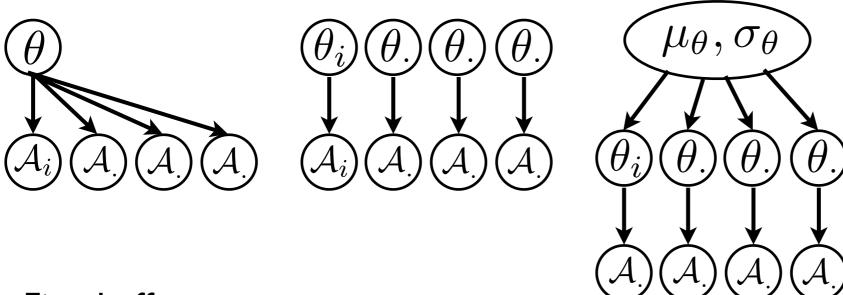
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Random effects

prior mean = group mean



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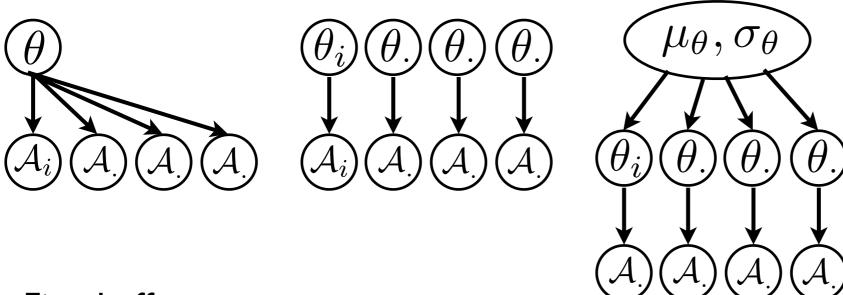
Summary statistic

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Random effects

prior mean = group mean

$$p(\mathcal{A}_i|\mu_{\theta},\sigma_{\theta}) = \int d\theta_i \, p(\mathcal{A}_i|\theta_i) \, p(\theta_i|\mu_{\theta},\sigma_{\theta})$$



Fixed effect

conflates within- and between- subject variability

Average behaviour

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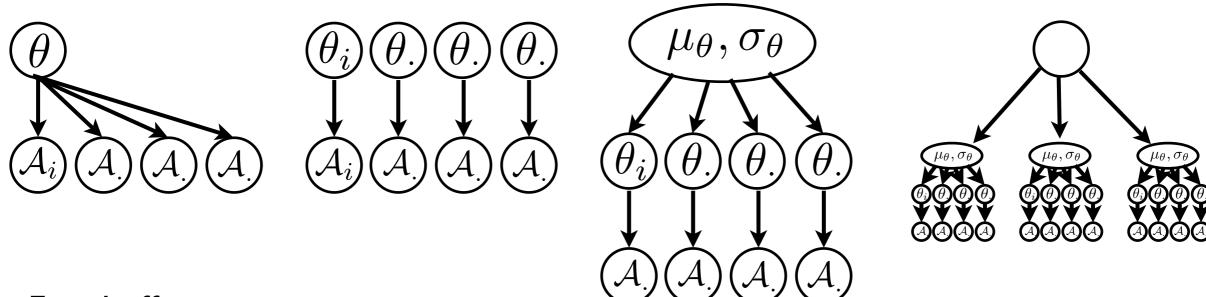
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- Fixed effect
 - conflates within- and between- subject variability
- Average behaviour
 - disregards between-subject variability
 - need to adapt model
- Summary statistic
 - treat parameters as random variable, one for each subject
 - overestimates group variance as ML estimates noisy
- Random effects
 - prior mean = group mean

$$p(\mathcal{A}_i|\mu_{\theta},\sigma_{\theta}) = \int d\theta_i \, p(\mathcal{A}_i|\theta_i) \, p(\theta_i|\underbrace{\mu_{\theta},\sigma_{\theta}})$$

Estimating the hyperparameters

MAP

$$\log \mathcal{P}(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(\theta) + \log \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{=p(\theta|\zeta)} + const.$$

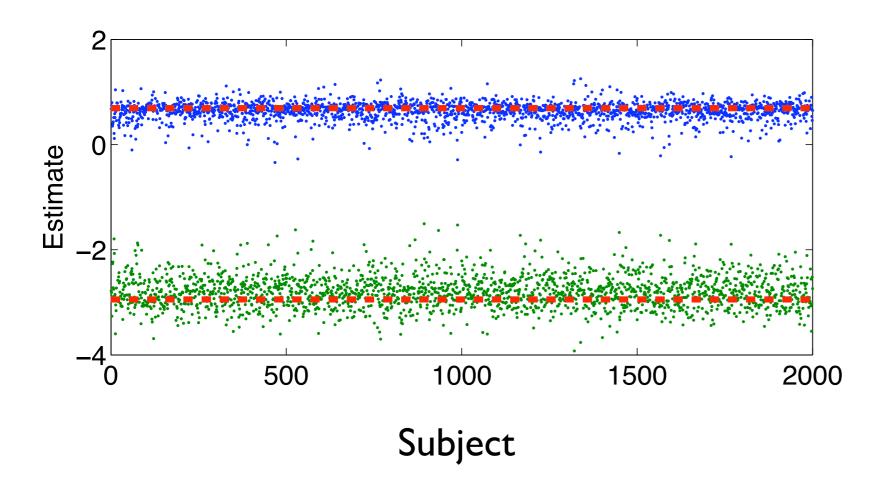
▶ Empirical Bayes: set them to ML estimate

$$\hat{\zeta} = \underset{\zeta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta)$$

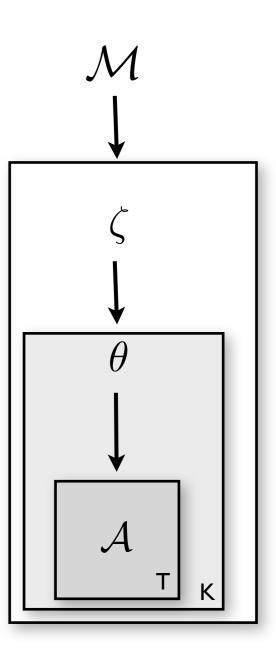
where we use all the actions by all the k subjects

$$\mathcal{A} = \{a_{1...T}^k\}_{k=1}^K$$

ML estimate of top-level parameters



$$\hat{\zeta} = \underset{\zeta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta)$$



Estimating the hyperparameters

Effectively we now want to do gradient ascent on:

$$\frac{d}{d\zeta}p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta)$$

But this contains an integral over individual parameters:

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta) = \int d\theta p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) p(\theta|\zeta)$$

So we need to:

$$\hat{\zeta} = \underset{\zeta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta)$$

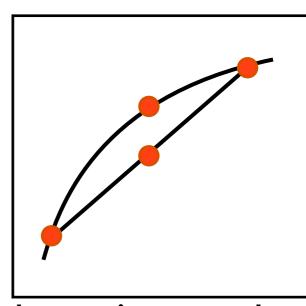
$$= \underset{\zeta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \int d\theta p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) p(\theta|\zeta)$$

Expectation Maximisation

$$\log p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta) = \log \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}, \theta|\zeta)$$

$$= \log \int d\theta \, q(\theta) \frac{p(\mathcal{A}, \theta|\zeta)}{q(\theta)}$$

$$\geq \int d\theta \, q(\theta) \log \frac{p(\mathcal{A}, \theta|\zeta)}{q(\theta)}$$



Jensen's inequality

$$k^{\text{th}} \text{ E step: } q^{(k+1)}(\theta) \leftarrow p(\theta|\mathcal{A}, \zeta^{(k)})$$

$$k^{\text{th}} \text{ M step: } \zeta^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax} \int d\theta \, q(\theta) \log p(\mathcal{A}, \theta|\zeta)$$

There are other approaches

- Monte Carlo
- Analytical conjugate priors
- Variational Bayes

Iterate between

- Estimating MAP parameters given prior parameters
- Estimating prior parameters from MAP parameters

EM with Laplace approximation

- ▶ E step: $q^{(k+1)}(\theta) \leftarrow p(\theta|\mathcal{A}, \zeta^{(k)})$
 - only need sufficient statistics to perform M step
 - Approximate $p(\theta|\mathcal{A}, \zeta^{(k)}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_k, \mathbf{S}_k)$
 - and hence:

E step:
$$q_k(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_k, \mathbf{S}_k)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_k \leftarrow \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathbf{a}_k | \theta) p(\theta | \zeta^{(i)})$$

$$\mathbf{S}_k^{-1} \leftarrow \frac{\partial^2 p(\mathbf{a}^k | \theta) p(\theta | \zeta^{(i)})}{\partial \theta^2} \Big|_{\theta = \mathbf{m}_k}$$
matlab: [m,L,,,S]=fminunc(...)

