

Learning What the Internal State Means, Through Action



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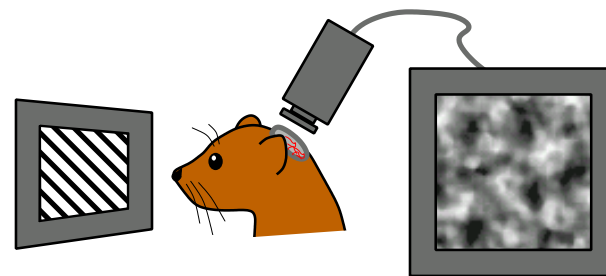


† Joint work with S. Kumar Bhamidipati, Daniel Eng, Navendu Misra, Stuart B. Heinrich, Noah H. Smith, and Huei-Fang Yang

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The Main Question



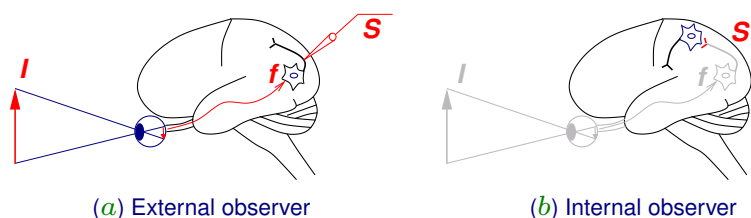
How can we understand what the **pattern of activity** in the brain **means**? (cf. Freeman 2003)

1. How can **scientists** understand the pattern?
2. How does **the brain itself** make sense of its **own activity**?

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Scientist vs. the Brain

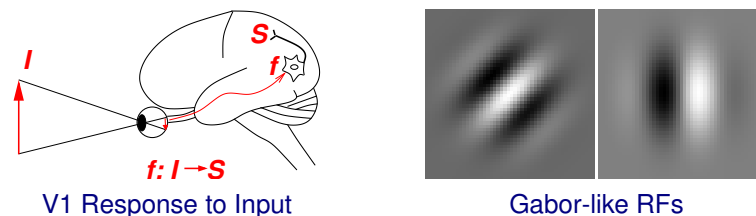


- External observer (e.g., a neuroscientist) **can figure out** how S relates to I (transformation $f : I \rightarrow S$).
- Internal observer **cannot**: But the brain does this all the time, so this does not seem right!

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Example: The Visual Cortex

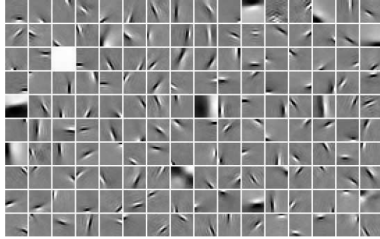


- With access to both I and S , Hubel and Wiesel (1959) figured out $f : I \rightarrow S$ in V1 (oriented Gabor-like receptive fields Jones and Palmer 1987).
- But even before that, and with access to only S , humans had no problem perceiving orientation.

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Theories on RF Formation



Hoyer and Hyvärinen (2000)

Well-developed understanding on how RFs form:

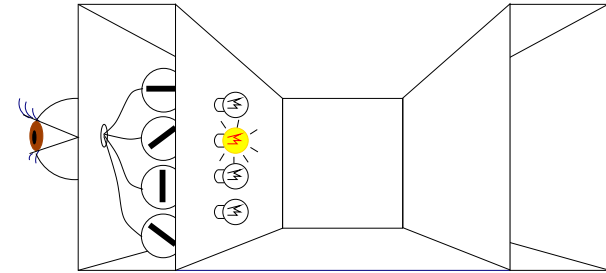
- Olshausen and Field (1997): Sparse coding; Barlow (1994): Redundancy reduction; Bell and Sejnowski (1997): Information maximization; Miikkulainen et al. (2005): Self-organization through Hebbian learning.

However, how is the resulting code to be used remains a question.

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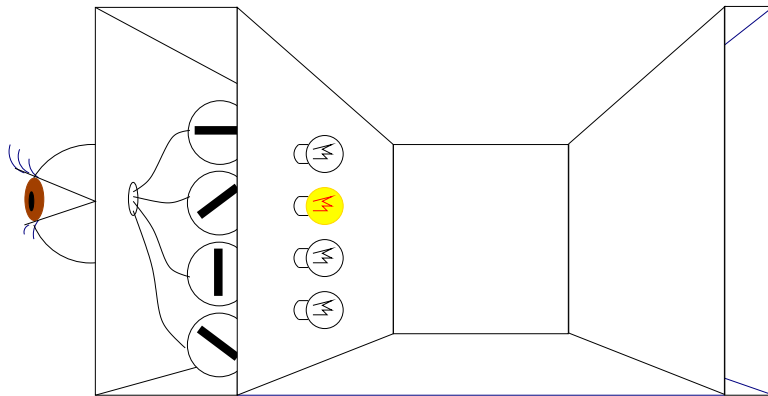
A Metaphor of the Problem



- Imagine sitting in a room, looking at blinking lights, without knowledge of the sensors nor the RFs.
- The lights may be due to any other sensory modality (as in vision-audition rewiring Sur et al. 1999).
- Similar to the **Chinese Room** (Searle 1980): Problem of “**Symbol Grounding**” (Harnad 1990).

