

- Why did you choose this course?
- Why did you choose the clothes you're wearing?
- Why are you sitting where you are?
- Why are you reading this?

- Who or what made the decision???



Decision Making

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CCN Lecture 7

Today's lecture

1. **Decision theory:** what is the optimal way to make a (binary) decision?
(optimal model)
2. **Behaviour:** How do human-beings make binary decisions?
(phenomenological model of accuracy and reaction times)
3. **Neuroscience:** Can we relate the optimal model and phenomenological model with processes observed in neurons in the brain? (yes!)

1) Optimal model: statistical inference

- Decision making can be thought of as a form of **statistical inference**.
- Decide = **select among competing hypotheses** h_1, h_2 (and may be more).

Is $P(h_1|e) > P(h_2|e)$?

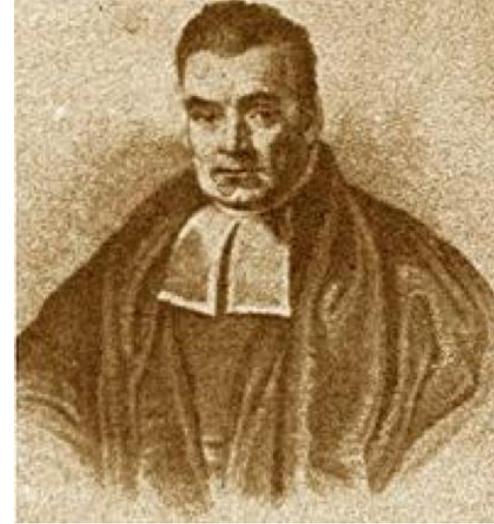
- Elements of this decision process:
 - **evidence (e)** = information we can collect in favor of h_1 . Only useful when we know how likely it is to be true if the hypothesis is true, i.e. if we have conditional probabilities such as $P(e| h_1)$ = the likelihood
 - **priors $P(h_1)$** = Probability that h_1 is correct before collecting any evidence
= a bias (or prejudice)
 - **value (v)** = subjective costs and benefits for each outcome.

Bayes' Theorem

- Bayes' theorem is a result in probability theory that relates conditional probabilities $P(A|B)$ and $P(B|A)$
- Given the **likelihood** and the **prior**, we can compute the **posterior**.

$$P(h_1|e) = \frac{P(e|h_1)P(h_1)}{P(e)}$$

$$\text{posterior} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{normalizing constant}}$$



Reverend Thomas
Bayes, 1702- 1761

To decide, compare probabilities of each hypothesis

- Choose h_1 if:

$$P(h_1|e) = \frac{P(e|h_1)P(h_1)}{P(e)}$$

$>$

$$P(h_2|e) = \frac{P(e|h_2)P(h_2)}{P(e)}$$



To decide, compare probabilities of each hypothesis

- Choose h_1 if:

$$P(h_1|e) = \frac{P(e|h_1)P(h_1)}{P(e)}$$
$$>$$
$$P(h_2|e) = \frac{P(e|h_2)P(h_2)}{P(e)}$$



Likelihood ratio test

- Just re-organising the terms of this inequality: - **choose h_1 if:**

$$\frac{P(e|h_1)}{P(e|h_2)} > \frac{P(h_2)}{P(h_1)}$$

- This is the **likelihood ratio (LR) test** = optimal decision rule.

- If the prior probabilities are equal (0.5), choose h_1 if

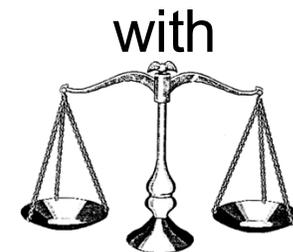
$$LR = \frac{P(e|h_1)}{P(e|h_2)} > 1$$



Values (1)

- It might be that **costs and benefits associated with various outcomes are different.**

- benefit of choosing h_1 =
value of choosing h_1 if h_1 true (V_{11})
+ value of choosing h_1 if h_1 wrong (V_{12}) given evidence.
- benefit of choosing h_2 =
value of choosing h_2 if h_2 true (V_{22})
+ value of choosing h_2 if h_2 wrong (V_{21}) given evidence.
- So, we now want to compare:



$$V_{11}P(h_1|e) + V_{12}P(h_2|e)$$



run or not?

$$V_{22}P(h_2|e) + V_{21}P(h_1|e)$$

Values (2)

- rewriting this gives the general (optimal) rule: **choose h_1** if :

$$\frac{P(e|h_1)}{P(e|h_2)} > \frac{(V_{22} - V_{21})P(h_2)}{(V_{11} - V_{12})P(h_1)}$$

- which has also the form of comparing the **likelihood ratio with a threshold**.
- Signal detection theory**: LR (or any monotonic function of it - e.g. LOG) provides an optimal **'decision variable'**.

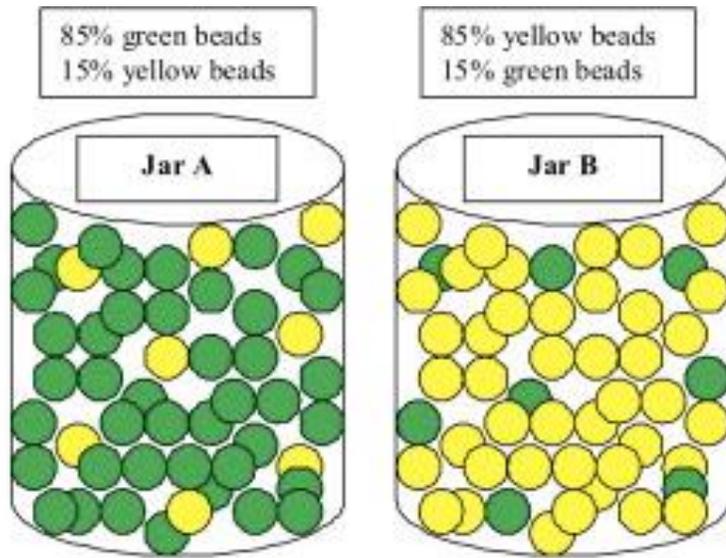
Sequential Analysis

- This framework can be extended to situations where **multiple pieces of evidence** e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n are **observed over time**.
- Here we allow the decision variable to '**accumulate the evidence**' in time:

$$\begin{aligned}\log LR_{12} &\equiv \log \frac{P(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n | h_1)}{P(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n | h_2)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{P(e_i | h_1)}{P(e_i | h_2)}.\end{aligned}$$

