

# Gestalt psychology, Bayesian networks, and Bayesian model comparison

Lecture 5

# Done so far

- Population encoding and decoding
- Role of correlations in populations
- Perception as Bayesian inference; explaining visual illusions
- Cue combination: a simple Bayesian computation

# This lecture

- **Gestalt psychology:** cornerstone of higher-level vision in psychology: beyond sensory uncertainty
- **Bayesian models in practice:** how to compute probabilities when it gets hard; how to generate behavioral predictions
- **Bayesian model comparison:** how to show that model A is better than model B; Occam's razor

# Gestalt psychology

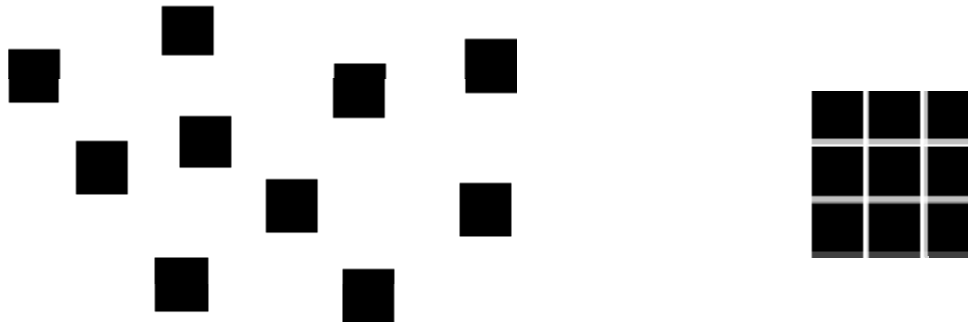
- Observers tend to order their experience in a manner that is regular, orderly, symmetric, and simple.
- “The whole is different than the some of its parts.”
- Gestalt psychologists attempt to discover refinements of this idea → Gestalt “laws of grouping”

# Law of closure



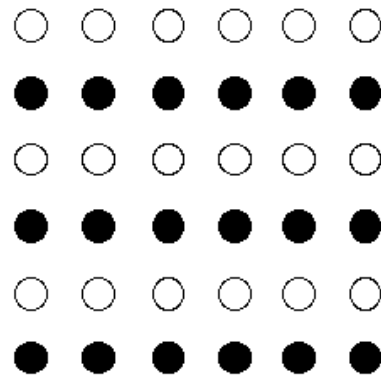
The mind tends to complete incomplete figures (that is, to increase regularity). We may experience elements that are not physically present.

# Law of proximity



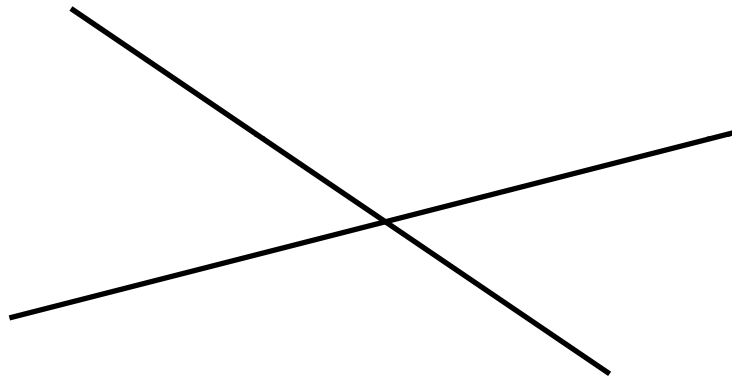
Spatial or temporal proximity of elements may induce the mind to perceive a collective entity.

# Law of similarity



The mind groups similar elements into collective entities. This similarity might depend on relationships of form, color, size, or brightness.

# Law of continuity



The mind continues visual, auditory, and kinetic patterns. When something is introduced as a series, the mind tends to perpetuate the series.



# Law of common fate

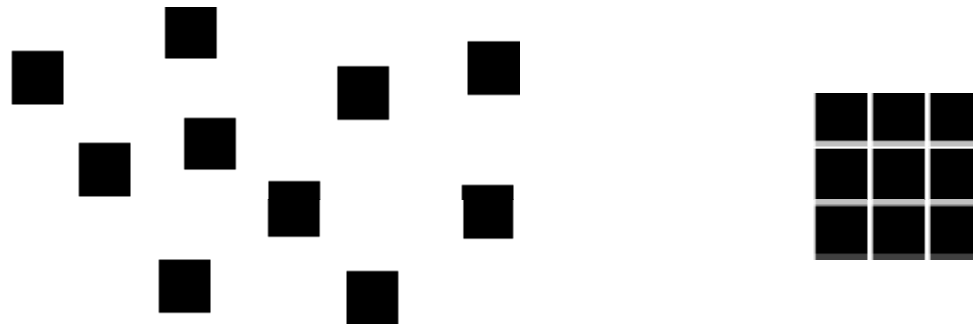


When element move in the same direction, we tend to see them as a collective entity.

# Criticisms

- “Vague and inadequate” – V. Bruce et al., 1996
- “Redundant and uninformative” – Wikipedia
- “Haphazard” – Trevor Holland, March 29, 2009
- Descriptive rather than explanatory

# Gestalt as Bayesian inference



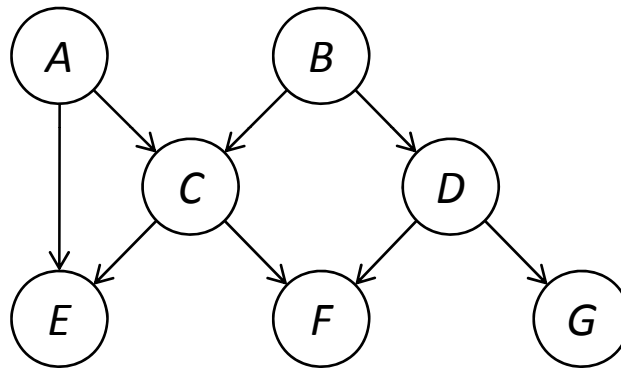
$$p(\text{single object} \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_9)$$

$$p(\text{independent objects} \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_9)$$

No sensory uncertainty, but uncertainty about higher-level structure

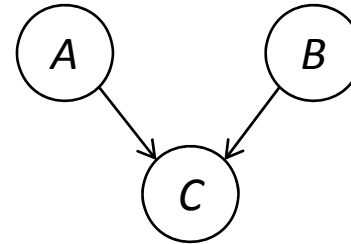
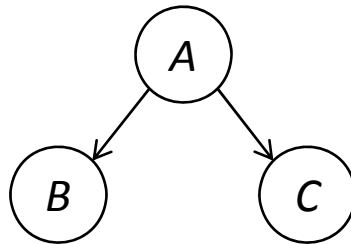
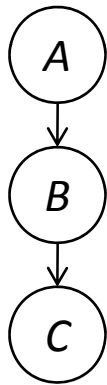
How to compute Bayesian probabilities when it gets hard

# Bayesian networks

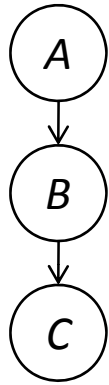


Exercise: Compute  $p(A | E, F)$  based on the conditional probabilities indicated in this Bayesian network.