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The Sensory Organ Can (Possibly) Give Us a Clue

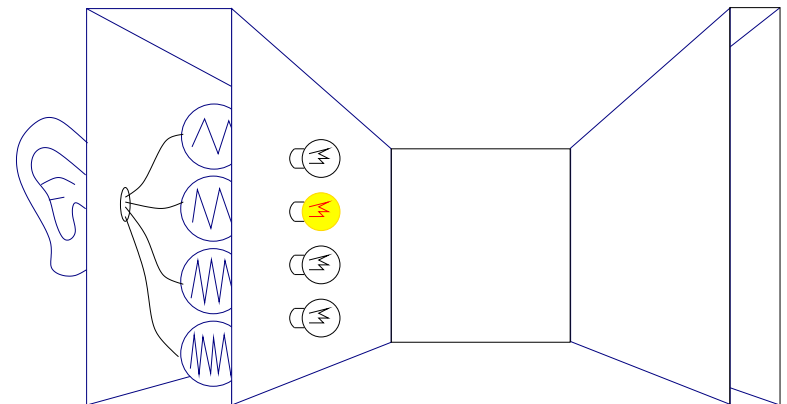


- It could have been caused by a **visual input**.

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But, Equally Likely Is ...

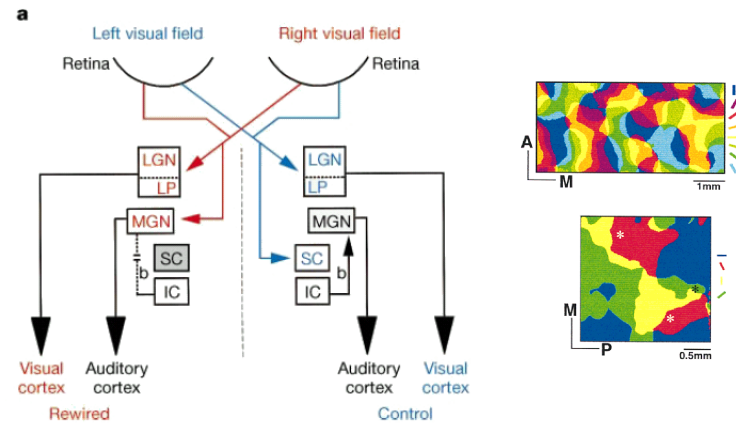


- It could have been caused by an **auditory input**.
- Sur et al., Rewiring cortex, *Journal of Physiology*, 41:33–43, 1999

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Rewiring Vision to Auditory Area



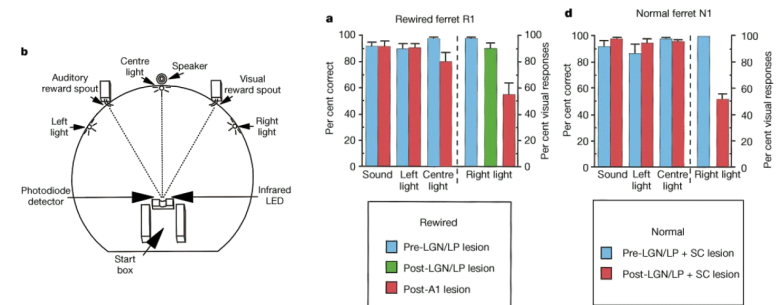
von Melchner et al. (2000); Sharma et al. (2000); Sur et al. (1999)

- Rewired auditory cortex develops **visual cortex-like** organization.
- Question: does it **see** light or **hear** light?

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Rewiring: Behavioral Results



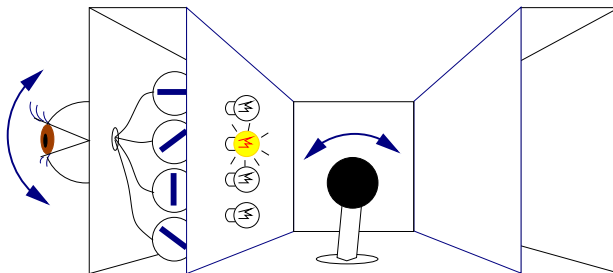
von Melchner et al. (2000); Sharma et al. (2000)

- Ferret **trained to behave differently** for visual vs. auditory stimuli: Behavior *suggests* that the ferret is actually **seeing** light **with** its **auditory** cortex!

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Possible Solution: Through Action

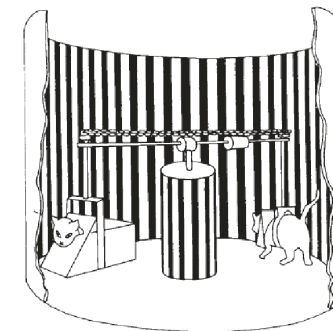


- A major problem in the metaphor is the **passiveness** of the whole situation.
- Adding action **can help solve** the problem.
- But **why** and **how**?

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Experimental Evidence



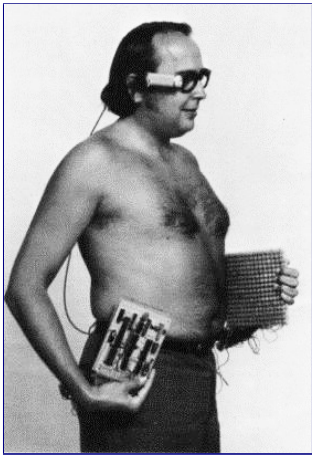
Held and Hein (1963)

- Active animal developed normal vision.
- Passive animal did not.
- Suggests the importance of action in vision.

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Experimental Evidence



Bach y Rita (1972; 1983)

- Vibrotactile array linked to a video camera.
- Passive viewing results in **tactile** sensation.
- Moving the camera results in a **vision-like** sensation.
- Sensation as related to **voluntary/intentional action** may be the key!

