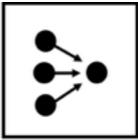


None of the above: A Bayesian account of the detection of novel categories

Dan Navarro
School of Psychology
University of New South Wales

Charles Kemp
School of Psychology
Carnegie Mellon University

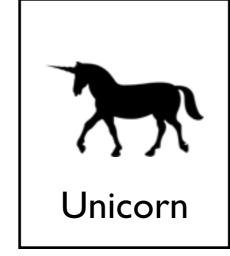






compcogscisydney.com/projects.html#noneoftheabove







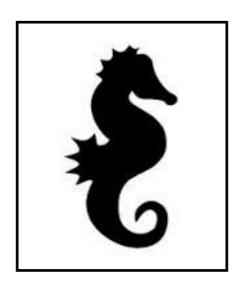












Is this a dragon or a unicorn?



Unicycle? Segway? Roomba?

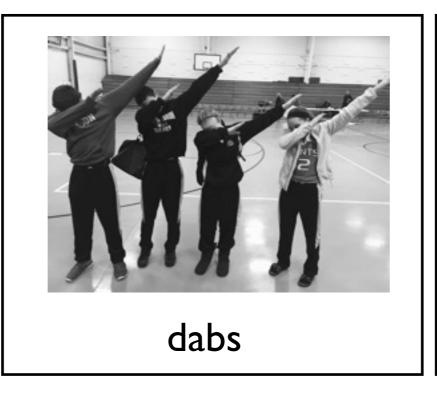


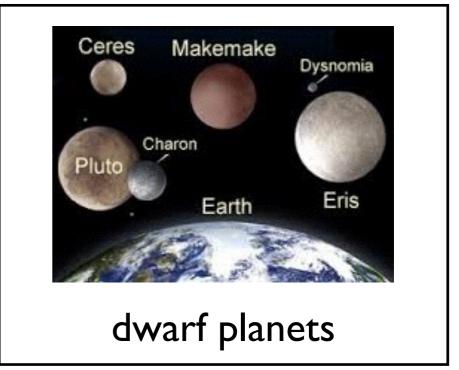
Unicycle? Segway? Roomba?

None of the above... this is the first item from a novel category

The "mental dictionary" of categories is extensible... how do we know when to extend it?







Structure of the talk

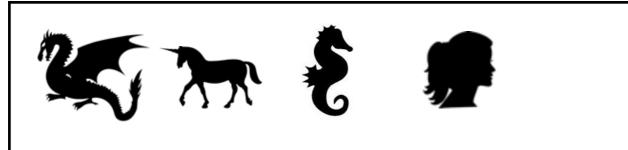
- Qualitative desiderata, models, a priori predictions
- Experiments with minimal cues
 - Exp. I: people satisfy the desiderata
 - Exp. 2: no they don't
- An absurd number of computational models
- Experiments with similarity structure
 - Exp. 3: people integrate similarity & distribution
 - Exp. 4: a better version of Exp. 3
- Conclusions

Qualitative desiderata for the discovery of new categories...

(Zabell 2011)







Any sequence of observations is possible, so I must (a priori) assign non-zero probability to them

Same number of unicorns... so my beliefs about P(unicorn) should be the same

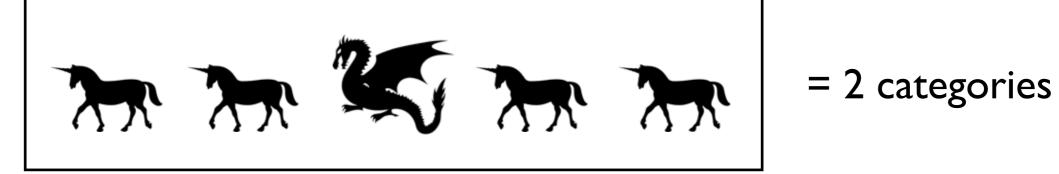


= 2/5 unicorns



= 2/5 unicorns





Same number of familiar categories so the probability of a new category is the same

What prior beliefs must a learner have in order to satisfy those desiderata?

Bayesian category learning models use the "Chinese restaurant process" (CRP)...

(Anderson 1990, Sanborn, Griffiths & Navarro 2010, etc)

 $P(\text{old } k) \propto n_k$

"Strength" associated with an existing category is proportional to its frequency

Bayesian category learning models use the "Chinese restaurant process" (CRP)...

(Anderson 1990, Sanborn, Griffiths & Navarro 2010, etc)

$$P(\text{old } k) \propto n_k$$

 $P(\text{new}) \propto \theta$



There is a *fixed* strength associated with novelty

... but it's a special case: the full* solution to the problem is the generalised CRP

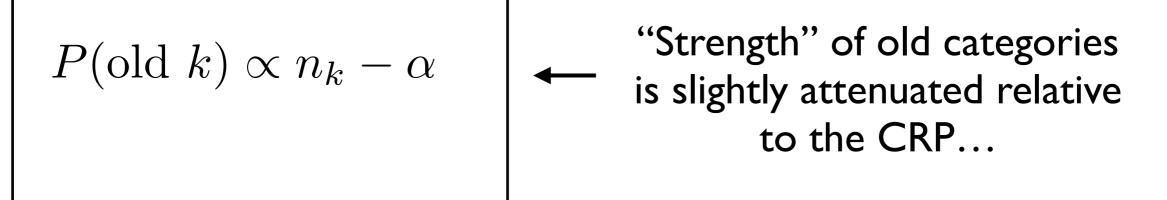
(Zabell, 2011)

$$P(\text{old } k) \propto n_k - \alpha$$

 $P(\text{new}) \propto \theta + K\alpha$

... but it's a special case: the full* solution to the problem is the generalised CRP

(Zabell, 2011)



... but it's a special case: the full* solution to the problem is the generalised CRP

(Zabell, 2011)

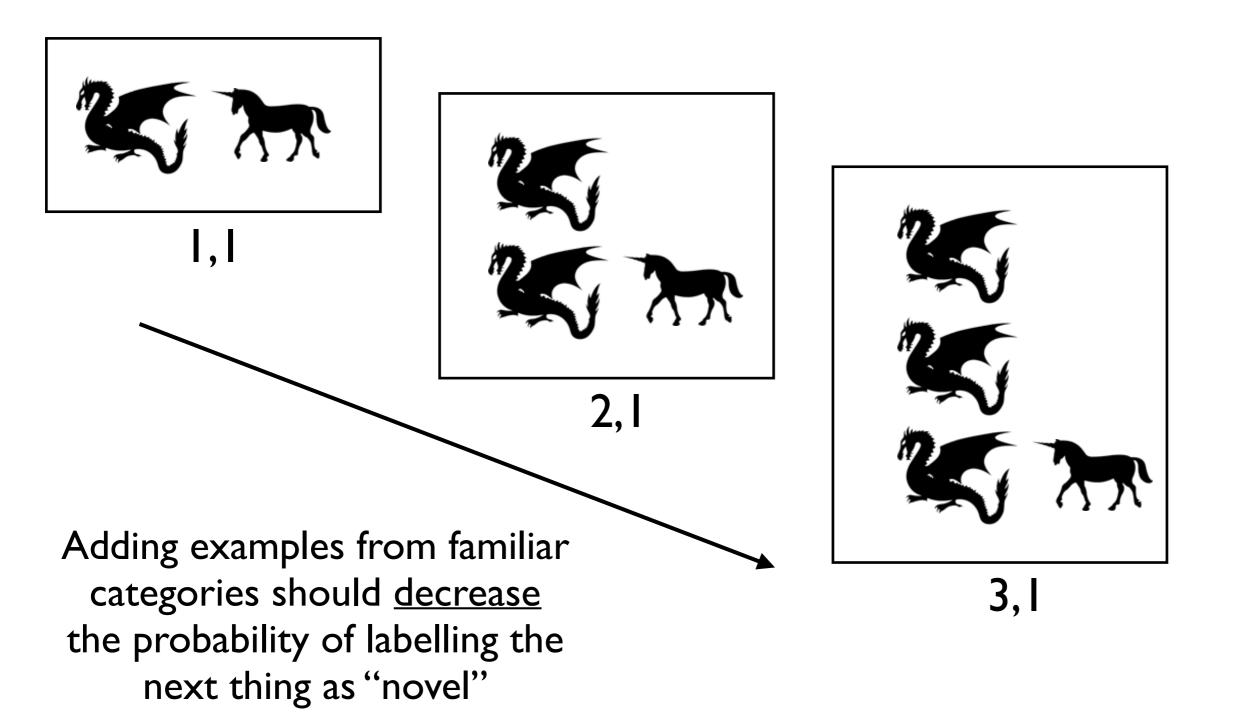
$$P(\text{old } k) \propto n_k - \alpha$$

 $P(\text{new}) \propto \theta + K\alpha$

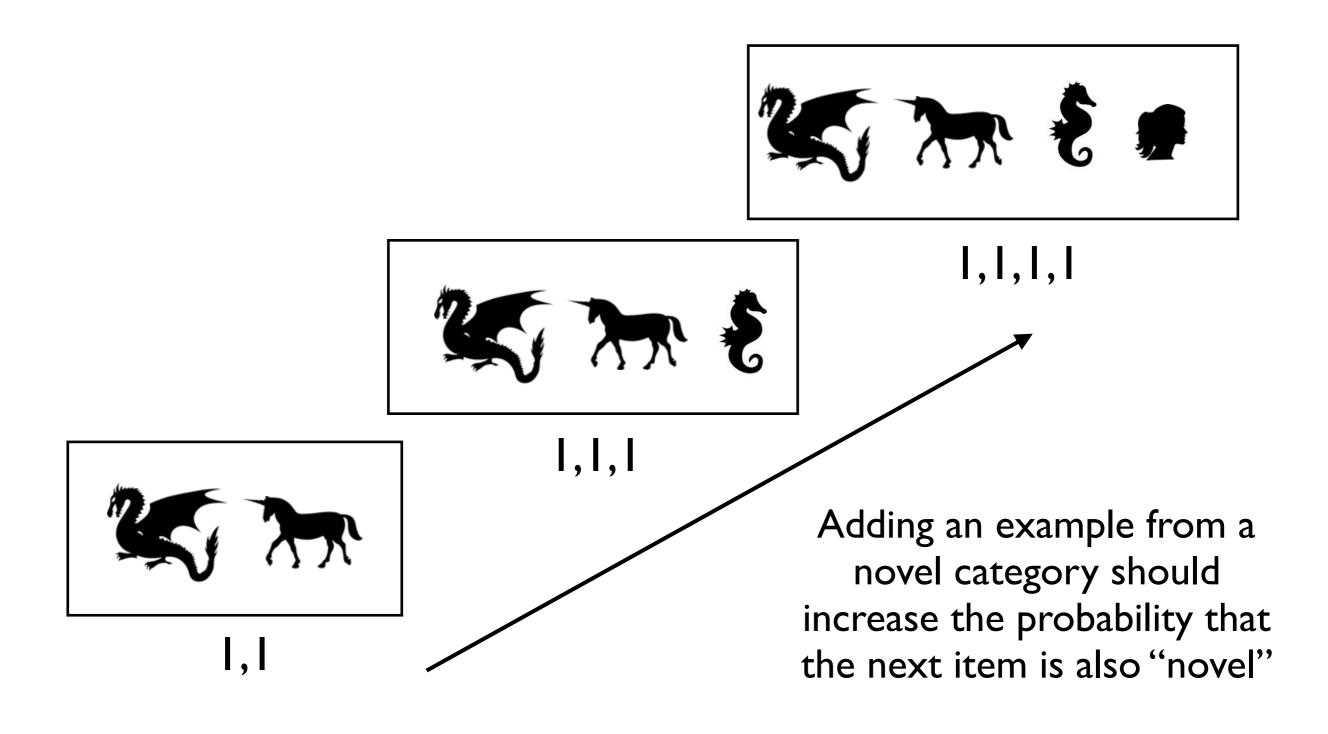
... because every time a new category appears, P(new) goes up

What empirical predictions does the G-CRP make for human novelty detection?