- When the DV > **threshold A** (which reflects priors and values), a decision is made towards h_1 .
If **DV < threshold B**, choose h_2 .
- This is known as **Wald's sequential probability ratio test**

Belief updating in the Beads (or Urn) Task



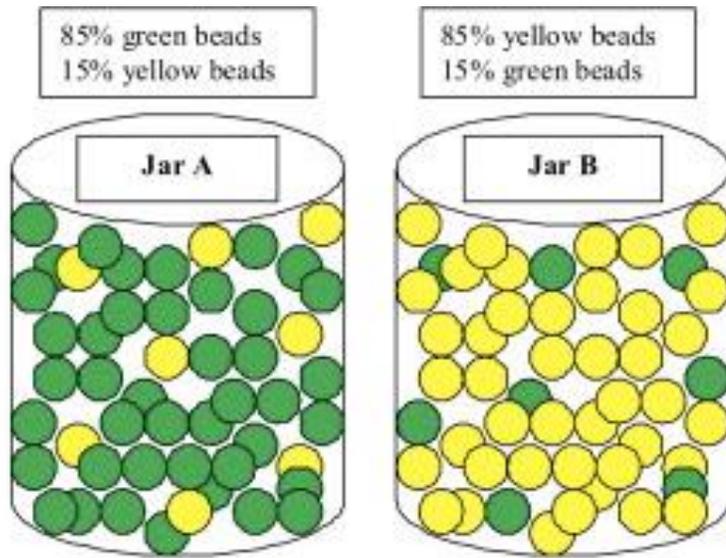
We can use a task called “the beads task” to illustrate this process. You are told there are 2 jars with different proportions of beads. Jar A has 85% green and 15% yellow. Jar B has 15% green and 85% yellow.

Now we hide the jars and draw beads from one jar, one at a time. The task is to tell me, when can make up your mind about it, which jar I am drawing from, A or B?.



**Which jar am I drawing from ?
Can you commit to a decision?**

Belief updating in the Beads (or Urn) Task



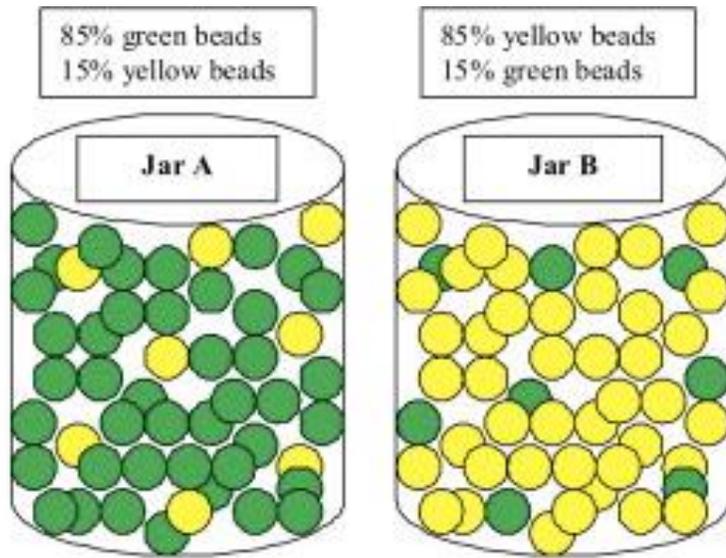
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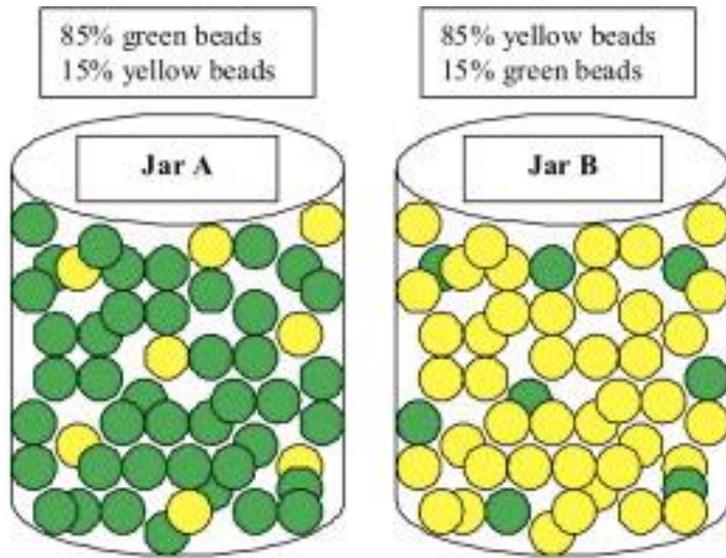
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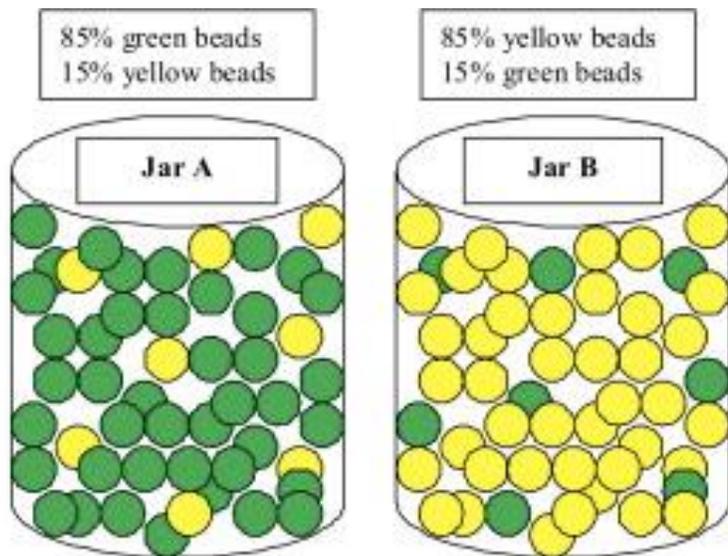
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$$\text{LogLR} = \log \frac{P(G|\text{jar A})}{P(G|\text{jar B})} + \log \frac{P(G|\text{jar A})}{P(G|\text{jar B})} + \dots$$

InLR	In(0.85/0.15)=1.72	+1.72	-1.72
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2) How do humans make decisions?

