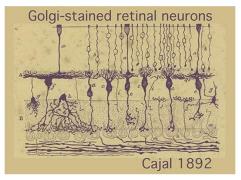
EEEN4/60151: Machine Learning & Opti...

Hujun Yin

Part 6: Neural Networks



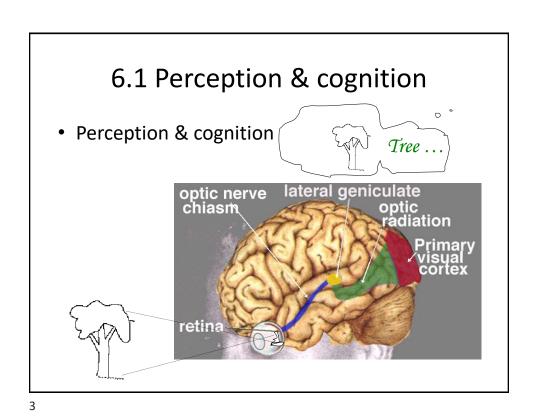
Cross-section of retina, drawn by Santiago Ramón y Cajal (1853-1934)

1

Part 6: Neural Networks

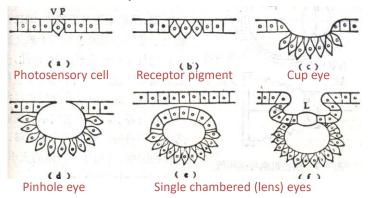
- Perception & cognition*
 Retina & visual pathway
 Early artificial intelligence
- Neurons & models
- Learning paradigms & network architectures
- Multilayer perceptrons
- Self-organising networks
- Learning & generalisation

^{*} For knowledge only



6.1 Perception 40 TYA 50 TYA 200 TYA 300 TYA Evolution 400 TYA 500 TYA "Evolution is fascinating to watch. T interesting when one can observe t Modern* refers to anatomically modern humans; Cro-Magnon* refers to the Cro-Magnon culture single man." Shana Alex 20 MYA 30 MYA 40 MYA 50 MYA 200 MYA 300 MYA 400 MYA The first vertebrates 500 MYA The first multi-cell organisms appear 2,000 MYA 3,000 MYA 4,000 MYA Earliest life forms
 The earth is formed High-level view of evolution in general from a human-centric viewpoint

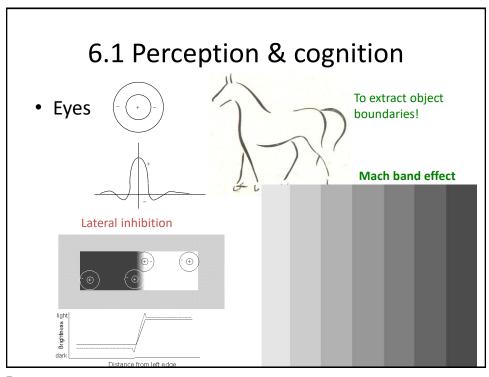
· Evolution of eyes

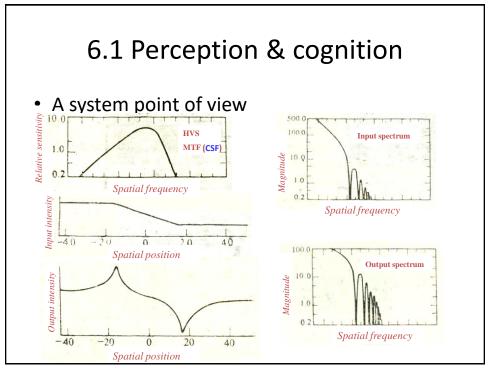


Compound eyes have good time resolving power. Human eyes need 0.05 second to identify objects, while compounds eyes need only 0.01 second.

