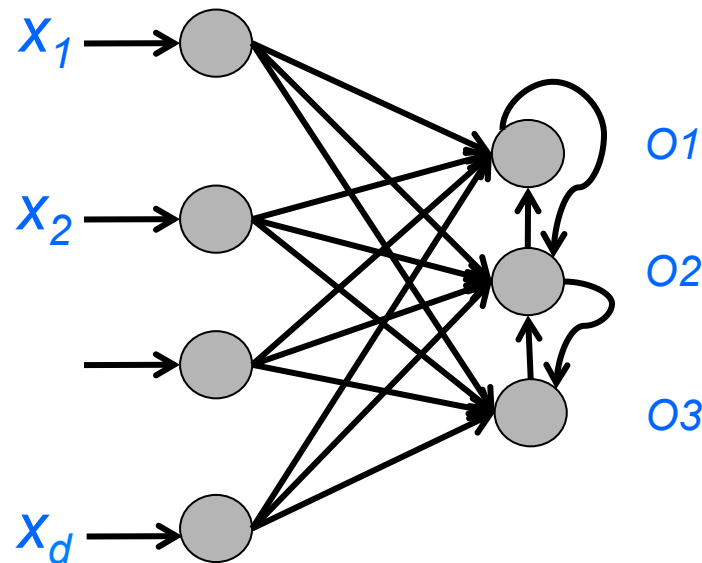


# ***Competitive Learning***

## ***Lecture 10***

# Competitive Learning

- A form of unsupervised training where output units are said to be in competition for input patterns
  - During training, the output unit that provides the highest activation to a given input pattern is declared the weights of the winner and is moved closer to the input pattern, whereas the rest of the neurons are left unchanged
  - This strategy is also called winner-take-all since only the winning neuron is updated
  - Output units may have lateral inhibitory connections so that a winner neuron can inhibit others by an amount proportional to its activation level



# Competitive Learning

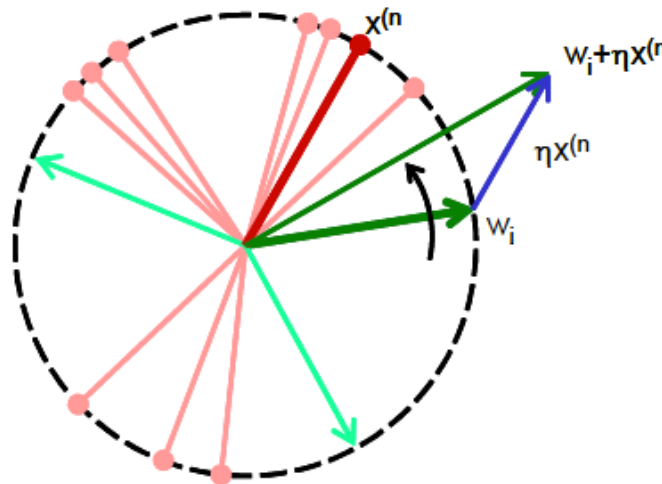
- With normalized vectors, the activation function of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  unit can be computed as the inner product of the unit's weight vector  $w_i$  and a particular input pattern  $x^{(n)}$

$$g_i(x^{(n)}) = w_i^T x^{(n)}$$

- Note: the inner product of two normal vectors is the cosine of the angle between them
- The neuron with largest activation is then adapted to be more like the input that caused the excitation

$$w_i(t+1) = w_i(t) + \eta x^{(n)}$$

- Following update, the weight vector is renormalized ( $\|w\|=1$ )



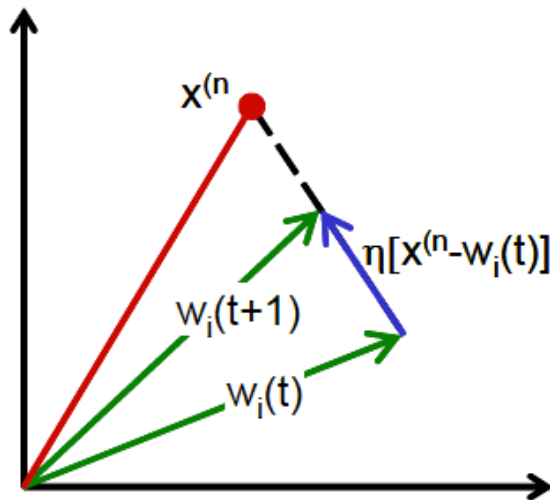
# Competitive Learning

- If weights and input patterns are un-normalized, the activation function becomes the Euclidean distance

