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Neural Networks

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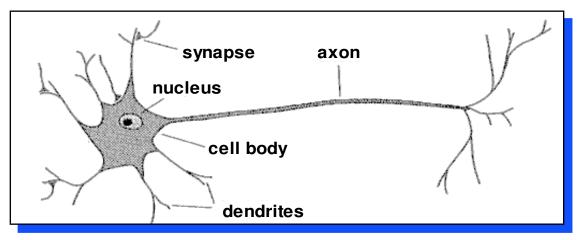
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- O-BEE-COL: Optimal BEEs for COLoring Graphs
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- Effective Calibration of Artificial Gene Regulatory Networks
- Large scale agent-based modeling of the humoral and cellular immune response
- A Memetic Immunological Algorithm for Resource Allocation Problem.

Biological inspirations

- Some numbers...
 - The human brain contains about 10 billion nerve cells (neurons)
 - Each neuron is connected to the others through 10000 synapses
- Properties of the brain
 - It can learn, reorganize itself from experience
 - It adapts to the environment
 - It is robust and fault tolerant

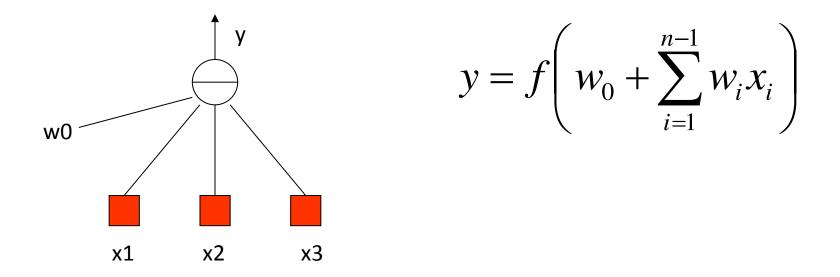
Biological neuron



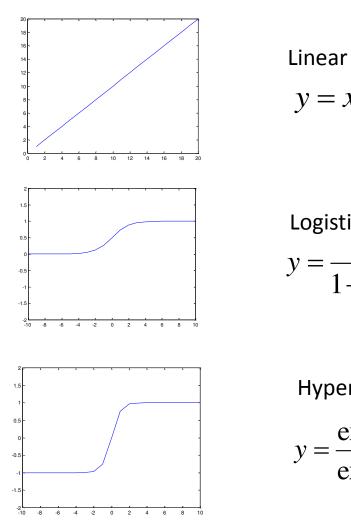
- A neuron has
 - A branching input (dendrites)
 - A branching output (the axon)
- The information circulates from the dendrites to the axon via the cell body
- Axon connects to dendrites via synapses
 - Synapses vary in strength
 - Synapses may be excitatory or inhibitory

What is an artificial neuron ?

• Definition : Non linear, parameterized function with restricted output range



Activation functions



$$y = x$$

Logistic

$$=\frac{1}{1+\exp(-x)}$$

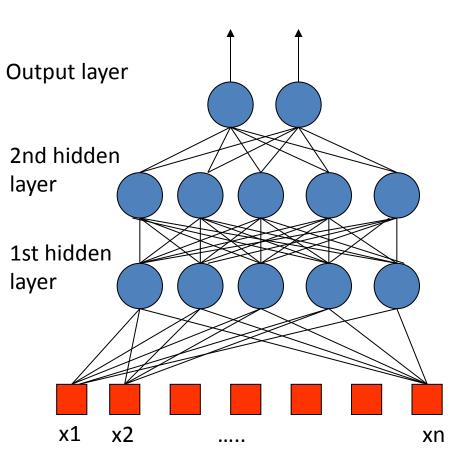
Hyperbolic tangent

$$y = \frac{\exp(x) - \exp(-x)}{\exp(x) + \exp(-x)}$$

Neural Networks

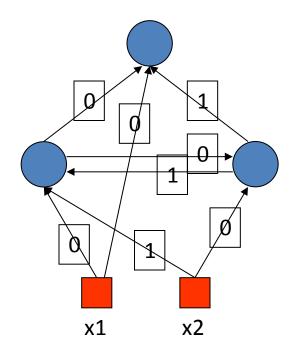
- A mathematical model to solve engineering problems
 - Group of highly connected neurons to realize compositions of non linear functions
- Tasks
 - Classification
 - Discrimination
 - Estimation
- 2 types of networks
 - Feed forward Neural Networks
 - Recurrent Neural Networks

Feed Forward Neural Networks



- The information is propagated from the inputs to the outputs
- Computations of No non linear functions from n input variables by compositions of Nc algebraic functions
- Time has no role (NO cycle between outputs and inputs)

Recurrent Neural Networks



- Can have arbitrary topologies
- Can model systems with internal states (dynamic ones)
- Delays are associated to a specific weight
- Training is more difficult
- Performance may be problematic
 - Stable Outputs may be more difficult to evaluate
 - Unexpected behavior (oscillation, chaos, ...)