Just what we had before: MAP inference given some prior parameters

EM with Laplace approximation

Next update the prior

Prior mean = mean of MAP estimates

into account

M step:
$$\zeta_{\mu}^{(i+1)} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k} \mathbf{m}_{k}$$

$$\zeta_{\nu^{2}}^{(i+1)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left[(\mathbf{m}_{k})^{2} + \mathbf{S}_{k} \right] - (\zeta_{\mu}^{(i+1)})^{2}$$
Take uncertainty of estimates

Prior variance depends on inverse Hessian S and variance of MAP estimates

And now iterate until convergence

Hierarchical / random effects models

Advantages

- Accurate group-level mean and variance
- Outliers due to weak likelihood are regularized
- Strong outliers are not
- Useful for model selection

Disadvantages

- Individual estimates θ_i depend on other data, i.e. on $\mathcal{A}_{j\neq i}$ and therefore need to be careful in interpreting these as summary statistics
- Error bars on group parameters (especially group variance) are difficult to obtain
- More involved; less transparent

Link functions

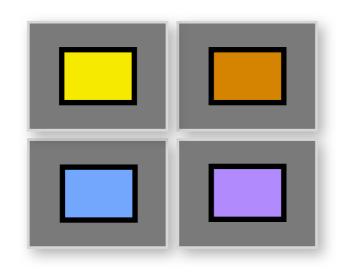
(a) 0.5 (b) 0.5 (c) 0.5 (d) 0.5 (e) 0.5 (e) 0.5

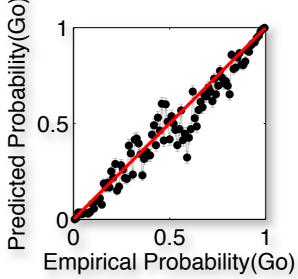
• Sigmoid
$$p(a|s) = \frac{e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a,s)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a',s)}}$$

▶
$$\epsilon$$
 - greedy $p(a|s) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } a = \operatorname{argmax}_a \mathcal{Q}(a, s) \\ \frac{1-c}{|a|-1} & \text{else} \end{cases}$

irreducible noise
$$p(a|s) = \frac{1-g}{2} + g \frac{e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a,s)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta \mathcal{Q}(a',s)}}$$

critical sanity check I: reasonable link function?





other link functions for other observations

Model comparison

- A fit by itself is not meaningful
- Generative test
 - qualitative
- Comparisons
 - vs random
 - vs other model -> test specific hypotheses and isolate particular effects in a generative setting

Model fit: likelihood

- ▶ How well does the model do?
 - choice probabilities:

$$\mathbb{E}p(correct) = e^{\mathcal{L}(\hat{\theta})/K/T}$$

$$= e^{\log p(\mathcal{A}|\theta)/K/T}$$

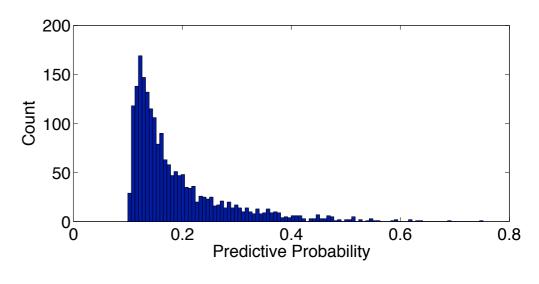
$$= \left(\prod_{k,t=1}^{K,T} p(a_{k,t}|\theta_k)\right)^{\frac{1}{KT}}$$

"Predictive probabilities" —

- typically around 0.65-0.75 for 2-way choice
- for I0-armed bandit example
- pseudo-r²: I-L/R
- better than chance?

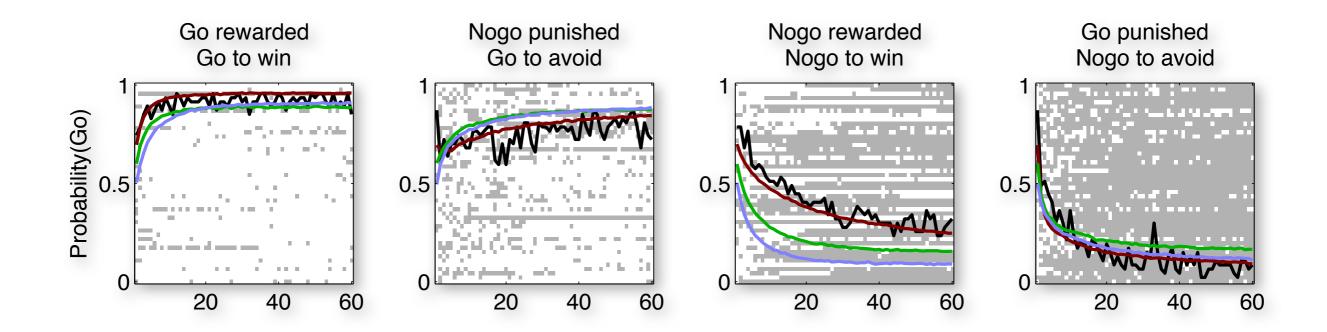
$$\mathbb{E}[N_k(correct)] = \mathbb{E}[p_k(correct)]T$$

$$p_{bin}(\mathbb{E}[N_k(correct)]|N_kd, p_0 = 0.5) < 1 - \alpha$$



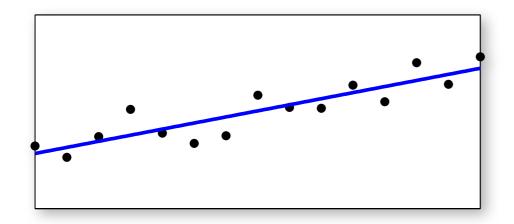
Generative test

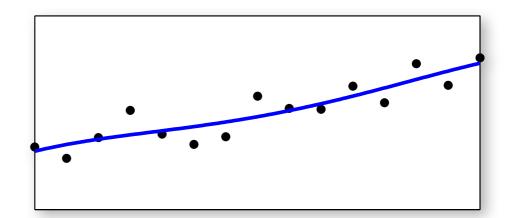
- Model: probability(actions)
 - simply draw from this distribution, and see what happens

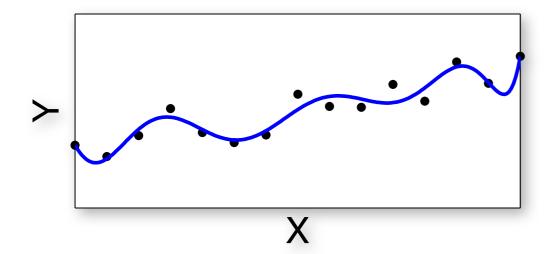


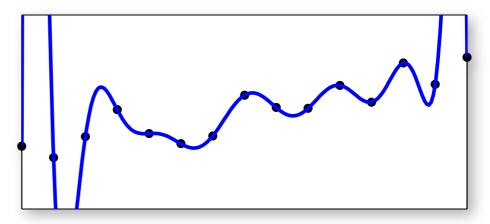
- Critical sanity test: is the model meaningful?
- Caveat: overfitting

Overfitting

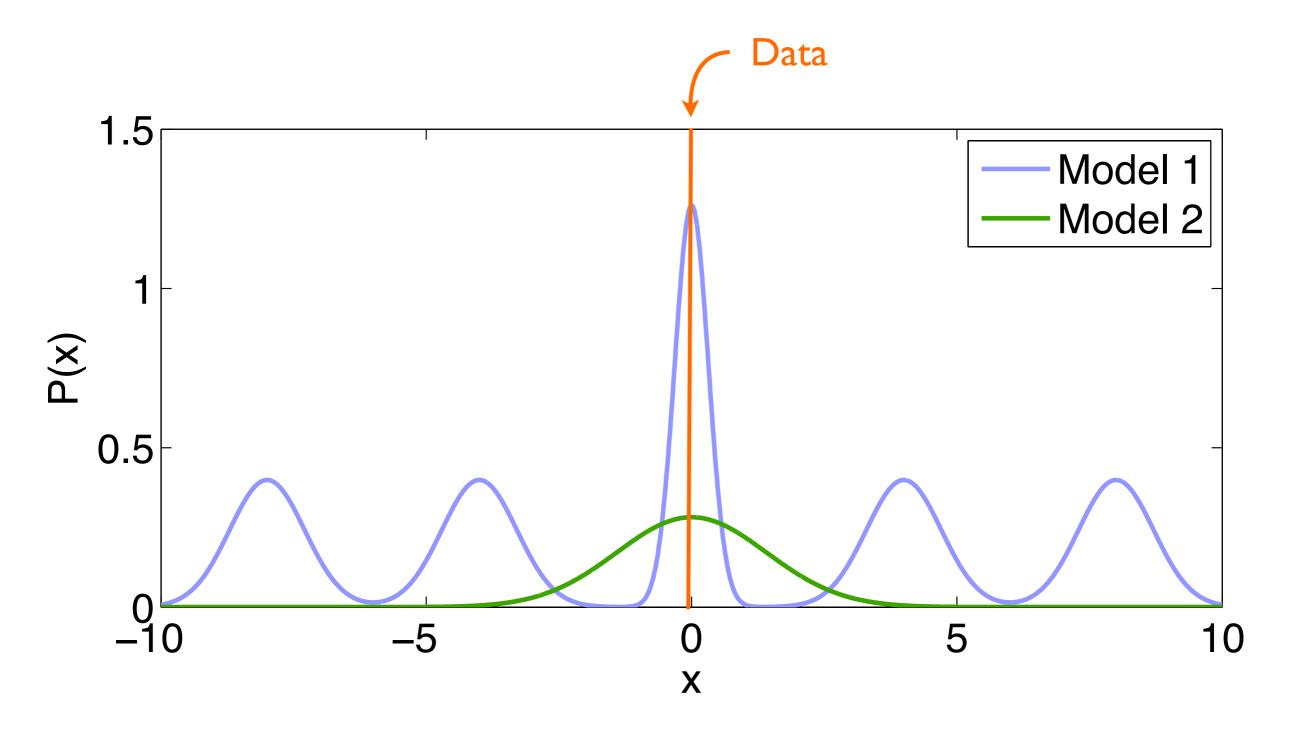








Model comparison



Model comparison

Averaged over its parameter settings, how well does the model fit the data?