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Theoretical Insights

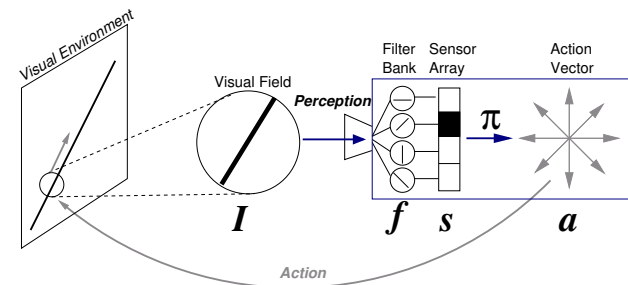
- Philipona et al. (2003) showed that properties of ambient space (such as the dimensionality) can be inferred based on internal sensory input alone.
- The key concept is about the compensability between ego-motion and the change in the environmental input conveyed to exteroceptors.

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Part I: Learning the Meaning of Internal State

Approach: A Sensorimotor Agent



Choe and Bhamidipati (2003)

- A simple **visuomotor** agent.
- **How** can it **learn** about the visual world?
- What should be the **objective (or goal)** of learning?

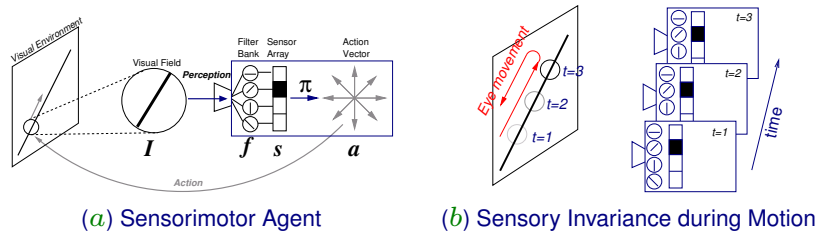
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Action for Internal Invariance



- Agent can **move** its visual field.
- Movement in a certain direction (diagonal) causes the *sensory array* to **stay invariant** over time.
- Property of such a movement **exactly reflects** the property of the input I .

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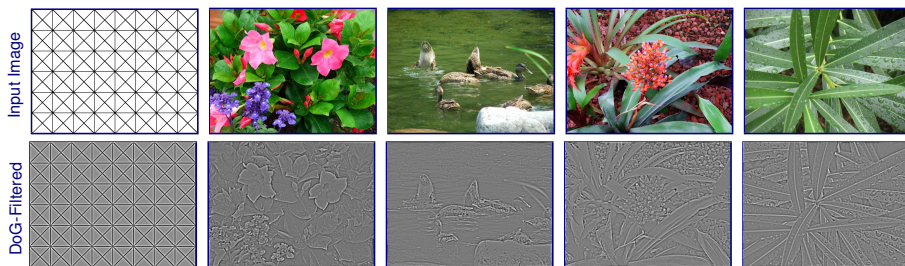
Outline of Experimental Methods

- Input preparation.
- Orientation response calculation.
- Learning algorithm and policy generation.

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Methods: Input Preparation

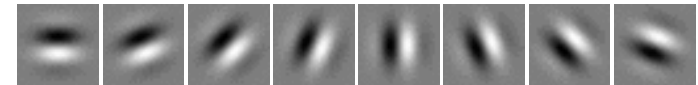


- Convolve with Difference-of-Gaussian (DoG) filter (15×15).
- Then, sample a 31×31 region.

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Methods: Orientation Response



- Find the vectorized dot product of the 31×31 input I and the n Gabor filters G_i ($i = 1..n$, $\theta = \lfloor (i-1)\pi/n \rfloor$):

$$r_i = \sum_{x,y} G_i(x,y) I(x,y).$$

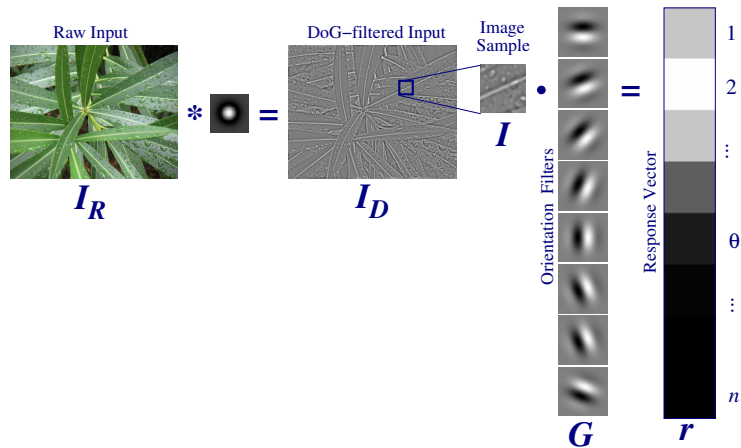
- The above results in a response vector \mathbf{r} , and the orientation response s :

$$s = \arg \max_{i=1..n} r_i$$

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Orientation Response



Sensory state:

$$s = \arg \max_{1 \leq \theta \leq n} r_{\theta}.$$

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Methods: Reinforcement Learning (Reward)

- Immediate reward is measured as the dot product of current and previous response vectors:

$$\rho_{t+1} = \mathbf{r}_t \cdot \mathbf{r}_{t+1}$$

- The task the agent is to learn a state-to-action mapping so that it maximizes the reward ρ .

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Methods: Policy π

Suppose we know the probability $P(a|s)$ (let us call this $R(s, a)$), where stochastically generating action given the state s with this probability maximizes the reward.

