



Laboratório de Computação Científica e Análise Numérica

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Pesquisas

Microbiota Intestinal

Estado da Arte

DIABETES IS ON THE RISE



422 MILLION
adults have diabetes

3.7 MILLION
deaths due to diabetes and high blood glucose

1.5 MILLION
deaths caused by diabetes



THAT'S 1 PERSON IN 11



Main types of diabetes



TYPE 1 DIABETES

Body does not produce enough insulin



TYPE 2 DIABETES

Body produces insulin but can't use it well

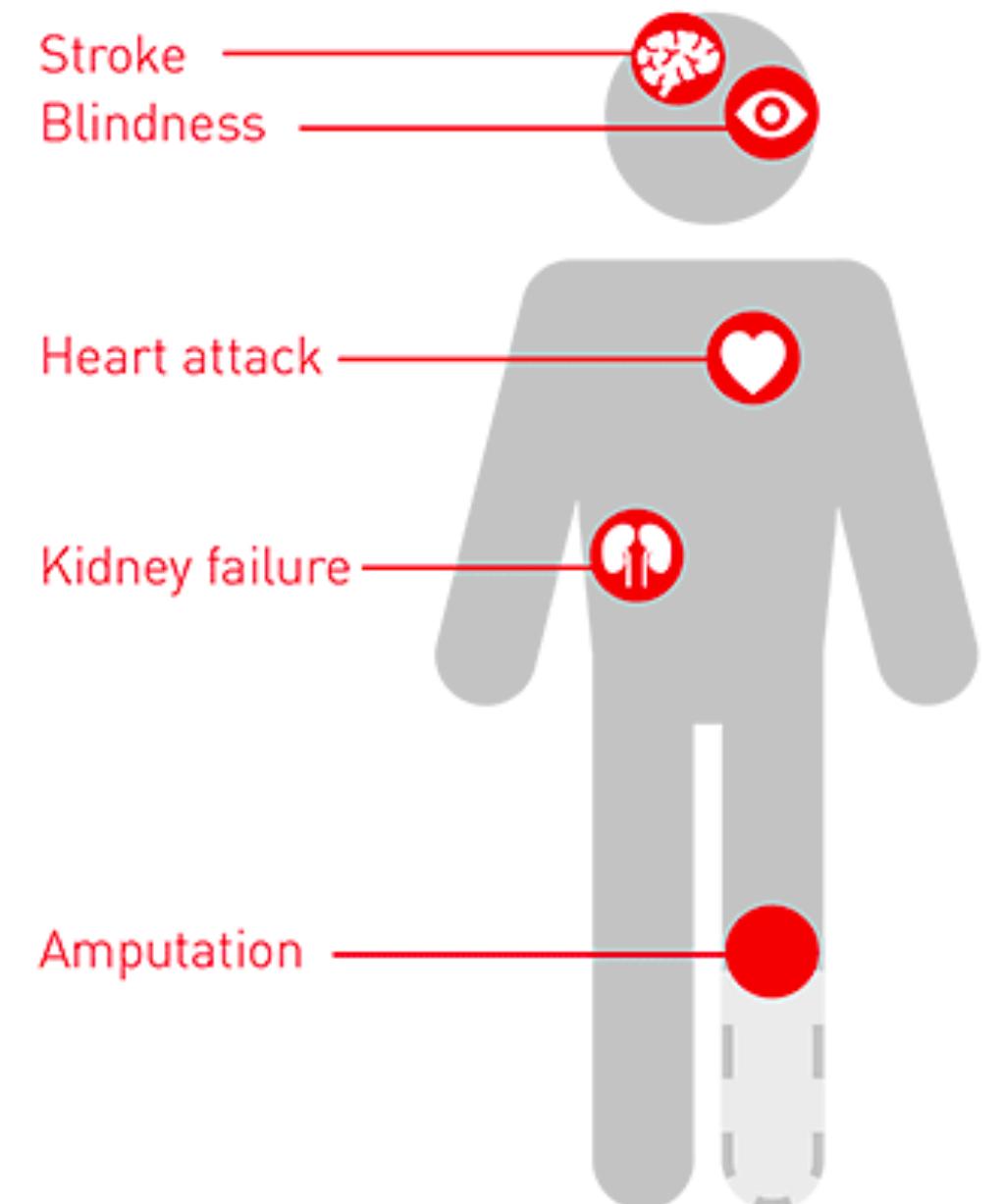


GESTATIONAL DIABETES

A temporary condition in pregnancy

Consequences

Diabetes can lead to complications in many parts of the body and increase the risk of dying prematurely.



Microbiota Fecal de Pacientes com Diabetes Mellitus tipo 2 após uso de probióticos: Revisão Sistemática e Metanálise de ensaios clínicos