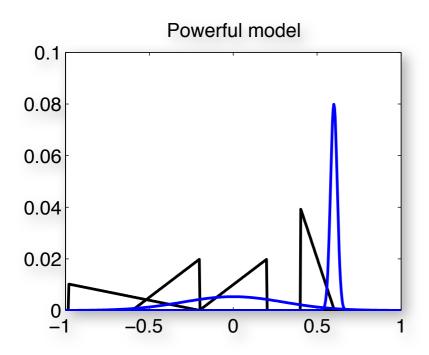
$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$

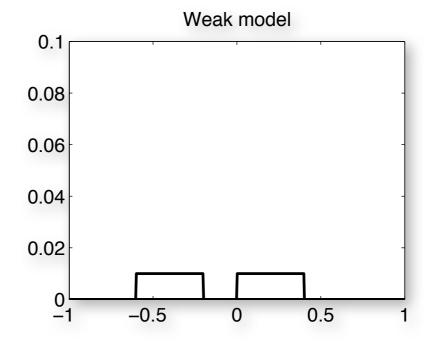
Model comparison: Bayes factors

$$BF = \frac{p(\mathcal{M}_1|\mathcal{A})}{p(\mathcal{M}_0|\mathcal{A})} = \frac{p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}_1) p(\mathcal{M}_1)}{p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}_2) p(\mathcal{M}_2)}$$

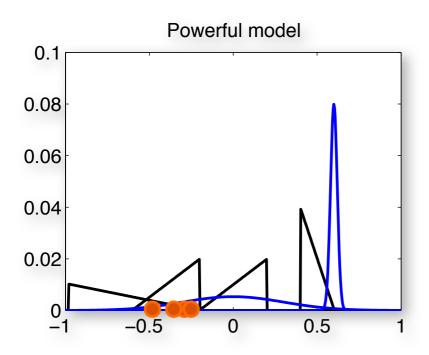
- Problem:
 - integral rarely solvable
 - approximation: Laplace, sampling, variational...

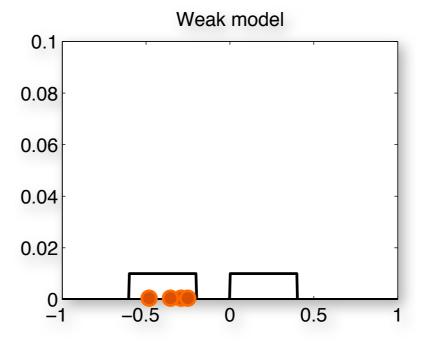
Why integrals? The God Almighty test



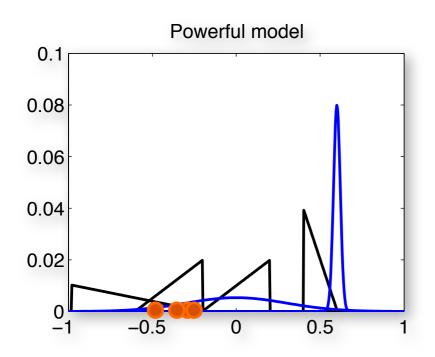


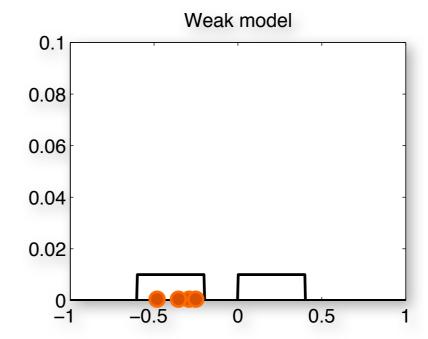
Why integrals? The God Almighty test





Why integrals? The God Almighty test

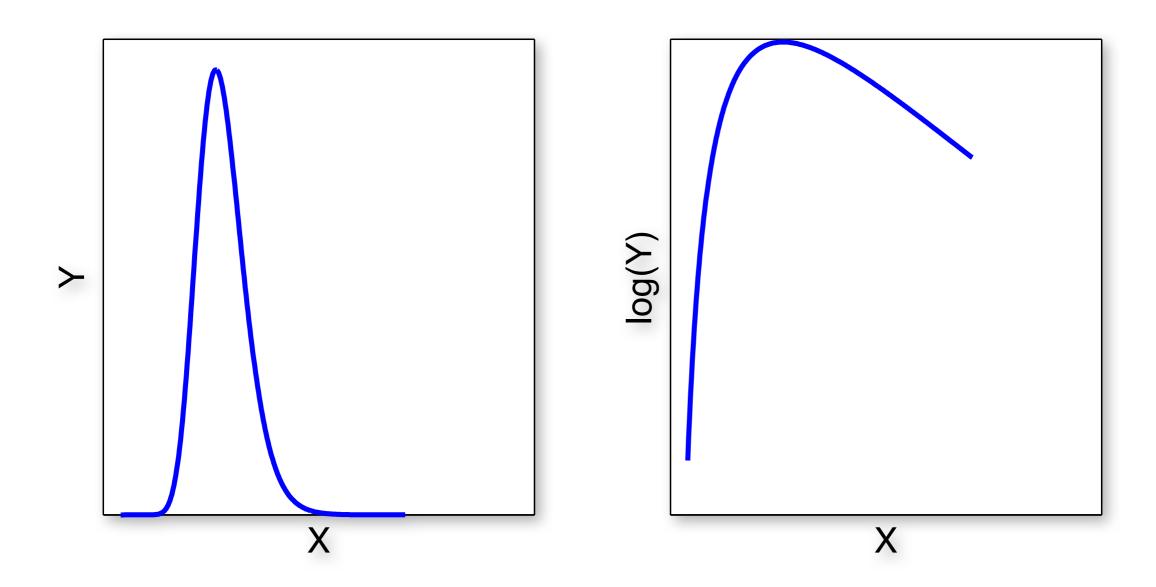




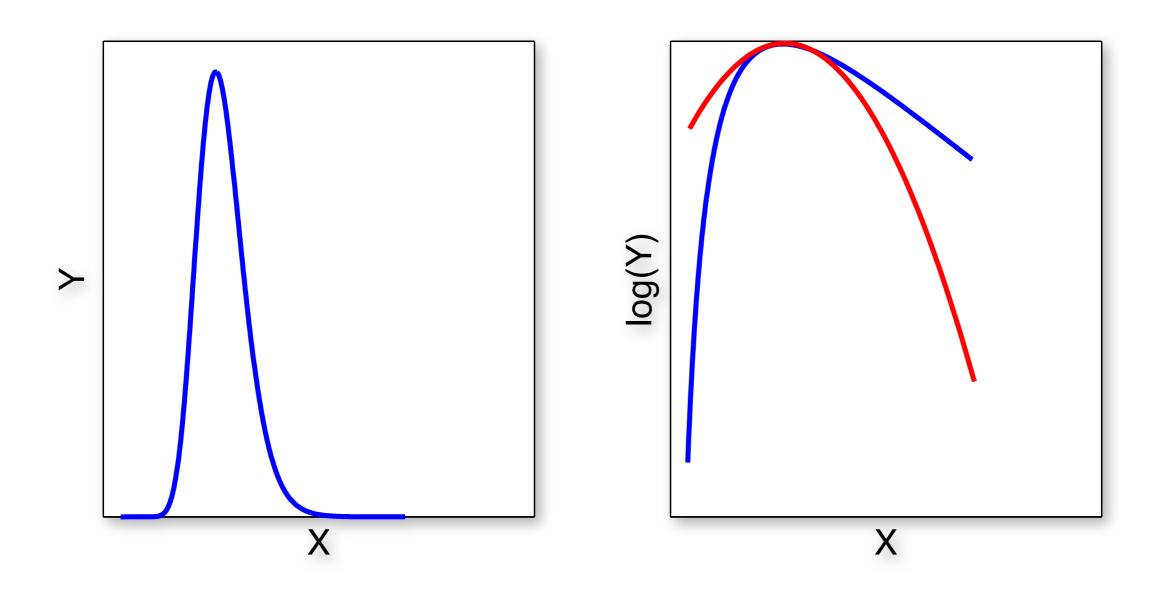
$$\frac{1}{N} (\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta_1}) + p(X|\boldsymbol{\theta_2}) + \cdots)$$

These two factors fight it out Model complexity vs model fit

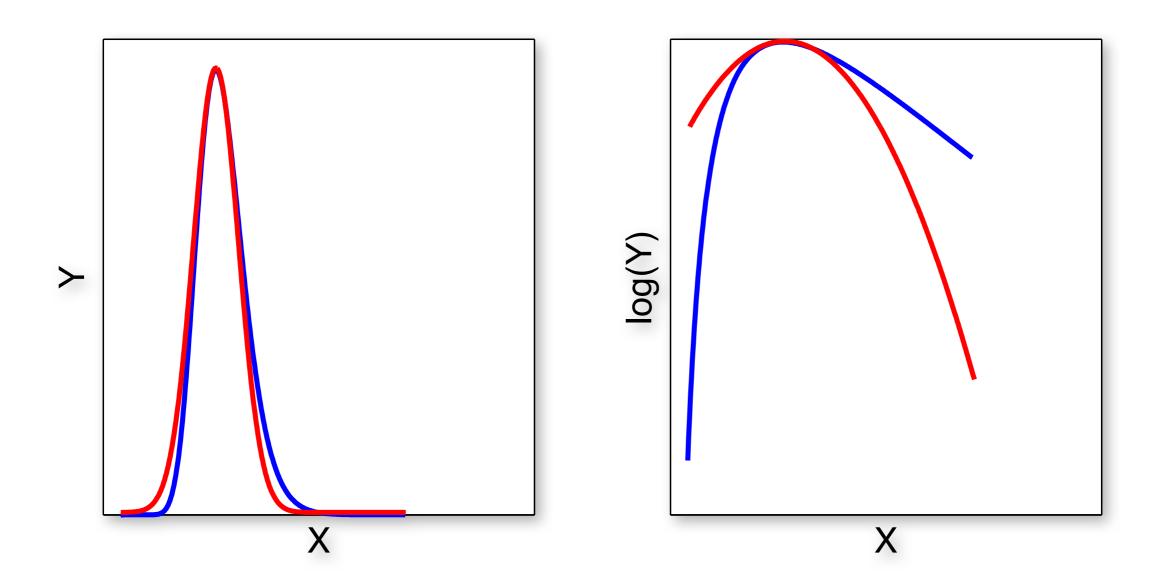
Laplace's approximation (saddle-point method)



