

# Part II: How to make a Bayesian model

# Questions you can answer...

- What would an ideal learner or observer infer from these data?
- What are the effects of different assumptions or prior knowledge on this inference?
- What kind of constraints on learning are necessary to explain the inferences people make?
- How do people learn a structured representation?

# Marr's three levels

## **Computation**

“What is the goal of the computation, why is it appropriate, and what is the logic of the strategy by which it can be carried out?”

## **Representation and algorithm**

“What is the representation for the input and output, and the algorithm for the transformation?”

## **Implementation**

“How can the representation and algorithm be realized physically?”

# Six easy steps

**Step 1:** Find an interesting aspect of cognition

**Step 2:** Identify the underlying computational problem

**Step 3:** Identify constraints

**Step 4:** Work out the optimal solution to that problem,  
given constraints

**Step 5:** See how well that solution corresponds to human  
behavior (do some experiments!)

**Step 6:** Iterate Steps 2-6 until it works

(Anderson, 1990)

# A schema for inductive problems

- What are the data?
  - what information are people learning or drawing inferences from?
- What are the hypotheses?
  - what kind of structure is being learned or inferred from these data?

(these questions are shared with other models)

# Thinking generatively...

- How do the hypotheses generate the data?
  - defines the likelihood  $p(d|h)$
- How are the hypotheses generated?
  - defines the prior  $p(h)$
  - while the prior encodes information about knowledge and learning biases, translating this into a probability distribution can be made easier by thinking in terms of a generative process...
- Bayesian inference inverts this generative process

# An example: Speech perception



(with thanks to Naomi Feldman )

# An example: Speech perception



Speaker chooses  
a phonetic category





# An example: Speech perception



Speaker chooses  
a phonetic category

Speaker articulates a  
“target production”



# An example: Speech perception



Noise in the  
speech signal

Speaker chooses  
a phonetic category

Speaker articulates a  
“target production”



# An example: Speech perception

Listener hears  
a speech sound



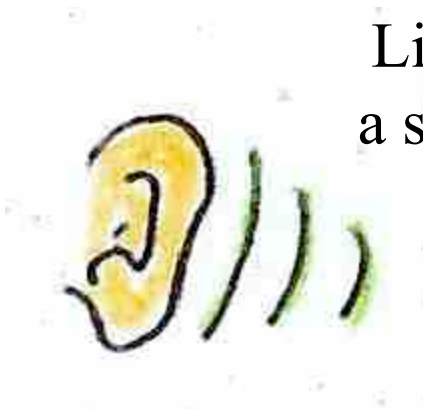
Noise in the  
speech signal

Speaker chooses  
a phonetic category

Speaker articulates a  
“target production”



# An example: Speech perception



Listener hears  
a speech sound

*S*

Noise in the  
speech signal

*C*

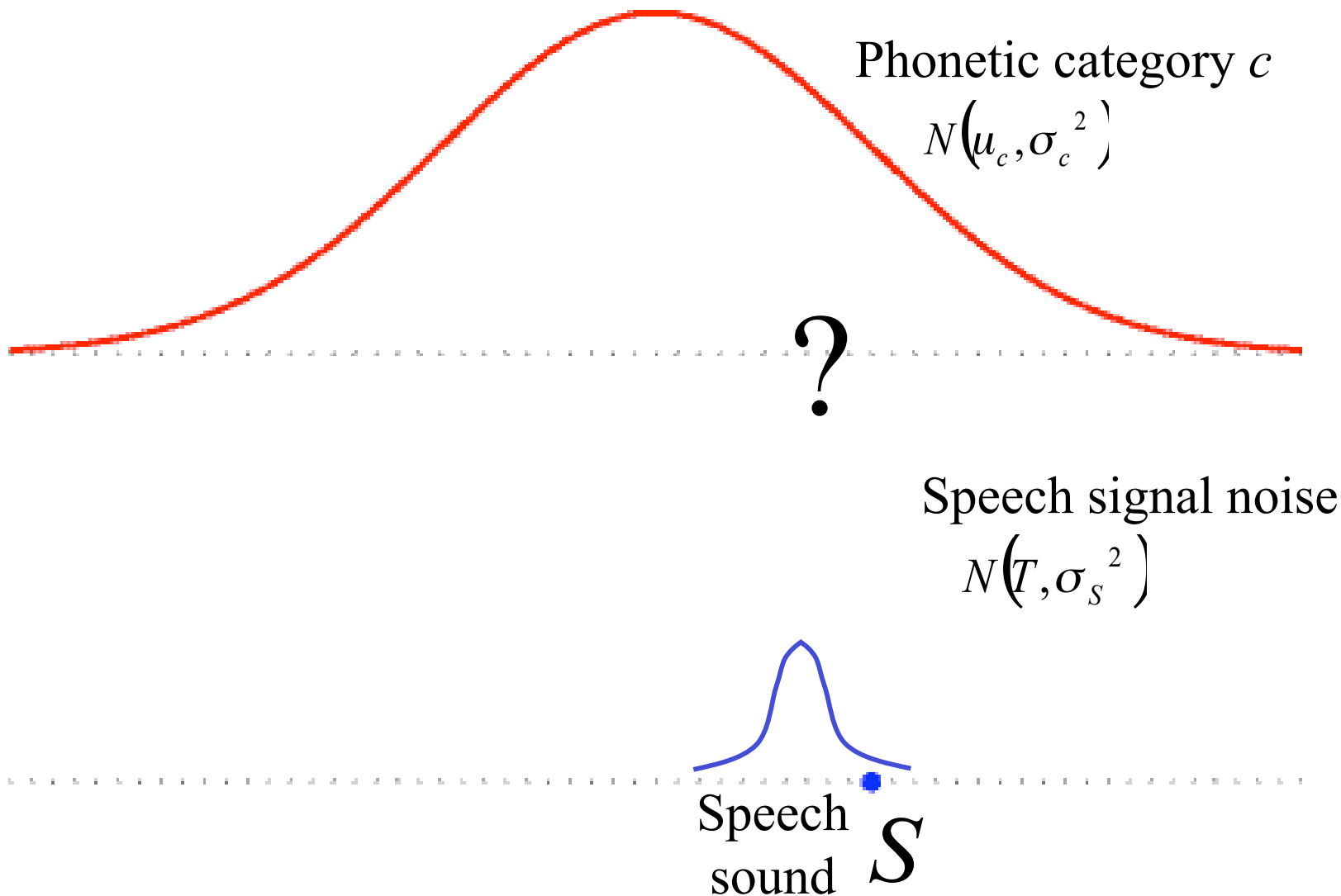
Speaker chooses  
a phonetic category

*T*

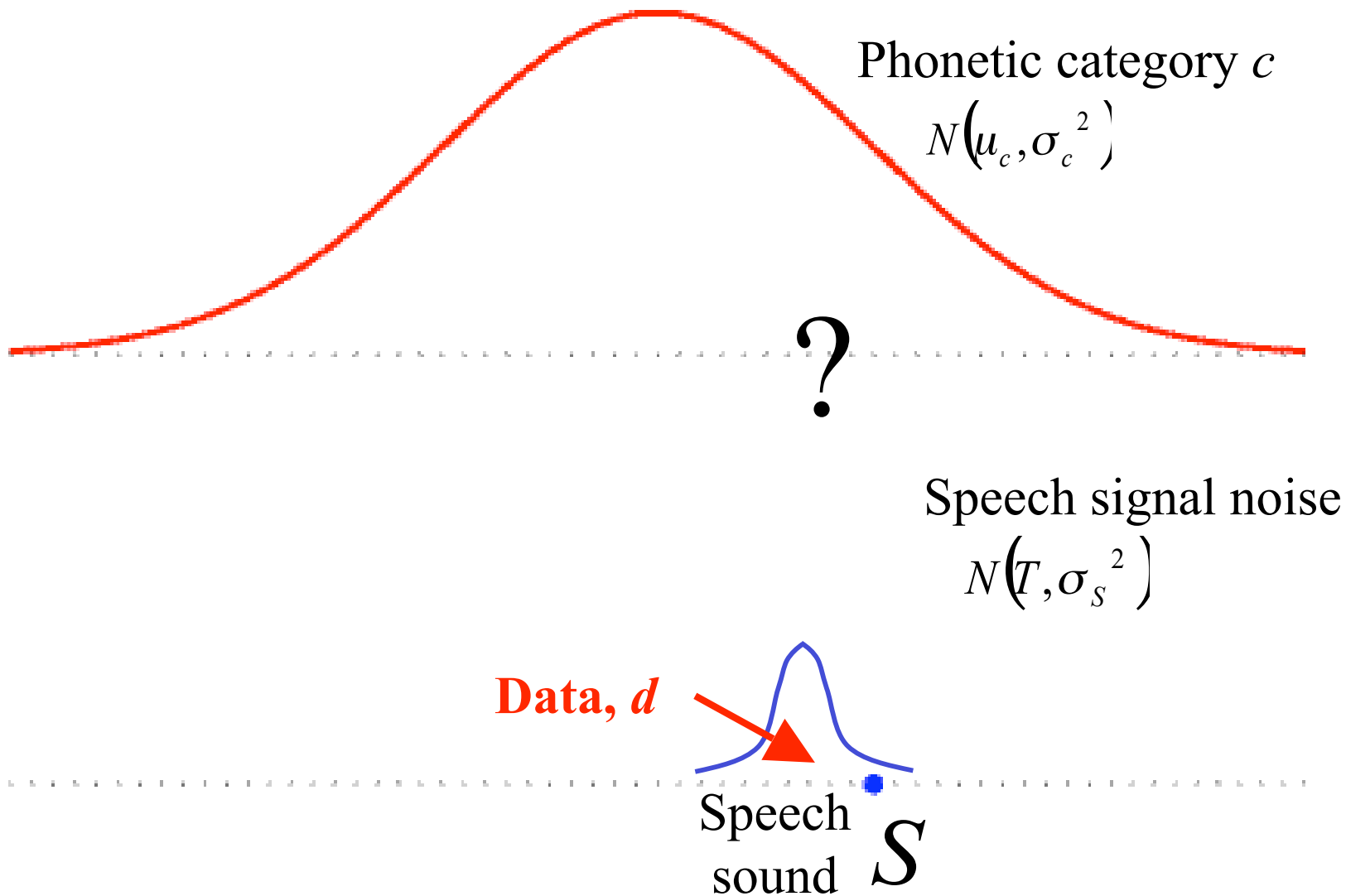
Speaker articulates a  
“target production”