$$g_i(x^{(n)}) = \sqrt{\sum_i (w_i - x_i^{(n)})^2}$$

- The learning rule then become

$$w_i(t+1) = w_i(t) + \eta(x^{(n)} - w_i(t))$$



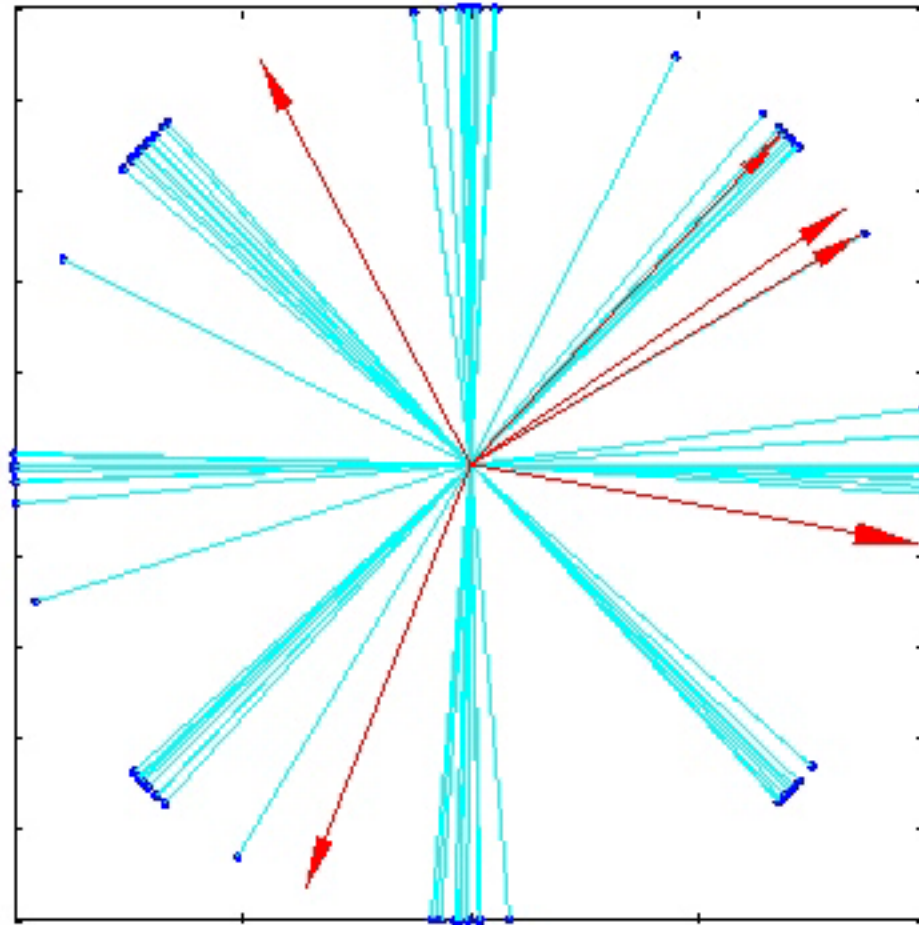
# Competitive Learning

## ■ Competitive Learning Algorithm

1. Normalize all input patterns
2. Randomly select a pattern  $x^{(n)}$ 
  - 2a. Find the winner neuron
$$i = \underset{j}{\operatorname{argmax}} [w_j^T x^{(n)}]$$
  - 2.b. Update the winner neuron
$$w_i = w_i + \eta x^{(n)}$$
  - 2c. Normalize the winner neuron
$$w_i = \frac{w_i}{\|w_i\|}$$
3. Go to step 2 until no changes occur in  $N_{EX}$  runs

