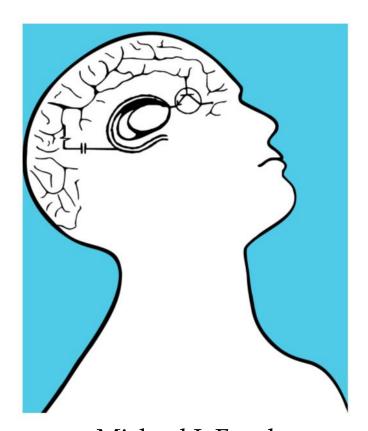
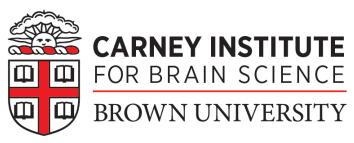
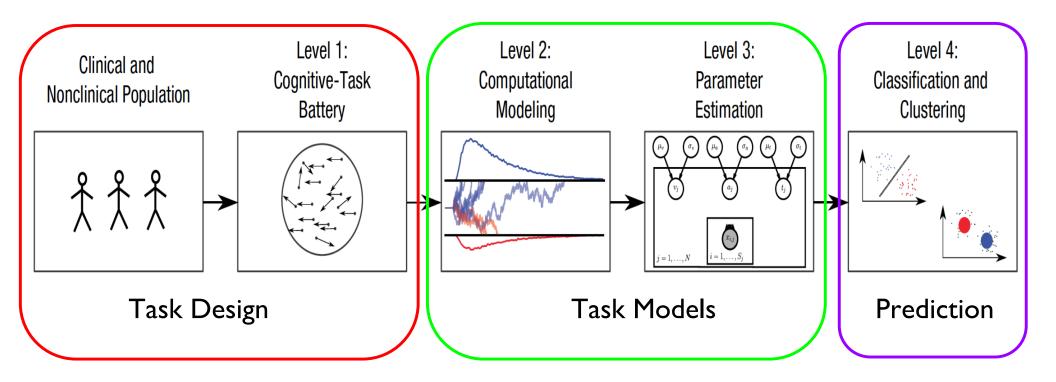
# Methods of computational model-based analysis in reinforcement learning and decision making



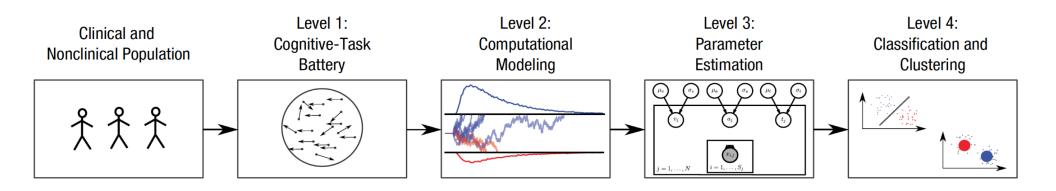
Michael J. Frank Laboratory for Neural Computation and Cognition Brown University



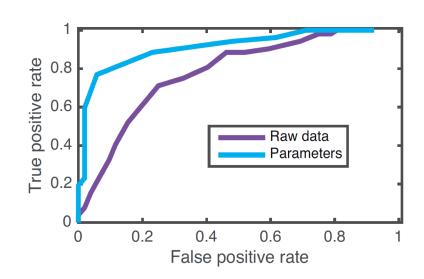
### Computation as a link between brain, mind and pathology



### Computation as a link between brain, mind and pathology



- Presymptomatic Huntington's
- Suicide attempts
- Impulsivity in Parkinson's
- Negative Sx in schizophrenia
- Depression



Maia & Frank, 2011; Wiecki, Poland & Frank 2015; Huys, Maia & Frank 2016; Wiecki et al 2016

#### Models are (can be) great, but don't use them blindly!

**Model building** The first step is to build a series of models. Each contains an internal process by which different choice options are valued, and a link function which describes how preferences turn into observed decisions. At least two models should be built: a model M0 of 'no interest' that performs the task, but without involving the process of interest, and a model M1 that does contain the process of interest.

#### Validation on surrogate data

- 1. **Data generation**: Run each model on the experiment from which data will be examined. Do the generated data look reasonable?
- 2. **Surrogate model fitting**: Fit each model to the data generated from it. Are the true parameters readily recovered? Are some parameters not identifiable?
- 3. **Surrogate model comparison**: Does the model comparison procedure correctly identify the data generated by each model?

#### Real data analysis

- 1. Real model fitting: Fit each model to the real data.
- 2. Real model validation: Run each model with the fitted parameters on the exact experimental instance presented to that particular subject. Are the key features of the real data captured reasonably?
- 3. Real model comparison: choose the least complex model that best accounts for the data.
- 4. **Parameter examination**: only at this point should the parameters of the model be examined, and only the parameters of the most parsimonious model should be ascribed meaning.

#### Overview

- Model fitting
  - Maximum likelihood
  - grid search, gradient / simplex
  - perils and tricks
- Bayesian approach
  - likelihoods, posteriors etc
  - hierarchical models
- Model comparison
- Model Validation
- Linking levels of analysis

### Example simple RL model: Q learning

Error in predicted reward:

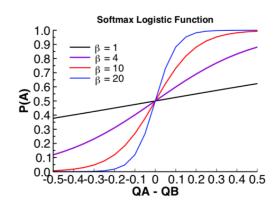
$$\delta_t = \left(r_t + \gamma \max_a Q_t(s_{t+1}, a)\right) - Q_t(s, a)$$

Update value estimate:

$$Q_t(s,a) \leftarrow Q_t(s,a) + \alpha \delta(t)$$

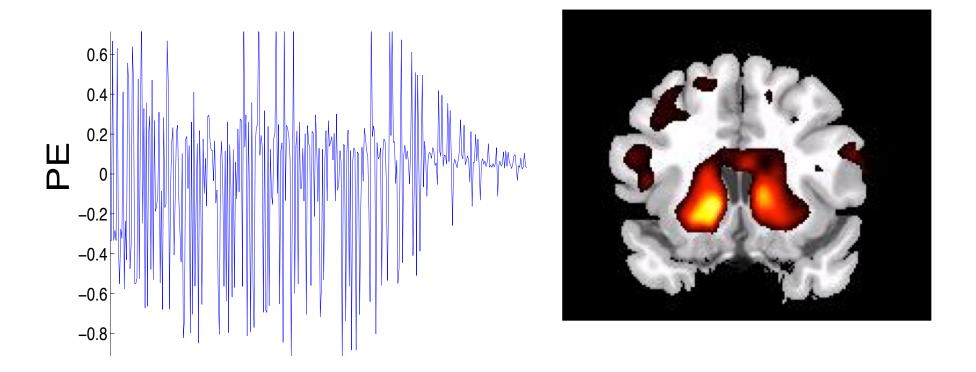
Select among Q values ("softmax"):

$$P_t(a) = rac{e^{eta Q_t(s,a)}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e^{eta Q_t(s,i)}}$$



 $\gamma$  = discount,  $\alpha$  = learning rate,  $\beta$  = "temperature" / exploration parameter

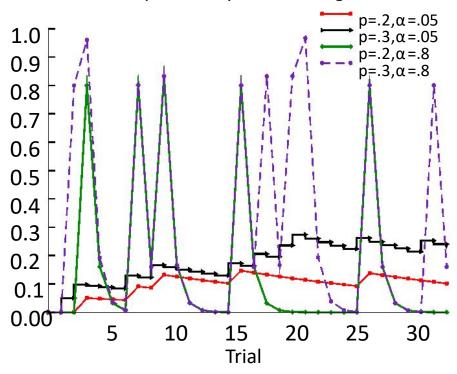
#### Reward prediction error and human functional imaging



- Parametric contrast (RPE convolved with HRF)
- Modulated by DA drugs and in Parkinsons; predictive of learning ability

#### Parameters matter: learning rate

Q values: probability and learning rate



High learning rates: capture trial-to-trial adaptation

Low learning rates: slow, integrative probabilities

### If the brain implements RL: How can we infer the hidden variables (Q values, parameters, etc)?

- Assume model is correct, but has free parameters  $\theta$  (for Q learning,  $\theta = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ .
- How to find  $\theta$  that gives best characterization of behavior?
- Given  $\theta$ :
  - does this model fit better than other competing models?
  - If so, are there correlates of model variables (Q values) in brain (e.g. striatal activity)?
  - see how manipulation of biology by drugs, genes, lesions.. affects
    - \* parameters (learning rates, discount etc)
    - \* model (e.g., from actor critic to Q learning).

For model M, find  $\theta$  that maximizes the likelihood of choices y given stimuli, rewards x

e.g., for choices between actions A and B, y = [A, B, A, A, B, A, A, A, A, B, ..]

$$\widehat{\theta}_{ml} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(y|x,\theta)$$

Across all n trials t:

$$p(y|x,\theta) = \prod_{t=1:n} p(y_t|x_t,\theta)$$

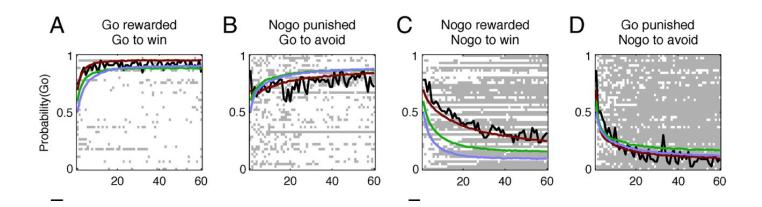
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$$p(y|x,\theta) = \prod_{t=1:n} p(y_t|x_t,\theta)$$

$$p(y_t|x_t, \hat{\theta}) = [0.5, 0.4, 0.7, 0.8, 0.4, 0.8, 0.85, 0.9, 0.1, ...]$$

In practice use log likelihood:

$$L = log(p(y|x,\theta)) = log(\prod_{t} p(y_{t}|x_{t},\theta)) = \sum_{t} log(p(y_{t}|x_{t},\theta)) = log(0.5) + log(0.4)..$$

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 $\rightarrow$  compare to model predicting chance (here p=0.5) for all trials:  $R = \log(0.5^n) = n \log(0.5)$ 

$$\rightarrow$$
 pseudo- $R^2 = \frac{L-R}{R}$  (Camerer & Ho, 1999)

best fitting model typically in range 0.1-0.7 for RL (depends on performance, difficulty..)