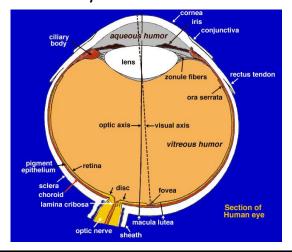
5

• Evolution of eves Ommatidium Head Abdomen Head Hartline, et al (1960s) verified receptive field and lateral inhibition in limulus eyes





Human eye



Cones: 6-7 millions

Red (64%)

Green (32%)

Blue (2%)

Rods: 120 millions

Dynamic range

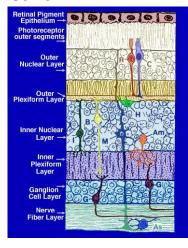
(brightest to darkest): 20 billion times (i.e. 206 dB)

Cameras: 8-16 bits

9

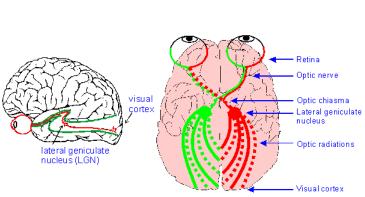
6.1 Perception & cognition

• Retina





Visual pathway



There are about 100 millions of photosensitive cells in human retina, but only 1 million optic nerves connecting between retina and cortex.

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6.1 Perception & cognition



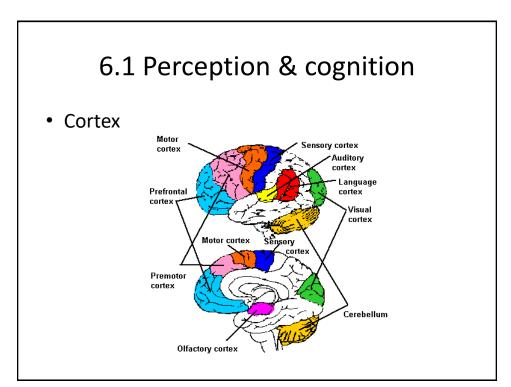
Many regions have predetermined responses to visual stimuli.
Sensory experience from the external world can influence how