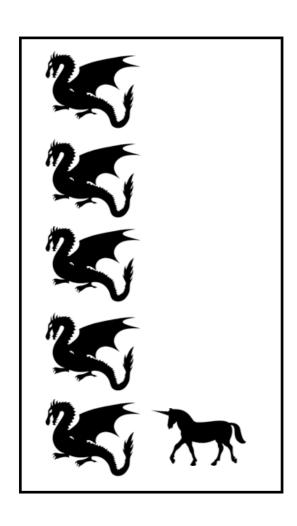
I: The familiar addition effect

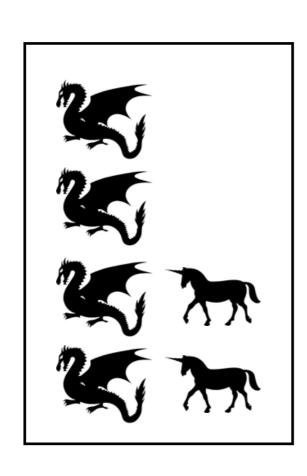


2: The novel addition effect

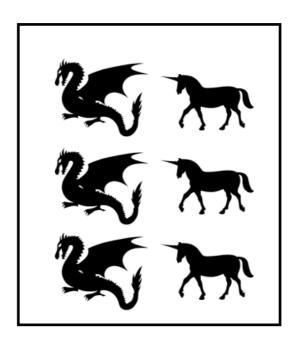


3: No effect of transfer



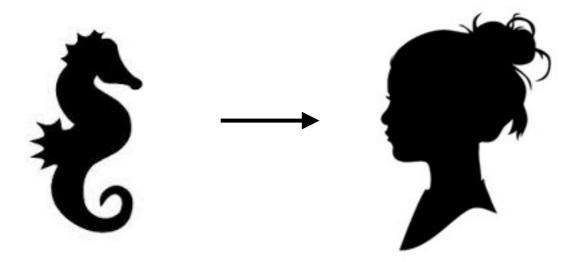


Nothing else about the frequency table matters except the number of exemplars N and the number of categories K



5,1 4,2 3,3

Experiments...



Scientists interested in studying insect biology stake out square meter blocks, and record the number of insects of different kinds that they see. In this task you'll be shown the results of 29 different "insect trap" experiments, taken from different parts of the world. No two sites are alike, and different species are found at each location.

For all 29 sites, you'll be shown a list of the insects that have been observed so far. Your task is to judge the probability that the next insect to be observed at that location will belong to a new species, or one of the previous ones.

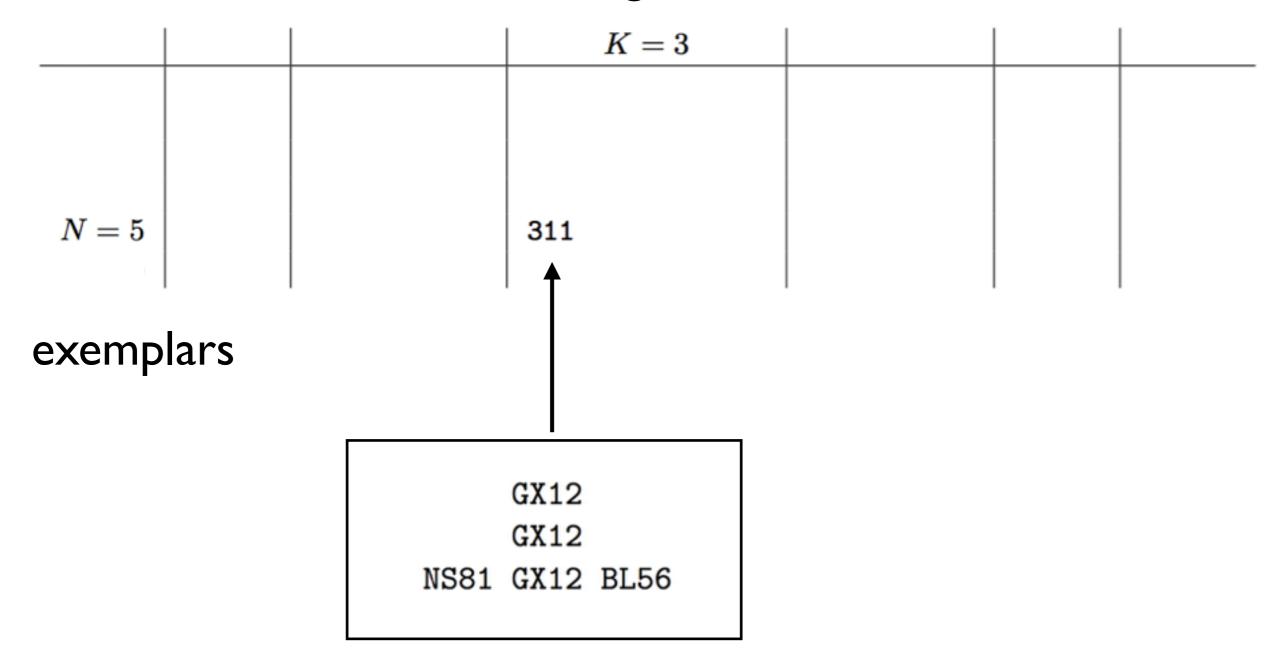
Stimuli were just arbitrary alphanumeric labels, to prevent similarity effects

GX12

GX12

NS81 GX12 BL56

categories

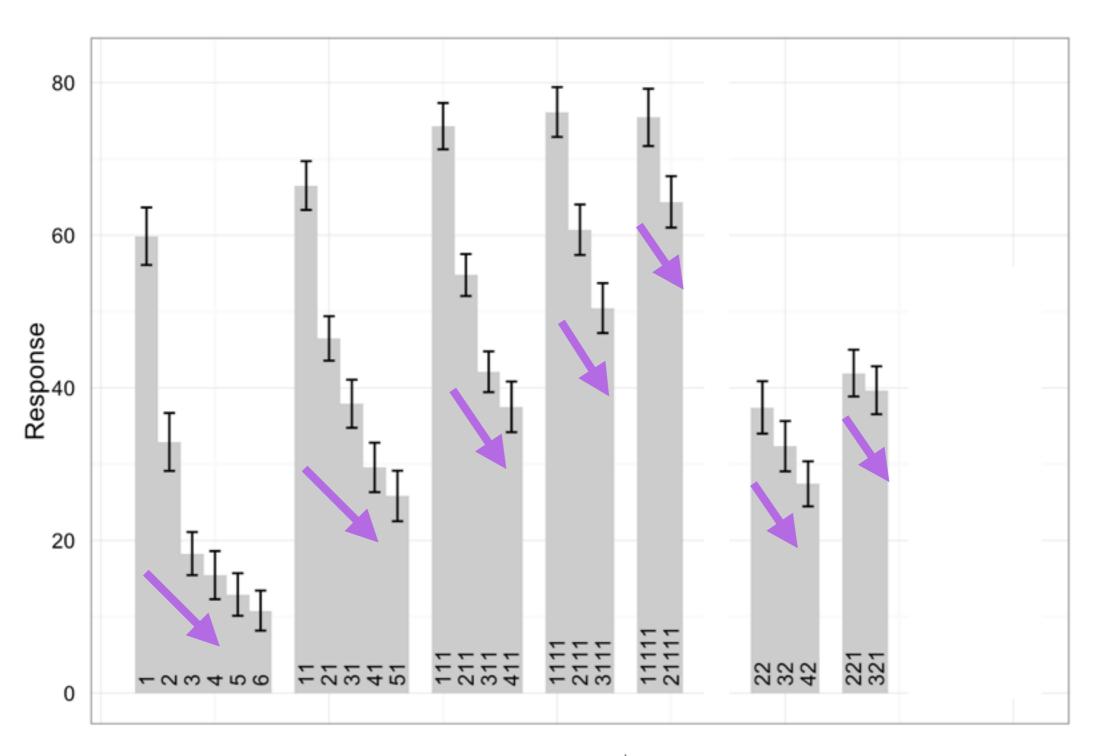


	K = 1		K=2	2		K=3		K	= 4	K=5	K=6
N=1	1										
N=2	2	11									
N=3	3	21			111						
N=4	4	31	22		211	1111					
N=5	5	41	32		311	221		2111		11111	
N=6	6	51	42	33	411	321	222	3111	2211	21111	111111

Judge the probability that the next item will come from a new category, for every possible frequency table with 6 or fewer exemplars

Familiar addition effect...

