





What Will Not Be Covered

- Review of all architectures and learning rules
- Implementation
 - VLSI
 - Optical
 - Parallel Computers
- Biology
- Psychology

Historical Sketch

- Pre-1940: von Hemholtz, Mach, Pavlov, etc.
 - General theories of learning, vision, conditioning
 - No specific mathematical models of neuron operation
- 1940s: Hebb, McCulloch and Pitts
 - Mechanism for learning in biological neurons
 - Neural-like networks can compute any arithmetic function
- 1950s: Rosenblatt, Widrow and Hoff
 - First practical networks and learning rules
- 1960s: Minsky and Papert
 - Demonstrated limitations of existing neural networks, new learning algorithms are not forthcoming, some research suspended
- 1970s: Amari, Anderson, Fukushima, Grossberg, Kohonen
 - Progress continues, although at a slower pace
- 1980s: Grossberg, Hopfield, Kohonen, Rumelhart, etc.
 - Important new developments cause a resurgence in the field

Applications

- Aerospace
 - High performance aircraft autopilots, flight path simulations, aircraft control systems, autopilot enhancements, aircraft component simulations, aircraft component fault detectors
- Automotive
 - Automobile automatic guidance systems, warranty activity analyzers
- Banking
 - Check and other document readers, credit application evaluators
- Defense
 - Weapon steering, target tracking, object discrimination, facial recognition, new kinds of sensors, sonar, radar and image signal processing including data compression, feature extraction and noise suppression, signal/image identification
- Electronics
 - Code sequence prediction, integrated circuit chip layout, process control, chip failure analysis, machine vision, voice synthesis, nonlinear modeling

Applications

• Financial

 Real estate appraisal, loan advisor, mortgage screening, corporate bond rating, credit line use analysis, portfolio trading program, corporate financial analysis, currency price prediction

• Manufacturing

 Manufacturing process control, product design and analysis, process and machine diagnosis, real-time particle identification, visual quality inspection systems, beer testing, welding quality analysis, paper quality prediction, computer chip quality analysis, analysis of grinding operations, chemical product design analysis, machine maintenance analysis, project bidding, planning and management, dynamic modeling of chemical process systems

• Medical

 Breast cancer cell analysis, EEG and ECG analysis, prosthesis design, optimization of transplant times, hospital expense reduction, hospital quality improvement, emergency room test advisement

Applications

- Robotics
 - Trajectory control, forklift robot, manipulator controllers, vision systems
- Speech
 - Speech recognition, speech compression, vowel classification, text to speech synthesis
- Securities
 - Market analysis, automatic bond rating, stock trading advisory systems
- Telecommunications
 - Image and data compression, automated information services, real-time translation of spoken language, customer payment processing systems
- Transportation
 - Truck brake diagnosis systems, vehicle scheduling, routing systems



































Apple/Banana Example



The decision boundary should separate the prototype vectors.

 $p_1 = 0$

The weight vector should be orthogonal to the decision boundary, and should point in the direction of the vector which should produce an output of 1. The bias determines the position of the boundary

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{bmatrix} + 0 = 0$$

















Summary



- Perceptron
 - Feedforward Network
 - Linear Decision Boundary
 - One Neuron for Each Decision
- Hamming Network
 - Competitive Network
 - First Layer Pattern Matching (Inner Product)
 - Second Layer Competition (Winner-Take-All)
 - # Neurons = # Prototype Patterns
- Hopfield Network
 - Dynamic Associative Memory Network
 - Network Output Converges to a Prototype Pattern
 - # Neurons = # Elements in each Prototype Pattern





Learning Rules



Supervised Learning

Network is provided with a set of examples of proper network behavior (inputs/targets)

 $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{t}_1\}, \{\mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{t}_2\}, \dots, \{\mathbf{p}_Q, \mathbf{t}_Q\}$

• Reinforcement Learning

Network is only provided with a grade, or score, which indicates network performance

• Unsupervised Learning

Only network inputs are available to the learning algorithm. Network learns to categorize (cluster) the inputs.






$$_{1}\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{p} + b = 0$$
 $_{1}\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{p} = -b$

- All points on the decision boundary have the same inner product with the weight vector.
- Therefore they have the same projection onto the weight vector, and they must lie on a line orthogonal to the weight vector









Each neuron will have its own decision boundary.

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{p} + b_i = 0$$

A single neuron can classify input vectors into two categories.

A multi-neuron perceptron can classify input vectors into 2^s categories.











Unified Learning Rule

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If
$$t = 1$$
 and $a = 0$, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} + \mathbf{p}$
If $t = 0$ and $a = 1$, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} - \mathbf{p}$
If $t = a$, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old}$

e = t - a

If
$$e = 1$$
, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} + \mathbf{p}$
If $e = -1$, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} - \mathbf{p}$
If $e = 0$, then ${}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = {}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{old}$

$$_{1}\mathbf{w}^{new} = _{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} + e\mathbf{p} = _{1}\mathbf{w}^{old} + (t-a)\mathbf{p}$$

 $b^{new} = b^{old} + e$

A bias is a weight with an input of 1.



Multiple-Neuron Perceptrons

To update the ith row of the weight matrix:

$$_{i}\mathbf{w}^{new} = _{i}\mathbf{w}^{old} + e_{i}\mathbf{p}$$

$$b_i^{new} = b_i^{old} + e_i$$

Matrix form:

$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \mathbf{ep}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{b}^{new} = \mathbf{b}^{old} + \mathbf{e}$$

4 Apple/Banana Example
Training Set

$$\begin{cases}
\mathbf{p}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\1\\-1 \end{bmatrix}, t_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{bmatrix}, t_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{bmatrix}, t_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\-1 \end{bmatrix},$$









The perceptron rule will always converge to weights which accomplish the desired classification, assuming that such weights exist.













- 6. An operation, called multiplication, is defined such that for all scalars $a \in F$, and all vectors $x \in X$, $a x \in X$.
- 7. For any $x \in X$, 1x = x (for scalar 1).
- 8. For any two scalars $a \in F$ and $b \in F$, and any $x \in X$, a(bx) = (ab)x.
- 9. (a+b) x=a x+b x.

10. a(x+y) = a x + a y





Other Vector Spaces



Polynomials of degree 2 or less.

$$X = 2 + t + 4t^2$$

Y = 1 + 5t

Continuous functions in the interval [0,1].





Linear Independence



$$a_1 \boldsymbol{X}_1 + a_2 \boldsymbol{X}_2 + \dots + a_n \boldsymbol{X}_n = \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

implies that each

 $a_i = 0$

then

 $\{\boldsymbol{X}_i\}$

is a set of linearly independent vectors.





Spanning a Space



A subset **spans** a space if every vector in the space can be written as a linear combination of the vectors in the subspace.

$$\boldsymbol{X} = x_1 \boldsymbol{U}_1 + x_2 \boldsymbol{U}_2 + \dots + x_m \boldsymbol{U}_m$$



Basis Vectors



- A set of basis vectors for the space X is a set of vectors which spans X and is linearly independent.
- The dimension of a vector space, Dim(X), is equal to the number of vectors in the basis set.
- Let *X* be a finite dimensional vector space, then every basis set of *X* has the same number of elements.



How can you represent the vector x = 1+2t using both basis sets?





A scalar function of vectors *x* and *y* can be defined as an **inner product**, (*x*,*y*), provided the following are satisfied (for real inner products):

- (x,y) = (y,x).
- $(x,ay_1+by_2) = a(x,y_1) + b(x,y_2)$.
- $(x, x) \ge 0$, where equality holds iff x = 0.

A scalar function of a vector x is called a **norm**, ||x||, provided the following are satisfied:

- $||x|| \ge 0$.
- ||x|| = 0 iff $x = \theta$.
- ||a x|| = |a| ||x|| for scalar *a*.
- $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$.







Step 1: Set first orthogonal vector to first independent vector.

 $V_1 = Y_1$

Step 2: Subtract the portion of y_2 that is in the direction of v_1 .

$$\boldsymbol{V}_2 = \boldsymbol{Y}_2 - \boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{V}_1$$

Where a is chosen so that v_2 is orthogonal to v_1 :

$$(V_1, V_2) = (V_1, Y_2 - aV_1) = (V_1, Y_2) - a(V_1, V_1) = 0$$

$$a = \frac{(V_1, Y_2)}{(V_1, V_1)}$$



Gram-Schmidt (Cont.)



Projection of y_2 on v_1 :

$$\frac{(\boldsymbol{V}_1, \boldsymbol{Y}_2)}{(\boldsymbol{V}_1, \boldsymbol{V}_1)} \boldsymbol{V}_1$$

Step k: Subtract the portion of y_k that is in the direction of all previous v_i .

$$V_k = Y_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{(V_i, Y_k)}{(V_i, V_i)} V_i$$






Vector Expansion



If a vector space *X* has a basis set $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$, then any $x \in X$ has a unique vector expansion:

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i V_i = x_1 V_1 + x_2 V_2 + \dots + x_n V_n$$

If the basis vectors are **orthogonal**, and we take the inner product of v_i and x:

$$(V_j, X) = (V_j, \sum_{i=1}^n x_i V_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i (V_j, V_i) = x_j (V_j, V_j)$$

Therefore the coefficients of the expansion can be computed:

$$\mathbf{x}_j = \frac{(V_j, X)}{(V_j, V_j)}$$



Column of Numbers

 \square

The vector expansion provides a meaning for writing a vector as a column of numbers.

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i V_i = x_1 V_1 + x_2 V_2 + \dots + x_n V_n$$
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

To interpret **x**, we need to know what basis was used for the expansion.





Definition of reciprocal basis vectors, r_i :

$$(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i, \boldsymbol{V}_j) = 0$$
 $i \neq j$
= 1 $i = j$

where the basis vectors are $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$, and the reciprocal basis vectors are $\{r_1, r_2, ..., r_n\}$.

For vectors in \Re^n we can use the following inner product:

$$(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i, \boldsymbol{V}_j) = \mathbf{r}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j$$

Therefore, the equations for the reciprocal basis vectors become:

$$\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I} \qquad \square \supset \qquad \mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{B}^{-1}$$

 $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \ \mathbf{v}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \ \mathbf{r}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{r}_n \end{bmatrix}$



Vector Expansion



 $\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}_1 \boldsymbol{V}_1 + \boldsymbol{x}_2 \boldsymbol{V}_2 + \dots + \boldsymbol{x}_n \boldsymbol{V}_n$

Take the inner product of the first reciprocal basis vector with the vector to be expanded:

$$(\mathbf{\Gamma}_1, \mathbf{X}) = x_1(\mathbf{\Gamma}_1, \mathbf{V}_1) + x_2(\mathbf{\Gamma}_1, \mathbf{V}_2) + \dots + x_n(\mathbf{\Gamma}_1, \mathbf{V}_n)$$

By definition of the reciprocal basis vectors: $(I_1, V_2) = (I_1, V_3) = \cdots = (I_1, V_n) = 0$ $(I_1, V_1) = 1$

Therefore, the first coefficient in the expansion is:

$$x_1 = (r_1, X)$$

In general, we then have (even for nonorthogonal basis vectors):

 $x_j = (\boldsymbol{I}_j, \boldsymbol{X})$







The interpretation of the column of numbers depends on the basis set used for the expansion.