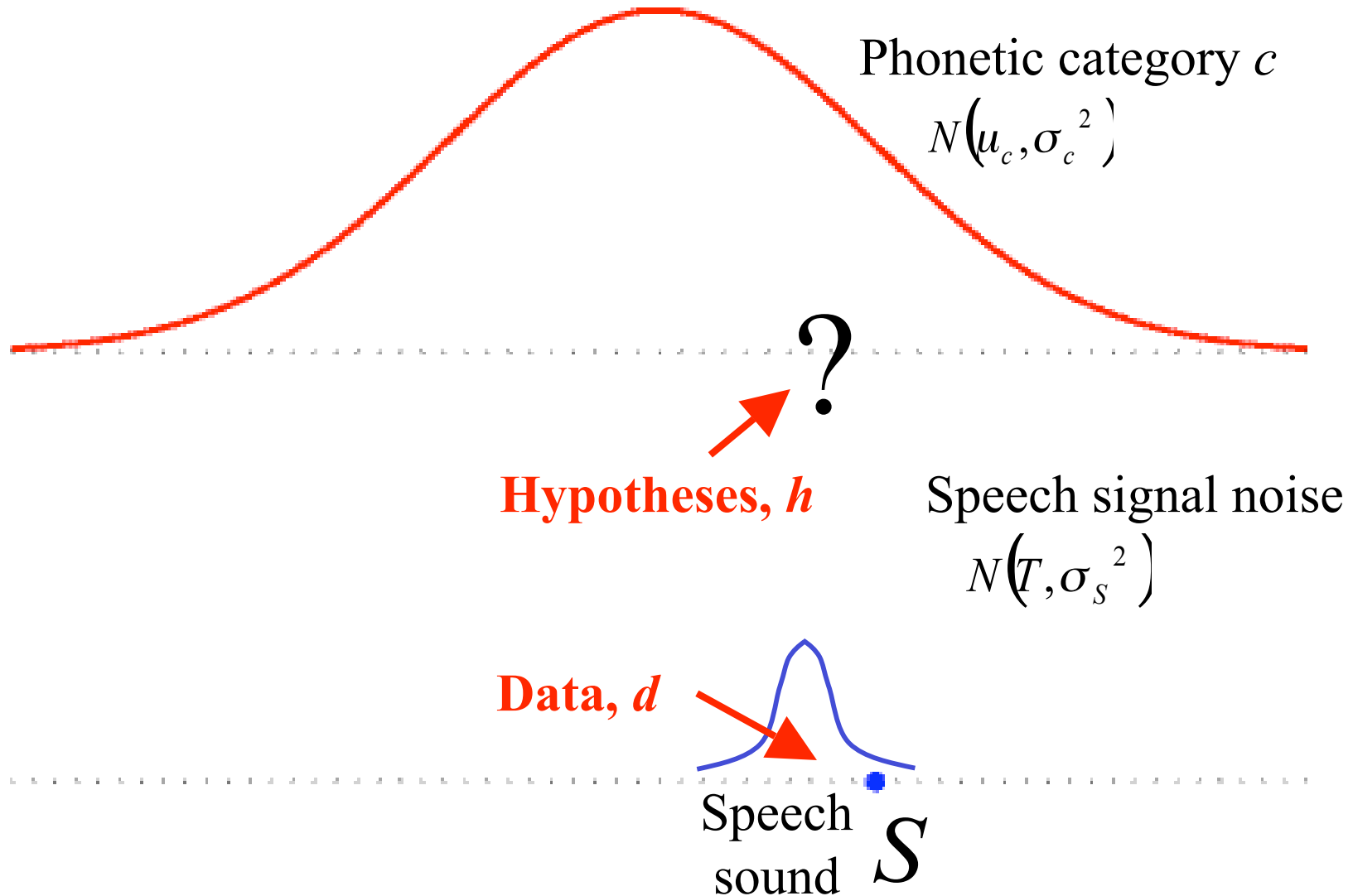
# Bayes for speech perception



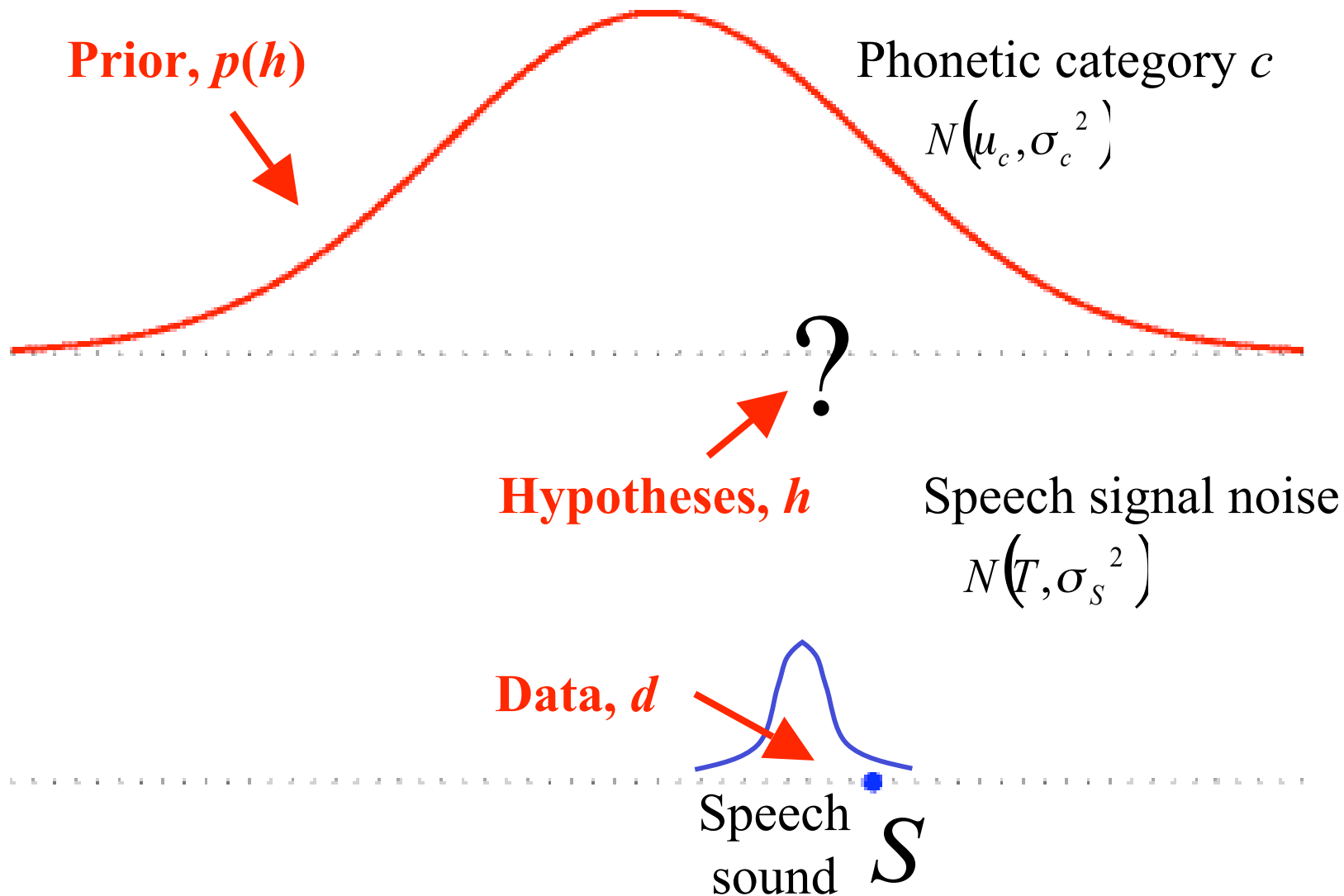
# Bayes for speech perception



# Bayes for speech perception

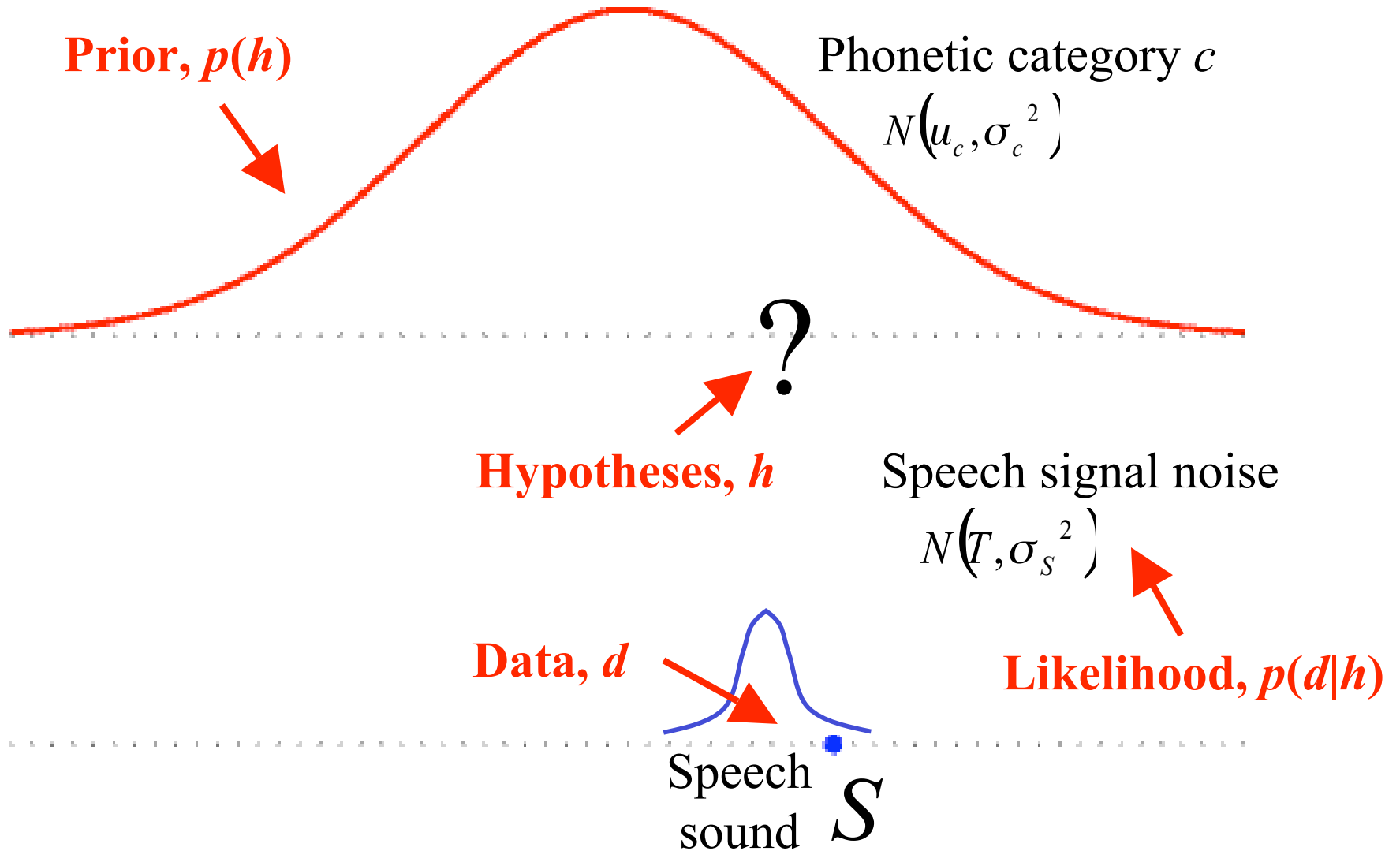


# Bayes for speech perception





# Bayes for speech perception



# Bayes for speech perception

Listeners must invert the process that generated the sound they heard...

- data ( $d$ ): speech sound  $S$
- hypotheses ( $h$ ): target productions  $T$
- prior ( $p(h)$ ): phonetic category structure  $p(T|c)$
- likelihood ( $p(d|h)$ ): speech signal noise  $p(S|T)$

$$p(h | d) \propto p(d | h)p(h)$$

# Bayes for speech perception

Prior,  $p(h)$

Phonetic category  $c$

$$N(u_c, \sigma_c^2)$$

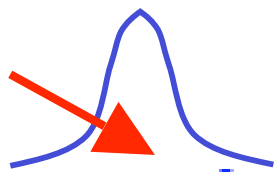
Hypotheses,  $h$

Likelihood,  $p(d|h)$

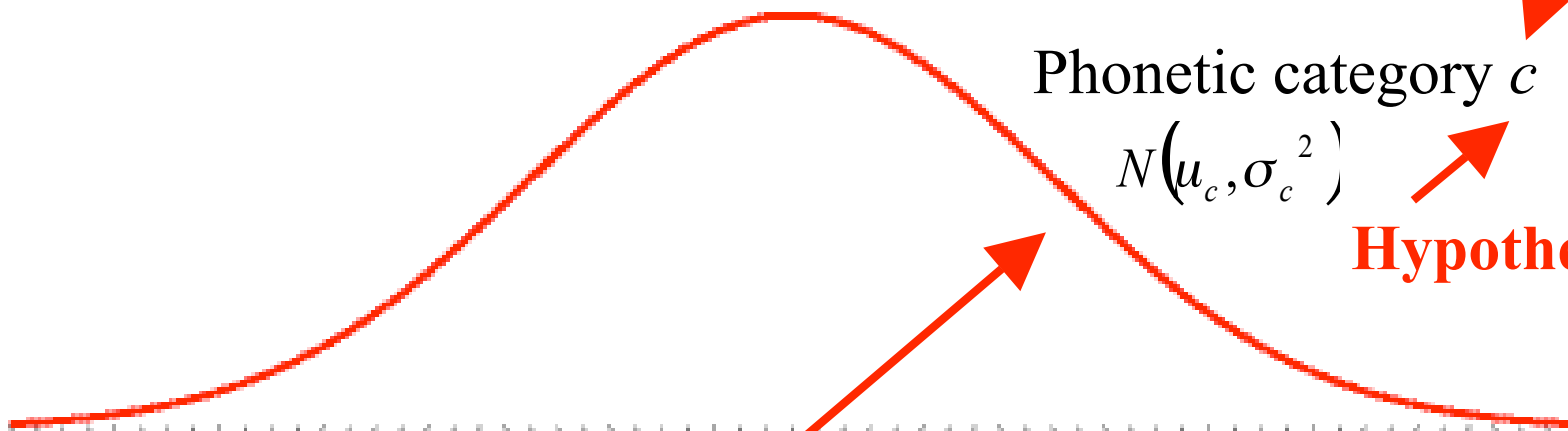
Speech signal noise

$$N(T, \sigma_s^2)$$

Data,  $d$



Speech sound  $S$



# Bayes for speech perception

Listeners must invert the process that generated the sound they heard...