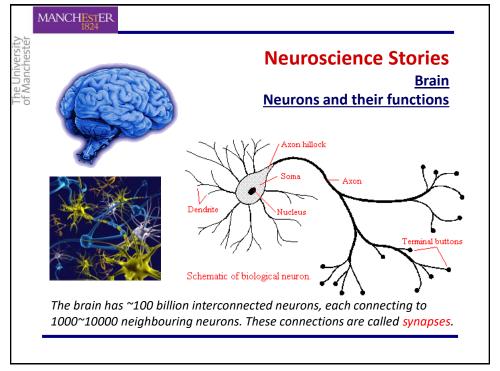


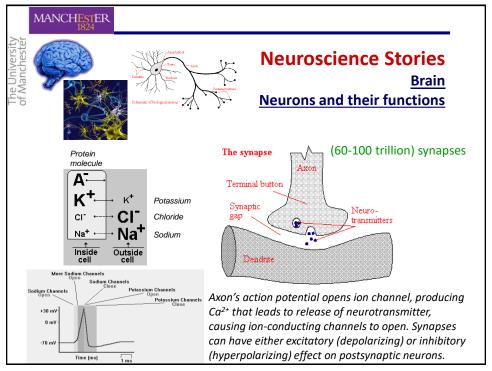


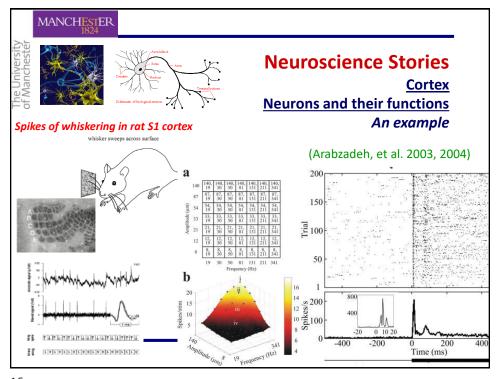


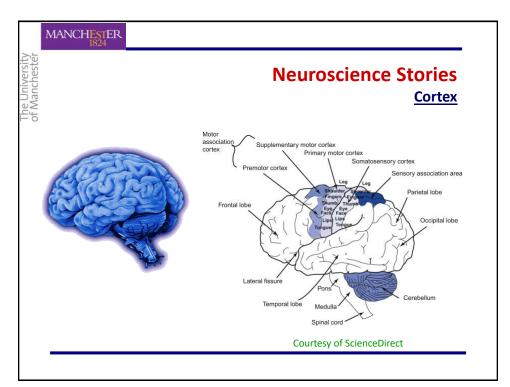


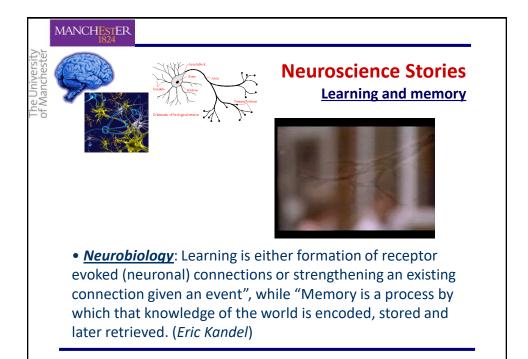












Perception



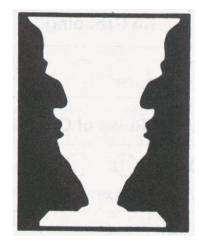
Einstein and ??

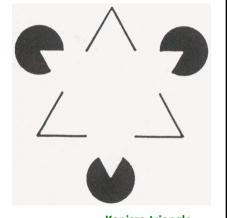
- from Kelso (1997)

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6.1 Perception & cognition

Perception





Kanisza triangle

Robin's vase

Cognition



Cognition is a result of dynamic pattern forming process of the brain, in which activities in the brain and behaviours appear self-organising into coherent statues or patterns and self-organisation provide a paradigm for behaviour and cognition, as well as the structure and function of nervous system - from Kelso (1997)

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6.1 Perception & cognition

Cognition

The human brain has trillions of cells, large enough for holding all events we have ever experienced [as claimed], but why can't we remember all of them in details? Pinker believes that our brains are compelled to organise, without categories, the mental lift would be a chaos. Categorisations are for inference of objects having the same or similar properties.- from Pinker (1997)

Cognition

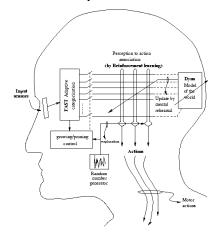
Psychology
Behaviourism
Neurobiology
Cognitive Science
Computationism
Connectionism

••••

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6.1 Perception & cognition

· Artificial system



Cognition is a complex information processing process (David Marr, 1945-1980)

Computing history

China ancient Abaci

Blaise Pascale 1642 Pascaline or Adding Machine

Joseph Jacquard 1804 Punch card controlled loom

Charles Babbage 1823 Difference Engine

Augusta Ada 1836 Programming

Herman Hollerith 1880 Data Processing Devices (IBM)

UK team 1942 Colossus

USA team 1946 ENIAC

UK teams 1949 EDSAC and Manchester Mark I





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6.1 Perception & cognition

· Artificial intelligence

Alan Turing: Turing Machine,

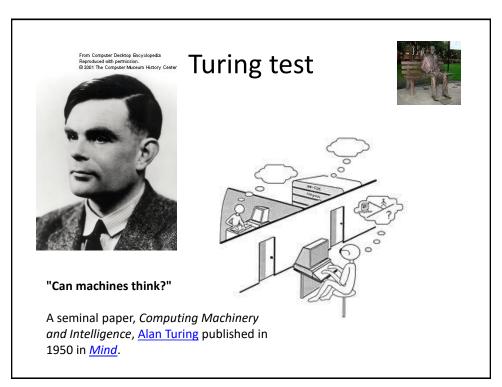
Universal Turing Machine

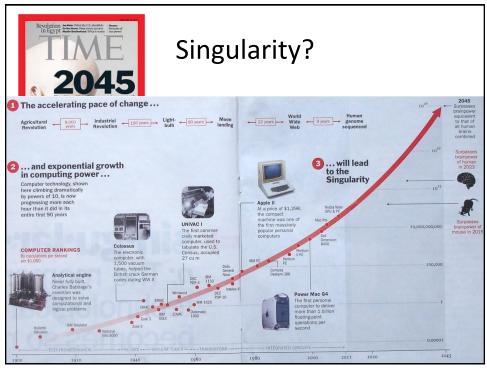
Turing Test (Can Machines Think?)