- Sequential analysis is reminiscent of the **random walk** and **race** phenomenological models of decision making developed by psychologists in the 1970s to explain behavioural data.

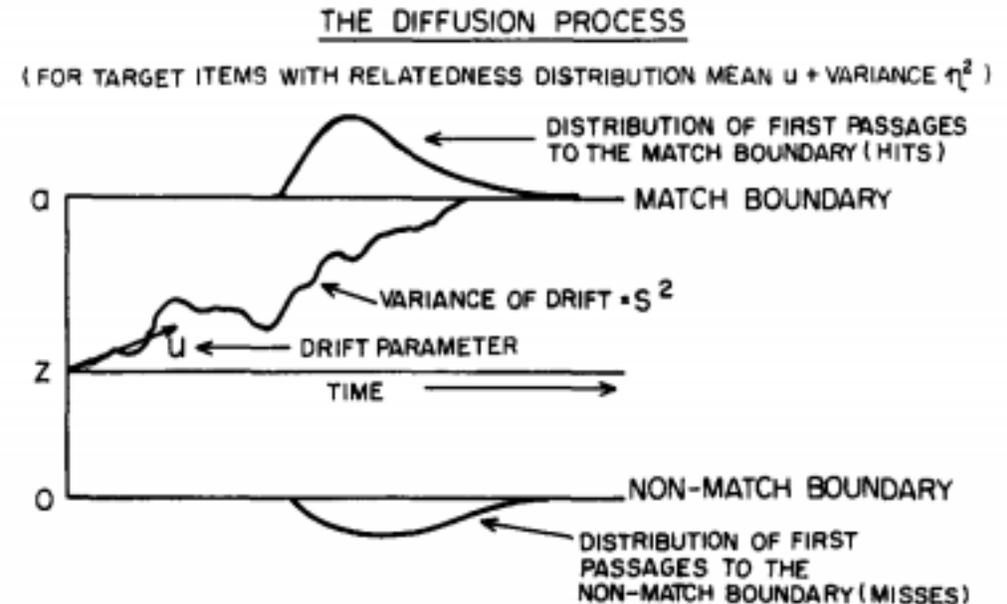
Psychological Review

VOLUME 85 NUMBER 2 MARCH 1978

A Theory of Memory Retrieval

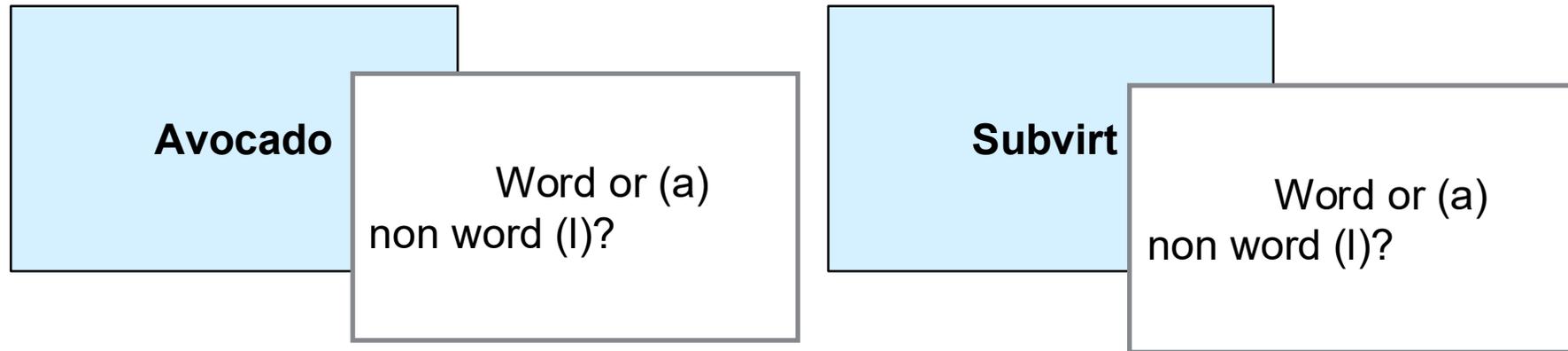
Roger Ratcliff
University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada

A theory of memory retrieval is developed and is shown to apply over a range of experimental paradigms. Access to memory traces is viewed in terms of a resonance metaphor. The probe item evokes the search set on the basis of probe-memory item relatedness, just as a ringing tuning fork evokes sympathetic vibrations in other tuning forks. Evidence is accumulated in parallel from each probe-memory item comparison, and each comparison is modeled by a continuous random walk process. In item recognition, the decision process is self-terminating on matching comparisons and exhaustive on nonmatching comparisons. The mathematical model produces predictions about accuracy, mean reaction time, error latency, and reaction time distributions that are in good accord with experimental data. The theory is applied to four item recognition paradigms (Sternberg, prememorized list, study-test, and continuous) and to speed-accuracy paradigms; results are found to provide a basis for comparison of these paradigms. It is noted that neural network models can be interfaced to the retrieval theory with little difficulty and that semantic memory models may benefit from such a retrieval scheme.



How do humans make simple decisions?

- Study of simple (single-stage), **fast** (less than 2 seconds) **binary decisions**
- Performance is described in terms of **reaction times and accuracy**.
- Perceptual discrimination (are these 2 objects the same or different?), recognition memory (is this image new or was it presented before?), lexical decision (is this a word or a non word?)
- How can we describe how fast and accurately people respond?

