Lecture 3:

Associative Learning and Feature Maps



• So far, we've focused on processing:

– dynamics of encoding and representation information (~ weather)



• What about learning?

- how is the landscape shaped? (~geology)
- dynamics of acquisition

Learning

Unsupervised Learning

- Hebbian Learning Rule
- Self-organized maps
- Topographic structure
- Pattern associator

 \mathbb{Z}

Pattern detectors

Supervised Learning

- Scalar Learning
 - Classical and Instrumental Conditioning
 - Sequential learning and Prediction
- Vector-Based Learning
 - Generalized Delta Rule
 - Backpropagation
 - Deep Learning

Hebbian Learning

• D. O. Hebb: (1949)

"When an axon of cell A is near enough to excite a cell B and repeatedly or persistently takes part in firing it, some growth process or metabolic change takes place in one or both cells such that A's efficiency, as one of the cells firing B, is increased."

• Critical factor

- concurrent presynatptic and postsynaptic activity: correlation
- units that "fire together wire together"

• Fundamental learning mechanism

- responsible for much of how we gain our knowledge

Hebbian Learning



Acwhich strengthens

Hebbian Learning

Formalism:

 $\Delta w_{ij} = \alpha \, a_i a_j$

where α is the learning rate and a can be any real number

After n "experiences:"

 $w_{ij} = \alpha \sum_{n} a_{in} a_{jn}$

"Correlational Learning:

 $w_{ij} =$ correlation of a_i and a_j over time (patterns)

pear

if *a_i* and *a_j* vary linearly from -1 to +1 (i.e., mean=0 and unit variance)

Captures statistical relationship among co-occurring features



red

Multiple Associations



A Bit O' Math

- Patterns can be considered as vectors (lists of activation values) and relationships between them described using linear algebra
- Normalized Dot Product (NDP) of two patterns *a* and *b* over *n* units:
 a b = (Σ_ia_ib_i) / n
- NDP combines measure of strength and similarity
 - Strength of pattern: vector length, normalized for # of elements
 - Tip: this is the Euclidean distance from the origin to the point defined by the vector; (≈ hypotenuse of the triangle defined by the vector and its distance along each axis
 - <u>Similarity</u>: correlation, independent of length
 - Tip: this is the angle between the two vectors 0° = similar (+ correlation) 90° = unrelated (0 correlation) 180° = opposite (- correlation)



• Two patterns whose NDP = 0 are said to be "orthogonal"

 Tip: Vectors that are "perpendicular" in 3D space are orthogonal (compute the NDP for the x axis against the y axis); this is because they are uncorrelated

Associative Learning and Internal Representations / Model Building

- The role of associative learning in model building
 - Correlations are important for building internal models of the world:
 - the world is inhabited by objects and agents with features that are in consistent relationship to one another
 - these regularities are useful for identification and prediction (predators have fangs; when it is warm fruit will be available; types of faces)
 - correlations among features define dimensions that are relevant for and efficient at describing and understanding the world

• Extracting regularities is a fundamental job of cognition:

- Parsimony/ Abstraction: can describe a complex world with finite resources
- Generalization: infer properties of the world in novel circumstances
- Efficiency of learning: can represent novel items with existing codes

Pattern Detector

• Formalism:

- **Detector unit** *y* receives connections from a set of input units x_k
- Activation of detector unit:

$$\mathbf{y}_{j} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k} \mathbf{x}_{k} \mathbf{w}_{kj}$$

- Weight change between x_i and y_j over a set of *n* input patterns *t* $\Delta w_{ij} = \epsilon \Sigma_t x_{it} y_{jt}$
- If $\epsilon = 1/n$, then

 $\Delta W_{ij} = \langle x_i y_j \rangle_t$ (average product, or "expected value," of $x_i y_j$ over *t*)

Substitute for *y_i* and some algebra:

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{ij} = \Sigma_k \langle \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_k \rangle_t \langle \mathbf{w}_{kj} \rangle_t$$

• In words:

Changes in the weight from input unit X_i to the detector y_j are a weighted average of the correlations that X_i exhibits with the other input units X_k in the network

Net effect: weights will adjust to produce the greatest variance in *y*, by responding to "conspiracies" of correlated input units



Example



 $\Delta \mathbf{w} (\epsilon \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{y}_i)$