1. Given the current state $s_t \in S$, randomly pick action $a_t \in A$.
2. If a_t equals $\arg \max_{a \in A} R(s_t, a)$,
 - (a) then perform action a_t ,
 - (b) else perform action a_t with probability $R(s_t, a_t)$.
3. Repeat steps 1 to 3 until exactly one action is performed.

In practice, momentum was added so that $a_{t+1} = a_t$ with a 30% chance, and in step 2, if a random draw from $[0..1]$ was less than $cR(s_t, a_t)$, then the action was accepted.

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Methods: Learning $R(s, a)$

- A simple update rule was used:

$$R_{t+1}(s_t, a_t) = R_t(s_t, a_t) + \alpha \rho_{t+1},$$

where $\alpha = 0.002$ is the learning rate, and ρ_{t+1} the immediate reward.

- $R_{t+1}(s_t, a)$ was then normalized by:

$$R_{t+1}(s_t, a) := \frac{R_{t+1}(s_t, a)}{\sum_{a' \in A} R_{t+1}(s_t, a')}, \text{ for all } a.$$

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Reward Probability Table

A: direction of motion

S: sensory state (orientation)

	→	↗	↑	↖	←	↙	↓	↘
⊖	0.5	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0
⊘	0	0.5	0	0	0	0.5	0	0
⊕	0	0	$R(s, a)$	0	0	0	0.5	0
⊗	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0.5

- Reward probability $R(s, a)$ can be tabulated.
- In an ideal case (world consists of straight lines only), we expect to see two diagonal matrices (shaded gray, above).

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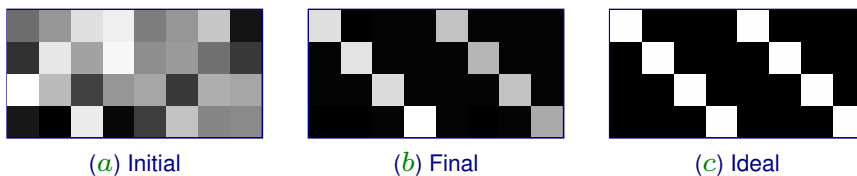
Results: Overview

1. Synthetic input and natural image input.
2. Learned $R(s, a)$.
3. Error in $R(s, a)$ and average reward ρ over time.
4. Distribution of reward ρ .
5. Gaze trajectory.

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Results: Learned $R(s, a)$ for Synthetic Input

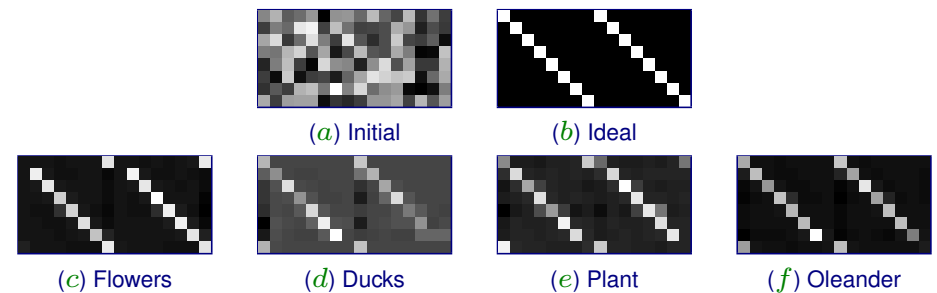


- Learned $R(s, a)$ close to ideal.

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Results: Learned $R(s, a)$ for Natural Images

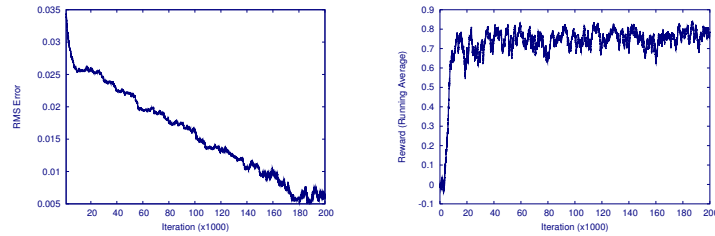


- Learned $R(s, a)$ close to ideal even for natural image inputs.

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Results: Error in R and Average ρ

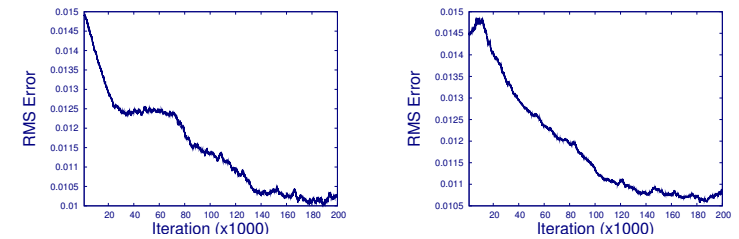


Synthetic Input

- Left: Root-mean-squared error in $R(s, a)$ compared to the ideal case.
- Right: running average of immediate reward ρ :

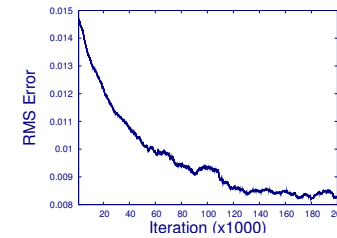
$$\mu_t = (1 - \alpha)r_t + \alpha \mu_{t-1}, (\mu_1 = \rho_1, \alpha = 0.999).$$