Top-down: Representation/Symbols

Reasoning/Rules/Grammars

Learning/Logical Operations





Models of neural networks

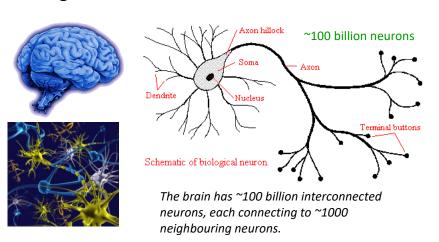
(Artificial) Neural Networks Approach (bottom-up approach)

- ° NNs started on findings and discoveries in neurobilogy and neuroscience. We gradually realise that human brains bear little resemblance to the von Neumann type of computers .
- ° The human brain has about 100 billion interconneted neurons, Each is a cell that uses biochemical reactions to receive, process and transmit stimulus. Each neuron is a simple processing unit, which receives (through dendrites and synapses) stimuli (input) from roughly 1000 neighbouring neurons (axons), cumulates these stimuli (in soma) and fires through its axon to its output neurons if the aggregated input is over a threshold (hillock). Networks of these cells form the basis of information processing.

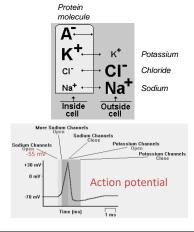
29

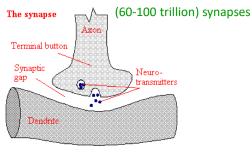
6.2 Neurons

Biological neurons



Biological neurons



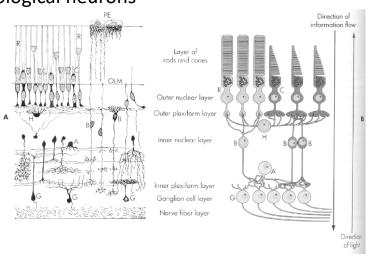


Axon's action potential opens ion channel, producing Ca²⁺ that leads to release of neurotransmitter, causing ion-conducting channels to open. Synapses can have either excitatory (depolarizing) or inhibitory (hyperpolarizing) effect on postsynaptic neurons.

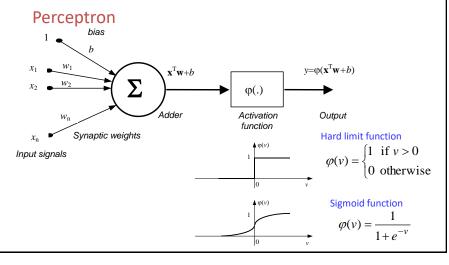
31

6.2 Neurons

• Biological neurons



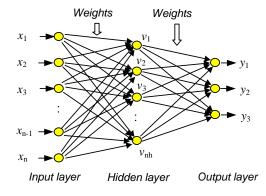
• Models of neurons



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6.2 Neurons

• Models of neural networks



Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

Artificial neural networks: a history

McCulloch and Pitts 1942: Linear Threshold Gate (LTG)

Wiener 1948: "Cybernetics"

Hebb 1949: "Organisation of Behaviour"

Rosenblatt 1958: Perceptron

Minsky and Papert 1969: "Perceptron"

Werbos 1974: Back-propagation algorithm

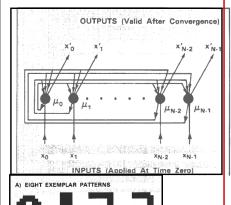
Hopfield 1982: Hopfield Recurrent Network

Kohonen 1982: Self-Organising Map

Rumelhart, et. al. 1986: Multilayer Perceptron

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Hopfield net



Step 1: Assign Connection Weights

$$t_{ij} = \begin{cases} \sum_{s=0}^{M-1} x_i^s x_j^s, & i \neq j \\ 0, & i = j, \ 0 \le i, j \le N-1 \end{cases}$$

 t_{ij} is the connection weight from node i to node j and x_i^s which can be +1 or -1 is element i of the exemplar class s.

