DISTRIBUTED OUTSTAR LEARNING AND 
THE RULES OF SYNAPTIC TRANSMISSION

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Abstract

The distributed outstar, a generalization of the outstar neural network for spatial pattern learning, is described. In the outstar, signals from a source node cause weights to learn and recall arbitrary patterns across a target field of nodes. The distributed outstar replaces the source node with a source field whose activity pattern may be arbitrarily distributed. Learning proceeds according to a principle of atrophy due to disuse, whereby a path weight decreases in joint proportion to the transmitted path signal and the degree of disuse of the target node. During learning, the total signal to a node converges toward that node's activity level. Weight changes are apportioned according to the distributed pattern of converging signals. Three synaptic transmission functions, a product rule, a capacity rule, and a threshold rule, are examined for this system. The three rules are computationally equivalent when source field activity is winner-take-all. When source field activity is distributed, catastrophic forgetting may occur. Only the threshold rule solves this problem. Analysis of spatial pattern learning by distributed codes thereby leads to the conjecture that the unit of long-term memory in such a system is an adaptive threshold, rather than the multiplicative path weight widely used in neural models.

Introduction: Outstar learning and distributed codes

The outstar is a neural network that can learn and recall arbitrary spatial patterns (Grossberg, 1968). Outstars have played a central role in the theoretical analysis of cognitive phenomena and the corresponding neural models, as well as in applications of these systems (Carpenter and Grossberg, 1991). In particular, all neural network realizations of adaptive resonance theory (ART models) have so far used outstar learning in the top-down adaptive filter (Carpenter and Grossberg, 1987a, 1987b, 1990; Carpenter, Grossberg, and Rosen, 1991). An outstar anatomy consists of a source node that sends weighted inputs to a target, or border, field of nodes. We will here consider spatial pattern learning in a more general setting, in which a distributed outstar network (Carpenter, 1993) replaces the single outstar source node with an arbitrarily large source field (Figure 1).

One possible distributed outstar design is simply to implement outstar learning in each active path. However, such a system is subject to catastrophic forgetting that can quickly render the network useless, unless learning rates are very slow. In particular, if all $F_2$ nodes

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Figure 1. Distributed outstar network for spatial pattern learning. During adaptation a top-down weight \( w_{ji} \) from the \( j^{th} \) node of the coding field \( F_2 \) to the \( i^{th} \) node of the pattern registration field \( F_1 \), may decrease or remain constant. An atrophy-due-to-disuse learning law causes the total signal \( \sigma_i \) from \( F_2 \) to the \( i^{th} F_1 \) node to decay toward that node’s activity level \( x_i \), if \( \sigma_i \) is initially greater than \( x_i \). Within this context, three synaptic transmission rules are analyzed.

were active during learning, all \( F_2 \rightarrow F_1 \) weight vectors would converge toward a common pattern.

A learning principle of atrophy due to disuse leads toward a solution of the catastrophic forgetting problem. By this principle, a weight in an active path is assumed to atrophy, or
decay, in joint proportion to the size of the transmitted synaptic signal and a suitably defined "degree of disuse" of the target cell. During learning, the total transmitted signal from $F_2$ converges toward the activity level of the target $F_1$ node. Unfortunately, this development is, by itself, insufficient. In particular, the network still suffers catastrophic forgetting if signal transmission obeys a product rule. This rule, now assumed in nearly all neural models, takes the transmitted synaptic signal from the $j^{th} F_2$ node to the $i^{th} F_1$ node to be proportional to the product of the path signal $y_j$ and the path weight $w_{ji}$. An alternative transmission process is described by a capacity rule. However, catastrophic forgetting is even more serious a problem for this rule than for the product rule.

Fortunately, another plausible synaptic transmission rule solves the problem. This threshold rule postulates a transmitted signal equal to the amount by which the $F_2 \to F_1$ signal $y_j$ exceeds an adaptive threshold $\tau_{ji}$. Where weights decrease during atrophy-due-to-disuse learning thresholds increase: formally, $\tau_{ji}$ is identified with $(1 - w_{ji})$. When synaptic transmission is implemented by a threshold rule, weight/threshold changes are automatically distributed, with fast learning as well as slow learning. When $F_2$ makes a choice, the three synaptic transmission rules are computationally identical, and atrophy-due-to-disuse learning is essentially the same as outstar learning. Thus functional differences between the three types of transmission would be experimentally and computationally measurable only in situations where the $F_2$ code is distributed.