# How to find $\hat{\theta}$ ?

#### Grid search

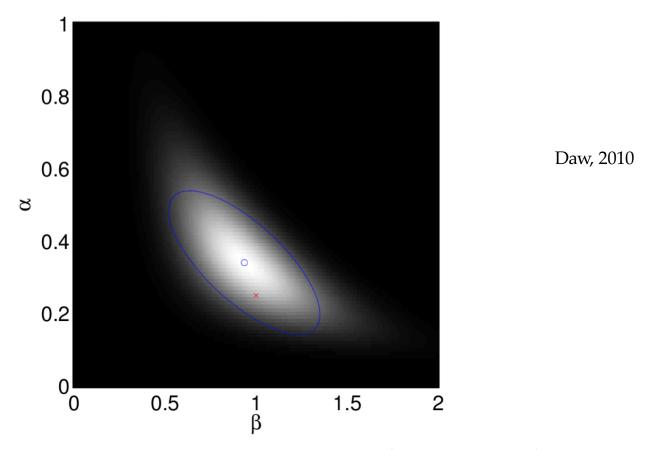
- vary each parameter  $\theta_i$  across a wide range with fixed stepsize (e.g. .01). Can plot full likelihood surface for all param combinations
- time and/or memory intensive
- for ≤ 3 or 4 params, can use matrix operations to test all param combinations simultaneously, but combinatorial explosion for more params
- nonlinear optimization functions (e.g., gradient descent, "Simplex")
  - matlab functions *fmincon*, *fminsearch*, *rmsearch* etc
  - find single best combination with arbitrary precision
  - gives estimation of Hessian  $\partial^2_{\partial\theta}$  L at  $\hat{\theta}_{mle}$ : how peaked is the likelihood function? How stable are parameter estimates?

#### Problems with Maximum Likelihood?

- fast search algorithms, but may get local optima
- $\rightarrow$  use various starting points for  $\theta$  (*rmsearch*)
- But what if multiple maxima in likelihood surface that are not that different? That is, how to interpret "MLE" if  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  = 0.2,1 gives only slightly better fit than 1,0.2?
- multicollinearity and identifiability
- confidence in param estimates depends on model fit, and relatedly, overall performance on the task (for poorer learners, models will fit worse, and params are less identifiable).

#### Generative model to recover parameters

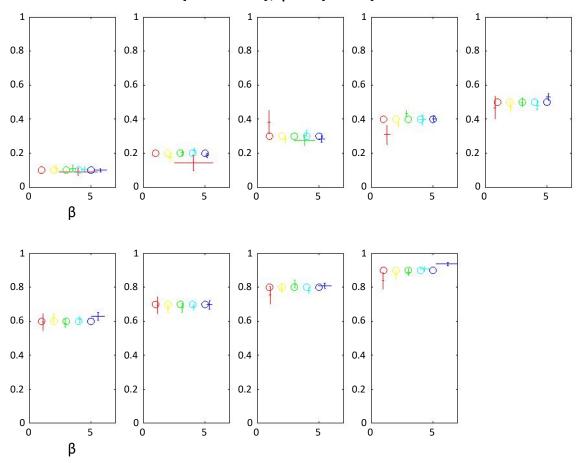
Are parameters separately identifiable? For one combination of "true"  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ :



- $\alpha$  determines rate of learning,  $\beta$  determines gain/discrimination/exploration...
- Co-linear, but separately identifiable depending on task! e.g., with increasingly deterministic outcomes,  $\beta$  determines asymptotic accuracy

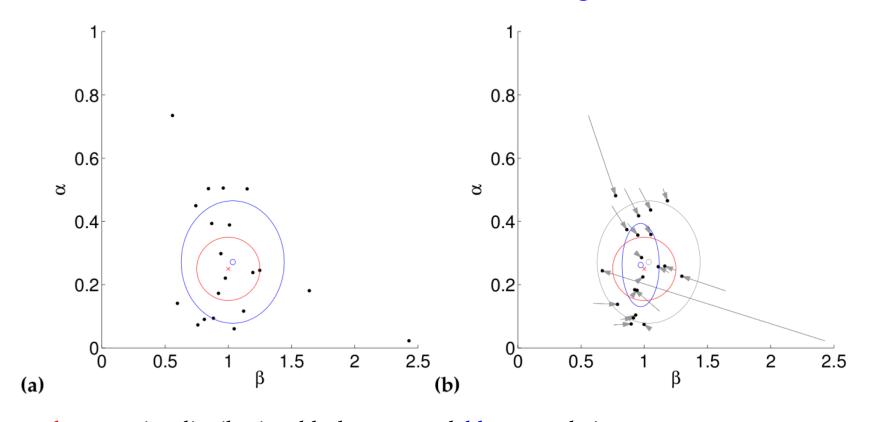
#### Parameter recovery simulations

For all combinations of  $\alpha \in \{0.1:0.1:1\}$ ,  $\beta \in \{1:1:5\}$ 



with Anne Collins

# RL model generated and recovered; hierarchical shrinkage



red: generative distribution; black: recovered; blue: population stats

- summary statistics across a group gives good estimate of population stats (Holmes & Friston, 1998; Daw 2010).
- variance is over-estimated. Need sufficient N.
- group stats should constrain estimate of individuals. How to do this in principled way?

### Example: Expectancy Valence model Iowa Gambling Task

$$v(t) = (1 - w)W(t) + wL(t)$$

w = attentional weight to losses vs wins

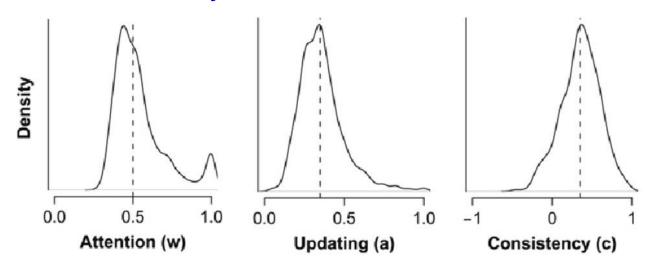
$$Ev_k(t+1) = Ev_k(t) + a(v(t) - Ev_k(t))$$

a = recency / updating / learning rate

$$P(S_k(t+1)) = \frac{exp(\theta(t)Ev_k)}{\sum_j exp(\theta(t)Ev_j)}$$

$$\theta(t)$$
 = softmax gain =  $(t/10)^c$   
  $c$  = response consistency

#### Parameter recovery: Maximum likelihood estimation

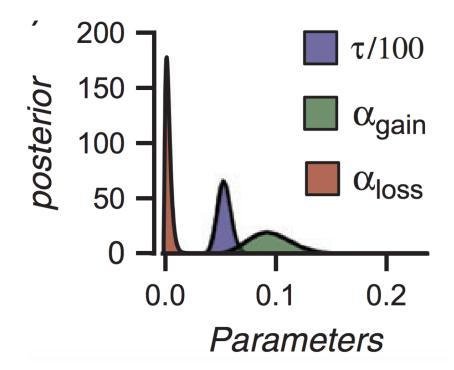


- Generative model:
   1000 simulated runs of the same participant (ie same params), 150 trials each
- means of MLE parameters are very close to true values (dashed line)
- some individual runs can be off, and param at bounds
- in practice, with MLE can't get these distributions for a single subject (unless we tested them many times and assumed no meta-learning!)

#### Bayesian approach

Instead of one ML solution, quantify *uncertainty* in probability distributions over parameters: How much more likely is ML compared to other potential parameter values for the same data?

#### This is what we want for real data:



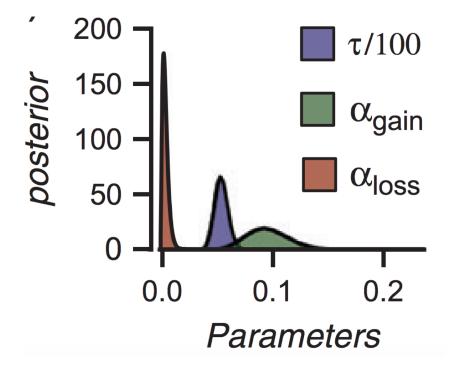
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Instead of one ML solution, quantify *uncertainty* in probability distributions over parameters.

Given model M parametrized by  $\theta$ 

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{\int P(D|\theta)P(\theta)d\theta}$$

all P's above are full distributions  $\forall \theta$ , not point estimates



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all P's above are full distributions  $\forall \theta$ , not point estimates

Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimate:

$$\widehat{\theta}_{map} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(y|x,\theta)P(\theta)$$

Takes into account prior  $P(\theta)$ .

• The prior  $P(\theta)$  for each subject can be uniform or constrained by prior knowledge (e.g. from literature; *empirical priors*) and/or from the group (stay tuned).

#### But exact bayesian inference is hard

- approximate methods
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling
- Variational Inference
- Expectation Maximization

. . .

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## Sampling



What is the average height of everyone in this room?

Method: measure all heights, add them up and divide by N

What is the average height *f* of people *p* in Canada?

Surveying works for large and notionally infinite populations.

## Sampling



#### What is the average height of everyone in this room?

Method: measure all heights, add them up and divide by N

What is the average height *f* of people *p* in Canada?

$$E_{p \in \mathcal{C}}[f(p)] \equiv \frac{1}{|\mathcal{C}|} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{C}} f(p)$$
, "intractable"?

$$pprox rac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} f(p^{(s)}), \text{ for random survey of } S \text{ people } \{p^{(s)}\} \in \mathcal{C}$$

Surveying works for large and notionally infinite populations.