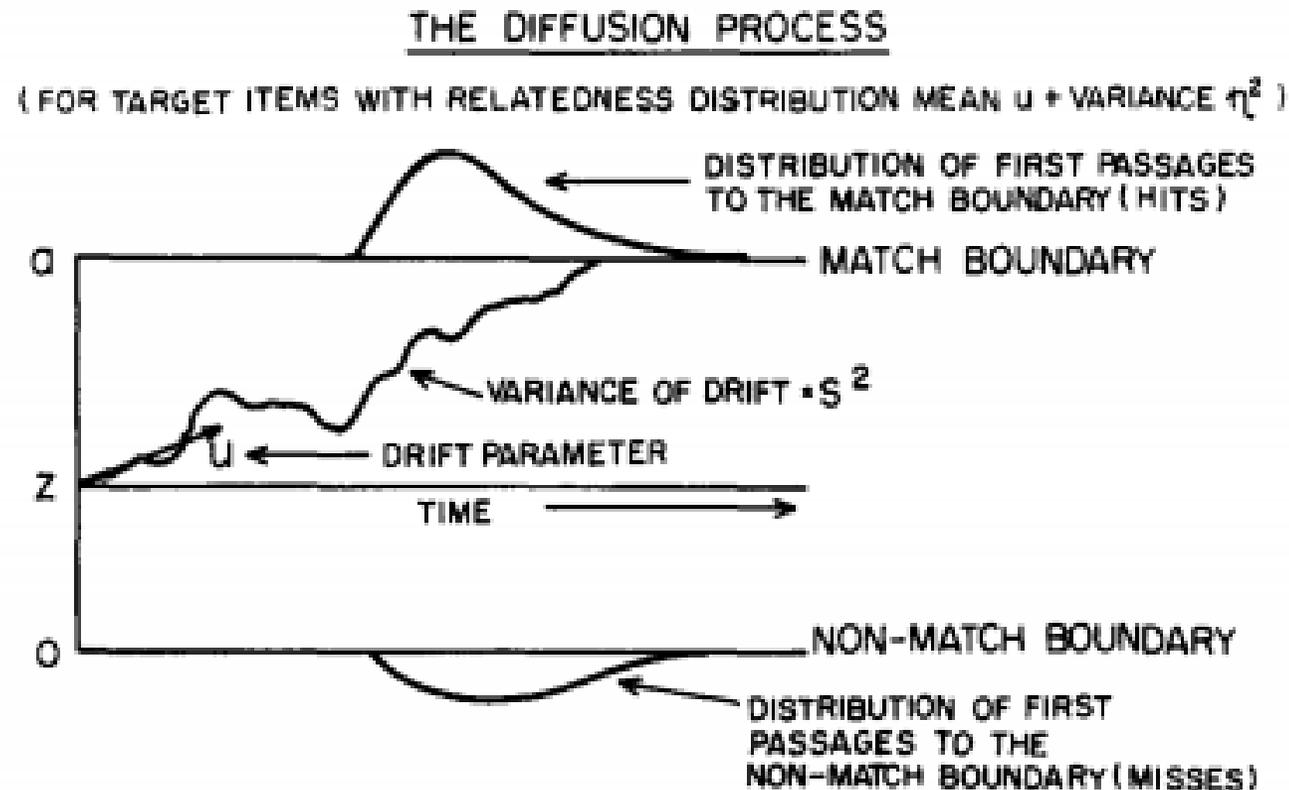


Try it!

https://www.psytoolkit.org/experiment-library/experiment_ldt.html

How do humans make decisions?

- Idea for the phenomenological model: decision can be viewed as resulting from the **movement of a particle moving in between/two boundaries, pushed by the force of the evidence**



Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

Several mathematical expressions exist for the DDM. A typical equation will be of the form of a **Wiener process** (1D Brownian motion). The diffusion process $x(t)$ evolves dynamically according to:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = v(t) + \sigma\eta(t)$$

- Where v is the **drift rate**, the quality of the information evidence. If the stimulus is easily classified, it has a high rate of drift and approaches the correct boundary quickly, leading to fast and accurate responses.
- η is a **Gaussian white noise** term.
- σ^2 is the variance of the process.
- **starting point**, z , to one of two **boundaries**, a , or θ .
- The two boundaries represent the two possible decisions. **Once the process $x(t)$ reaches a boundary, the corresponding response is initiated.**

Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

Another form is the **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**:

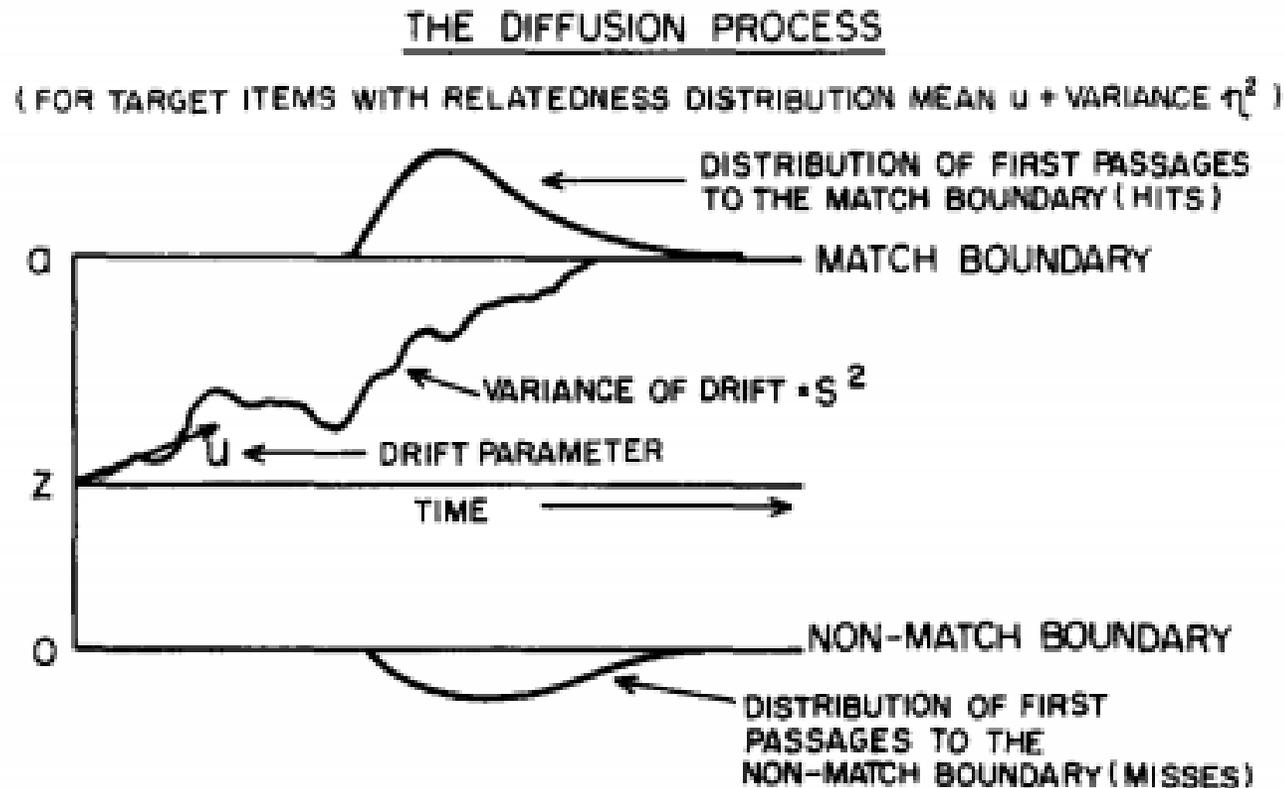
$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -x(t) + v(t) + \sigma\eta(t)$$

Similar equation, but assumes a **decay** or leakage in the accumulation process (or friction in Brownian motion). Has a tendency of the walk to move back towards a central location, with a greater attraction when the process is further away from the center.