- data ( $d$ ): speech sound  $S$
- hypotheses ( $h$ ): phonetic category  $c$
- prior ( $p(h)$ ): probability of category  $p(c)$
- likelihood ( $p(d|h)$ ): combination of category variability  $p(T|c)$  and speech signal noise  $p(S|T)$

$$p(S | c) = \int p(S | T) p(T | c) dT$$

# Challenges of generative models

- Specifying well-defined probabilistic models involving many variables is hard
- Representing probability distributions over those variables is hard, since distributions need to describe all possible states of the variables
- Performing Bayesian inference using those distributions is hard

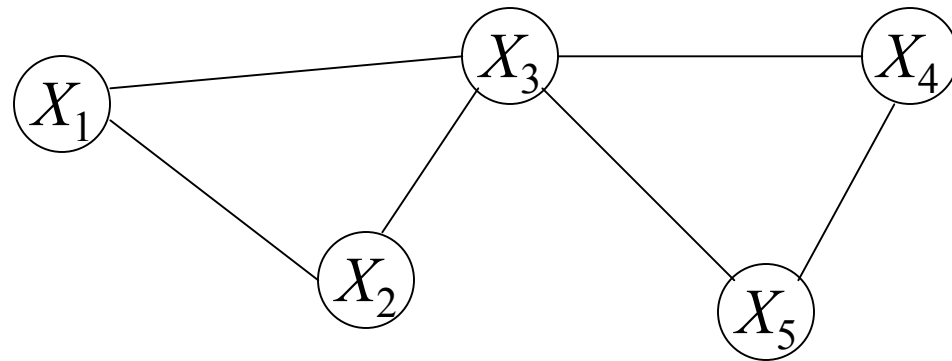
# Graphical models

- Express the probabilistic dependency structure among a set of variables (Pearl, 1988)
- Consist of
  - a set of nodes, corresponding to variables
  - a set of edges, indicating dependency
  - a set of functions defined on the graph that specify a probability distribution

# Undirected graphical models

- Consist of

- a set of nodes
- a set of edges



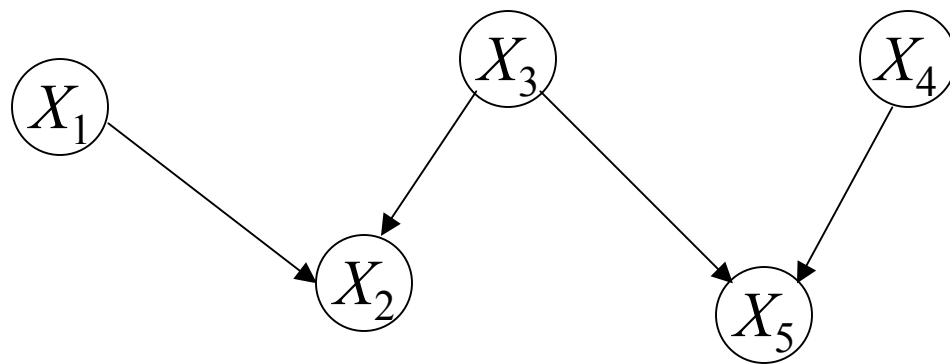
- a *potential* for each *clique*, multiplied together to yield the distribution over variables

- Examples

- statistical physics: Ising model, spinglasses
- early neural networks (e.g. Boltzmann machines)

# Directed graphical models

- Consist of
  - a set of nodes
  - a set of edges



- a *conditional probability distribution* for each node, conditioned on its parents, multiplied together to yield the distribution over variables
- Constrained to directed acyclic graphs (DAGs)
- Called Bayesian networks or Bayes nets



# Statistical independence

- Two random variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are *independent* if  $P(x_1|x_2) = P(x_1)$ 
  - e.g. coinflips:  $P(x_1=H|x_2=H) = P(x_1=H) = 0.5$
- Independence makes it easier to represent and work with probability distributions
- We can exploit the product rule:

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = P(x_1 | x_2, x_3, x_4)P(x_2 | x_3, x_4)P(x_3 | x_4)P(x_4)$$

If  $x_1, x_2, x_3,$  and  $x_4$  are all independent...

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = P(x_1)P(x_2)P(x_3)P(x_4)$$

# The Markov assumption

Every node is conditionally independent of its non-descendants, given its parents

$$P(x_i \mid x_{i+1}, \dots, x_k) = P(x_i \mid \mathbf{Pa}(X_i))$$

where  $\mathbf{Pa}(X_i)$  is the set of parents of  $X_i$

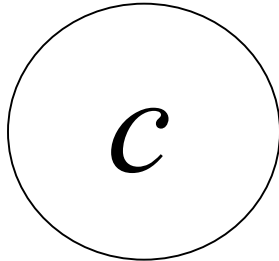
$$P(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \prod_{i=1}^k P(x_i \mid \mathbf{Pa}(X_i))$$

(via the product rule)

# Representing generative models

- Graphical models provide solutions to many of the challenges of probabilistic models
  - defining structured distributions
  - representing distributions on many variables
  - efficiently computing probabilities
- Graphical models also provide an intuitive way to define generative processes...

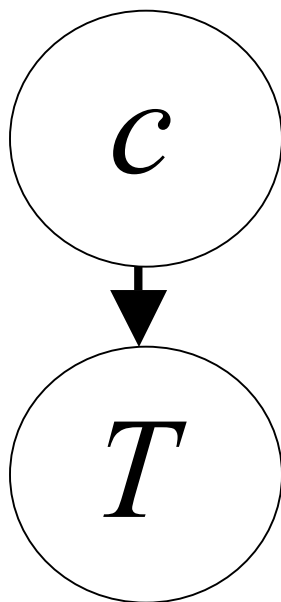
# Graphical model for speech



Choose a category  $c$  with  
probability  $p(c)$



# Graphical model for speech



Choose a category  $c$  with probability  $p(c)$

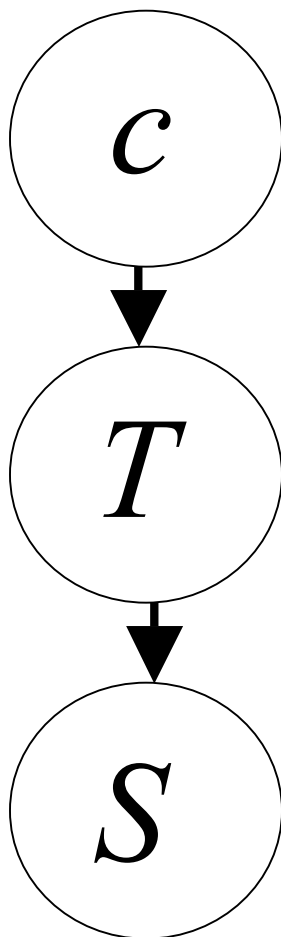


Articulate a target production  $T$  with probability  $p(T|c)$



$$p(T | c) = N(\mu_c, \sigma_c^2)$$

# Graphical model for speech



Choose a category  $c$  with probability  $p(c)$



Articulate a target production  $T$  with probability  $p(T|c)$



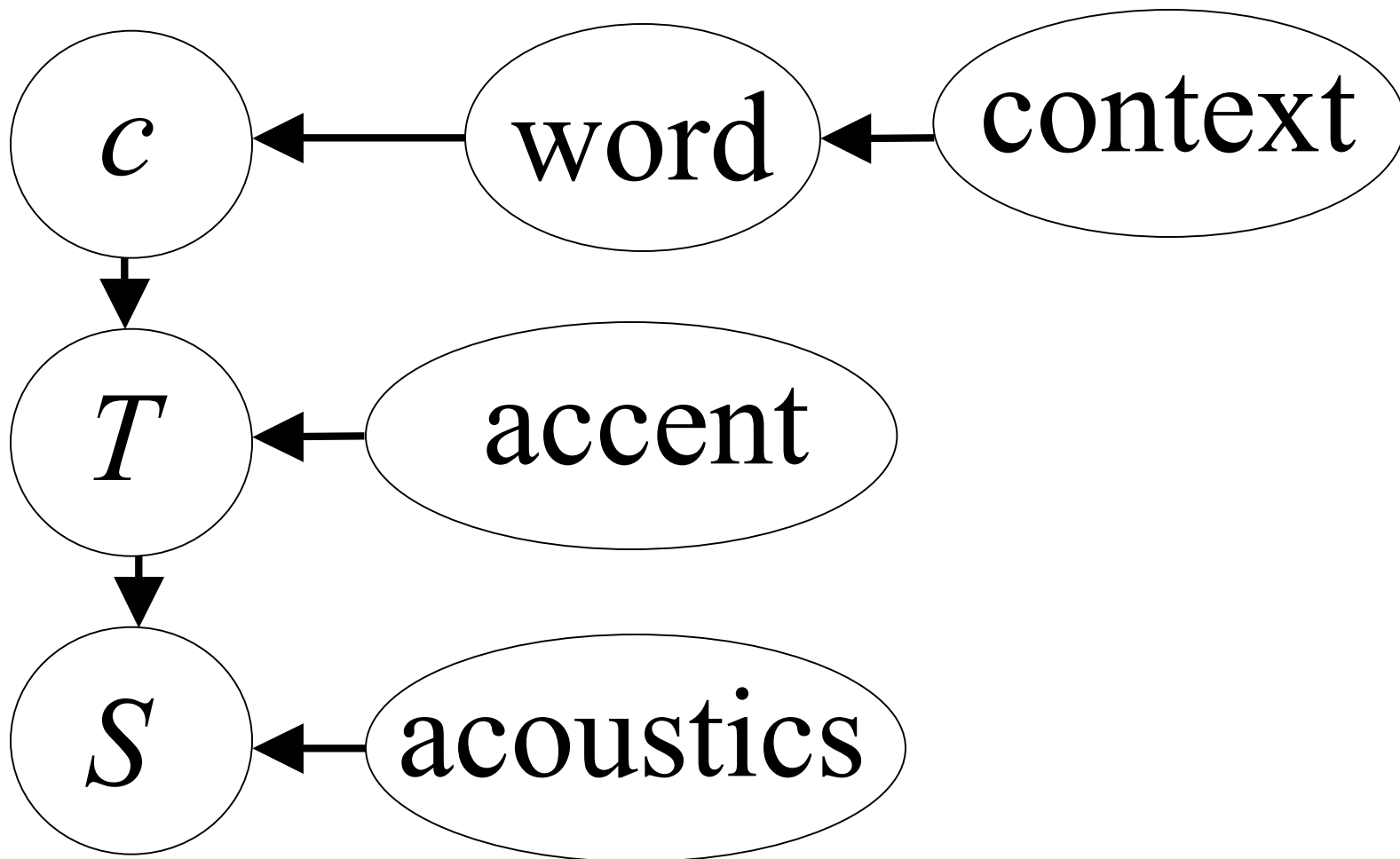
$$p(T | c) = N(u_c, \sigma_c^2)$$

Listener hears speech sound  $S$  with probability  $p(S|T)$



$$p(S | T) = N(T, \sigma_s^2)$$

# Graphical model for speech



# Performing Bayesian calculations

- Having defined a generative process you are ready to invert that process using Bayes' rule
- Different models and modeling goals require different methods...
  - mathematical analysis
  - special-purpose computer programs
  - general-purpose computer programs



# Mathematical analysis

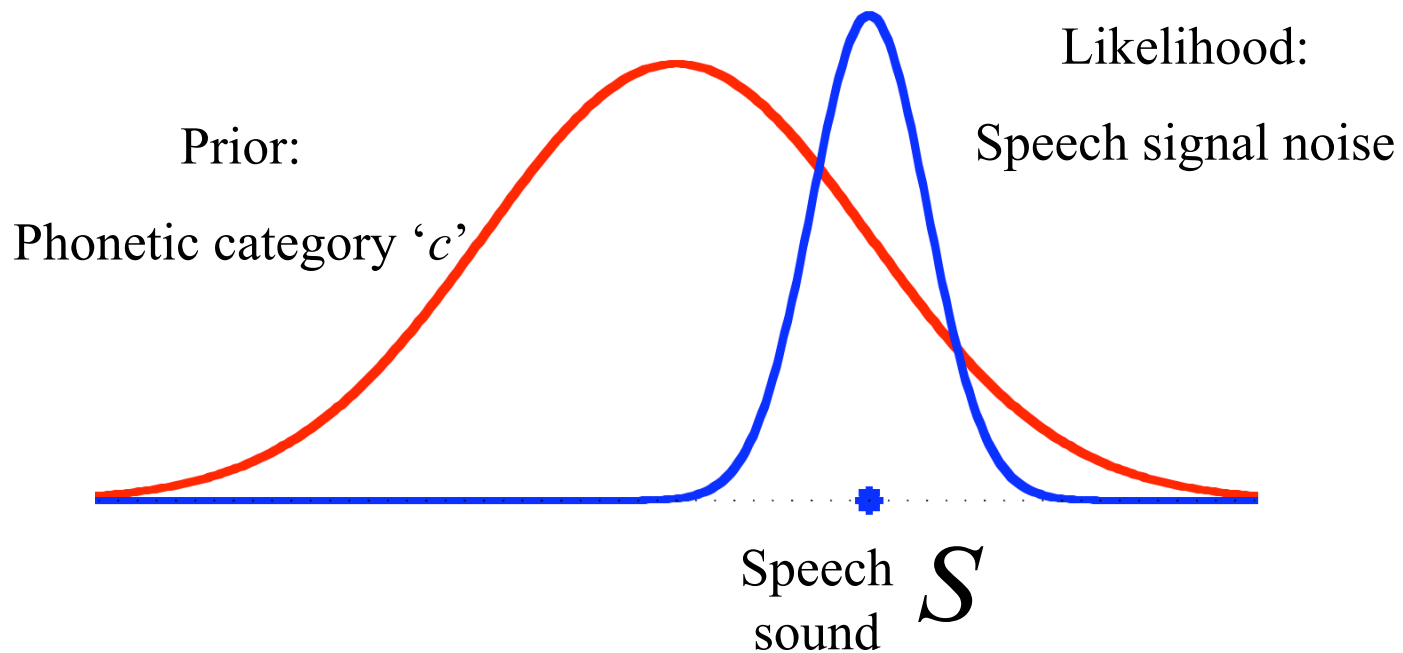
- Work through Bayes' rule by hand
  - the only option available for a long time!
- Suitable for simple models using a small number of hypotheses and/or conjugate priors