# Simple Monte Carlo

Statistical sampling can be applied to any expectation:

#### In general:

$$\int f(x)P(x) \, dx \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} f(x^{(s)}), \quad x^{(s)} \sim P(x)$$

#### **Example: making predictions**

$$p(x|\mathcal{D}) = \int P(x|\theta, \mathcal{D}) P(\theta|\mathcal{D}) d\theta$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} P(x|\theta^{(s)}, \mathcal{D}), \quad \theta^{(s)} \sim P(\theta|\mathcal{D})$$

# **Properties of Monte Carlo**

Estimator: 
$$\int f(x)P(x) dx \approx \hat{f} \equiv \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} f(x^{(s)}), \quad x^{(s)} \sim P(x)$$

#### Estimator is unbiased:

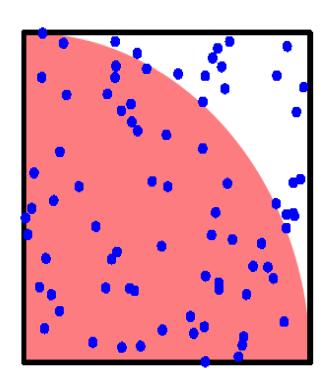
$$\mathbb{E}_{P(\{x^{(s)}\})} \left[ \hat{f} \right] = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbb{E}_{P(x)} [f(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{P(x)} [f(x)]$$

#### Variance shrinks $\propto 1/S$ :

$$\operatorname{var}_{P(\{x^{(s)}\})} \left[ \hat{f} \right] = \frac{1}{S^2} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \operatorname{var}_{P(x)} [f(x)] = \operatorname{var}_{P(x)} [f(x)] / S$$

"Error bars" shrink like  $\sqrt{S}$ 

## A dumb approximation of $\pi$



$$P(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < x < 1 \text{ and } 0 < y < 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\pi = 4 \iint \mathbb{I}\left((x^2 + y^2) < 1\right) P(x, y) dx dy$$

```
octave:1> S=12; a=rand(S,2); 4*mean(sum(a.*a,2)<1)
ans = 3.3333
octave:2> S=1e7; a=rand(S,2); 4*mean(sum(a.*a,2)<1)
ans = 3.1418</pre>
```

### Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

Sampling isn't random, but is iterative – each point is (stochastically) determined by the previous one: "Markov Chain"

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Sampling isn't random, but is iterative – each point is (stochastically) determined by the previous one: "Markov Chain"

Choose a candidate density  $q(\theta^*|\theta^{(t-1)})$  that is a valid density function for every possible value of the conditioning variable  $\theta^{(t-1)}$ , and satisfies

$$q(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}) = q(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^*),$$

i.e., q is symmetric in its arguments.

Given a starting value  $\theta^{(0)}$  at iteration t = 0, the algorithm proceeds as follows:

- **●** Metropolis Algorithm: For  $(t \in 1 : T)$ , repeat:
  - 1. Draw  $\theta^*$  from  $q(\cdot|\theta^{(t-1)})$
  - 2. Compute the ratio

$$r = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)/p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})$$

T

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$$r = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)/p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})$$

3. If 
$$r \ge 1$$
, set  $\theta^{(t)} = \theta^*$ ;

If  $r < 1$ , set  $\theta^{(t)} = \begin{cases} \theta^* \text{ with probability } r \\ \theta^{(t-1)} \text{ with probability } 1 - r \end{cases}$ .

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#### Alternate notation:

$$p_{\text{move}} = \min\left(\frac{P(\theta_{\text{proposed}})}{P(\theta_{\text{current}})}, 1\right)$$

Given a starting value  $\theta^{(0)}$  at iteration t = 0, the algorithm proceeds as follows:

- **Metropolis Algorithm:** For  $(t \in 1 : T)$ , repeat:
  - 1. Draw  $\theta^*$  from  $q(\cdot|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})$
  - 2. Compute the ratio

$$r = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)/p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}) = \exp[\log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) - \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})]$$

3. If 
$$r \ge 1$$
, set  $\theta^{(t)} = \theta^*$ ;

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In the structure of th

# Huh? Why does that work?

## Huh? Why does that work?

$$\frac{p(\theta \to \theta + 1)}{p(\theta + 1 \to \theta)} = \frac{.5 \min (P(\theta + 1)/P(\theta), 1)}{.5 \min (P(\theta)/P(\theta + 1), 1)}$$

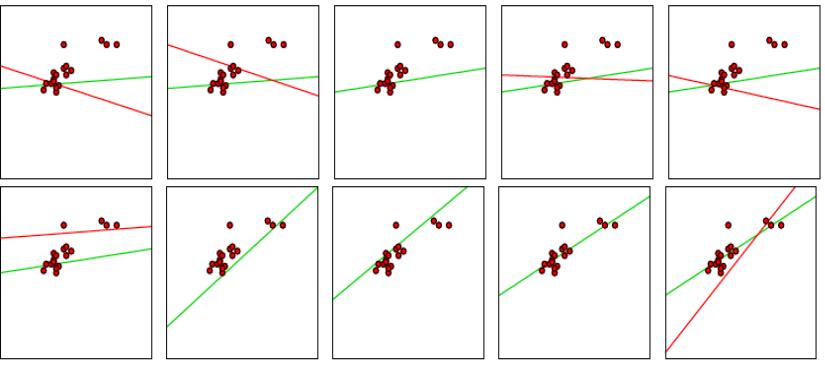
$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{P(\theta)/P(\theta + 1)} & \text{if } P(\theta + 1) > P(\theta) \\ \frac{P(\theta + 1)/P(\theta)}{1} & \text{if } P(\theta + 1) < P(\theta) \end{cases}$$

$$=\frac{P(\theta+1)}{P(\theta)}$$

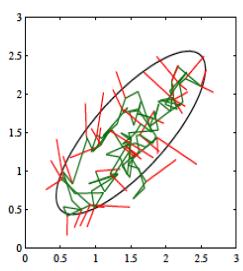
#### Intuition from last slide

- Probability of transitioning to one point vs the other in parameter space is ratio of their posterior probabilities (with P = prior\*likelihood)
- No need to calculate P(D) integral: cancels out in ratio  $P(\theta+1)/P(\theta)$
- So, just plot histogram of how often each point visited; with enough samples can reconstruct posterior distribution!
- While prior\*likelihood may be high for any one point, need to know how high it is *relative* to other parameters (normalization). We get this only after sampling many points and looking at the final relative density

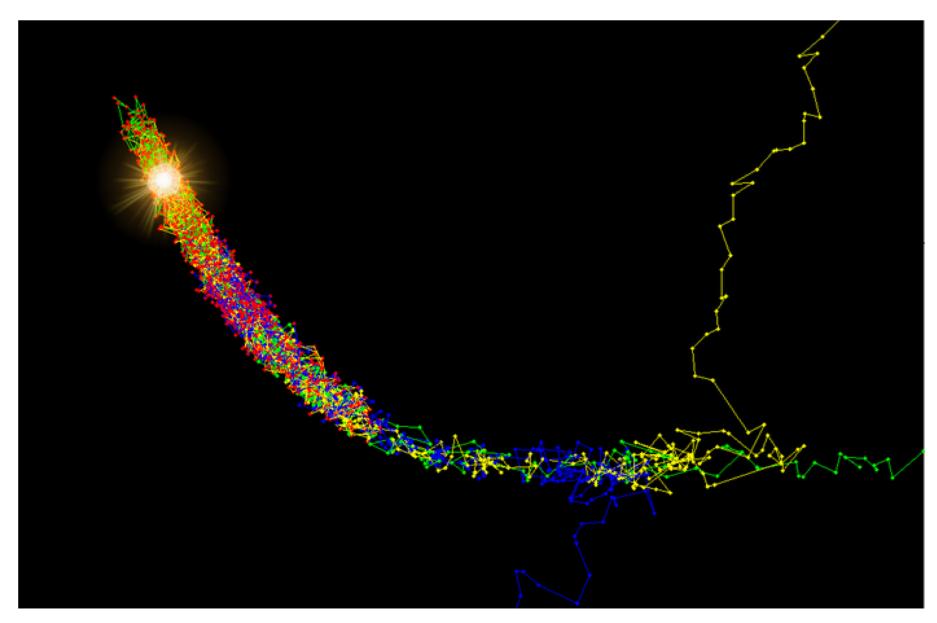
# Metropolis algorithm



- Perturb parameters:  $Q(\theta';\theta)$ , e.g.  $\mathcal{N}(\theta,\sigma^2)$
- Accept with probability  $\min \left( 1, \frac{\tilde{P}(\theta'|\mathcal{D})}{\tilde{P}(\theta|\mathcal{D})} \right)$
- Otherwise keep old parameters



# Metropolis Algorithm: Burn in and convergence



# Consistency checks

Do I get the right answer on tiny versions of my problem?

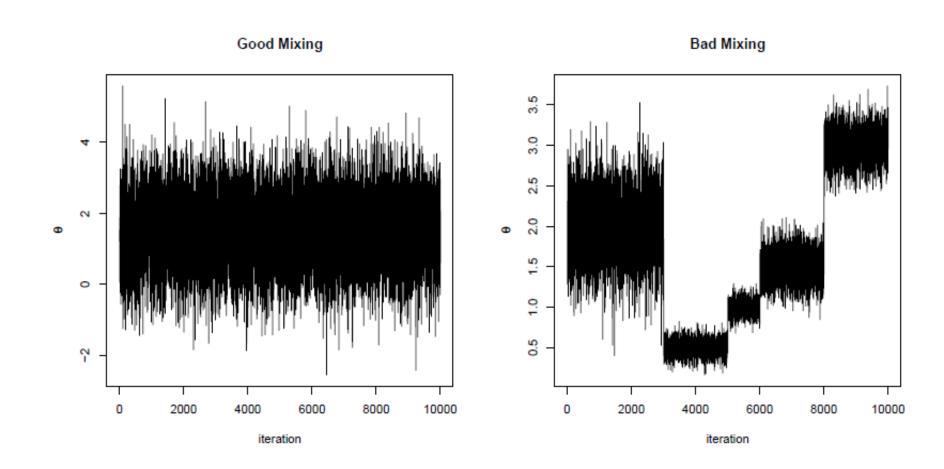
Can I make good inferences about synthetic data drawn from my model?

**Getting it right:** joint distribution tests of posterior simulators, John Geweke, JASA, 99(467):799–804, 2004.

### Convergence Issues: Trace Plot

- One way to see if our chain has converged is to see how well our chain is mixing, or moving around the parameter space.
- If our chain is taking a long time to move around the parameter space, then it will take longer to converge.
- A trace plot is a plot of the iteration number against the value of the draw of the parameter at each iteration.