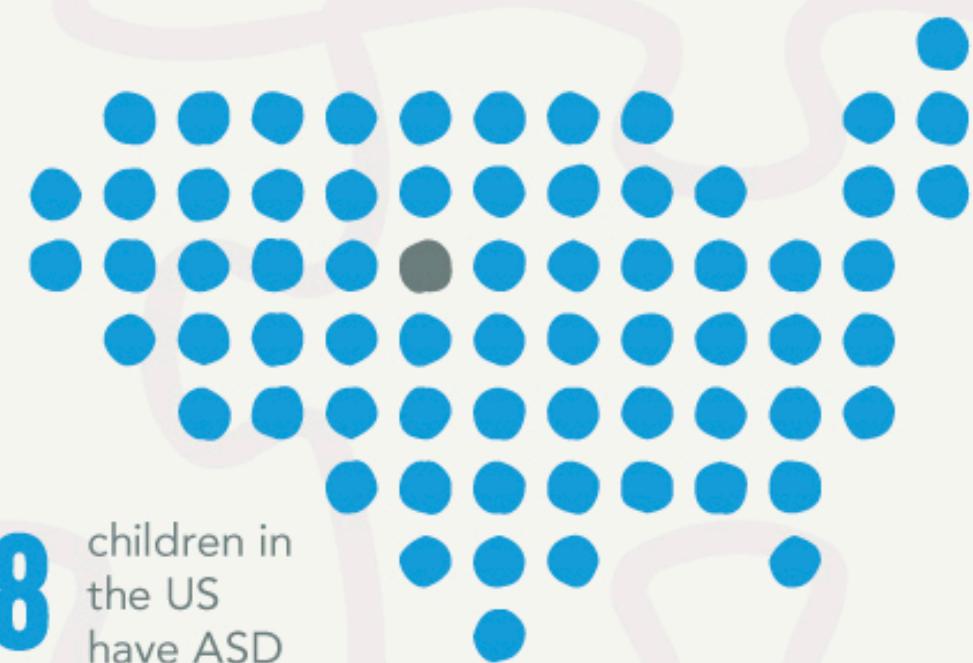
Accelerating Autism Discoveries

As the number-one public university in the nation for peer-reviewed autism research, UNC strives to improve the lives of children and adults with autism spectrum disorder.



Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) refers to a range of conditions characterized by challenges with social skills, repetitive behaviors, speech and nonverbal communication, as well as by unique strengths and differences. We now know that autism manifests in different ways, caused by different combinations of genetic and environmental influences.

3.5 MILLION+



1/68 children in the US have ASD

Boys are over **5 times** more likely than girls to have ASD.



Autism incurs an additional average lifetime cost of **\$1.4 to \$2.4 million** per diagnosis, depending on the level of severity.

Americans live with autism spectrum disorder



1/58 children in NC have ASD

65,000+

people in NC live with ASD

However, research suggests that early diagnosis and effective interventions can **reduce** that cost by

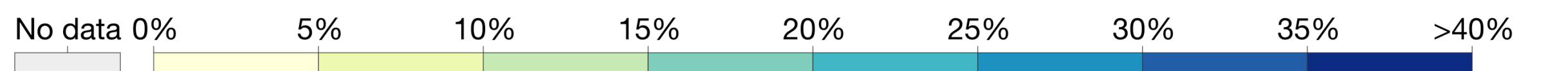
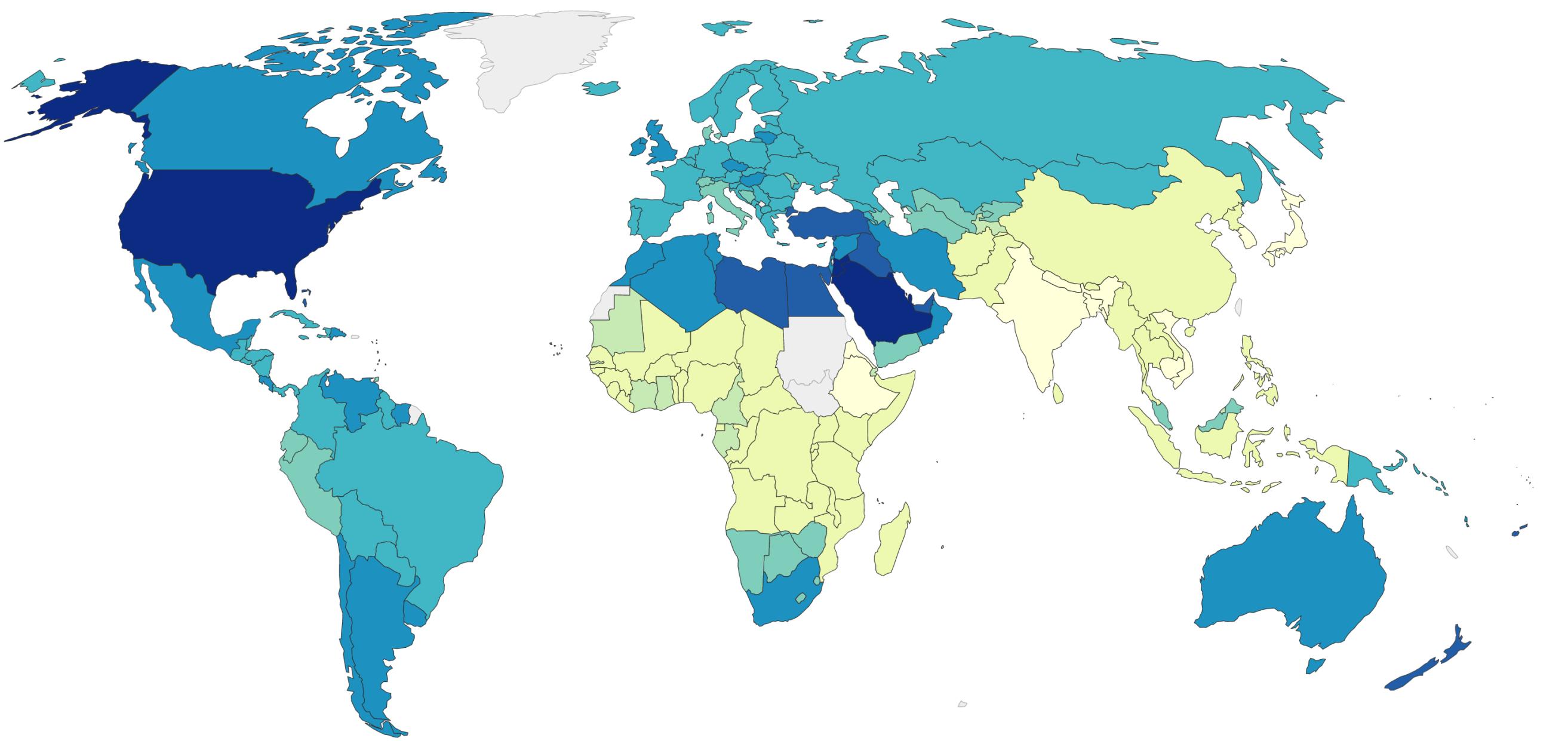
2/3

