



Neural Networks

Lecture 7

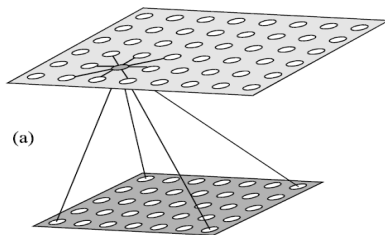
Self-organizing map

Igor Farkaš

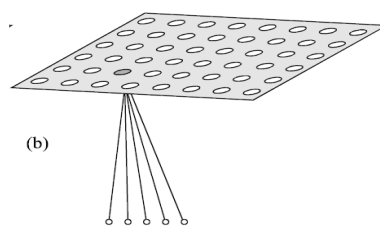
2018

Feature mapping

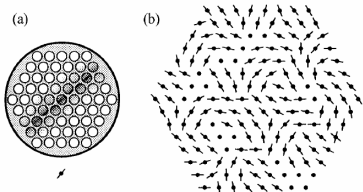
biologically motivated models



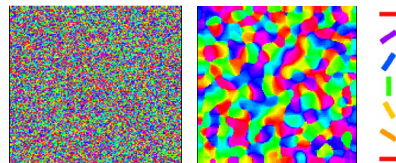
model with extracted features



e.g. mapping from retina to cortex -> orientation map



- introduced topology of neurons in the map
- **winner-take-most** due to neuron cooperation

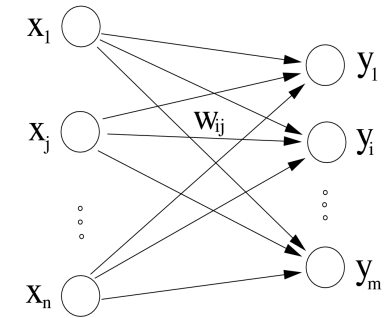


Simple competitive learning

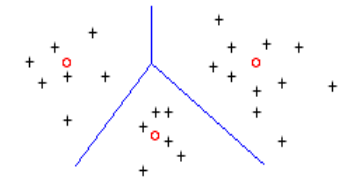
- unsupervised learning
- linear neurons
- **winner**: $y_{i^*} = \max_i \{w_i^T \cdot x\}$
 - i.e. best matching unit i^*
- **winner-take-all** adaptation:

$$\Delta w_{i^*} = \alpha(x - w_{i^*}) \quad \alpha \in (0,1)$$

$$\|w_{i^*}\| = 1$$

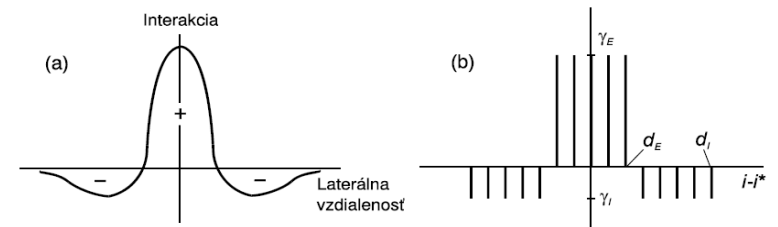


- risk of “dead” neurons
- algorithm: in each iteration:
 - (1) find winner, (2) adapt its weights
- useful for clustering



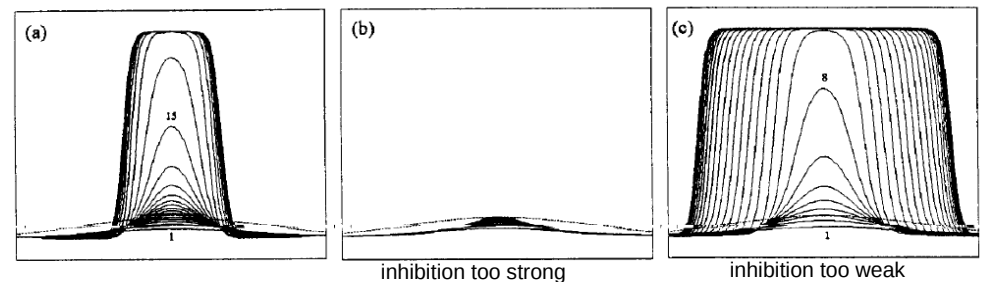
Lateral interactions in the map

Mexican hat function
(1D case)