### **Trace Plot**



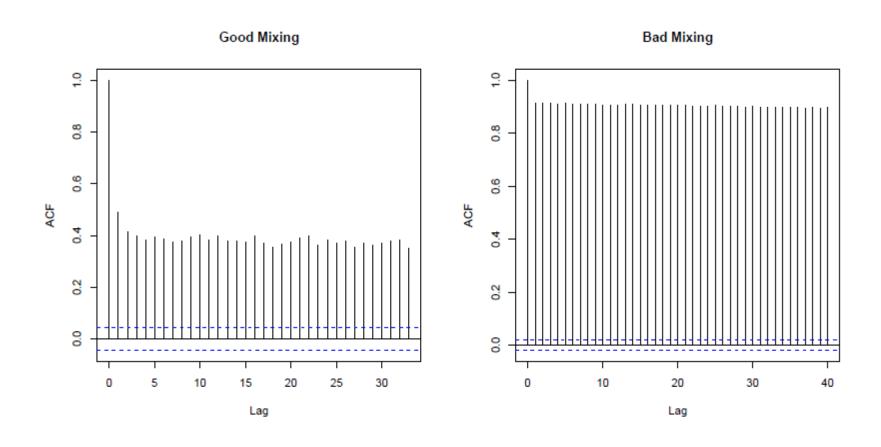
#### **Autocorrelation**

The lag k autocorrelation  $\rho_k$  is the correlation between every draw and its kth lag:

We would expect the kth lag autocorrelation to be smaller as k increases

$$\rho_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n-k} (x_{i} - \overline{x})(x_{i+k} - \overline{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \overline{x})}$$

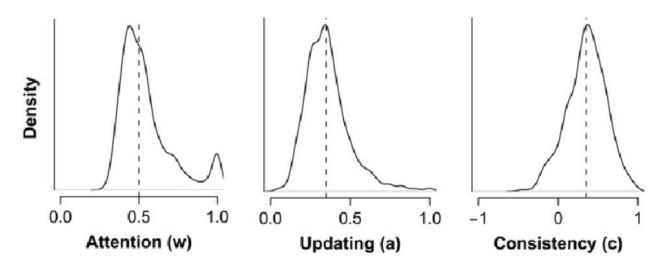
## **Autocorrelation**



# Gelman-Rubin R Statistic: Run multiple chains and see if they get the same answer

- Run m≥2 chains of length 2n from over-dispersed starting values.
- Discard the first n draws in each chain.
- Calculate the within-chain and between-chain variance.
- Calculate the estimated variance of the parameter as a weighted sum of the within-chain and between-chain variance.
- Calculate the potential scale reduction factor.

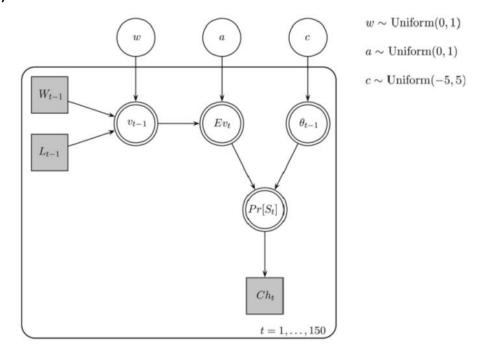
#### Remember Maximum likelihood estimation?



- Generative model:
   1000 simulated runs of the same participant (ie same params), 150 trials each
- means of MLE parameters are very close to true values (dashed line)
- some individual runs can be off, and param at bounds
- in practice, with MLE can't get these distributions for a single subject (unless we tested them many times and assumed no meta-learning!)

#### Expectancy Valence model lowa Gambling Task, Bayes (MCMC)

 $P(\theta|D) \propto P(D|\theta)P(\theta)$ 

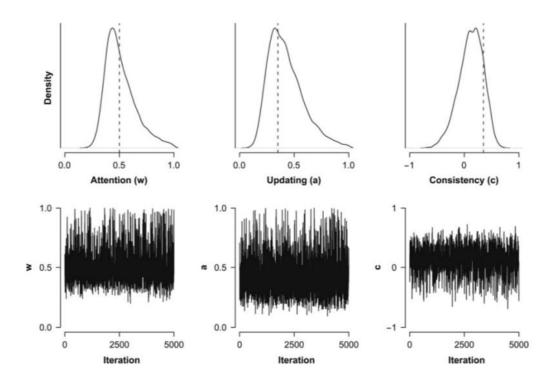


use sampling (MCMC) to do bayes inference (integrals hard to compute analytically )

Tools: STAN, JAGS, WinBUGS and matlab or R; Python (pyMC)

#### Posterior distributions

one simulated subject, one run, 150 trials

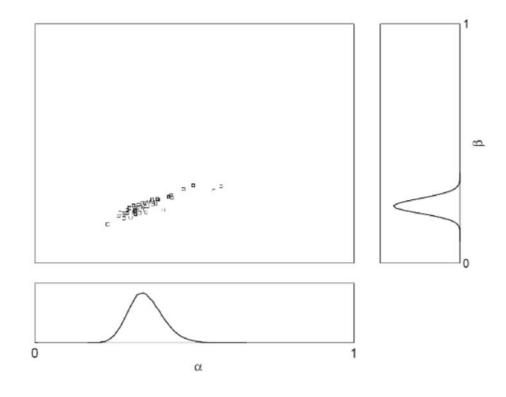


• Posterior distribution shows uncertainty: single subject fit!

Wetzels et al., 2010

#### Joint and Marginal Posterior Distributions

 Note that the joint posterior distribution has more information than the marginal distributions



# Fitted RL-DDM, joint distributions ADHD on/off meds

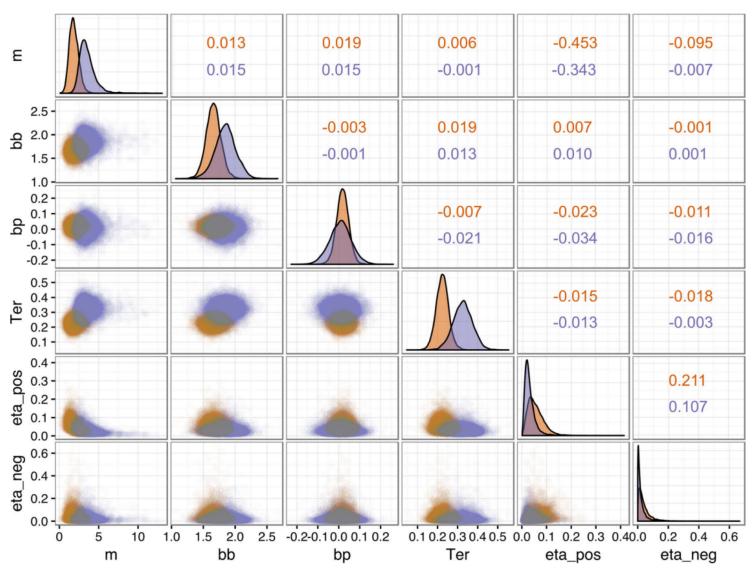


Fig. 2 Scatterplot and density of group parameter estimates from posterior distributions off (red) and on (purple) medication. bb = boundary baseline, bp = boundary power, eta\_pos = learning

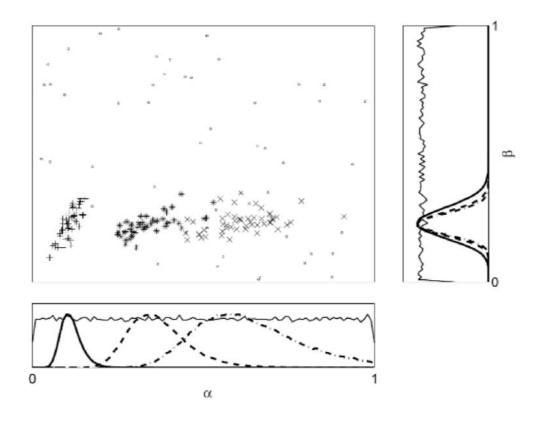
rate for positive prediction errors (PEs), eta\_neg = learning rate for negative PEs, m = drift rate scaling,  $T_{er} = nondecision$  time

#### Groups and individuals

- Two extremes:
  - Fit every participant separately, as if they are completely unrelated;
  - Pool the data and assume that participants are identical copies
- Both assumptions are unreasonable

#### Joint and Marginal Posterior Distributions: Separate individual model

 The individual differences show in the posterior, but the final (data-less) subject is still modeled by the prior



#### Groups and individuals

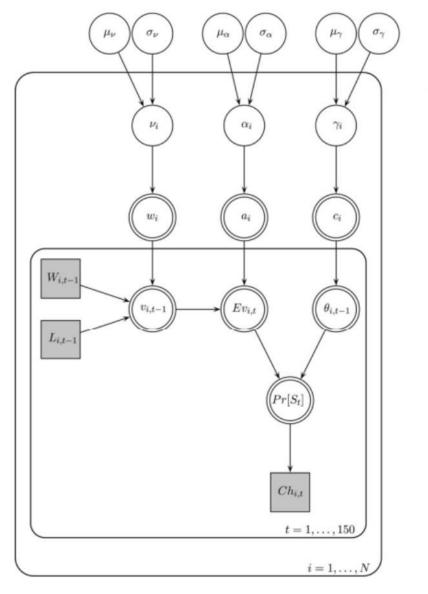
- Two extremes:
  - Fit every participant separately, as if they are completely unrelated;
  - Pool the data and assume that participants are identical copies
- Both assumptions are unreasonable
- Compromise: participants are similar, yet different (random effects)
- Individual subject parameters are drawn from distributions, and we also infer the parameters of those group distributions...

#### Groups and individuals

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$$P(\theta, \lambda | D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta|\lambda)P(\lambda)}{P(D)}$$

$$P(\theta, \lambda | D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta|\lambda)P(\lambda)}{\int P(D|\theta)P(\theta|\lambda)P(\lambda)d\theta d\lambda}$$



 $\mu_{\cdot} \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$ 

 $\sigma_{.} \sim \mathrm{Uniform}(0, 1.5)$ 

 $\nu_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{\nu}, \lambda_{\nu})$ 

 $\alpha_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_\alpha, \lambda_\alpha)$ 

 $\gamma_i \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{\gamma}, \lambda_{\gamma})$ 