# How to compute probabilities in practice



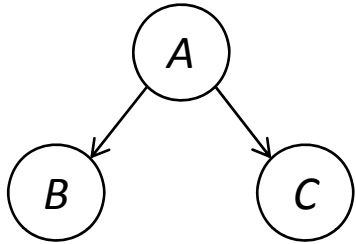
# Markov chain



$$p(A, B, C) = p(A) p(B | A) p(C | B)$$

$$p(A | C) = \frac{p(A, C)}{p(C)} = \frac{\sum_B p(A, B, C)}{\sum_{A, B} p(A, B, C)} = \frac{p(A) \sum_B p(B | A) p(C | B)}{\sum_{A, B} p(A) p(B | A) p(C | B)}$$

# Conditional independence



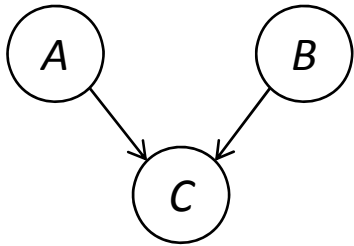
$$p(A, B, C) = p(A) p(B | A) p(C | A)$$

$$p(A | B, C) = \frac{p(A, B, C)}{p(B, C)} = \frac{p(A) p(B | A) p(C | A)}{\sum_A p(A) p(B | A) p(C | A)}$$

$$p(A | B) = \frac{\sum_C p(A, B, C)}{\sum_{A, C} p(A, B, C)} = \frac{p(A) p(B | A)}{\sum_A p(A) p(B | A)}$$



# Independent sources



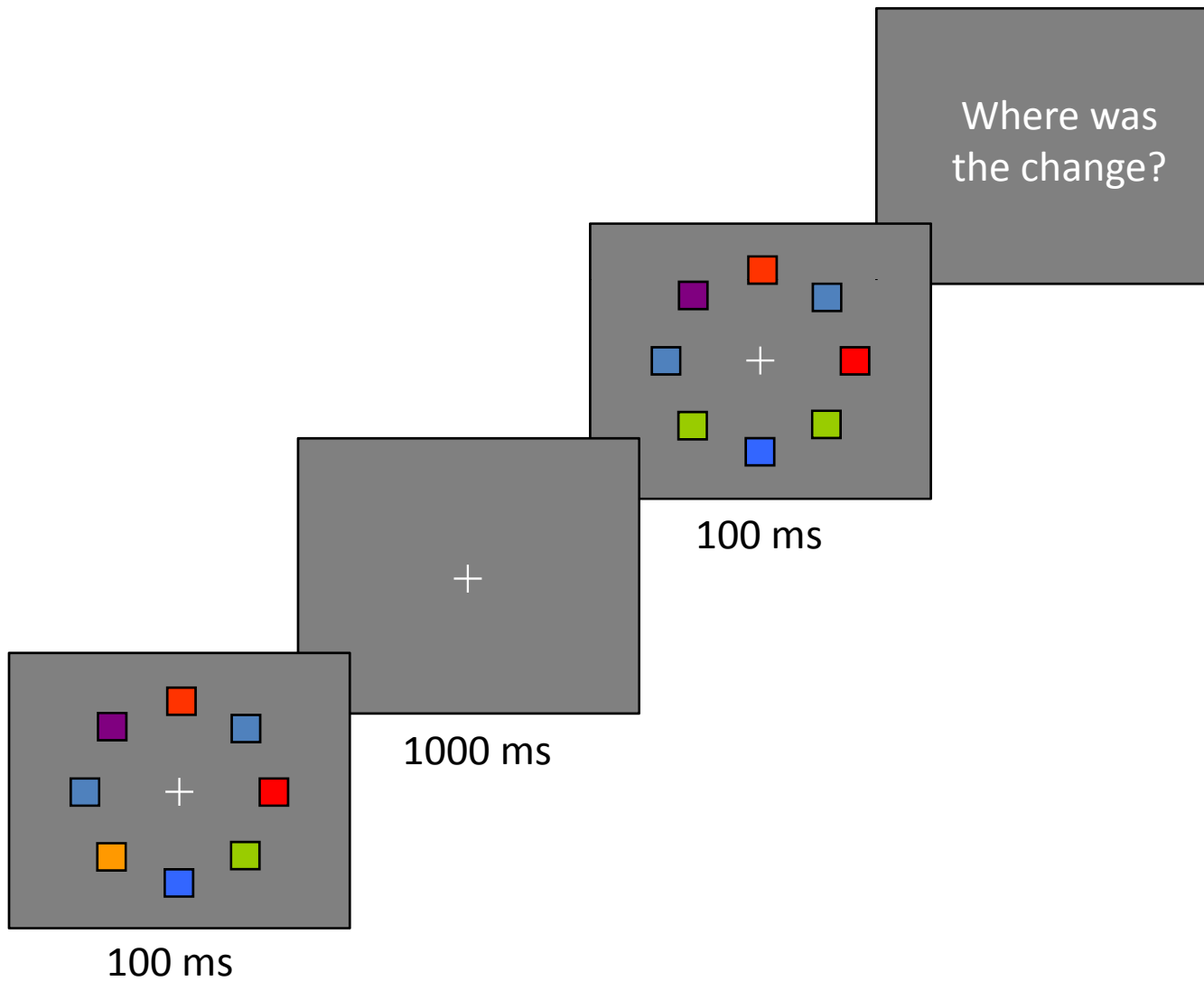
$$p(A, B, C) = p(A) p(B) p(C | A, B)$$

$$p(A | B, C) = \frac{p(A) p(B) p(C | A, B)}{\sum_A p(A) p(B) p(C | A, B)}$$

$$p(A | C) = \frac{p(A) \sum_B p(B) p(C | A, B)}{\sum_{A, B} p(A) p(B) p(C | A, B)}$$

How to predict behavioral data?

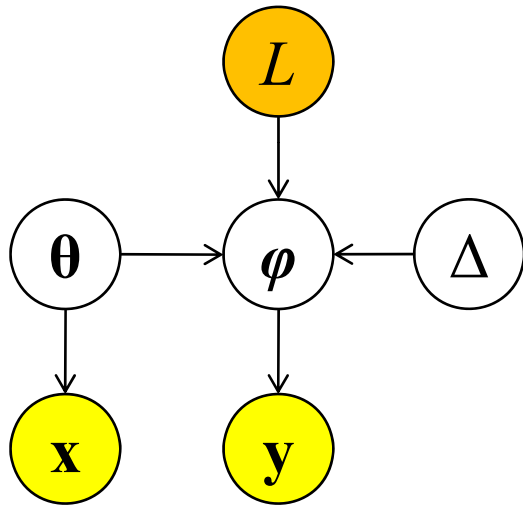
# Example: change localization



# Step 1: What are the parameters?

- Number of items  $N$  (assumed known)
- Where did the change occur?  $L = 1, \dots, N$
- How big was the change?  $\Delta$
- What were the original features?  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_N$
- What were the new features?  $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N$
- Internal representations of original features:  
 $x_1, \dots, x_N$
- Internal representations of new features:  $y_1, \dots, y_N$