$$y_i(t+1) = s(z_i + \sum_{k=-K}^K l_{ik} \cdot y_{i+k}(t))$$

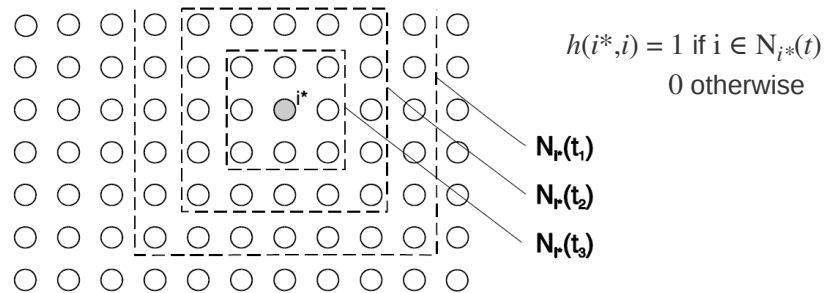
initial response $z_i = w_i^T \cdot x$



Neighborhood function in SOM

- computationally efficient substitute for lateral interactions
- neurons adapt only within the winner neighborhood
- neighborhood radius decreases in time

- rectangular neighborhood (below)



- alternative: gaussian neighborhood, e.g.

$$h(i^*, i) = \exp\left\{-\frac{d_E^2(i^*, i)}{\lambda^2(t)}\right\}$$

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda_i \cdot (\lambda_f / \lambda_i)^{t/t_{max}}$$

SOM algorithm (ED version*)

(Kohonen, 1982)

- randomly choose an input x
- **find winner** i^* for x $i^* = \arg \min_i \|x - w_i\|$
- **update weights** within the neighborhood

$$w_i(t+1) = w_i(t) + \alpha(t) h(i^*, i) [x(t) - w_i(t)]$$

- **update SOM parameters** (neighborhood, learning rate)
- repeat until stopping criterion is met

derived from a general Hebbian form:

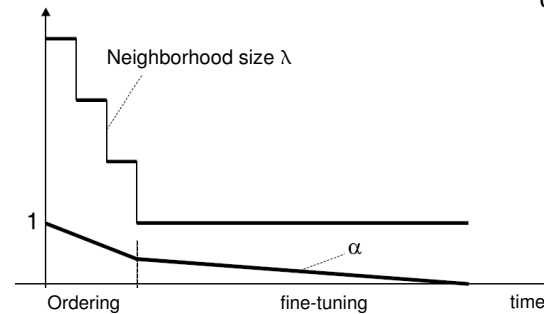
$$\Delta w_i = \alpha y_i x - g(y_i) w_i$$

SOM as input-output mapping:

$$x \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \quad \text{or}$$

$$x \rightarrow y, \quad y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m]$$