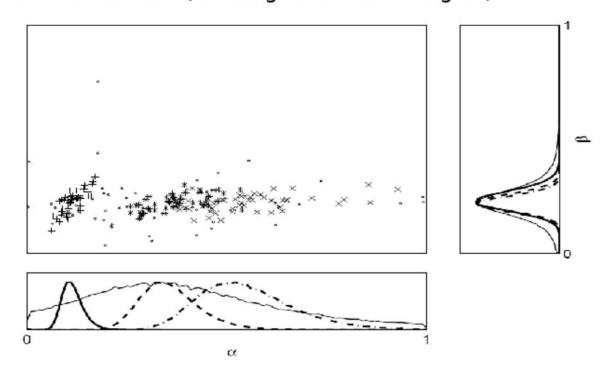
 $\nu_i = \text{Probit}(w_i)$ 

 $\alpha_i = \text{Probit}(a_i)$ 

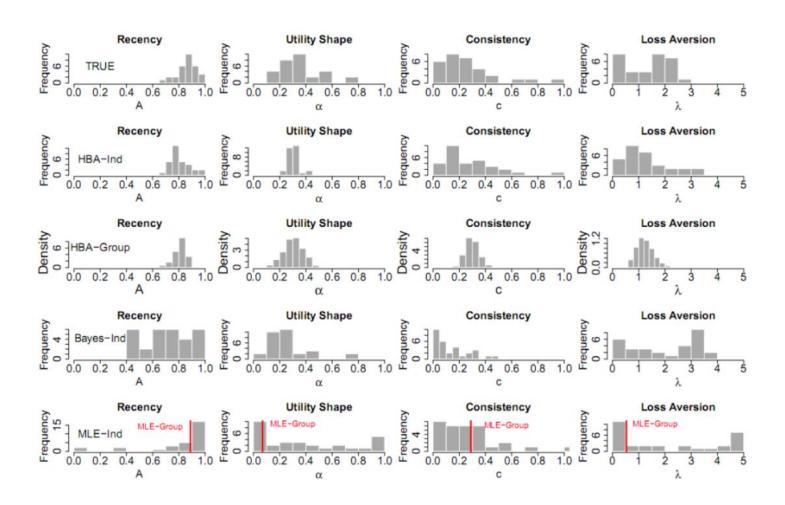
 $\gamma_i = \text{Probit}(c_i)$ 

#### Joint and Marginal Posterior Distributions: Structured individual differences model

 First three subjects give almost the same parameter inference, but now the fourth subject borrows from what is learned about them ("sharing statistical strength")



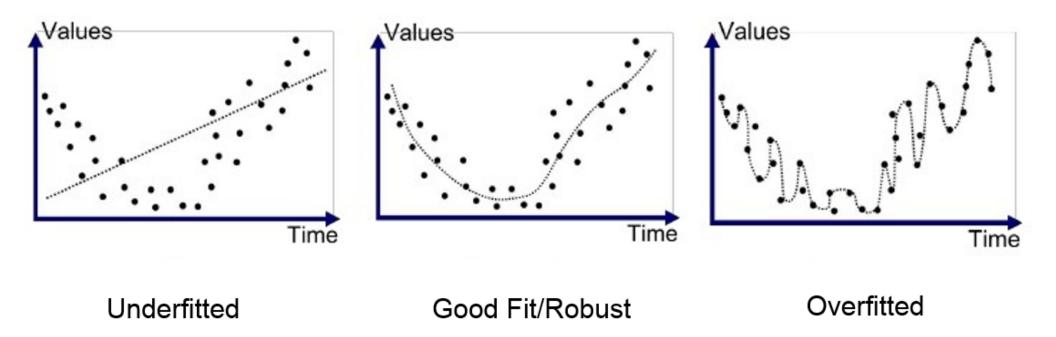
# Hierarchical Bayes Improves Parameter Recovery in RL and DM models



Ahn et al in 2011 Wiecki, Sofer & Frank 2013 Pedersen, Frank & Biele 2017

## Model Selection / Comparison

• "A scientific theory should be as simple as possible, but no simpler"



- Various metrics of model selection (Bayes Factor, BIC, AIC, DIC, WAIC, LOO, FE..),
- but all are, roughly: P(D|M) + complexity(M)
- None is perfect. Do model recovery simulations for your task and models!

# Posterior probabilities and Bayes factors (BF)

Posterior probability for each model

$$\pi(\mathcal{M}_k|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\mathcal{M}_k)}{\sum_i \pi(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{M}_i)\pi(\mathcal{M}_i)}$$

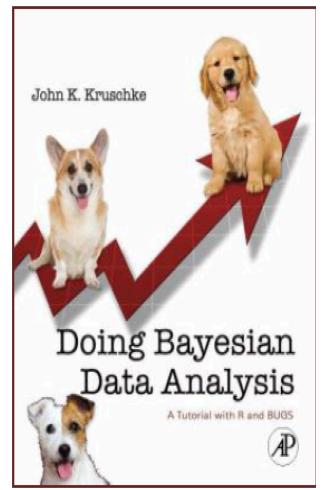
Marginal likelihood:  $\pi(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{M}_k) = \int \pi(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \mathcal{M}_k)\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k|\mathcal{M}_k)d\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ Posterior odds:

$$\frac{\pi(\mathcal{M}_{k}|\mathbf{y})}{\pi(\mathcal{M}_{j}|\mathbf{y})} = \underbrace{\frac{\pi(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{M}_{k})}{\pi(\mathbf{y}|\mathcal{M}_{j})}}_{\text{Bayes factor}} \times \underbrace{\frac{\pi(\mathcal{M}_{k})}{\pi(\mathcal{M}_{j})}}_{\text{prior odds}}$$

- $\triangleright$  Choose the model with the largest probability  $\pi(\mathcal{M}_k|\mathbf{y})$
- ▶ BF gives a measure of evidence for model  $\mathcal{M}_k$  versus  $\mathcal{M}_j$

# Model Comparison

The magazine model comparison game Leaves all of us wishing that we looked like them. But they have mere fantasy's bogus appeal, 'Cause none obeys fact or respects what is real.



Just because a model accounts for most variance doesn't mean it is for the reason that we think. Parameters soak up variance as best they can given model constraints.

e.g.,  $\alpha$  is NOT corticostriatal synaptic plasticity.  $\alpha$  = update of organism as a whole..

How well does the "best" (least worst) model fit key features of the data?

.

How well does the "best" (least worst) model fit key features of the data?

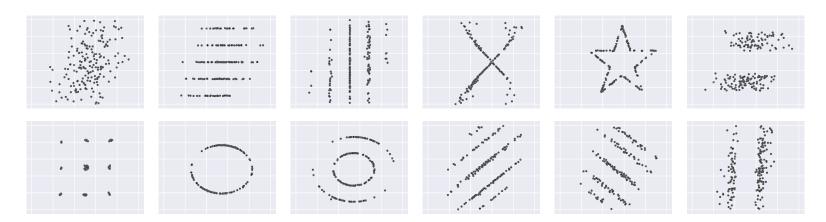
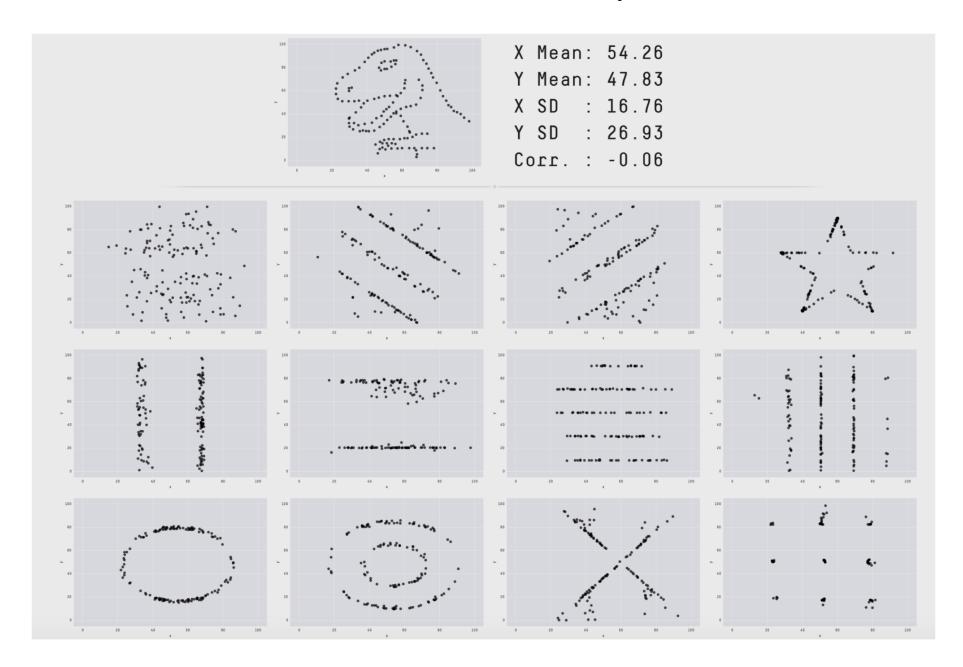
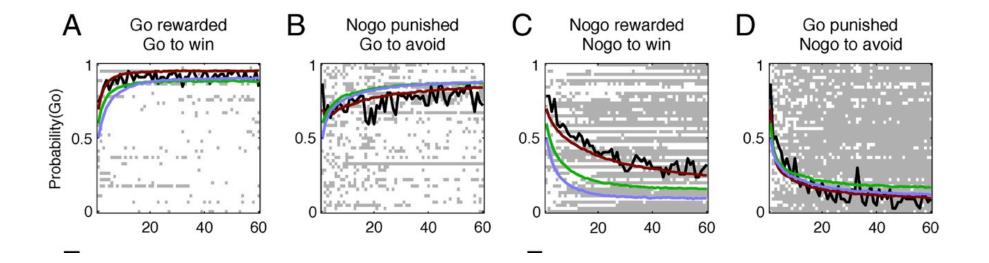


Figure 1. A collection of data sets produced by our technique. While different in appearance, each has the same summary statistics (mean, std. deviation, and Pearson's corr.) to 2 decimal places. ( $\bar{x} = 54.02$ ,  $\bar{y} = 48.09$ ,  $sd_x = 14.52$ ,  $sd_y = 24.79$ , Pearson's r = +0.32)

How well does the "best" (least worst) model fit key features of the data?