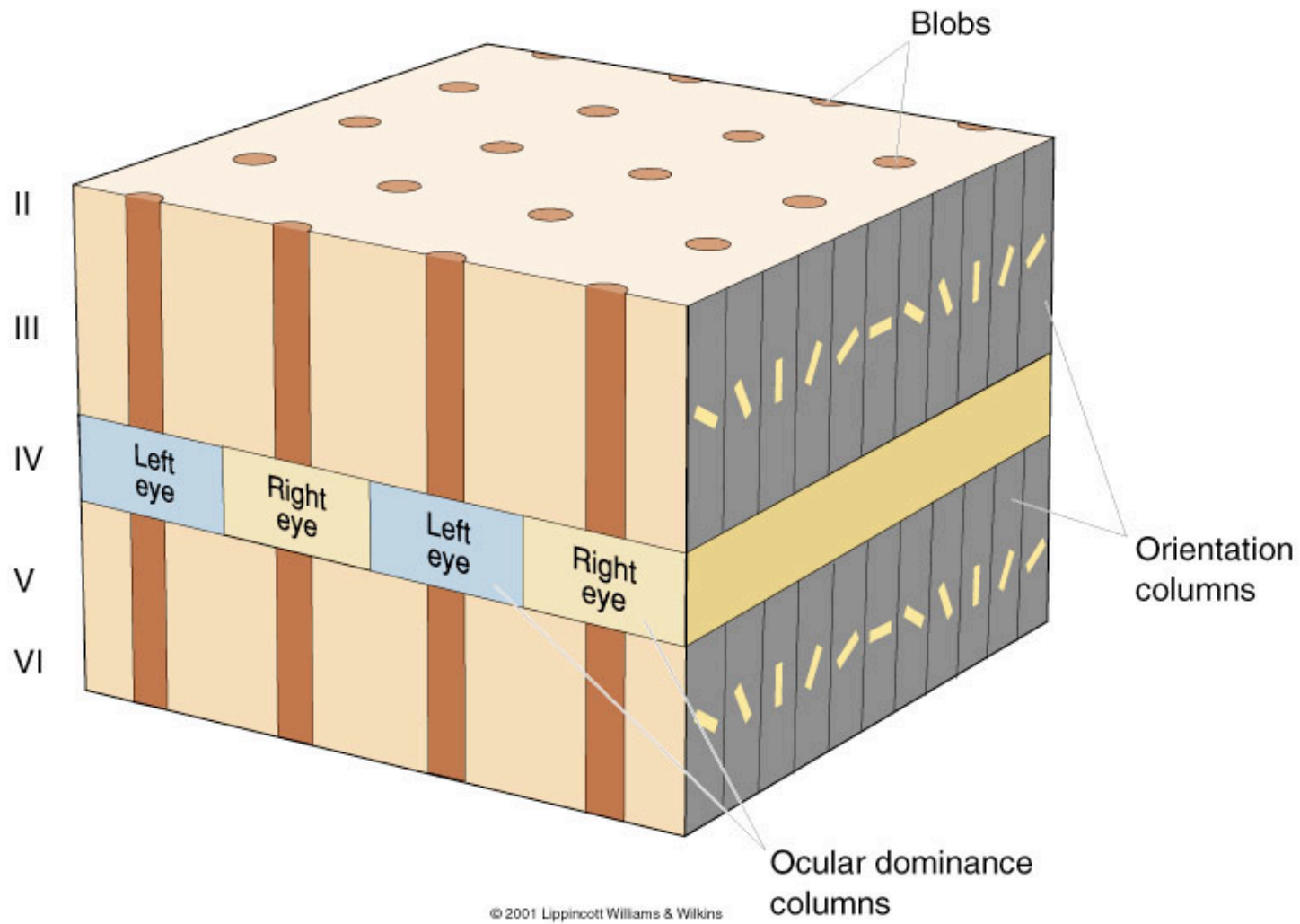
# Competitive Learning

## ■ Demo:



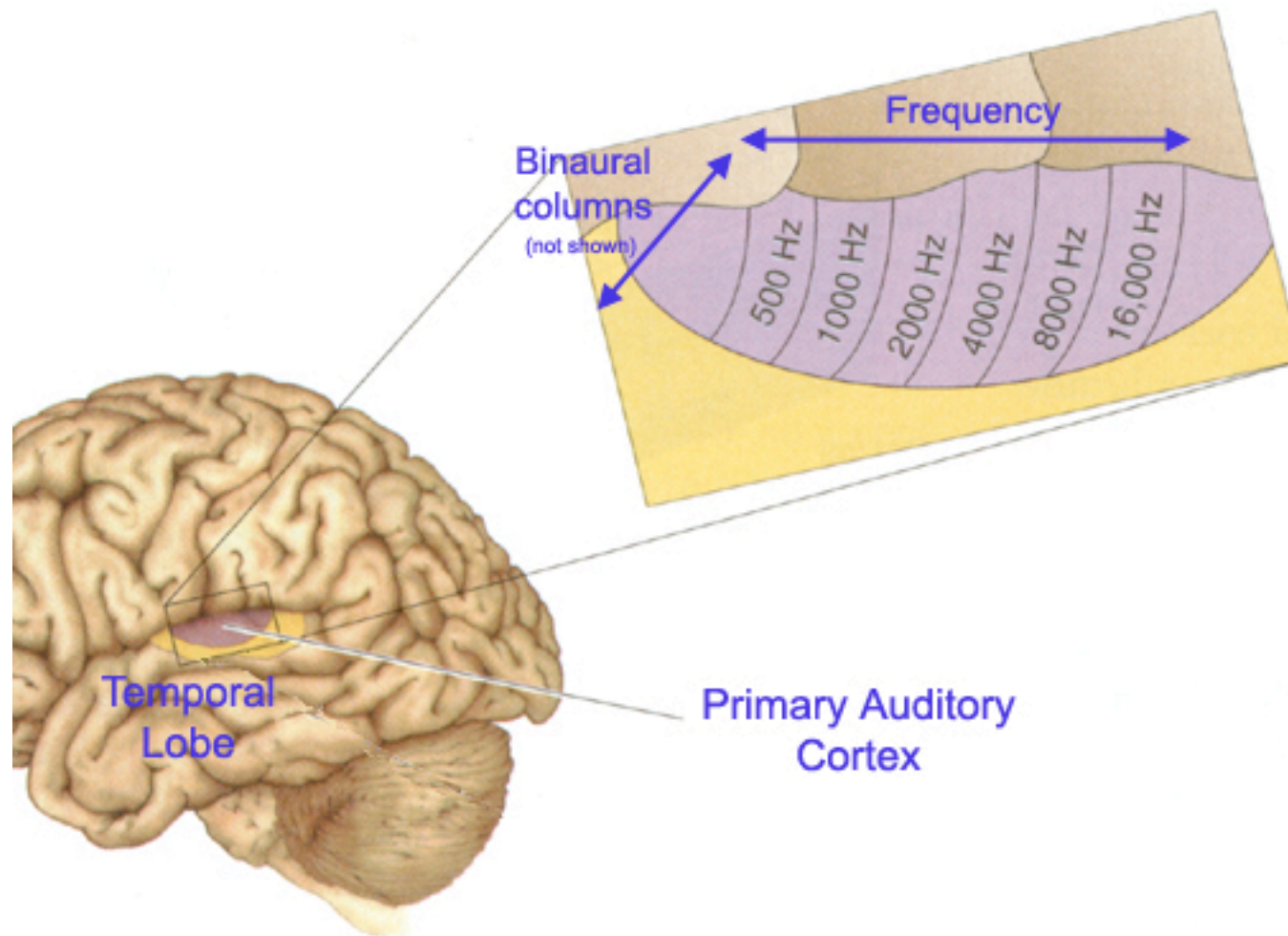
# Direction maps

Figure 10.26  