Results: Error in $R(s, a)$

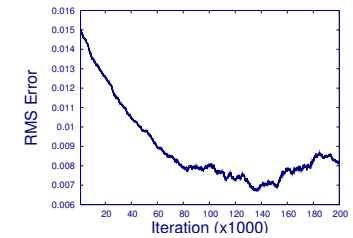


(a) Flowers

(b) Ducks



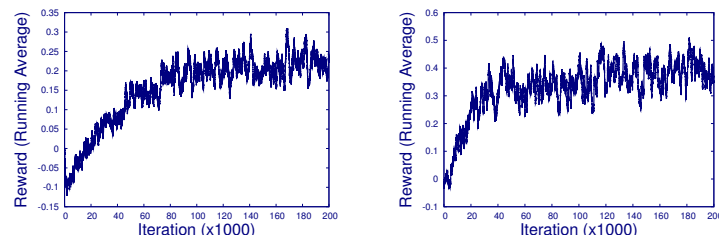
(c) Plant



(d) Oleander

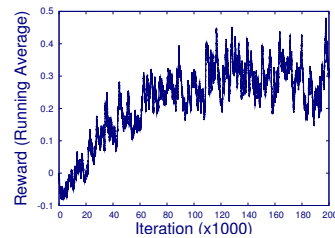
Natural Input

Results: Average ρ

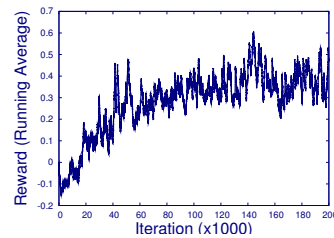


(a) Flowers

(b) Ducks



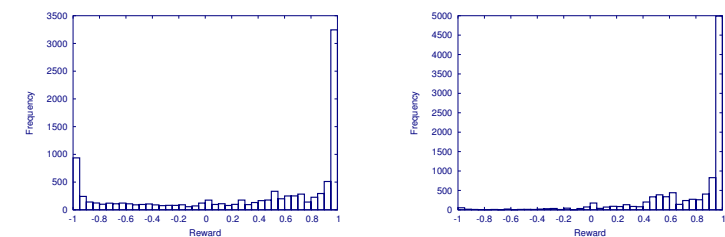
(c) Plant



(d) Oleander

Natural Input

Results: Distribution of ρ



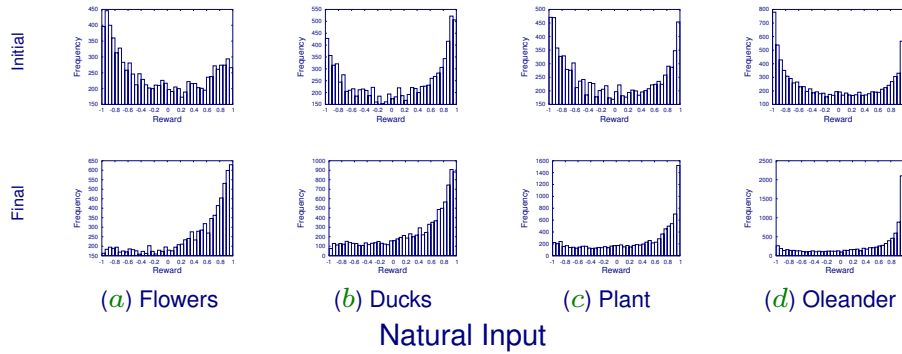
(a) Initial

(b) Final

Synthetic Input

- Initially, two peaks: near negative min and positive max ρ .
- Near the end, only one peak: near positive max ρ .

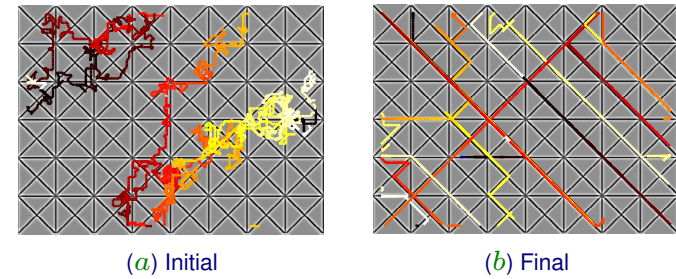
Results: Distribution of ρ



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Results: Gaze Traj. for Synth. Input

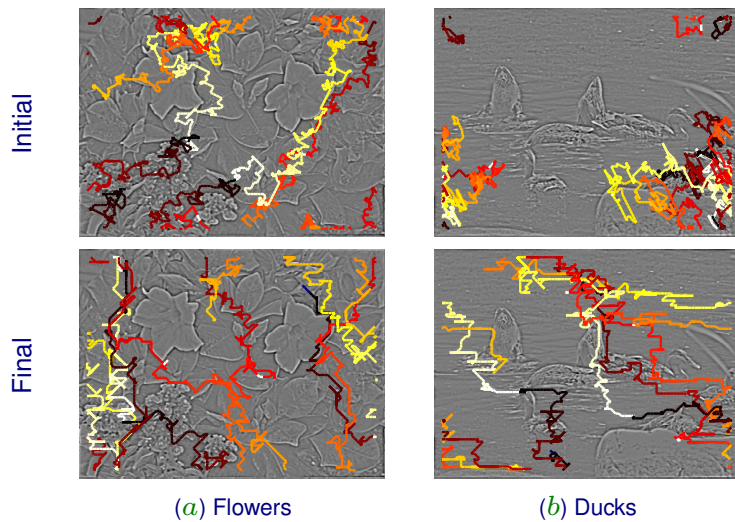


- Gaze trajectory reflects orientation represented by internal state.