# Model validation is informative about where your model misses

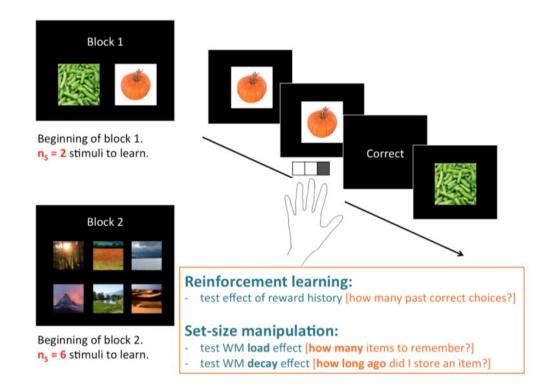


# Model validation: simple RL model

$$Q_{t+1} \leftarrow Q_t + \alpha RPE$$

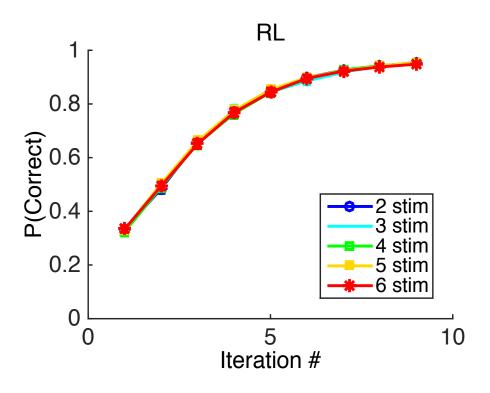
Each option value is updated with RPE and stored until needed again

### **RLWM Task**



**Anne Collins** 

# **RL Model simulations**



# of stimuli to learn in the block

$$n_S = 2$$

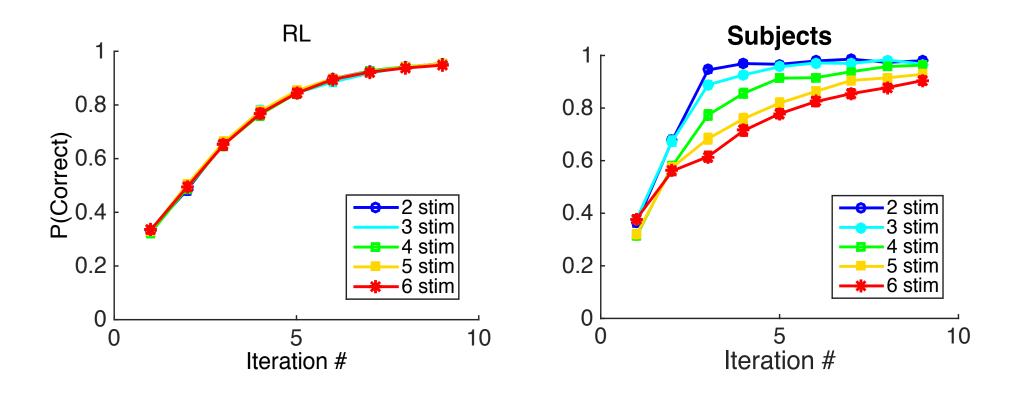
$$n_S = 3$$

$$n_S = 4$$

$$n_s = 5$$

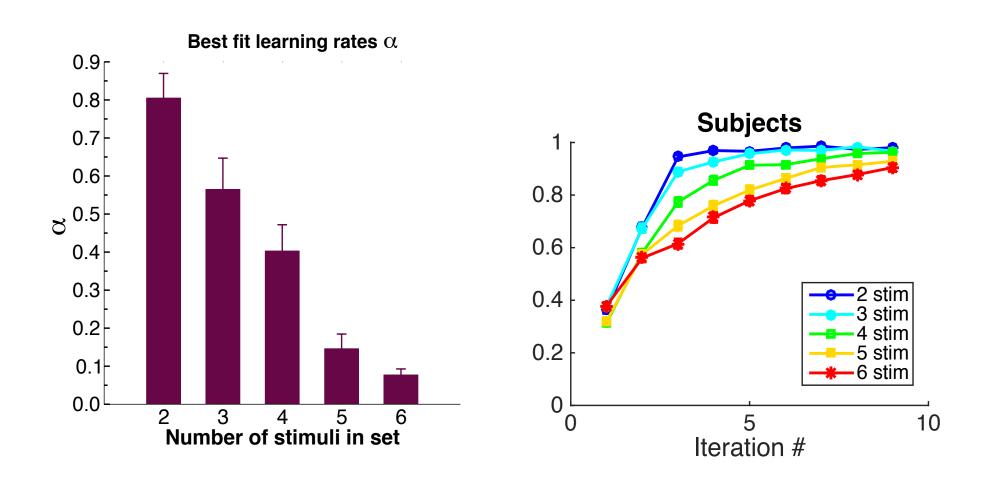
$$n_S = 5$$
 $n_S = 6$ 

# Model validation failure: simulate your data!



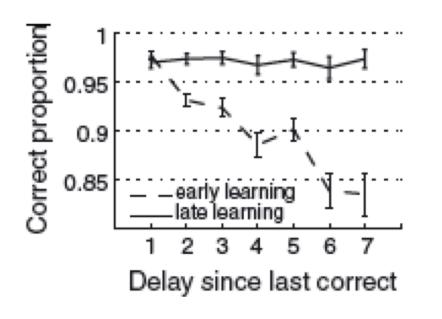
Effect of set-size on learning is not accounted for by vanilla RL

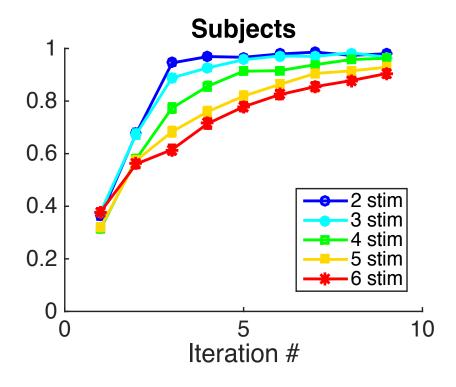
## Model validation failure



Effect of set-size on learning is not accounted for by vanilla RL (even with multiple learning rates)

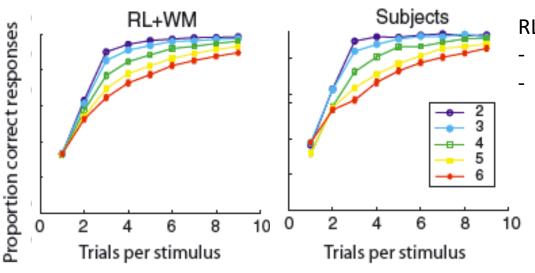
## Model validation failure





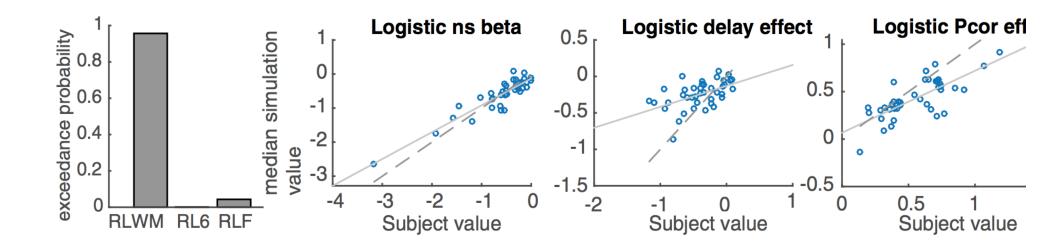
Effect of delay on learning is not accounted for by vanilla RL

## Model validation success! RL+WM explains behavior

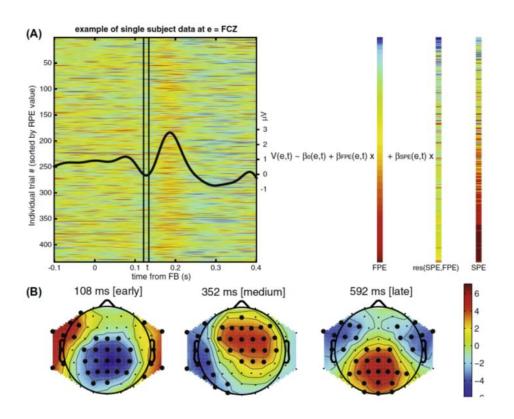


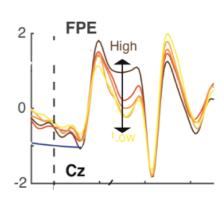
RLWM accounts for both load and delay effects

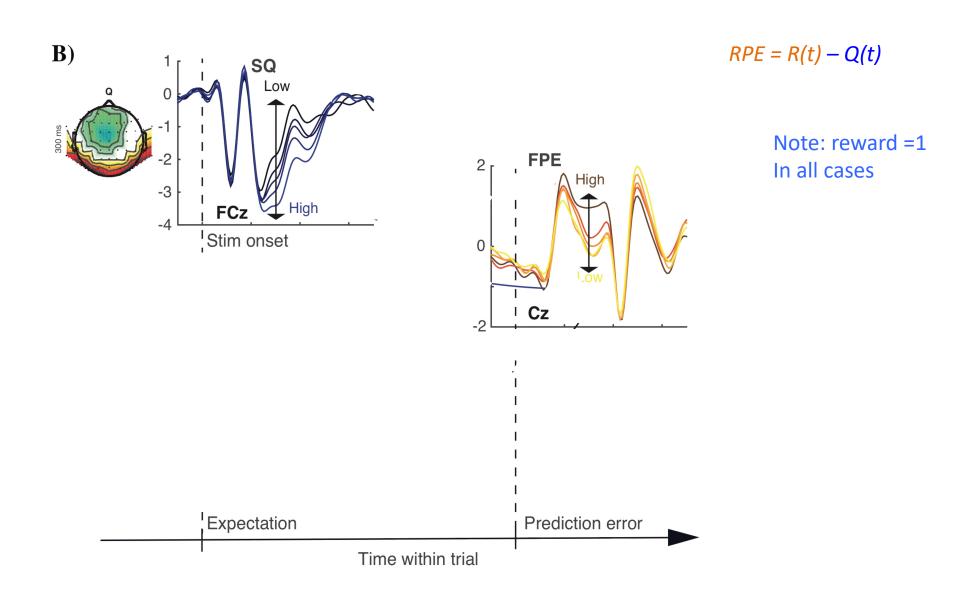
- Decrease in load effect as RL learns
- Decrease in delay effect as RL becomes more reliable than WM