A cortical module.



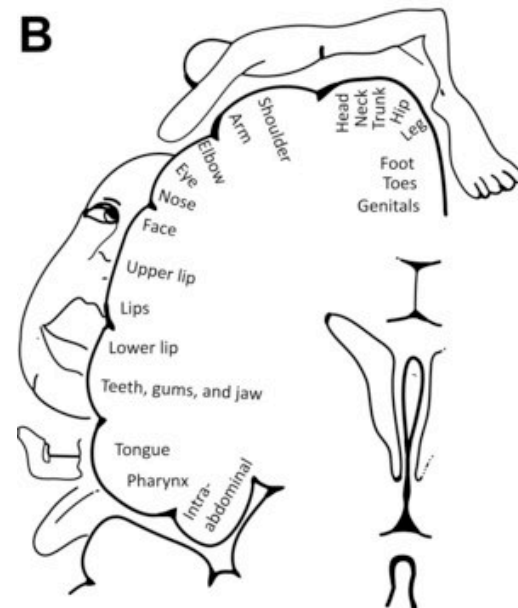
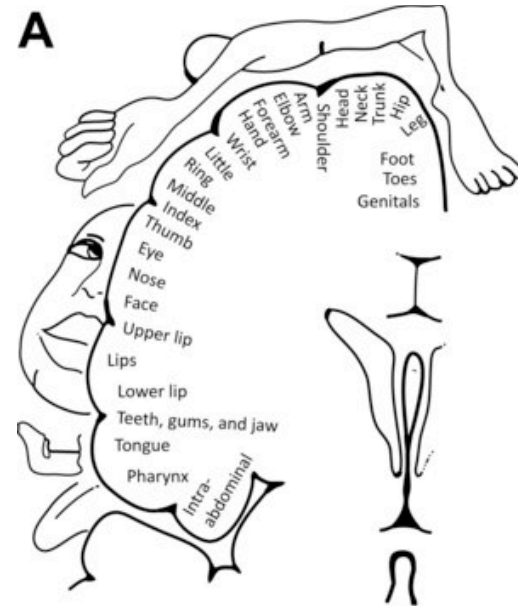
# Tonotopic maps