## Step 2: Draw generative model, write down prior and conditional probabilities



$$p(L) = \frac{1}{N}$$

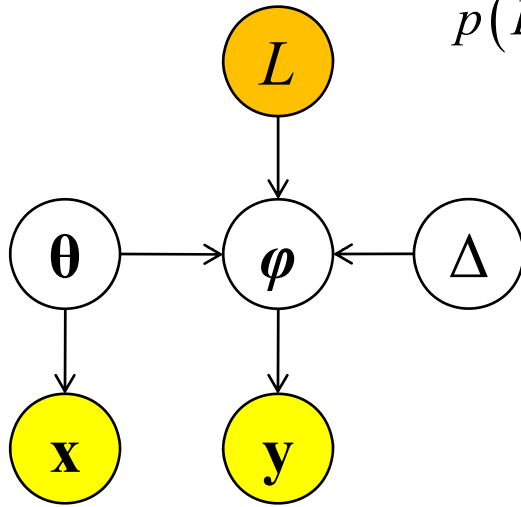
$$p(\theta_i) = p(\Delta) = \text{constant}$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\phi} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, L, \Delta) = \delta(\boldsymbol{\phi} - \boldsymbol{\theta} - \Delta \mathbf{1}_L)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(x_i | \theta_i) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{x,i}^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \theta_i)^2}{2\sigma_{x,i}^2}}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y_i | \phi_i) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{y,i}^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - \phi_i)^2}{2\sigma_{y,i}^2}}$$

# Step 3: Compute the posterior over the task variable using probability calculus



$$p(L, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}) = p(L) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\Delta) p(\boldsymbol{\varphi} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, L, \Delta) p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\varphi})$$

$$p(L | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \propto p(L, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \int \int \int p(L, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\varphi}) d\Delta d\boldsymbol{\theta} d\boldsymbol{\varphi}$$

$$= \int \int \int p(L) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\Delta) p(\boldsymbol{\varphi} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, L, \Delta) p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\varphi}) d\Delta d\boldsymbol{\theta} d\boldsymbol{\varphi}$$

$$\propto \int \left( \int p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \left( \int p(\boldsymbol{\varphi} | \boldsymbol{\theta}, L, \Delta) p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\varphi}) d\boldsymbol{\varphi} \right) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \right) d\Delta$$

$$= \int \left( \int p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \left( \int \delta(\boldsymbol{\varphi} - \boldsymbol{\theta} - \Delta \mathbf{1}_L) p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\varphi}) d\boldsymbol{\varphi} \right) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \right) d\Delta$$

$$= \int \left( \int p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\varphi} = \boldsymbol{\theta} + \Delta \mathbf{1}_L) d\boldsymbol{\theta} \right) d\Delta$$

$$= \int \left( \prod_{i=1}^N \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{x,i}^2}} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \theta_i)^2}{2\sigma_{x,i}^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_{y,i}^2}} e^{-\frac{(y_i - \theta_i - \Delta \mathbf{1}_{L,i})^2}{2\sigma_{y,i}^2}} d\theta_i \right) d\Delta$$

$$= \dots \propto \sqrt{2\pi(\sigma_{x,L}^2 + \sigma_{y,L}^2)} e^{-\frac{(x_L - y_L)^2}{2(\sigma_{x,L}^2 + \sigma_{y,L}^2)}}$$

## Step 4: Pick a decoder (e.g. MAP)

$$\hat{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{argmax}_L \sqrt{\sigma_{x,L}^2 + \sigma_{y,L}^2} e^{-\frac{(x_L - y_L)^2}{2(\sigma_{x,L}^2 + \sigma_{y,L}^2)}}$$

## Step 5: Monte Carlo simulation

Draw many sets of  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}$  (trials) from generative model but with priors given by experiment, in each experimental condition separately.

Compute  $\hat{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  on each trial.

→ Histograms  $p(\hat{L} \mid \text{experimental condition})$

# How to compare models to data?

What makes model A better than model B?

- If it describes the data better...
- What do we mean by “describing better”?
- Lower error, higher goodness-of-fit...
- What is the right error or goodness-of-fit measure to use?
- Look up in statistics book / pull out of hat (t-test,  $R^2$ ,  $\chi^2$ , SSE, ...)



# Maximum-likelihood fitting

- Data  $D$
- Model  $M$

$$p(M | D) \propto \underbrace{p(D | M)}_{\text{Model likelihood}} \underbrace{p(M)}_{\text{Flat model prior}}$$

Model likelihood   Flat model prior

- Find model with highest likelihood

$$\operatorname{argmax}_M p(D | M)$$

# Maximum-likelihood fitting

- Model parameters  $\theta$
- Find parameters that work best for given model

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(D | M, \theta)$$

$$p(D | M) = p(D | M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})$$

- Repeat for all candidate models

# Example: linear regression

- Data:  $D = (X, Y)$
- Model  $M$ :  
 $y = ax + b +$  Gaussian noise with fixed variance

$$\begin{aligned} p(D | M, \theta) &= p(X, Y | a, b, \sigma) \\ &= p(Y | X, a, b, \sigma) p(X) \\ &= p(X) \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(Y_i - aX_i - b)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$(\hat{a}, \hat{b}) = \operatorname{argmin}_{a, b} \sum_i (Y_i - aX_i - b)^2$$