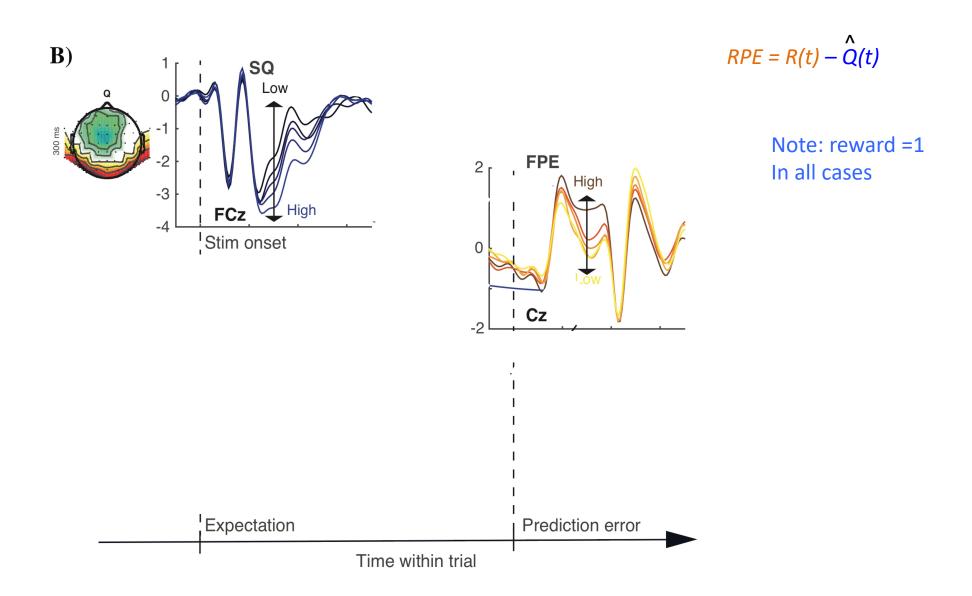


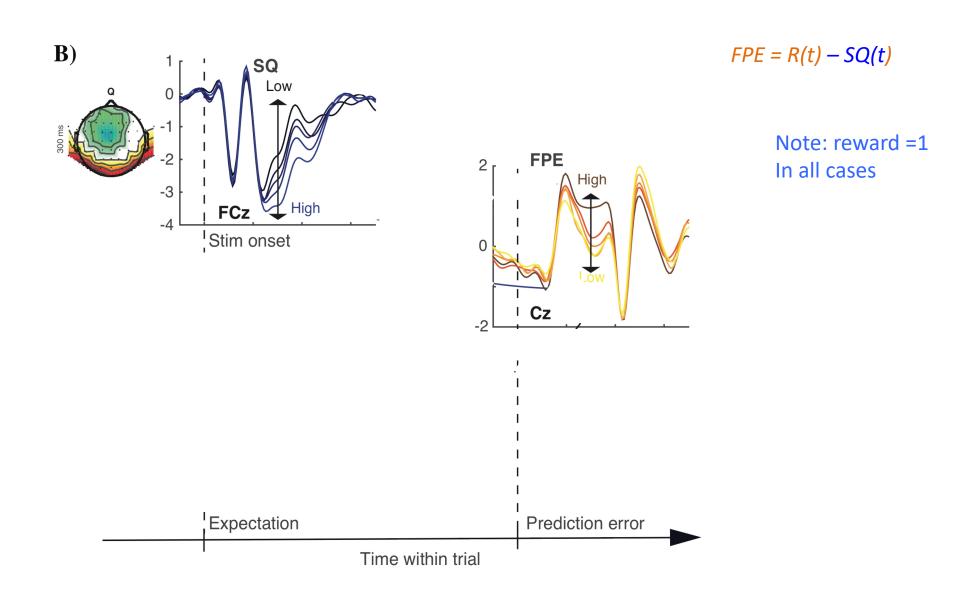
#### Model-based EEG

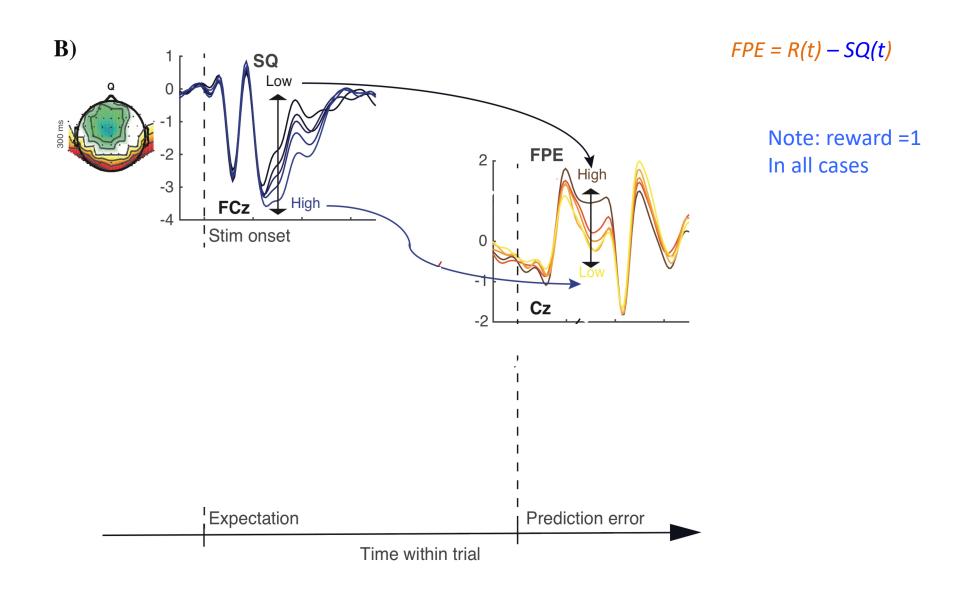


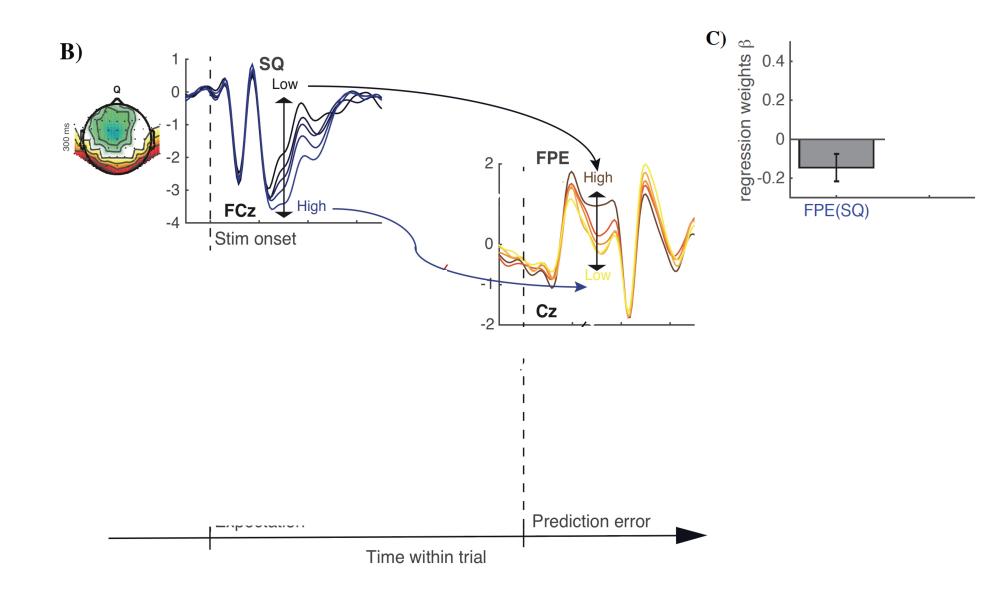




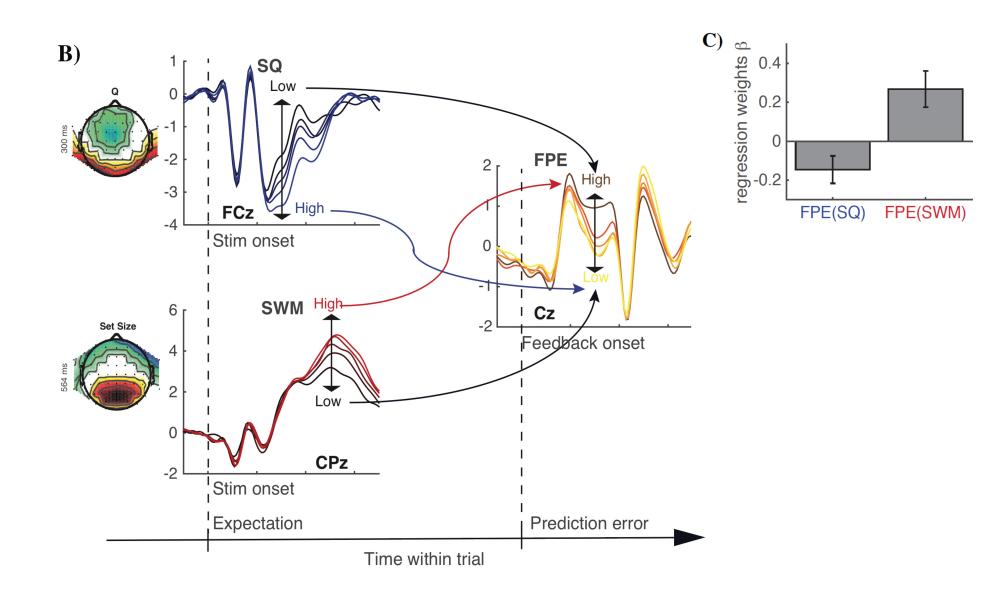




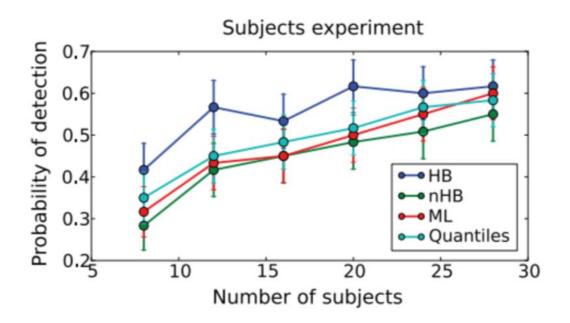




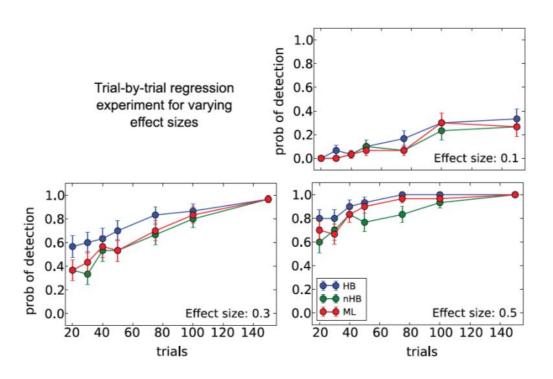
## Within-trial dynamics: WM/RL interactions