Both the Wiener and Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process have applications throughout mathematics and physics.

Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

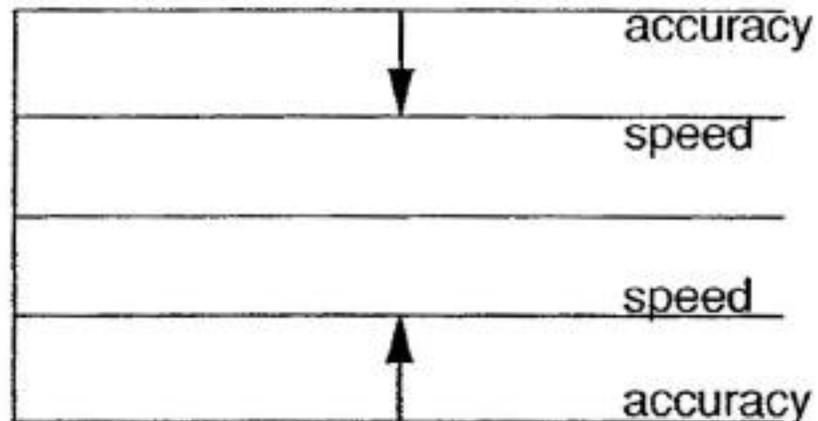
- All parameters will affect distribution of reaction times (RTs) (correct and/or errors)



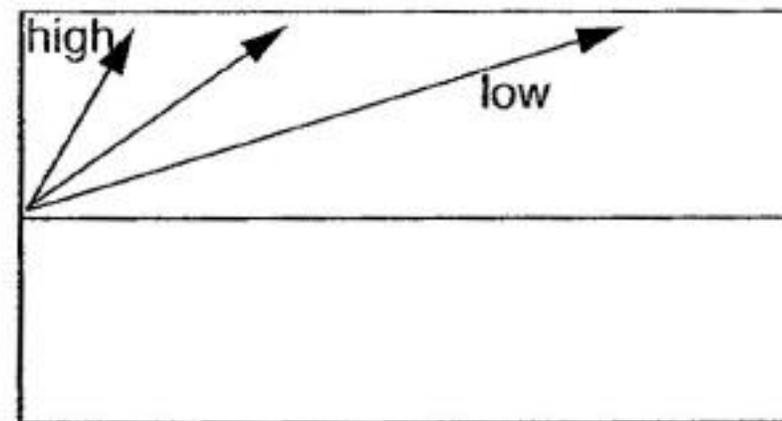
Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

- Drift rates changes with **difficulty** of conditions
- **speed-accuracy tradeoff** can be modelled by changing the boundary separation