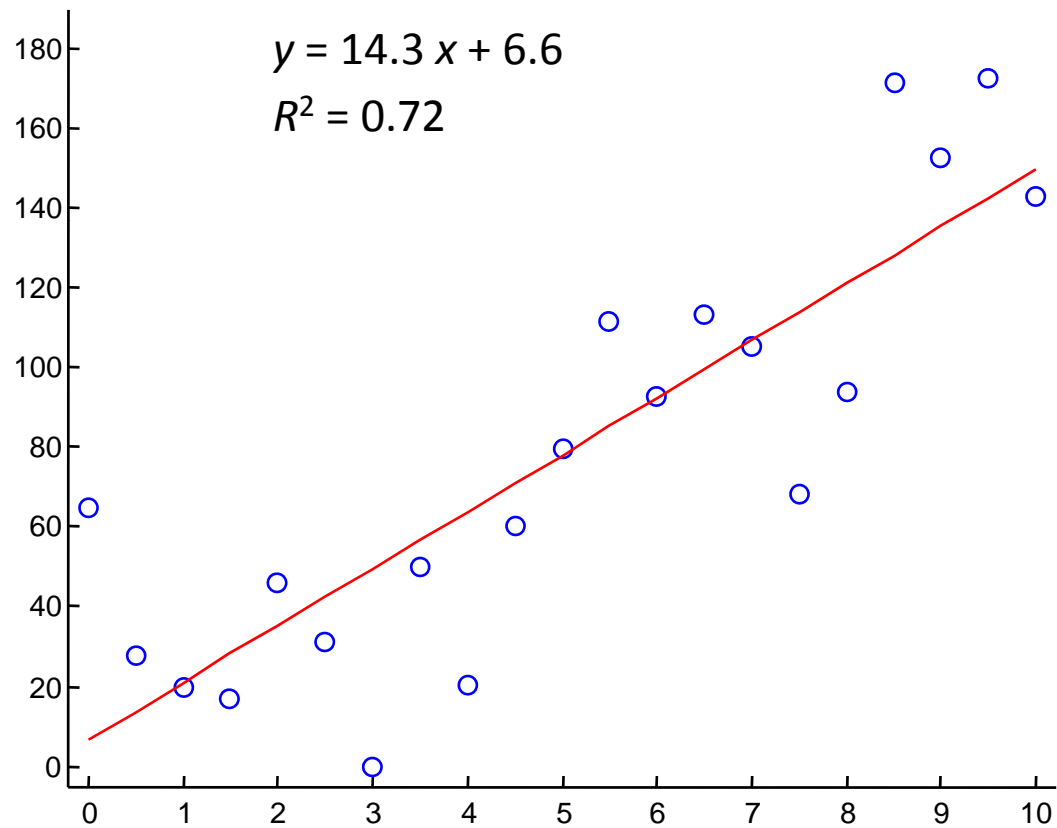
# Example: probability distributions

- Data: histogram  $(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_B)$
- Model  $M$ :  $n_i$  drawn from multinomial with probabilities  $p_i(\theta)$

$$\begin{aligned} p(D | M, \theta) &= p(\mathbf{n} | \mathbf{p}(\theta)) \\ &= \frac{(n_1 + \dots + n_B)!}{n_1! \dots n_B!} p_1(\theta)^{n_1} \dots p_B(\theta)^{n_B} \end{aligned}$$

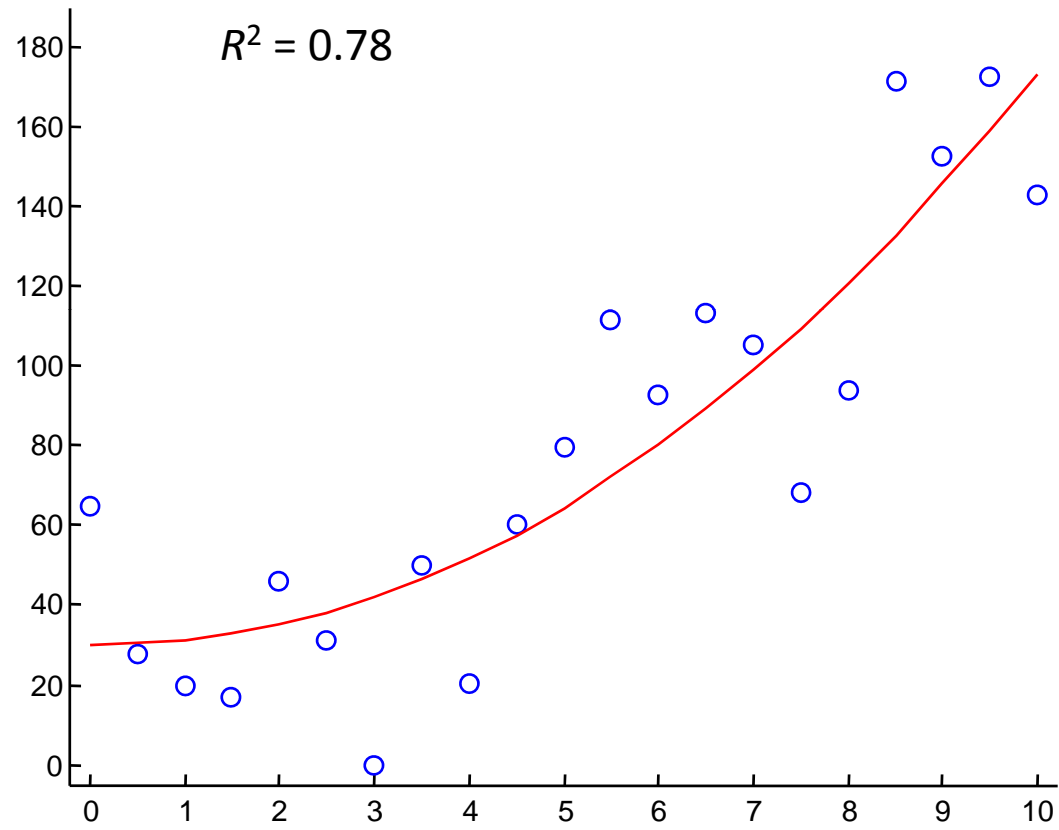
$$\log p(D | M, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^B n_i \log p_i(\theta) + \text{constant}$$

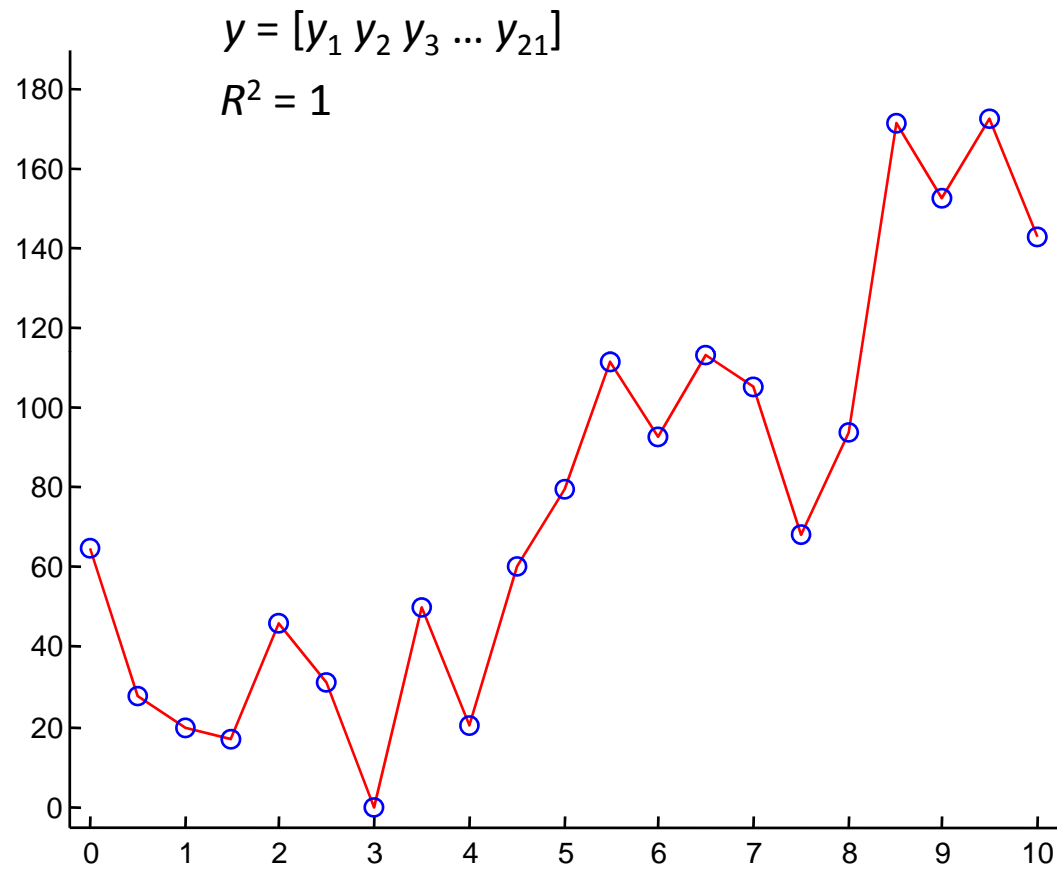
# Is a better fit always better?



$$y = 1.49x^2 - 0.65x + 30.3$$

$$R^2 = 0.78$$





Why is this not a good model?

