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<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Wang, Lipo.</td>
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Noise Injection into Inputs in Sparsely Connected Hopfield and Winner-Take-All Neural Networks

Lipo Wang

Abstract—In this paper, we show that noise injection into inputs in unsupervised learning neural networks does not improve their performance as it does in supervised learning neural networks. Specifically, we show that training noise degrades the classification ability of a sparsely connected version of the Hopfield neural network, whereas the performance of a sparsely connected winner-take-all neural network does not depend on the injected training noise.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most useful properties of artificial neural networks (NN’s) is their ability to generalize; for instance, to classify patterns that have not been presented during training. It has been established recently that the performance of supervised learning NN’s can be improved by introducing noise into the training patterns, which is called noise injection. In the case of the back-propagation NN, experimental evidence [1]–[6] appeared first in the literature, which was followed by extensive theoretical analysis [7], [8]. Similar conclusions have been reached for Hopfield-like recurrent NN’s that use perceptron learning algorithms [9]–[12].

The work mentioned above relates to supervised learning NN’s. Will noise injection into unsupervised learning NN’s also have a constructive impact on their performance? It is the purpose of the present paper to provide an answer to this question. Specifically, we will study the effects of training noise on two popular types of unsupervised learning NN’s: a sparsely connected version [13] of the Hopfield NN [14] (Section II) and a sparsely connected winner-take-all NN that we shall propose (Section III). We will show that noise injection in these unsupervised learning NN’s does not improve their performance as it does in supervised learning NN’s. Thus noise injection should not be adopted when unsupervised learning NN’s are used in practical applications.

II. NOISE INJECTION INTO INPUTS IN A SPARSELY-CONNECTED HOPFIELD NEURAL NETWORK

The Hopfield NN [14] consists of \( N \) binary neurons that are either active or quiescent, i.e., \( S_i(t) = \pm 1 \), where \( S_i(t) \) is the state of neuron \( i \) at time \( t \) and \( i = 1, \ldots, N \). Each neuron receives signals from other neurons in the network, and the signals are affected by synaptic weights \( T_{ij} \). The neuron then either fires if the total input \( h_i \) exceeds a threshold, or remains quiescent otherwise. The Hopfield NN, though crude compared to biological neural systems, has been widely studied and applied (e.g., [15]–[18]).

Specifically, the neurons update their states according to

\[
S_i(t + \Delta t) = \text{sign} [h_i(t)]
\]

where \( \text{sign}(x) = -1 \) for negative \( x \) and \( \text{sign}(x) = +1 \) for positive \( x \); and the total input signal \( h_i \) for neuron \( i \) at time \( t \) is given by

\[
h_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} T_{ij} S_j(t) + \eta_i
\]

where \( \eta_i \) represents the noise in neuronal signals due to probabilistic releases of synaptic vesicles that account for the spontaneous firing of a neuron [19]. We assume \( \eta_i \) is Gaussian-distributed with an average zero and a standard deviation \( \sigma \).

The original Hopfield model is fully connected and the synapses are formed in the spirit of Hebbian learning [20], an unsupervised learning rule

\[
T_{ij}^H = \sum_{\mu=1}^{N} \hat{S}_i^{\mu} \hat{S}_j^{\mu} = \frac{C_{ij}}{q_1 q_2} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{q_1} \sum_{\beta=0}^{q_2} \sum_{\mu=1}^{p} \hat{S}_i^{\mu \alpha} \hat{S}_j^{\mu \beta}
\]

where \( \hat{S}_i^{\mu \alpha} \) and \( \hat{S}_j^{\mu \beta} \) are the noisy training patterns. Equation (4) reduces to the original Hopfield prescription equation (3) if \( \hat{S}_i^{\mu \alpha} = \hat{S}_i^{\mu \beta} = \hat{S}_i^{\mu} \) for all \( \mu, \nu, \) and \( \eta_j \). The random numbers \( C_{ij} \) assume 1 with probability \( C/N \) and 0 with probability \( (1 - C/N) \), where \( c < N \). Thus only \( C \) of \( N \) synapses remain for each neuron. The noisy training patterns are