Speed/Accuracy tradeoff
Only **boundary separation** changes

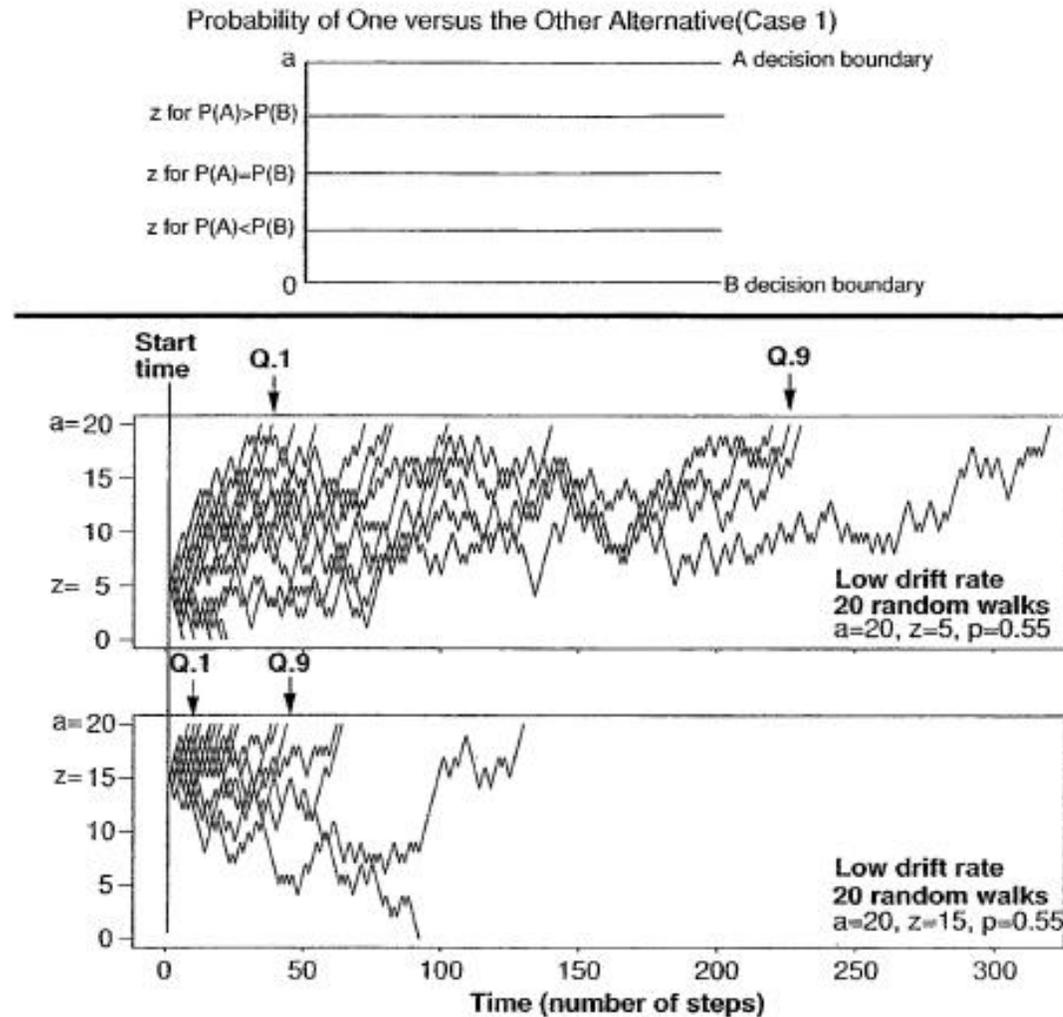


Quality of evidence from the stimulus
Only **drift rate** varies



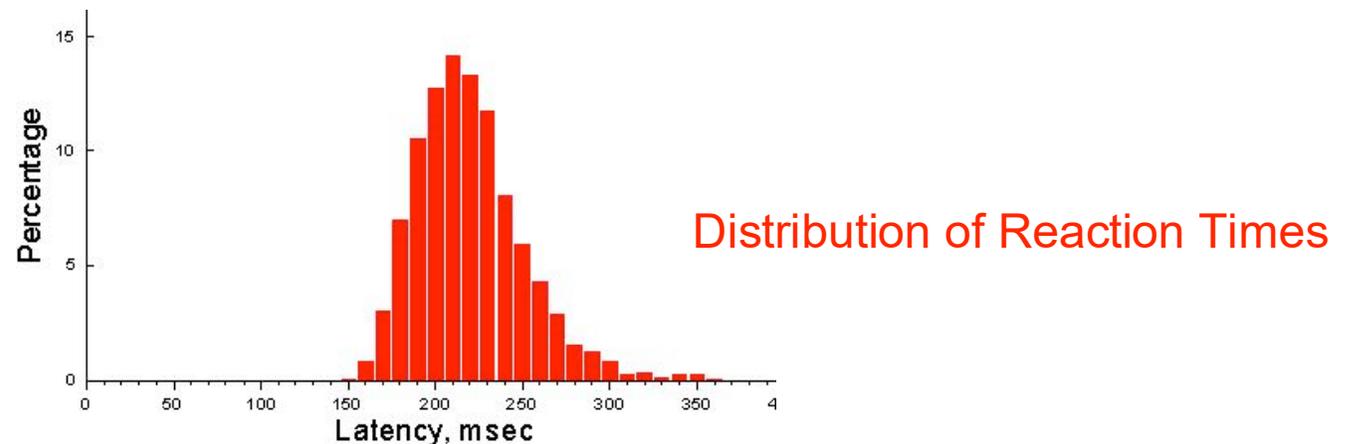
Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

- **Biases** can be introduced by changing the starting point.



Drift Diffusion model of Decision Making

- Many variants (discrete time, continuous time, leaky integration)
- These models have been compared systematically and shown to successfully account for [Smith & Ratcliff, 2004]:
 - **Distribution of Reaction Times**
 - **Speed-accuracy tradeoff**: decreasing the boundary has the effect of increasing speed and decreasing accuracy.
 - **Error response RTs** (sometimes error responses can be very quick..).

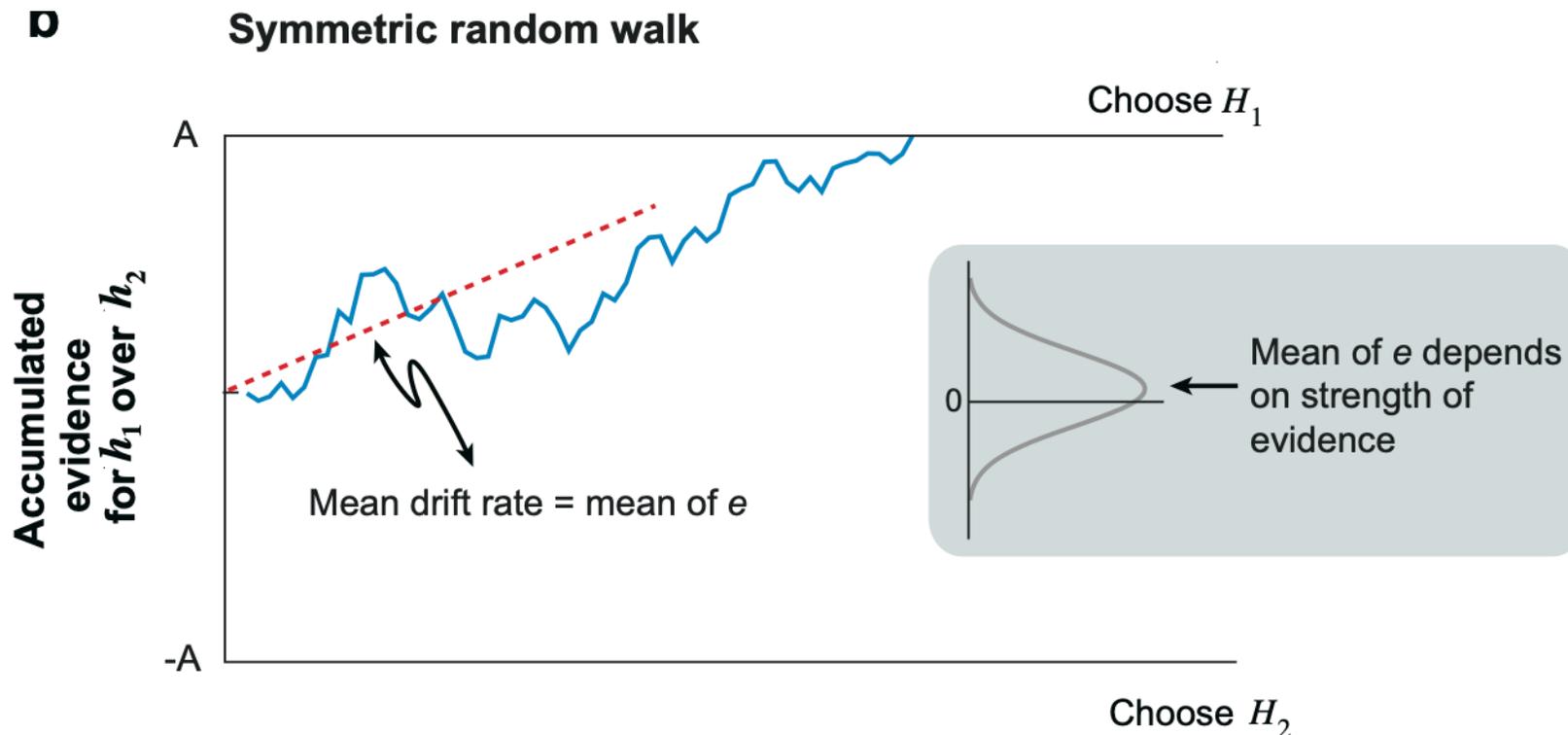


Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

- Equivalence can be shown between DDM and **sequential probability ratio test**.
- The **Decision Variable** is the cumulated sum of the evidence.