Learning

- The procedure that consists in estimating the parameters of neurons so that the whole network can perform a specific task
- 2 types of learning
 - The supervised learning
 - The unsupervised learning
- The Learning process (supervised)
 - Present the network a number of inputs and their corresponding outputs
 - See how closely the actual outputs match the desired ones
 - Modify the parameters to better approximate the desired outputs

Supervised learning

- The desired response of the neural network in function of particular inputs is well known.
- A "Professor" may provide examples and teach the neural network how to fulfill a certain task

Unsupervised learning

- Idea : group typical input data in function of resemblance criteria un-known a priori
- Data clustering
- No need of a professor
 - The network finds itself the correlations between the data
 - Examples of such networks :
 - Kohonen feature maps

Properties of Neural Networks

- Supervised networks are universal approximators (Non recurrent networks)
- Theorem : Any limited function can be approximated by a neural network with a finite number of hidden neurons to an arbitrary precision
- Type of Approximators
 - Linear approximators : for a given precision, the number of parameters grows exponentially with the number of variables (polynomials)
 - Non-linear approximators (NN), the number of parameters grows linearly with the number of variables

Other properties

- Adaptivity
 - Adapt weights to environment and retrained easily
- Generalization ability
 - May provide against lack of data
- Fault tolerance
 - Graceful degradation of performances if damaged => The information is distributed within the entire net.

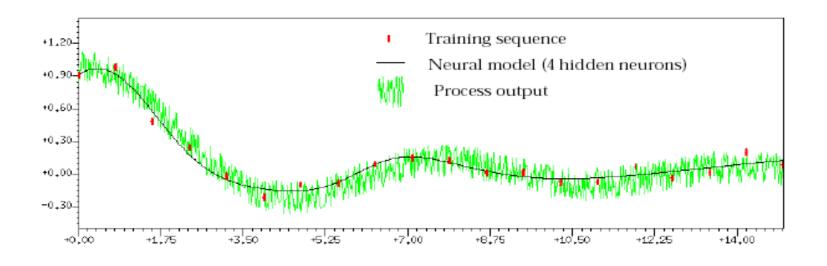
Static modeling

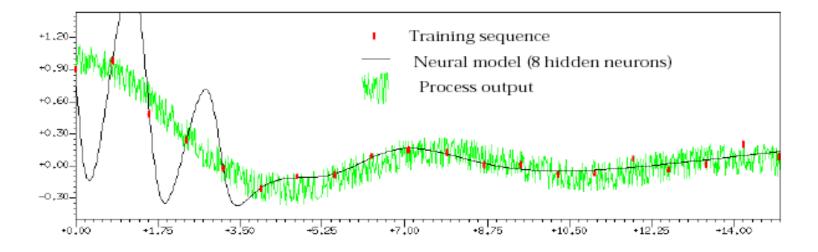
- In practice, it is rare to approximate a known function by a uniform function
- "black box" modeling : model of a process
- The y output variable depends on the input variable x with k=1 to N $\{x^k, y_p^k\}$
- Goal : Express this dependency by a function, for example a neural network

If the learning ensemble results from measures, the noise intervenes

- Not an approximation but a fitting problem
- Regression function
- Approximation of the regression function : Estimate the more probable value of yp for a given input x
- Cost function: $J(w) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[y_p(x^k) g(x^k, w) \right]^2$
- Goal: Minimize the cost function by determining the right function g

Example

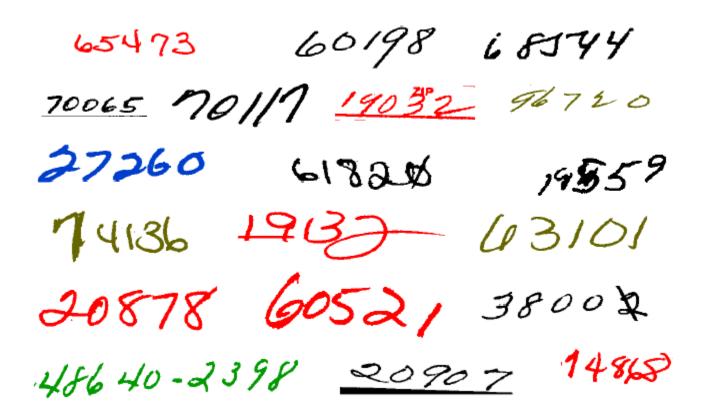




Classification (Discrimination)

- Class objects in defined categories
- Rough decision OR
- Estimation of the probability for a certain object to belong to a specific class
- Example : Data mining
- Applications : Economy, speech and patterns recognition, sociology, etc.