# One phonetic category

Bayes' rule:  $p(T | S) \propto p(S | T)p(T)$

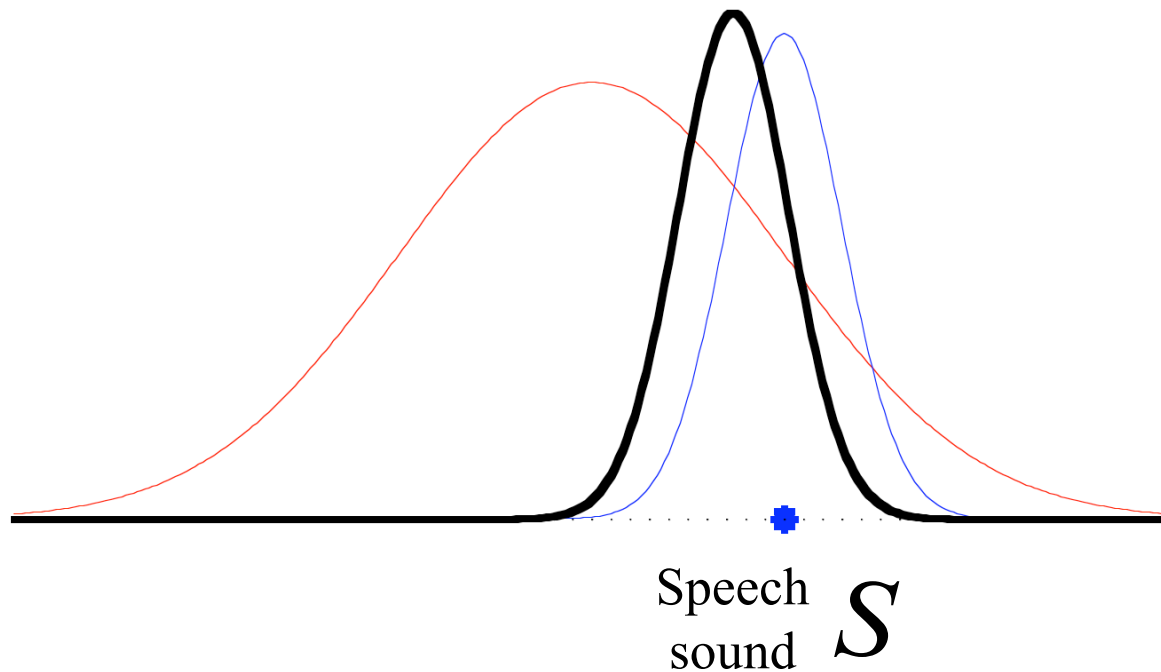
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# One phonetic category

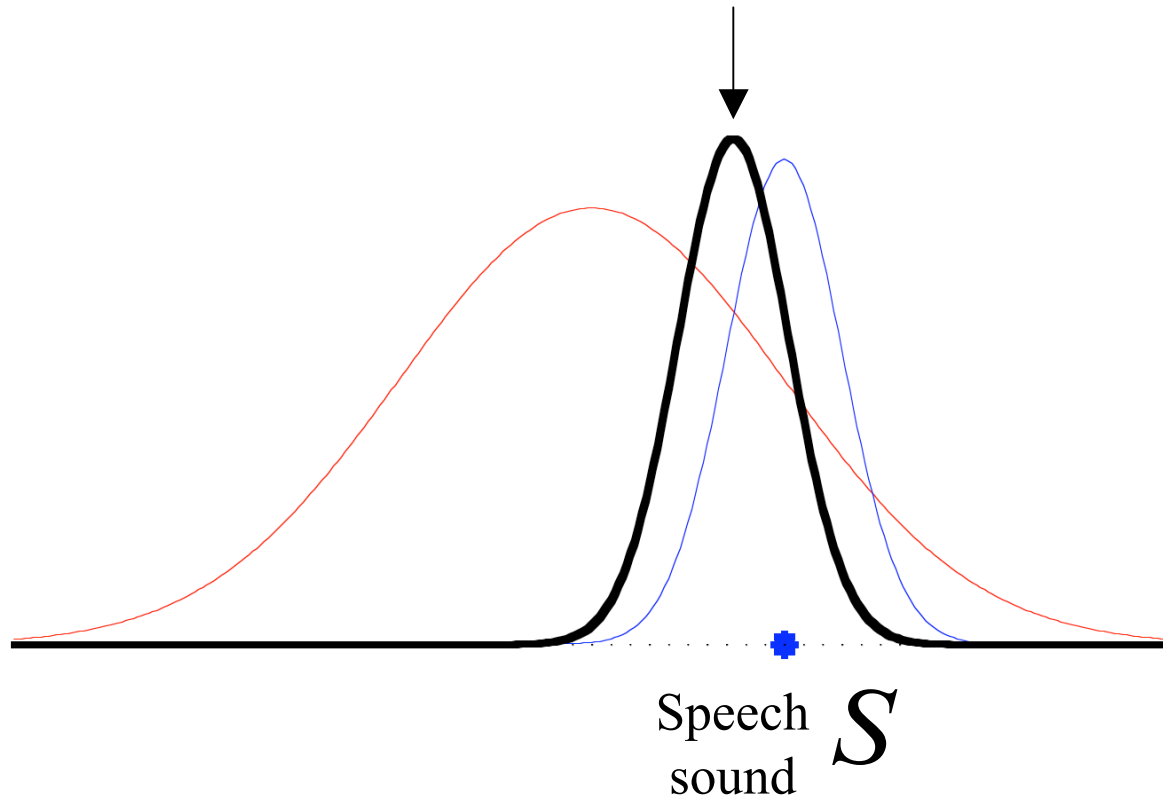
This can be simplified to a Gaussian distribution:



# One phonetic category

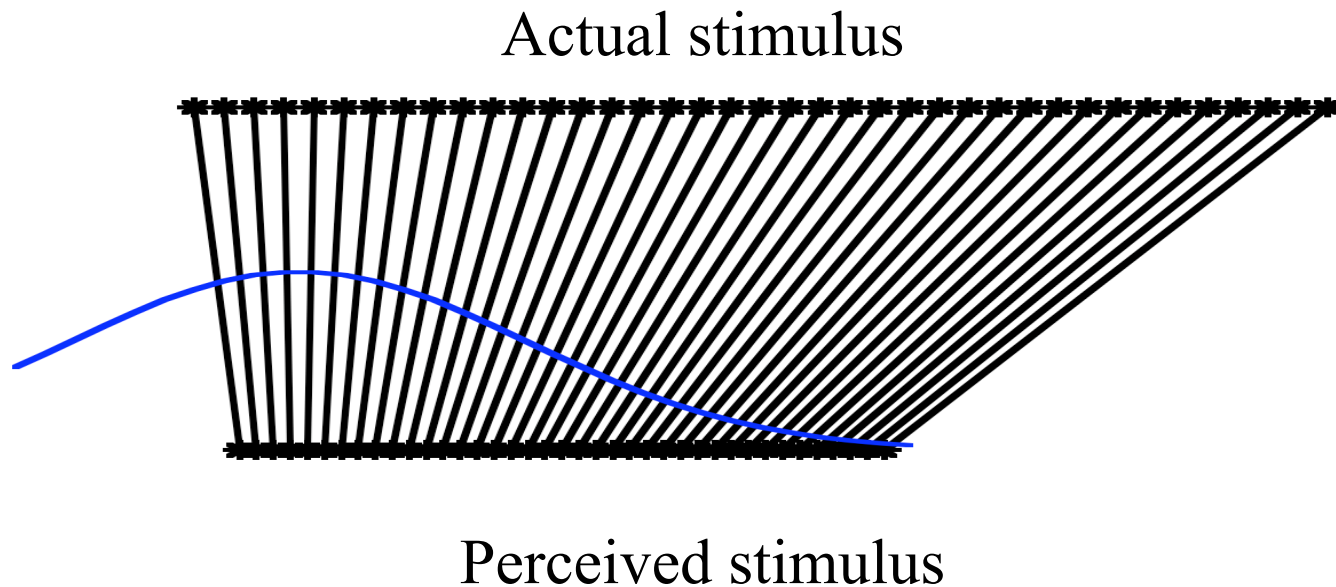
Which has the expectation (mean):

$$E[T | S] = \frac{\sigma_c^2 S + \sigma_S^2 \mu_c}{\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_S^2}$$



# Perceptual warping

Perception of speech sounds is pulled toward the mean of the phonetic category  
(shrinks perceptual space)

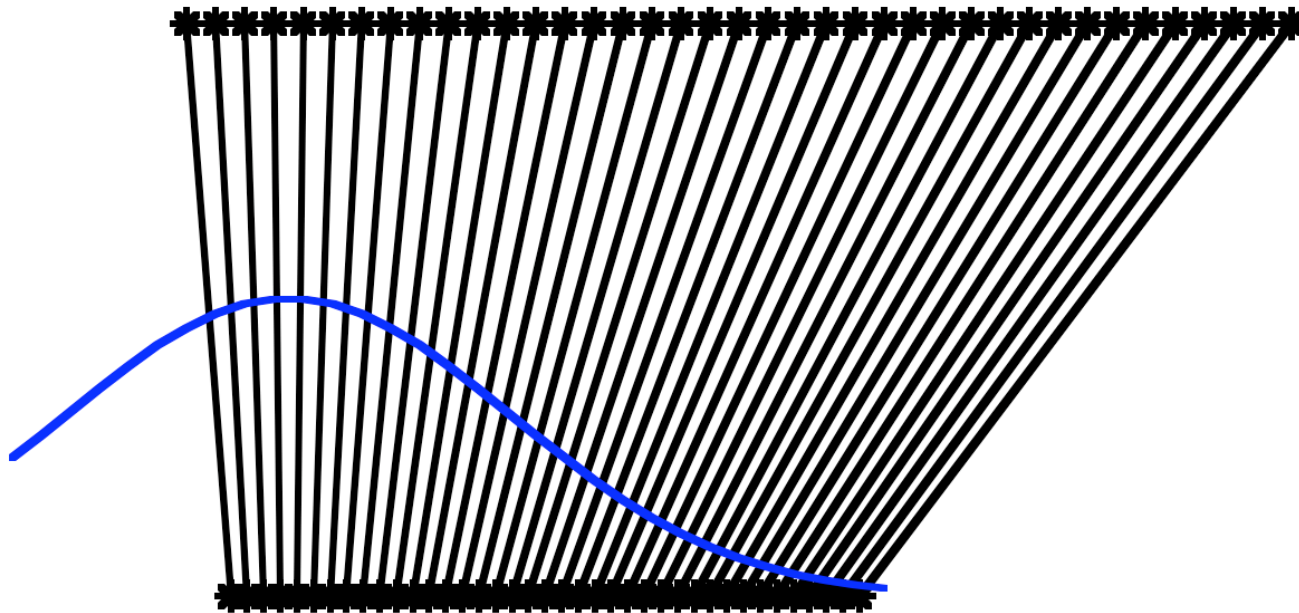


# Mathematical analysis

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- Suitable for simple models using a small number of hypotheses and/or conjugate priors
- Can provide conditions on conclusions or determine the effects of assumptions
  - e.g. perceptual magnet effect