The **bounds** represent the stopping rule.

- If **mean drift rate is log likelihood ratio**, then this model = **sequential probability ratio test**.



The Physics of Optimal Decision Making: A Formal Analysis of Models of Performance in Two-Alternative Forced-Choice Tasks

Rafal Bogacz, Eric Brown, Jeff Moehlis, Philip Holmes, and Jonathan D. Cohen
Princeton University

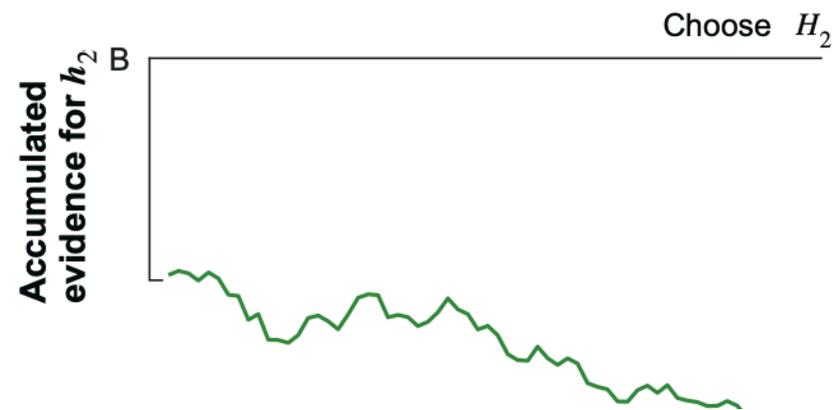
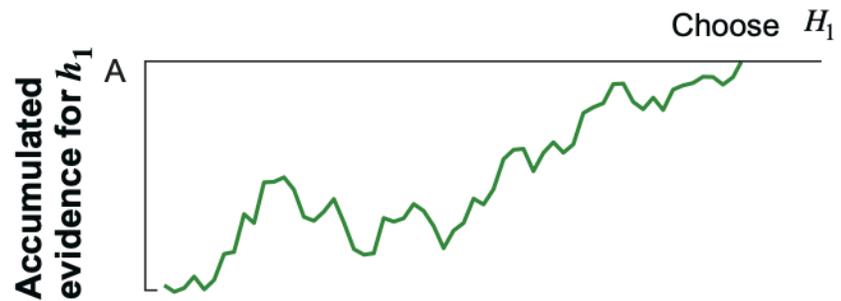
In this article, the authors consider optimal decision making in two-alternative forced-choice (TAFC) tasks. They begin by analyzing 6 models of TAFC decision making and show that all but one can be reduced to the drift diffusion model, implementing the statistically optimal algorithm (most accurate for a given speed or fastest for a given accuracy). They prove further that there is always an optimal trade-off between speed and accuracy that maximizes various reward functions, including reward rate (percentage of correct responses per unit time), as well as several other objective functions, including ones weighted for accuracy. They use these findings to address empirical data and make novel predictions about performance under optimality.

Keywords: drift diffusion model, reward rate, optimal performance, speed–accuracy trade-off, perceptual choice

Race Model

- Another variant is the **race model**
- Two or more decision processes represent the accumulated evidence for each alternative.

C Race model



- Different properties

DDM as a tool in Computational Psychiatry

- The DDM can be used as a tool to compare groups.
- Because it is a unified model of speed and accuracy, it can be more sensitive than looking at RTs or % correct alone.
- Example: Do participants with anxiety respond differently to threatening words?

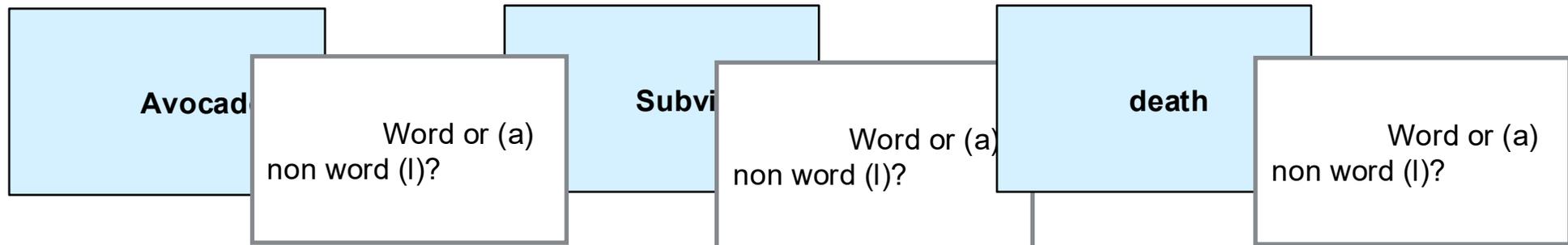
Emotion
2010, Vol. 10, No. 5, 662–677

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1528-3542/10/\$12.00 DOI: 10.1037/a001947

Anxiety Enhances Threat Processing Without Competition Among Multiple Inputs: A Diffusion Model Analysis