Step 2: Initialize with Unknown Input Pattern $\mu_i(0) = x_i, \ 0 {\leq} i {\leq} N {-} 1,$

 $\mu_i(t)$ is the output of node i at time t and x_i is the element i of the input pattern.

Step 3: Iterate Until Convergence

$$\mu_j(t+1) = f[\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} t_{ij} \mu_i(t)], \quad 0 \le j \le N-1$$

f is a activation function such as hard limit. The process is repeated until the node outputs remain unchanged with further iterations. The node outputs represent the exemplar pattern that best matches the input.

Step 4: Repeat by Going to Step 2



6.3 Learning paradigms

Learning

The process which leads to the modification of behaviour Oxford Dictionary

"Some growth process or metabolic change takes place" Donald Hebb

Learning is a process by which the free parameters of neural networks are adapted through a process of simulation by the environment in which the network is embedded. The type of learning is determined by the manner in which the parameter changes take place. Simon Haykin

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6.3 Learning paradigms

- Learning Learning, in neural network terms, is the process of modification of connection weights.
 - Supervised Learning
 - $\min \|d y(x, w)\|^2$ Error-correction learning

 $\Delta w \approx \alpha e(d, y, x)$

· Reinforcement learning

 $\max \Sigma reward\{s,a\}$ s: state, a: action $\Delta w \approx reward$

- Unsupervised Learning
 - Hebbian learning
- $\Delta w \approx \alpha y x$
- Competitive learning
- $\Delta w_i \approx \begin{cases} \alpha f(x, y_i), & \text{if neuron } i \text{ wins} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

 $\begin{cases} \alpha y_i x, & \text{if neuron } i \text{ close to winner} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

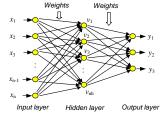
Self-organisation

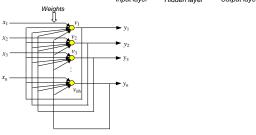
Global order can arise from local interactions (Turing 1952)

6.4 Network architectures

Feedforward

- Feed-forward Networks
 - Perceptron and multilayer perceptron
 - Radial basis function
 - Support vector machine
- Recurrent Networks
 - Hopfield networks
 - Boltzmann machine





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6.5 Feedforward networks

Perceptron learning

Least (mean) square method:

$$x_1$$
 x_2
 x_3
 x_4
 x_5
 x_7
 x_8
 x_8

$$y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} x_k(t) w_k(t) = \mathbf{x}(t)^T \mathbf{w}(t) \qquad e = d(t) - y(t)$$

$$J = \frac{1}{2}E[e^{2}(t)]$$
 (without thresholding or activation function)

$$J(t) = \frac{1}{2}e^{2}(t)$$
 $\frac{\partial J(t)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = e(t)\frac{\partial e(t)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = -\mathbf{x}(t)e(t)$

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \alpha \frac{\partial J(t)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{w}(t) + \alpha \mathbf{x}(t)e(t) = \mathbf{w}(t) + \alpha \mathbf{x}(t)[d(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)^T \mathbf{w}(t)]$$

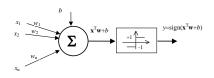
$$b(t+1) = b(t) + \alpha [d(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)^T \mathbf{w}(t)]$$

Can you derive learning rules for case with sigmoid activation function?

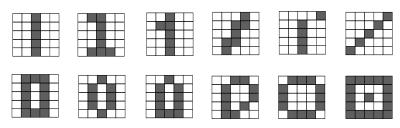
6.5 Feedforward networks

Perceptron learning

Example: learn to classify hand written digits: '0' and '1', each of 5x5 pixels.



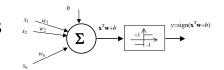
Use 4 for training and remaining 2 for testing.