\[
S_i^{\mu \alpha} = S_i^{\mu} + \delta_i^{\mu \alpha}, \quad a = 1, 2
\]

where we assume that the difference between the noisy pattern and the “clean” pattern, i.e., \( \delta_i^{\mu \alpha} \), which may take values 0, ±2, is a random number with a zero average and a standard deviation \( \delta_a \), i.e.,

\[
\langle \delta_i^{\mu \alpha} \rangle = 0
\]

and

\[
\langle (\delta_i^{\mu \alpha} - \langle \delta_i^{\mu \alpha} \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle (\delta_i^{\mu \alpha})^2 \rangle = \delta_a^2
\]

where \( a = 1, 2 \).

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We now derive and analyze the dynamical equation that describes how the sparsely connected Hopfield NN evolves from its initial condition, in other words, how the network responds to an input pattern, after the network is trained with noisy patterns and is then presented with an input for recognition. Let us evaluate the similarity between the state of the network and a stored pattern \( \tilde{S}^\mu \), that is, the overlap or the normalized dot product

\[
m^\mu(t) = \frac{1}{N} \tilde{S}^\mu \cdot \tilde{S}(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} S^\mu_j S_j(t).
\]

(8)

Suppose the input pattern, which is represented by the initial state of the network, is most similar to one of the stored pattern \( \tilde{S}^1 \), i.e.,

\[
m^1(0) = \max \{ m^\mu(0) \mid \mu = 1, 2, \ldots, p \}.
\]

Substituting (4) and (5) into (2) and isolating the terms related to \( \tilde{S}^1 \), we obtain

\[
h_i(t) = C m^1(t) S_i^1 + \sum_{\mu=2}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{N} S^\mu_j S_j(t) \delta_{i\mu}^1 + \frac{1}{q_2} \sum_{\mu=2}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{N} S^\mu_j \delta_{i\mu}^1 S_j(t)
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{q_1} \sum_{\mu=2}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{q_1} \delta_{i\mu}^1 S_j(t) \delta_{ji}^1 S_k(t)
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{q_1 q_2} \sum_{\mu=2}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{q_1} \sum_{\ell=1}^{q_2} \delta_{i\mu}^1 \delta_{j\ell}^1 S_j(t) + \eta_i
\]

(9)

where \( \sum_j \) covers the remaining synapses after the random synaptic disruption. The first term [13] in the right hand side of (9) represents the signal, which drives the system toward the memory state \( \tilde{S}^1 \), and the rest represents noise that interferes with this converging process. Although the noise terms are random, the correlations among them prevent us from getting an exact solution when the network is fully connected. The disruption process eliminates correlations among neurons and noise terms become independent random variables [13]. Thus the sum of these terms are Gaussian-distributed when \( N \) is large, according to the central limit theorem.

The overlap between the state of the network and the attracting pattern \( \tilde{S}^1 \) at the next time step \( t+1 \) can now be easily obtained by substituting the updating (1) into the definition for overlap given by (8). For parallel updating, i.e., when the states of all neurons are updated simultaneously, the dynamics of the network is governed by

\[
m(t+1) = \mathrm{erf}\left[ \frac{m(t)}{\sqrt{\sigma^2}} \right]
\]

(10)

where \( m(t) \) is a statistical average of the overlap \( m^1(t) \). The total standard deviation of the noise terms is

\[
\sigma^2 = \frac{(p-1) \bar{e}}{C} + \frac{\bar{e}}{C} \left( \frac{\sigma_1^2}{q_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{q_2} + \frac{\sigma_3^2}{q_1 q_2} \right) + \left( \frac{\sigma_4}{C} \right)^2
\]

(11)

which includes the effects of random synaptic disruption, interference between the stored patterns, noise in the training patterns, and signal transmission noise. In (10), \( \mathrm{erf}(y) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^y e^{-x^2} dx \) is the standard error function.