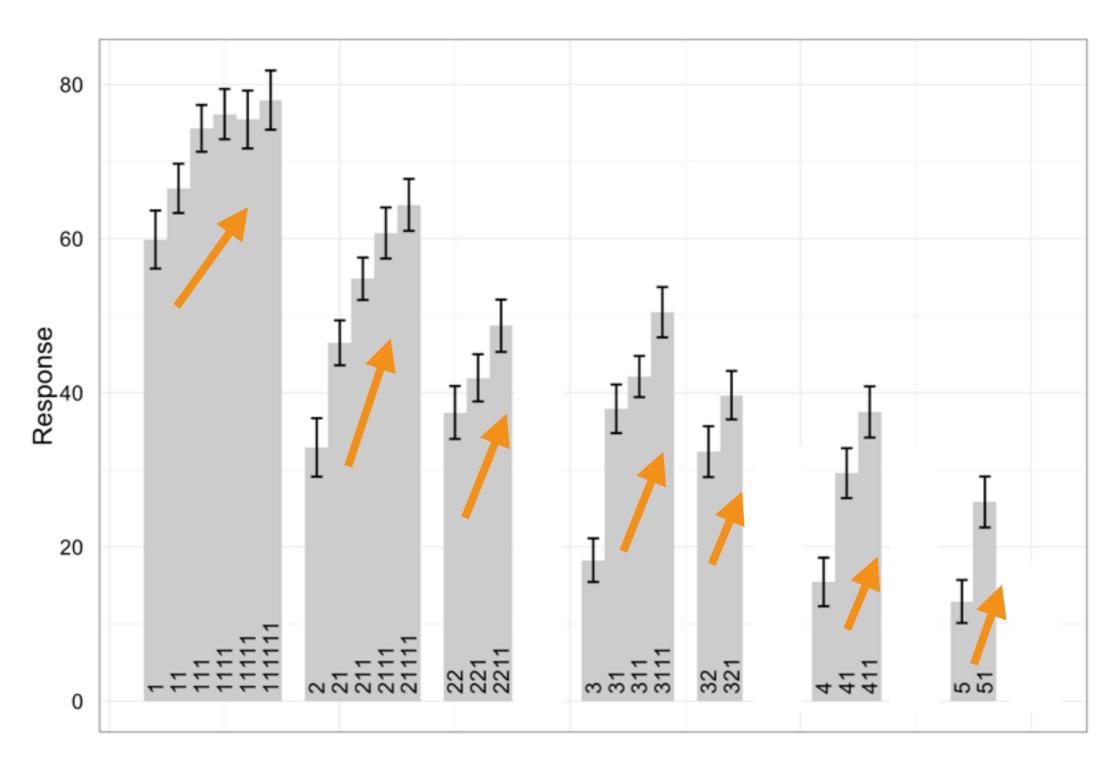




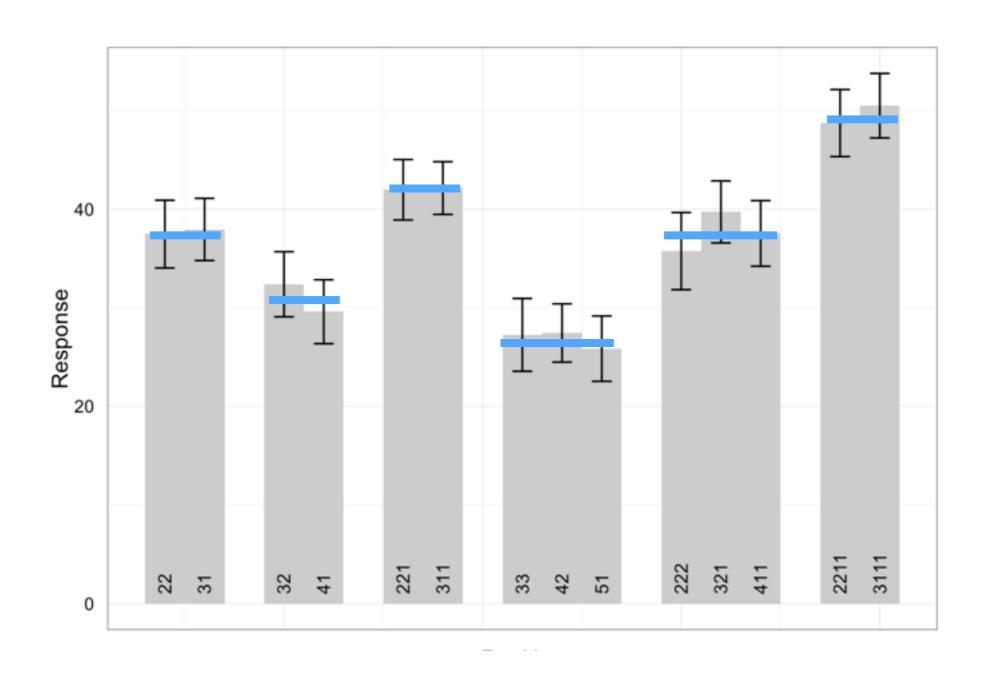
١

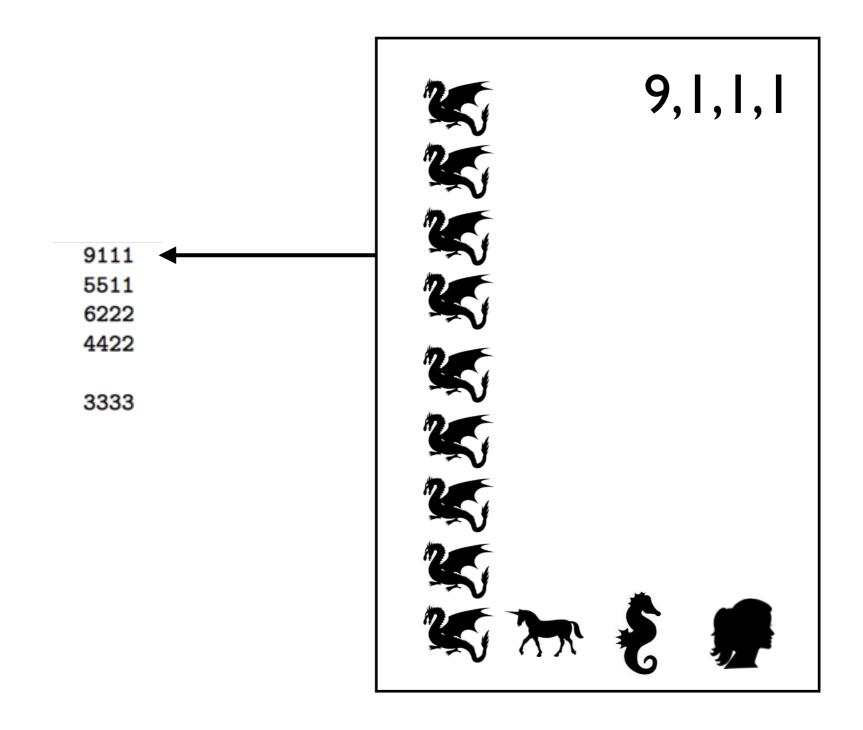
Novel addition effect...

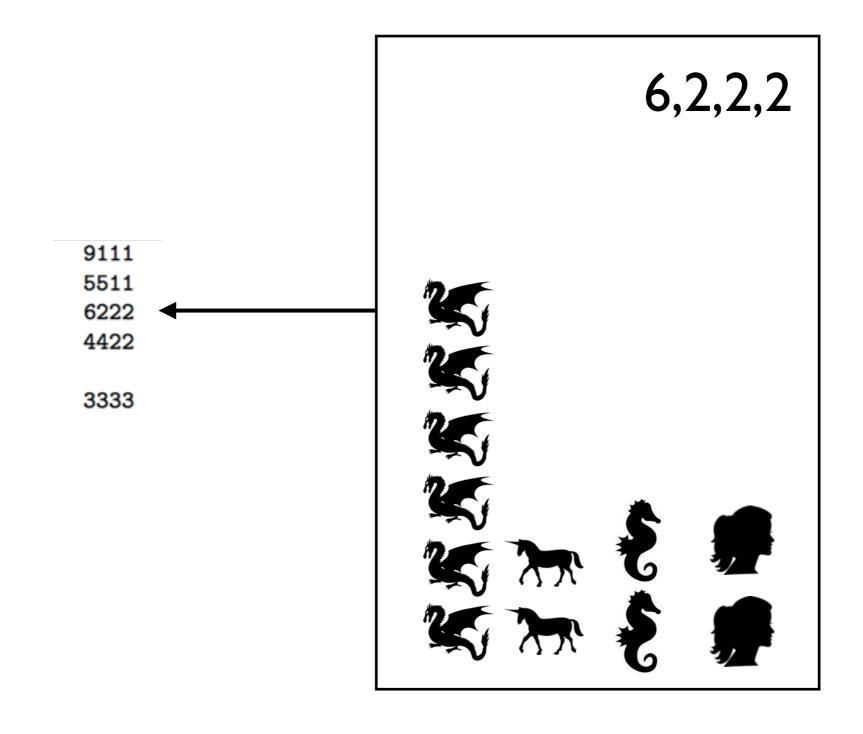


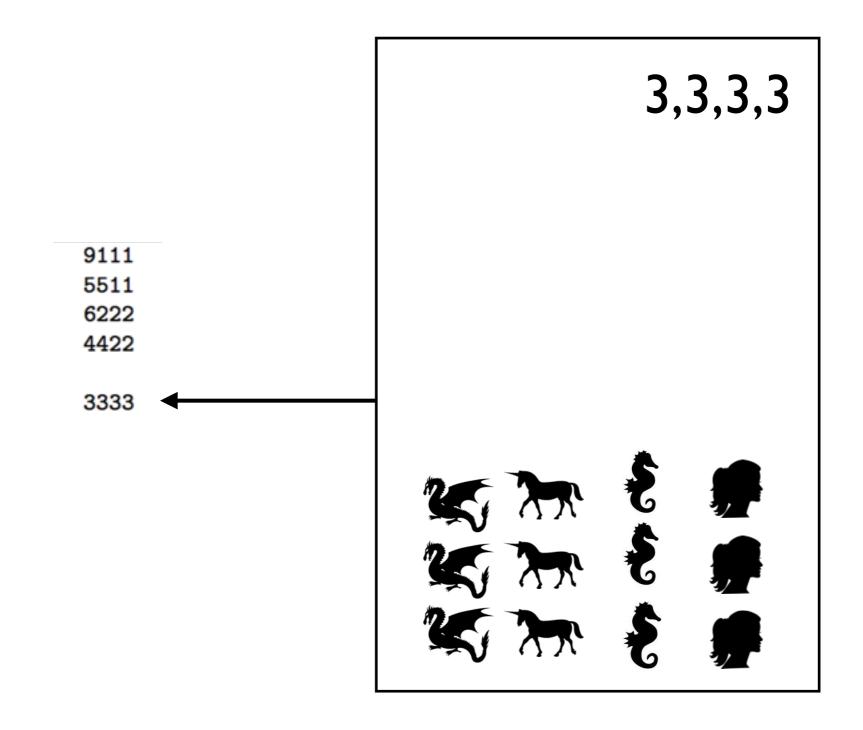


No transfer effect!