Example



Examples of handwritten postal codes drawn from a database available from the US Postal service

What do we need to use NN ?

- Determination of pertinent inputs
- Collection of data for the learning and testing phase of the neural network
- Finding the optimum number of hidden nodes
- Estimate the parameters (Learning)
- Evaluate the performances of the network
- IF performances are not satisfactory then review all the precedent points

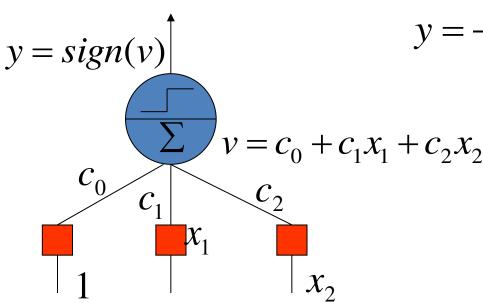
Classical neural architectures

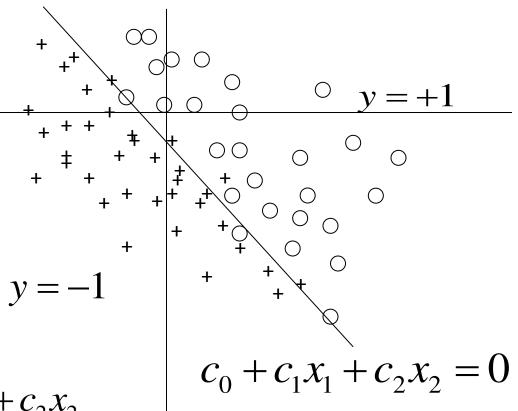
- Perceptron
- Multi-Layer Perceptron
- Radial Basis Function (RBF)
- Kohonen Features maps
- Other architectures

- An example : Shared weights neural networks

Perceptron

- Rosenblatt (1962)
- Linear separation
- Inputs :Vector of real values
- Outputs :1 or -1





Learning (The perceptron rule)

- Minimization of the cost function :
- J(c) is always >= 0 (M is the ensemble of bad classified examples)
- y_p^k is the target value
- Partial cost
 - If x^k is not well classified :
 - If x^k is well classified
- Partial cost gradient
- Perceptron algorithm
- gorithm
 - if $y_p^k v^k > 0$ (x^k is well classified): c(k) = c(k-1)
 - if $y_p^k v^k < 0$ (x^k is not well classified): c(k) = c(k-1) + $y_p^k x^k$

$$J^{k}(c) = -y_{p}^{k}v^{k}$$

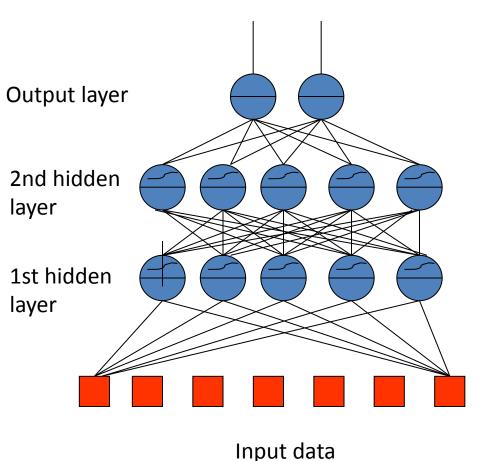
$$J^{k}(c) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial J^{k}(c)}{\partial c} = -y_{p}^{k}x^{k}$$