Caracterização molecular do Microbioma gastrointestinal de pessoas Autistas e neurotípicas: Revisão Sistemática e Metanálise de ensaios clínicos

Share of adults that are obese, 2016

Obesity is defined as having a body-mass index (BMI) equal to or greater than 30. BMI is a person's weight in kilograms divided by his or her height in metres squared.

Our World
in Data



Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory
OurWorldInData.org/obesity • CC BY

OBESITY AND OVERWEIGHT CONTRIBUTE TO:



• CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE



• DIABETES



• CANCER



• JOINT PAIN

O efeito de probióticos na microbiota intestinal de pacientes obesos: Revisão Sistemática e Metanálise

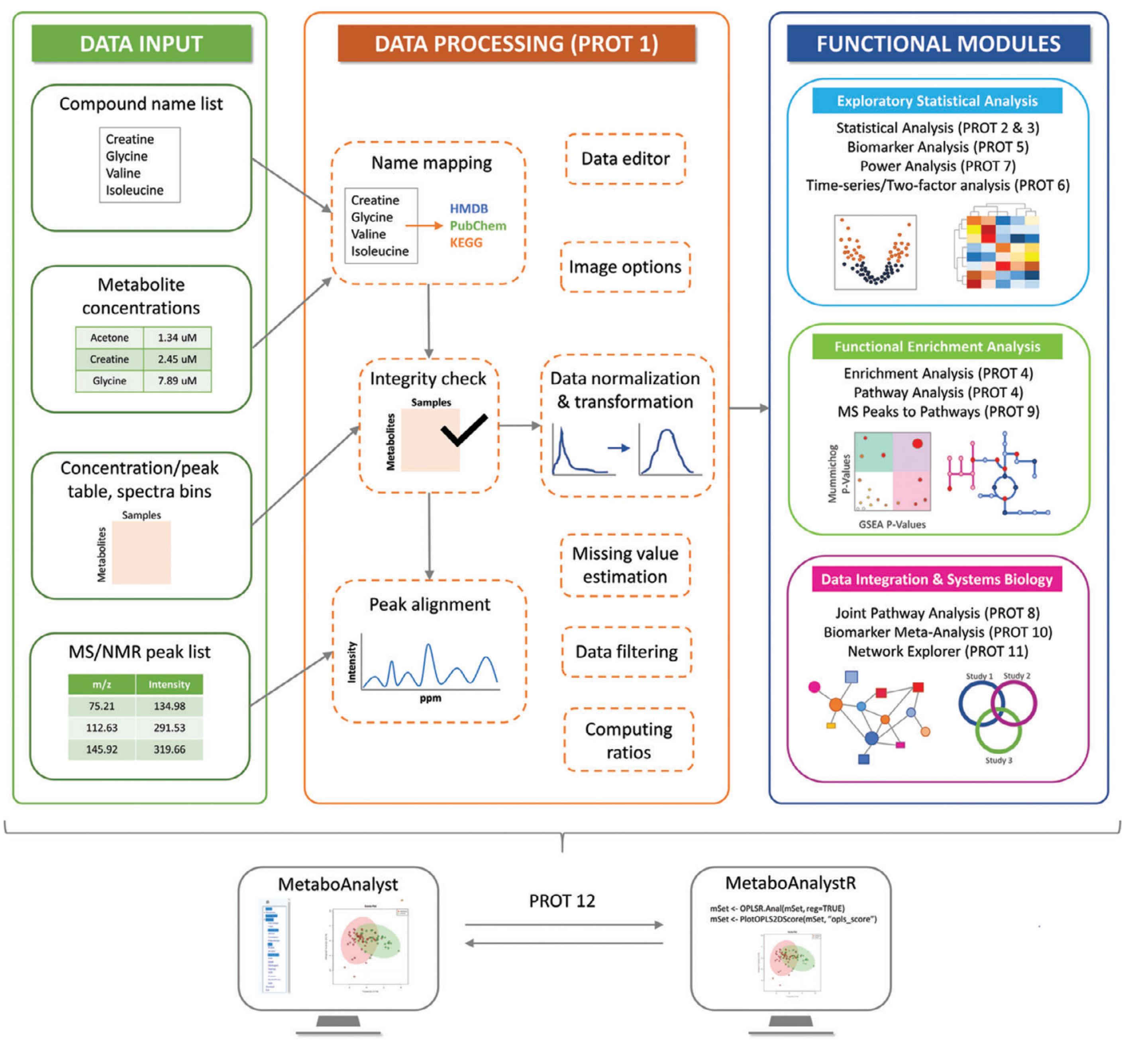
O efeito dos exercícios de endurance na microbiota intestinal: Revisão Sistemática e Metanálise



Microbiota Intestinal

Análise de Dados

Pipeline de processamento e análise de dados



análises univariadas básicas [testes t, análise de variância (ANOVA)];

multivariadas [PCA (principal component analysis); PLS-DA (partial least squares discriminant analysis); orthogonal partial least-squares discriminate analysis (OPLS-DA); análise de agrupamento e visualização; MSEA (metabolite set enrichment analysis); MetPA (metabolic pathway analysis); seleção de biomarcadores por meio de Curva ROC (receiver operating characteristic); séries temporais e power analysis; pathway activity prediction directly from mass peaks; biomarker meta-analysis e network-based multiomics data integration.

aprendizagem de máquina [random forest e support vector machine (SVM) classification].