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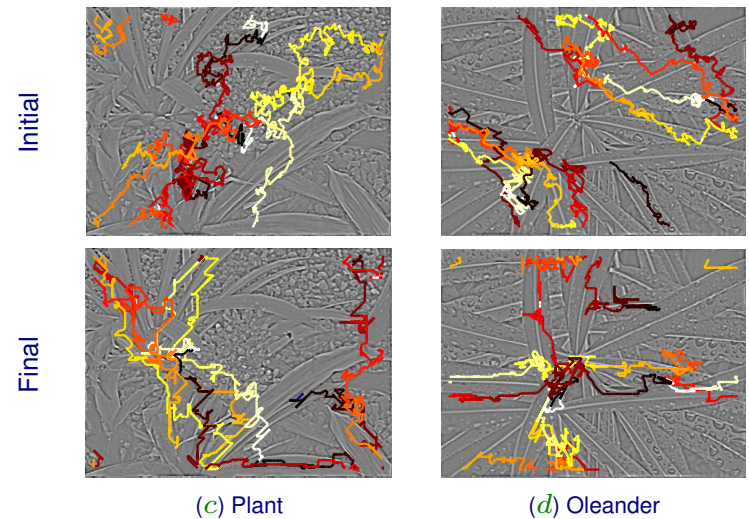
Results: Gaze Traj. for Nat. Input



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Results: Gaze Traj. for Nat. Input

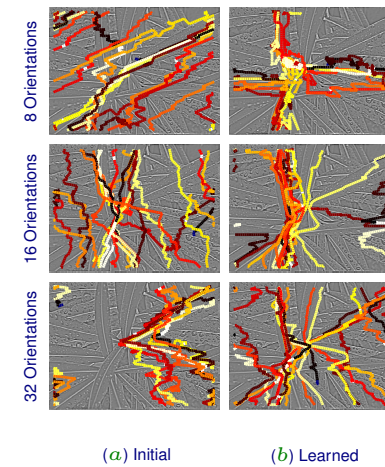


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Work in Progress: Q-Learning

Results: Demo



Trajectories from Q-Learning sessions (Choe and Smith 2006).

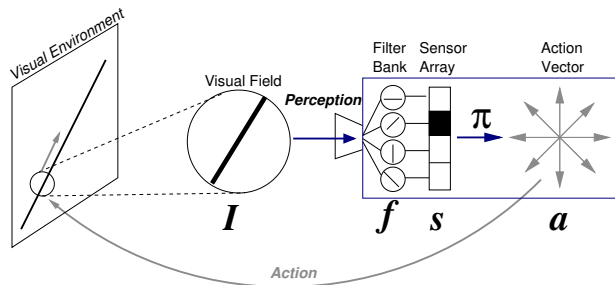
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Interpretation of the Results



Part II: RF Learning

- Using **invariance** as the only criterion, particular **action pattern** that has the **same property** as the input that triggered the sensors was learned.
- Question: Can this approach be extended to learning complex stimulus concepts?

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Learning RFs along with Their Grounding (Decoding)

- Grounding (decoding): Same as Part I.
- RFs develops through normalized Hebbian learning:

$$g_{ij} = \frac{g_{ij} + \alpha(I_{ij} - g_{ij})}{\sum_{mn} g_{mn} + \alpha(I_{mn} - g_{mn})},$$

where g_{ij} is the afferent connection weight and I_{ij} the input pixel value.

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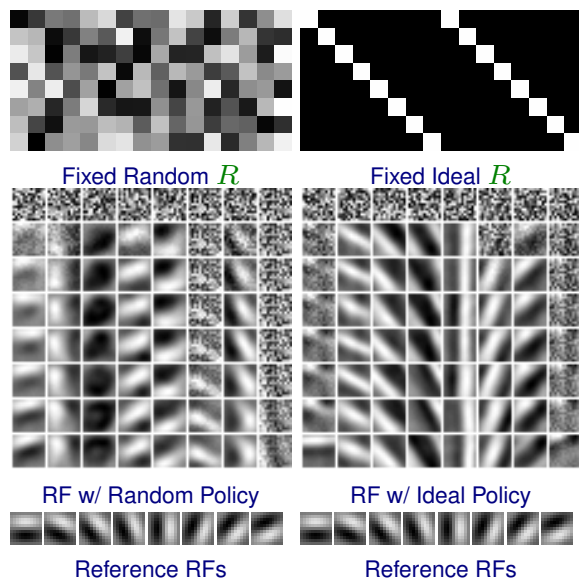
Experiments

- Effects of different action policy on RF learning.
 - Random $R(s, a)$
 - Ideal $R(s, a)$
- Simultaneous learning of RF and action policy.
 - RF learning through normalized Hebbian learning
 - Reinforcement learning of $R(s, a)$ based on internal-state invariance

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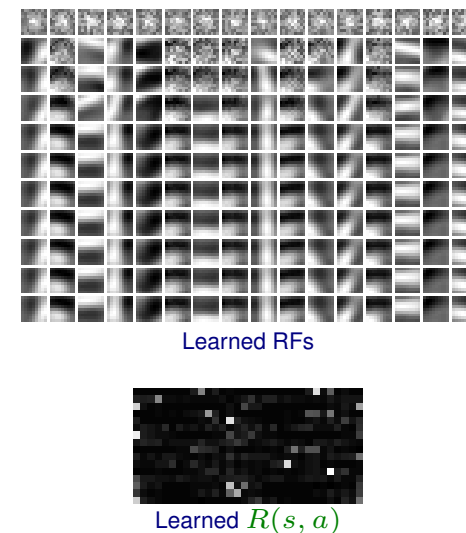
Effects of $R(s, a)$ on RF Learning



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Simul. Learning of RFs & $R(s, a)$