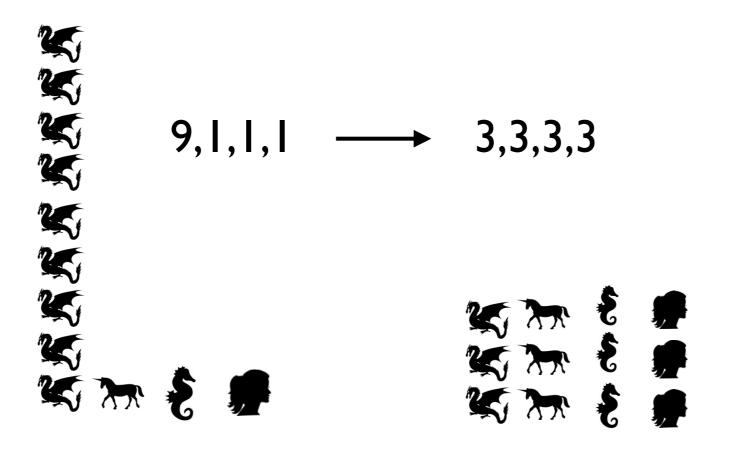


Rank	K=2	K = 3	K = 4	K = 5	K = 6	K = 7	K = 8	K = 9	K = 10
1	[11]1	[10]11	9111	81111	711111	6111111	51111111	411111111	3111111111
2	[10]2	822	5511	42222	441111	2222211	33111111	222111111	2211111111
3	93	552 633	6222 4422	33222	333111		22221111		
4 5	84 75	444	3333		222222				
6	66								

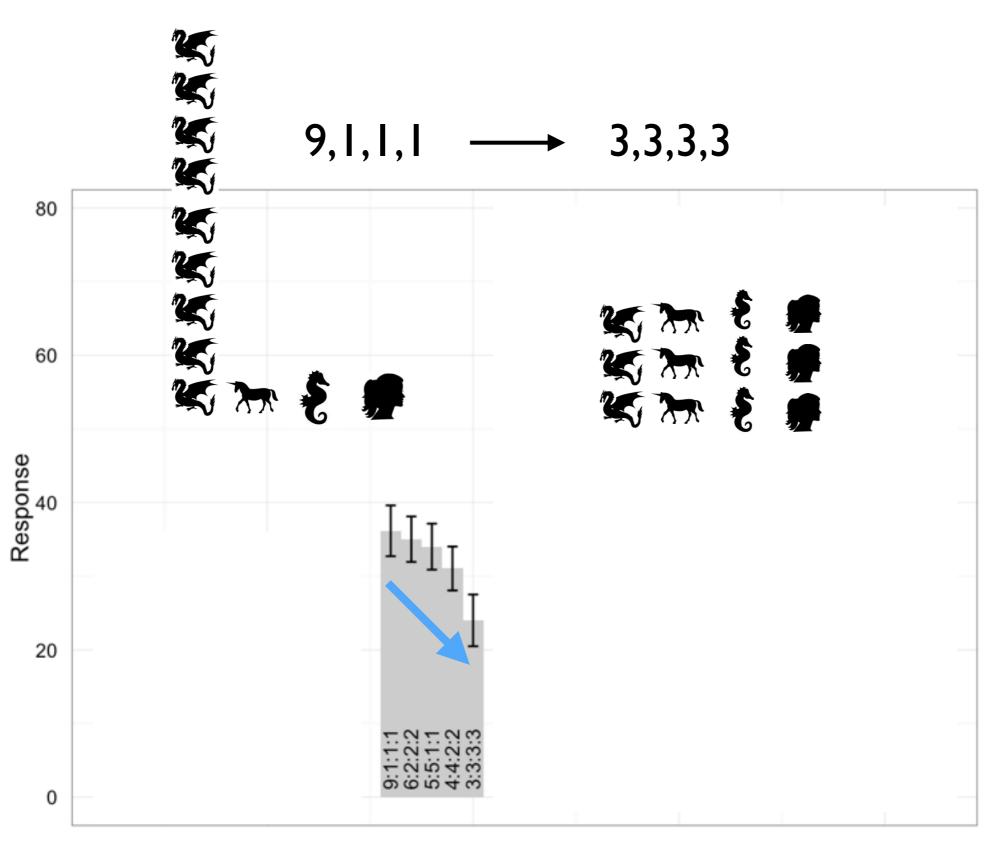
12 objects in 4 categories

Rank	K=2	K = 3	K = 4	K = 5	K = 6	K = 7	K = 8	K = 9	K = 10
1	[11]1	[10]11	9111	81111	711111	6111111	51111111	411111111	3111111111
2	[10]2	822	5511	42222	441111	2222211	33111111	222111111	2211111111
			6222						
3	93	552	4422	33222	333111		22221111		
		633							
4	84	444	3333		222222				
5	75								
6	66								

Vary the number of categories from 2 to 10



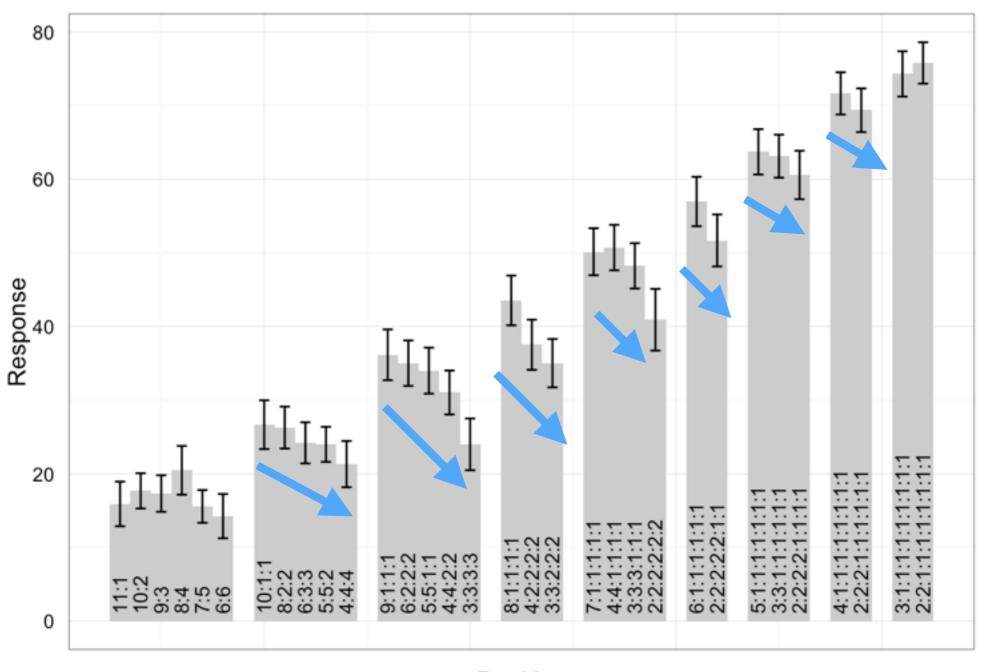
Does this transfer have an effect?



Partition

The transfer effect exists

(it's small, so you need bigger frequency tables)



Partition

Do these results pose a serious theoretical challenge to categorisation models?

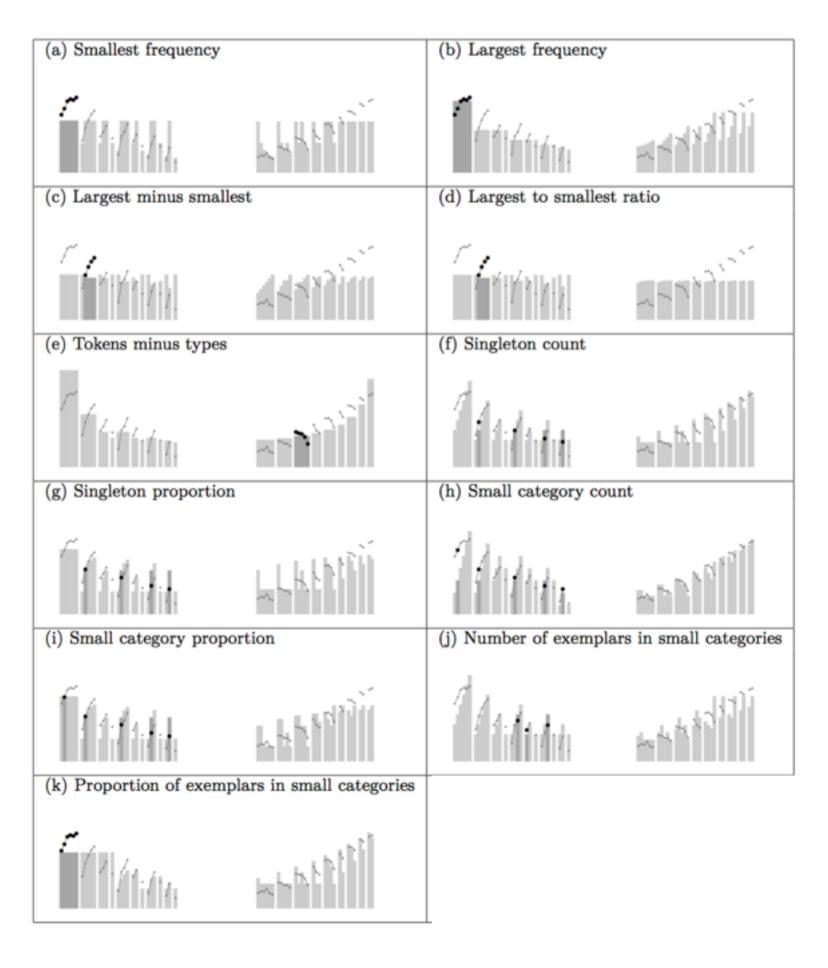
A list of heuristic methods for estimating the probability that the next object will be novel

Table 6

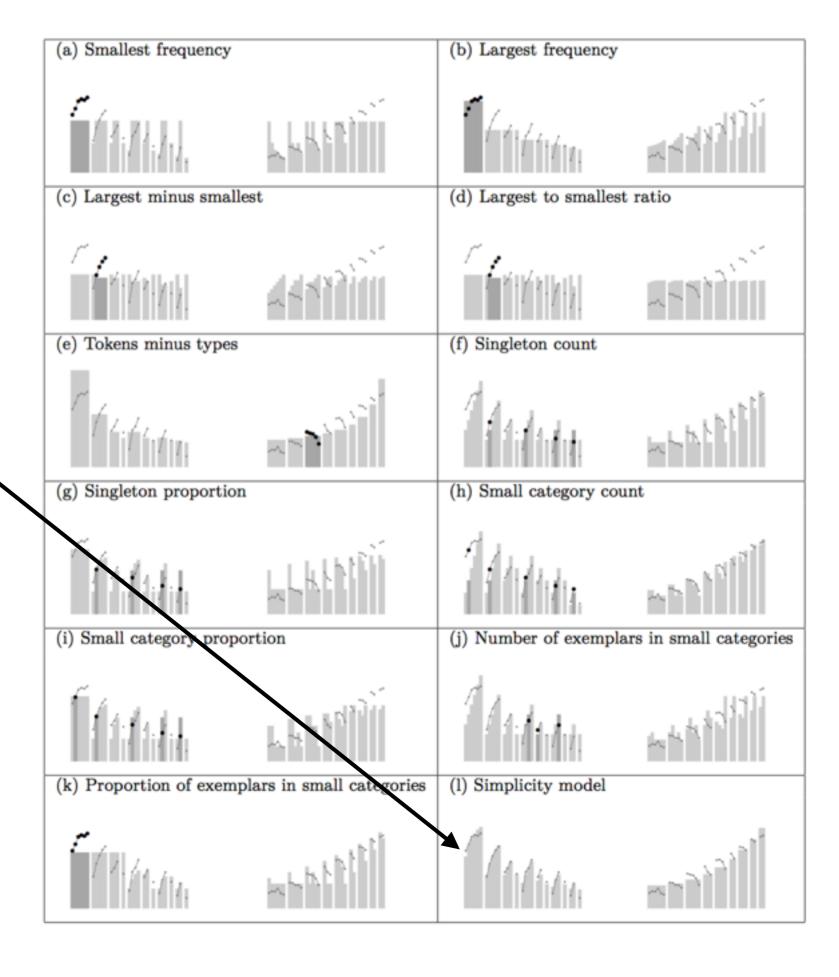
Eleven heuristics for the novelty detection problem. None of these models is capable of capturing all the qualitative trends in the data from Experiments 1 and 2.

