## Computational Cognitive Science Lecture 4: Parameters and probabilities

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## Readings

- Chapter 4 of F&L
- Chapter 6 of F&L
- Sharon Goldwater's probability notes

#### Parameters

Last time we focused on finding estimates for parameters that minimize some loss function, like RMSD.

Today we'll discuss probabilistic approaches to parameter estimation. These are useful if we want to:

- **1** Understand what parameter values are probable in light of data.
- **2** Exploit prior knowledge about what values are reasonable.
- Build and evaluate models that anticipate specific response distributions.
- Gapture and predict patterns that are difficult to express using standard loss functions.

### Notation

•  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\theta_1 \ \theta_2 \ ...]$ : parameters.

•  $\mathbf{y} = [y_1 \dots y_K]$ : all K observations.

For probability distributions, we'll omit what's clear from context, e.g.,  $P(y_k)$  rather than  $P(Y_k = y_k | M = m)$ .

- $P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ : *Probability mass function* for  $\mathbf{y}$  conditional on  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ .
- f(y|θ): Probability density function for y conditional on θ.
  Sometimes p(y|θ) (notice the lowercase)
- L(θ|y): Likelihood function, treating either of the above as a unary function of θ. Not P(θ|y) or P<sup>-1</sup>(y|θ).

(Also know: *cumulative density function* and *cumulative mass function*).

### Probabilistic models

A cognitive model is probabilistic if it generates a probability distribution over **y** conditional on its parameters  $\theta$ .

- We can use the (negative log) *likelihood* of our data as a loss function.
  - Often less ad-hoc to specify a probability distribution than a loss directly.
  - Supports more nuanced predictions, e.g., judgments will be extreme but not in a particular direction.
  - Offers tools to model individual differences.
- We can make inferences about  $P(\theta|\mathbf{y})$  if we have a *prior*  $P(\theta)$ .

### Likelihood

Again,  $P(y_k|\theta)$  is the *probability mass function* for an observation  $y_k$  given  $\theta$  (*m*, the model, is constant here, and thus omitted for simplicity).

If our observations are conditionally independent, their joint conditional probability is

$$P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod^{k} P(y_k|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

#### Likelihood

- If we're happy with our parameters and are making predictions, we might treat  $\theta$  as fixed and  $P(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$  as a function of  $\mathbf{y}$ .
- If we're trying to fit or assess our model given data, we treat  $\mathbf{y}$  as fixed, and treat  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  as the varying argument to a *likelihood function*.
- F&L use the notation  $L(\theta|\mathbf{y})$ .

If we want to turn the likelihood into a discrepancy function, a common choice is the negative log-likelihood:  $-\log(L(\theta|\mathbf{y}))$ .

- Products of probabilities become sums:  $\log(\prod_k x_k) = \sum_k \log(x_k)$
- More manageable and comparable numbers; avoids underflow. Minimum at zero if using mass functions.

#### Example: Independent Gaussians

Suppose a model predicts judgment k will have a mean of  $\hat{y}_k$  and a variance of  $\sigma^2$ . Judgment k has a probability density of

$$\mathcal{N}(y_k; \hat{y}_k, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\frac{(y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

The log likelihood is  $-\log Z - \frac{(y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}{2\sigma^2}$  where Z (i.e.,  $\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}$ ) doesn't depend on y or  $\hat{y}$ .

If  $\sigma^2$  is fixed and the  $\hat{y}_k$  values are the parameters:

$$-\log(L(oldsymbol{ heta}|\mathbf{y})) = KZ + rac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{k=1}^K(y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2$$

This is just a constant plus a scaled sum squared error. Minimizing it is equivalent to minmizing RMSD.

### Example: Independent Gaussians

Note that if we allow  $\sigma^2$  to vary, this loss function will reward models that are well-calibrated with respect to uncertainty (i.e., making larger errors when variance is higher).