## Tonotopic Map Has Columnar Organization





# Phantom Digits



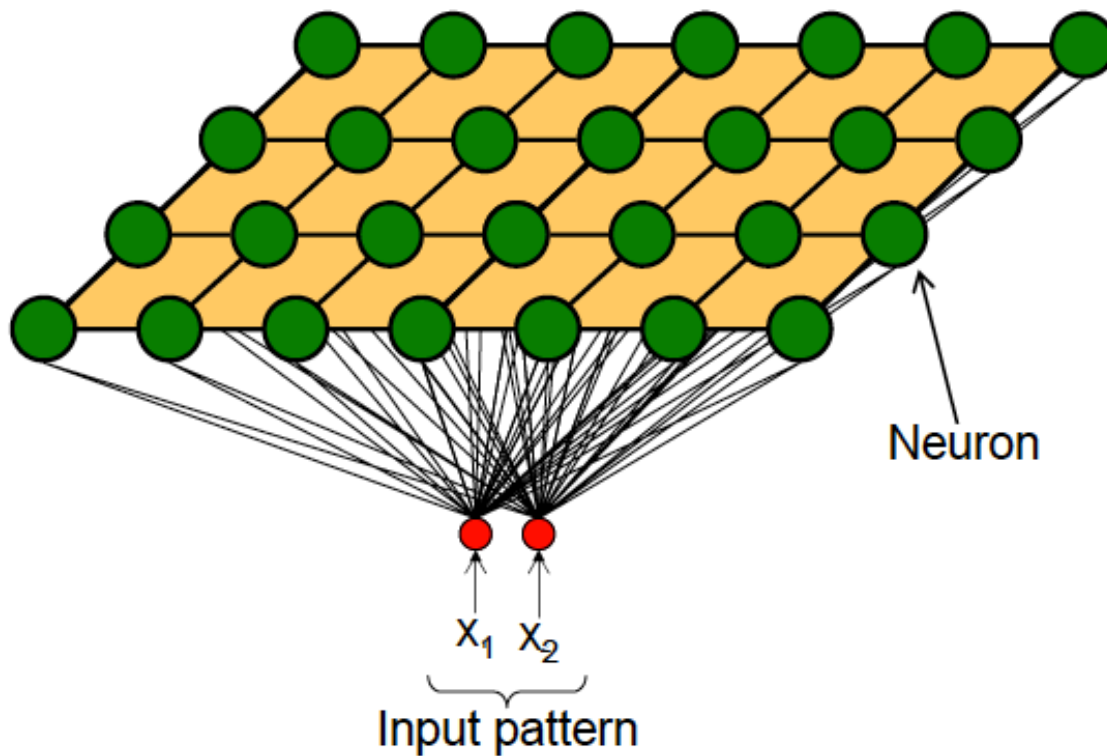
# *Kohonen Self Organizing Maps*

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- **Kohonen Self-Organizing Maps (SOMs) produce a mapping from a multidimensional input space onto a lattice of clusters (or neurons)**
  - The key feature in SOMs is that the mapping is topology-preserving, in that neighboring neurons respond to “similar” input patterns
  - SOMs are typically organized as one- or two- dimensional lattices (i.e., a string or a mesh) for the purpose of visualization and dimensionality reduction
- **Unlike MLPs trained with the back-propagation algorithm, SOMs have a strong neurobiological basis**
  - On the mammalian brain, visual, auditory and tactile inputs are mapped into a number of “sheets” (folded planes) of cells [Gallant, 1993]
  - Topology is preserved in these sheets; for example, if we touch parts of the body that are close together, groups of cells will fire that are also close together
- **Kohonen SOMs result from the synergy of three basic processes**
  - Competition
  - Cooperation
  - Adaptation