## Why use hierarchical bayes: Detection of effect as a function of # Subjects

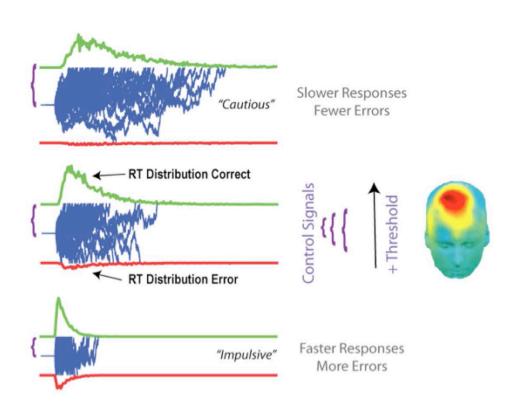


# Regression of physio variable onto DDM param: Probability of detecting an effect

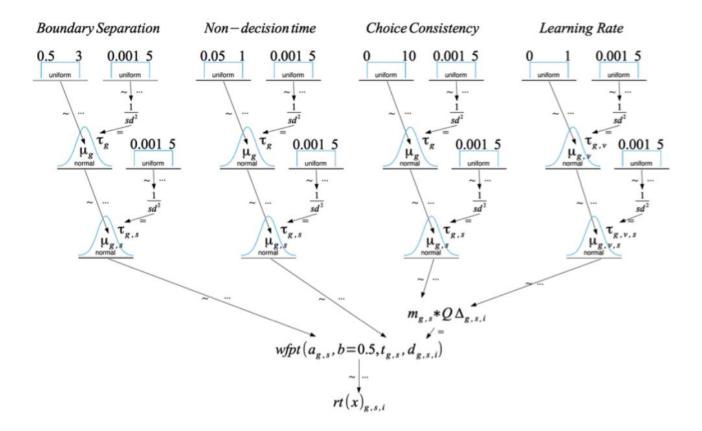


## 0

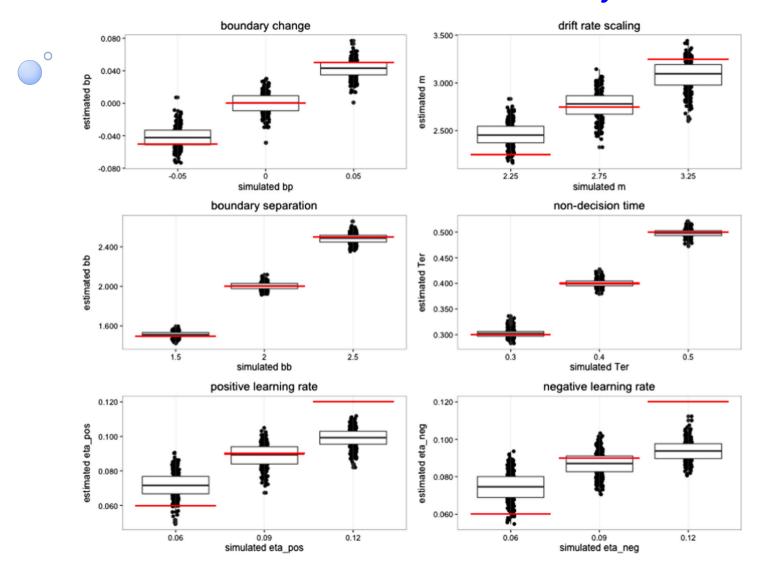
# Drift diffusion model as the choice rule in reinforcement learning



#### Simultaneous Estimation of RL and DDM



## Parameter recovery



# Fitted parameters, joint distributions ADHD on/off meds

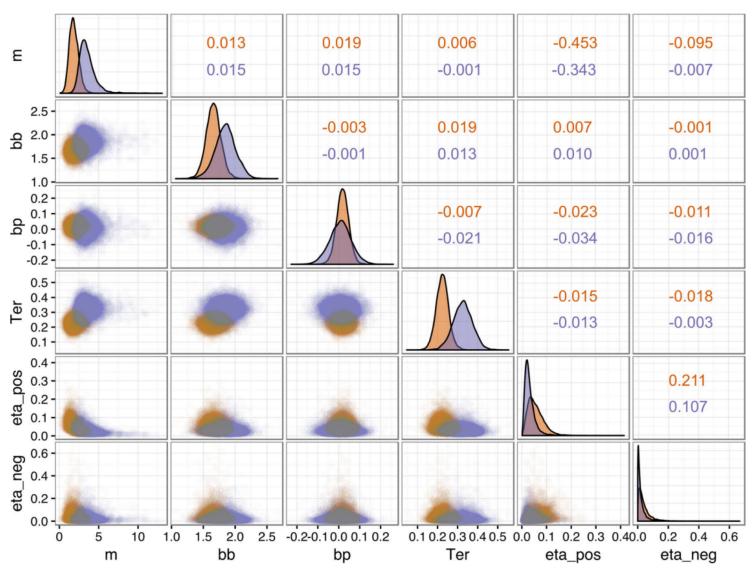
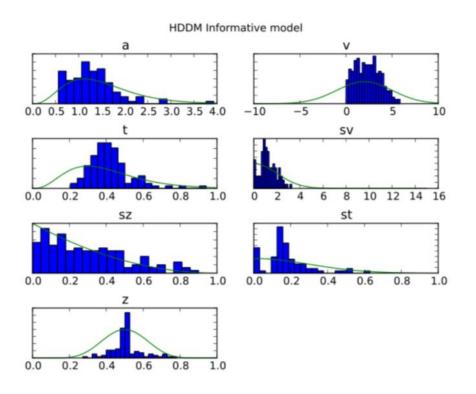


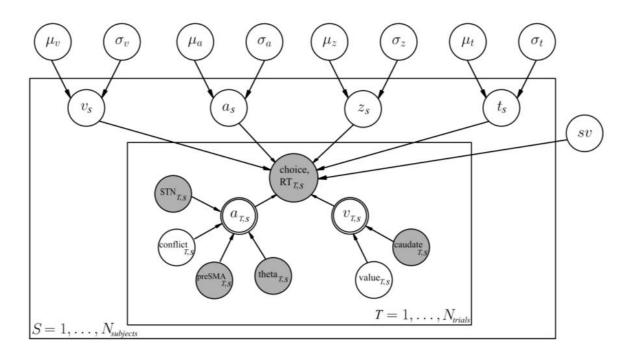
Fig. 2 Scatterplot and density of group parameter estimates from posterior distributions off (red) and on (purple) medication. bb = boundary baseline, bp = boundary power, eta\_pos = learning

rate for positive prediction errors (PEs), eta\_neg = learning rate for negative PEs, m = drift rate scaling,  $T_{er} = nondecision$  time

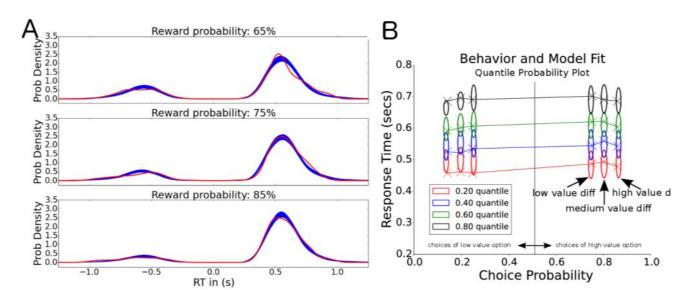
## **HDDM** empirical priors



## fMRI and EEG experiment

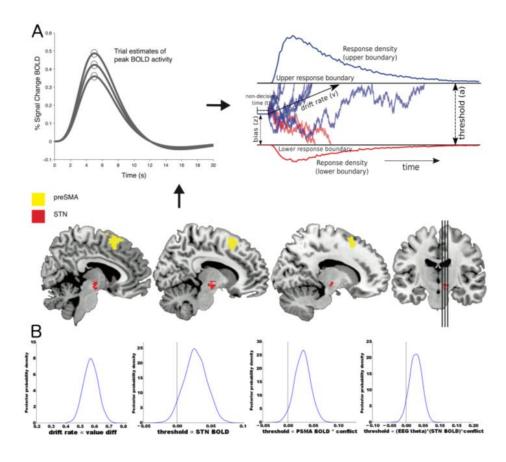


#### fMRI and EEG experiment: behavior



posterior predictive checks are important!

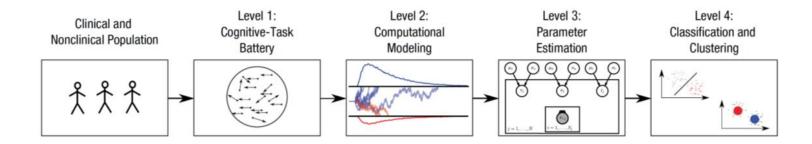
### fMRI and EEG experiment



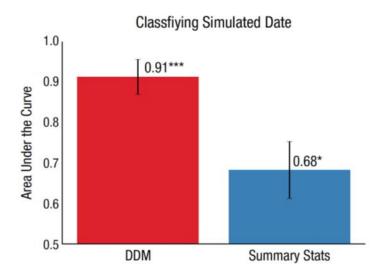
Frank et al 2015

also: STN spikes directly linked to threshold during conflict task, Herz et al 2016

### Application to Computational Psychiatry and Neurology

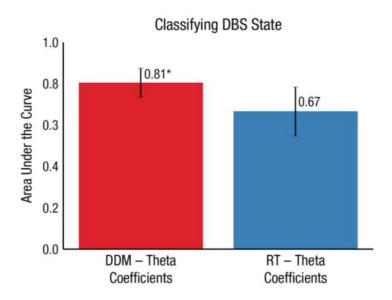


## Why use DDM: Simulation experiment and classification of groups



- generated data from DDM with two groups with different parameters
- classification of observed data based on fitted model params or raw behavioral summary statistics

#### Real data: classification of DBS state



Wiecki, Poland & Frank 2013

Also classifies Huntington's disease before symptom onset! Wiecki, et al., 2016

#### Linking levels

#### Linking Across Levels of Computation in Model-Based Cognitive Neuroscience

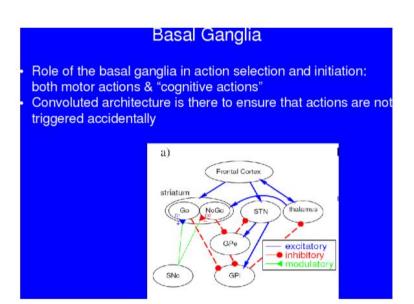
Michael J. Frank

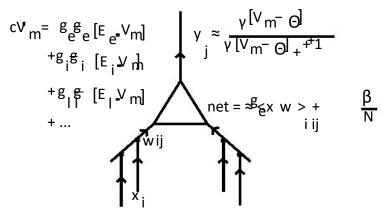
Reinforcement-Based Decision Making in Corticostriatal Circuits: Mutual Constraints by Neurocomputational and Diffusion Models

- Strategy to interpret and link across levels of description
- Mutually informative: algorithm informs biological interpretation; biology informs abstraction

Frank, 2015; Collins & Frank, 2013; Ratcliff & Frank, 2012; Franklin & Frank, 2016)

#### Multiple levels of analysis





$$\Delta w^{ij} \approx (x y^{i}) - j(x y)^{i} i^{j}$$

## Modeling the BG model