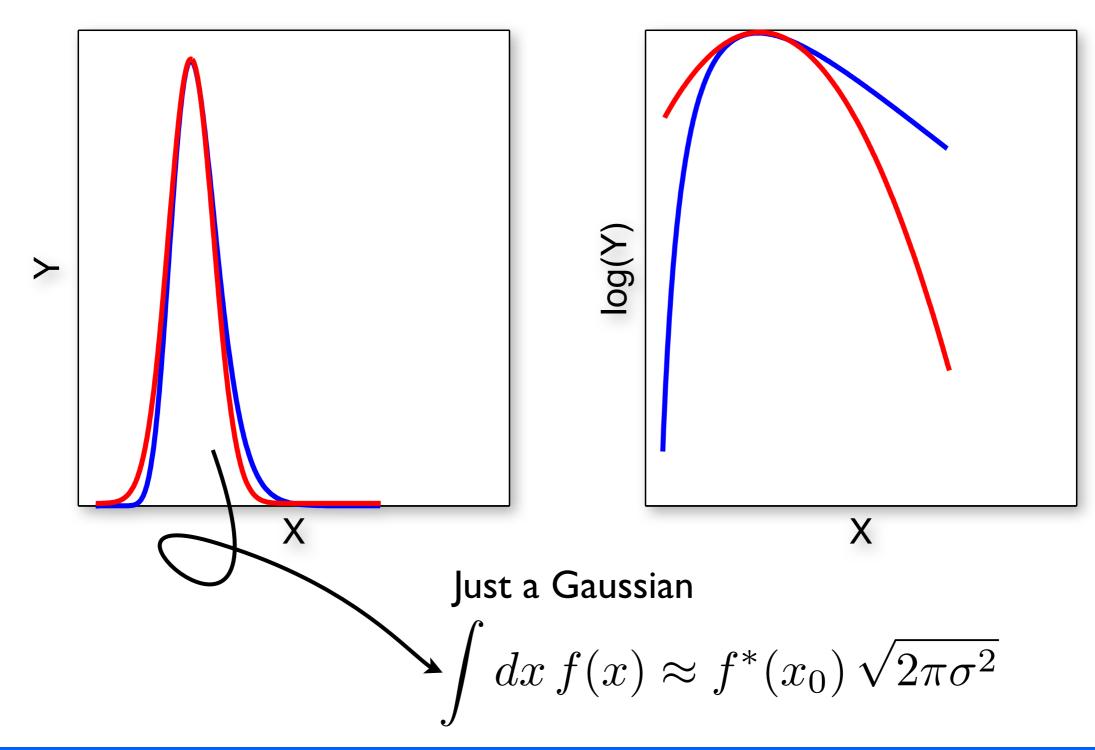
Laplace's approximation (saddle-point method)



Laplace's approximation (saddle-point method)



Laplace's approximation (saddle-point method)



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

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta,\mathcal{M}) \, \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$
 is propto Gaussian

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$
 is propto Gaussian $p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$ $\approx p(\mathcal{A}|\theta^{ML}, \mathcal{M}) p(\theta^{ML}|\mathcal{M}) \times \sqrt{(2\pi)^N |\Sigma|}$

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta,\mathcal{M}) \, \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$
 is propto Gaussian
$$p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) = \sum_{\substack{p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) = \text{const.} \\ \text{Model doesn't prefer particular}}} p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) \times \sqrt{(2\pi)^N |\Sigma|}$$

Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Behavioural data modelling

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) \qquad \text{is propto Gaussian}$$

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) \qquad p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) \qquad p(\theta|\mathcal{M}) = \text{const.}$$
 Model doesn't prefer particular particular
$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{A}|\theta^{ML}, \mathcal{M}) + \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma|) + \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) \ p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$
 is propto Gaussian
$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \ p(\mathcal{A}|\theta,\mathcal{M}) \ p(\theta|\mathcal{M})$$

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$$\Sigma_{ii} \propto \frac{1}{T} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma|) \approx -\frac{N}{2} \log(T)$$
 Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) $\approx -N$ Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

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Model fit vs Model complexity

Group data

- Multiple subjects
- Multiple models
 - do they use the same model? If not parameters are not comparable
 - which model best accounts for all of them?
- Multiple groups
 - difference in models?
 - difference in parameters?
 - 2^k possible model comparisons
- Multiple parameters
 - 2^k possible correlations with any one psychometric measure

Group data - approaches

- Summary statistic
 - Treat individual model comparison measure as summary statistics, do ANOVA or t-test
- Fixed effect analysis
 - Subject data independent

$$\log p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \sum_{i} \log p(\mathcal{A}_{i}|\mathcal{M})$$

$$= \sum_{i} \log \int d\theta_{i} \, p(\mathcal{A}_{i}|\theta_{i}) p(\theta_{i}|\mathcal{M}_{i}) \approx -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \mathsf{BIC}_{i}$$

- Random effects analyses
 - Hierarchical prior on group parameters

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\zeta \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) \, p(\theta|\zeta) \, p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$$

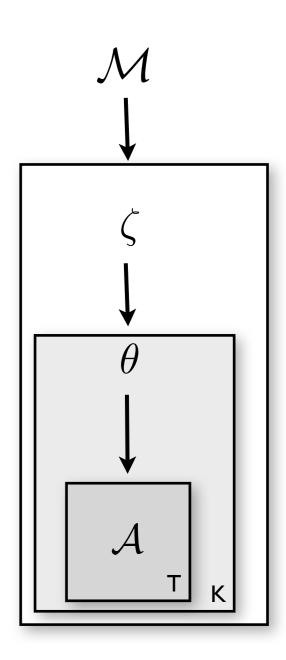
Hierarchical prior on models

$$p(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}_k, r | \alpha) = p(\mathcal{A} | \mathcal{M}_k) p(\mathcal{M}_k | r) p(r | \alpha)$$

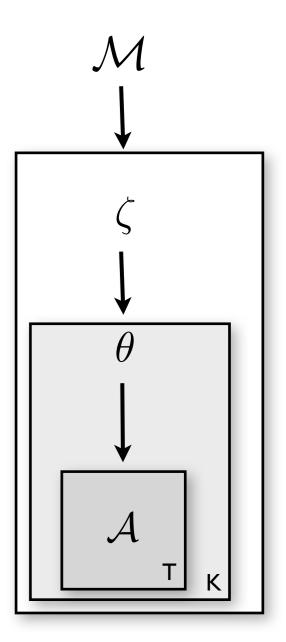
Group-level likelihood

- Contains two integrals:
 - subject parameters
 - prior parameters

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \int d\zeta \, p(\theta|\zeta) \, p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$$

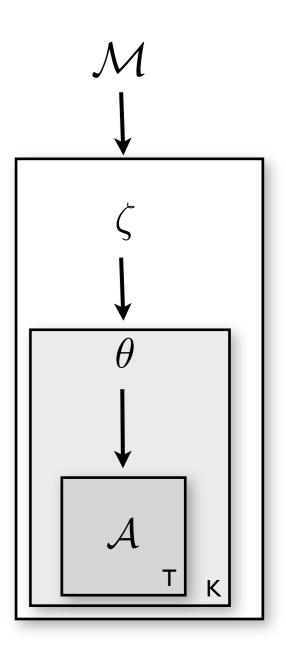


$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta, \mathcal{M}) \int d\zeta \, p(\theta|\zeta) \, p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$$



- Two integrals
 - tricky

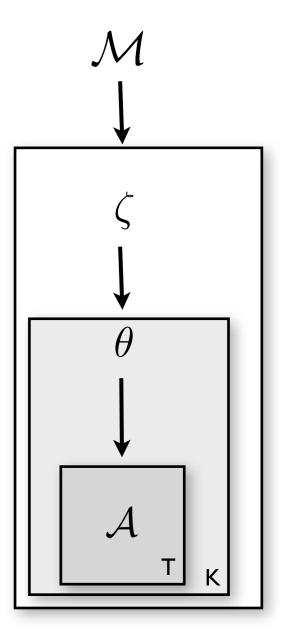
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Two integrals

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- tricky
- Step by step: approximating levels separately
 - Top level first:

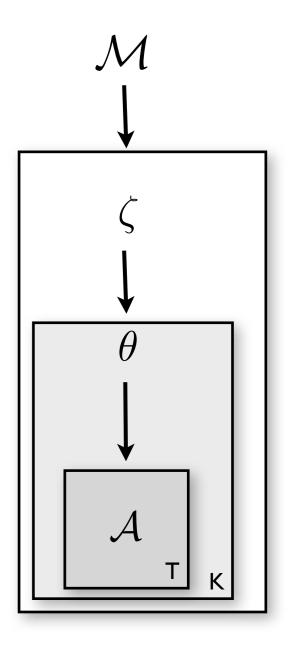


Two integrals

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- tricky
- Step by step: approximating levels separately
 - Approximate at the top level
 - less action

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\zeta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$$

▶ Two integrals

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 $p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta,\mathcal{M}) \ p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$

$$p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) = \int d\zeta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta, \mathcal{M}) \, p(\zeta|\mathcal{M})$$

Two integrals

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Two integrals

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Two integrals

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Two integrals

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$$\log p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) \approx \log p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta^{ML},\mathcal{M}) + \frac{1}{2} \log(|\Sigma|) + \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

just as before, top-level BIC

Approximating level I

- Still leaves the first level:
 - Approximate integral by sampling, e.g. importance sampling for few dimensions (<10)

$$\log p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta^{ML}, \mathcal{M}) = \log \int d\theta \, p(\mathcal{A}|\theta) \, p(\theta|\zeta^{ML})$$