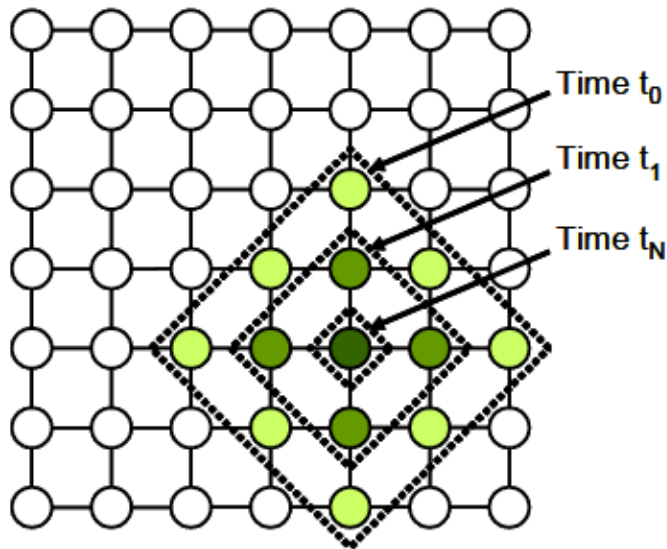
# Competition

- Each neuron in a SOM is assigned a weight vector with the same dimensionality  $d$  as the input space
- Any given input pattern is compared to the weight vector of each neuron and the closest neuron is declared the winner
  - The Euclidean metric is commonly used to measure distance



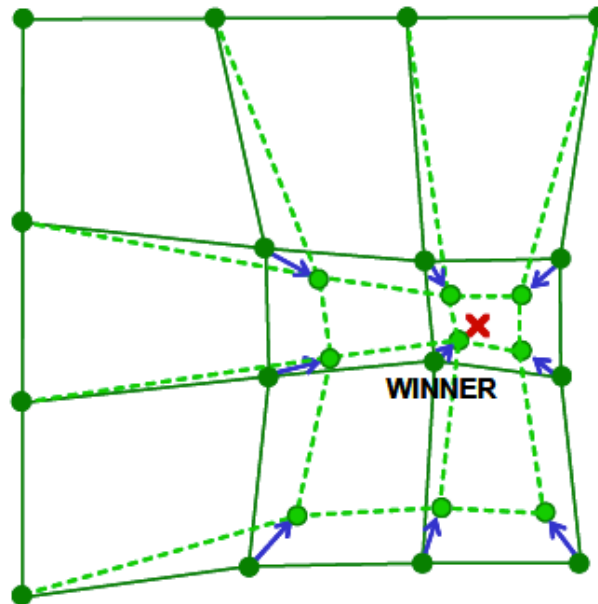
# Cooperation

- **The activation of the winning neuron is spread to neurons in its immediate neighborhood**
  - This allows topologically close neurons to become sensitive to similar patterns
- **The winner's neighborhood is determined on the lattice topology**
  - Distance in the lattice is a function of the number of lateral connections to the winner (as in city-block distance)
- **The size of the neighborhood is initially large, but shrinks over time**
  - An initially large neighborhood promotes a topology-preserving mapping
  - Smaller neighborhoods allows neurons to specialize in the latter stages of training



# Adaptation

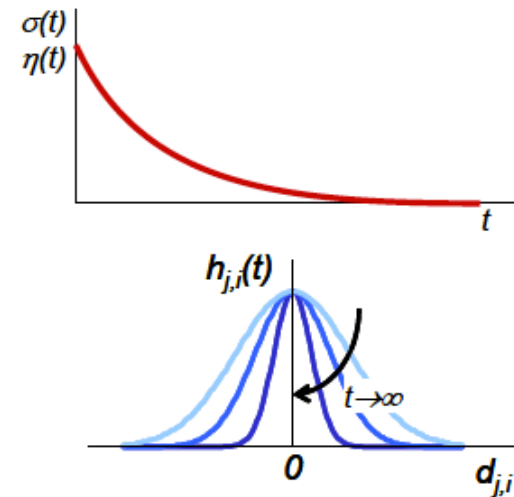
- **During training, the winner neuron and its topological neighbors are adapted to make their weight vectors more similar to the input pattern that caused the activation**
  - The adaptation rule is similar to the one presented in slide 4
  - Neurons that are closer to the winner will adapt more heavily than neurons that are further away
  - The magnitude of the adaptation is controlled with a learning rate, which decays over time to ensure convergence of the SOM



# SOM Algorithm

## ■ Define

- A learning rate decay rule  $\eta(t) = \eta_0 \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_1}\right)$
- A neighborhood kernel function  $h_{ik}(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{d_{ik}^2}{2\sigma^2(t)}\right)$ 
  - where  $d_{ik}$  is the lattice distance between  $w_i$  and  $w_k$
- A neighborhood size decay rule  $\sigma(t) = \sigma_0 \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_2}\right)$