Considerando as boas práticas de análise de dados e tendo em vista a reprodutibilidade da pesquisa, adotar-se-á o MetaboAnalyst que foi implementado utilizando a livraria PrimeFaces (v6.1) com base no JavaServer Faces Technology. A maioria dos cálculos e visualização de back-end é realizada por mais de 600 funções escritas em R (v3.4.3). A comunicação entre Java e R é estabelecida por TCP / IP usando o programa Rserve. Trata-se de aplicação open source.

P&D

Psicometria



TMFN - CAD1

Teste de Memória de Faces e Nomes



cespe

Cebraspe
Centro Brasileiro de Pesquisa em Avaliação
e Seleção e de Promoção de Eventos

Interactive activation and competition (IAC) model (Burton e Bruce)

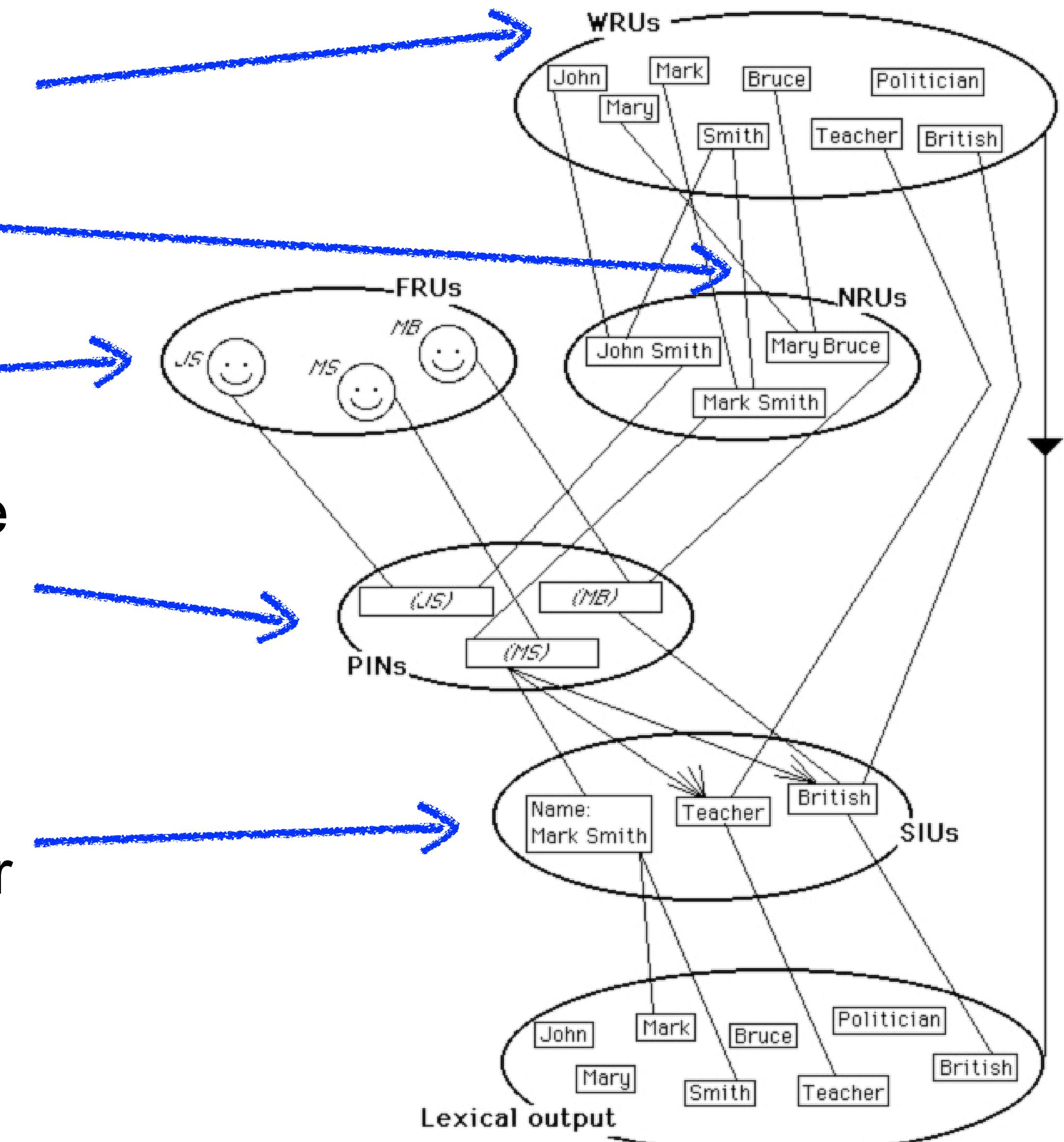
Unidades de reconhecimento de palavras (**WRUs**)

Unidades de reconhecimento de nomes (**NRUs**)

Unidades de reconhecimento de faces (**FRUs**)

Nós de identidade da pessoa (**PINs**) são portas de entrada para as informações – *input* verbal sobre os nomes das pessoas ou *input* facial.