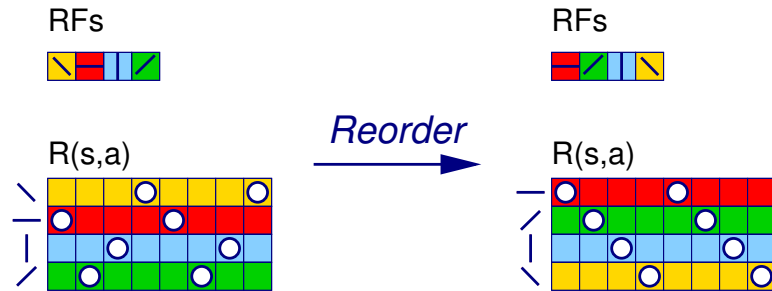


- Seemingly unordered RFs and $R(s, a)$ results.

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Reordering RFs



- The $R(s, a)$ result looks bad because each row's corresponding RF orientation is not ordered.
- Reordering RF orientation reorders the rows in $R(s, a)$.

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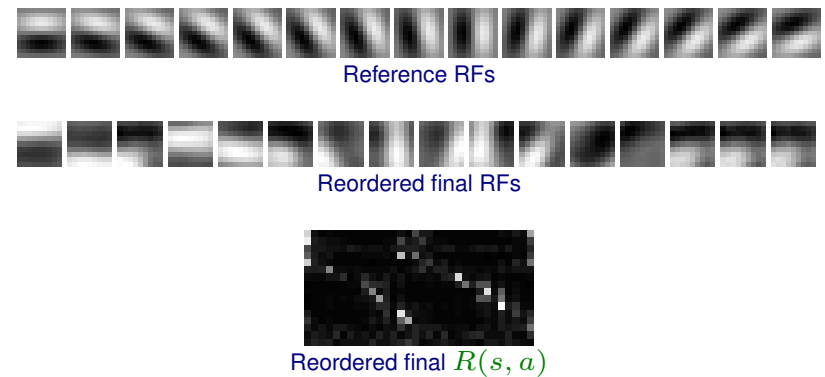
Part II: Summary

- Action policy strongly influences RF properties, by altering the input statistics.
- Certain action policies may give better RFs, faster.
- Receptive fields and action policy can be learned simultaneously, from scratch, thus allowing encoding/decoding to evolve together.

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Reordered RFs and $R(s, a)$



- However, reordering the RFs and their corresponding $R(s, a)$ rows shows the true underlying structure! (Not perfect, but a good start!)

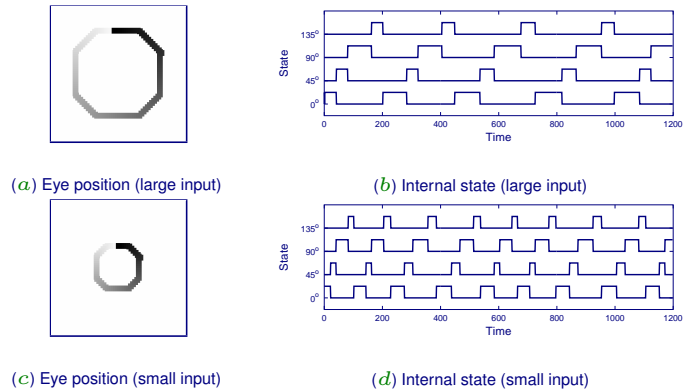
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Part III: Learning Complex Object Concepts

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Learning About Complex Objects

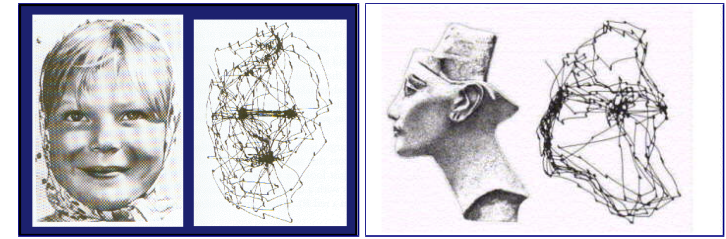


- For complex objects, a history of sensory activity may be needed (i.e., some form of memory).
- Invariance can be detected in the spatiotemporal pattern of sensor activity.

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Supporting Evidence?



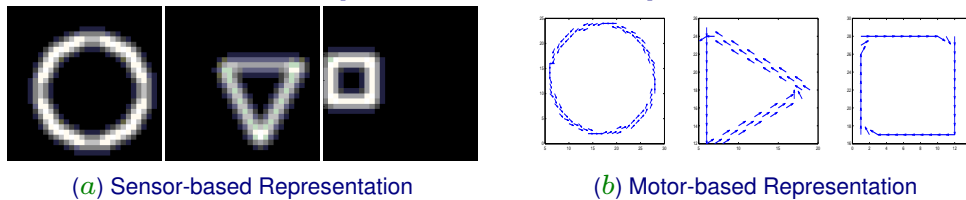
Yarbus (1967)

- When we look at objects, our gaze wanders around.
- Could such an interaction be necessary for object recognition?

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Advantage of Motor-Based Memory (Habit, or Skill)

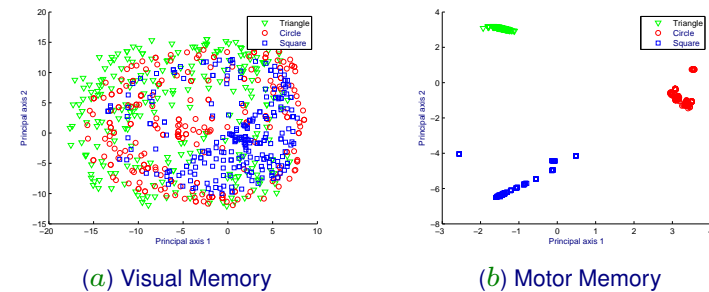


- Sensor-based representations may be hard to learn and inefficient.
- Motor-based approaches may generalize better.
- Comparison: Make both into a 900-D vector and compare backpropagation learning performance.