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

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- If we have multiple detector units y_{j} , we can extract additional components
 - Lateral competition required to prevent redundancy (otherwise all detector units would encode the same principal component)
 - Schemes can be devised to enforce orthogonality of components
 Standard hierarchical PCA
 - However, other schemes (e.g., weight normalization) provide mechanisms of parallel ("heterarchical") PCA:
 - encourages detectors to specialize for different features
 - better fit to structure of real world (world is not hierarchically arranged)

Other Approaches

• Linsker's Information Maximization

 Multiple detector units, similar to PCA network: maximizing variance in output units ≈ maximizing information (in limit not useful, since no dimension reduction ∴ no generalization)

Kohonen Network

- Multiple detector units with structured local connections among them: captures neighborhood relationships among features; topographic maps (Ken Miller's simulations of ocular dominance columns)
- Competitive Learning (winner-take-all)
 - Multiple detector units but only one allowed to be active; forces different detectors to identify different correlations among input units
- Minimum Description Length (K-winners-take-all)
 - Similar to competitive learning, but a small set of detectors can be active; trades off maximizing information against minimizing complexity

• LEABRA

- Combines K-winners-take-all competition with error-driven learning

More Generally...

 Can think of associative networks as implementing "exploratory" analysis of environment

 Parameterization implements different classes of statistical functions

Limitations of Associative Learning and Some Solutions

- Recalls each test pattern as a weighted function of its similarity to ones that it has learned: *blends*, doesn't make *"decisions"*
 - Recurrent connections + non-linear units \rightarrow settling processes:
 - auto-associator
 - attractor networks
- Weights unbounded and never decrement
 - Weight normalization
 - Weight decrements for non-correlation: Long-Term Depression (LTD)
- Pattern associator can only learn orthogonal representations; pattern detector restricted to *linear* correlational structure
 - Error-driven learning
 - Example of problem...

Example



Observe: tail is active for *all* of the animals (no variance) so it doesn't correlate with any of the other animal features and therefore is not part of their representation

Summary

- Associative (Hebbian) learning provides a biologically plausible mechanism for setting weights in a network
 - Relationship to Long Term Potentiation (LTP)
- Hebbian pattern associators can learn
 relationships between features of the world
 - patterns constrained to be orthogonal
- Hebbian pattern detectors can represent correlational structure
 - implement various forms of PCA
- Basic Hebbian rule needs augmentation
 - Weight decay (LTD), normalization (competition), etc.
- Even still, important behaviors that it can explain...

Topographic Organization

- Associative learning can extract structure in the world, and represent it *structurally* (topographically)
- There is (lots of) topographic organization in the nervous system:
 - Retina (spatiotopic), inner ear (tonotopic), sensory and motor cortex
 - Exploited for imaging (e.g., retinotopic mapping of primary visual cortex)
 - Even as it gets more complex, some topography is maintained:
 - Occular dominance columns (Miller, 1989)
 - Ocular dominance, orientation and retinotopic positions "pinwheels" (Durbin & Mitchison, 1990)
- These may reflect meaningful relationships (i.e., the "real world")



Topographic Organization



"Dimension Reduction"

- How does this structure arise?
- Challenge:



• What about even higher dimensional data?

Self-Organizing Maps (SOMs)

Kohonen Network (1982)

• Objectives:

- Map input vectors (patterns) of dimension *N* onto a map with 1 or 2 dimensions.
- Patterns close to one another in the input space should project to nearby units ("map" should be topographically ordered)

• Network architecture and input environment ("training")

- Input layer:
 - units that code a space of vectors with structure, but not spatially arranged
- Output layer:
 - each unit *j* has weights from all units in input layer
 - each unit *j* has a *defined distance* from all other units in the output layer

• Learning rule:

- present input pattern, and identify best matching (most active) output unit:
 - one with input current weights closest to input pattern ("winner" of lateral competition)
- adjust weights for that unit using following rule: $W_{b}(t+1) = W_{b}(t) + c_{wb(t)} \cdot g(t) \cdot (I - W_{b}(t))$
- α correlation of output unit with pattern of activity over input units

change in weights to **b** closeness to **b** gain difference from Input pattern



Small random initial weights

Similar colors have similar patterns

Distances



Distances









Unit with weights that best match input patter



"Rinse and repeat"





