Unidade de informações semânticas (**SIUs**) - nomes e outras informações sobre o indivíduo, por exemplo, ocupação.



Unidimensional Logistic Response Models

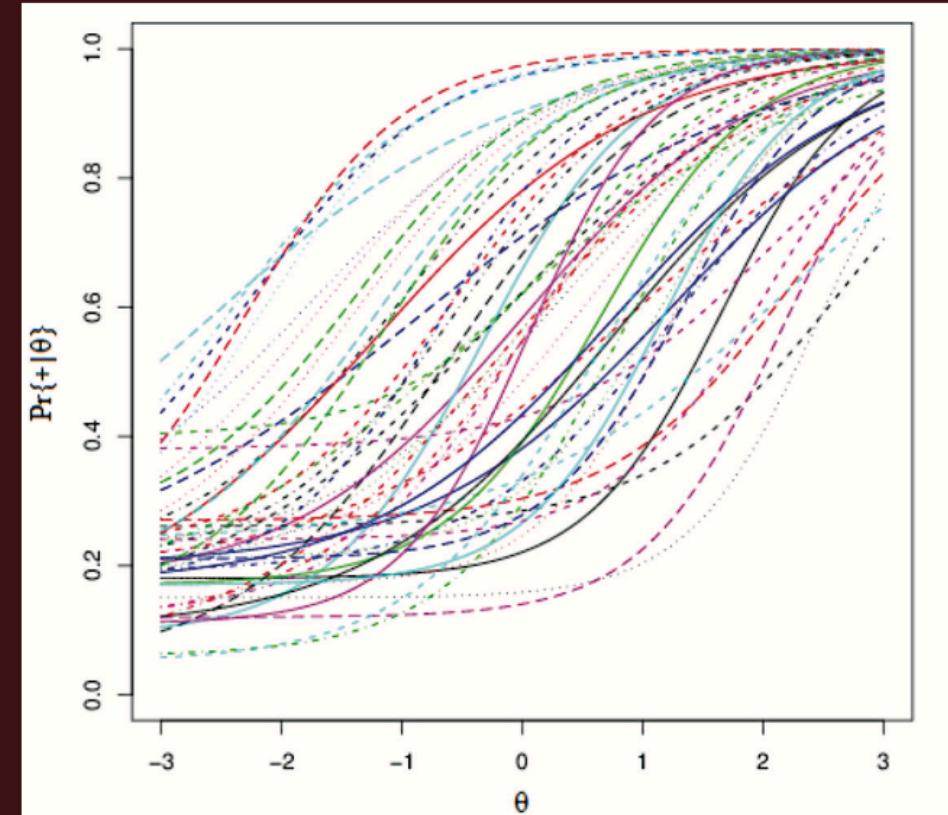
Wim J. van der Linden

Making the usual assumption of independence between the responses by the same test taker (“local independence”), and assuming they all worked independently, the probability function of the joint distribution of a complete response matrix, $\mathbf{U} \equiv (U_{pi})$, is the product of each of these Bernoulli distributions:

$$f(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{p=1}^P \prod_{i=1}^I \pi_{pi}^{u_{pi}} (1 - \pi_{pi})^{1-u_{pi}} \quad (2.2)$$

Chapman & Hall/CRC
Statistics in the Social and Behavioral Sciences Series

**Handbook of
Item Response Theory**
VOLUME ONE
Models



Edited by
Wim J. van der Linden

 CRC Press
Taylor & Francis Group
A CHAPMAN & HALL BOOK

with parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\pi} \equiv (\pi_{11}, \dots, \pi_{1I}, \dots, \pi_{P1}, \dots, \pi_{PI})$.

The 3PL model explains each π_{pi} as a function of parameters for the effects of the test taker’s ability and the properties of the item. More specifically, let θ_p denote the parameters for the effects of the individual abilities of the test takers and a_i , b_i , and c_i the effects of the items generally interpreted as representing their difficulties, discriminating power, and success probabilities when guessing randomly on them, respectively. For a given response matrix, the 3PL model equations are

$$\pi_{pi} = c_i + (1 - c_i) \frac{\exp[a_i(\theta_p - b_i)]}{1 + \exp[a_i(\theta_p - b_i)]}, \quad p = 1, \dots, P; \quad i = 1, \dots, I \quad (2.3)$$

with $\theta_p \in (-\infty, \infty)$, $a_i \in (0, \infty)$, $b_i \in (-\infty, \infty)$, and $c_i \in [0, 1]$ as ranges for the values of their parameters. The model thus consists of $P \times I$ nonlinear equations, one for each of the success parameters. In other words, rather than a single-level probabilistic model, it is a system of second-level mathematical equations. (The statistical literature is somewhat ambiguous in its assignments of the number of levels to a model; some sources count the levels of parameters as we do here, while the others count the levels of randomness that are modeled.)