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6.5 Feedforward networks

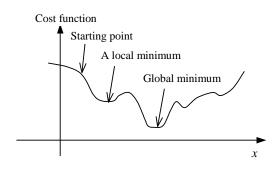
Perceptron limitations



Linear separation

Sensitive to initial states

Local minima

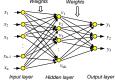




6.5 Feedforward networks

Multiplayer perceptron

Back-propagation algorithm



- Step 1: Initialisation. Set all weights and nodes' biases to small random numbers.
- Step 2: Presentation of training examples. input $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, ...x_n]^T$ and desired output $\mathbf{d} = [d_1, d_2, ...d_m]^T$.
- Step 3: *Forward computation*. Calculate the outputs of the hidden and output layer,

$$y_k = \varphi_k^o (\sum_{j=1}^{n_h} w_{jk}^o v_j + b_k^o)$$
 $v_j = \varphi_j^h (\sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij}^h x_i + b_j^h)$

Step 4: Backward computation and updating weights. Compute the error terms,

$$\delta_k^o = e_k^o(\varphi_k^o)' = e_k^o y_k (1 - y_k) = y_k (1 - y_k) (d_k - y_k) \qquad w_{jk}^o = w_{jk}^o + \alpha \delta_k^o v_j$$

$$\delta_{j}^{h} = (\varphi_{j}^{h})^{*} \sum_{k=1}^{m} \delta_{k}^{o} w_{jk}^{o} = v_{j} (1 - v_{j}) \sum_{k=1}^{m} \delta_{k}^{o} w_{jk}^{o}$$

$$w_{ij}^{h} = w_{ij}^{h} + \alpha \delta_{j}^{h} x_{i}$$

$$b_{j} \dots$$

$$b_{j} \dots$$

ep 5: *Iteration*. Repeat steps 3 and 4 and stop when the total error reaches the required level).

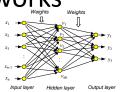
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 $\varphi(v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-v}}$

6.5 Feedforward networks

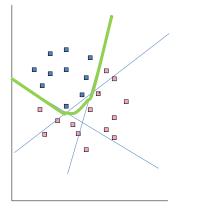
Multiplayer perceptron

How does MLP form nonlinear separations?



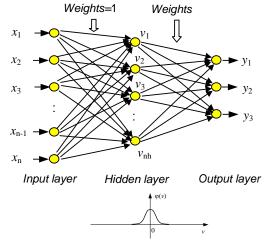
Key points:

- Each hidden node forms a linear separate boundary;
- An output node is a combination of all hidden nodes, in effect forming a piecewise linear (or nonlinear) separation boundary.



6.5 Feedforward networks

· Radial basis functions



Properties:

• Hidden neurons are Gaussian

$$v_k = \exp(-\frac{\left\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_k\right\|^2}{2\sigma^2})$$

• Output neurons are linear similar to Single Layer

similar to Single Layer Perceptrons.

• Easy to train

Hidden nodes can be chosen first by clustering; output layer is trained as single layer perceptrons.

Fast to converge

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6.5 Feedforward networks

Radial basis functions

The RBF model came from two fundamental theories

<u>The Universal Approximation Theory</u>: any function can be approximated with arbitrary precision by a weighted sum of a set of non-constant, bounded and monotone-increasing continuous functions,

$$\hat{f} = \sum_{i=1}^{M} w_i \varphi(\mathbf{x}, \xi)$$

<u>Cover's Separability Theory</u>: A complex pattern-classification problem cast in a high-dimensional space nonlinearly is more likely to be linearly separable than in a low high dimensional space.

6.6 Self-organising networks

· Hebbian learning

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 changes take place in one or both cells such that A's efficiency as one of the cells firing B, is increased.