Starting from any initial condition \( m(0) \) the overlap thereafter can be calculated from (10) iteratively. After a few iterations, the network reaches equilibrium characterized by the “fixed point” of the dynamical equation, \( m \), or the “final overlap.” Fixed points of the system can be obtained from (10) by letting \( m(t+1) = m(t) = m \), as a function of the number of stored patterns \( p \) and the results are given in Fig. 1 for various choices of training noise. For simplicity, in

Fig. 1. The average final overlap \( m \) (fixed points) as a function of the ratio between the number of stored patterns \( p \) and the average number of synapses per neuron \( C \), according to dynamical equations (10)–(12) for the sparsely connected Hopfield neural network. (a) \( \delta_{1} = 0 \); (b) \( \delta_{1} = \delta_{2} = 0.25 \), \( \delta_{2} = 0 \); and (c) \( \delta_{1} = 0.563 \).

III. Noise Injection into a Sparsely Connected Winner-Take-All Neural Network

In the section, we study another unsupervised NN—a NN that uses competitive learning. Many authors have discussed competitive learning [21]–[27]. For the present analysis we shall propose a new sparsely connected winner-take-all NN instead of using an existing competitive learning NN, since our sparsely connected winner-take-all NN is easier to study analytically than others and yet it captures the essence of competitive learning.
Our sparsely connected winner-take-all NN consists of $p$ binary neurons and $N$ input nodes. Each neuron is connected to a randomly chosen group of $C$ input nodes ($C < N$). Thus the total input to neuron $i$ is

$$ h_i(t) = \sum_j T_{ij} I_j(t) \tag{14} $$

where $I_j$ denotes the signal at input node $j$. Only the neuron with the largest total input wins the competition and responds to the input pattern. Equation (14) implies that the neuron whose synapses are most similar to the input pattern wins the competition.

The synaptic updating algorithm for the present system is a modified version of the algorithm first proposed by von der Malsburg [22] and used in the Rumelhart-Zipser model [26]. At the $\tau$th modification of the synapses of neuron $i$, we let the synapses give up some portion, i.e., $1/\tau$, of its weights and these weights are then distributed among the synapses in proportion to the training input pattern. Following Grossberg [28], we do not normalize the sum of the synapses to 1. Hence the updated synapses are

$$ T_{ij}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\tau} \sum_{\tau'} T_{ij}(\tau') $$

$$ = \left(1 - \frac{1}{\tau} \right) T_{ij} + \left(\frac{1}{\tau} \right) I_{jk}(\tau) \tag{15} $$

which implies that the synapse vector is an overall average of the contributing training patterns [29] and all contributing training patterns—indeed, independent of the temporal order in which the training patterns are presented—contribute equally to learning.

After the network is trained with the noisy patterns given by (5), the synapses of neuron $\mu$ are, according to (15)

$$ T_{\mu j} = S^\mu_j + (q_1 + q_2)^{-1} \sum_{\nu=1}^{q_1+q_2} \delta^\mu_j^{\nu-1} + \delta^\mu_j^{\nu+2} \tag{16} $$

Thus the synapses of the participating neurons “cluster” around the clean patterns $\{S^\nu_j\}$, the differences being Gaussian-distributed and having standard deviations

$$ \delta^\nu_j = \sqrt{(q_1 + q_2)} \tag{17} $$

Since $(q_1 + q_2) \geq 1$ and we have assumed that $\delta^\nu < 0.5$, we have $\delta^\nu < 0.5$. Thus the cluster exemplars stored in the synapses differ from each other by at least 25% of the $N$ bits and the present sparsely connected winner-take-all NN of $p$ neurons can successfully classify $p$ classes of randomly generated patterns after being trained with noisy patterns. It is also clear from the above analysis that the performance of the present system does not depend on noise injection into the training inputs.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In summary, effects of training noise on the performance of a sparsely connected Hopfield NN and a sparsely connected winner-take-all NN are discussed. By deriving and solving an exact dynamical equation, we show that the training noise degrades the classification abilities of the sparsely connected Hopfield NN. We have also proposed a simple sparsely connected winner-take-all NN. By analytically calculating the synaptic efficacies after training with noisy patterns, we show that the performance of the system does not depend on the training noise. We thus conclude that noise injection into the training inputs does not improve the performances of unsupervised learning NN’s such as the typical ones presented here, in contrast to supervised learning NN’s.

REFERENCES


