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## 2 Connectionist Theories of 3 Learning

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### 7 Synonyms

8 Associative learning; Backpropagation of error algorithm;  
9 Correlational learning; Hebbian learning; Self-organizing  
10 maps

### 11 Definition

12 The majority or the connectionist theories of learning are  
13 based on the *Hebbian Learning Rule* (Hebb 1949).  
14 According to this rule, connections between neurons  
15 presenting correlated activity are strengthened. Connec-  
16 tionist theories of learning are essentially abstract  
17 implementations of general features of brain plasticity in  
18 architectures of artificial neural networks.

### 19 Theoretical Background

20 Connectionism provides a framework (Rumelhart et al.  
21 1986a) for the study of cognition using Artificial Neural  
22 Network models. Neural network models are architectures  
23 of simple processing units (artificial neurons) interconnected  
24 via weighted connections. An artificial neuron functions as  
25 a detector, which produces an output activation value deter-  
26 mined by the level of the total input activation and an  
27 activation function. As a result, when a neural network is  
28 exposed to an environment, encoded as activation patterns  
29 in the input units of the network, it responds with activation  
30 patterns across the units.

31 In the connectionist framework an artificial neural  
32 network model depicts cognition when it is able to  
33 respond to its environment with meaningful activation  
34 patterns. This can be achieved by modifications of the  
35 values of the connection weights, so as to regulate the  
36 activation patterns in the network appropriately. There-  
37 fore, connectionism suggests that learning involves the  
38 shaping of the connection weights. A learning algorithm

is necessary to determine the changes in the weight values 39  
by which the network can acquire domain-appropriate 40  
input-output mappings. 41

The idea that learning in artificial neural networks 42  
should entail changes in the weight values was based on 43  
observations of neuropsychologist Donald Hebb on biolog- 44  
ical neural systems. Hebb (1949) proposed his *cell assembly* 45  
*theory* also known as *Hebb's rule* or *Hebb's postulate*. 46

- ▶ When an axon of cell A is near enough to excite a cell B and 47  
repeatedly or persistently takes part in firing it, some 48  
growth process or metabolic change takes place in one 49  
or both cells such that A's efficiency, as one of the cells 50  
firing B, is increased. (1949, p.62) 51

Hebb's rule suggested that connections between neu- 52  
rons which present correlated activity should be strength- 53  
ened. This type of learning was also termed *correlational* or 54  
*associative* learning. 55

A simple mathematical formulation of the Hebbian 56  
learning rule is: 57

$$\Delta W_{ij} = \eta a_i a_j \quad (1)$$

The change of the weight ( $\Delta w_{ij}$ ) from a sending unit  $j$  to 58  
a receiving unit  $i$  should be equal to the constant  $\eta$  multiplied 59  
by the product of output activation values ( $\alpha_i$  and  $\alpha_j$ ) of the 60  
units. The constant  $\eta$  is known as learning rate. 61

### 62 Important Scientific Research and Open 63 Questions

Different learning algorithms have been proposed to 64  
implement learning in artificial neural networks. These 65  
algorithms could be considered as variants of the Hebbian 66  
rule, adjusted to different architectures and different train- 67  
ing methods. 68

A large class of neural networks models uses 69  
a multilayered feed-forward architecture. This class of 70  
models is trained with *supervised learning* (Fig. 1). The 71  
environment is presented as pairs of input patterns and 72  
desired output patterns (or targets), where the target is 73  
provided by an external system (the notional "supervi- 74  
sor"). The network is trained on the task of producing the 75  
corresponding targets in the output when an input pattern 76  
is presented. 77

78 The *Backpropagation of Error* algorithm (Rumelhart  
 79 et al. 1986b) as proposed for training such networks.  
 80 Backpropagation is an error-driven algorithm. The aim  
 81 of the weight changes is the minimization of the output  
 82 error of the network. The Backpropagation algorithm is  
 83 based on the *delta rule*:

$$\Delta W_{ij} = \eta(t_i - a_i)a_j \quad (2)$$

84 The delta rule is a modification of the Hebbian learn-  
 85 ing rule (Eq. 1) for neurons that learn with supervised  
 86 learning. In the delta rule, the weight change ( $\Delta w_{ij}$ ) is  
 87 proportional to the difference between the target output  
 88 ( $t_i$ ) and the output activation of the receiving neuron ( $a_i$ ),  
 89 and the output activation of the sending neuron ( $a_j$ ).

