

Non-Random Weight Dilution in High Performance Associative Memories

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Abstract *The consequences of two techniques for symmetrically diluting the weights of the standard Hopfield architecture associative memory model, trained using a non-Hebbian learning rule, are examined. This paper reports experimental investigations into the effect of dilution on factors such as: pattern stability and attractor performance. It is concluded that these networks maintain a reasonable level of performance at fairly high dilution rates.*

Key-Words *Associative Memory, Hopfield Networks, Weight Dilution, Capacity, Basins of Attraction, Perceptron Learning.*

1 Introduction

The associative memories examined in this paper are based around the standard Hopfield architecture [10]. It has been known for some time [1] that networks with performance superior to that of the original model can be built. Improved performance may be achieved by using an alternative learning rule: either a rule that finds an approximation to the projection weight matrix, or one that implements perceptron-style learning. (See [6,7,14] for a comparison of performance of different models).

Weight dilution is a technique for reducing the degree of connectivity within a network. Connections are removed after training has taken place (*post-training dilution*). For one-shot Hebbian learning, as employed in the 'standard' Hopfield model, it is known [13] that capacity drops linearly with the fraction of connections removed. It has even been suggested that an associative memory may be trained by starting with a fully connected network with random fixed weights and systematically removing a fraction of the connections [12].

1 Models Examined

In each experiment we train a network of N units with a set of N -ary, bipolar (+1/-1) training vectors, $\{\mathbf{p}\}$. The N by N weight matrix is denoted by \mathbf{W} , and the state (output) of the i 'th unit is denoted by S_i . During recall the net input, or *local field*, of a unit, is given by:

$$h_i = \sum_{j \neq i} w_{ij} S_j$$

where w_{ij} is the weight on the connection from unit j to unit i . The *next* state of a unit is derived from its local field and its *current* state:

$$S_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h_i > \theta_i \\ -1 & \text{if } h_i < \theta_i \\ S_i & \text{if } h_i = \theta_i \end{cases}$$

where the threshold, θ_i , is normally taken as zero. Unit states may be updated synchronously or asynchronously. Here we use asynchronous, random order updates. These network dynamics and a symmetric weight matrix guarantee simple point attractors in the network's state space. Each of these point attractors is a stable state of the network.

A training vector, \mathbf{p} , will be a stable state of the network if the *aligned local fields*, $h_i \mathbf{p}$ are non-negative for all i (assuming all θ_i are zero). Each training vector that is a stable state is known as a *fundamental memory* of the trained network. The *capacity* of a network is the maximum number of

fundamental memories it can store. The *loading*, ρ , on a network is calculated by dividing the number of vectors in the training set by the number of units in the network, N .

1.1 Learning Rules

Two learning rules have been employed in this work. The first, described by Blatt & Vergini [3], approximates the projection matrix generated using the pseudo-inverse rule (see [8] for details). The second is Gardner's perceptron-like symmetric local learning rule [6,9].

1.1.1 Blatt & Vergini's Rule

Blatt & Vergini [3] present a learning rule which takes the form of an iterative method for approximating the projection matrix. The training algorithm is guaranteed to find an appropriate weight matrix within a finite number of presentations of each pattern if such a matrix exists.

The minimum number of presentations of the training set to perform, P , is calculated as being the smallest integer conforming to:

$$P \geq \log_k \frac{N}{(1-T)^2}$$

where k and T are real valued constants such that $1 < k \leq 4$ and $0 \leq T < 1$. k is referred to as the *memory coefficient* of the network; the larger it is, the fewer steps are required to train the network. In this work, $k=4$ and $T=0.5$ for all networks trained by this rule.

The algorithm is as follows:

```

BEGINNING WITH A ZERO WEIGHT MATRIX
FOR EACH PATTERN IN TURN
  APPLY THE PATTERN ONTO THE NETWORK
  FOR  $m := 1$  TO  $P$ 
    FOR EACH PROCESSING ELEMENT IN TURN

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UPDATE INCOMING WEIGHTS ACCORDING TO: $w_{ij} = \frac{k^{m-1}}{N} (x_i^m - h_i)(x_j^m - h_j)$

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  REMOVE ALL SELF-CONNECTIONS

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Note that patterns are added incrementally without corrupting patterns learnt previously.

1.1.1 Symmetric Local Learning

Gardner [9] pointed out that an iterative perceptron-like training rule could be made to produce symmetric weights by simply updating both w_{ij} and w_{ji} when either changes. Gardner also showed that such algorithms would find a symmetric weight matrix, if one existed, for a particular training set.

The symmetric local learning rule is given by:

```

BEGIN WITH A ZERO WEIGHT MATRIX
REPEAT UNTIL ALL LOCAL FIELDS ARE CORRECT
  SET THE STATE OF NETWORK TO ONE OF THE  $\rho$ 
  FOR EACH UNIT,  $i$ , IN TURN

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    IF  $h_i^p - x_i^p$  IS LESS THAN  $T$  THEN

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UPDATE WEIGHTS ON CONNECTIONS INTO AND OUT OF UNIT i ACCORDING TO:

$$w_{ij} = w_{ji} = \frac{x_i^p x_j^p}{N}$$

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    OTHERWISE DO NOTHING

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This is a symmetric version of the Perceptron learning rule with a fixed margin of T and a learning rate of $1/N$. We refer to T as the *learning threshold* for the network. Since a set of training vectors is stable when the aligned local fields of those vectors have all been driven to be non-negative, we could set T to zero. However, based on previous results [6], we choose $T=10$ in order to achieve a better attractor performance for the networks.

1.1 Training Sets

Throughout this work we employ training sets made up of psuedo-random training vectors. An uncorrelated training set is one in which the patterns are *completely* random. Correlation can be increased by varying the probability that a given bit in a training pattern is +1 (or -1). We refer to the probability of any bit being +1 in each training vector as the *bias*, b , on the training set. So: $\Pr(i, p \cdot \text{prob}(\sigma_i = +1)) = b$. Thus, a bias of 0.5 corresponds to an uncorrelated training set and a bias of 1 corresponds to a completely correlated one (as does a bias of 0).

1.1 Weight Dilution

We present two approaches to weight dilution. The first involves the removal of a proportion of the connections chosen at random, the second involves selecting the connections to be removed based upon some heuristic by which it is hoped that the most efficacious connections are retained [2,4,5].

1.1.1 Random Dilution

Pairs of units are chosen at random and, if the units are connected, *both* connections between them are removed, until the correct proportion of connections has been removed from the network. By removing both connections between units we ensure that the weight matrix remains symmetrical.

1.1.1 Informed Dilution

The connection pair with the weight of least magnitude is identified, and both connections in the pair are removed from the network. This process is repeated until the required number of connections has been eliminated.

1 Analysing Performance

A series of experiments were carried out on networks of size $N=100$ using training sets of bias 0.5 and 0.9 and at a fixed loading of $\rho=0.50$ (i.e. 50 training patterns). Networks were trained using either Blatt & Vergini's rule, or the Symmetric Local Learning rule, as described in Section 2.1. The connections in the networks were then diluted according to the methods described in Section 2.3. Two aspects of network performance were measured: *pattern stability* and *attractor performance*.

1.1 Measuring Pattern Stability

The proportion of fundamental memories that are stable states of the network after dilution provides an indicator of the robustness of a particular model. In this work all networks are trained to below maximum capacity, so all training patterns are fundamental memories prior to dilution. Figures 1 to 4 show the *proportion* of training patterns that are stable at various dilutions.

1.1 Measuring Attractor Performance

For an associative memory model to be effective, the training patterns should not only be stable states of the network, but should also act as attractors in the network's state space.

We use, R , the normalized mean radius of the basins of attraction [11], as a measure of attractor performance. It is defined as:

$$R = \left\langle \left\langle \frac{1 - m_0}{1 - m_1} \right\rangle \right\rangle$$

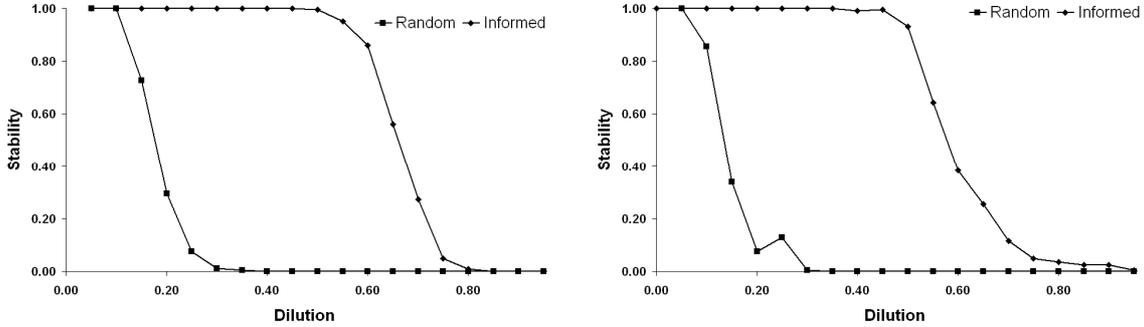
where m_0 is the minimum overlap an initial state must have with a fundamental memory for the network to converge on that fundamental memory, and m_1 is the largest overlap of the initial state with the rest of the fundamental memories. The angled braces denote an average over sets of training patterns. Details of the algorithm used can be found in [11].

