Joachim Vandekerckhove

Motivating application

In cognitive science (and science generally), we are often interested in the probability that a theory is true or the probability of values of parameters.

"Now that we have these data, what are the likely values of the generating parameters?"

What is the probability distribution of a, assuming that

$$\forall i: \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \theta_i^f & = & \frac{f_i}{N} \\ \theta_i^h & = & \Phi\left(a + \Phi^{-1}(\theta_i^f)\right) \\ f_i & \sim & \text{Bin}\left(\theta_i^f, N\right) \\ h_i & \sim & \text{Bin}\left(\theta_i^h, S\right) \end{array} \right.$$

and given the data D, which consists of hits h_i , false alarms f_i , signal count S, and noise count N?

In other words, what is p(a|D)?

We can actually work out that distribution:

$$p(a|D) = \frac{p(D|a) p(a)}{p(D)} \propto p(D|a) p(a)$$

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$$S(a|D) = \sqrt{E(a^2) - [E(a)]^2}$$

Numerical integration methods

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- Draw random samples that fall under the curve
- Characterize the curve with summary statistics of the sample

A very convenient approximation to the expectation integral is

$$E(a|D) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a \, p(a|D) \, da$$

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It follows that in order to characterize an arbitrary distribution, it suffices to be able to draw random samples from it.

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- Their initial development in 1947 almost immediately followed the completion of ENIAC, the first general-purpose digital computer, in 1945.
- There are many MC methods, but the most common ones are Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods.

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- Named after Nicholas Metropolis, who created it together with John von Neumann while working on the Manhattan Project.
- In the algorithm, we will randomly generate candidate samples from some simple distribution, and then decide to accept or reject the candidate.
- Metropolis algorithms need some customization and fine-tuning to be most efficient.

Metropolis sampler: Pseudocode

Given a target function $f(\theta) \propto p(\theta|D)$ and a symmetric candidate generating distribution Q(x|y) = Q(y|x), a Metropolis sampling algorithm proceeds as follows:

1 Set $i \leftarrow 1$ and choose sample size R

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- 6 Set $i \leftarrow i+1$. If $i \leq R$, return to Step 3, otherwise halt

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- $p(\theta|D)$ will often be our posterior distribution.
- Often, for computational stability, we will deal with $\log (p(\theta|D))$, in which case we come the log of the acceptance probability $\log(\alpha) = \log (p(\theta^c|D)) \log (p(\theta^{(i-1)}|D))$ and compare it to the log of a uniform variate, $\log(u)$.

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- That way, more samples can be accepted and the algorithm can be more efficient.
- We will tune the sampler so that it accepts approximately 40% of all proposed samples.
- During the adaptation phase, we will "warm up" the
 algorithm but the samples drawn during this phase are not yet
 samples from the target distribution, so we discard them.

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- A simple rule to update the standard deviation is

$$\sigma_{\sf new} = \sigma_{\sf old} \times \left(\frac{r_{\sf target}}{r_k}\right)^{1.1}$$

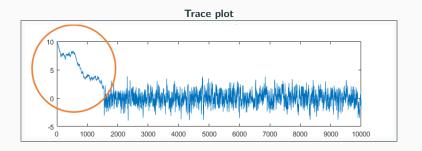
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How much to fine-tune depends on the specific case.

Metropolis sampler: Post-processing

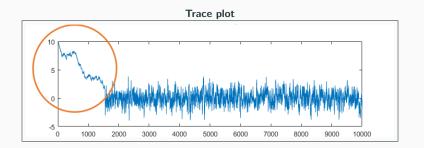
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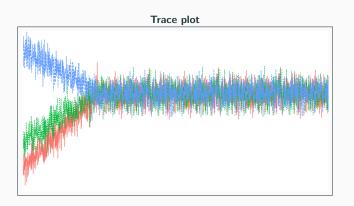
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- Often, we will discard a number of initial samples known as the burn-in:

$$\hat{a} = \frac{1}{R - B} \sum_{i=B+1}^{R} a^{(i)}$$



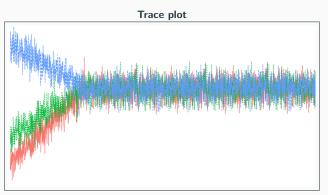
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- We usually also repeat the procedure a few times with different values for $\theta^{(0)}$ to ensure that the algorithm converges to the same stationary distribution.
- Several convergence statistics exist, with Geweke's and Gelman's \hat{R} being the most popular.



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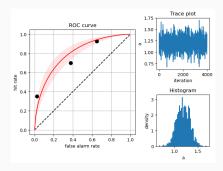
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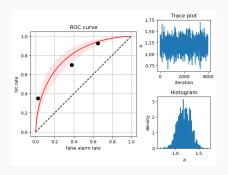
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 - 3. Calculate a summary statistic on each synthetic data set and visualize the distribution

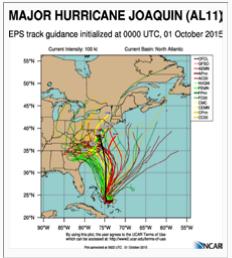
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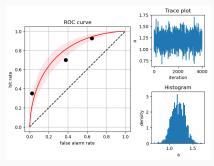
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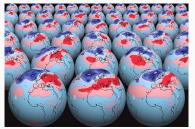
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 - You could draw a curve to visualize your data and then draw a distribution of synthetic curves using your sampled parameters

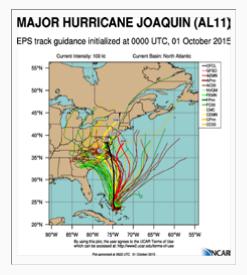












Typical steps of a Metropolis analysis are thus:

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- 6. Inference: Calculate summary statistics of interest

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- The development of computers and numerical algorithms in the 20th century greatly expanded the range of problems that could be solved using numerical integration. They are partly responsible for the Bayesian revolution in the 21st century.

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