- The network output is repeatedly multiplied by the weight matrix W.
- What is the effect of this repeated operation?
- Will the output converge, go to infinity, oscillate?
- In this chapter we want to investigate matrix multiplication, which represents a general linear transformation.





A transformation consists of three parts:

- 1. A set of elements $X = \{x_i\}$, called the domain,
- 2. A set of elements $Y = \{y_i\}$, called the range, and
- 3. A rule relating each $x_i \in X$ to an element $y_i \in Y$.

A transformation is **linear** if:

- 1. For all $x_1, x_2 \in X$, $A(x_1 + x_2) = A(x_1) + A(x_2)$,
- 2. For all $x \in X$, $a \in \Re$, A(ax) = aA(x).



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Any linear transformation between two finite-dimensional vector spaces can be represented by matrix multiplication.

Let $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis for *X*, and let $\{u_1, u_2, ..., u_m\}$ be a basis for *Y*.

$$\boldsymbol{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \boldsymbol{V}_i \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i \boldsymbol{U}_i$$

Let $A: X \rightarrow Y$

 $A(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{y}$ $A\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} \mathbf{V}_{j}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} \mathbf{u}_{i}$





Since A is a linear operator,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} A(V_{j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} U_{i}$$

Since the u_i are a basis for Y,

$$A(V_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \boldsymbol{u}_i$$

(The coefficients a_{ij} will make up the matrix representation of the transformation.)

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{j} \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_{ij} \boldsymbol{u}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} \boldsymbol{u}_{i}$$





$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{U}_{i} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} \boldsymbol{U}_{i}$$

 $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \boldsymbol{U}_{i} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} - y_{i} \right) = \boldsymbol{0}$

Because the u_i are independent,





Summary



- A linear transformation can be represented by matrix multiplication.
- To find the matrix which represents the transformation we must transform each basis vector for the domain and then expand the result in terms of the basis vectors of the range.

$$A(V_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \boldsymbol{u}_i$$

Each of these equations gives us one column of the matrix.



Example - (1)



Stand a deck of playing cards on edge so that you are looking at the deck sideways. Draw a vector x on the edge of the deck. Now "skew" the deck by an angle θ , as shown below, and note the new vector y = A(x). What is the matrix of this transformation in terms of the standard basis set?





Example - (2)



To find the matrix we need to transform each of the basis vectors.

$$A(V_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} U_i$$

We will use the standard basis vectors for both the domain and the range.

$$A(s_{j}) = \sum_{i=1}^{2} a_{ij} s_{i} = a_{1j} s_{1} + a_{2j} s_{2}$$





This gives us the second column of the matrix.





Change of Basis



Consider the linear transformation $A:X \rightarrow Y$. Let $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$ be a basis for *X*, and let $\{u_1, u_2, ..., u_m\}$ be a basis for *Y*.

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i V_i \qquad \qquad Y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i U_i$$
$$A(X) = Y$$

The matrix representation is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$

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New Basis Sets



Now let's consider different basis sets. Let $\{t_1, t_2, ..., t_n\}$ be a basis for *X*, and let $\{w_1, w_2, ..., w_m\}$ be a basis for *Y*.

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x'_{i} t_{i}$$
 $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y'_{i} W_{i}$

The new matrix representation is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a'_{11} & a'_{12} & \dots & a'_{1n} \\ a'_{21} & a'_{22} & \dots & a'_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a'_{m1} & a'_{m2} & \dots & a'_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 \\ x'_2 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y'_1 \\ y'_2 \\ \vdots \\ x'_n \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\mathbf{A'x'} = \mathbf{y'}$





Expand t_i in terms of the original basis vectors for X.

$$\boldsymbol{t}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{t}_{ji} \boldsymbol{V}_{j} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{t}_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} t_{1i} \\ t_{2i} \\ \vdots \\ t_{ni} \end{bmatrix}$$

Expand w_i in terms of the original basis vectors for Y.

$$\boldsymbol{W}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} w_{ji} \boldsymbol{U}_{j} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{w}_{i} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1i} \\ w_{2i} \\ \vdots \\ w_{mi} \end{bmatrix}$$





$$\mathbf{B}_t = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{t}_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{x} = x'_1 \mathbf{t}_1 + x'_2 \mathbf{t}_2 + \dots + x'_n \mathbf{t}_n = \mathbf{B}_t \mathbf{x}'$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{w} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{1} \ \mathbf{w}_{2} \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_{m} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{B}_{w} \mathbf{y}'$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \qquad \square \searrow \qquad \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}_t\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{B}_w\mathbf{y}'$$

$$[\mathbf{B}_{w}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}_{t}]\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{y}'$$

$$\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{y}'$$

$$\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{y}'$$

$$\mathbf{A}' = [\mathbf{B}_{w}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}_{t}]$$
Similarity

Transform



$$\mathbf{Example - (2)}$$

$$\mathbf{A}' = [\mathbf{B}_{w}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}_{t}] = \begin{bmatrix} 2/3 & 2/3 \\ -2/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan\theta \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}' = \begin{bmatrix} (2/3)\tan\theta + 1 & (2/3)\tan\theta \\ (-2/3)\tan\theta & (-2/3)\tan\theta + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
For $\theta = 45^{\circ}$:
$$\mathbf{A}' = \begin{bmatrix} 5/3 & 2/3 \\ -2/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



6



Let $A:X \rightarrow X$ be a linear transformation. Those vectors $z \in X$, which are not equal to zero, and those scalars λ which satisfy

 $A(z) = \lambda z$

are called eigenvectors and eigenvalues, respectively.



Can you find an eigenvector for this transformation?



For this transformation there is only one eigenvector.



Diagonalization



Perform a change of basis (similarity transformation) using the eigenvectors as the basis vectors. If the eigenvalues are distinct, the new matrix will be diagonal.

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_1 & \mathbf{z}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{z}_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \{\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_n\} \quad \text{Eigenvectors} \\ \{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n\} \quad \text{Eigenvalues}$$

$$[\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}] = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{A}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \lambda^2 - 2\lambda = (\lambda)(\lambda - 2) = 0 \quad \lambda_1 = 0 \\ \lambda_2 = 2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} \\ z_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad z_{21} = -z_{11} \quad \mathbf{z}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 2 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_{12} \\ z_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad z_{22} = z_{12} \quad \mathbf{z}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Diagonal Form:
$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = [\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 - 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$





Hebb's Postulate

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"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."

D. O. Hebb, 1949










$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_k = \left(\sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{t}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T\right)\mathbf{p}_k = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{t}_q(\mathbf{p}_q^T \mathbf{p}_k)$$

Case I, input patterns are orthogonal.

$$(\mathbf{p}_q^T \mathbf{p}_k) = 1$$
 $q = k$
= 0 $q \neq k$

Therefore the network output equals the target:

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{t}_k$$

Case II, input patterns are normalized, but not orthogonal.

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{t}_k + \left(\sum_{q \neq k} \mathbf{t}_q(\mathbf{p}_q^T \mathbf{p}_k)\right)$$
Error









Performance Index: $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_q = \mathbf{t}_q$ q = 1, 2, ..., Q

$$F(\mathbf{W}) = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} ||\mathbf{t}_{q} - \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_{q}||^{2}$$

Matrix Form:

$$WP = T$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}_1 \ \mathbf{t}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{t}_Q \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_1 \ \mathbf{p}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{p}_Q \end{bmatrix}$$
$$F(\mathbf{W}) = \|\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{W}\mathbf{P}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{E}\|^2$$
$$\|\mathbf{E}\|^2 = \sum_i \sum_j e_{ij}^2$$



Pseudoinverse Rule - (2)



WP = T

Minimize:

$$F(\mathbf{W}) = \|\mathbf{T} - \mathbf{W}\mathbf{P}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{E}\|^2$$

If an inverse exists for \mathbf{P} , $F(\mathbf{W})$ can be made zero:

 $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$

When an inverse does not exist $F(\mathbf{W})$ can be minimized using the pseudoinverse:

 $W = TP^+$

$$\mathbf{P}^+ = (\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P})^{-1} \mathbf{P}^T$$



Hebb Rule $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{P}^T$

Pseudoinverse Rule

 $W = TP^+$

 $\mathbf{P}^+ = (\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{P})^{-1} \mathbf{P}^T$

If the prototype patterns are orthonormal:

 $\mathbf{P}^{T}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{P}^{+} = (\mathbf{P}^{T}\mathbf{P})^{-1}\mathbf{P}^{T} = \mathbf{P}^{T}$







Basic Rule:
$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \mathbf{t}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T$$

Learning Rate:
$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \alpha \mathbf{t}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T$$

Smoothing:
$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \alpha \mathbf{t}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T - \gamma \mathbf{W}^{old} = (1 - \gamma) \mathbf{W}^{old} + \alpha \mathbf{t}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T$$

Delta Rule:
$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \alpha(\mathbf{t}_q - \mathbf{a}_q)\mathbf{p}_q^T$$

Unsupervised:
$$\mathbf{W}^{new} = \mathbf{W}^{old} + \alpha \mathbf{a}_q \mathbf{p}_q^T$$





Taylor Series Expansion

$$F(x) = F(x^*) + \frac{d}{dx}F(x)\Big|_{x = x^*}(x - x^*)$$

+ $\frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2}{dx^2}F(x)\Big|_{x = x^*}(x - x^*)^2 + \cdots$
+ $\frac{1}{n!}\frac{d^n}{dx^n}F(x)\Big|_{x = x^*}(x - x^*)^n + \cdots$













First derivative (slope) of $F(\mathbf{x})$ along x_i axis: $\partial F(\mathbf{x}) / \partial x_i$

(*i*th element of gradient)

Second derivative (curvature) of $F(\mathbf{x})$ along x_i axis: $\partial^2 F(\mathbf{x}) / \partial x_i^2$

(*i*,*i* element of Hessian)

First derivative (slope) of $F(\mathbf{x})$ along vector **p**:



Second derivative (curvature) of $F(\mathbf{x})$ along vector **p**:













8 First-Order Optimality Condition $F(\mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}^* + \Delta \mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{x}^T \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} + \cdots$

 $\Delta \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*$

For small $\Delta \mathbf{x}$:

If **x*** is a minimum, this implies:

$$F(\mathbf{x}^* + \Delta \mathbf{x}) \cong F(\mathbf{x}^*) + \nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} \qquad \nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} \ge 0$$

If
$$\nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} > 0$$
 then $F(\mathbf{x}^* - \Delta \mathbf{x}) \cong F(\mathbf{x}^*) - \nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} < F(\mathbf{x}^*)$

But this would imply that \mathbf{x}^* is not a minimum. Therefore $\nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} = 0$

Since this must be true for every $\Delta \mathbf{x}$, $\left[\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*} = \mathbf{0} \right]$



Second-Order Condition



If the first-order condition is satisfied (zero gradient), then

$$F(\mathbf{x}^* + \Delta \mathbf{x}) = F(\mathbf{x}^*) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{x}^T \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} + \cdots$$

A strong minimum will exist at \mathbf{x}^* if $\Delta \mathbf{x}^T \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^*} \Delta \mathbf{x} > 0$ for any $\Delta \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$.