Rasch Model

Matthias von Davier



The following notational conventions are used: Let $\mathbf{U} = (U_1, \dots, U_I)$ denote a vector of discrete observed variables, with $U_i \in \{0,1\}$ and 1 indicating success and 0 indicating failure. For each test taker $p = 1, \dots, P$, let $U_{pi} \in \{0,1\}$ denote the test taker's response in terms of success or failure on item i . Rasch (1966a) introduces the model using the following assumptions:

1. The probability that an examinee p succeeds in trial i is

$$Pr\{U_i = 1 | p\} = \frac{\lambda_{pi}}{1 + \lambda_{pi}}, \quad (3.1)$$

which is equivalent to

$$Pr\{U_i = 0 | p\} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda_{pi}}. \quad (3.2)$$

2. Parameter $\lambda_{pi} = (Pr\{U_i = 1 | p\} / Pr\{U_i = 0 | p\})$ can be written as

$$\lambda_{pi} = \frac{\tau_p}{\xi_i}, \quad (3.3)$$

which implies that $Pr\{U_i = 1 | p\} = (\tau_p / (\xi_i + \tau_p))$ and $Pr\{U_i = 0 | p\} = (\xi_i / (\xi_i + \tau_p))$.

3. Stochastic independence of these probabilities holds for examinee p attempting multiple trials $i = 1, \dots, I$.

Note that with the transformation $\theta_p = \ln(\tau_p)$ and $\beta_i = \ln(\xi_i)$, we obtain an equivalent form of the Rasch model:

$$Pr\{U_i = u | p\} = \frac{\exp(u(\theta_p - \beta_i))}{1 + \exp(\theta_p - \beta_i)}, \quad (3.4)$$



STATISTICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR COMPUTERIZED ADAPTIVE TESTING WITH RESPONSE REVISION

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HUA-HUA CHANG

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2.1. The IRT Model

STATISTICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR COMPUTERIZED ADAPTIVE TESTING WITH
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First of all, we assume that an item bank is available and that an item response theory (IRT) model has been calibrated to it. According to this model, the ability of a test taker is described by an unknown parameter $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ and each item in the pool is described by a known parameter vector d , which takes values in a subset \mathcal{D} of some Euclidean space. For simplicity, we assume that each item has the same number, $m \geq 2$, of possible answers. We denote by \mathcal{Y} the set of effective responses according to the IRT model. Thus, $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, m\}$ when the IRT model is polytomous, either nominal or ordinal, and $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ when the IRT model is a dichotomous one that aggregates wrong answers.

We denote by $p(\theta; y, d)$ the probability that a test taker with ability θ selects response $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ to an item with parameter vector $d \in \mathcal{D}$. We assume that for any given $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $d \in \mathcal{D}$, $p(\theta; y, d)$ is twice differentiable as a function of θ . For any given $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $d \in \mathcal{D}$, we denote by $s(\theta; y, d)$ the corresponding *score function*, i.e.,

$$s(\theta; y, d) := \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\theta; y, d), \quad y \in \mathcal{Y}, \tag{1}$$

and by $j(\theta; d)$ the corresponding *Fisher information*, i.e.,

$$j(\theta; d) := \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(\theta; y, d) s^2(\theta; y, d). \tag{2}$$



Journal of Statistical Software

May 2012, Volume 48, Issue 1.

<http://www.jstatsoft.org/>

Psychoco: Psychometric Computing in R

Florian Wickelmaier
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Universität Innsbruck



Journal of Statistical Software

January 2017, Volume 76, Code Snippet 1.

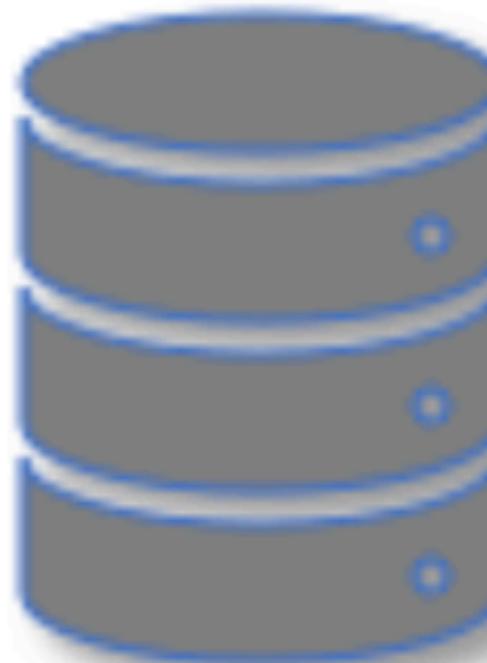
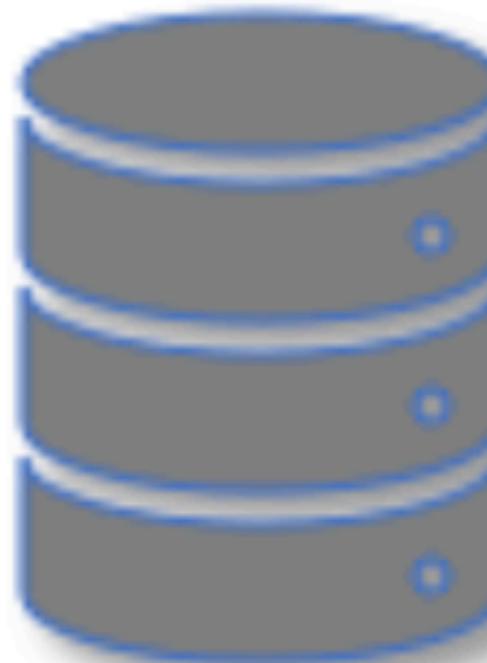
doi: 10.18637/jss.v076.c01

Computerized Adaptive Testing with R: Recent Updates of the Package catR

David Magis
University of Liège

Juan Ramon Barrada
Universidad de Zaragoza

Business Intelligence

Fase 1	Fase 2	Fase 3	Fase 4
Dados	Stage	DW	Análise
			
Processo transacional	Processo analítico	Análise e Visualização	
Ambiente 1	Ambiente 2	Ambiente 3	

Inteligência Computacional para mitigar e compensar muitas das heurísticas da cognição humana

- # Viés de ancoragem
- # Viés de disponibilidade
- # Viés de confirmação
- # Viés de apresentação
- # Viés de otimismo
- # Viés da falácia do planejamento
- # Viés de custos irrecuperáveis ou aversão a perdas

THE COGNITIVE BIAS CODEX

What Should We Remember?