In mathematical term: $\Delta w = \alpha xy$

Oja's rule:

$$w_i(t+1) = \frac{w_i(t) + \alpha x_i(t)y(t)}{\{\sum_{j=1}^n [w_j(t) + \alpha x_j(t)y(t)]^2\}^{1/2}} \approx w_i(t) + \alpha y(t)[x_i(t) - y(t)w_i(t)] + O(\alpha^2)$$

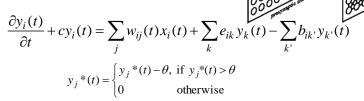
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6.6 Self-organising networks

Hebbian learning train a perceptron for an AND function, $y=b+\sum x_i w_i$ $\Delta w = xy$ **Weight Changes** Weights Input Output Δw_2 X_2 0 -1 -1 -1 -1 0 0 1 -1 1 -1 -1 -1 1 2 1 -2 -1 -1

6.6 Self-organising networks

 Von der Malsburg and Willshaw model (1973,1976)



$$\frac{\partial w_{ij}(t)}{\partial t} = \alpha x_i(t) y_j^*(t), \text{ subject to } \sum w_{ij} = \text{constant}$$

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6.6 Self-organising networks

Kohonen's SOM

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_j(t+1) = \varphi[\mathbf{w}_j^T \mathbf{x}(t) + \sum_i h_{ij} y_i(t)]$$

$$\left\|\mathbf{w}_{i}(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)\right\| = \min_{j} \left\|\mathbf{w}_{j}(t) - \mathbf{x}(t)\right\|$$

$$y_j(t+1) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if neuron jis inside the bubble} \\ 0, & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial w_{ij}(t)}{\partial t} = \alpha y_j(t) x_i(t) - \beta y_j(t) w_{ij}(t) = \alpha [x_i(t) - w_{ij}(t)] y_j(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha [x_i(t) - w_{ij}(t)], & \text{if } j \in \eta(t) \\ 0 & \text{if } j \notin \eta(t) \end{cases}$$

6.6 Self-organising networks

- SOM algorithm
 - At each time t, present an input, $\mathbf{x}(t)$, select the winner.

$$v = \arg\min_{c \in \Omega} \left\| \mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_c \right\|$$

• Updating the weights of winner and its neighbours.

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_k(t) = \alpha(t)\eta(v, k, t)[\mathbf{x}(t) - \mathbf{w}_v(t)]$$

• Repeat until the map converges.

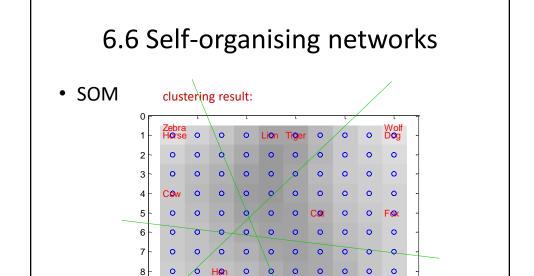
Typical neighbourhood function:
$$\eta(v,k,t) \propto \exp\left[-\frac{\|v-k\|^2}{2\sigma(t)^2}\right]$$

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6.6 Self-organising networks

• SOM clustering objects (animals) according to attributes

		is	has						likes to				
	small	medium	big	2legs	4legs	hair	hooves	mane	feather	hunt	run	fly	swim
Dove	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Hen	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Duck	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Goose	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Owl	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
Hawk	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
Eagle	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
Fox	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Dog	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Wolf	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Cat	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Tiger	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Lion	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Horse	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
Zebra	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
Cow	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0