Therefore the Hessian matrix must be positive definite. A matrix \mathbf{A} is positive definite if:

$$\mathbf{z}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} > 0 \qquad \text{for any } \mathbf{z} \neq 0.$$

This is a **<u>sufficient</u>** condition for optimality.

A <u>necessary</u> condition is that the Hessian matrix be positive semidefinite. A matrix A is positive semidefinite if:

$$\mathbf{z}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{z} \ge 0 \qquad \text{for any } \mathbf{z}.$$



To test the definiteness, check the eigenvalues of the Hessian. If the eigenvalues are all greater than zero, the Hessian is positive definite.

$$\left|\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda \mathbf{I}\right| = \left|\begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 4 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}\right| = \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 4 = (\lambda - 0.76)(\lambda - 5.24)$$

 $\lambda = 0.76, 5.24$ Both eigenvalues are positive, therefore strong minimum.



Gradient of Quadratic Function:

 $\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}$

Hessian of Quadratic Function:

 $\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}$





Consider a quadratic function which has a stationary point at the origin, and whose value there is zero.

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$$

Perform a similarity transform on the Hessian matrix, using the eigenvalues as the new basis vectors.

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_1 & \mathbf{z}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{z}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Since the Hessian matrix is symmetric, its eigenvectors are orthogonal. $\mathbf{B}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{T}$

$$\mathbf{A}' = [\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}] = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{\Lambda} \qquad \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{B}^T$$





$$\frac{\mathbf{p}^T \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{p}}{\|\mathbf{p}\|^2} = \frac{\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}}{\|\mathbf{p}\|^2}$$

Represent **p** with respect to the eigenvectors (new basis):

 $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}$

$$\frac{\mathbf{p}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}}{\|\mathbf{p}\|^{2}} = \frac{\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^{T})\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{B}^{T}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}} = \frac{\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{c}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\lambda_{i}c_{i}^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}^{2}}$$

$$\lambda_{min} \leq \frac{\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}}{\|\mathbf{p}\|^2} \leq \lambda_{max}$$











Quadratic Function Summary



- If the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix are all positive, the function will have a single strong minimum.
- If the eigenvalues are all negative, the function will have a single strong maximum.
- If some eigenvalues are positive and other eigenvalues are negative, the function will have a single saddle point.
- If the eigenvalues are all nonnegative, but some eigenvalues are zero, then the function will either have a weak minimum or will have no stationary point.
- If the eigenvalues are all nonpositive, but some eigenvalues are zero, then the function will either have a weak maximum or will have no stationary point.

Stationary Point: $\mathbf{x}^* = -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{d}$







Steepest Descent



Choose the next step so that the function decreases:

 $F(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) < F(\mathbf{x}_k)$

For small changes in **x** we can approximate $F(\mathbf{x})$:

$$F(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = F(\mathbf{x}_k + \Delta \mathbf{x}_k) \approx F(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{g}_k^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_k$$

where

$$\mathbf{g}_k \equiv \nabla F(\mathbf{x}) \big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_k}$$

If we want the function to decrease:

$$\mathbf{g}_k^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_k = \alpha_k \mathbf{g}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k < 0$$

We can maximize the decrease by choosing:

 $\mathbf{p}_k = -\mathbf{g}_k$

 $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \mathbf{g}_k$










Minimizing Along a Line



Choose α_k to minimize $F(\mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k)$

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha_k}(F(\mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k)) = \nabla F(\mathbf{x})^T \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_k} \mathbf{p}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k^T \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_k} \mathbf{p}_k$$

$$\alpha_{k} = -\frac{\nabla F(\mathbf{x})^{T} \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_{k}} \mathbf{p}_{k}}{\mathbf{p}_{k}^{T} \nabla^{2} F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_{k}} \mathbf{p}_{k}} = -\frac{\mathbf{g}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{p}_{k}}{\mathbf{p}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{k} \mathbf{p}_{k}}$$

where

$$\mathbf{A}_k \equiv \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_k}$$









$$F(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = F(\mathbf{x}_k + \Delta \mathbf{x}_k) \approx F(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathbf{g}_k^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_k + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A}_k \Delta \mathbf{x}_k$$

Take the gradient of this second-order approximation and set it equal to zero to find the stationary point:

 $\mathbf{g}_k + \mathbf{A}_k \Delta \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{0}$

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k = -\mathbf{A}_k^{-1}\mathbf{g}_k$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{A}_k^{-1} \mathbf{g}_k$$

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$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{x} + c$$

A set of vectors is mutually <u>conjugate</u> with respect to a positive definite Hessian matrix \mathbf{A} if

$$\mathbf{p}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_j = 0 \qquad k \neq j$$

One set of conjugate vectors consists of the eigenvectors of A.

$$\mathbf{z}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{z}_j = \lambda_j \mathbf{z}_k^T \mathbf{z}_j = 0 \qquad k \neq j$$

(The eigenvectors of symmetric matrices are orthogonal.)



For Quadratic Functions



 $\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}$ $\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}$

The change in the gradient at iteration k is

$$\Delta \mathbf{g}_k = \mathbf{g}_{k+1} - \mathbf{g}_k = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_{k+1} + \mathbf{d}) - (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{d}) = \mathbf{A}\Delta \mathbf{x}_k$$

where $\Delta \mathbf{x}_{k} = (\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_{k}) = \alpha_{k} \mathbf{p}_{k}$

The conjugacy conditions can be rewritten

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{k} \mathbf{p}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_{j} = \Delta \mathbf{x}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}_{j} = \Delta \mathbf{g}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{p}_{j} = 0 \qquad k \neq j$$

This does not require knowledge of the Hessian matrix.



 $\textcircled{\textcircled{}}$

Choose the initial search direction as the negative of the gradient.

 $\mathbf{p}_0 = -\mathbf{g}_0$

Choose subsequent search directions to be conjugate.

$$\mathbf{p}_k = -\mathbf{g}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_{k-1}$$



$$\beta_k = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{p}_{k-1}} \quad \text{or} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\mathbf{g}_k^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_{k-1}} \quad \text{or} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_{k-1}}$$





• The first search direction is the negative of the gradient.

$$\mathbf{p}_0 = -\mathbf{g}_0$$

• Select the learning rate to minimize along the line.

$$\alpha_{k} = -\frac{\nabla F(\mathbf{x})^{T} |_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_{k}} \mathbf{p}_{k}}{\mathbf{p}_{k}^{T} \nabla^{2} F(\mathbf{x}) |_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_{k}} \mathbf{p}_{k}} = -\frac{\mathbf{g}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{p}_{k}}{\mathbf{p}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A}_{k} \mathbf{p}_{k}}$$
(For quadratic functions.)

• Select the next search direction using

$$\mathbf{p}_k = -\mathbf{g}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_{k-1}$$

- If the algorithm has not converged, return to second step.
- A quadratic function will be minimized in *n* steps.

















The mean square error for the ADALINE Network is a quadratic function:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = c + \mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{d} = -2\mathbf{h} \qquad \mathbf{A} = 2\mathbf{R}$$



Stationary Point



Hessian Matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = 2\mathbf{R}$$

The correlation matrix \mathbf{R} must be at least positive semidefinite. If there are any zero eigenvalues, the performance index will either have a weak minumum or else no stationary point, otherwise there will be a unique global minimum \mathbf{x}^* .

$$\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \left(c + \mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \right) = \mathbf{d} + \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = -2\mathbf{h} + 2\mathbf{R} \mathbf{x}$$
$$-2\mathbf{h} + 2\mathbf{R} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

If R is positive definite:

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{h}$$

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Approximate mean square error (one sample):

$$\hat{F}(\mathbf{X}) = (t(k) - a(k))^2 = e^2(k)$$

Approximate (stochastic) gradient:

$$\hat{\nabla}F(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla e^2(k)$$

$$[\nabla e^{2}(k)]_{j} = \frac{\partial e^{2}(k)}{\partial w_{1,j}} = 2e(k)\frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial w_{1,j}} \qquad j = 1, 2, \dots, R$$

$$[\nabla e^{2}(k)]_{R+1} = \frac{\partial e^{2}(k)}{\partial b} = 2e(k)\frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial b}$$

Approximate Gradient Calculation

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$$\frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial w_{1,j}} = \frac{\partial [t(k) - a(k)]}{\partial w_{1,j}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{1,j}} [t(k) - ({}_{1}\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{p}(k) + b)]$$

$$\frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial w_{1, j}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{1, j}} \left[t(k) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{R} w_{1, i} p_{i}(k) + b \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial w_{1,j}} = -p_j(k) \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial e(k)}{\partial b} = -1$$

$$\hat{\nabla}F(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla e^2(k) = -2e(k)\mathbf{z}(k)$$

$$\mathbf{LMS Algorithm}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha \nabla F(\mathbf{x}) |_{\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_k}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + 2\alpha e(k) \mathbf{z}(k)$$

$$\mathbf{w}(k+1) = \mathbf{w}(k) + 2\alpha e(k) \mathbf{p}(k)$$

$$b(k+1) = b(k) + 2\alpha e(k)$$







$$E[\mathbf{x}_{k+1}] = E[\mathbf{x}_k] + 2\alpha E[e(k)\mathbf{z}(k)]$$

 $E[\mathbf{x}_{k+1}] = E[\mathbf{x}_k] + 2\alpha \{ E[t(k)\mathbf{z}(k)] - E[(\mathbf{x}_k^T\mathbf{z}(k))\mathbf{z}(k)] \}$

$$E[\mathbf{x}_{k+1}] = E[\mathbf{x}_k] + 2\alpha \{ E[t_k \mathbf{z}(k)] - E[(\mathbf{z}(k) \mathbf{z}^T(k))\mathbf{x}_k] \}$$

$$E[\mathbf{x}_{k+1}] = E[\mathbf{x}_k] + 2\alpha \{\mathbf{h} - \mathbf{R}E[\mathbf{x}_k]\}$$

For stability, the eigenvalues of this matrix must fall inside the unit circle.





 $|eig([\mathbf{I} - 2\alpha \mathbf{R}])| = |1 - 2\alpha \lambda_i| < 1$

(where λ_i is an eigenvalue of **R**)

Since $\lambda_i > 0$, $1 - 2\alpha\lambda_i < 1$.