# Perceptual warping

Actual stimulus

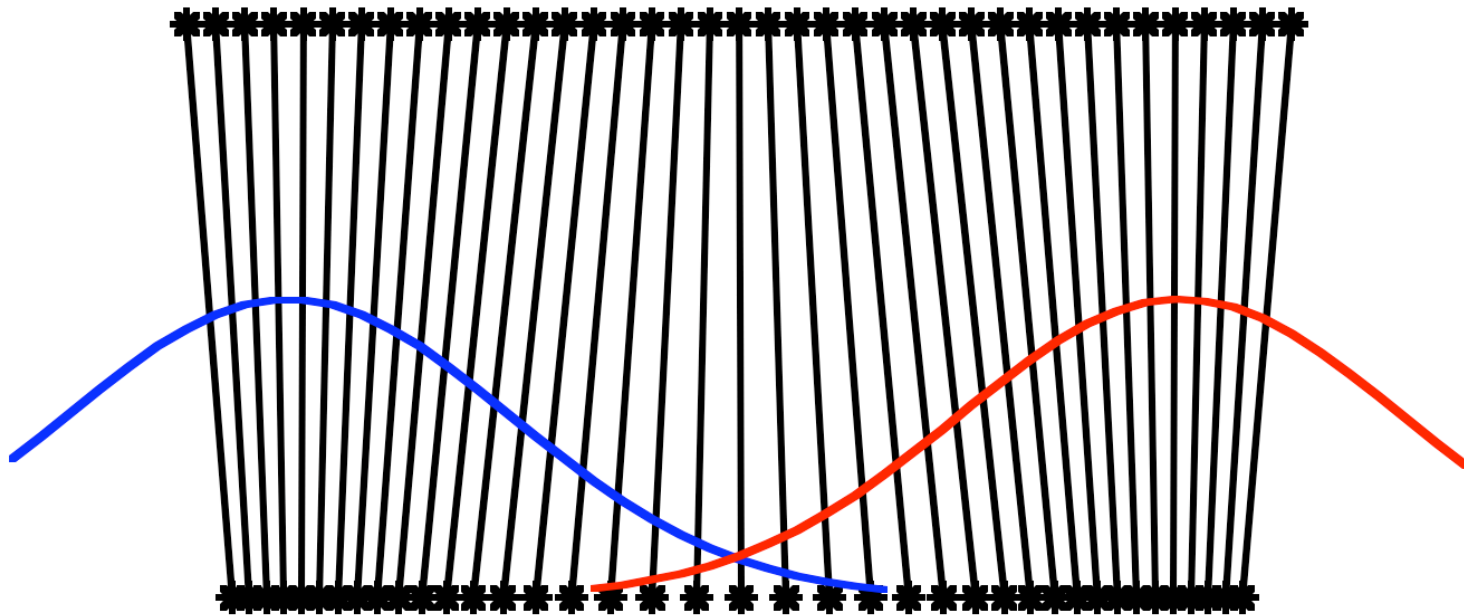


Perceived stimulus



# Perceptual warping

Actual stimulus



Perceived stimulus

# Characterizing perceptual warping

$$\frac{d}{dS} E[T | S] = \frac{d}{dS} p(c = 1 | S) \frac{\sigma_S^2 (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_S^2} + \frac{\sigma_c^2}{\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_S^2}$$

# Mathematical analysis

- Work through Bayes' rule by hand
  - the only option available for a long time!
- Suitable for simple models using a small number of hypotheses and/or conjugate priors
- Can provide conditions on conclusions or determine the effects of assumptions
  - e.g. perceptual magnet effect
- Lots of useful math: calculus, linear algebra, stochastic processes, ...

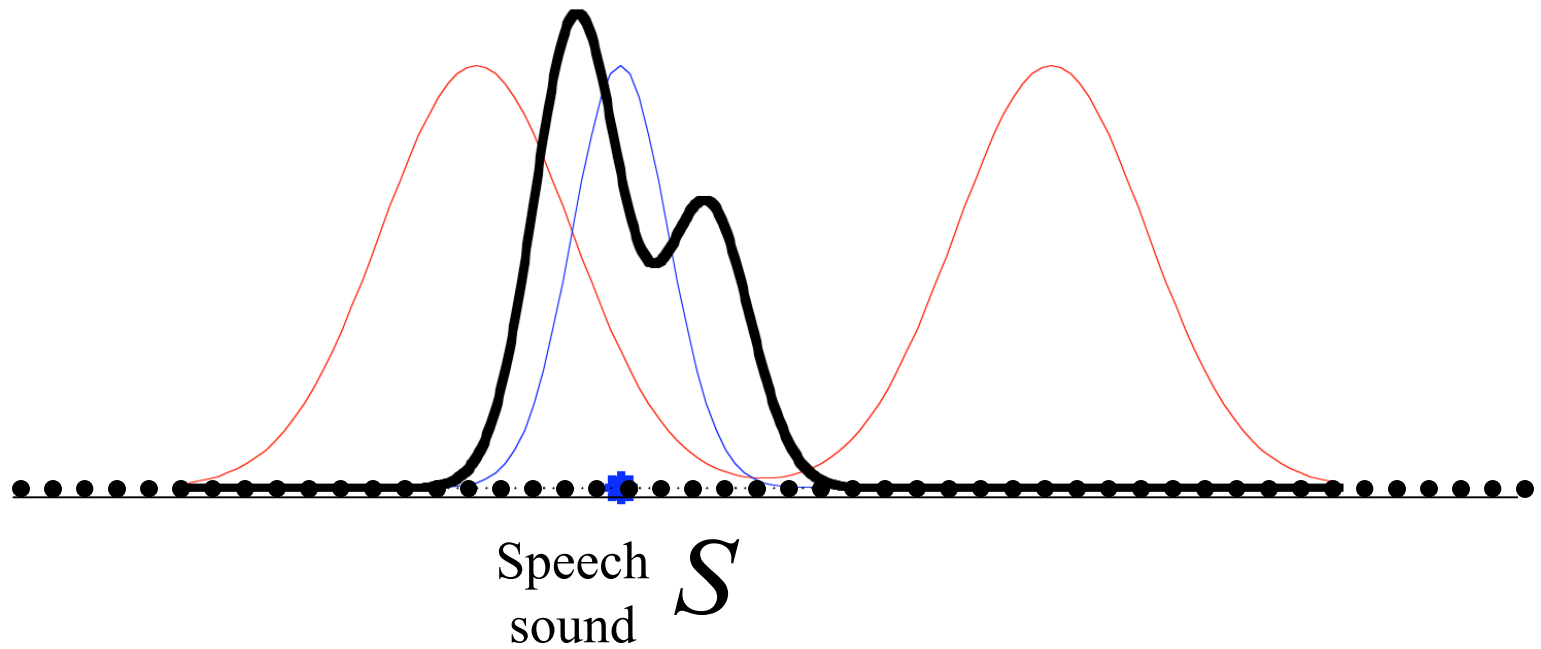
# Special-purpose computer programs

- Some models are best analyzed by implementing tailored numerical algorithms
- Bayesian inference for low-dimensional continuous hypothesis spaces (e.g. the perceptual magnet effect) can be approximated discretely



multiply  $p(d|h)$  and  $p(h)$  at each site  
normalize over vector

# Multiple phonetic categories

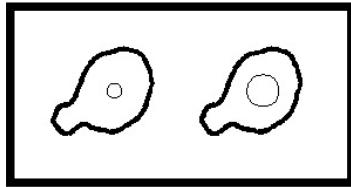


# Special-purpose computer programs

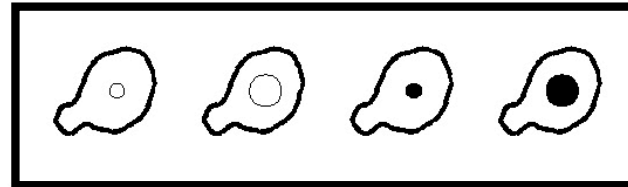
- Some models are best analyzed by implementing tailored numerical algorithms
- Bayesian inference for large discrete hypothesis spaces (e.g. concept learning) can be implemented efficiently using matrices

# Bayesian concept learning

**data**



**hypotheses**



What rule describes the species that these amoebae belong to?

# Concept learning experiments



data ( $d$ )



hypotheses ( $h$ )



# Bayesian model

(Tenenbaum, 1999; Tenenbaum & Griffiths, 2001)

$$P(h \mid d) = \frac{P(d \mid h)P(h)}{\sum_{h' \in H} P(d \mid h')P(h')}$$

$d$ : 2 amoebae

$h$ : set of 4 amoebae

$$P(d \mid h) = \begin{cases} 1/|h|^m & d \in h \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$m$ : # of amoebae in the set  $d$  (= 2)

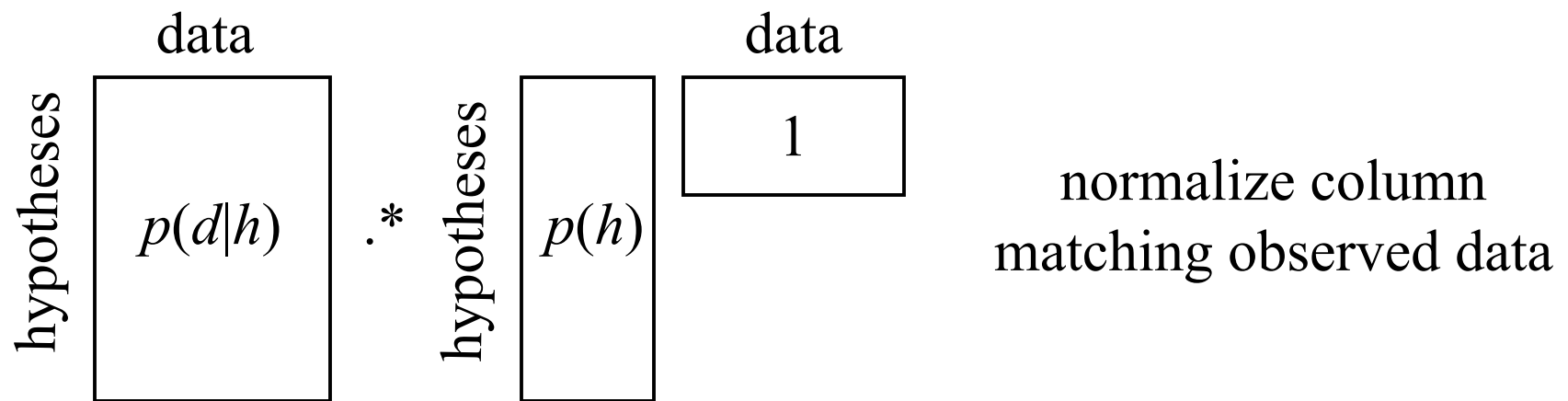
$|h|$ : # of amoebae in the set  $h$  (= 4)

$$P(h \mid d) = \frac{P(h)}{\sum_{h' \mid d \in h'} P(h')}$$

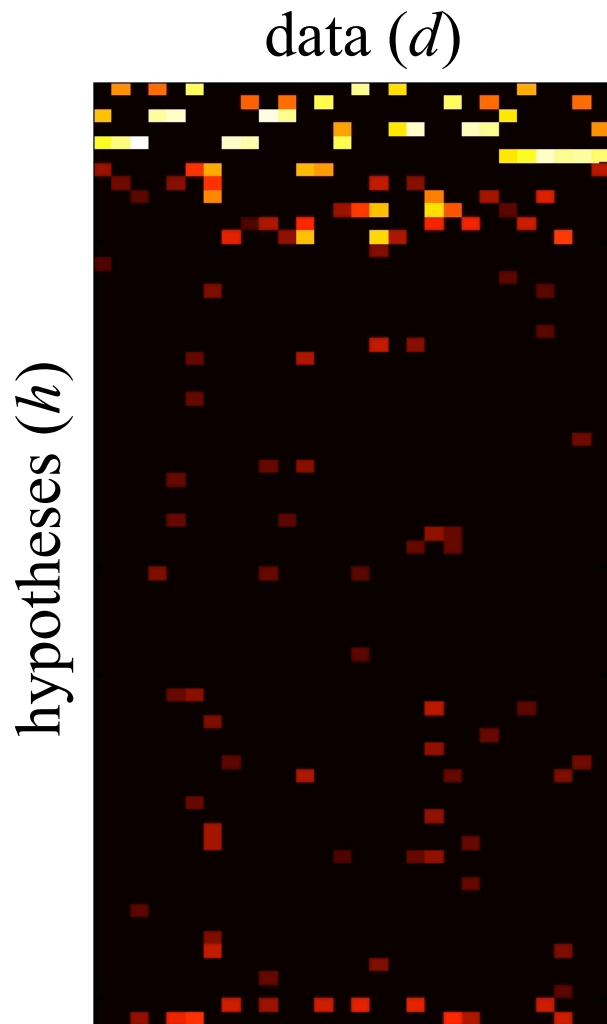
Posterior is renormalized prior

# Special-purpose computer programs

- Some models are best analyzed by implementing tailored numerical algorithms
- Bayesian inference for large discrete hypothesis spaces (e.g. concept learning) can be implemented efficiently using matrices