where e.g. $y_i = \exp(-\|x - w_i\|^2)$

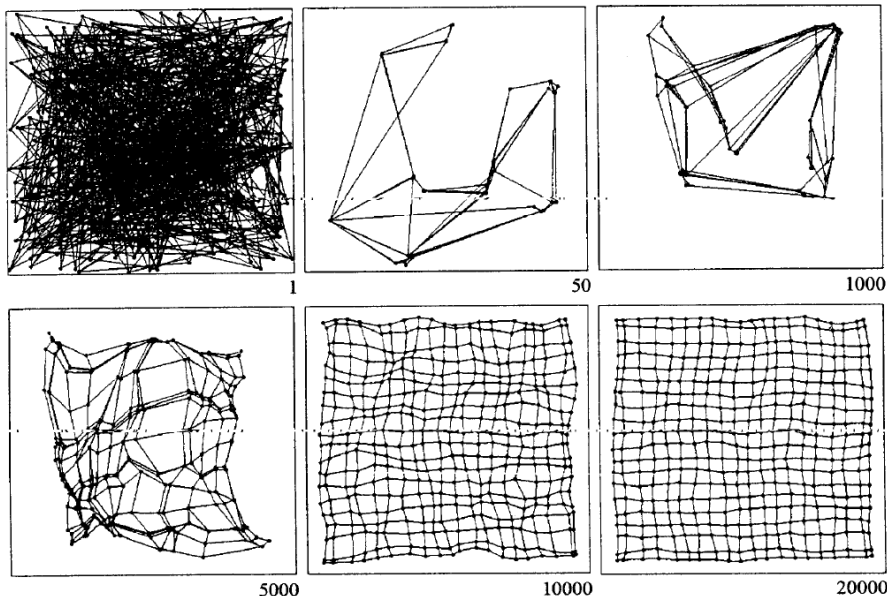


* i.e. based on Euclidean distance

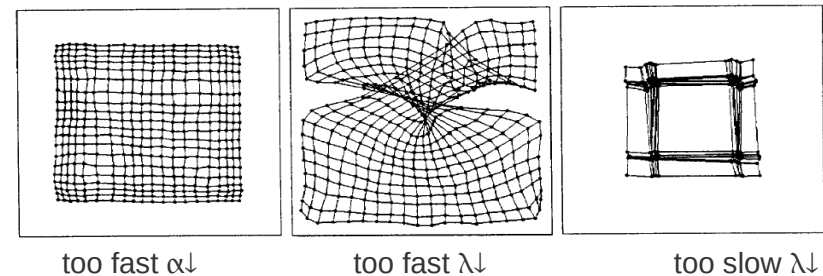
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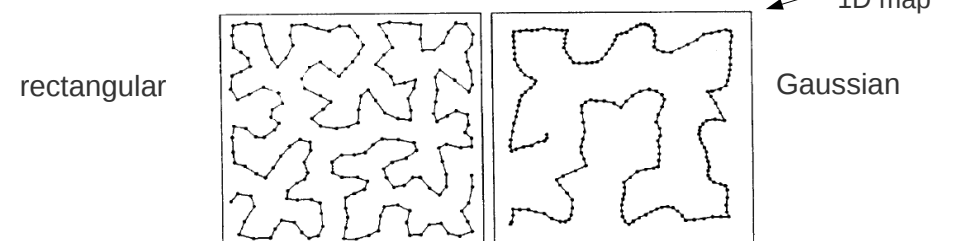
Example: 2D random inputs, 20x20 neurons



Special effects



Neighborhood effect



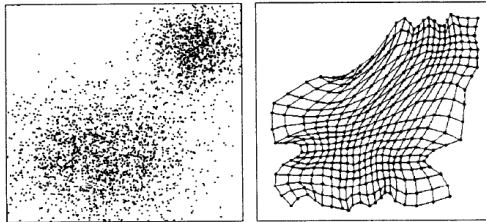
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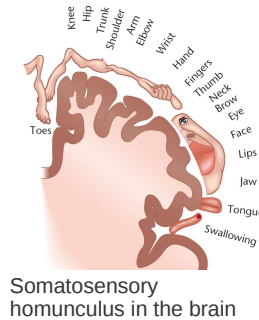
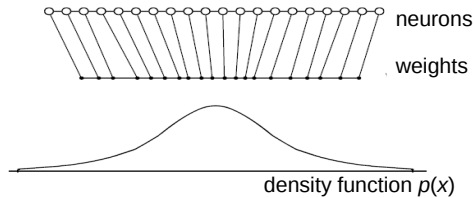
Magnification property

- SOM roughly approximates input data distribution

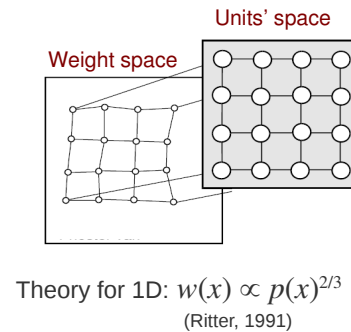
2D:



1D:



Somatosensory homunculus in the brain



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SOM simultaneously performs two tasks

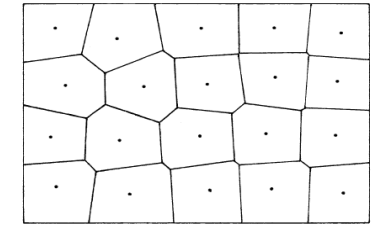
Vector quantization

(if number of inputs > number of neurons)

Voronoi compartments:

$$V_i = \{x \mid \|x - w_i\| < \|x - w_j\|, \forall j \neq i\}$$

$$\text{Quant. error: } QE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_p \|x_p - w_{i^*}\|^2$$



Voronoi tessellation

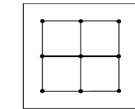
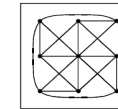
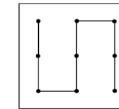
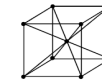
Topology preserving mapping

Cost function
e.g. (Kohonen, 1991)

$$E(w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_p \sum_i h(i^*, i) \|x_p - w_{i^*}\|^2$$

neurons

.....



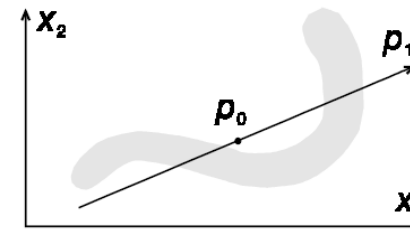
various
measures of
topology
preservation
proposed