1 Results

1.1 Pattern Stability

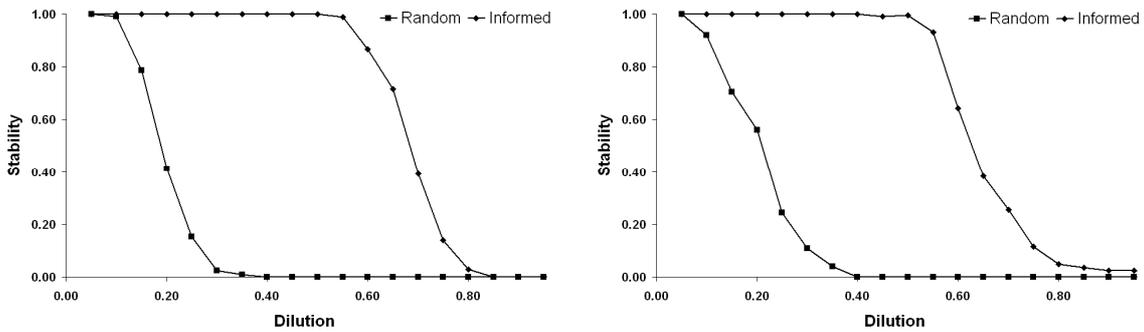
In this section we present the results measuring the stability of the trained patterns while varying the degree of weight dilution within the network.

1.1.1 Networks trained with Blatt & Vergini's rule



Figures 1 & 2: Pattern stability in networks trained with Blatt & Vergini's rule. $\beta=0.50$ ($N=100$). Figure 1 (left) shows performance of networks trained with uncorrelated patterns ($b=0.5$). Figure 2 (right) shows performance of networks trained with correlated patterns ($b=0.9$). In each case the upper line represents informed dilution.

1.1.1 Networks trained with the Symmetric Local Learning rule

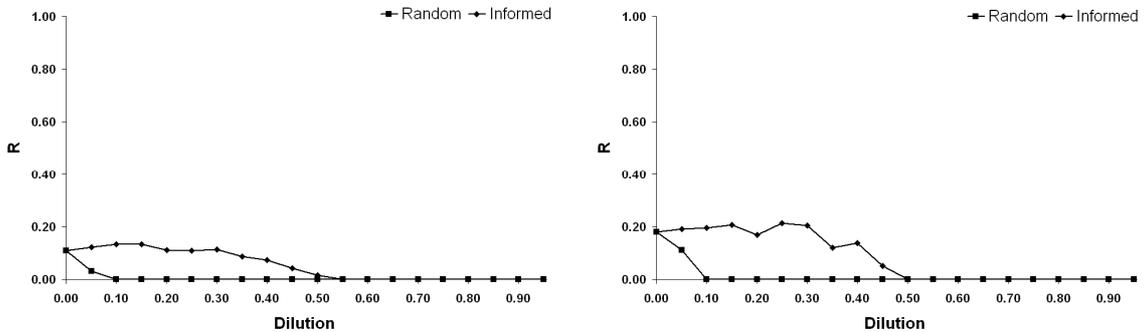


Figures 3 & 4: Pattern stability in networks trained with Symmetric Local Learning. $N=100$, $\beta=0.50$. Figure 3 (left) shows performance of networks trained with uncorrelated patterns ($b=0.5$). Figure 4 (right) shows performance of networks trained with correlated patterns ($b=0.9$). In each case the upper line represents informed dilution.