 $J(c) = \sum_{k \in M} - y_p^k v^k$

• The perceptron algorithm converges if examples are linearly separable

Multi-Layer Perceptron



- One or more hidden layers
- Sigmoid activations functions

Learning

• Back-propagation algorithm

$$net_{j} = w_{j0} + \sum_{i}^{n} w_{ji}o_{i}$$

$$o_{j} = f_{j}(net_{j})$$

$$\Delta w_{ji} = -\alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ji}} = -\alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial net_{j}} \frac{\partial net_{j}}{\partial w_{ji}} = \alpha \delta_{j}o_{i}$$

$$\delta_{j} = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial o_{j}} \frac{\partial o_{j}}{\partial net_{j}} = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial o_{j}} f'(net_{j})$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2}(t_{j} - o_{j})^{2} = > \frac{\partial E}{\partial o_{j}} = -(t_{j} - o_{j})$$
If the jth node is an output unit
$$\delta_{j} = (t_{j} - o_{j})f'(net_{j})$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial o_{j}} = \sum_{k}^{\kappa} \frac{\partial E}{\partial net_{\kappa}} \frac{\partial net_{\kappa}}{\partial o_{j}} = -\sum_{k}^{\kappa} \delta_{k} w_{kj}$$

$$\delta_{j} = f'_{j} (net_{j}) \sum_{k}^{\kappa} \delta_{k} w_{kj} \qquad \text{Momentum term to smooth}$$

$$\Delta w_{ji}(t) = \alpha \delta_{j}(t) o_{i}(t) + \gamma \Delta w_{ji}(t-1)$$

$$w_{ji}(t) = w_{ji}(t-1) + \Delta w_{ji}(t)$$

Different non linearly separable problems

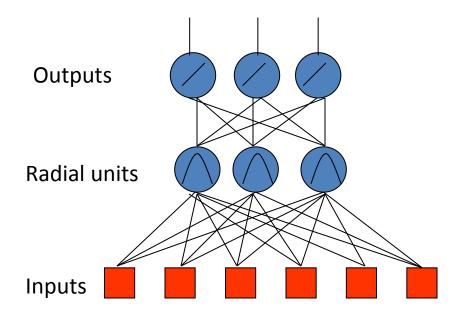
Structure	Types of Decision Regions	Exclusive-OR Problem	Classes with Meshed regions	Most General Region Shapes
Single-Layer	Half Plane Bounded By Hyperplane	ABBA	B	
Two-Layer	Convex Open Or Closed Regions	A B B A	B	
Three-Layer	Abitrary (Complexity Limited by No. of Nodes)	ABBA	B	

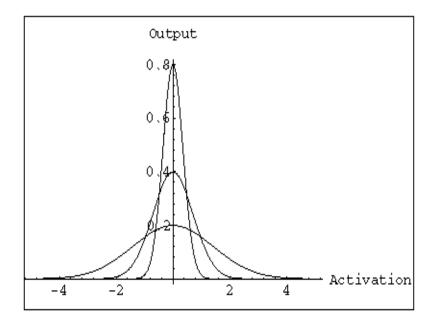
Neural Networks – An Introduction Dr. Andrew Hunter

Radial Basis Functions (RBFs)

• Features

- One hidden layer
- The activation of a hidden unit is determined by the distance between the input vector and a prototype vector





- RBF hidden layer units have a receptive field which has a centre
- Generally, the hidden unit function is Gaussian
- The output Layer is linear
- Realized function

$$s(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} W_j \Phi\left(\left\|x - c_j\right\|\right)$$
$$\Phi\left(\left\|x - c_j\right\|\right) = \exp\left(\frac{\left\|x - c_j\right\|}{\sigma_j}\right)^2$$

Learning

- The training is performed by deciding on
 - How many hidden nodes there should be
 - The centers and the sharpness of the Gaussians
- 2 steps
 - In the 1st stage, the input data set is used to determine the parameters of the basis functions
 - In the 2nd stage, functions are kept fixed while the second layer weights are estimated (Simple BP algorithm like for MLPs)

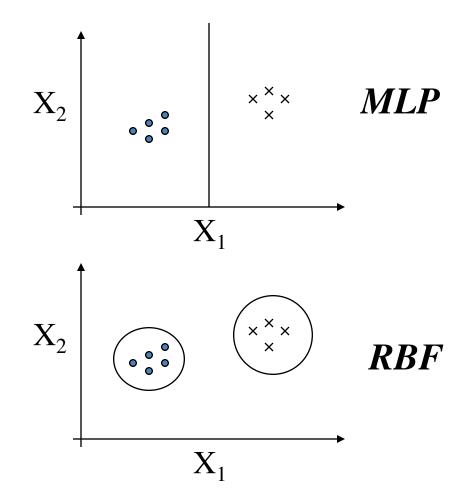
MLPs versus RBFs

Classification

- MLPs separate classes via hyperplanes
- RBFs separate classes via hyperspheres
- Learning
 - MLPs use distributed learning
 - RBFs use localized learning
 - RBFs train faster