To avoid mistakes,
we aim to preserve autonomy
and group status, and avoid
irreversible decisions

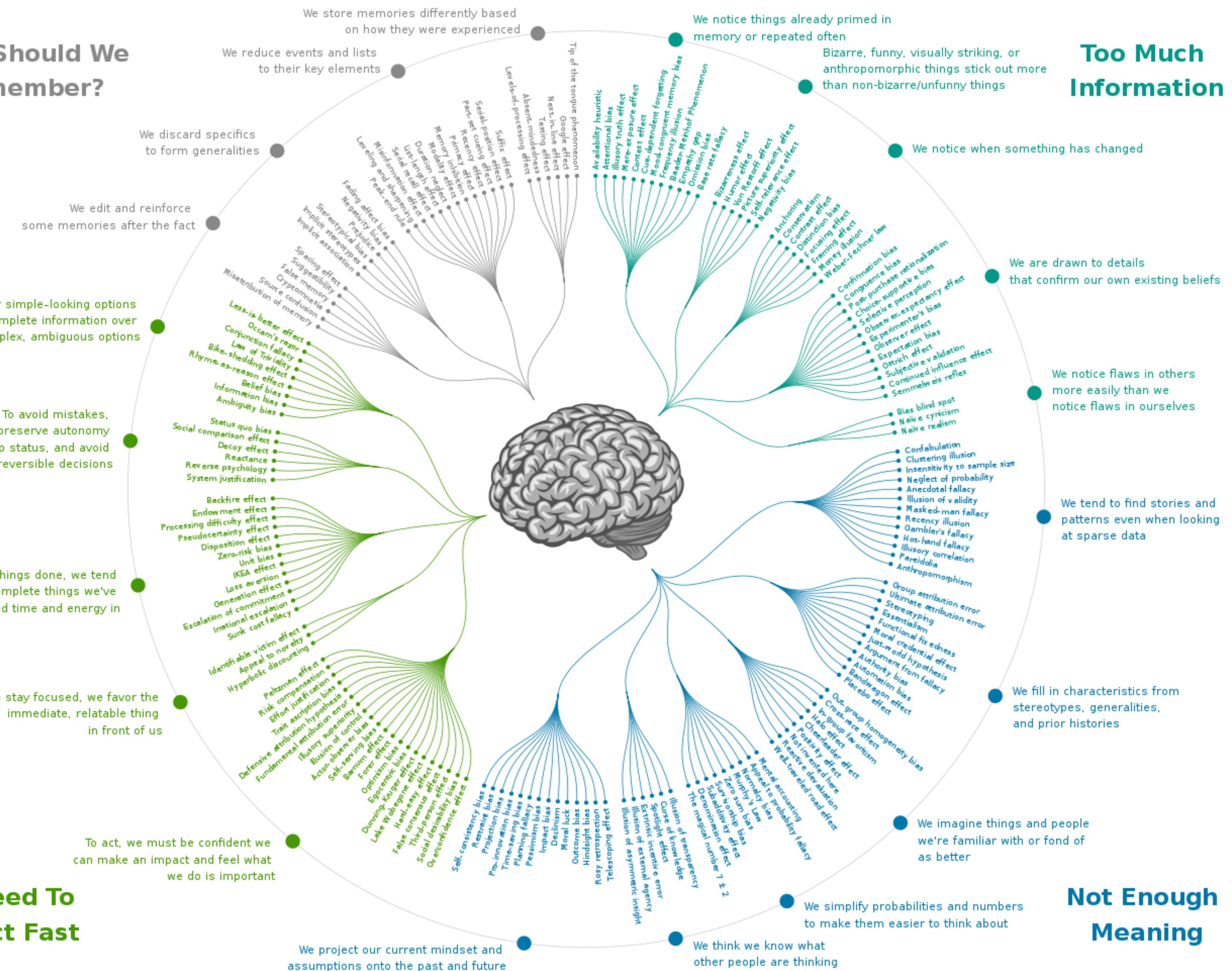
To get things done, we tend
to complete things we've
invested time and energy in

To stay focused, we favor the
immediate, relatable thing
in front of us

To act, we must be confident we
can make an impact and feel what
we do is important