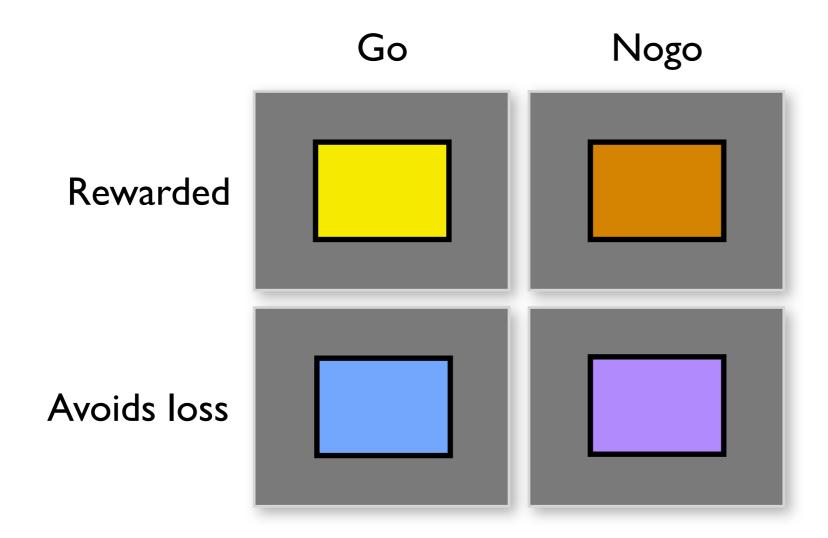
$$\approx \log \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} p(\mathcal{A}|\theta^b)$$

$$\theta^b \sim p(\theta|\zeta^{ML})$$

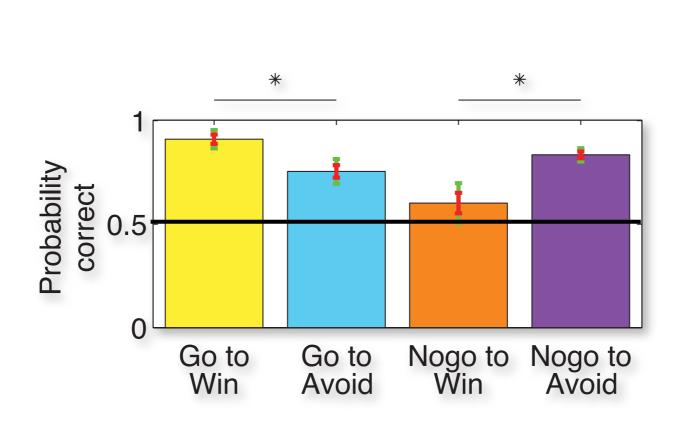
Group-level BIC

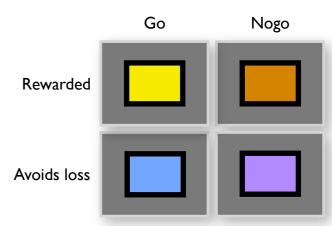
$$\begin{split} \log p(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{M}) &= \int d\boldsymbol{\zeta} \, p(\mathcal{A}|\boldsymbol{\zeta}) \, p(\boldsymbol{\zeta}|\mathcal{M}) \\ &\approx -\frac{1}{2} \mathsf{BIC}_{\mathsf{int}} \\ &= \log \hat{p}(\mathcal{A}|\hat{\boldsymbol{\zeta}}^{ML}) - \frac{1}{2} |\mathcal{M}| \log(|\mathcal{A}|) \end{split}$$

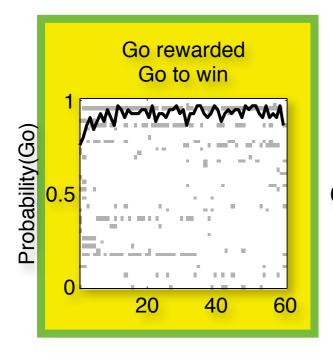
Example task

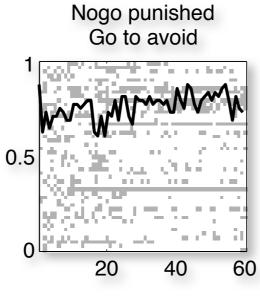


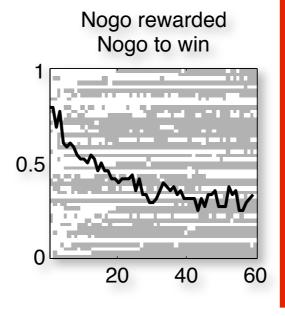
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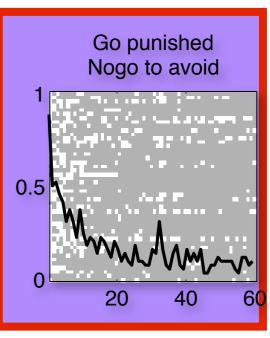






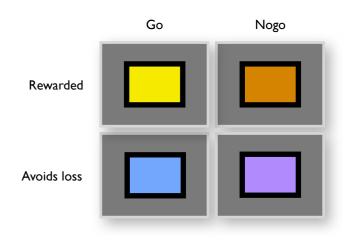


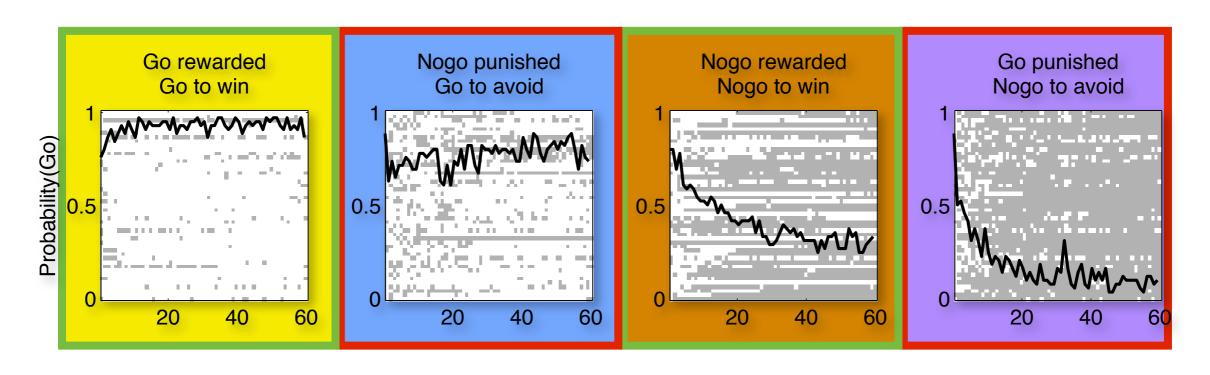




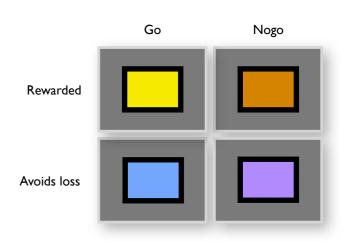
Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

Quentin Huys, TNU/PUK Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Behavioural data modelling

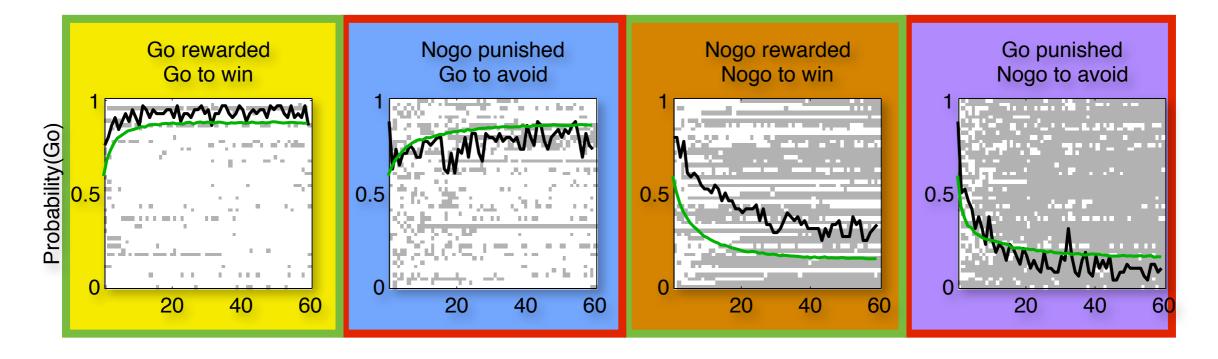




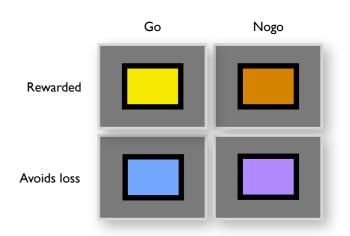
Guitart-Masip et al. 2011, Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted



$$p(\mathsf{go}|s_t) \propto \mathcal{Q}_t(\mathsf{go}|s_t) + \mathsf{bias}(\mathsf{go})$$