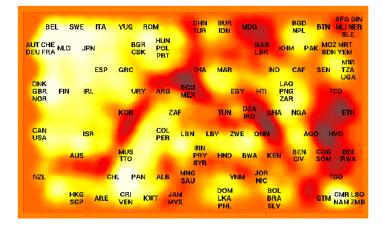
Eagle

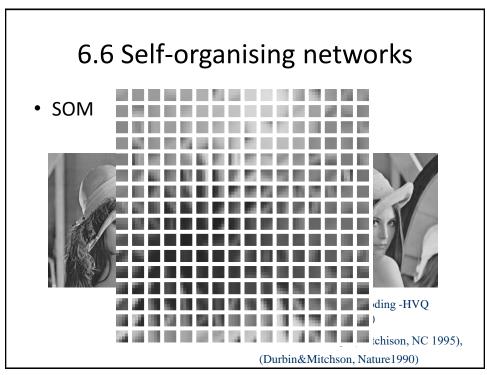
53

6.6 Self-organising networks

Dove

• SOM Data visualisation/management





6.6 Self-organising networks

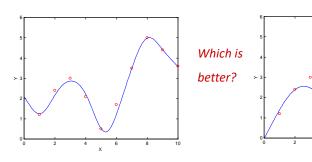
- SOM extensions
 - HSOM (Miikkulainen 1990), DISLEX (1990, 1997)
 - PSOM (Ritter 1993), Hyperbolic SOM (1999), H²SOM
 - Temporal Kohonen Map (Chappell & Taylor 1993)
 - Neural Gas (Martinetz et al.1991), Growing Grid (Fritzke1995)
 - ASSOM (Kohonen 1997)
 - Recurrent SOM (Koskela, 1997), RecursiveSOM (Voegtlin2001)
 - SOAR (Lampinen&Oja 1989), SOMAR (Ni&Yin, 2007)
 - Bayesian SOM & SOMN (Yin&Allinson 1995,1997; Utsugi 1997)
 - **GTM** (Bishop et al. 1998)
 - GHSOM (Merkl et al. 2000), TOC(TreeSOM) (Freeman&Yin2004)
 - PicSOM (Laaksonen, Oja, et al., 2000)
 - ° ViSOM (Yin 2001, 2002), gViSOM (Yin 2007)

6.7 Learning & generalisation

· Learning (fitting) & generalisation

On one hand, we want to get as high classification (or low error) rate as possible for the training data set.

On the other hand, we would also like the trained network to have good performance on unseen (testing) data.



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6.7 Learning & generalisation

• Bias &Variance dilemma (finite data set D)

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{2} \int [y(x) - d(x)]^{2} p(x) dx$$

$$[y(x) - d(x)]^{2} = [y(x) - E\{y(x)\} + E\{y(x)\} - d(x)]^{2}$$

$$= [y(x) - E\{y(x)\}]^{2} + [E\{y(x)\} - d(x)]^{2}$$

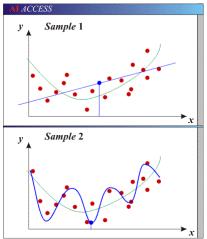
$$+ 2[y(x) - E\{y(x)\}][E\{y(x)\} - d(x)]$$

$$E_{D}\{[y(x) - d(x)]^{2}\} = [E_{D}\{y(x)\} - d(x)]^{2} + E_{D}\{[y(x) - E\{y(x)\}]\}^{2}$$
(bias)² (variance)

A close fitter/model yields small bias but large variance, while a loose fitter (or a wild guess) gives small variance but large bias.

6.7 Learning & generalisation

• Bias &Variance dilemma (finite data set D)



g(x): generating curve
dots: sample

For $h_I(x)$: $E_D\{[y(x) - E\{y(x)\}]\}^2 \to 0$ as $E\{y(x)\} = h_1(x) = y(x)$ Low variance, but large bias (error)!

For $h_2(x)$: $[E_D\{y(x)\} - d(x)]^2 \to 0$ as $E_D\{y(x)\} = E\{h_2(x)\}$ $= E\{g(x) + \varepsilon\} = g(x) = d(x)$

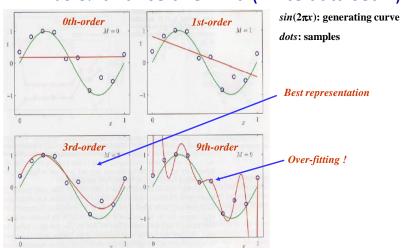
Low bias but large variance! Poor generalisation! That is, different samples give different $h_2(x)$, thus large variance! Or if for Sample 2, one still uses $h_2(x)$ obtained from Sample 1, the errors are large.

* Courtesy of http://www.aiaccess.net/

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6.7 Learning & generalisation

Bias &Variance dilemma (finite data set D)



Summary

- Introduction to perception & cognition*
- Artificial intelligence
- Retina & visual pathway
- Neurons & models
- Learning paradigms & network architectures
- Multilayer perceptron
- Self-organising networks
- Learning & generalisation

^{*} For knowledge only