Computational analysis of distributed codes hereby leads unexpectedly to a hypothesis about the mechanism of synaptic transmission in spatial pattern learning systems. That is, the unit of long-term memory in these systems is conjectured to be an adaptive threshold, rather than a multiplicative path weight. The hypothesis is embodied in the distributed outstar learning law.

Spatial pattern learning and catastrophic forgetting

The distributed outstar network (Figure 1) features an adaptive filter from a coding field $F_2$ to a pattern registration field $F_1$. During outstar learning, weights in the paths emanating from an $F_2$ node track $F_1$ activity. That is, when the $j^{th} F_2$ node is active, the weight vector $w_j \equiv (w_{j1}, \ldots, w_{ji}, \ldots, w_{jM})$ converges toward the $F_1$ activity vector $x \equiv (x_1, \ldots, x_i, \ldots, x_M)$ of the target nodes at the outer fringe of the filter. While many variants of outstar learning have been analyzed (Grossberg, 1968, 1972), the essential outstar dynamics are described by the equation:

Basic outstar

$$\frac{d}{dt} w_{ji} = y_j (x_i - w_{ji}). \quad (1)$$

A special $F_2$ network called choice, or winner-take-all, is commonly used in ART and competitive learning systems. An $F_2$ code that chooses the $J^{th}$ node is described by:

$F_2$ choice

$$y_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = J \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq J. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

In this case, each $F_2$ node may then be identified with a class, or category, of inputs $I$. When $F_2$ makes a choice, outstar learning (1) permits a weight $w_{ji}$ to change only if the $J^{th} F_2$ node is active. All other weights to the $i^{th} F_1$ node remain unchanged when the $J^{th}$ category
is selected, so prior learning is preserved. Outstar learning poses a problem, however, when $F_2$ category representations can be distributed. If a code $\mathbf{y}$ were highly distributed, with all $y_j > 0$, then the outstar learning law (1) would imply that all weight vectors $\mathbf{w}_j$ would converge toward the same $F_1$ activity vector $\mathbf{x}$. The size of $y_j$ would affect the rate of convergence, but not the asymptotic state of the weights. The severity of this problem can be reduced if learning intervals are required to be extremely short. If, however, the $y_j$ values are nearly uniform or if learning is not always slow, catastrophic forgetting will occur.

A new adaptation rule, called the distributed outstar learning law, solves this problem. Even with fast learning, where weights approach asymptote on each input presentation, the distributed outstar apportions weight changes across active paths without catastrophic forgetting. In the distributed outstar, the rate constant for an individual weight $w_{ji}$ becomes an increasing function of $y_j$, as in the outstar (1), and also of $w_{ji}$ itself.

When $w_{ji}$ becomes too small, further change is disallowed. Small weights can decrease further only when $y_j$ is close to 1, which occurs when most of the $F_2$ activity is concentrated at node $j$. When $F_2$ activity is highly distributed, only large weights, close to their initial values, are able to change, and the maximum possible weight change in any single path is small. The distributed outstar combines learning by atrophy due to disuse with the adaptive threshold synaptic transmission rule, as follows. Detailed computations and examples are described elsewhere (Carpenter, 1993).

**Learning by atrophy due to disuse**

The principle of atrophy due to disuse postulates that the strength of an active path will decay when the path is disused. Active "dis-use" is distinct from passive "non-use", where the strength of an inactive path remains constant, as in the outstar (1). To define disuse, a specific class of target fields $F_1$ is considered. The main hypothesis on $F_1$ will be that, when $F_2$ is active, the total top-down input from $F_2$ to $F_1$ imposes an upper bound, or limit, on the maximum activity at an $F_1$ node. In particular, in addition to a bottom-up input $I_i$, a top-down priming input from $F_2$ is assumed to be necessary for an $F_1$ node to remain active, once $F_2$ becomes active. This hypothesis is realized by:

**Top–down prime**

$$0 \leq x_i \leq \sigma_i,$$

where $\sigma_i$ is the sum of all transmitted signals $S_{ji}$ from $F_2$ to the $i^{th} F_1$ node:

$$\sigma_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N} S_{ji}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

The top-down prime inequality (3) is closely related to the 2/3 Rule of ART (Carpenter and Grossberg, 1987a). One class of $F_1$ systems that realize $\sigma_i$ as a top-down prime, or upper bound, on target node activity $x_i$ sets:

$$x_i = I_i \land \sigma_i \equiv \min (I_i, \sigma_i),$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $I_i \in [0, 1]$. 

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When $F_2$ primes $F_1$, by (3), the degree of disuse $D_i$ of the $i^{th}$ $F_1$ node is defined to be:

$$D_i = (\sigma_i - x_i) \geq 0. \quad (6)$$

A learning principle of atrophy due to disuse postulates that a path weight decays in proportion to the degree of disuse of its target node. We here consider a class of learning equations that realize this principle in the form:

$$\frac{d}{dt} w_{ji} = -S_{ji} D_i. \quad (7)$$

Weights can then decay or stay constant, but never grow, when $S_{ji} \geq 0$ and $D_i \geq 0$. With the degree of disuse $D_i$ defined by (6), the learning law (7) becomes:

**Atrophy due to disuse**

$$\frac{d}{dt} w_{ji} = -S_{ji} (\sigma_i - x_i). \quad (8)$$

Initially,

$$w_{ji}(0) = 1 \quad (9)$$

for $i = 1, \ldots, M$ and $j = 1, \ldots, N$. When $F_2$ makes a choice (2), the atrophy-due-to-disuse law (8) reduces to:

$$\frac{d}{dt} w_{ji} = \begin{cases} -w_{ji} (w_{ji} - x_i) & \text{if } j = J \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq J \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

for all three synaptic transmission rules defined below. With fast learning, the dynamics of (10) are equivalent to those of the outstar (1).

**Synaptic transmission functions**

We will here consider three rules for synaptic transmission. The $F_2$ path signal vector $\gamma = (y_1, \ldots, y_j, \ldots y_N)$ is assumed to be normalized:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} y_j = 1, \quad (11)$$

but can otherwise be arbitrary.

The first rule postulates that the $F_2 \rightarrow F_1$ transmitted signal is jointly proportional to the path signal $y_j$ and the weight $w_{ji}$:

**Product rule**

$$S_{ji} = y_j w_{ji}. \quad (12)$$

A different synaptic transmission rule assumes that the path signal $y_j$ is itself transmitted directly to the $i^{th}$ $F_1$ node, until an upper bound on the path's capacity is reached. With this upper bound equal to the path weight $w_{ji}$, the net signal obeys the:

**Capacity rule**

$$S_{ji} = y_j \land w_{ji} = \min (y_j, w_{ji}). \quad (13)$$
Figure 2. (a) A synaptic transmission parallelogram. $S_{ji}$ is the transmitted signal from the $j^{th}$ $F_2$ node to the $i^{th}$ $F_1$ node. By the product rule, $S_{ji} = y_j w_{ji}$. By the capacity rule, $S_{ji} = y_j \wedge w_{ji}$. By the threshold rule, $S_{ji} = [y_j - (1 - w_{ji})]^+ = [y_j - \tau_{ji}]^+$. The three rules agree when $y$ is a binary code. (b) Asymptotic weight values for a fully distributed code, where $y_j = \frac{1}{N}$. As a function of $I_i$, the dynamic range of $w_{ji}(\infty)$ depends critically upon the choice of synaptic transmission rule. During learning, weights decrease, from an initial value of $w_{ji}(0) = 1$, except when $I_i = 1$.