Structure

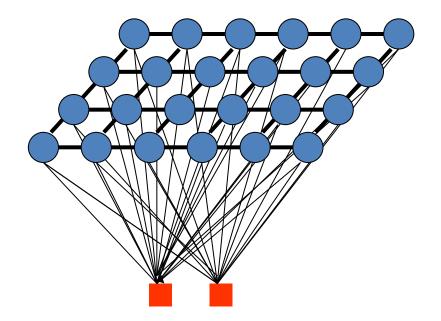
- MLPs have one or more hidden layers
- RBFs have only one layer
- RBFs require more hidden neurons => curse of dimensionality



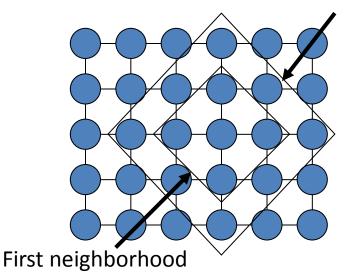
Self organizing maps

- The purpose of SOM is to map a multidimensional input space onto a topology preserving map of neurons
 - Preserve a topological so that neighboring neurons respond to « similar »input patterns
 - The topological structure is often a 2 or 3 dimensional space
- Each neuron is assigned a weight vector with the same dimensionality of the input space
- Input patterns are compared to each weight vector and the closest wins (Euclidean Distance)

- The activation of the neuron is spread in its direct neighborhood =>neighbors become sensitive to the same input patterns
- Block distance
- The size of the neighborhood is initially large but reduce over time => Specialization of the network

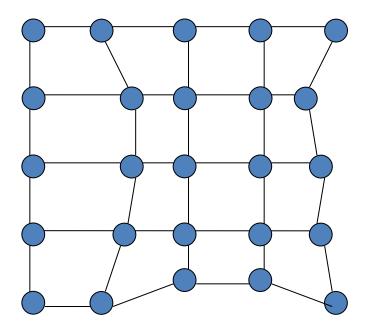


2nd neighborhood



Adaptation

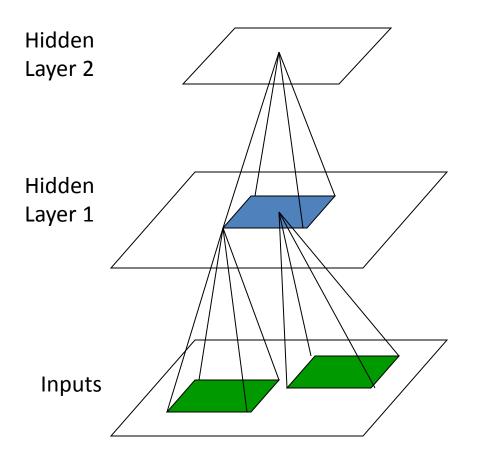
- During training, the "winner" neuron and its neighborhood adapts to make their weight vector more similar to the input pattern that caused the activation
- The neurons are moved closer to the input pattern
- The magnitude of the adaptation is controlled via a learning parameter which decays over time



Shared weights neural networks: Time Delay Neural Networks (TDNNs)

- Introduced by Waibel in 1989
- Properties
 - Local, shift invariant feature extraction
 - Notion of receptive fields combining local information into more abstract patterns at a higher level
 - Weight sharing concept (All neurons in a feature share the same weights)
 - All neurons detect the same feature but in different position
- Principal Applications
 - Speech recognition
 - Image analysis

TDNNs (cont'd)



- Objects recognition in an image
- Each hidden unit receive inputs only from a small region of the input space : receptive field
- Shared weights for all receptive fields => translation invariance in the response of the network

- Advantages
 - Reduced number of weights
 - Require fewer examples in the training set
 - Faster learning
 - Invariance under time or space translation
 - Faster execution of the net (in comparison of full connected MLP)

Neural Networks (Applications)

- Face recognition
- Time series prediction
- Process identification
- Process control
- Optical character recognition
- Adaptative filtering
- Etc...

Conclusion on Neural Networks

- Neural networks are utilized as statistical tools
 - Adjust non linear functions to fulfill a task
 - Need of multiple and representative examples but fewer than in other methods
- Neural networks enable to model complex static phenomena (FF) as well as dynamic ones (RNN)
- NN are good classifiers BUT
 - Good representations of data have to be formulated
 - Training vectors must be statistically representative of the entire input space
 - Unsupervised techniques can help
- The use of NN needs a good comprehension of the problem

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