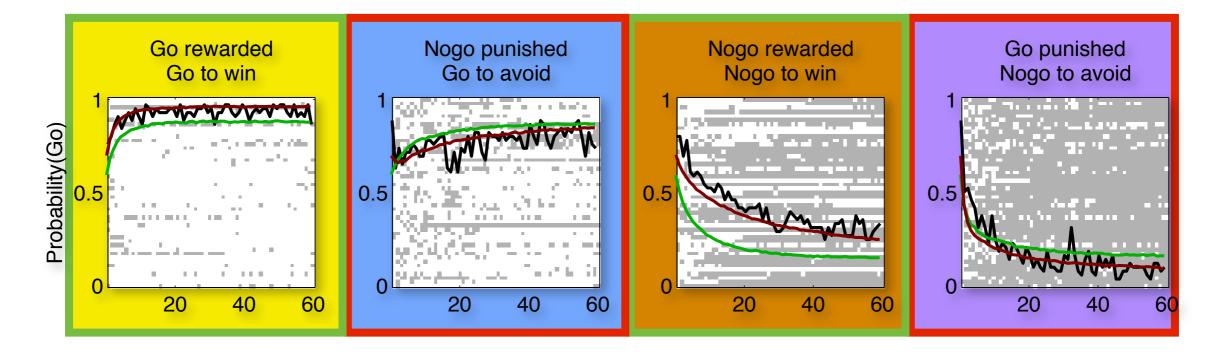


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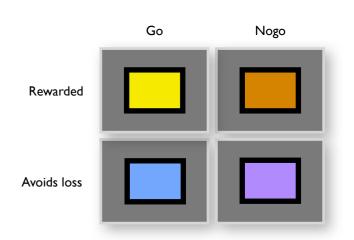
$$p(\mathsf{go}|s_t) \propto \mathcal{Q}_t(\mathsf{go}|s_t) + \mathsf{bias}(\mathsf{go}) + \mathcal{V}_t(s_t)$$

 $\mathcal{V}_t(s_t) = \mathcal{V}_{t-1}(s_t) + \epsilon(r_t - \mathcal{V}_{t-1}(s_t))$



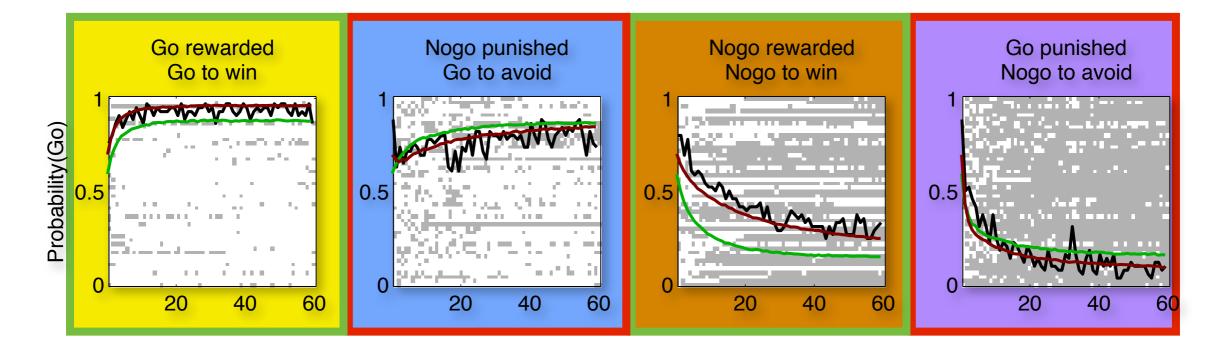
Guitart-Masip et al. 2011, Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

 $P(go) \propto value of stimulus$

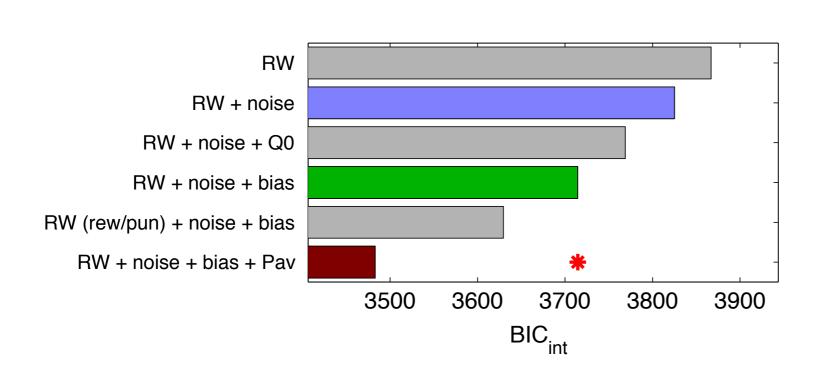


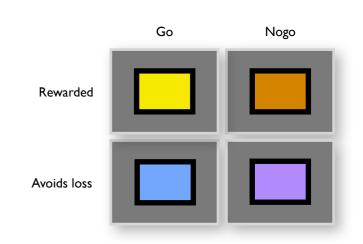
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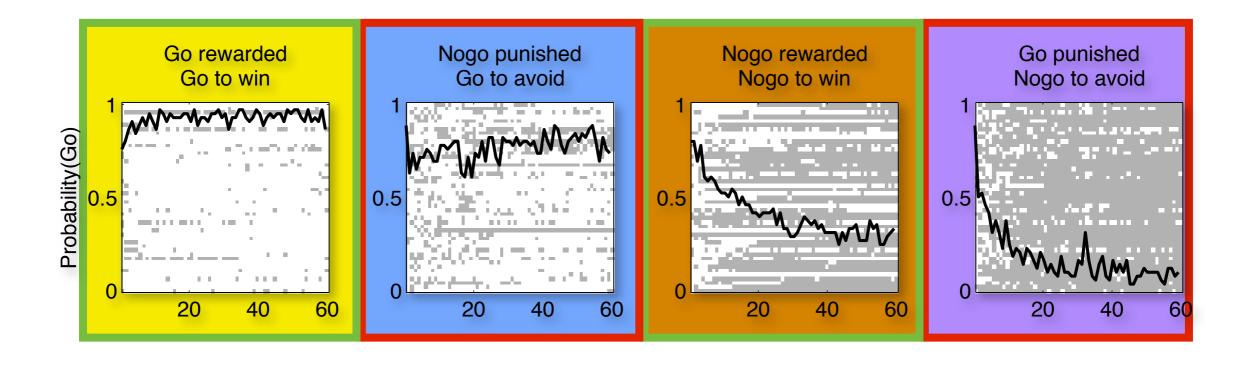
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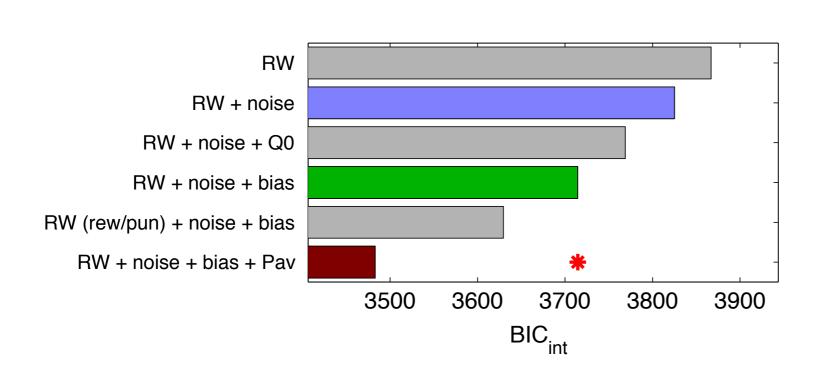


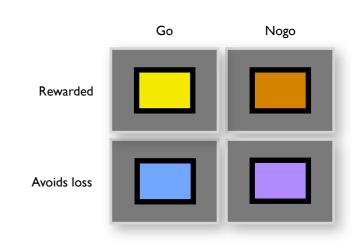
Guitart-Masip et al. 2011, Guitart-Masip, Huys et al. Submitted