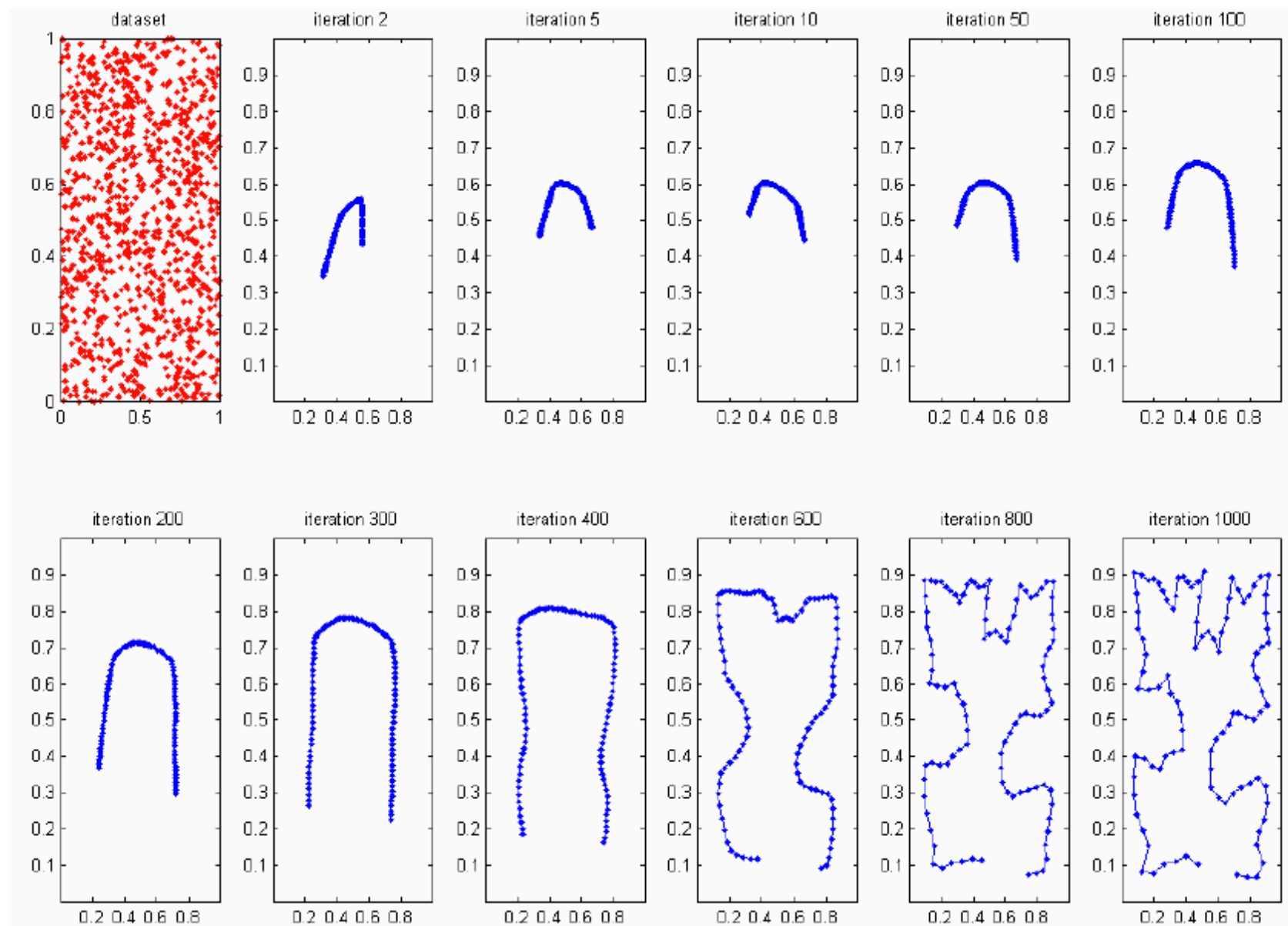


1. Initialize weights to some small, random values
2. Repeat until convergence
  - 2a. Select the next input pattern  $x^{(n)}$  from the database
    - 2a1. Find the unit  $w_i$  that best matches the input pattern  $x^{(n)}$ 