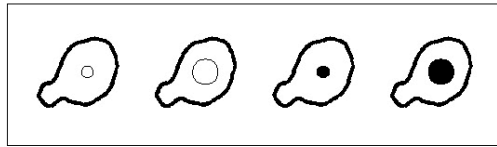
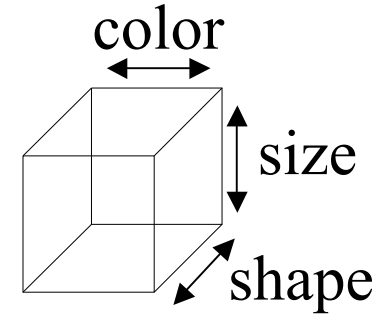


# Fitting the model

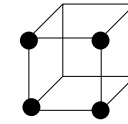


# Classes of concepts

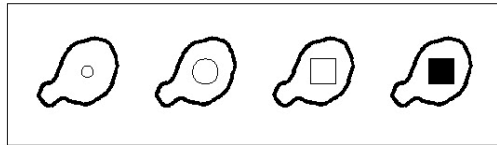
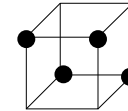
(Shepard, Hovland, & Jenkins, 1961)



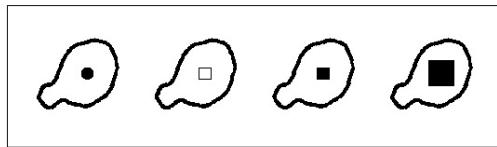
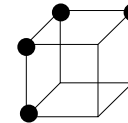
Class 1



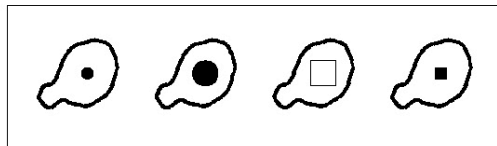
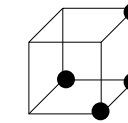
Class 2



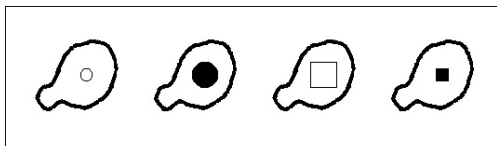
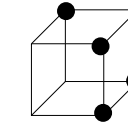
Class 3



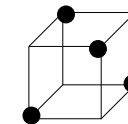
Class 4



Class 5

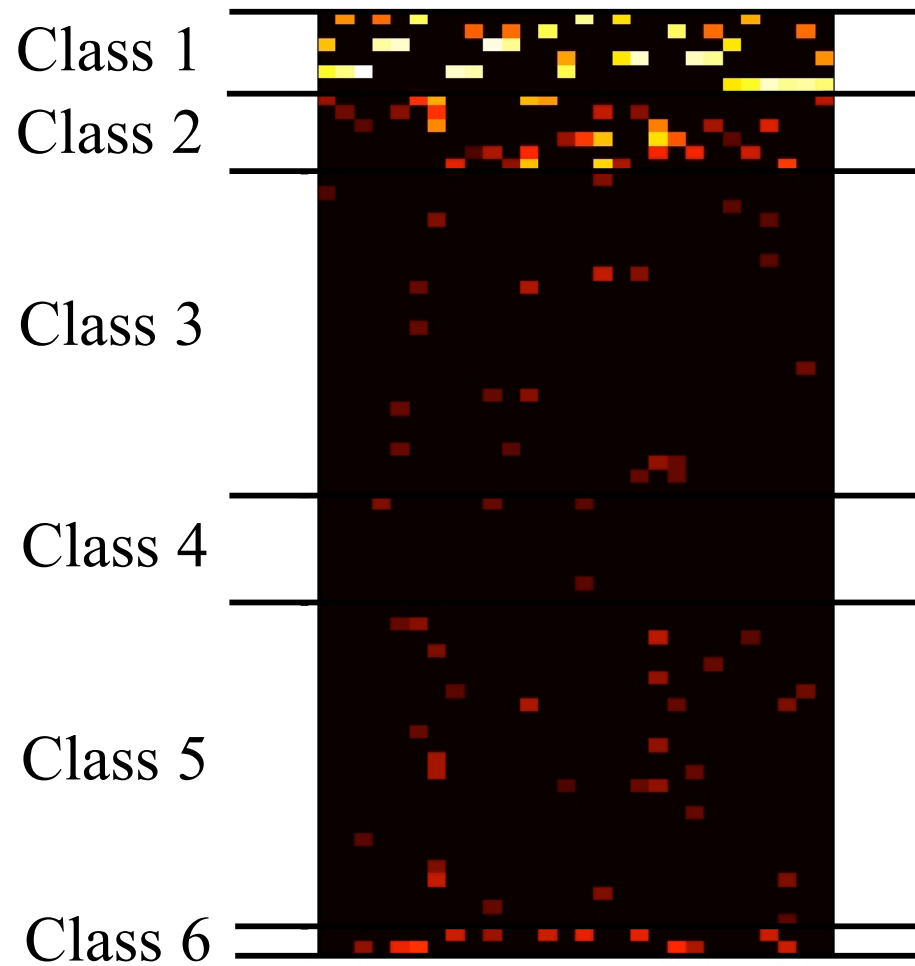


Class 6



# Fitting the model

Human subjects



# Special-purpose computer programs

- Some models are best analyzed by implementing tailored numerical algorithms
- Another option is Monte Carlo approximation...
- The expectation of  $f$  with respect to  $p$  can be approximated by

$$E_{p(x)}[f(x)] \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

where the  $x_i$  are sampled from  $p(x)$

# General-purpose computer programs

- A variety of software packages exist for performing Bayesian computations
  - Bayes Net Toolbox for Matlab
  - BUGS (Bayesian inference Using Gibbs Sampling)
  - GeNIe and SamIAM (graphical interfaces)
  - See the giant list at  
<http://www.cs.ubc.ca/~murphyk/Bayes/bnsoft.html>
- Most packages require using a graphical model representation (which isn't always easy)

# Six easy steps

**Step 1:** Find an interesting aspect of cognition

**Step 2:** Identify the underlying computational problem

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**Step 4:** Work out the optimal solution to that problem,  
given constraints

**Step 5:** See how well that solution corresponds to human  
behavior (do some experiments!)

**Step 6:** Iterate Steps 2-6 until it works

(Anderson, 1990)



# The perceptual magnet effect

Compare two-category model for categories /i/ and /e/ with data from Iverson and Kuhl's (1995) multidimensional scaling analysis

- compute expectation  $E[T|S]$  for each stimulus
- subtract expectations for neighboring stimuli

# Parameter estimation

- Assume equal prior probability for /i/ and /e/ (Tobias, 1959)
- Estimate  $\mu_{/i/}$  from goodness ratings (Iverson & Kuhl, 1995)
- Estimate  $\mu_{/e/}$  and the quantity  $(\sigma_c^2 + \sigma_s^2)$  from identification curves (Lotto, Kluender, & Holt, 1998)
- Find the best-fitting ratio of category variance  $\sigma_c^2$  to speech signal uncertainty  $\sigma_s^2$