## Example: Reaction Times

The Wald probability function captures latencies (reaction times) from a choice experiment.

It describes the time it takes a continuous random walk to drift past a threshold.

The Wald function has the following parameters:

- *m*: drift
- a: boundary position
- T: added non-decision time

Let's only consider *m* for now.

#### Example: Reaction Times

For a single data point t and the parameter m, we get the following probability density function f(t|m):



The gray line marks f(t|m = 2), the black one L(m|t = 1.5).

#### Example: Reaction Times

If we just plot f(t|m = 2) and L(m|t = 1.5), we get:



We can optimize L(m|t) using the optimizer of our choice (e.g., Nelder-Mead).

## Maximum Likelihood Estimation

We've been talking about finding parameter values that maximize the likelihood of the data:

$$oldsymbol{ heta}_{ ext{MLE}} = rg\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} L(oldsymbol{ heta}| \mathbf{y})$$

These *maximum-likelihood estimates* (MLEs) are frequently used in cognitive models.

These are (usually) different from *maximum a posteriori estimates* (MAPs):

$$oldsymbol{ heta}_{ ext{MAP}} = rg\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} P(oldsymbol{ heta} | \mathbf{y})$$

#### MAP estimates and other alternatives

- If we have any a priori information about parameters, MAP estimates can be preferable
- If we don't, MAP estimate is equal to MLE.

Posterior probability:

$$P(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int_{\boldsymbol{\theta}'} P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}')P(\boldsymbol{\theta}')} \propto P(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$rg\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} P(oldsymbol{ heta}| \mathbf{y}) = rg\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} P(oldsymbol{ heta}| oldsymbol{ heta}) P(oldsymbol{ heta})$$

If  $P(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto 1$ , then

$$rg\max_{oldsymbol{ heta}} P(oldsymbol{ heta} | \mathbf{y}) = L(oldsymbol{ heta} | \mathbf{y})$$

### MAP estimates and other alternatives

If we really want to know about  $\boldsymbol{\theta},$  a point estimate is often not enough

- Doesn't tell us how likely it is that a parameter is greater than zero (or another parameter)
- Often not the most useful point estimate.

Consider coin flips:

- Flip a coin twice; get two heads.
- What's the MLE for the coin's bias (i.e., P(H = 1) for the next flip)?
- Same issue tends to apply to MAP estimates.

One alternative: Expected value.

In the last two examples, we were given probability density functions.

We often don't have that luxury; sometimes a model will:

- Give a best or mostly-likely option without associated probabilities.
- Specify a process that generates judgments.
- Give probabilities or utilities that an agent might assign to options.

In these cases, we need a *data model* to assign probabilities to data.

### The Data Model



Even if our model produces probabilities, we may need to do some work. For example:

• The GCM gives response probabilities for different categories, but our data may be numbers of people choosing each category. Here, a multinomial distribution may be appropriate. Even if our model produces probabilities, we may need to do some work. For example:

- A model might give probabilities that an agent should assign, subjectively, to events. Will discrete judgment probabilities match those probabilities?
  - *Probability matching* appears to be common, but why should this happen?
  - *Maximizing* is arguably more rational in many contexts
  - Soft maximization or "Softmax" includes matching, max, random as special cases:  $P(r) \propto P(b)^{\gamma}$

Even if our model produces probabilities for judgments, we may need to do some work. For example:

- A model might assign probabilities of zero to some outcomes should we plan to bin the model if one such outcome occurs?
  - E.g., adding a category "C" to options under the GCM, but no category-C exemplars.

# Summary

- Maximum-likelihood estimates:  $\arg \max_{\theta} L(\theta | \mathbf{y})$ 
  - Often preferable to least-squares or other alternatives
  - Probabilistic but only a "halfway house" to fully Bayesian methods
- Alternerative: MAP estimate
- Sometimes we need (or want) a data model to predict a probability distribution from the output of our model, even if the model gives probabilities.