# Occam's razor (parsimony)

- “Simpler models are better”
- Simpler: fewer assumptions, fewer parameters
- But not a rigorous formulation
- Can only decide between two models that fit the data equally well
- Balance between complexity and power

→ Bayesian model comparison



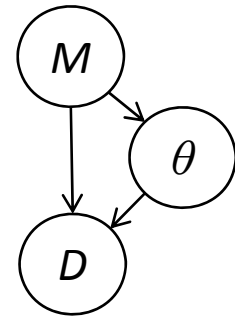
# Bayesian model comparison

~~$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(D|M, \theta)$$~~

~~$$p(D|M) = p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})$$~~

$$p(\theta|D, M) \propto p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M)$$

$$p(D|M) = \int p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$



goodness of fit averaged over all possible parameter combinations

# How does this help?

Assume  $p(\theta | M)$  is flat

$$p(\theta | M) = \frac{1}{\text{Volume of parameter space}}$$

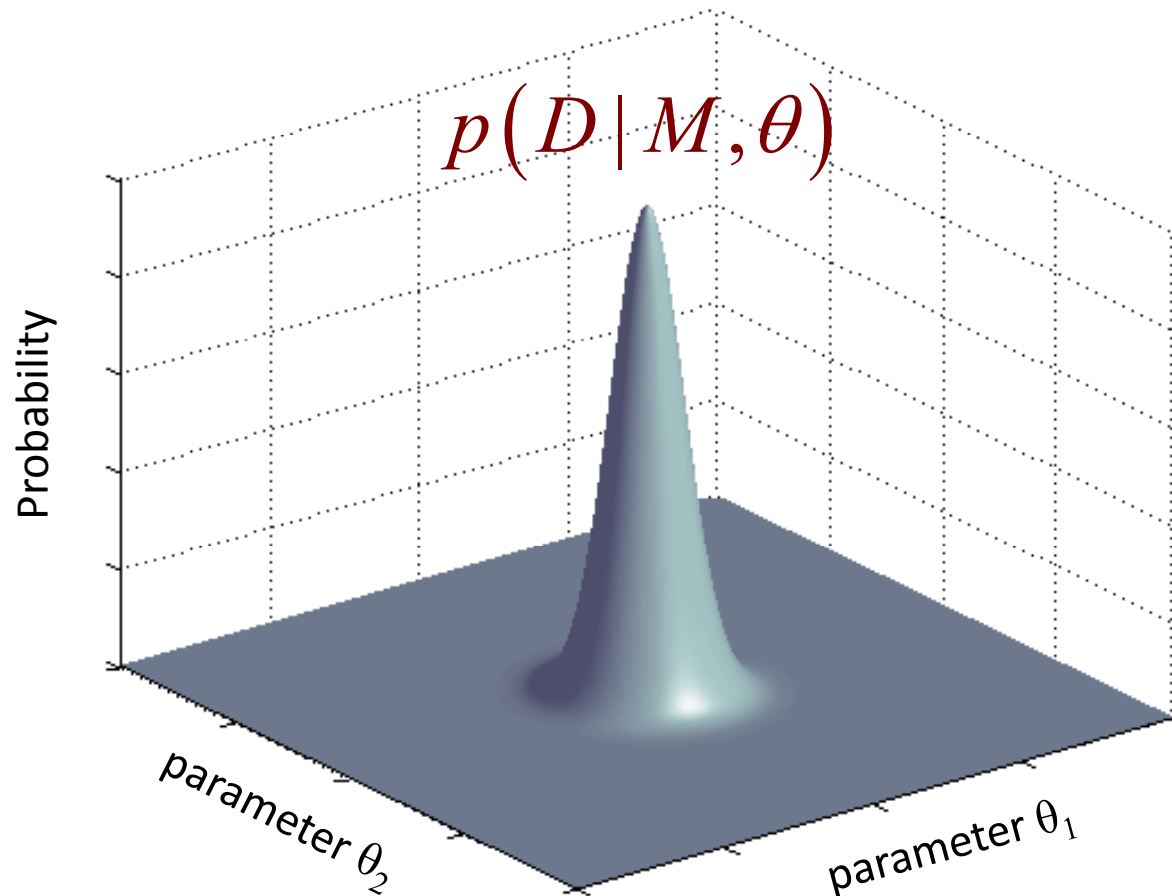
$$p(\theta | D, M) \propto p(D | M, \theta)$$

$$p(D | M) = \frac{1}{\text{Volume of parameter space}} \int p(D | M, \theta) d\theta$$



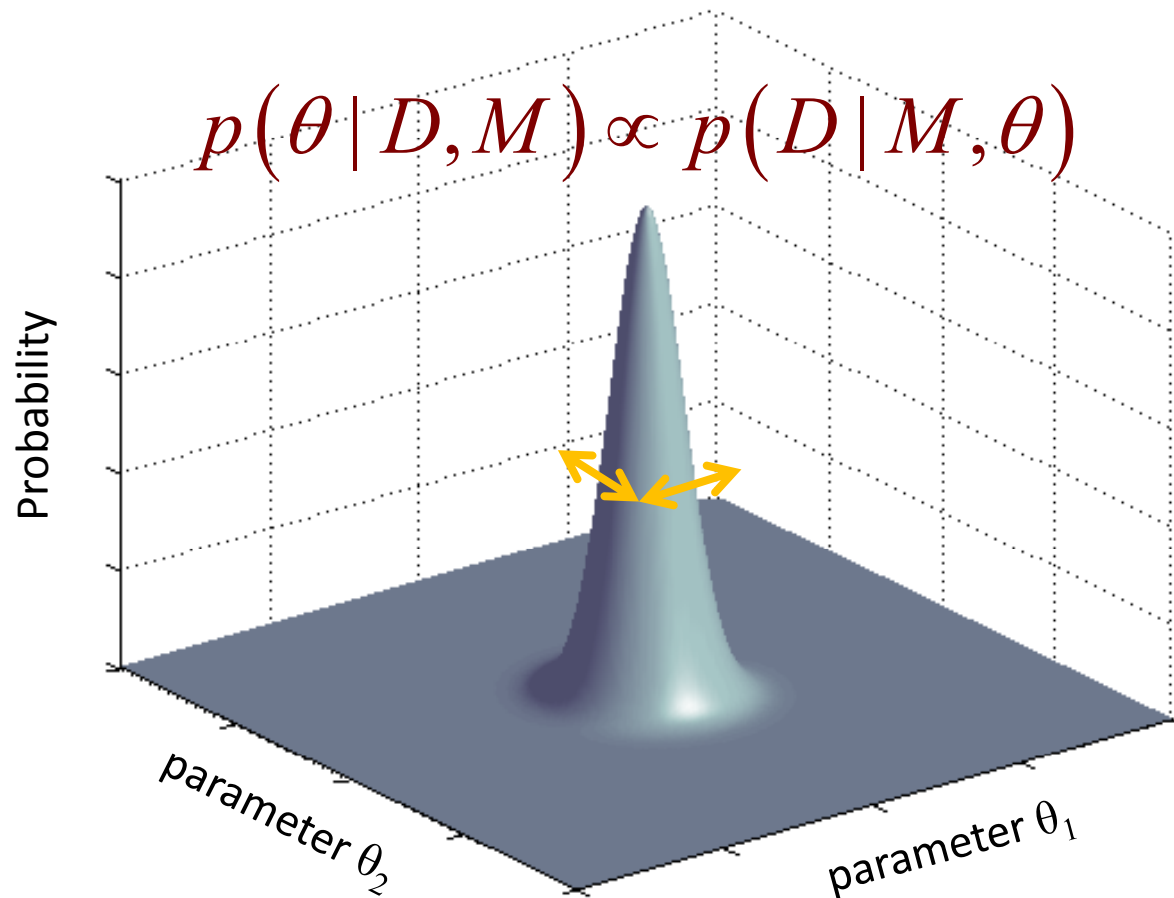
Many parameters  $\rightarrow$  large volume