- Smallest frequency. The learner's response is proportional to the frequency of the lowest frequency category. This model fails because it cannot account for systematic effects among conditions with the same minimum frequency (e.g., 11<111<...<11111). See panel (a) of Figure 7.
- Largest frequency. As above, but the response is based on the modal category. This model
 does not account for systematic effects among conditions with the same maximum frequency
 (e.g., 11<111<...<111111). Plotted in panel (b) of Figure 7.
- Largest versus smallest. The response is based on the difference (or ratio) between the most frequent and least frequent category. It cannot produce systematic effects among conditions when the maximum and minimum are identical (e.g., 11<111<...<111111, 21<211<...
 The difference model is shown in panel (c) and the ratio model in panel (d).
- Tokens minus types. A variation of the TTR model in which the response is based on the
 difference between the number of exemplars and the number of categories rather than the
 ratio. It cannot predict any version of the transfer effect in Experiment 2. Shown in panel
 (e).
- Singleton count/proportion. The response is based on the number (or proportion) of categories
 that have frequency 1. This model does not account for systematic effects when exemplars are
 added to the modal category (e.g., 21>31>41>51). The number version is plotted in panel
 (f) and the proportion version in panel (g).
- Small category count. The response is in proportion to the number (or proportion) of categories with frequency k or less, where k is a free parameter. This model cannot produce a smooth trend when exemplars are added to the modal category as in 11>21>...>51. It (incorrectly) produces a discontinuity at the value of k. For example, at k = 3 it predicts 11=21=31<41=51. Best fitting model predictions are shown in panels (h) and (i).
- Number of exemplars in small categories. The response is proportional to the number of exemplars belonging to small categories, where small is defined via a threshold frequency k. Many observed effects require different values of k. For instance, capturing 311>32 requires k = 1 whereas capturing 311>411 requires k = 3. The model cannot capture these effects simultaneously. Shown in panel (j).
- Proportion of exemplars in small categories. As above, but defined in terms of the proportion
 of exemplars in categories with frequency k or below, rather than the absolute number. This
 model cannot predict systematic effects when all categories have the same frequency (e.g.,
 1<11<...<111111, 2<22<222). Shown in panel (k).

They don't work →

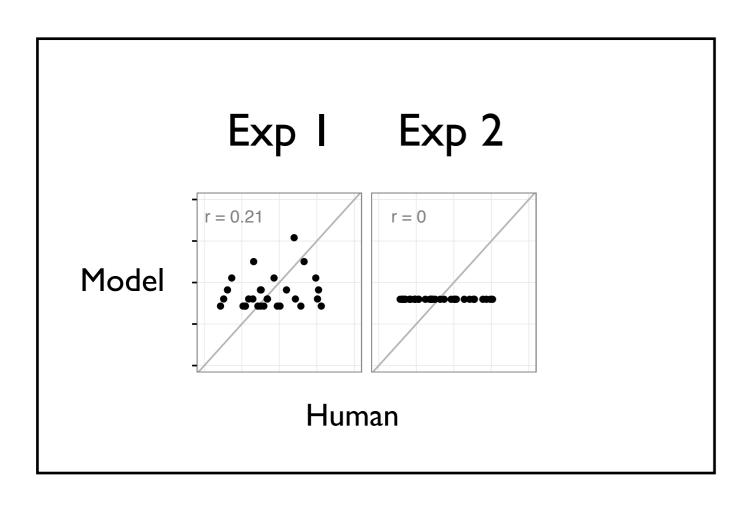


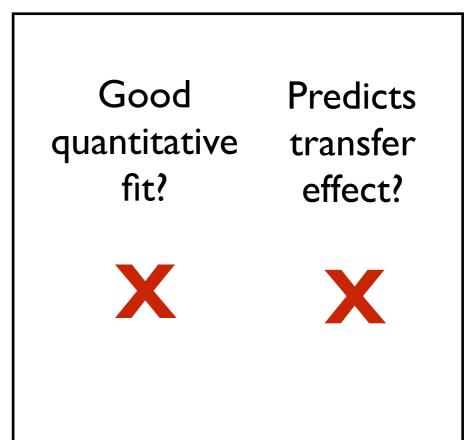
Most existing category learning models (SUSTAIN, simplicity, etc) also fail



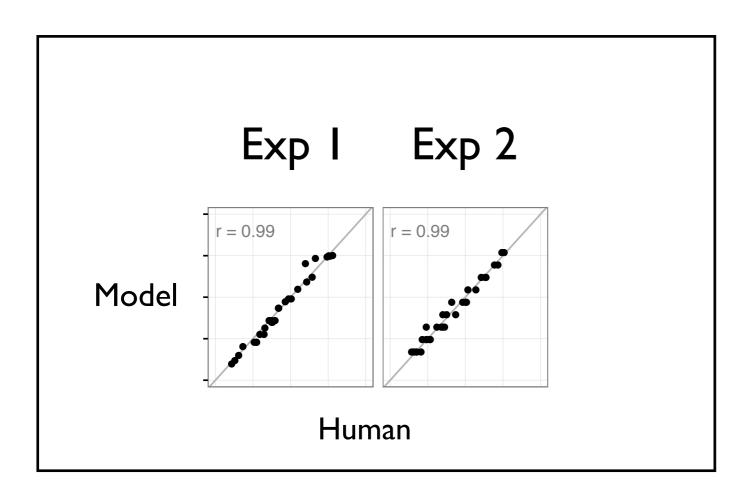
What about the Bayesian models?

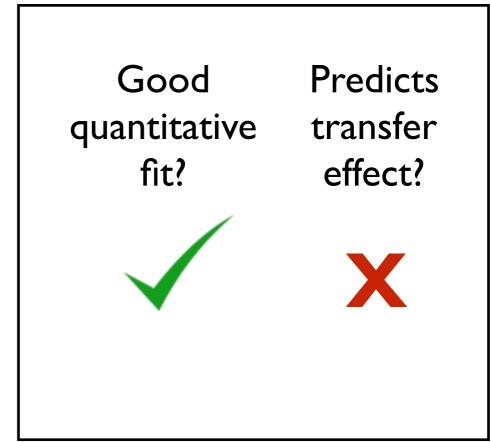
Despite being near-universal among Bayesian models of categorisation, the CRP is terrible





The generalised CRP does better, but misses the transfer effect





Generalised CRP

Unknown frequency distribution over many possible categories

Learner observes exemplars from a subset of the categories

$$(p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots)$$

$$\downarrow$$

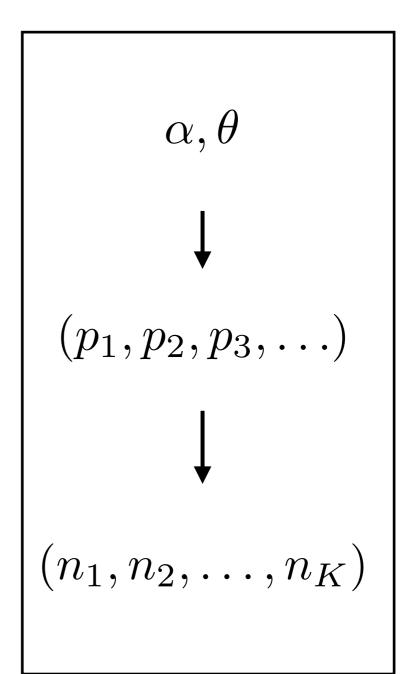
$$(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_K)$$

Hierarchical generalised CRP

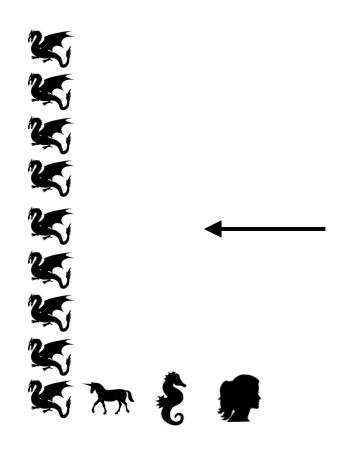
Structure of the world that constrains the distribution

Unknown frequency distribution over many possible categories

Learner observes exemplars from a subset of the categories

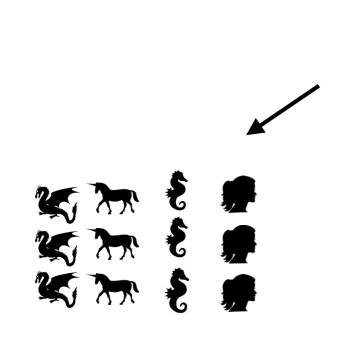


Structure of the world that constrains the distribution



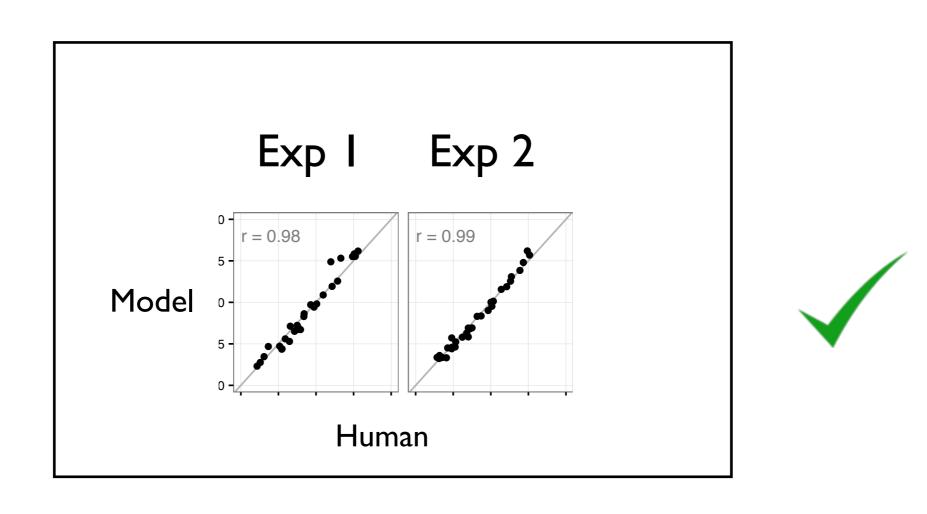
The HG-CRP model learns that this is a world with many low-frequency categories (infers a high α) and expects to see even more low-frequency categories