90 Backpropagation generalizes the delta rule in networks  
 91 with hidden layers, as a target activation value is not available  
 92 for the neurons on these internal layers. Internal layers are  
 93 necessary to improve the computational power of the learn-  
 94 ing system. In a forward pass, the Backpropagation algo-  
 95 rithm calculates the activations of the units of the network.  
 96 Next, in a backward pass the algorithm iteratively computes  
 97 error signals (*delta terms*) for the units of the deeper layers  
 98 of the network. The error signals express the contribution  
 99 of each unit to the overall error of the network. They are  
 100 computed based on the derivatives of the error function.  
 101 Error signals determine changes in the weights which  
 102 minimize the overall network error. The *generalized delta*  
 103 *rule* is used for this purpose:

$$\Delta W_{ij} = \eta \delta_i a_j \quad (3)$$

104 According to this rule, weight changes equal to the  
 105 learning rate times the product of the output activation of  
 106 the sending unit ( $a_j$ ) and the delta term of the receiving unit  
 107 ( $\delta_{ii}$ ).

108 Although the Backpropagation algorithm has been  
 109 widely used, it employs features which are biologically  
 110 implausible. For example, it is implausible that error sig-  
 111 nals are calculated and transmitted between the neurons.  
 112 However, it has been argued that since forward projections  
 113 between neurons are often matched by backward projec-  
 114 tions permitting bidirectional signaling, the backward  
 115 projections may allow the implementation of the abstract  
 116 idea of the backpropagation of error.

117 Pursuing this idea, other learning algorithms have  
 118 been proposed to implement error-driven learning in  
 119 a more biologically plausible way. The *Contrastive Hebbian*  
 120 *Learning* algorithm (Hinton 1989) is a learning algorithm  
 121 for bidirectional connected networks. This algorithm con-  
 122 siders two phases of training in each presentation of an  
 123 input pattern. In the first one, known as the *minus phase* or

*anti-Hebbian update*, the network is allowed to settle as an  
 124 input pattern is presented to the network while the output  
 125 units are free to adopt any activation state. These activa-  
 126 tions serve as *noise*. In the second phase (*plus phase* or  
 127 *Hebbian update*), the network settles as the input is  
 128 presented while the output units are clamped to the target  
 129 outputs. These activations serve as *signal*. The weight  
 130 change is proportional to the difference between the prod-  
 131 ucts of the activations of the sending and the receiving  
 132 units in the two phases, so that the changes reinforce signal  
 133 and reduce noise:  
 134

$$\Delta W_{ij} = \eta(a_i^+ a_j^+ - a_i^- a_j^-) \quad (4)$$

Learning is based on contrasting the two phases, hence  
 135 the term Contrastive Hebbian Learning.  
 136

O'Reilly and Munakata (2000) proposed the LEABRA  
 137 (Local, Error-driven and Associative, Biologically Realistic  
 138 Algorithm) algorithm. This algorithm combines error-  
 139 driven and Hebbian Learning, exploiting bidirectional  
 140 connectivity to allow the propagation of error signals in  
 141 a biologically plausible fashion.  
 142

The supervised learning algorithms assume a very  
 143 detailed error signal telling each output how it should be  
 144 responding. Other algorithms have been developed that  
 145 assume less detailed information. These approaches are  
 146 referred to as *reinforcement learning*.  
 147

Another class of neural networks is trained with  
 148 *unsupervised learning*. In this type of learning, the network  
 149 is presented with different input patterns. The aim of the  
 150 network is to form its own internal representations which  
 151 reflect regularities in the input patterns.  
 152

The Self-Organizing Map (SOM; Kohonen 1984) is an  
 153 example of a neural network architecture that is trained with  
 154 unsupervised learning. As shown in Fig. 2, a SOM consists  
 155 of an *array of neurons* or *nodes*. Each node has coordinates  
 156 on the map and is associated with a weight vector, of the  
 157 same dimensionality as the input patterns. For example, if  
 158 there are three dimensions in the input, there will be three  
 159 input units, and each output unit will have a vector of  
 160 three weights connected to those input units.  
 161