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Main properties of SOM

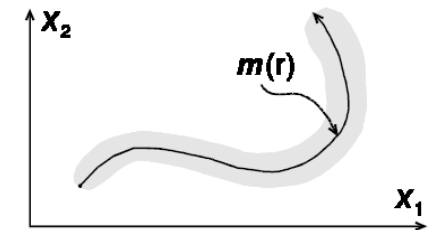
- Approximation of the input space** (input data) by the grid of neurons → vector quantization theory
- Topological ordering** – preservation of similarities between input and output spaces
- Density matching** – reflecting the variations in the statistics of input distribution
- Feature selection** – via nonlinear mapping → principal curves or surfaces (Hastie and Stuetzle, 1989)
 - SOM as a nonlinear generalization of PCA

PCA



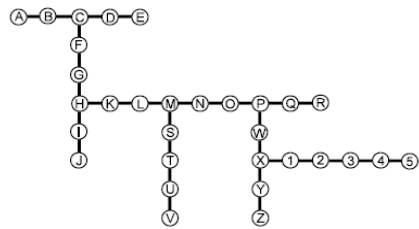
(linear) principal components
One unit represents 1 dimension

SOM



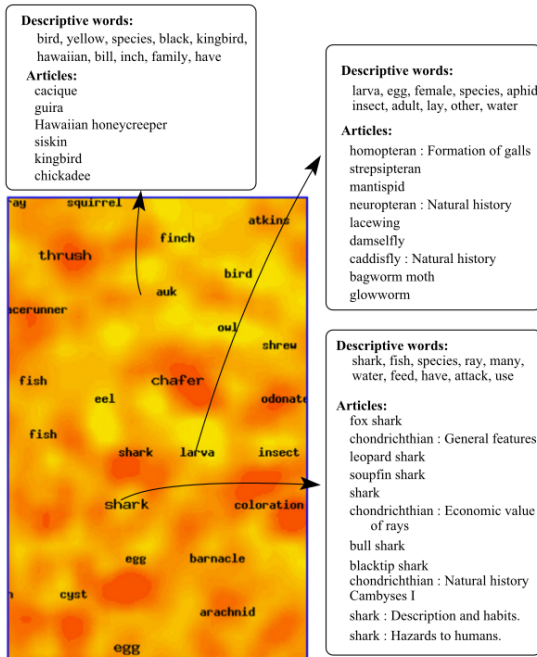
(nonlinear) principal manifold
More units represent 1 dimension

Application: Minimum spanning tree



Application: WEBSOM

- e.g. collection of cca 12000 Encyclopaedia Britannica documents
- Used for information retrieval
- Random mapping (of word vectors) useful: preserves similarities
- Based on co-occurrence of 40000 words in documents
- SOM with cca 12000 nodes



(Kaski et al, 1998)

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Dot-product version of SOM

- randomly choose an input x
- find winner** i^* for x
- update weights** within the neighborhood

$$i^* = \arg \max_i \{x^T \cdot w_i\}$$

$$w_i(t+1) = \frac{w_i(t) + \alpha(t) \cdot h(i^*, i) \cdot x(t)}{\|w_i(t) + \alpha(t) \cdot h(i^*, i) \cdot x(t)\|}$$

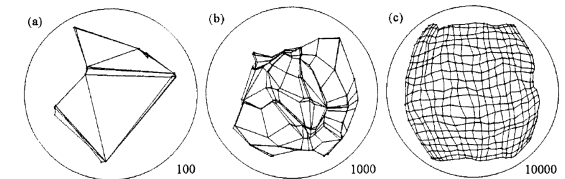
- update SOM parameters** (neighborhood, learning rate)
- repeat until stopping criterion is met

Example: DP-SOM map trained on 3D vectors $s = [s_1, s_2, s_3]$ created from 2D $x = [x_1, x_2]$ as

$$s_1 = 1 \cdot \cos(x_1) \cdot \cos(x_2)$$

$$s_2 = 1 \cdot \sin(x_1) \cdot \cos(x_2)$$

$$s_3 = 1 \cdot \sin(x_2)$$



- Weight vector ordering independent of the input vectors' norms

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Related self-organizing NN algorithms

- Can be viewed as unsupervised data approximation with undirected graph $G = (V, C)$, $V = \{w_i\}$ ~ vertices, $C[m \times m]$ ~ (symmetric) connection matrix

Examples:

- Topology-Representing network (Martinetz & Schulten 1994)
 - Flexible net topology, fixed number of units
- Growing Cell Structures (Bruske & Sommer, 1995)
 - Flexible topology and number of units (they can be removed or added based on max. quantization error)
- useful for non-stationary data distributions

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Summary

- self-organizing map – a very popular algorithm
 - principles of competition and cooperation, unsupervised learning
 - performs vector quantization and topology-preserving mapping
- useful for data clustering and visualization
- theoretical analysis of SOM limited to simple cases
- various self-organizing algorithms developed
 - main purpose: data clustering
 - not all implement dimensionality-reducing mapping
 - flexible architectures possible

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