Therefore the stability condition simplifies to

 $1 - 2\alpha\lambda_i > -1$

 $\alpha < 1/\lambda_i$ for all *i*

 $0 < \alpha < 1/\lambda_{max}$






















































11
Steepest Descent

$$w_{i,j}^{m}(k+1) = w_{i,j}^{m}(k) - \alpha s_{i}^{m} a_{j}^{m-1} \qquad b_{i}^{m}(k+1) = b_{i}^{m}(k) - \alpha s_{i}^{m}$$

$$W^{m}(k+1) = W^{m}(k) - \alpha s^{m}(a^{m-1})^{T} \qquad b^{m}(k+1) = b^{m}(k) - \alpha s^{m}$$

$$s^{m} = \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n_{2}^{m}} \\ \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n_{2}^{m}} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n_{s}^{m}} \end{bmatrix}$$
Next Step: Compute the Sensitivities (Backpropagation)

Backpropagation (Sensitivities)



$$\mathbf{s}^{m} = \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial \mathbf{n}^{m}} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{n}^{m+1}}{\partial \mathbf{n}^{m}}\right)^{T} \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial \mathbf{n}^{m+1}} = \dot{\mathbf{F}}^{m}(\mathbf{n}^{m})(\mathbf{W}^{m+1})^{T} \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial \mathbf{n}^{m+1}}$$

$$\mathbf{s}^{m} = \dot{\mathbf{F}}^{m}(\mathbf{n}^{m})(\mathbf{W}^{m+1})^{T}\mathbf{s}^{m+1}$$

The sensitivities are computed by starting at the last layer, and then propagating backwards through the network to the first layer.

$$\mathbf{s}^M \to \mathbf{s}^{M-1} \to \dots \to \mathbf{s}^2 \to \mathbf{s}^1$$

11 Initialization (Last Layer)

$$s_{i}^{M} = \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = \frac{\partial (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{a})^{T} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{a})}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = \frac{\partial \sum_{j=1}^{S^{M}} (t_{j} - a_{j})^{2}}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = -2(t_{i} - a_{i})\frac{\partial a_{i}}{\partial n_{i}^{M}}$$

$$\frac{\partial a_{i}}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = \frac{\partial a_{i}^{M}}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = \frac{\partial f^{M}(n_{i}^{M})}{\partial n_{i}^{M}} = f^{M}(n_{i}^{M})$$

$$s_{i}^{M} = -2(t_{i} - a_{i})f^{M}(n_{i}^{M})$$

$$s_{i}^{M} = -2\mathbf{F}^{M}(\mathbf{n}^{M})(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{a})$$









11 Forward Propagation

$$a^{0} = p = 1$$

$$a^{1} = f^{1}(W^{1}a^{0} + b^{1}) = logsig\left(\begin{bmatrix} -0.27\\ -0.41 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -0.48\\ -0.13 \end{bmatrix} \right) = logsig\left(\begin{bmatrix} -0.75\\ -0.54 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$a^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1+e^{0.75}}\\ \frac{1}{1+e^{0.75}}\\ \frac{1}{1+e^{0.54}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.321\\ 0.368 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a^{2} = f^{2}(W^{2}a^{1} + b^{2}) = purelin\left(\begin{bmatrix} 0.09 & -0.17\\ 0.368 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0.48\\ 0.48 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.446\\ 0.446 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e = t - a = \left\{ 1 + sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}p\right) \right\} - a^{2} = \left\{ 1 + sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}1\right) \right\} - 0.446 = 1.261$$

11 Transfer Function Derivatives

$$f^{1}(n) = \frac{d}{dn} \left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-n}}\right) = \frac{e^{-n}}{(1+e^{-n})^{2}} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+e^{-n}}\right) \left(\frac{1}{1+e^{-n}}\right) = (1-a^{1})(a^{1})$$

$$f^{2}(n) = \frac{d}{dn}(n) = 1$$














Variations



- Momentum
- Variable Learning Rate

• Standard Numerical Optimization

- Conjugate Gradient
- Newton's Method (Levenberg-Marquardt)





















- If the squared error (over the entire training set) increases by more than some set percentage ζ after a weight update, then the weight update is discarded, the learning rate is multiplied by some factor (1>p>0), and the momentum coefficient γ is set to zero.
- If the squared error decreases after a weight update, then the weight update is accepted and the learning rate is multiplied by some factor $\eta > 1$. If γ has been previously set to zero, it is reset to its original value.
- If the squared error increases by less than ζ , then the weight update is accepted, but the learning rate and the momentum coefficient are unchanged.







1. The first search direction is steepest descent.

$$\mathbf{p}_0 = -\mathbf{g}_0 \qquad \mathbf{g}_k \equiv \nabla F(\mathbf{x}) \Big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_k}$$

2. Take a step and choose the learning rate to minimize the function along the search direction.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$$

3. Select the next search direction according to:

$$\mathbf{p}_k = -\mathbf{g}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_{k-1}$$

where

$$\beta_k = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{p}_{k-1}} \quad \text{or} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\mathbf{g}_k^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_{k-1}} \quad \text{or} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_k}{\mathbf{g}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{g}_{k-1}}$$





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 $\tau = 0.618$ Set $c_1 = a_1 + (1-\tau)(b_1 - a_1), F_c = F(c_1)$ $d_1 = b_1 - (1 - \tau)(b_1 - a_1), F_d = F(d_1)$ For *k*=1,2, ... repeat If $F_c < F_d$ then Set $a_{k+1} = a_k$; $b_{k+1} = d_k$; $d_{k+1} = c_k$ $c_{k+1} = a_{k+1} + (1-\tau)(b_{k+1} - a_{k+1})$ $F_{d} = F_{c}; F_{c} = F(c_{k+1})$ else Set $a_{k+1} = c_k$; $b_{k+1} = b_k$; $c_{k+1} = d_k$ $d_{k+1} = b_{k+1} - (1-\tau)(b_{k+1} - a_{k+1})$ $F_{c} = F_{d}; F_{d} = F(d_{k+1})$

end end until b_{k+1} - $a_{k+1} < tol$





Newton's Method



$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{A}_k^{-1} \mathbf{g}_k$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{k} \equiv \nabla^{2} F(\mathbf{x}) \big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_{k}} \qquad \mathbf{g}_{k} \equiv \nabla F(\mathbf{x}) \big|_{\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}_{k}}$$

If the performance index is a sum of squares function:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i^2(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{v}^T(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})$$

then the *j*th element of the gradient is

$$[\nabla F(\mathbf{x})]_j = \frac{\partial F(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j} = 2\sum_{i=1}^N v_i(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial v_i(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j}$$



Matrix Form

The gradient can be written in matrix form:

$$\nabla F(\mathbf{x}) = 2\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})$$

where \mathbf{J} is the Jacobian matrix:

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial v_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial v_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial v_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial v_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial v_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial v_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial v_N(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial v_N(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial v_N(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$





Gauss-Newton Method

Approximate the Hessian matrix as:

 $\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \cong 2\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})$

Newton's method becomes:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \left[2\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_k)\right]^{-1} 2\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

$$= \mathbf{x}_{k} - [\mathbf{J}^{T}(\mathbf{x}_{k})\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_{k})]^{-1}\mathbf{J}^{T}(\mathbf{x}_{k})\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_{k})$$





Gauss-Newton approximates the Hessian by: $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J}$

This matrix may be singular, but can be made invertible as follows:

 $G ~=~ H + \mu I$

If the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of **H** are: $\{\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \dots, \lambda_{n}\} \qquad \{\mathbf{z}_{1}, \mathbf{z}_{2}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{n}\}$ then Eigenvalues of **G** $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{z}_{i} = [\mathbf{H} + \mu\mathbf{I}]\mathbf{z}_{i} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{z}_{i} + \mu\mathbf{z}_{i} = \lambda_{i}\mathbf{z}_{i} + \mu\mathbf{z}_{i} = (\lambda_{i} + \mu)\mathbf{z}_{i}$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \left[\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_k) + \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\mathbf{I}\right]^{-1}\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$



Adjustment of μ_k



As $\mu_k \rightarrow 0$, LM becomes Gauss-Newton.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \left[\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_k)\right]^{-1}\mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k)\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

As $\mu_k \rightarrow \infty$, LM becomes Steepest Descent with small learning rate.

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} \cong \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{\mu_k} \mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{x}_k) \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_k) = \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{2\mu_k} \nabla F(\mathbf{x})$$

Therefore, begin with a small μ_k to use Gauss-Newton and speed convergence. If a step does not yield a smaller $F(\mathbf{x})$, then repeat the step with an increased μ_k until $F(\mathbf{x})$ is decreased. $F(\mathbf{x})$ must decrease eventually, since we will be taking a very small step in the steepest descent direction.

Application to Multilayer Network

The performance index for the multilayer network is:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} (\mathbf{t}_{q} - \mathbf{a}_{q})^{T} (\mathbf{t}_{q} - \mathbf{a}_{q}) = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{e}_{q}^{T} \mathbf{e}_{q} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \sum_{j=1}^{S^{M}} (e_{j,q})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (v_{i})^{2}$$

The error vector is:

$$\mathbf{v}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{1} & v_{2} & \dots & v_{N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e_{1,1} & e_{2,1} & \dots & e_{S^{M},1} & e_{1,2} & \dots & e_{S^{M},Q} \end{bmatrix}$$

The parameter vector is:

$$\mathbf{x}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \ x_{2} \ \dots \ x_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1,1}^{1} \ w_{1,2}^{1} \ \dots \ w_{S^{1},R}^{1} \ b_{1}^{1} \ \dots \ b_{S^{1}}^{1} \ w_{1,1}^{2} \ \dots \ b_{S^{M}}^{M} \end{bmatrix}$$

The dimensions of the two vectors are: $N = Q \times S^M$ $n = S^1(R+1) + S^2(S^1+1) + \dots + S^M(S^{M-1}+1)$







SDBP computes terms like:

$$\frac{\partial \hat{F}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_l} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{e}_q^T \mathbf{e}_q}{\partial x_l}$$

using the chain rule:

$\partial \hat{F}$ _	$\frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial X}$	∂n_i^m
$\partial w_{i,j}^{m}$	∂n_i^m	$\partial w_{i,j}^m$

where the sensitivity

$$s_i^m \equiv \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial n_i^m}$$

is computed using backpropagation.

For the Jacobian we need to compute terms like:

$$[\mathbf{J}]_{h,l} = \frac{\partial v_h}{\partial x_l} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial x_l}$$

Marquardt Sensitivity

If we define a Marquardt sensitivity:

$$\tilde{s}_{i,h}^{m} \equiv \frac{\partial v_{h}}{\partial n_{i,q}^{m}} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial n_{i,q}^{m}} \qquad h = (q-1)S^{M} + k$$

We can compute the Jacobian as follows:

weight

$$[\mathbf{J}]_{h,l} = \frac{\partial v_h}{\partial x_l} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial w_{i,j}^m} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial n_{i,q}^m} \times \frac{\partial n_{i,q}^m}{\partial w_{i,j}^m} = \tilde{s}_{i,h}^m \times \frac{\partial n_{i,q}^m}{\partial w_{i,j}^m} = \tilde{s}_{i,h}^m \times a_{j,q}^{m-1}$$

bias

$$[\mathbf{J}]_{h,l} = \frac{\partial v_h}{\partial x_l} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial b_i^m} = \frac{\partial e_{k,q}}{\partial n_{i,q}^m} \times \frac{\partial n_{i,q}^m}{\partial b_i^m} = \tilde{s}_{i,h}^m \times \frac{\partial n_{i,q}^m}{\partial b_i^m} = \tilde{s}_{i,h}^m$$



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- Present all inputs to the network and compute the corresponding network outputs and the errors. Compute the sum of squared errors over all inputs.
- Compute the Jacobian matrix. Calculate the sensitivities with the backpropagation algorithm, after initializing. Augment the individual matrices into the Marquardt sensitivities. Compute the elements of the Jacobian matrix.
- Solve to obtain the change in the weights.
- Recompute the sum of squared errors with the new weights. If this new sum of squares is smaller than that computed in step 1, then divide μ_k by υ, update the weights and go back to step 1. If the sum of squares is not reduced, then multiply μ_k by υ and go back to step 3.