# Likelihood landscape



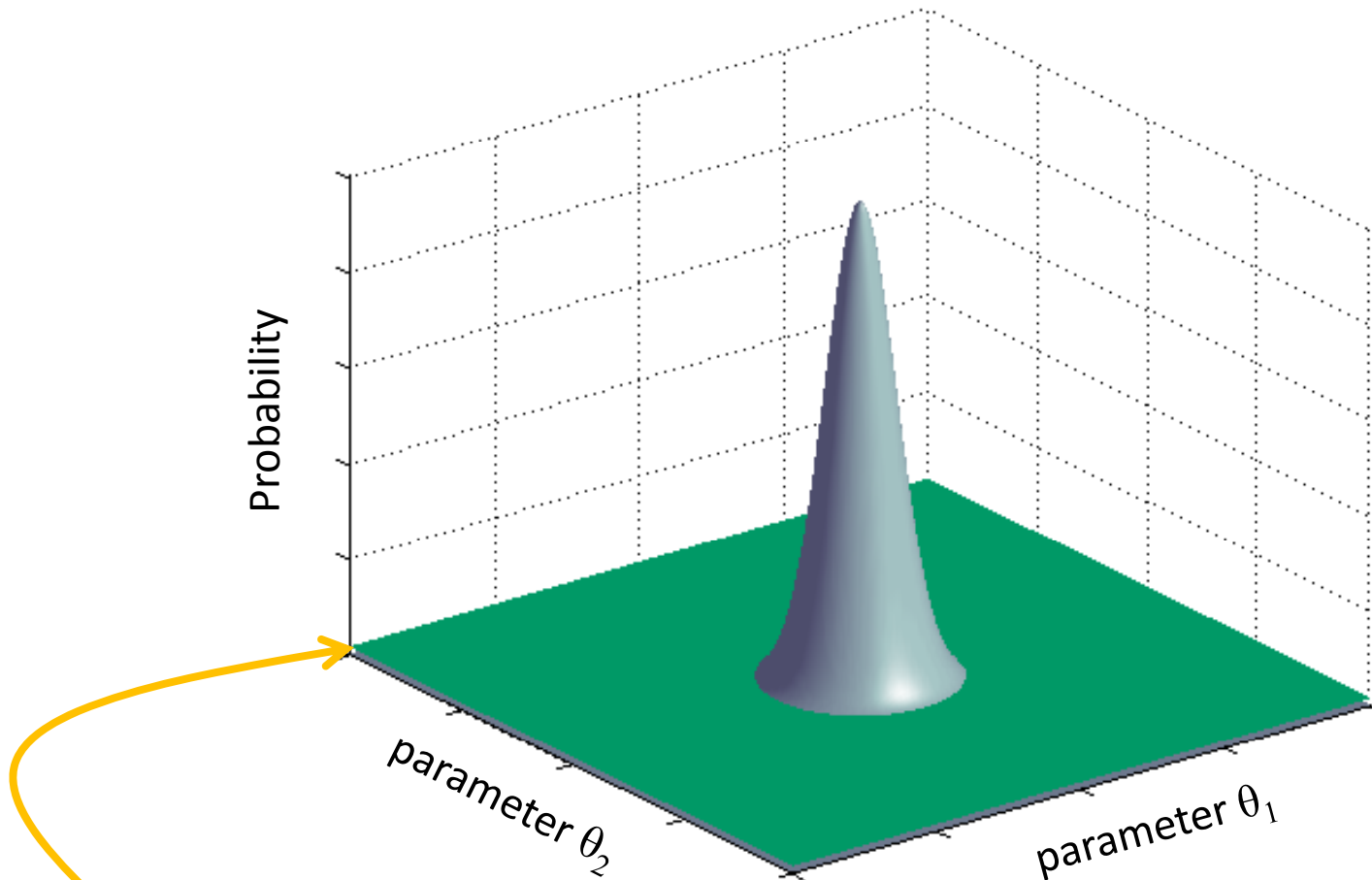
$p(D|M,\theta)$  is high if the data are fit well *compared to other possible data*

# Normalized



Error bars on parameters

# Unnormalized but averaged



$$p(D|M) = \int p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

# Bayesian model comparison

$$p(D|M) = \int p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

- Penalizes poorly fitting models ( $p(D|M, \theta)$  low overall)
- Penalizes non-specific models (peak of  $p(D|M, \theta)$  is low, since it is normalized over  $D$ )
- Penalizes models that have to be finely tuned (width of  $p(D|M, \theta)$  is low)
- Penalizes models with many parameters (low  $p(\theta|M)$ )
- Penalizes models with poor choice of prior range of parameters ( $p(\theta|M)$  doesn't overlap with  $p(D|M, \theta)$ )

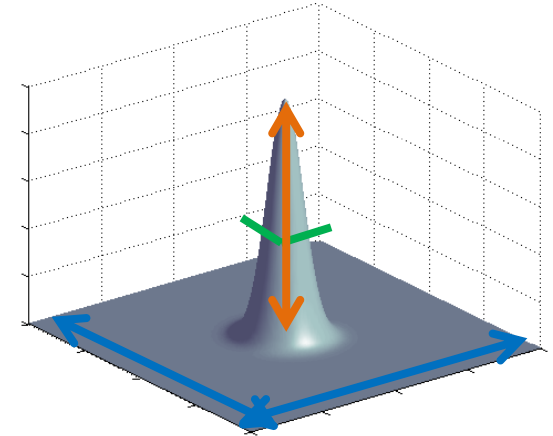
# How to compute the integral?

$$p(D|M) = \int p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

- Sum over all possible parameter combinations?
- Say 4 parameters, each parameter takes 50 values, each model simulation takes 10 ms → 17 hours
- Approximation would be useful!