Need To Act Fast

We project our current mindset and
assumptions onto the past and future



Too Much Information

I. Too Much Information	II. Not Enough Meaning	III. Need to act fast	IV. What Should We remember?
<p>a. We notice things already primed in memory or repeated often</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Availability Heuristic 2. Attentional Bias 3. Illusory truth effect 4. Mere exposure effect 5. Context effect 6. Cue-dependent forgetting 7. Mood-congruent memory bias 8. Frequency illusion 9. Baader-Meinhof Phenomenon 10. Empathy gap 11. Omission bias 12. Base rate fallacy <p>b. Bizarre/funny/ visually-striking/ anthropomorphic things stick out more than non-bizarre/unfunny things</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bizarreness effect 2. Humor effect 3. Von Restorff effect 4. Picture superiority effect 5. Self-relevance effect 6. Negativity Effect <p>c. We notice when something has changed</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anchoring 2. Conservatism 3. Contrast effect 4. Distinction bias 5. Focusing effect 6. Framing effect 7. Money illusion 8. Weber-Fechner law <p>d. We are drawn to details that confirm our own existing beliefs</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Confirmation bias 2. Congruence bias 3. Post-purchase rationalization 4. Choice-supportive bias 5. Selective perception 6. Observer-expectancy effect 7. Experimenter's bias 8. Observer effect 9. Ostrich effect 10. Subjective validation 11. Continued influence effect 12. Semmelweis reflex <p>e. We notice flaws in others more easily than flaws in ourselves</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bias blind spot 2. Naïve cynicism 3. Naïve realism 	<p>a. We find stories and patterns even in sparse data</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Confabulation 2. Clustering illusion 3. Insensitivity to sample size 4. Neglect of probability 5. Anecdotal fallacy 6. Illusion of validity 7. Masked man fallacy 8. Recency illusion 9. Hot-hand fallacy 10. Illusory correlation 11. Pareidolia 12. Anthropomorphism <p>b. We fill in characteristics from stereotypes, generalities, and prior histories</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Group attribution error 2. Ultimate attribution error 3. Stereotyping 4. Essentialism 5. Functional fixedness 6. Moral credential effect 7. Just-world hypothesis 8. Argument from fallacy 9. Authority bias 10. Automation bias 11. Bandwagon effect 12. Placebo effect <p>c. We imagine things and people we're familiar with or fond of as better</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Halo effect 2. In-group bias 3. Not invented here 4. Cross-race-effect 5. Cheerleader effect 6. Well-traveled road effect 7. Out-group homogeneity bias 8. Reactive devaluation 9. Positivity effect <p>d. We simplify probabilities and numbers make them easier to think about</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mental accounting 2. Normalcy bias 3. Magic number 7 + 2 4. Murphy's law 5. Subadditivity effect 6. Survivorship bias 7. Zero sum bias 8. Denomination effect 9. Appeal to probability fallacy <p>e. We think we know what other people are thinking</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Curse of knowledge 2. Illusion of transparency 3. Spotlight effect 4. Illusion of external agency 5. Illusion of asymmetric insight 6. Extrinsic incentive error <p>f. We project our current mindset and assumptions onto the past and future</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Self-consistency bias 2. Restraint bias 3. Projection bias 4. Pro-innovation bias 5. Time-saving bias 6. Planning fallacy 7. Pessimism bias 8. Impact bias 9. Rosy retrospection 10. Telescoping effect 11. Declinism 12. Moral luck 13. Outcome bias 14. Hindsight bias 	<p>a. To act, we must be confident we can make an impact and feel what we do is important</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Peltzman effect 2. Risk compensation 3. Effort justification 4. Trait ascription bias 5. Defensive attribution hypothesis 6. Fundamental attribution error 7. Actor-observer bias 8. Self-serving bias 9. Lake Wobegone effect 10. Illusory superiority 11. Hard-easy effect 12. Dunning-Kruger effect 13. False consensus effect 14. Illusion of control 15. Barnum effect 16. Forer effect 17. Third-person effect 18. Social desirability bias 19. Optimism bias 20. Egocentric bias 21. Overconfidence effect <p>b. To stay focused, we favor the immediate, relatable thing in front of us</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identifiable victim effect 2. Appeal to novelty 3. Hyperbolic discounting <p>c. To get things done, we tend to complete things we've invested time & energy in</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Backfire effect 2. Endowment effect 3. Pseudocertainty effect 4. Unit bias 5. Disposition effect 6. Zero-risk bias 7. Generation effect 8. Processing difficulty effect 9. IKEA effect 10. Loss aversion 11. Escalation of commitment 12. Irrational escalation 13. Sunk cost fallacy <p>d. To avoid mistakes, we're motivated to preserve our autonomy and status in a group, and to avoid irreversible decisions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Status quo bias 2. Social comparison bias 3. Decoy effect 4. Reverse psychology 5. Reactance 6. System justification <p>e. We favor simple-looking options and complete information over complex, ambiguous options</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Less-is-better effect 2. Occam's razor 3. Conjunction fallacy 4. Delmore effect 5. Law of Triviality 6. Belief bias 7. Bike-shedding effect 8. Rhyme as reason effect 9. Information bias 10. Ambiguity bias 	<p>a. We edit and reinforce some memories after the fact</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Spacing effect 2. Suggestibility 3. False memory 4. Cryptomnesia 5. Source confusion 6. Misattribution of memory <p>b. We discard specifics to form generalities</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fading affect bias 2. Negativity bias 3. Prejudice 4. Stereotypical bias 5. Implicit stereotypes 6. Implicit associations <p>c. We reduce events and lists to their key elements</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Suffix effect 2. Serial position 3. Recency effect 4. Primacy effect 5. Past-list cuing effect 6. Memory inhibition 7. Modality effect 8. List-length effect 9. Serial recall effect 10. Duration neglect 11. Misinformation effect 12. Leveling and sharpening 13. Peak-end rule <p>d. We store memories differently based on how they were experienced</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tip of the tongue phenomenon 2. Google effect 3. Next-in-line effect 4. Testing effect 5. Absent-mindedness 6. Levels of processing effect

Legend

The reason **why** a bias occurs is given at the top and with roman numerals.

How humans cope with this reason is given with bold letters.

The bias name is **addressed** using arabic numerals.

I. Cause

x. Strategy

1. Bias a
2. Bias b
3. Bias c

Obrigado!

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