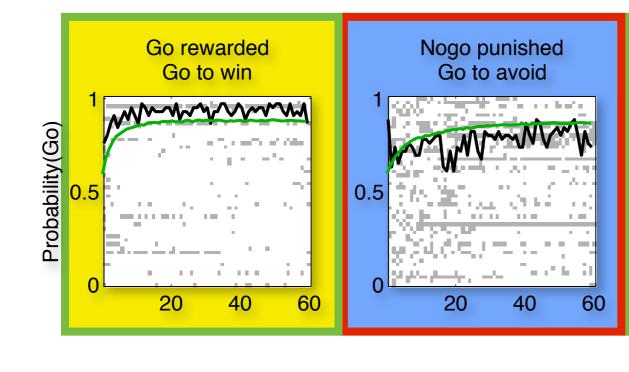


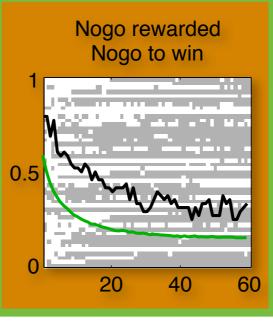


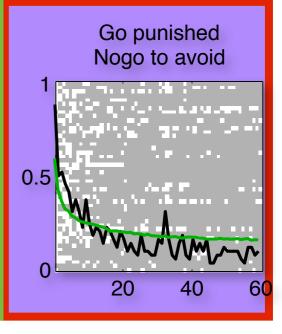


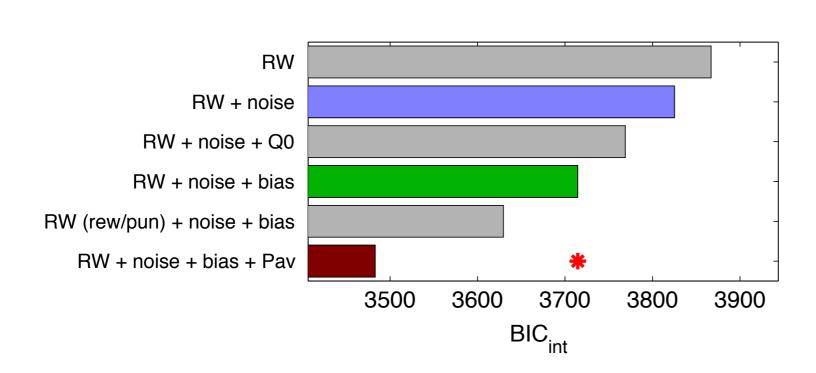


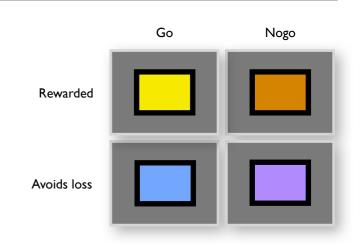


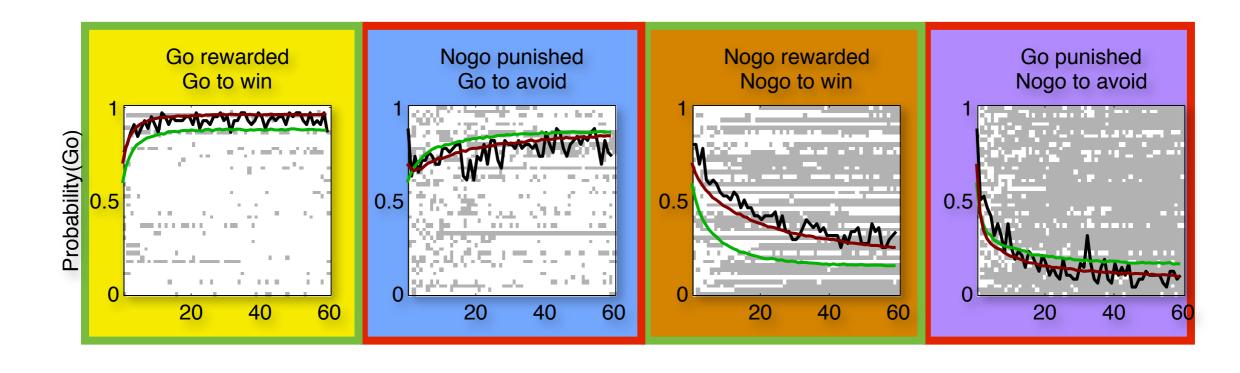


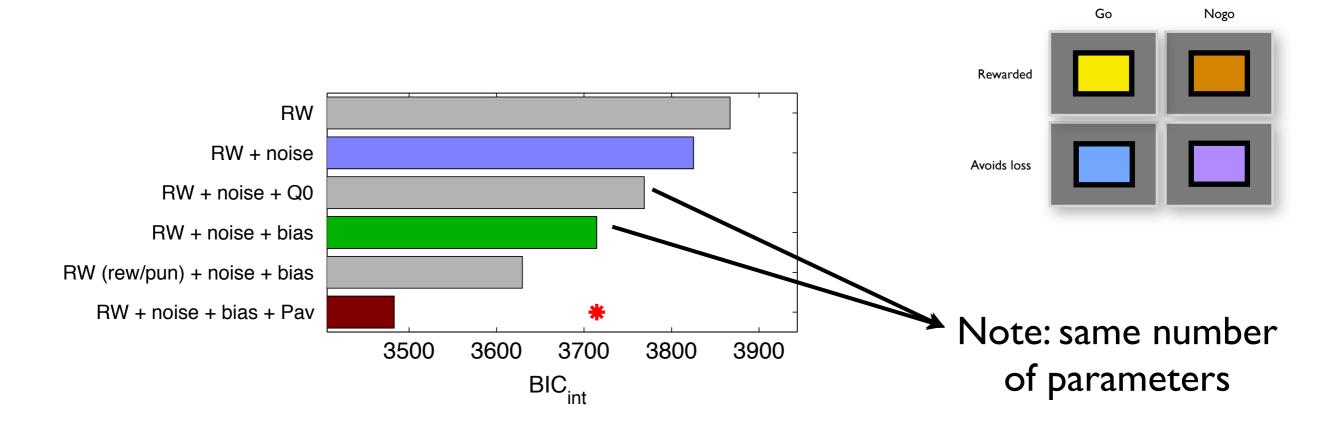


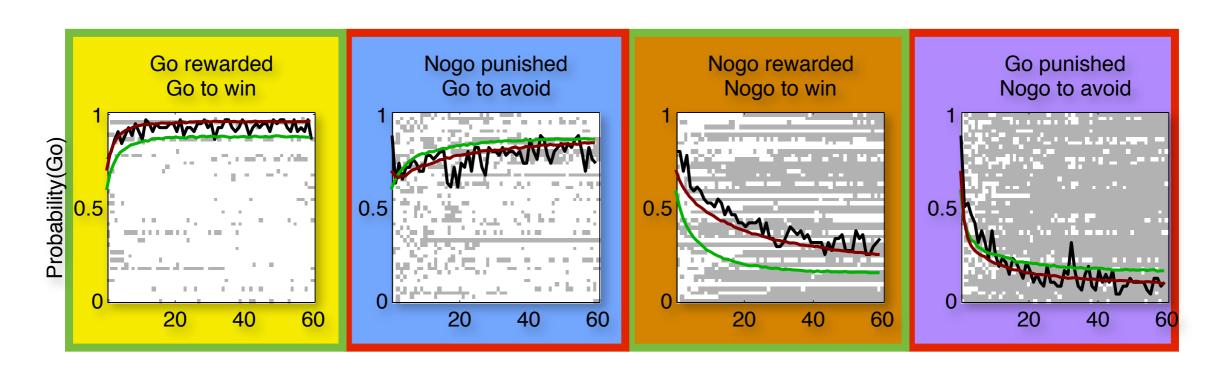






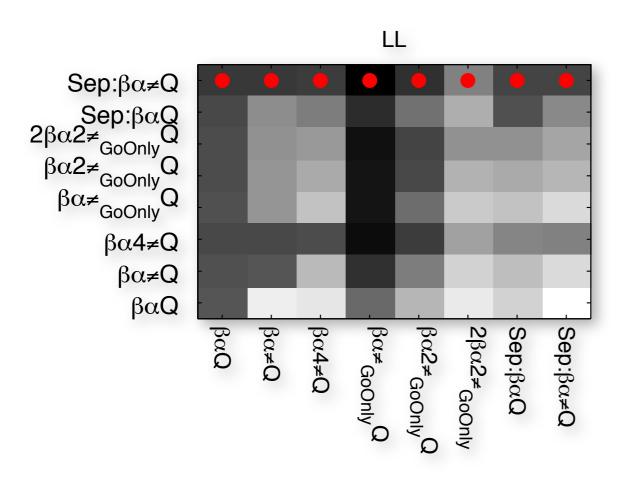


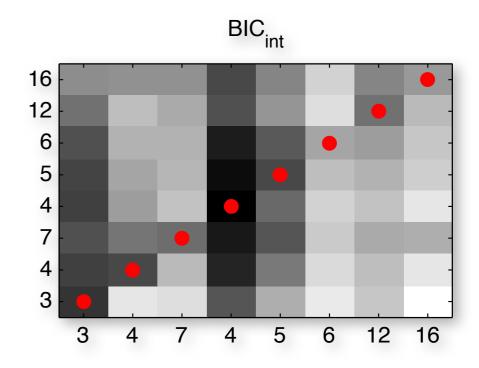


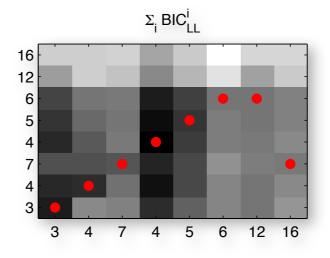


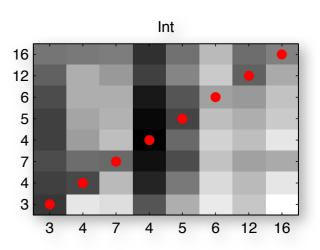
Schloss Ringberg 17.9.2012 Behavioural data modelling

How does it do?

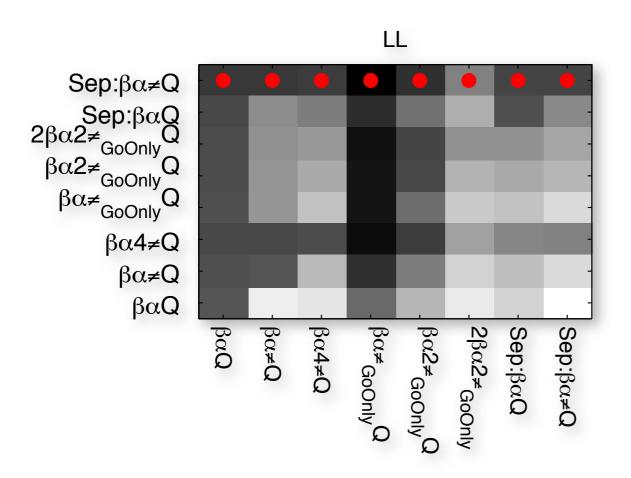


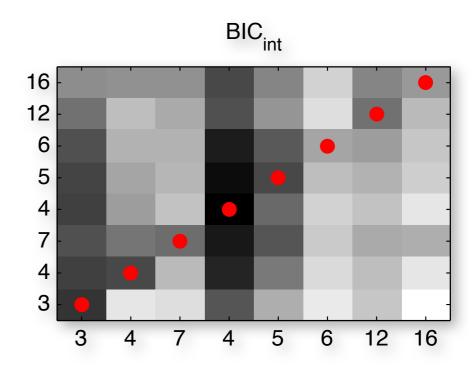


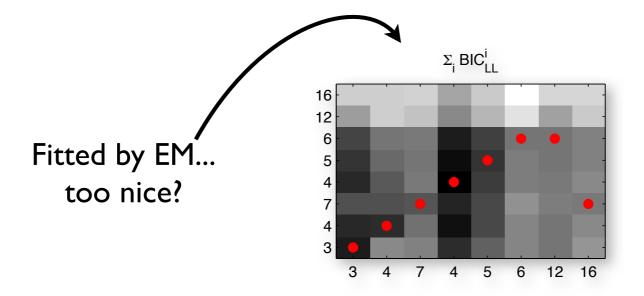


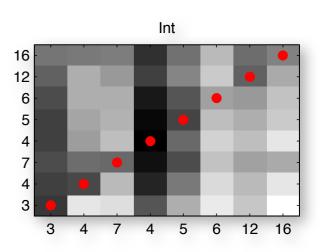


How does it do?