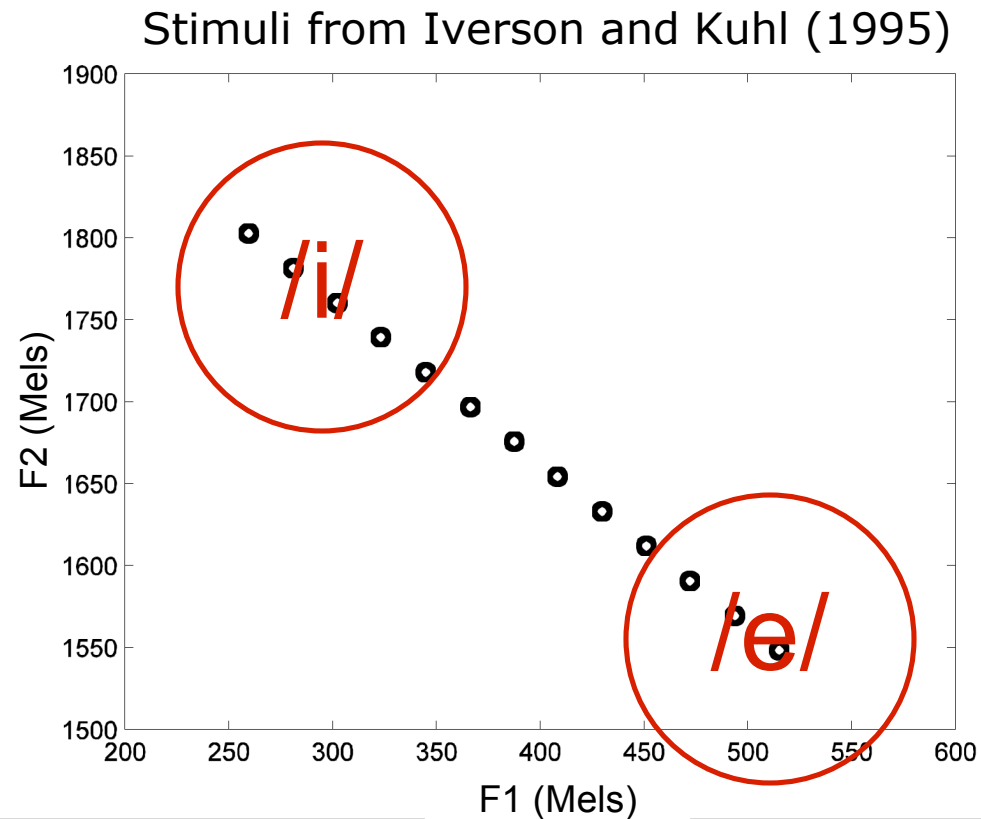
# Parameter values

$\mu_{/i/}$ :  $F1$ : 224 Hz  
 $F2$ : 2413 Hz

$\mu_{/e/}$ :  $F1$ : 423 Hz  
 $F2$ : 1936 Hz

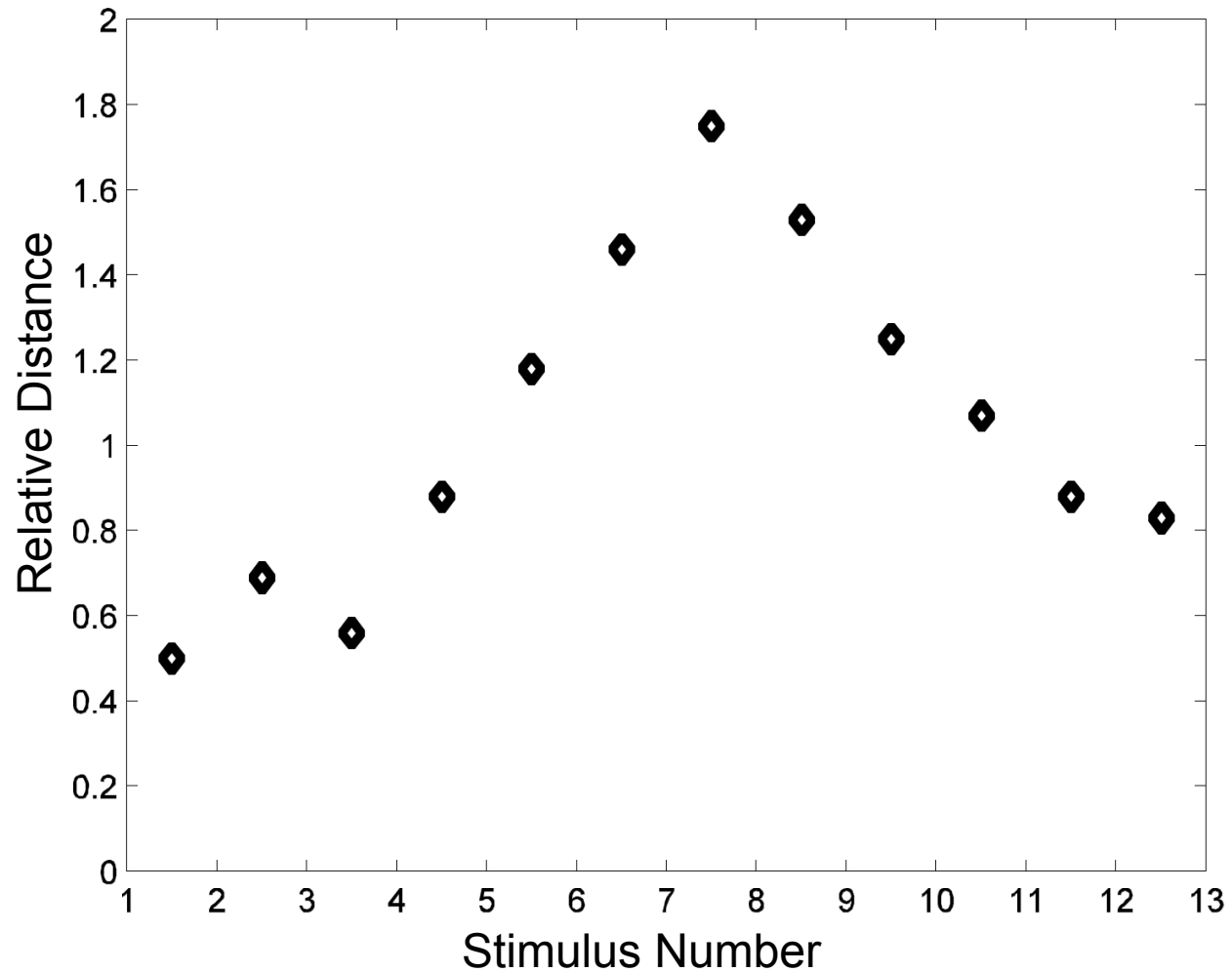
$\sigma_c$ : 77 mels

$\sigma_s$ : 67 mels



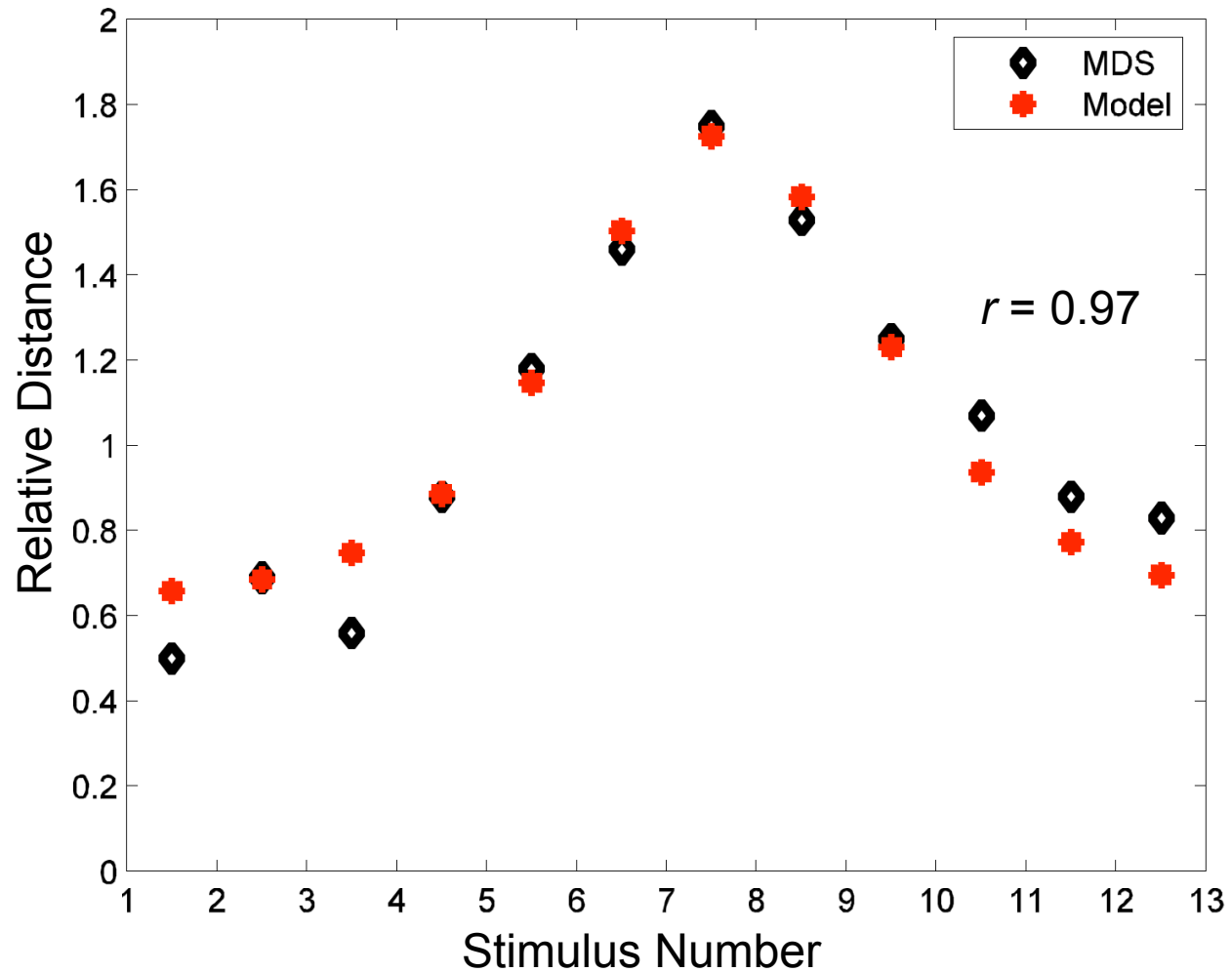
# Quantitative analysis

Relative Distances Between Neighboring Stimuli



# Quantitative analysis

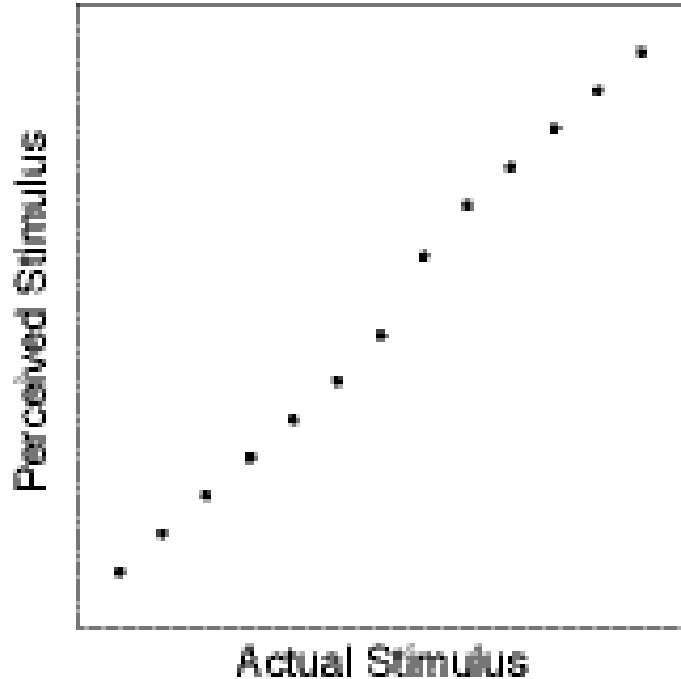
Relative Distances Between Neighboring Stimuli



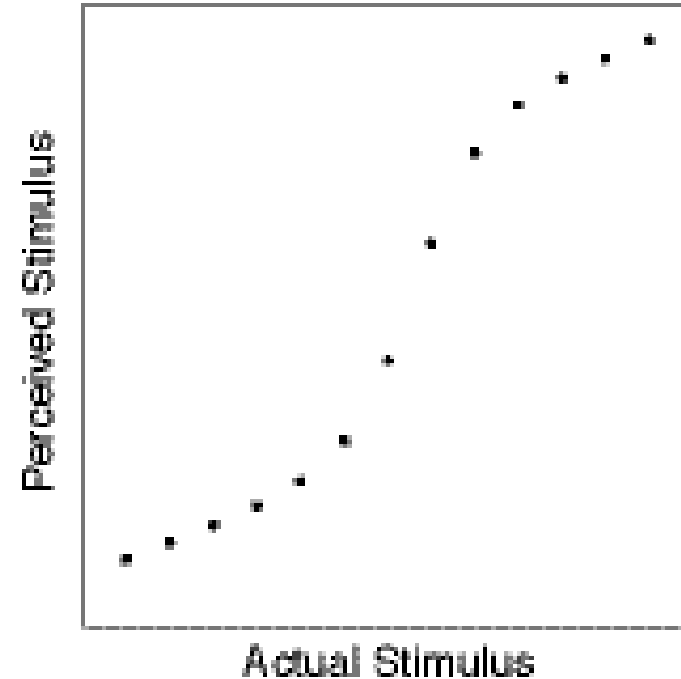
# Empirical predictions

Amount of warping depends on ratio of speech signal noise to category variance:

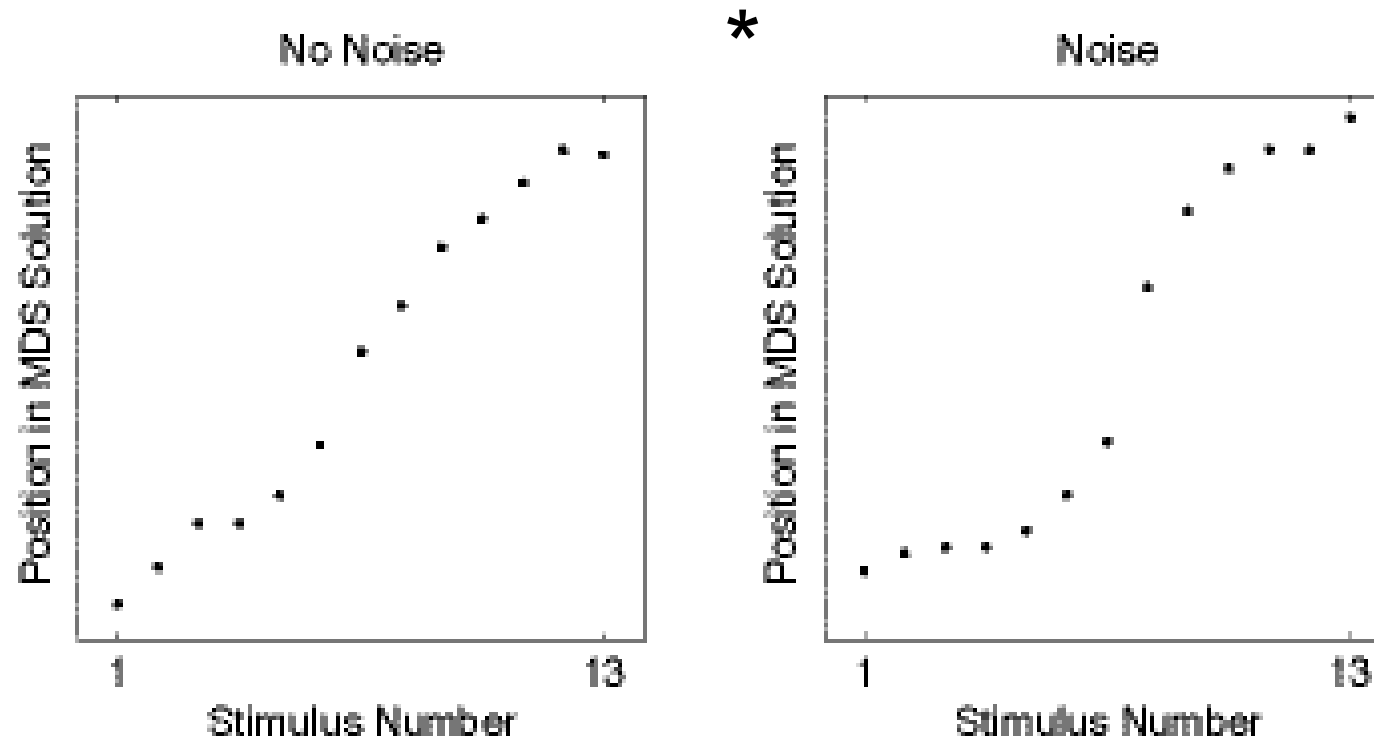
Low Noise Conditions



High Noise Conditions



# Results



$p < 0.05$  in a permutation test based on the log ratio of between/within category distances

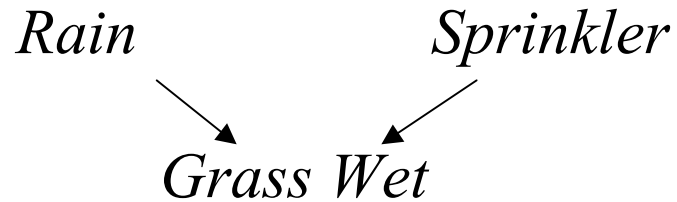
# Summary

- Bayesian models can be used to answer several questions at the computational level
- The key to defining a Bayesian model is thinking in terms of generative processes
  - graphical models illustrate these processes
  - Bayesian inference inverts these processes
- Depending on the question and the model, different tools can be useful in performing Bayesian inference (but it's usually easy for anything expressed as a graphical model)





# Explaining away

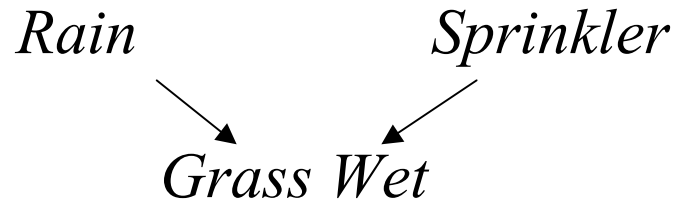


$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

Assume grass will be wet if and only if it rained last night, or if the sprinklers were left on:

$$\begin{aligned} P(W = w | S, R) &= 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ &= 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s. \end{aligned}$$