The aim of the SOM learning algorithm is to produce  
 162 a topographic map that reflects regularities in the set of  
 163 input patterns. When an input pattern is presented to the  
 164 network, the SOM training algorithm computes  
 165 the Euclidean distance between the weight vector and the  
 166 input pattern for each node. The node that presents the  
 167 least Euclidean distance (*winning node* or *best matching*  
 168 *unit [BMU]*) is associated with the input pattern. Next, the  
 169 weights vectors of the neighboring nodes are changed so as  
 170 to become more similar to the weights vector of the  
 171



172 winning node. The extent of the weight changes for each of  
173 the neighboring nodes is determined by its location on the  
174 map using a *neighborhood function*. In effect, regions of the  
175 output layer compete to represent the input patterns, and  
176 regional organization is enforced by short-range excitatory  
177 and long range inhibitory connections within the  
178 output layer. SOMs are thought to capture aspects of the  
179 organization of sensory input in the cerebral cortex.  
180 Hebbian learning to associate sensory and motor topographic  
181 maps then provides the basis for a system that  
182 learns to generate adaptive behavior in an environment.

### 183 Cross-References

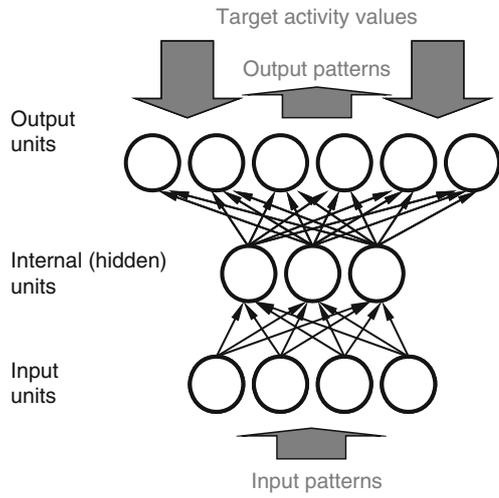
- 184 ▶ Adaptive Learning Systems
- 185 ▶ Associative Learning
- 186 ▶ Bayesian Learning
- 187 ▶ Computational Models of Human Learning
- 188 ▶ Connectionism
- 189 ▶ Human Cognition and Learning
- 190 ▶ Learning in Artificial Neural Networks
- 191 ▶ Parallel Distributed Processing

- ▶ Reinforcement Learning in Spiking Neural Networks 192
- ▶ Self-Organized Learning 193

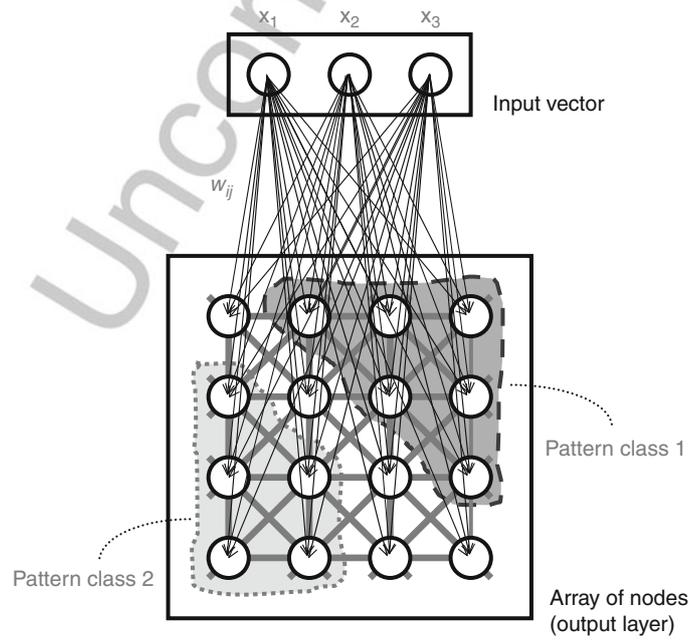
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Uncorrected



Connectionist Theories of Learning. Fig. 1 Supervised learning in a three-layered feed-forward neural network



Connectionist Theories of Learning. Fig. 2 Unsupervised learning in a simple self-organizing map (SOM)