Unsupervised Hebb Rule



$$w_{ij}(\mathbf{q}) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha a_i(q) p_j(q)$$

Vector Form:

$$\mathbf{W}(q) = \mathbf{W}(q-1) + \alpha \mathbf{a}(q)\mathbf{p}^{T}(q)$$

Training Sequence:

p(1), p(2), ..., p(Q)





Initial Weights: $w^0 = 1, w(0) = 0$ Training Sequence: $\{p^0(1) = 0, p(1) = 1\}, \{p^0(2) = 1, p(2) = 1\}, ...$

$\alpha = 1$

$$w(q) = w(q-1) + a(q)p(q)$$

First Iteration (sight fails):

$$a(1) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(1) + w(0)p(1) - 0.5)$$

= hardlim(1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 - 0.5) = 0 (no response)

$$w(1) = w(0) + a(1)p(1) = 0 + 0 \cdot 1 = 0$$

Example



Second Iteration (sight works):

$$a(2) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(2) + w(1)p(2) - 0.5)$$

= hardlim(1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 - 0.5) = 1 (banana)

 $w(2) = w(1) + a(2)p(2) = 0 + 1 \cdot 1 = 1$

Third Iteration (sight fails):

$$a(3) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(3) + w(2)p(3) - 0.5)$$

= hardlim(1 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 1 - 0.5) = 1 (banana)

$$w(3) = w(2) + a(3)p(3) = 1 + 1 \cdot 1 = 2$$

Banana will now be detected if either sensor works.





- Weights can become arbitrarily large
- There is no mechanism for weights to decrease





$$\mathbf{W}(q) = \mathbf{W}(q-1) + \alpha \mathbf{a}(q)\mathbf{p}^{T}(q) - \gamma \mathbf{W}(q-1)$$

$$\mathbf{W}(q) = (1 - \gamma)\mathbf{W}(q - 1) + \alpha \mathbf{a}(q)\mathbf{p}^{T}(q)$$

This keeps the weight matrix from growing without bound, which can be demonstrated by setting both a_i and p_j to 1:

$$w_{ij}^{max} = (1 - \gamma)w_{ij}^{max} + \alpha a_i p_j$$
$$w_{ij}^{max} = (1 - \gamma)w_{ij}^{max} + \alpha$$
$$w_{ij}^{max} = \frac{\alpha}{\gamma}$$





 $\alpha = 1$ $\gamma = 0.1$

First Iteration (sight fails):

$$a(1) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(1) + w(0)p(1) - 0.5)$$

= hardlim(1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 1 - 0.5) = 0 (no response)

 $w(1) = w(0) + a(1)p(1) - 0.1w(0) = 0 + 0 \cdot 1 - 0.1(0) = 0$

Second Iteration (sight works):

$$a(2) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(2) + w(1)p(2) - 0.5)$$

= hardlim(1 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1 - 0.5) = 1 (banana)

 $w(2) = w(1) + a(2)p(2) - 0.1w(1) = 0 + 1 \cdot 1 - 0.1(0) = 1$







• Associations will decay away if stimuli are not occasionally presented.



Therefore the weight decays by 10% at each iteration where there is no stimulus.





angle between the weight vector and the input vector is zero -the input vector is equal to the weight vector.

The rows of a weight matrix represent patterns to be recognized.



Instar Rule



Hebb with Decay

$$w_{ij}(q) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha a_i(q) p_j(q)$$

Modify so that learning and forgetting will only occur when the neuron is active - Instar Rule:

$$w_{ij}(q) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha a_i(q)p_j(q) - \gamma a_i(q)w_{ij}(q-1)$$

or

$$w_{ij}(q) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha a_i(q)(p_j(q) - w_{ij}(q-1))$$

Vector Form:

 $_{i}\mathbf{W}(q) = _{i}\mathbf{W}(q-1) + \alpha a_{i}(q)(\mathbf{p}(q) - _{i}\mathbf{W}(q-1))$

Graphical Representation



For the case where the instar is active $(a_i = 1)$: $_{i}\mathbf{w}(q) = _{i}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha(\mathbf{p}(q) - _{i}\mathbf{w}(q-1))$ or $_{i}\mathbf{w}(q) = (1-\alpha)_{i}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha \mathbf{p}(q)$ $\mathbf{p}(q)$ \otimes $_{i}\mathbf{w}(q)$ $\mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{w}(q-1)$ For the case where the instar is inactive $(a_i = 0)$: $\mathbf{W}(q) = \mathbf{W}(q-1)$





Further Training

$$a(2) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(2) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}(2) - 2) = hardlim \left[3 \cdot 1 + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - 2 \right] = 1$$
(orange)

$${}_{1}\mathbf{W}(2) = {}_{1}\mathbf{W}(1) + a(2)(\mathbf{p}(2) - {}_{1}\mathbf{W}(1)) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 1\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a(3) = hardlim(w^{0}p^{0}(3) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}(3) - 2) = hardlim \left[3 \cdot 0 + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - 1 \right] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - 2 = 1$$
(orange)

$${}_{1}\mathbf{W}(3) = {}_{1}\mathbf{W}(2) + a(3)(\mathbf{p}(3) - {}_{1}\mathbf{W}(2)) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + 1\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Orange will now be detected if either set of sensors works.

Kohonen Rule



$$_{1}\mathbf{w}(q) = _{1}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha(\mathbf{p}(q) - _{1}\mathbf{w}(q-1)), \text{ for } i \in X(q)$$

Learning occurs when the neuron's index i is a member of the set X(q). We will see in Chapter 14 that this can be used to train all neurons in a given neighborhood.



Outstar Operation



Suppose we want the outstar to recall a certain pattern \mathbf{a}^* whenever the input p=1 is presented to the network. Let

 $\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{a}^*$

Then, when p = 1

 $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{satlins}(\mathbf{W}p) = \mathbf{satlins}(\mathbf{a}^* \cdot 1) = \mathbf{a}^*$

and the pattern is correctly recalled.

The columns of a weight matrix represent patterns to be recalled.



Outstar Rule



For the instar rule we made the weight decay term of the Hebb rule proportional to the <u>output</u> of the network. For the outstar rule we make the weight decay term proportional to the <u>input</u> of the network.

$$w_{ij}(q) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha a_i(q) p_j(q) - \gamma p_j(q) w_{ij}(q-1)$$

If we make the decay rate γ equal to the learning rate α ,

$$w_{ij}(q) = w_{ij}(q-1) + \alpha(a_i(q) - w_{ij}(q-1))p_j(q)$$

Vector Form:

 $\mathbf{w}_{j}(q) = \mathbf{w}_{j}(q-1) + \alpha(\mathbf{a}(q) - \mathbf{w}_{j}(q-1))p_{j}(q)$



Example - Pineapple Recall













₹∍,**⊅**

We want the network to recognize the following prototype vectors: $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \dots, \mathbf{p}_Q\}$

The first layer weight matrix and bias vector are given by:

$$\mathbf{W}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}^{T} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \\ \mathbf{p}^{T} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} R \\ R \\ \vdots \\ R \end{bmatrix}$$

The response of the first layer is:

$$\mathbf{a}^{1} = \mathbf{W}^{1}\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{b}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{1}^{T}\mathbf{p} + R \\ \mathbf{p}_{2}^{T}\mathbf{p} + R \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{p}_{Q}^{T}\mathbf{p} + R \end{bmatrix}$$

The prototype closest to the input vector produces the largest response.

Layer 2 (Competition)

$$\mathbf{a}^2(0) = \mathbf{a}^1$$

The second layer is initialized with the output of the first layer.

$$\mathbf{a}^{2}(t+1) = \mathbf{poslin}(\mathbf{W}^{2}\mathbf{a}^{2}(t))$$

$$w_{ij}^2 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j \\ -\varepsilon, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad 0 < \varepsilon < \frac{1}{S-1} \end{cases}$$

$$a_i^2(t+1) = poslin\left(a_i^2(t) - \varepsilon \sum_{j \neq i} a_j^2(t)\right)$$

The neuron with the largest initial condition will win the competiton.







Instar Rule

$$\mathbf{w}(q) = {}_{i}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha a_{i}(q)(\mathbf{p}(q) - {}_{i}\mathbf{w}(q-1))$$

For the competitive network, the winning neuron has an ouput of 1, and the other neurons have an output of 0.

Kohonen Rule

$$_{i^*}\mathbf{w}(q) = _{i^*}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha(\mathbf{p}(q) - _{i^*}\mathbf{w}(q-1))$$

$$_{i^*}\mathbf{w}(q) = (1-\alpha)_{i^*}\mathbf{w}(q-1) + \alpha \mathbf{p}(q)$$

$$_{i}\mathbf{W}(q) = _{i}\mathbf{W}(q-1) \qquad i \neq i^{*}$$











magnitude of the bias as the neuron wins. This will make it harder to win if a neuron has won often. This is called a "conscience."


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On-Center/Off-Surround Connections for Competition

Weights in the competitive layer of the Hamming network:

 $w_{i, j} = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if } i = j \\ -\varepsilon, \text{ if } i \neq j \end{cases}$

Weights assigned based on distance:





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Feature Maps



Update weight vectors in a neighborhood of the winning neuron.









The net input is not computed by taking an inner product of the prototype vectors with the input. Instead, the net input is the negative of the distance between the prototype vectors and the input.



Subclass



For the LVQ network, the winning neuron in the first layer indicates the **subclass** which the input vector belongs to. There may be several different neurons (subclasses) which make up each class.

The second layer of the LVQ network combines subclasses into a single class. The columns of W^2 represent subclasses, and the rows represent classes. W^2 has a single 1 in each column, with the other elements set to zero. The row in which the 1 occurs indicates which class the appropriate subclass belongs to.

 $(w_{k,i}^2 = 1) \Rightarrow$ subclass *i* is a part of class *k*



A single-layer competitive network can create convex classification regions. The second layer of the LVQ network can combine the convex regions to create more complex categories.