# Explaining away



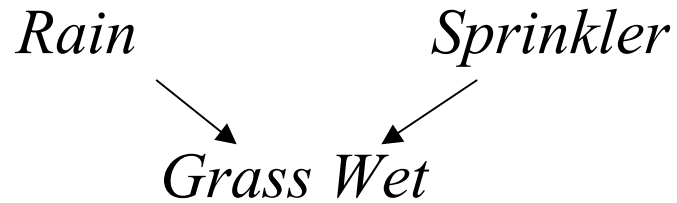
$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet:

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(w | r)P(r)}{P(w)}$$

# Explaining away



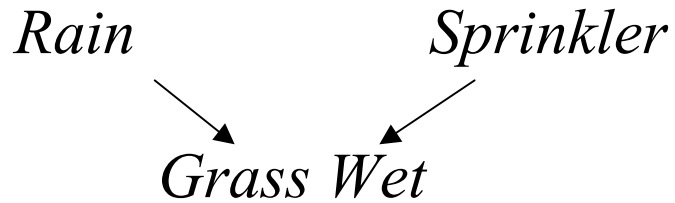
$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet:

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(w | r)P(r)}{\sum_{r', s'} P(w | r', s')P(r', s')}$$

# Explaining away



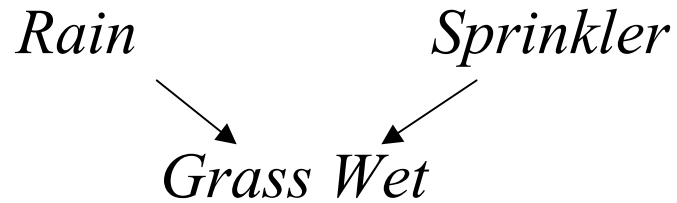
$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet:

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(r)}{P(r, s) + P(r, \neg s) + P(\neg r, s)}$$

# Explaining away



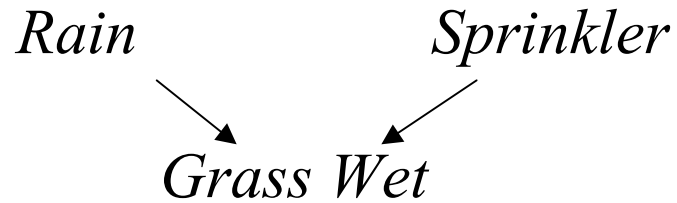
$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(W = w | S, R) &= 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ &= 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s. \end{aligned}$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet:

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(r)}{P(r) + P(\neg r, s)}$$

# Explaining away



$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

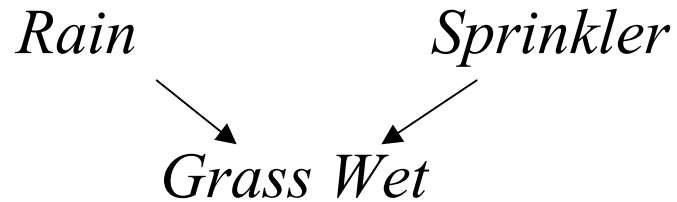
$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet:

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(r)}{\underbrace{P(r) + P(\neg r)P(s)}} > P(r)$$

Between 1 and  $P(s)$

# Explaining away



$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

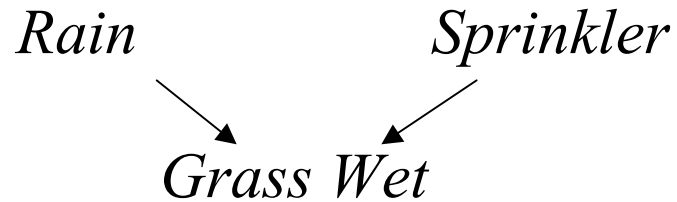
Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet **and** sprinklers were left on:

$$P(r | w, s) = \frac{P(w | r, s)P(r | s)}{P(w | s)}$$

**Both terms = 1**



# Explaining away



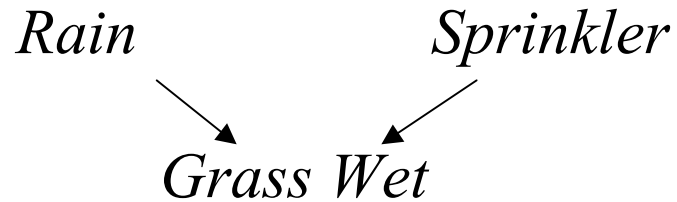
$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

Compute probability it rained last night, given that the grass is wet **and sprinklers were left on:**

$$P(r | w, s) = P(r | s) = P(r)$$

# Explaining away



$$P(R, S, W) = P(R)P(S)P(W | S, R)$$

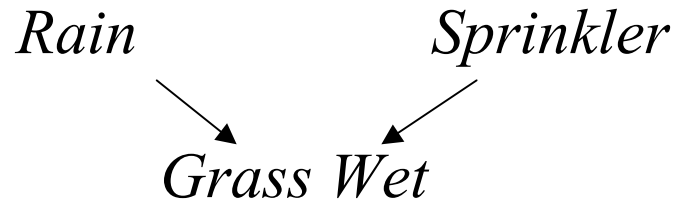
$$P(W = w | S, R) = 1 \text{ if } S = s \text{ or } R = r \\ = 0 \text{ if } R = \neg r \text{ and } S = \neg s.$$

$$P(r | w) = \frac{P(r)}{P(r) + P(\neg r)P(s)} > P(r)$$

$$P(r | w, s) = P(r | s) = P(r)$$

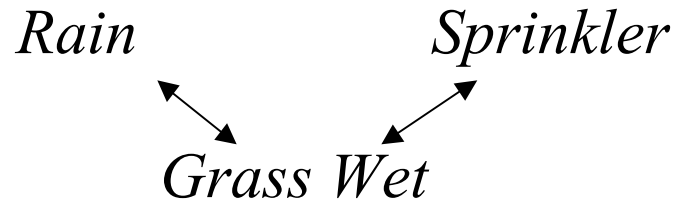
“Discounting” to  
prior probability.

# Contrast w/ production system



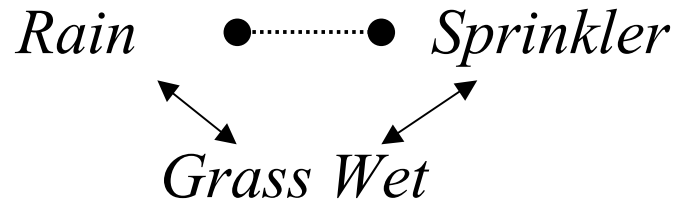
- Formulate IF-THEN rules:
  - IF *Rain* THEN *Wet*
  - ~~IF *Wet* THEN *Rain*~~ IF *Wet* AND NOT *Sprinkler*  
THEN *Rain*
- Rules do not distinguish directions of inference
- Requires combinatorial explosion of rules

# Contrast w/ spreading activation



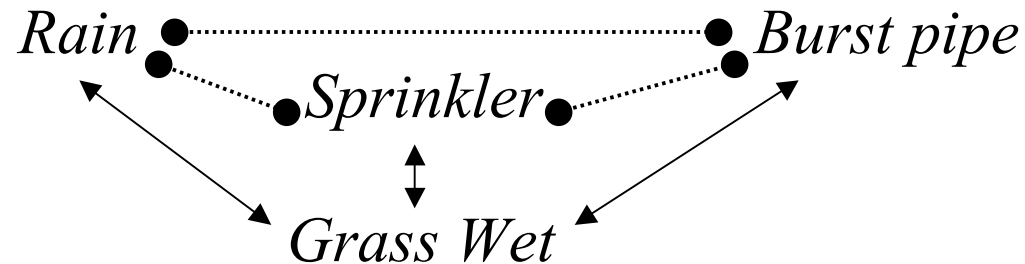
- Excitatory links: *Rain*  $\leftrightarrow$  *Wet*, *Sprinkler*  $\leftrightarrow$  *Wet*
- Observing rain, *Wet* becomes more active.
- Observing grass wet, *Rain* and *Sprinkler* become more active
- Observing grass wet and sprinkler, *Rain* cannot become less active. No explaining away!

# Contrast w/ spreading activation



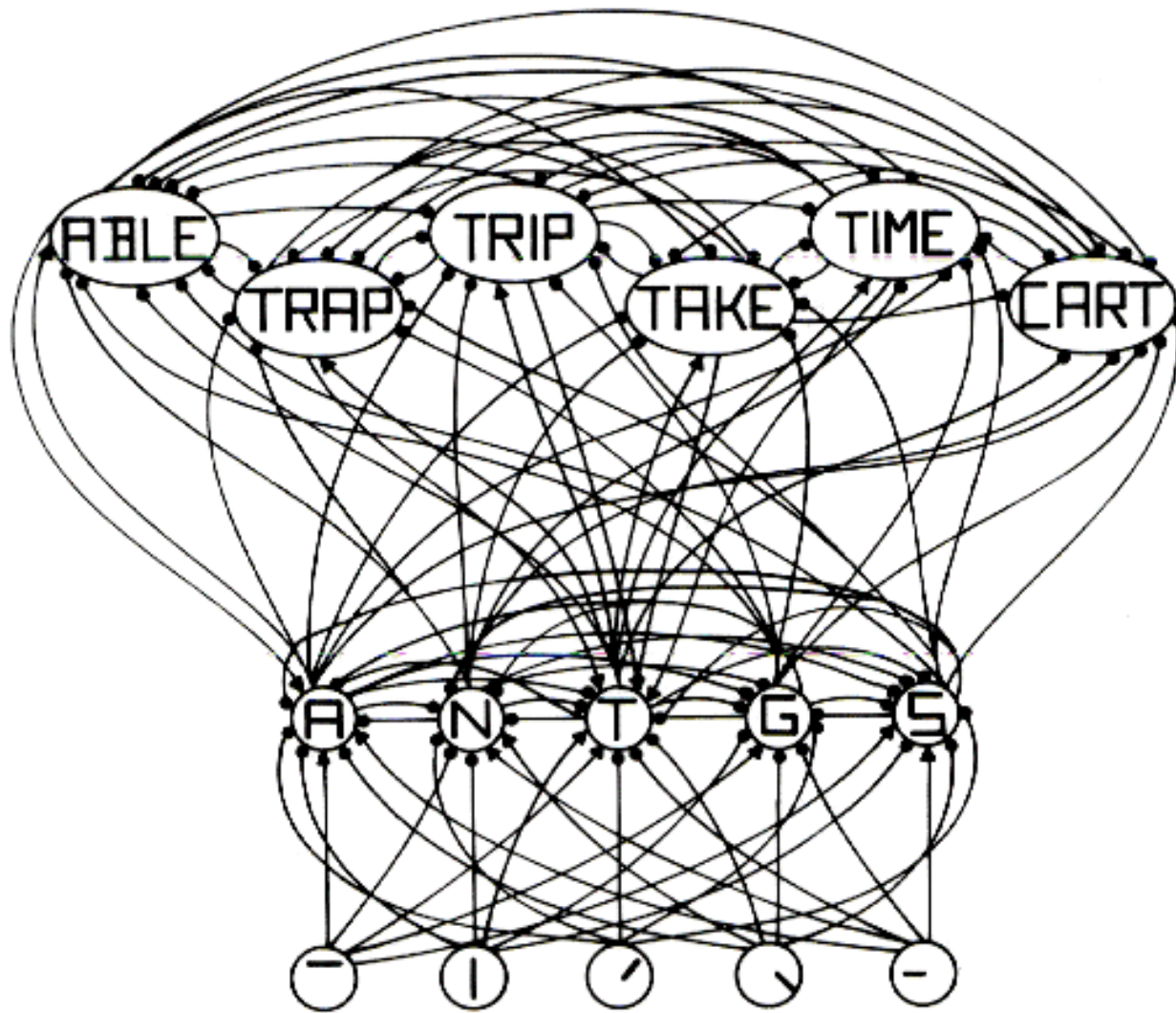
- Excitatory links: *Rain*  $\leftrightarrow$  *Wet*, *Sprinkler*  $\leftrightarrow$  *Wet*
- Inhibitory link: *Rain*  $\bullet$  *Sprinkler*
- Observing grass wet, *Rain* and *Sprinkler* become more active
- Observing grass wet and sprinkler, *Rain* becomes less active: explaining away

# Contrast w/ spreading activation



- Each new variable requires more inhibitory connections
- Not modular
  - whether a connection exists depends on what others exist
  - big holism problem
  - combinatorial explosion

# Contrast w/ spreading activation



(McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981)