Structure of the world that constrains the distribution

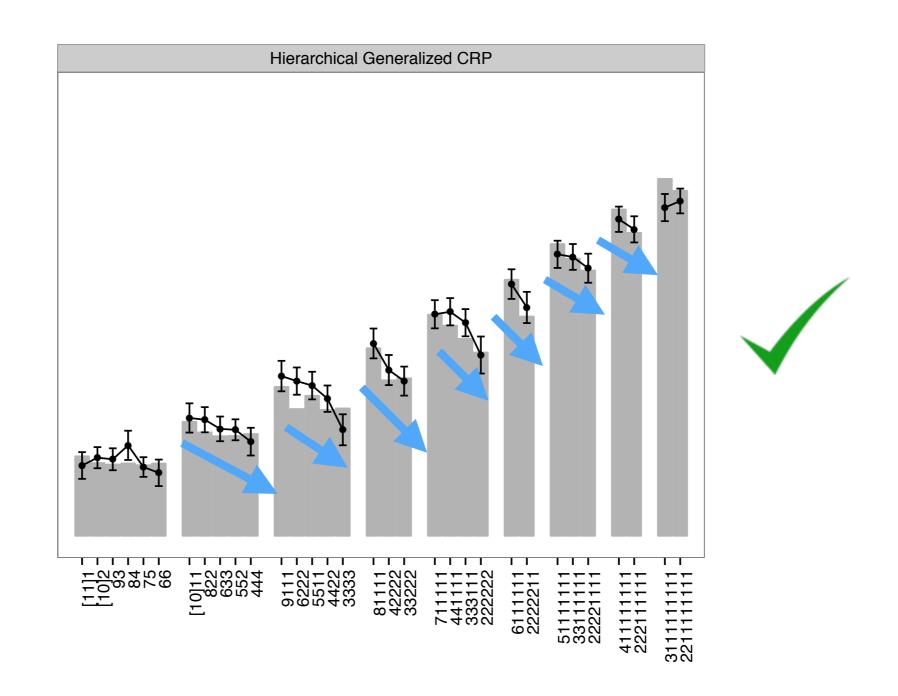


The HG-CRP model learns that this is a world with very few low-frequency categories (infers a low α) and does not expect to see more LF categories

HG-CRP provides a good quantitative fit



It also captures the transfer effect



Is this actually a categorisation problem?

(a.k.a. Do people still do this in a standard task when similarity information exists?)

In most categorisation tasks we have similarity information

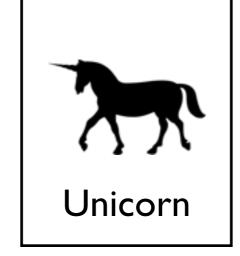
















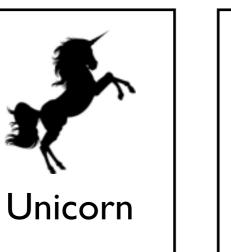
High similarity target is less likely to be novel



???



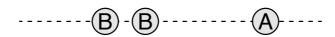






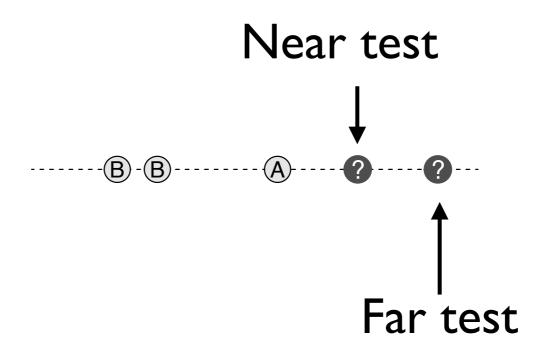
Low similarity target is more likely to be novel



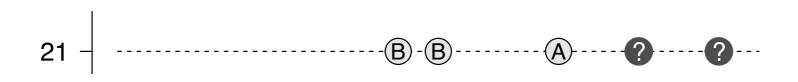


Training items vary on a single continuous stimulus dimension

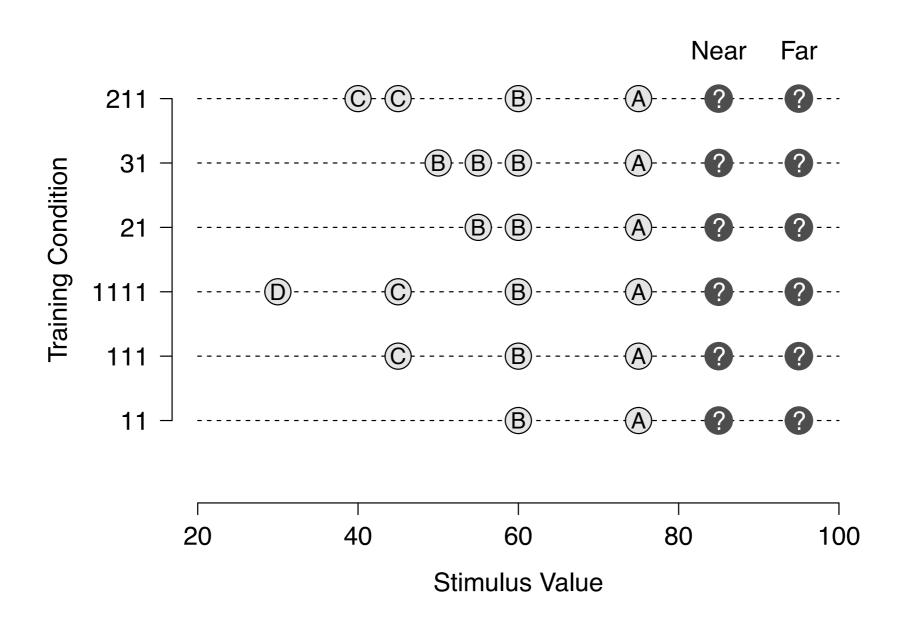
Similarity manipulation:



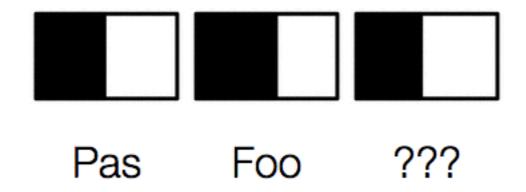
The training items form a 2,1 frequency table



6 tables x 2 tests = 12 categorisation tasks



Experiment 3



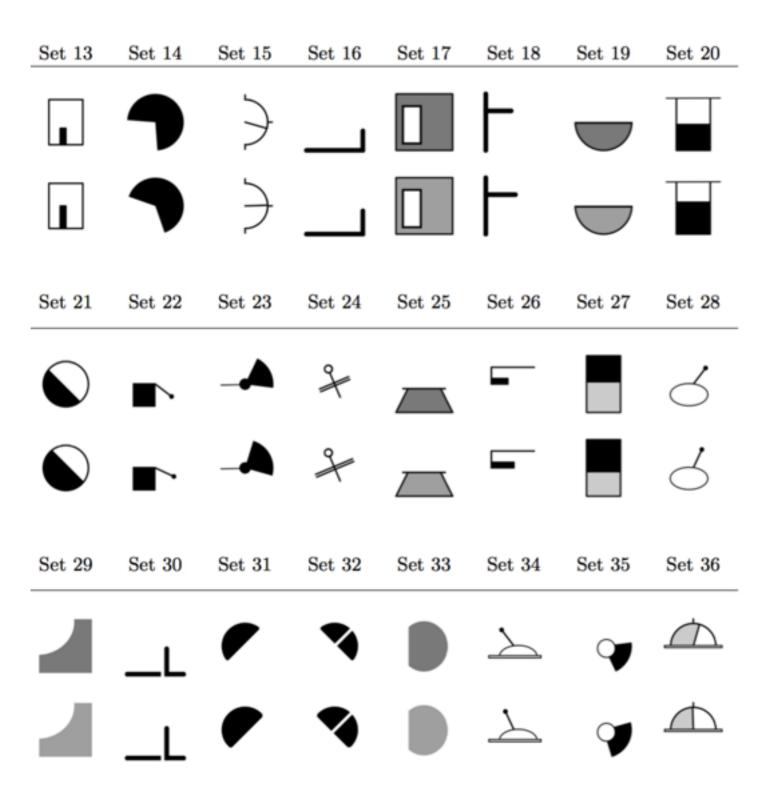
Which category does this belong to?