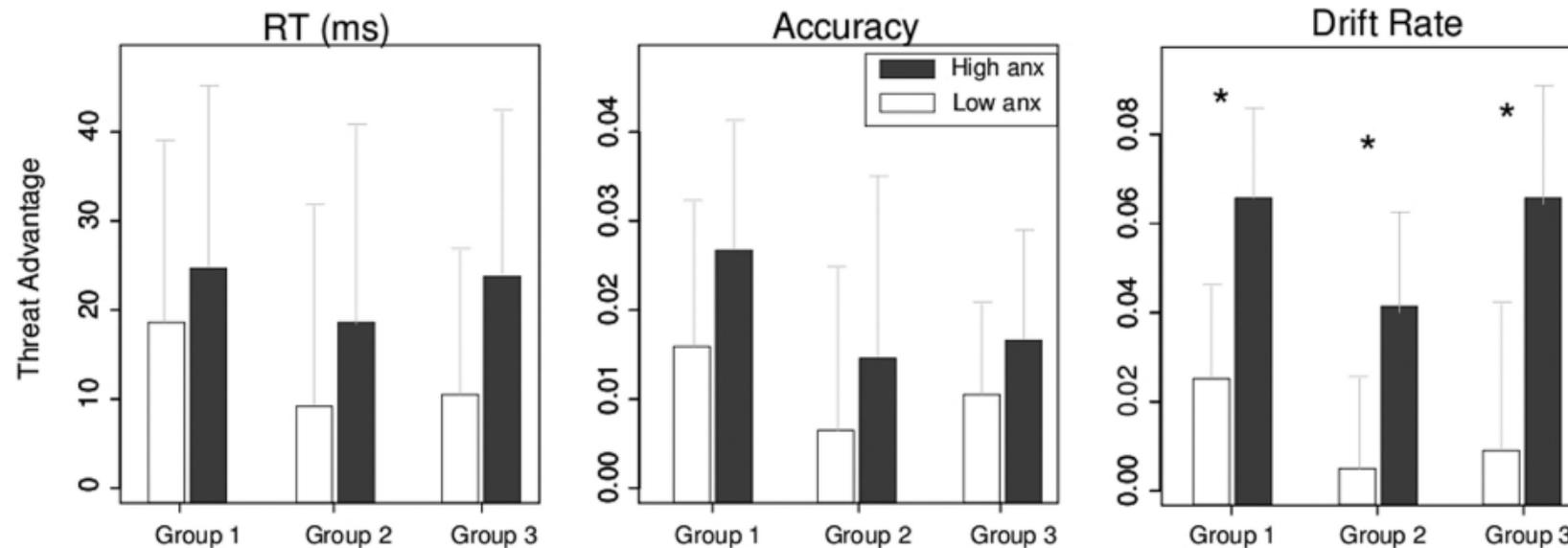
Corey N. White, Roger Ratcliff, Michael W. Vasey, and Gail McKoon
Ohio State University

Enhanced processing of threatening information is a well established phenomenon among high-anxious individuals. This effect is most reliably shown in situations where 2 or more items compete for processing resources, suggesting that input competition is a critical component of the effect. However, it could be that there are small effects in situations without input competition, but the dependent measures typically used are not sensitive enough to detect them. The present study analyzed data from a noncompetition task, single-string lexical decision, with the diffusion model, a decision process model that provides a more direct measure of performance differences than either response times or accuracy alone. The diffusion model analysis showed a consistent processing advantage for threatening words in high-anxious individuals, whereas traditional comparisons showed no significant differences. These results challenge the view that input competition is necessary for enhanced threat processing. Implications for theories of anxiety are discussed.



Drift Diffusion Model of Decision Making

- The DDM is fit to individual participants
- Quality of fit is assessed by how it fits the RT distributions
- Participants with high anxiety had **larger drift rates** for threatening compared to nonthreatening words whereas participants with low anxiety did not.
- Suggests **enhanced processing of threatening words for participants with high anxiety**

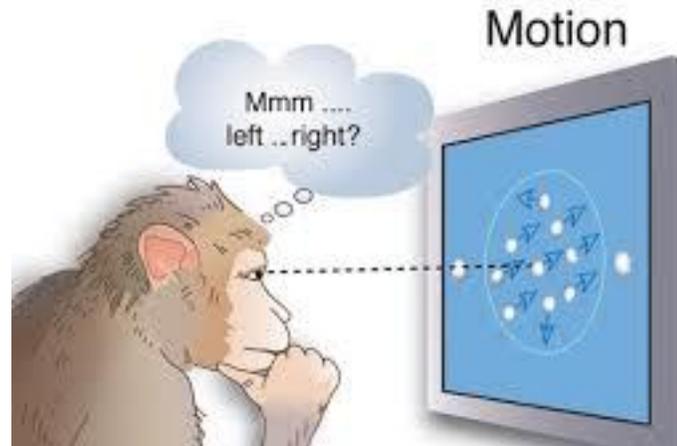


(Intermediate) Conclusions

- A decision = process that weights **priors**, **evidence**, and **value** to generate a commitment
- **Signal detection theory** and **sequential analysis** provide a theoretical framework for understanding how optimal decisions can be made.
- Idea: a **decision variable** ($\sim \log LR$) is compared to a threshold
- **DDM**, invented as a phenomenological framework to describe human behaviour, % accuracy and RTs, found to be equivalent.
- DDM used as a tool in **computational psychiatry**.
- In practice nowadays, hierarchical DDM (**hDDM**) - toolbox using Bayesian hierarchical parameter estimation.

Next lecture

- How does the brain make decisions?
- Anything like the processes mentioned today?



Implement a DDM

Computational Cognitive Neuroscience. Lab 3

Modelling behavioural data. Drift diffusion process. February 2025

Lecturer: Peggy Seriès

Teaching Assistant: Lars Werne

Tutorial Objectives

In this tutorial, you will:

- Learn to implement a model of binary decision making – a Drift Diffusion Process.
- Explore the model can be adjusted for prior information affecting its decisions.
- Interpret performance differences between clinical populations in behavioural experiments, using statistics and logical reasoning.

Introduction

Depression is associated with numerous cognitive deficits, including deficits in executive functioning, memory and attention (1). Additionally, we have learned that one of the symptoms of a major depressive episode is “psychomotor agitation or retardation nearly every day (observable by others, not merely subjective feelings of restlessness or being slowed down)” (2). Sometimes we therefore observe worse performance in depressed patients as compared to healthy control participants (e.g. in the tasks of the second and third parts of this assignment). Other times, we observe similar performance in terms of correctness, but slower response times from depressed participants. We can model the dynamics of decision processes using a random walk model or a diffusion process (see lectures slides, and (3) for a review). This model starts from the basic principle of accumulation of information. When an individual is asked to make a binary choice on the basis of an available stimulus, the assumption is that evidence from the stimulus is accumulated over time and a decision is made as soon as an upper or lower boundary is reached. Which boundary is reached determines

Further Readings

- CP section 2.2 (DDM)
- Page maintained by Ratcliff:
<https://u.osu.edu/ratcliffmckoon/the-diffusion-model-for-non-specialists/>
- hDDM: Wiecki, Sofer and Frank (2013):
http://ski.clps.brown.edu/hddm_docs/
- DDM tutorial: https://longdecision.github.io/DDM_tutorial/