Top-level Laplacian approximation

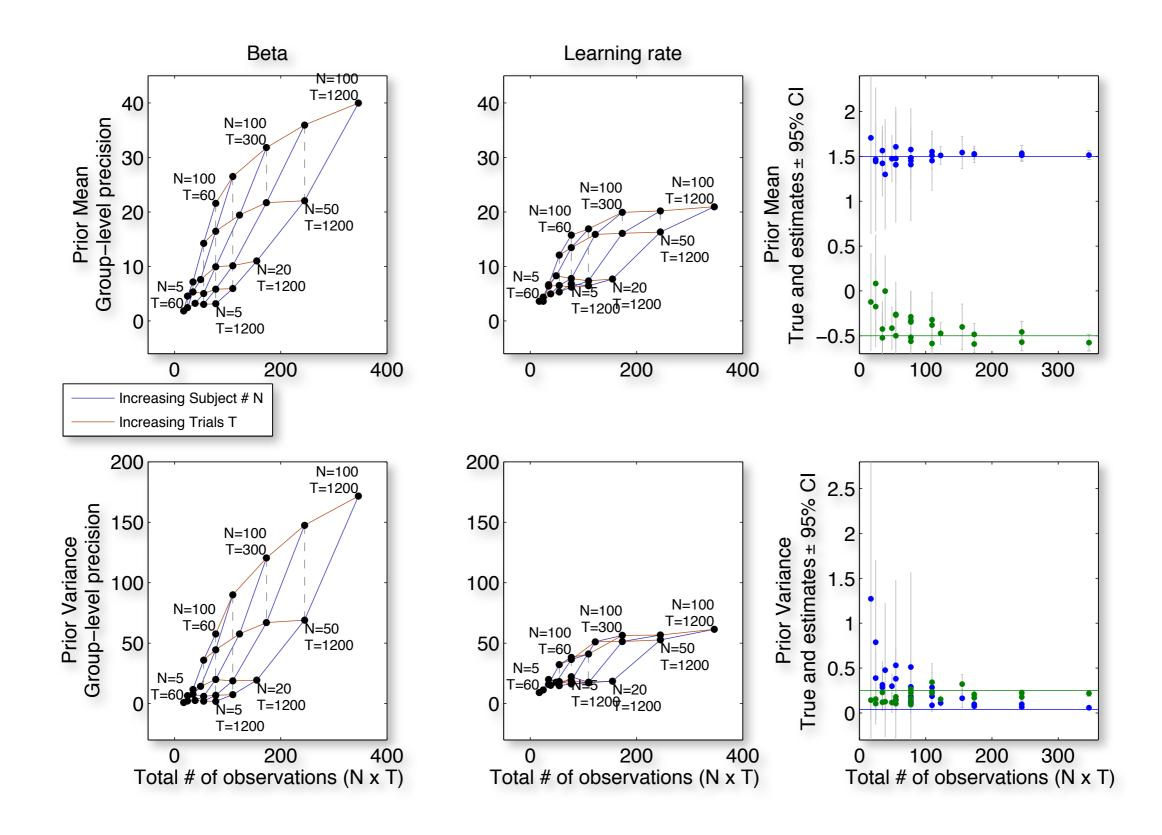
Estimating the top-level determinant

using 2nd order finite differences

$$\frac{d^2}{dh_{ij}^2} p(\mathcal{A}|\zeta) \bigg|_{\zeta = \hat{\zeta}^{ML}} \approx \frac{1}{\delta^2} \left[p(\mathcal{A}|\hat{\zeta}^{ML} + \delta \mathbf{e}_i) - 2p(\mathcal{A}|\hat{\zeta}^{ML}) + p(\mathcal{A}|\hat{\zeta}^{ML} - \delta \mathbf{e}_j) \right]$$

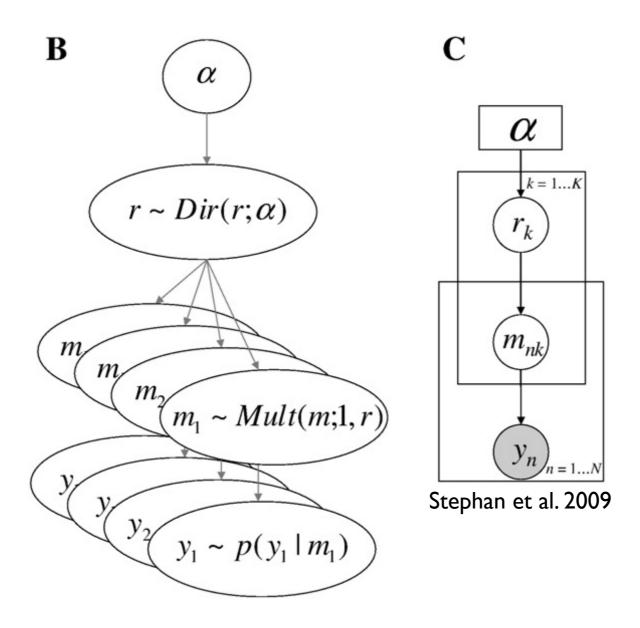
 the shifted likelihoods can be evaluated by shifting the samples.

Group level errors



Posterior distribution on models

Generative model for models



Bayesian model selection - equations

- Write down joint distribution of generative model
- Variational approximations lead to set of very simple update equations
 - start with flat prior over model probabilities

$$\alpha = \alpha_0$$

then update

$$u_k^i = \left(\int d\theta_i \, p(\mathcal{A}_i, \theta_i | \mathcal{M}_k)\right) \exp\left(\Psi(\alpha_k) - \Psi\left(\sum_k \alpha_k\right)\right)$$

$$\alpha_k \leftarrow \alpha_{0,k} + \sum_i \frac{u_k^i}{\sum_k u_k^i}$$

Group Model selection

Integrate out your parameters

Questions in psychiatry I: regression

- lacktriangle Parametric relationship with other variables ψ
 - do standard second level analyses
 - can use Hessians to determine weights

E step:
$$q_k(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}_k, \mathbf{S}_k)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_k \leftarrow \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(\mathbf{a}_k | \theta) p(\theta | \zeta^{(i)})$$

$$\mathbf{S}_k^{-1} \leftarrow \frac{\partial^2 p(\mathbf{a}^k | \theta) p(\theta | \zeta^{(i)})}{\partial \theta^2} \Big|_{\theta = \mathbf{m}_k}$$

better: compare two models

Model 1:
$$\prod_{i} p(\mathcal{A}_{i}|\theta_{i}) p(\theta_{i}|\mu_{0}, \sigma)$$
i.e.
$$\theta_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{0}, \sigma)$$
Model 2:
$$\prod_{i} p(\mathcal{A}_{i}|\theta_{i}) p(\theta_{i}|\mu_{0}, c, \sigma, \psi_{i})$$
i.e.
$$\theta_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{0} + c\psi_{i}, \sigma)$$

Regression

Standard regression analysis:

$$\mathbf{m}_i = \mathbf{Cr}_i + \Sigma^{1/2} \boldsymbol{\eta} \qquad \forall i$$

Including uncertainty about each subject's inferred parameters

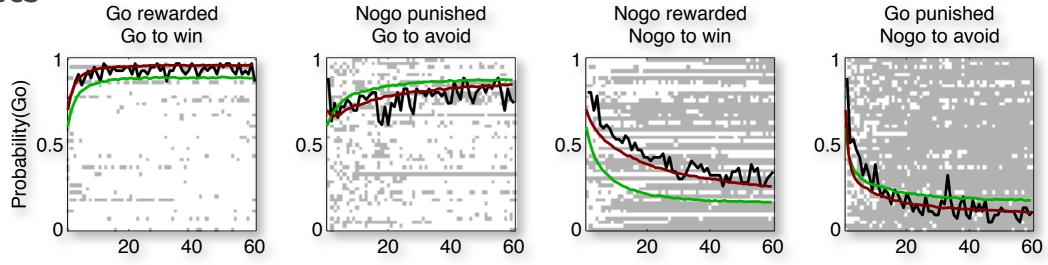
$$\mathbf{m}_i = \mathbf{Cr}_i + (\Sigma^{1/2} + \mathbf{S}_i^{1/2})\boldsymbol{\eta}$$
 $\forall i$

- Careful: Finite difference estimates S can be noisy!
 - regularize...

Questions in psychiatry II: group differences

- Do groups differ in terms of parameter(s)?
- Cannot compare parameters across different models

even very similar parameters can account for different effects



- For models with k parameters, there are 2^k possible comparisons
 - multiple comparisons?
 - posterior over models (Stephan et al. 2009)

Group differences in parameters

- Are two groups similar in parameter x?
- ANOVA: compare likelihood of two means to likelihood of one global mean. Take degrees of freedom into account.
- But: this tries to account for the parameters with one or two groups, not for the data
- Compare models with separate or joint parameter & prior:

Model 1	ω	β_1, β_2
Model 2	3	β

Questions in psychiatry III: Classification

- Who belongs to which of two groups?
- ▶ How many groups are there?

Model comparison again

What is 'significant'?

- "Spread of effect" in group comparisons
 - Better model does not mean a behavioural effect is concentrated in one parameter
 - Obvious raw differences spread between parameters

Behavioural data modelling

Are no panacea

- statistics about specific aspects of decision machinery
- only account for part of the variance

Model needs to match experiment

- ensure subjects actually do the task the way you wrote it in the model
- model comparison

Model = Quantitative hypothesis

- strong test
- need to compare models, not parameters
- includes all consequences of a hypothesis for choice

Modelling in psychiatry

- Hypothesis testing
 - otherwise untestable hypotheses
 - internal processes
- Limited by data quality
 - Look for strong behaviours, not noisy
- "Holistic" testing of hypotheses
- Marr's levels
 - physical
 - algorithm
 - computational