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Class Separability

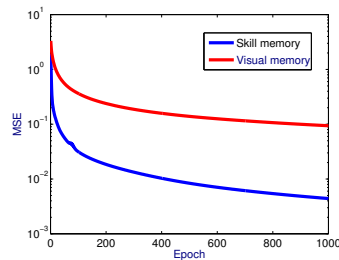


- Comparison of PCA projection of 1,000 data points in the visual and motor memory representations.
- Motor memory is clearly separable.

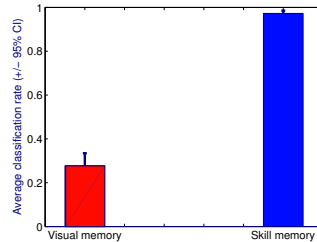
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Speed and Accuracy of Learning



(a) Training Speed



(b) Generalization Accuracy

- Motor-based memory resulted in faster and more accurate learning (10 trials).

Related Work (Selected)

- Piaget (1952): Sensorimotor period in child development
- Freeman (1999): Brain creates meaning through action and choices. Also see Kozma and Freeman (2003) for a KIV model of the emergence of goal-directed, intentional behavior.
- O'Regan and Noë (2001): Sensorimotor contingency theory
- Philipona et al. (2003): Inferring space through sensorimotor interaction
- Rizzolatti et al. (2001): Mirror neurons
- Gibson (1950): Direct perception of invariance and affordance
- Harnad (1990): Symbol grounding on robotic capabilities.
- Taylor (1999): Corollary discharge and awareness of attention movement prior to sensory awareness.

Summary

- Internal observer can learn about the properties of the external environment – through **action** maximizing **invariance** in neural activity.
- Such actions **closely reflect** the property of the stimulus that triggered the sensory neuron to fire: **Meaning** of the spike recovered (through action)!
- **Main contribution:** The **invariance criterion** for autonomously learning the **meaning** of neural states.

Discussion

- Why is **knowing** ones own **action** any easier than **perceptual interpretation**?: Knowledge of own action may be more **immediate** than perception (cf. Moore 1996, citing Bergson).
- What gives rise to **voluntary, intentional action** and why is it special? (Freeman 1999; Kozma and Freeman 2003; Taylor 1999).
- A different view of **invariance**: Not (only) something to be detected in the environment (cf. Gibson 1950), but something that we **actively seek within**.

Discussion (Cont'd)

- Why not just **analyze the input directly**? The raw input is only available at the immediate sensory surface.
- What about **other sensory modalities** (such as touch, olfaction, or audition)?
- The learning scheme **depends** on **structure** in the environment: If the environment didn't have structure, the agent can never learn.

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Discussion (Cont'd)

- Relation to **mirror neurons** (Rizzolatti et al. 2001)?
- Role of **attention** (e.g. Rensink et al. 1997; Taylor 1999)? Attention may be needed when ambiguities are present.
- Do **motor primitives** restrict the kind of sensory property that can be learned? What kinds of motor primitive do we have?

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Discussion (Cont'd)

- What about meaning **other than sensorimotor-like**, such as reinforcement signals (Rolls 2001) or “feeling” (Harnad 2001)?
- **Grounding on perception alone** may not be sufficient: cf. Perceptual symbol system (Barsalou et al. 2003).
- What to make of the segregation in the **dorsal–ventral pathway**? (Goodale and Milner 1992).

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Predictions

- Perceived orientation of a line can be altered by eye movement in the direction of incompatible orientation.
- Motor structures (cerebellum, basal ganglia) may be intimately involved in semantics.
- Geometrical understanding may be limited by the motor primitive repertoire.

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Future Work (and Work in Progress)

- Lateral inhibition in sensory array.
- Crossmodal association through sensory invariance.
- Extending to more complex concepts.

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Conclusions

- We must ask how the brain understands itself.
- Autonomous understanding of own internal state is non-trivial without direct access to the stimulus.
- Action can help solve the conundrum.
- Action that maintains invariance in internal state can recover meaning (the property of the stimulus).

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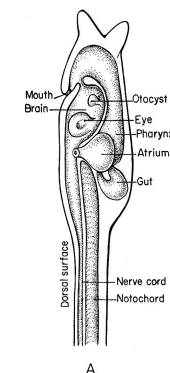
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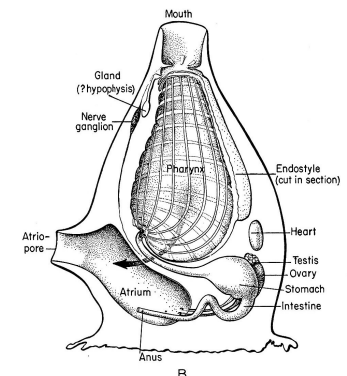
Why Do We Have a Brain?



Tree
(no Brain)



Tunicate
Free-floating
(w/ Brain)



Tunicate
Settled
(w/o Brain)

- Brain vs. no brain

Sources: <http://homepages.inf.ed.ac.uk/jbednar/> and <http://bill.srn.arizona.edu/classes/182/Lecture-9.htm>

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