# Approximating it..

- Peak of  $p(D|M, \theta)$  is  $p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}})$
- Width of  $p(D|M, \theta)$  is  $\sigma_{\theta|D}$
- Width of  $p(\theta|M)$  is  $\sigma_{\theta}$



Then

$$p(D|M) = \int p(D|M, \theta) p(\theta|M) d\theta$$

$$\approx p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}) p(\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}|M) \sigma_{\theta|D}$$

$$\approx p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}) \frac{\sigma_{\theta|D}}{\sigma_{\theta}}$$

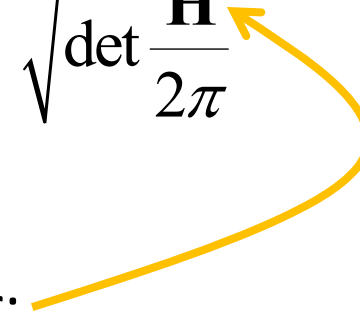
Compare

$$p(D|M) = p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}})$$

Occam factor



# Laplace approximation

$$p(D|M) \approx p(D|M, \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}) p(\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}|M) \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det \frac{\mathbf{H}}{2\pi}}}$$


Hessian of the -log posterior:

$$\mathbf{H} = -\nabla\nabla \log p(\theta|D, M) \Big|_{\theta=\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}}$$

## Exercises:

- Prove this.
- What is  $\mathbf{H}$  when the posterior is a multivariate Gaussian centered at  $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}}$  ?

# Goodness of a model

$$p(M | D) \propto p(D | M) p(M)$$

$$p(D | M) = \int p(D | M, \theta) p(\theta | M) d\theta$$

Relative goodness of two models:

$$\log \frac{p(D | M_1) p(M_1)}{p(D | M_2) p(M_2)} = \log \frac{p(M_1)}{p(M_2)} + \log \frac{\int p(D | M_1, \theta) p(\theta | M_1) d\theta}{\int p(D | M_2, \theta) p(\theta | M_2) d\theta}$$

# Exercises

Exercise 28.1.<sup>[3]</sup> Random variables  $x$  come independently from a probability distribution  $P(x)$ . According to model  $\mathcal{H}_0$ ,  $P(x)$  is a uniform distribution

$$P(x | \mathcal{H}_0) = \frac{1}{2} \quad x \in (-1, 1). \quad (28.20)$$

According to model  $\mathcal{H}_1$ ,  $P(x)$  is a nonuniform distribution with an unknown parameter  $m \in (-1, 1)$ :

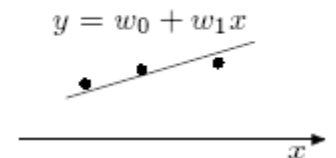
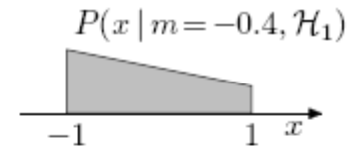
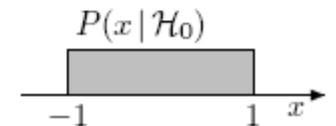
$$P(x | m, \mathcal{H}_1) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + mx) \quad x \in (-1, 1). \quad (28.21)$$

Given the data  $D = \{0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9\}$ , what is the evidence for  $\mathcal{H}_0$  and  $\mathcal{H}_1$ ?

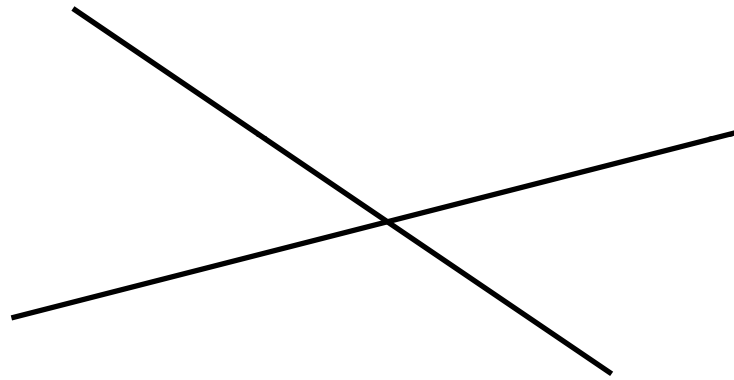
Exercise 28.2.<sup>[3]</sup> Datapoints  $(x, t)$  are believed to come from a straight line. The experimenter chooses  $x$ , and  $t$  is Gaussian-distributed about

$$y = w_0 + w_1 x \quad (28.22)$$

with variance  $\sigma_v^2$ . According to model  $\mathcal{H}_1$ , the straight line is horizontal, so  $w_1 = 0$ . According to model  $\mathcal{H}_2$ ,  $w_1$  is a parameter with prior distribution Normal(0, 1). Both models assign a prior distribution Normal(0, 1) to  $w_0$ . Given the data set  $D = \{(-8, 8), (-2, 10), (6, 11)\}$ , and assuming the noise level is  $\sigma_v = 1$ , what is the evidence for each model?



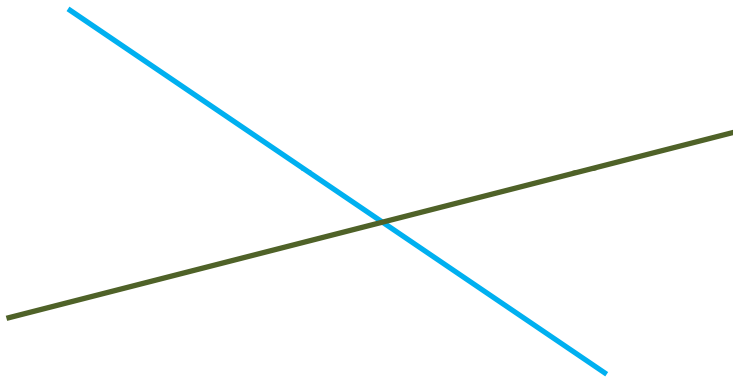
# Bayesian model comparison and Gestalt laws



“Law of continuity”

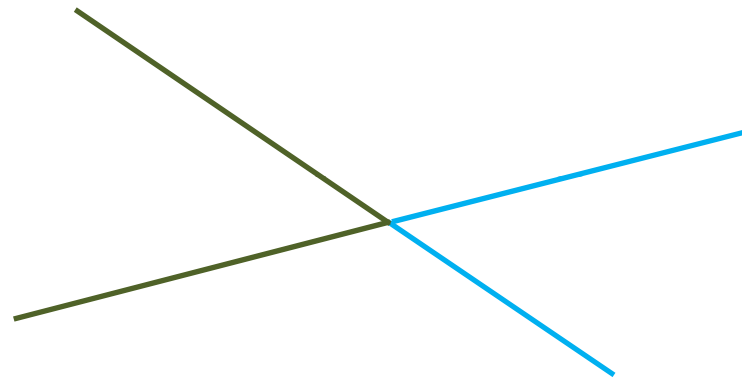
# Bayesian model comparison

Model 1



2 lines  
Each line 2 free parameters  
→ 4 free parameters  
Assume each takes 50 values  
Uniform priors