Pas

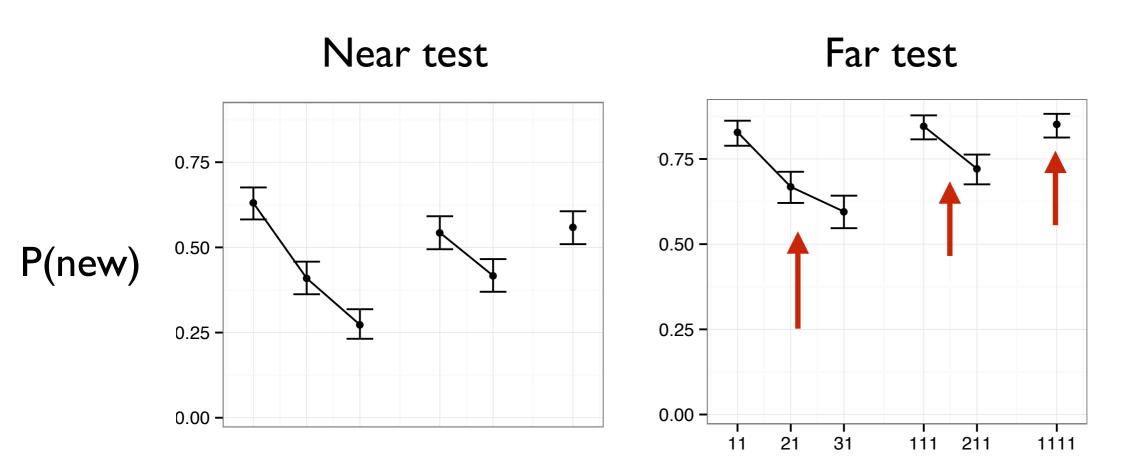
Foo

New

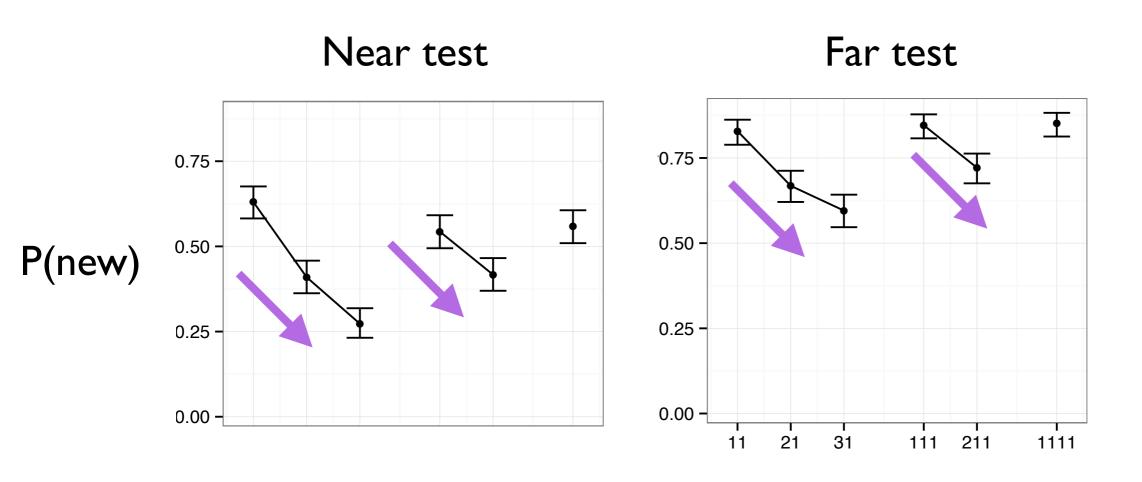
Lots of stimulus sets used:



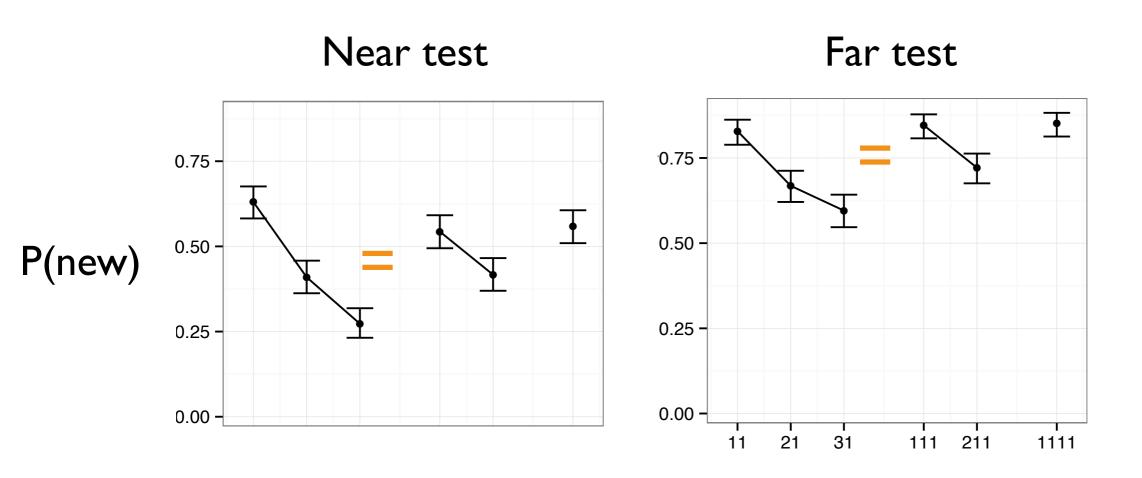
Similarity effect



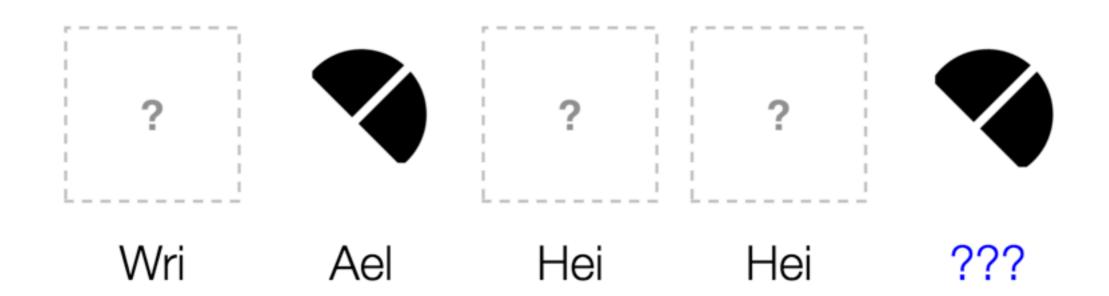
Familiar addition



Novel addition?



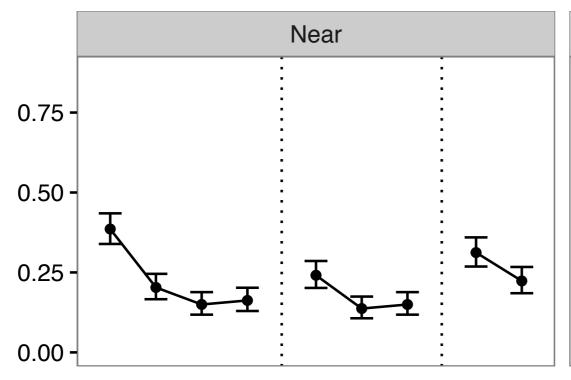
Experiment 4

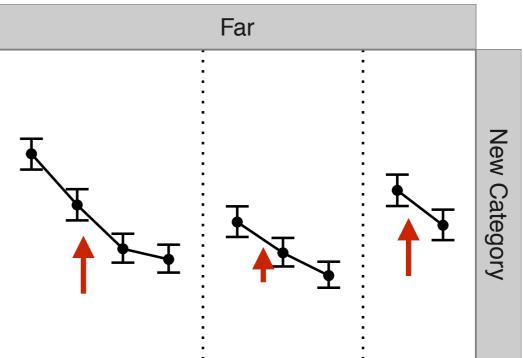


Which category does this belong to?

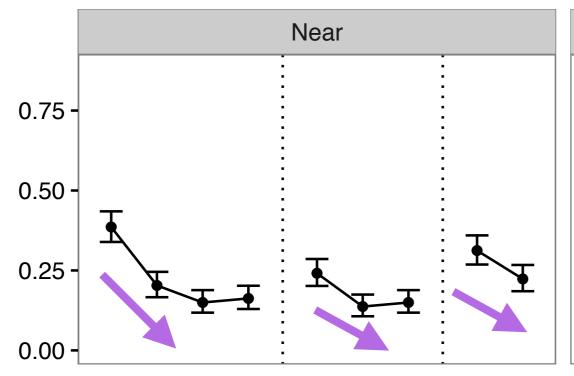
Wri Ael Hei New

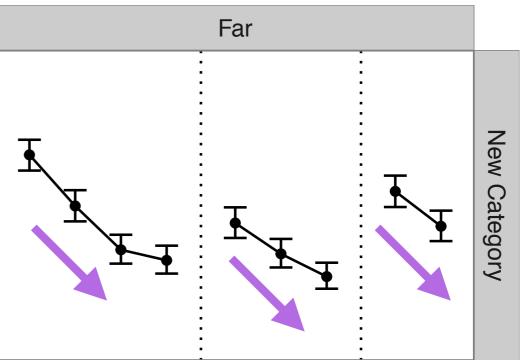
Similarity effect



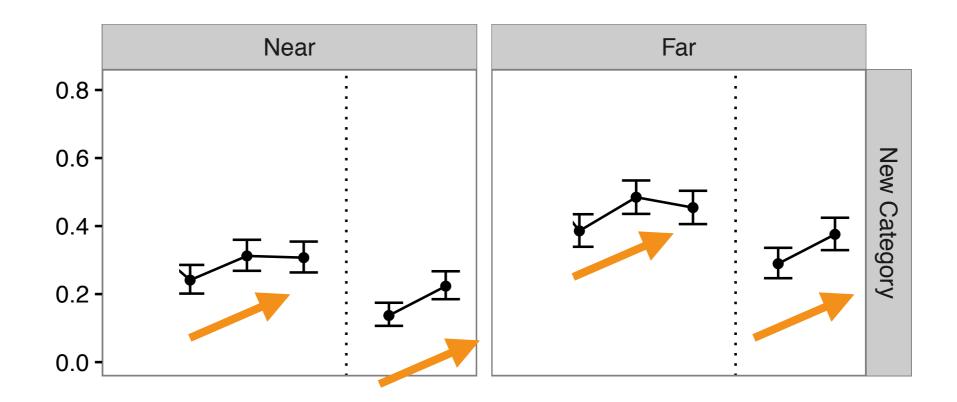


Familiar addition





Novel addition*

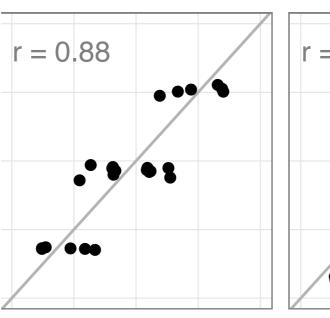


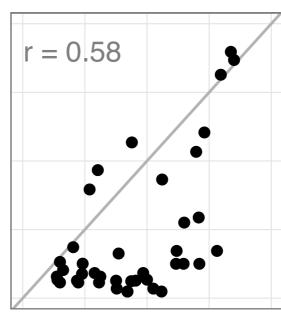
Parameters estimated from Exp 3 and fixed for Exp 4