LVQ Learning



LVQ learning combines competive learning with supervision. It requires a training set of examples of proper network behavior.

$$\{\mathbf{p}_{1}, \mathbf{t}_{1}\}, \{\mathbf{p}_{2}, \mathbf{t}_{2}\}, \dots, \{\mathbf{p}_{Q}, \mathbf{t}_{Q}\}$$

If the input pattern is classified correctly, then move the winning weight toward the input vector according to the Kohonen rule.

$$a_{i^*}^{1}\mathbf{w}^{1}(q) = {}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^{1}(q-1) + \alpha(\mathbf{p}(q) - {}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^{1}(q-1)) \qquad a_{k^*}^{2} = t_{k^*} = 1$$

If the input pattern is classified incorrectly, then move the winning weight away from the input vector.

$${}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^1(q) = {}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^1(q-1) - \alpha(\mathbf{p}(q) - {}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^1(q-1)) \qquad a_{k^*}^2 = 1 \neq t_{k^*} = 0$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline \hline 14 & Example \\
\hline \hline \hline \\ \left\{ \mathbf{p}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{t}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \quad \left\{ \mathbf{p}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{t}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \quad \left\{ \mathbf{p}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{t}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \quad \left\{ \mathbf{p}_{4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{t}_{4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \\
\mathbf{W}^{1}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \mathbf{w}^{1} \end{pmatrix}^{T} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 2 \mathbf{w}^{1} \end{pmatrix}^{T} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 3 \mathbf{w}^{1} \end{pmatrix}^{T} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 4 \mathbf{w}^{1} \end{pmatrix}^{T} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 4 \mathbf{w}^{1} \end{pmatrix}^{T} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0.75 \\ 0.75 & 0.75 \\ 1 & 0.25 \\ 0.5 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{W}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$





Second Layer



$$\mathbf{a}^{2} = \mathbf{W}^{2}\mathbf{a}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the correct class, therefore the weight vector is moved toward the input vector.

$$_{1}\mathbf{w}^{1}(1) = _{1}\mathbf{w}^{1}(0) + \alpha(\mathbf{p}_{1} - _{1}\mathbf{w}^{1}(0))$$

$$_{1}\mathbf{w}^{1}(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25\\ 0.75 \end{bmatrix} + 0.5 \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0.25\\ 0.75 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.125\\ 0.875 \end{bmatrix}$$

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If the winning neuron in the hidden layer incorrectly classifies the current input, we move its weight vector away from the input vector, as before. However, we also adjust the weights of the closest neuron to the input vector that does classify it properly. The weights for this second neuron should be moved toward the input vector.

When the network correctly classifies an input vector, the weights of only one neuron are moved toward the input vector. However, if the input vector is incorrectly classified, the weights of two neurons are updated, one weight vector is moved away from the input vector, and the other one is moved toward the input vector. The resulting algorithm is called LVQ2.









Layers of Retina



The retina is a part of the brain that covers the back inner wall of the eye and consists of three layers of neurons:

Outer Layer:

Photoreceptors - convert light into electrical signals

Rods - allow us to see in dim light

Cones - fine detail and color

Middle Layer

Bipolar Cells - link photoreceptors to third layer Horizontal Cells - link receptors with bipolar cells

Amacrine Cells - link bipolar cells with ganglion cells Final Layer

Ganglion Cells - link retina to brain through optic nerve





Photograph of the Retina

Blind Spot (Optic Disk)

Vein

Fovea







Emergent Segmentation:

Complete missing boundaries.

Featural Filling-In:

Fill in color and brightness.





Illusions demostrate the compensatory processing of the visual system. Here we see a bright white triangle and a circle which do not actually exist in the figures.



The vision systems normalize scenes so that we are only aware of relative differences in brightness, not absolute brightness.



If you look at a point between the two circles, the small inner circle on the left will appear lighter than the small inner circle on the right, although they have the same brightness. It is relatively lighter than its surroundings.

The visual system normalizes the scene. We see relative intensities.







$$n(t) = e^{-t/\varepsilon} n(0) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_0^t e^{-(t-\tau)/\varepsilon} p(t-\tau) d\tau$$

For a constant input and zero initial conditions:









LTM - Long Term Memory (Network Weights) STM - Short Term Memory (Network Outputs)







Analysis of Normalization

Neuron *i* response:

$$\varepsilon \frac{dn_i^1(t)}{dt} = -n_i^1(t) + ({}^+b^1 - n_i^1(t))p_i - n_i^1(t)\sum_{j\neq i}p_j$$

At steady state:





Define relative intensity:

$$\overline{p}_i = \frac{p_i}{P}$$
 where $P = \sum_{i=1}^{S^1} p_i$

Steady state neuron activity:

$$n_i^1 = \left(\frac{{}^+b^1P}{1+P}\right)\overline{p}_i \qquad \text{Total activity:} \quad \sum_{j=1}^{S^1} n_j^1 = \sum_{j=1}^{S^1} \left(\frac{{}^+b^1P}{1+P}\right)\overline{p}_j = \left(\frac{{}^+b^1P}{1+P}\right) \le {}^+b^1$$

1







- The network is sensitive to relative intensities of the input pattern, rather than absolute intensities.
- The output of Layer 1 is a normalized version of the input pattern.
- The on-center/off-surround connection pattern and the nonlinear gain control of the shunting model produce the normalization effect.
- The operation of Layer 1 explains the brightness constancy and brightness contrast characteristics of the human visual system.


15 Layer 2 Operation

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 \hline \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{b} \\
 \hline \mathbf{b} \\
 \hline
 \frac{\mathbf{c} d\mathbf{n}^{2}(t)}{dt} = -\mathbf{n}^{2}(t) + (^{+}\mathbf{b}^{2} - \mathbf{n}^{2}(t)) \{ [^{+}\mathbf{W}^{2}] \mathbf{f}^{2}(\mathbf{n}^{2}(t)) + \mathbf{W}^{2} \mathbf{a}^{1} \} \\
 -(\mathbf{n}^{2}(t) + \mathbf{b}^{2}) [^{-}\mathbf{W}^{2}] \mathbf{f}^{2}(\mathbf{n}^{2}(t))$$
Excitatory Input:

$$\{ [^{+}\mathbf{W}^{2}] \mathbf{f}^{2}(\mathbf{n}^{2}(t)) + \mathbf{W}^{2} \mathbf{a}^{1} \} \\
 & ^{+}\mathbf{W}^{2} = {}^{+}\mathbf{W}^{1} \quad \text{(On-center connections)} \\
 \mathbf{W}^{2} \quad \text{(Adaptive weights)}$$
Inhibitory Input:

$$[^{-}\mathbf{W}^{2}] \mathbf{f}^{2}(\mathbf{n}^{2}(t))$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{2} = \mathbf{W}^{1} \quad \text{(Off-surround connections)}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{2} = \mathbf{W}^{1} \quad \text{(Off-surround connections)}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \textbf{15} & \textbf{Layer 2 Example} \\
\hline \hline \textbf{15} & \textbf{Layer 2 Example} \\
\hline \hline \textbf{16} \\
\varepsilon = 0.1 \quad \mathbf{b}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad f^2(n) = \frac{10(n)^2}{1+(n)^2} \quad \mathbf{W}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} (1\mathbf{w}^2)^T \\ (2\mathbf{w}^2)^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & 0.4 \\ 0.45 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix} \\
\begin{array}{c} \text{Correlation between} \\ \text{prototype 1 and input.} \\
\hline (0.1) \frac{dn_1^2(t)}{dt} = -n_1^2(t) + (1-n_1^2(t)) \left\{ f^2(n_1^2(t)) + (1\mathbf{w}^2)^T \mathbf{a}^1 \right\} - n_1^2(t) f^2(n_2^2(t)) \\
\hline \text{Correlation between} \\ \text{prototype 2 and input.} \\
\hline (0.1) \frac{dn_2^2(t)}{dt} = -n_2^2(t) + (1-n_2^2(t)) \left\{ f^2(n_2^2(t)) + (2\mathbf{w}^2)^T \mathbf{a}^1 \right\} - n_2^2(t) f^2(n_1^2(t)) .
\end{array}$$







- As in the Hamming and Kohonen networks, the inputs to Layer 2 are the inner products between the prototype patterns (rows of the weight matrix W²) and the output of Layer 1 (normalized input pattern).
- The nonlinear feedback enables the network to store the output pattern (pattern remains after input is removed).
- The on-center/off-surround connection pattern causes contrast enhancement (large inputs are maintained, while small inputs are attenuated).















Grossberg Learning (Continuous-Time)

$$\frac{d[_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t)]}{dt} = \alpha n_{i}^{2}(t)\{-[_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t)] + \mathbf{n}^{1}(t)\}$$

Euler Approximation for the Derivative

$$\frac{d[\mathbf{w}^2(t)]}{dt} \approx \frac{\mathbf{w}^2(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{w}^2(t)}{\Delta t}$$

Discrete-Time Approximation to Grossberg Learning

$${}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t+\Delta t) = {}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t) + \alpha(\Delta t)n_{i}^{2}(t)\{-{}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t) + \mathbf{n}^{1}(t)\}$$





Rearrange Terms

$${}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t+\Delta t) = \{1-\alpha(\Delta t)n_{i}^{2}(t)\}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{2}(t) + \alpha(\Delta t)n_{i}^{2}(t)\{\mathbf{n}^{1}(t)\}$$

Assume Winner-Take-All Competition

$${}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^2(t+\Delta t) = \{1-\alpha'\}_{i^*}\mathbf{w}^2(t) + \{\alpha\}'\mathbf{n}^1(t) \quad \text{where} \quad \alpha' = \alpha(\Delta t)n_{i^*}^2(t)$$

Compare to Kohonen Rule

$$_{i^*}\mathbf{W}(q) = (1-\alpha)_{i^*}\mathbf{W}(q-1) + \alpha \mathbf{p}(q)$$







ART Subsystems



Layer 1 Normalization Comparison of input pattern and expectation L1-L2 Connections (Instars) Perform clustering operation. Each row of $W^{1:2}$ is a prototype pattern. Layer 2 Competition, contrast enhancement L2-L1 Connections (Outstars) Expectation Perform pattern recall. Each column of $W^{2:1}$ is a prototype pattern

Orienting Subsystem

Causes a reset when expectation does not match input Disables current winning neuron









Suppose that neuron *j* in Layer 2 has won the competition:

$$\mathbf{W}^{2:1}\mathbf{a}^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1^{2:1} \ \mathbf{w}_2^{2:1} \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1} \ \dots \ \mathbf{w}_{S^2}^{2:1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{1} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1} \quad (j\text{th column of } \mathbf{W}^{2:1})$$

Therefore the excitatory input is the sum of the input pattern and the L2-L1 expectation:

$$\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{W}^{2:1} \mathbf{a}^2 = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1}$$





Gain Control

 $[\mathbf{W}^1]\mathbf{a}^2(t)$

 $\mathbf{\overline{W}}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

The gain control will be one when Layer 2 is active (one neuron has won the competition), and zero when Layer 2 is inactive (all neurons having zero output).