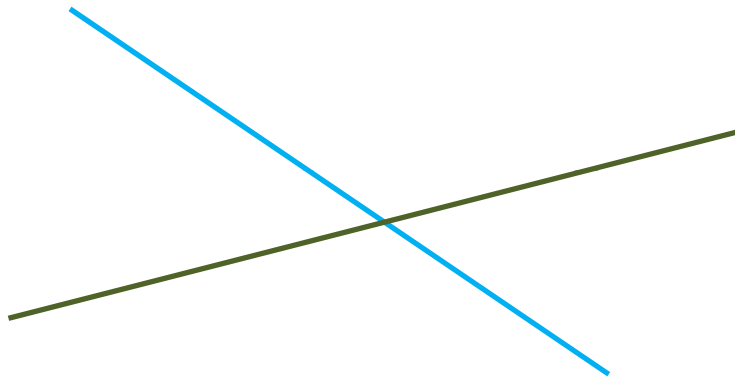
Model 2



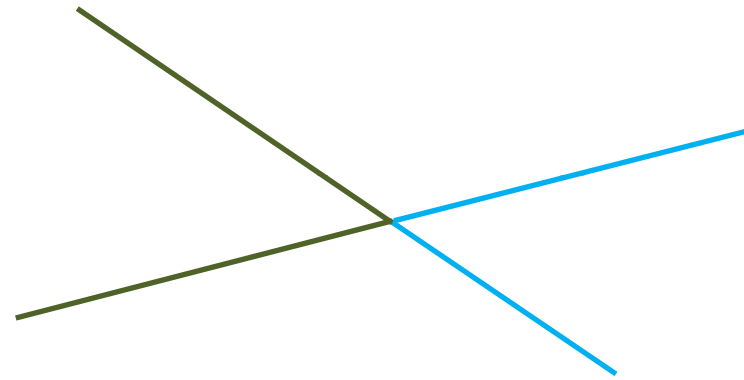
2 angles  
Each angle 4 free parameters  
→ 8 free parameters  
Assume each takes 50 values  
Uniform priors

# Bayesian model comparison

Model 1



Model 2



$$p(D|M_1) = \int p(D|M_1, \theta) p(\theta|M_1) d\theta \approx 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{50}\right)^4$$

$$p(D|M_2) \approx \left(\frac{1}{50}\right)^8$$

$$\frac{p(M_1|D)}{p(M_2|D)} = \frac{p(D|M_1)p(M_1)}{p(D|M_2)p(M_2)} = 50^4 \approx 6250000$$

# Open questions

- Can the Gestalt laws be written as outcomes of Bayesian model comparison?
- Can such Bayesian models be tested by changing parameters and measuring human behavior?
- How is hierarchical inference implemented in neural networks?

# Small project

- Auditory-visual speech perception data
- Identify a syllable as /ba/ or /da/
- Factorial design
- In each condition, % responses “/ba/” and “/da/”

		Auditory					
		BA	2	3	4	DA	none
Visual	BA						
	2						
	3						
	4						
	DA						
	none						

Massaro et al., 1993

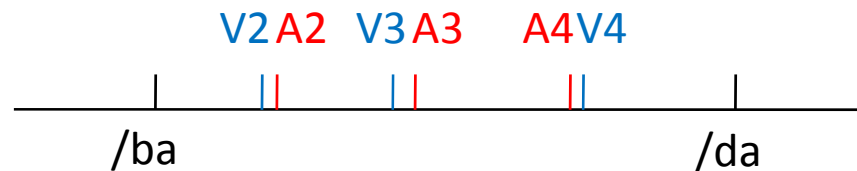
<http://mambo.ucsc.edu/psl/data/mass93a.html>



# Approach

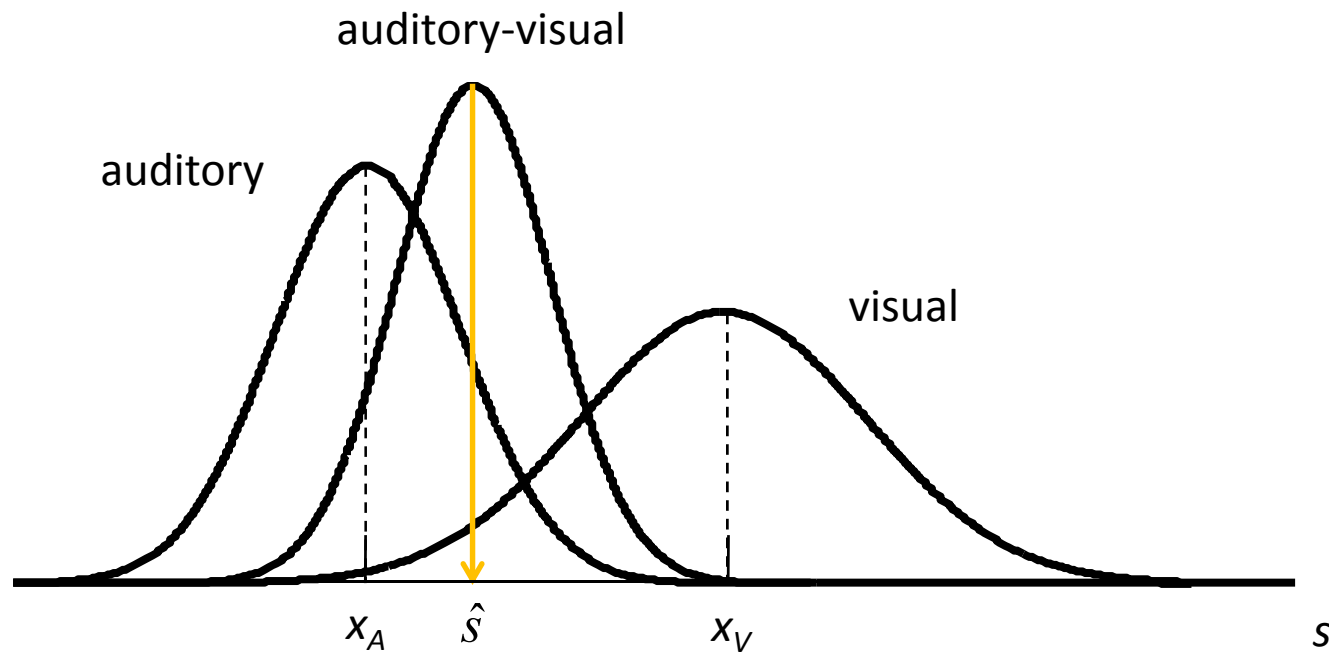
## 1. Model structure

- a) Inference model vs modeler's model
- b) What are the free parameters?
- c) First pass: fix feature values of intermediates (equidistant, equal between modalities)



## 2. Predict responses using Bayesian model

- a) Assume conditional independence
- b) Collapse onto two categories
- c) Assume variances independent of  $s$
- d) Make other assumptions if necessary



3. Is the Bayesian model better than the established model?
  - a) Work out alternative model (FLMP; multiplies response frequencies)
  - b) Maximum-likelihood fitting
  - c) Bayesian comparison (integrate over free parameters; approximate where necessary)
4. Discuss results and caveats

Due by Saturday, April 11