CRP performs poorly

Exp 3

Exp 4



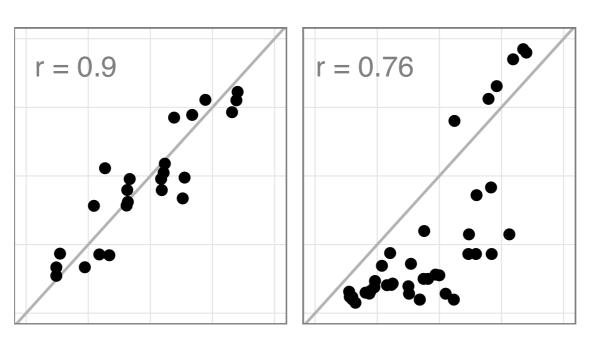




G-CRP model does slightly better

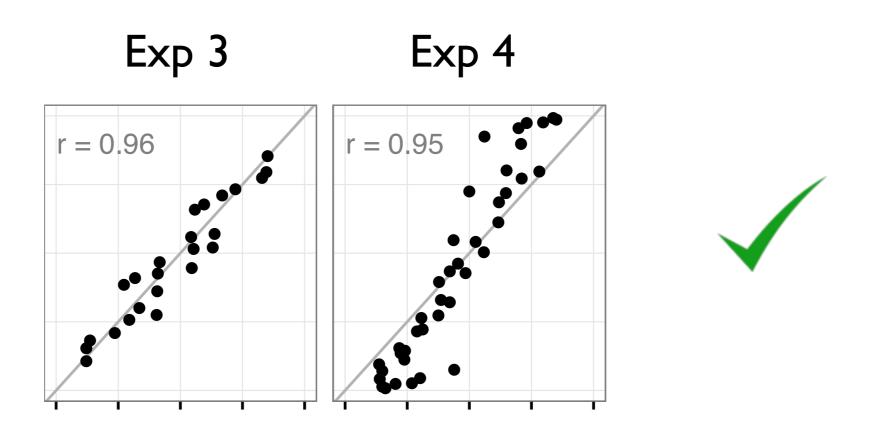
Exp 3

Exp 4

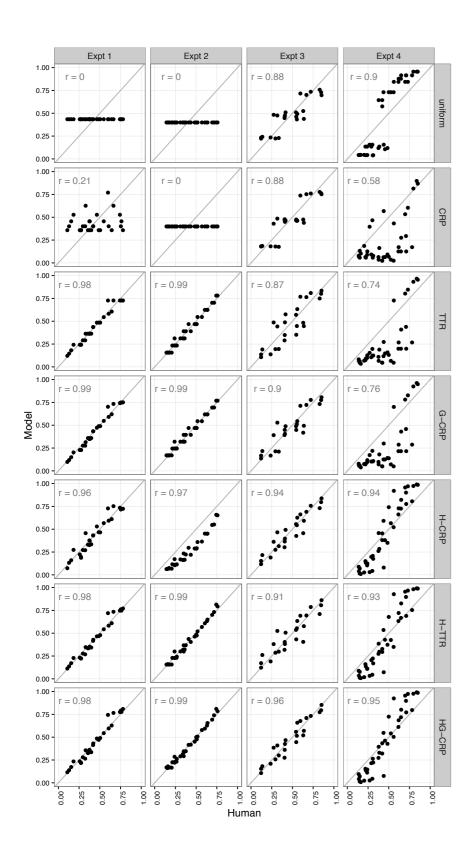




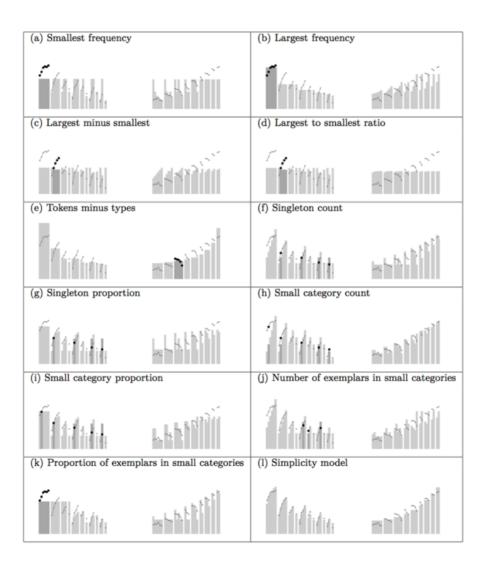
HG-CRP model is easily the best

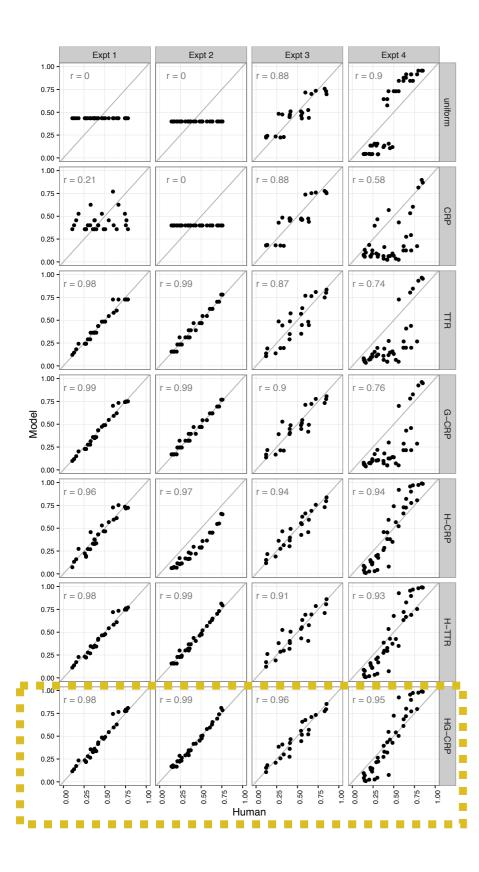


Summary

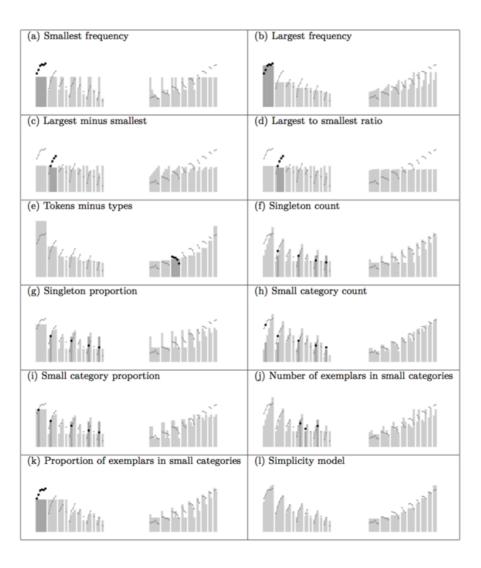


4 experiments, 20+ models, 100+ experimental conditions, 1000+ participants later...





... a model you've never heard of is the winner!



A better summary

How do I know this device needs a new label?



How similar is it to familiar things?

How often do I tend to run into novel categories?

How often do I encounter familiar categories?

What does the distribution of objects across categories tell me?





Similarity effects

Novel addition effects

Familiar addition effects

Transfer effects



A theory of novelty detection needs to accommodate all these things



HG-CRP works because it also learns "what kind of world is this?" when asked "is this novel?"



Structure of the world

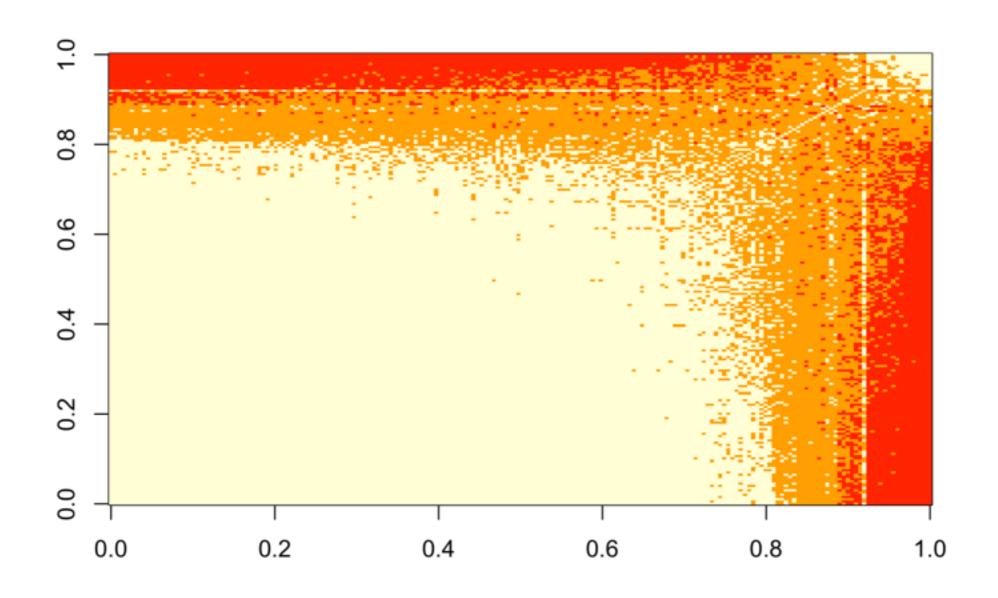
Unknown distribution over many possible categories

Observations

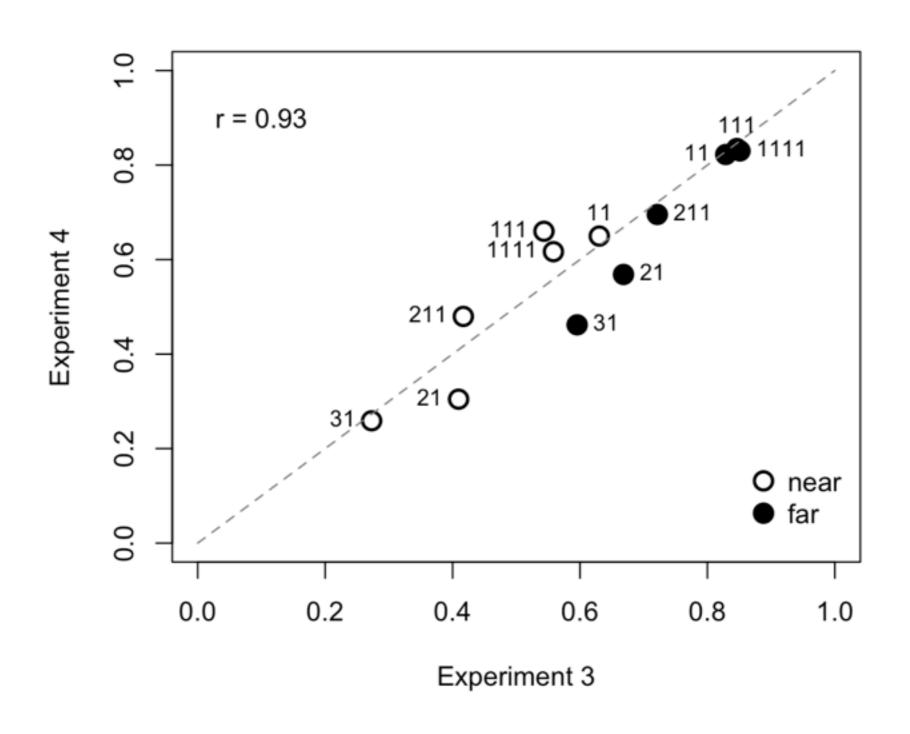
Thanks



Individual differences (E2)



Replication check:



Why does the transfer effect exist? Learning distributional shape on the fly