Steady State Analysis: Case I

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$$\varepsilon \frac{dn_i^1}{dt} = -n_i^1 + ({}^+b^1 - n_i^1) \left\{ p_i + \sum_{j=1}^{S^2} w_{i,j}^{2:1} a_j^2 \right\} - (n_i^1 + {}^-b^1) \sum_{j=1}^{S^2} a_j^2$$

Case I: Layer 2 inactive (each
$$a_j^2 = 0$$
)
 $\epsilon \frac{dn_i^1}{dt} = -n_i^1 + (b^1 - n_i^1) \{p_i\}$

In steady state:

$$0 = -n_i^1 + ({}^+b^1 - n_i^1)p_i = -(1 + p_i)n_i^1 + {}^+b^1p_i \qquad \square > n_i^1 = \frac{{}^+b^1p_i}{1 + p_i}$$

Therefore, if Layer 2 is inactive:

$$\mathbf{a}^1 = \mathbf{p}$$





Case II: Layer 2 active (one
$$a_{j}^{2} = 1$$
)
 $\epsilon \frac{dn_{i}^{1}}{dt} = -n_{i}^{1} + ({}^{+}b^{1} - n_{i}^{1})\{p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1}\} - (n_{i}^{1} + {}^{-}b^{1})$
In steady state:
 $0 = -n_{i}^{1} + ({}^{+}b^{1} - n_{i}^{1})\{p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1}\} - (n_{i}^{1} + {}^{-}b^{1})$
 $= -(1 + p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1} + 1)n_{i}^{1} + ({}^{+}b^{1}(p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1}) - {}^{-}b^{1})$ $\longrightarrow n_{i}^{1} = \frac{{}^{+}b^{1}(p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1}) - {}^{-}b^{1}}{2 + p_{i} + w_{i,j}^{2:1}}$
We want Layer 1 to combine the input vector with the expectation from
Layer 2, using a logical AND operation:

 $n_i^1 < 0$, if either $w_{i,j}^{2:1}$ or p_i is equal to zero. $n_i^1 > 0$, if both $w_{i,j}^{2:1}$ or p_i are equal to one.

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} {}^{+}b^{1}(2) - {}^{-}b^{1} > 0 \\ {}^{+}b^{1} - {}^{-}b^{1} < 0 \end{array} \right\} \left. \begin{array}{c} {}^{+}b^{1}(2) > {}^{-}b^{1} > {}^{+}b^{1} \\ {}^{+}b^{1} - {}^{-}b^{1} < 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Therefore, if Layer 2 is active, and the biases satisfy these conditions:

$$\mathbf{a}^1 = \mathbf{p} \cap \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1}$$













16 Layer 2 Summary

$$\hat{a}_{i}^{2} = \begin{cases}
1, & \text{if}((\mathbf{i}\mathbf{w}^{1:2})^{T}\mathbf{a}^{1} = max[(\mathbf{j}\mathbf{w}^{1:2})^{T}\mathbf{a}^{1}]) \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}$$



Purpose: Determine if there is a sufficient match between the L2-L1 expectation (a^1) and the input pattern (p).



When the excitatory input is larger than the inhibitory input, the Orienting Subsystem will be driven on.



Orienting Subsystem Example 16 $\varepsilon = 0.1, \alpha = 3, \beta = 4 \ (\rho = 0.75)$ $\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{a}^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $(0.1)\frac{dn^{0}(t)}{dt} = -n^{0}(t) + (1-n^{0}(t))\{3(p_{1}+p_{2})\} - (n^{0}(t)+1)\{4(a_{1}^{1}+a_{2}^{1})\}$ $\frac{dn^{0}(t)}{dt} = -110n^{0}(t) + 20$ $n^0(t)$ 0.1 -0.1

0.05

0.1

t

0.15

0.2

-0.2∟ 0



$$a^{0} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if}[\|\mathbf{a}^{1}\|^{2} / \|\mathbf{p}\|^{2} < \rho] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$







The ART1 network has two separate learning laws: one for the L1-L2 connections (instars) and one for the L2-L1 connections (outstars).

Both sets of connections are updated at the same time - when the input and the expectation have an adequate match.

The process of matching, and subsequent adaptation is referred to as resonance.





Suppose that
$$\mathbf{W}^{1:2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 so the prototypes are $_1\mathbf{w}^{1:2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} _2\mathbf{w}^{1:2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

We say that ${}_1\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ is a subset of ${}_2\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$, because ${}_2\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ has a 1 wherever ${}_1\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ has a 1.

If the output of layer 1 is
$$\mathbf{a}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 then the input to Layer 2 will be
$$\mathbf{W}^{1:2}\mathbf{a}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Both prototype vectors have the same inner product with \mathbf{a}^1 , even though the first prototype is identical to \mathbf{a}^1 and the second prototype is not. This is called the *Subset/Superset* dilemma.




Normalize the prototype patterns.

$$\mathbf{W}^{1:2} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{1:2}\mathbf{a}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 2\\ \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we have the desired result; the first prototype has the largest inner product with the input.



When neuron *i* of Layer 2 is active, ${}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ is moved in the direction of \mathbf{a}^{1} . The elements of ${}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ compete, and therefore ${}_{i}\mathbf{w}^{1:2}$ is normalized.



Learning Law: L2-L1

020

Outstar

$$\frac{d[\mathbf{w}_{j}^{2:1}(t)]}{dt} = a_{j}^{2}(t)[-\mathbf{w}_{j}^{2:1}(t) + \mathbf{a}^{1}(t)]$$

Fast Learning

Assume that $a_{i}^{2}(t) = 1$, and solve for the steady state weight:

$$\mathbf{0} = -\mathbf{w}_{j}^{2:1} + \mathbf{a}^{1} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{w}_{j}^{2:1} = \mathbf{a}^{1}$$

Column *j* of $W^{2:1}$ converges to the output of Layer 1, which is a combination of the input pattern and the previous prototype pattern. The prototype pattern is modified to incorporate the current input pattern.



- 0) All elements of the initial $W^{2:1}$ matrix are set to 1. All elements of the initial $W^{1:2}$ matrix are set to $\zeta/(\zeta+S^1-1)$.
- 1) Input pattern is presented. Since Layer 2 is not active,

$$\mathbf{a}^1 = \mathbf{p}$$

2) The input to Layer 2 is computed, and the neuron with the largest input is activated.

$$a_i^2 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if}((_i \mathbf{w}^{1:2})^T \mathbf{a}^1 = max[(_k \mathbf{w}^{1:2})^T \mathbf{a}^1]) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In case of a tie, the neuron with the smallest index is the winner.

3) The L2-L1 expectation is computed.

$$\mathbf{W}^{2:1}\mathbf{a}^2 = \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1}$$

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4) Layer 1 output is adjusted to include the L2-L1 expectation.

$$\mathbf{a}^1 = \mathbf{p} \cap \mathbf{w}_j^{2:1}$$

5) The orienting subsystem determines match between the expectation and the input pattern.

$$a^{0} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if} \left[\left\| \mathbf{a}^{1} \right\|^{2} / \left\| \mathbf{p} \right\|^{2} < \rho \right] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- 6) If $a^0 = 1$, then set $a_j^2 = 0$, inhibit it until resonance, and return to Step 1. If $a^0 = 0$, then continue with Step 7.
- 7) Resonance has occured. Update row j of $W^{1:2}$.

$$_{j}\mathbf{w}^{1:2} = \frac{\zeta \mathbf{a}^{1}}{\zeta + \|\mathbf{a}^{1}\|^{2} - \zeta}$$

8) Update column j of $\mathbf{W}^{2:1}$.

$$\mathbf{w}_j^{2:1} = \mathbf{a}^1$$

9) Remove input, restore inhibited neurons, and return to Step 1.













$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a}(t), \mathbf{p}(t), t)$$

Eqilibrium Point:

An equilibrium point is a point \mathbf{a}^* where $d\mathbf{a}/dt = \mathbf{0}$.

<u>Stability</u> (in the sense of Lyapunov):

The origin is a stable equilibrium point if for any given value $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a number $\delta(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that if $||\mathbf{a}(0)|| < \delta$, then the resulting motion, $\mathbf{a}(t)$, satisfies $||\mathbf{a}(t)|| < \varepsilon$ for t > 0.







$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a}(t),\mathbf{p}(t),t)$$

Asymptotic Stability:

The origin is an asymptotically stable equilibrium point if there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that if $||\mathbf{a}(0)|| < \delta$, then the resulting motion, $\mathbf{a}(t)$, satisfies $||\mathbf{a}(t)|| \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.





Definite Functions

Positive Definite:

A scalar function $V(\mathbf{a})$ is positive definite if $V(\mathbf{0}) = 0$ and $V(\mathbf{a}) > 0$ for $\mathbf{a} \neq 0$.

Positive Semidefinite:

A scalar function $V(\mathbf{a})$ is positive semidefinite if $V(\mathbf{0})=0$ and $V(\mathbf{a}) \ge 0$ for all \mathbf{a} .





$$\frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$$

Theorem 1: Lyapunov Stability Theorem

If a positive definite function $V(\mathbf{a})$ can be found such that $dV(\mathbf{a})/dt$ is negative semidefinite, then the origin $(\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{0})$ is stable for the above system. If a positive definite function $V(\mathbf{a})$ can be found such that $dV(\mathbf{a})/dt$ is negative definite, then the origin $(\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{0})$ is asymptotically stable. In each case, $V(\mathbf{a})$ is called a Lyapunov function of the system.





Therefore the origin is an equilibrium point.



$$\frac{d}{dt}V(\mathbf{a}) = -cl(a_2)^2 \le 0$$

The derivative is negative semidefinite, which proves that the origin is stable in the sense of Lyapunov (at least).









Let $V(\mathbf{a})$ be a continuously differentiable function from \Re^n to \Re . If *G* is any subset of \Re^n , we say that *V* is a Lyapunov function on *G* for the system $d\mathbf{a}/dt = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$ if

$$\frac{dV(\mathbf{a})}{dt} = (\nabla V(\mathbf{a}))^T \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$$

does not change sign on G.

$\underline{\operatorname{Set} Z}$

 $Z = \{\mathbf{a}: dV(\mathbf{a})/dt = 0, \mathbf{a} \text{ in the closure of } G\}$



Definitions

Invariant Set

A set of points in \Re^n is invariant with respect to $d\mathbf{a}/dt = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$ if every solution of $d\mathbf{a}/dt = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$ starting in that set remains in the set for all time.

<u>Set L</u>

L is defined as the largest invariant set in Z.





Theorem 2: Lasalle's Invariance Theorem

If *V* is a Lyapunov function on *G* for $d\mathbf{a}/dt = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{a})$, then each solution $\mathbf{a}(t)$ that remains in *G* for all t > 0 approaches $L^\circ = L \cup \{\infty\}$ as $t \to \infty$. (*G* is a basin of attraction for L, which has all of the stable points.) If all trajectories are bounded, then $\mathbf{a}(t) \to L$ as $t \to \infty$.