1.1 Attractor Performance

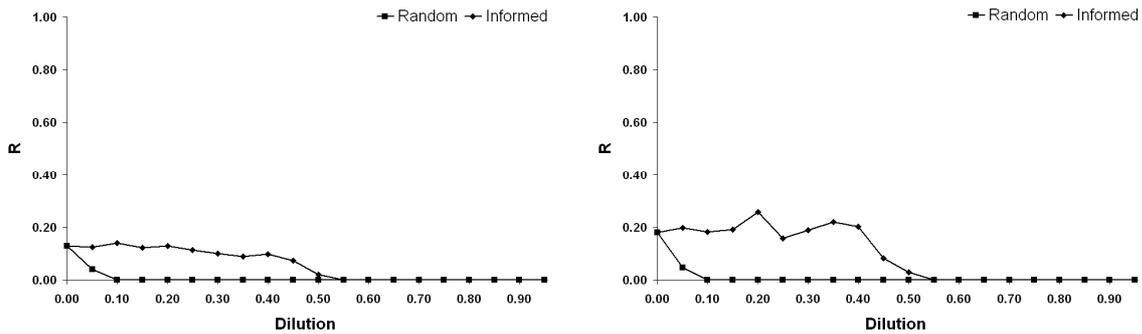
In this section we present the results measuring the attractor performance of the networks while varying the degree of weight dilution.

1.1.1 Networks trained with Blatt & Vergini's rule



Figures 5 & 6: Attractor performance in networks trained with Blatt & Vergini's rule. $N=100$, $\beta=0.50$. Figure 5 (left) shows performance of networks trained with uncorrelated patterns ($b=0.5$). Figure 6 (right) shows performance of networks trained with correlated patterns ($b=0.9$). In each case the upper line represents informed dilution.

1.1.1 Networks trained with the Symmetric Local Learning rule



Figures 7 & 8: Attractor performance in networks trained with Symmetric Local Learning. $N=100$, $\rho=0.50$. Figure 7 (left) shows performance of networks trained with uncorrelated patterns ($b=0.5$). Figure 8 (right) shows performance of networks trained with correlated patterns ($b=0.9$). In each case the upper line represents informed dilution.

1 Discussion

1.1 Observations on Pattern Stability

There are four key observations that can be made from the results of the pattern stability tests:

- 1) Informed dilution gives a clear and significant improvement in pattern stability over simple random dilution. These improvements take the form of an increase in the level of dilution at which the networks retain memory of all the trained patterns.
- 2) It is possible to remove around 50-60% of the networks' connections without a serious decline in the stability of the trained patterns.
- 3) The bias in the training set makes very little difference to the pattern stability. All four plots describe remarkably similar behaviour.
- 4) The learning rule used appears to make little difference to the effect of dilution on pattern stability.

1.1 Observations on Attractor Performance

The pattern of the attractor performance results is similar to that of pattern stability. Specifically:

- 1) Informed dilution performs significantly better than simple random dilution.
- 2) It is possible to remove up to approximately 40% of the networks' connectivity without serious damage to the attractor performance of the network.
- 3) The bias in the training set makes very little difference to the attractor performance.
- 4) The learning rule used appears to make little difference to the effect of dilution on attractor performance.

1.1 Conclusions

This paper reports two important results:

- 1) Informed dilution is markedly better than random dilution.
- 2) Informed dilution demonstrates that a large number of connections are redundant in networks of this type and at these loadings.

As the loading of these networks is $\rho=0.5$ they are below their maximum storage capacity; it may be of interest to repeat these experiments at higher loadings where the networks may be under greater stress with regard their maximum capacity.

It is interesting to note that, for both performance measures, failure, when it occurs, proceeds with great rapidity. There is a sharp decrease in both proportion of stable patterns and attractor performance once the networks begin to lose their stability and ability to act as attractors. In this respect, our results differ from those of Sompolinsky, whose work on randomly diluting the traditional Hopfield network [13] resulted in a linear decline in pattern stability.

The system of informed dilution we have presented is very simple; no re-training of the network is required. It is possible that in biological systems complex strategies may be similarly unnecessary. Chechik *et al* [5] have noted that during brain maturation there is a reduction in connectivity that is expensive to maintain from an energy perspective. It is interesting that our artificial system also demonstrates levels of redundancy in connectivity albeit in a much simpler model.

Informed dilution, as implemented in this work, is functionally equivalent to the system of *annealed dilution* proposed by Bouten *et al.* [4] in which the dilution is performed as part of the learning process. The results presented here concur with their prediction that 60% dilution is the approximate limit beyond which network capacity is compromised.

The work presented here concentrates on the dilution of *fully connected* networks, whereas our current work focuses on networks that have been created as sparsely-connected *tabula rasa*. Training these networks has presented new challenges and performance characteristics. We expect to be able to present these new findings in the near future.

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