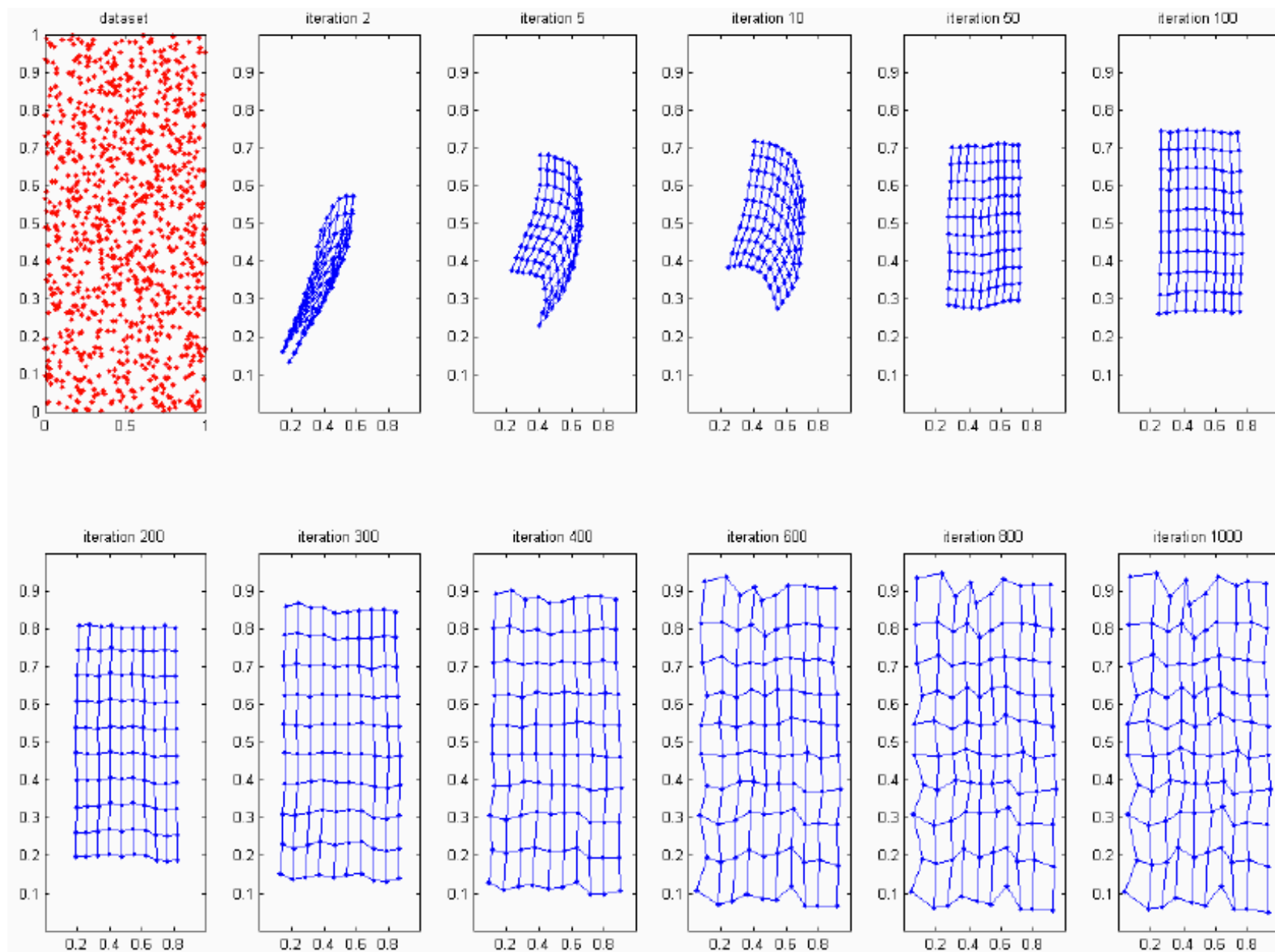
$$i(x^{(n)}) = \underset{j}{\operatorname{argmin}} \|x^{(n)} - w_j\|$$
    - 2a2. Update the weights of the winner  $w_i$  and all its neighbors  $w_k$ 

$$w_k = w_k + \eta(t) \cdot h_{ik}(t) \cdot (x^{(n)} - w_k)$$
  - 2b. Decrease the learning rate  $\eta(t)$
  - 2c. Decrease neighborhood size  $\sigma(t)$

# *SOM Example(1d)*



# SOM Example(2d)





# ***SOM Demo***

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