Corollary 1: <u>Lasalle's Corollary</u> Let *G* be a component (one connected subset) of $\Omega_n = \{ \mathbf{a} : V(\mathbf{a}) < \eta \}.$

Assume that *G* is bounded, $dV(\mathbf{a})/dt \le 0$ on the set *G*, and let the set $L^\circ = \operatorname{closure}(L \cup G)$ be a subset of *G*. Then L° is an attractor, and *G* is in its region of attraction.











Comments



We want G to be as large as possible, because that will indicate the region of attraction. However, we want to choose V so that the set Z, which will contain the attractor set, is as small as possible.

V = 0 is a Lyapunov function for all of \Re^n , but it gives no information since $Z = \Re^n$.

If V_1 and V_2 are Lyapunov functions on G, and dV_1/dt and dV_2/dt have the same sign, then $V_1 + V_2$ is also a Lyapunov function, and $Z = Z_1 \cap Z_2$. If Z is smaller than Z_1 or Z_2 , then V is a "better" Lyapunov function than either V_1 or V_2 . V is always at least as good as either V_1 or V_2 .





Equations of Operation $C\frac{dn_{i}(t)}{dt} = \sum_{j=1}^{S} T_{i, j}a_{j}(t) - \frac{n_{i}(t)}{R_{i}} + I_{i}$ n_i - input voltage to the *i*th amplifier a_i - output voltage of the *i*th amplifier C - amplifier input capacitance I_i - fixed input current to the *i*th amplifier S

$$|T_{i,j}| = \frac{1}{R_{i,j}}$$
 $\frac{1}{R_i} = \frac{1}{\rho} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{R_{i,j}}$ $n_i = f^{-1}(a_i)$ $a_i = f(n_i)$









Complete Lyapunov Derivative

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$$\frac{d}{dt}V(\mathbf{a}) = -\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W} \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} + \mathbf{n}^T \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} - \mathbf{b}^T \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = [-\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{n}^T - \mathbf{b}^T] \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt}$$

From the system equations we know:

$$[-\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{n}^{T} - \mathbf{b}^{T}] = -\varepsilon \left[\frac{d\mathbf{n}(t)}{dt}\right]^{T}$$

So the derivative can be written:

$$\frac{d}{dt}V(\mathbf{a}) = -\varepsilon \left[\frac{d\mathbf{n}(t)}{dt}\right]^T \frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = -\varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left(\frac{dn_i}{dt}\right) \left(\frac{da_i}{dt}\right) = -\varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left(\frac{dn_i}{dt}\right) \left(\frac{da_i}{dt}\right)$$
$$= -\varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left(\frac{d}{da_i} [f^{-1}(a_i)]\right) \left(\frac{da_i}{dt}\right)^2$$

If
$$\frac{d}{da_i} [f^{-1}(a_i)] > 0$$
 then $\frac{d}{dt} V(\mathbf{a}) \le 0$

Invariant Sets



 $Z = \{\mathbf{a}: dV(\mathbf{a})/dt = 0, \mathbf{a} \text{ in the closure of } G\}$

$$\frac{d}{dt}V(\mathbf{a}) = -\varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left(\frac{d}{da_i} [f^{-1}(a_i)]\right) \left(\frac{da_i}{dt}\right)^2$$

This will be zero only if the neuron outputs are not changing:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = \mathbf{0}$$

Therefore, the system energy is not changing only at the equilibrium points of the circuit. Thus, all points in *Z* are potential attractors:

$$L = Z$$






$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} + \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left\{ \int_{0}^{a_{i}} f^{-1}(u) du \right\} - \mathbf{b}^{T}\mathbf{a}$$

$$-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^{T}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix}a_{1} & a_{2}\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}0 & 1\\1 & 0\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}a_{1}\\a_{2}\end{bmatrix} = -a_{1}a_{2}$$

$$\int_{0}^{a_{i}} f^{-1}(u) du = \frac{2}{\gamma \pi} \int_{0}^{a_{i}} \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2}u\right) du = \frac{2}{\gamma \pi} \left[-\log\left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}u\right)\right] \frac{2}{\pi} \right]_{0}^{a_{i}} = -\frac{4}{\gamma \pi^{2}} \log\left[\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}a_{i}\right)\right]$$

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -a_1 a_2 - \frac{4}{1.4\pi^2} \left[\log \left\{ \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2} a_1\right) \right\} + \log \left\{ \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2} a_2\right) \right\} \right]$$





$$\frac{d\mathbf{n}}{dt} = -\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{n}) = -\mathbf{n} + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{a}$$

$$dn_1/dt = a_2 - n_1$$

$$dn_2/dt = a_1 - n_2$$

$$a_1 = \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1.4\pi}{2} n_1 \right)$$

$$a_2 = \frac{2}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1.4\pi}{2} n_2 \right)$$







Hopfield Attractors



The potential attractors of the Hopfield network satisfy:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{a}}{dt} = \mathbf{0}$$

How are these points related to the minima of $V(\mathbf{a})$? The minima must satisfy:

$$\nabla V = \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial a_1} \frac{\partial V}{\partial a_2} \dots \frac{\partial V}{\partial a_S} \right]^T = \mathbf{0}$$

Where the Lyapunov function is given by:

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} + \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left\{ \int_{0}^{a_i} f^{-1}(u) du \right\} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{a}$$





Using previous results, we can show that:

$$\nabla V(\mathbf{a}) = [-\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{n} - \mathbf{b}] = -\varepsilon \left[\frac{d\mathbf{n}(t)}{dt}\right]$$

The *i*th element of the gradient is therefore:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}_{i}}V(\mathbf{a}) = -\varepsilon \frac{dn_{i}}{dt} = -\varepsilon \frac{d}{dt}\left(\left[f^{-1}(a_{i})\right]\right) = -\varepsilon \frac{d}{da_{i}}\left[f^{-1}(a_{i})\right]\frac{da_{i}}{dt}$$

Since the transfer function and its inverse are monotonic increasing: $\frac{d}{da_i}[f^{-1}(a_i)] > 0$

All points for which $\frac{d\mathbf{a}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{0}$ will also satisfy $\nabla V(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{0}$

Therefore all attractors will be stationary points of $V(\mathbf{a})$.









As $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$ the Lyapunov function reduces to:

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}^T\mathbf{a}$$

The high gain Lyapunov function is quadratic:

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{A}\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{a} + c$$

where

$$\nabla^2 V(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{W} \qquad \mathbf{d} = -\mathbf{b} \qquad c = 0$$









<u>Content-Addressable Memory</u> - retrieves stored memories on the basis of part of the contents.

Prototype Patterns:

 $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \dots, \mathbf{p}_Q\}$ (bipolar vectors)

Proposed Performance Index:

$$J(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^{Q} ([\mathbf{p}_q]^T \mathbf{a})^2$$

For orthogonal prototypes, if we evaluate the performance index at a prototype:

$$J(\mathbf{p}_{j}) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^{Q} ([\mathbf{p}_{q}]^{T} \mathbf{p}_{j})^{2} = -\frac{1}{2} ([\mathbf{p}_{j}]^{T} \mathbf{p}_{j})^{2} = -\frac{S}{2}$$

 $J(\mathbf{a})$ will be largest when \mathbf{a} is not close to any prototype pattern, and smallest when \mathbf{a} is equal to a prototype pattern.

Hebb Rule



If we use the supervised Hebb rule to compute the weight matrix:

$$\mathbf{W} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{p}_{q} (\mathbf{p}_{q})^{T} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{0}$$

the Lyapunov function will be:

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^T \left[\sum_{q=1}^Q \mathbf{p}_q(\mathbf{p}_q)^T\right]\mathbf{a} = -\frac{1}{2}\sum_{q=1}^Q \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{p}_q(\mathbf{p}_q)^T\mathbf{a}$$

This can be rewritten:

$$V(\mathbf{a}) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \left[\left(\mathbf{p}_{q} \right)^{T} \mathbf{a} \right]^{2} = J(\mathbf{a})$$

Therefore the Lyapunov function is equal to our performance index for the content addressable memory.





$$\mathbf{W} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{p}_{q} (\mathbf{p}_{q})^{T}$$

If we apply prototype \mathbf{p}_i to the network:

$$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{p}_{j} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{p}_{q}(\mathbf{p}_{q})^{T}\mathbf{p}_{j} = \mathbf{p}_{j}(\mathbf{p}_{j})^{T}\mathbf{p}_{j} = S\mathbf{p}_{j}$$

Therefore each prototype is an eigenvector, and they have a common eigenvalue of *S*. The eigenspace for the eigenvalue $\lambda = S$ is therefore:

$$X = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \dots, \mathbf{p}_Q\}$$

An *S*-dimensional space of all vectors which can be written as linear combinations of the prototype vectors.





The entire input space can be divided into two disjoint sets:

$$R^{\rm S} = X \cup X^{\perp}$$

where X^{\perp} is the orthogonal complement of *X*. For vectors **a** in the orthogonal complement we have:

$$(\mathbf{p}_q)^T \mathbf{a} = 0, \ q = 1, 2, \dots, Q$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{a} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \mathbf{p}_{q}(\mathbf{p}_{q})^{T}\mathbf{a} = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} (\mathbf{p}_{q} \cdot \mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{a}$$

The eigenvalues of **W** are *S* and 0, with corresponding eigenspaces of *X* and X^{\perp} . For the Hessian matrix

$$\nabla^2 V = -\mathbf{W}$$

the eigenvalues are -S and 0, with the same eigenspaces.





The high-gain Lyapunov function is a quadratic function. Therefore, the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix determine its shape. Because the first eigenvalue is negative, *V* will have negative curvature in *X*. Because the second eigenvalue is zero, *V* will have zero curvature in X^{\perp} .

Because *V* has negative curvature in *X*, the trajectories of the Hopfield network will tend to fall into the corners of the hypercube $\{\mathbf{a}: -1 < a_i < 1\}$ that are contained in *X*.





We can zero the diagonal elements of the weight matrix:

$$\mathbf{W}' = \mathbf{W} - Q\mathbf{I}$$

The prototypes remain eigenvectors of this new matrix, but the corresponding eigenvalue is now (S-Q):

$$\mathbf{W'}\mathbf{p}_q = [\mathbf{W} - Q\mathbf{I}]\mathbf{p}_q = S\mathbf{p}_q - Q\mathbf{p}_q = (S - Q)\mathbf{p}_q$$

The elements of X^{\perp} also remain eigenvectors of this new matrix, with a corresponding eigenvalue of (-*Q*):

$$\mathbf{W'a} = [\mathbf{W} - Q\mathbf{I}]\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} - Q\mathbf{a} = -Q\mathbf{a}$$

The Lyapunov surface will have negative curvature in *X* and positive curvature in X^{\perp} , in contrast with the original Lyapunov function, which had negative curvature in *X* and zero curvature in X^{\perp} .



If the initial condition falls exactly on the line $a_1 = -a_2$, and the weight matrix **W** is used, then the network output will remain constant. If the initial condition falls exactly on the line $a_1 = -a_2$, and the weight matrix **W**' is used, then the network output will converge to the saddle point at the origin.