The geometry of the graph in Figure 2a suggests consideration of a third signal function, to complete a transmission rule parallelogram. The third signal describes a:

**Threshold rule**

$$S_{ji} = [y_j - (1 - w_{ji})]^+.$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)

It is awkward to try to interpret (14) in terms of the weight $w_{ji}$. However, a natural interpretation can be made if the unit of long-term memory is taken to be an adaptive signal threshold $\tau_{ji}$ rather than the path weight $w_{ji}$. Namely, by setting:

$$\tau_{ji} \equiv 1 - w_{ji},$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

the threshold rule (14) becomes:

$$S_{ji} = [y_j - \tau_{ji}]^+.$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

**Path weights vs. signal thresholds as the unit of long-term memory**

An $F_2$ code is maximally compressed when the system makes a choice. Consider now the opposite extreme, when an $F_2$ code is maximally distributed. That is, let:

$$y_j = \frac{1}{N},$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

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for \( j = 1, \ldots, N \). All weights \( w_{ji} \) obey equation (8) and all are initially equal, by (9). Therefore the weights \( w_{ji} \) (\( j = 1, \ldots, N \)) to a given \( F_1 \) node will remain equal to one another during learning, for any transmission function \( S_{ji} \). For all three synaptic transmission rules the total top-down signal \( \sigma_i \) converges to the bottom-up signal \( I_i \) at each \( F_1 \) node \( i \) when the \( F_2 \) code (17) is maximally distributed. However, the total weight change varies dramatically (Figure 2b). When \( F_2 \) makes a choice the maximum total weight change at a given node equals \( (1 - I_i) \epsilon [0, 1] \) for all three rules. With distributed \( F_2 \) activity and a product rule, all weights \( w_{ji} \) converge to \( I_i \) and the maximum total weight change is \( N(1 - I_i) \epsilon [0, N] \). Within a few input presentations, all weights \( w_{ji} \) would, in all likelihood, decay irreversibly to zero. Similar problems occur for other distributed codes \( y \). In this sense, the product rule leads to catastrophic forgetting.

The situation with the capacity rule is even worse (Figure 2b). When the \( F_2 \) code is fully distributed, all weights \( w_{ji} \) decay to \( \frac{1}{N} \epsilon [0, \frac{1}{N}] \), unless \( I_i = 1 \); and the maximum total weight change at the \( i^{th} \) node is \( N(1 - I_i) \). Thus, unless \( I \) is a binary vector, the full dynamic range of weight values is nearly exhausted upon the first input presentation.

It is the adaptive threshold rule alone that limits the total weight change to \( (1 - I_i) \epsilon [0, 1] \) for maximally distributed as well as maximally compressed codes \( y \). In fact, if \( y \) is any \( F_2 \) code that becomes active when all \( w_{ji} \) are initially equal to 1, then:

\[
w_{ji} \rightarrow 1 - y_j(1 - I_i). \tag{18}
\]

Equivalently:

\[
\tau_{ji} \rightarrow y_j(1 - I_i), \tag{19}
\]

by (15). Thus the total weight/threshold change at each \( F_1 \) node \( i \) is bounded by \( (1 - I_i) \) for any code, provided only that \( y \) is normalized (11). An \( F_2 \) code \( y \) would typically be highly distributed, with all \( y_j \) close to \( \frac{1}{N} \), when a recognition system has no strong evidence to choose one category \( j \) over another. In this case, the change of each threshold \( \tau_{ji} \) is automatically limited to the narrow interval \([0, y_j]\), reserving most of the dynamic range for subsequent encoding. Only when evidence strongly supports selection of the \( F_2 \) category node \( J \) over all others, with \( y_J \) therefore close to 1, would weights be allowed to vary across most of their dynamic range. In particular, it is only when \( y_J \) is close to 1 that a weight \( w_{ji} \) is able to drop, irreversibly, toward 0, if \( I_i \) is small. Even with fast learning and with all \( y_j > 0 \), other weights \( w_{ji} \) to the \( i^{th} \) node would change little.

**Conclusion: Distributed outstar learning**

The analysis of distributed spatial pattern learning leads to the selection of a synaptic transmission rule with an adaptive threshold. In terms of the threshold \( \tau_{ji} \) in the path from the \( j^{th} F_2 \) node to the \( i^{th} F_1 \) node, a stable learning law for distributed codes is defined as the:

**Distributed outstar**

\[
\frac{d\tau_{ji}}{dt} = S_{ji}(\sigma_i - x_i), \tag{20}
\]

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where $S_{ji}$ is the thresholded path signal $[y_j - \tau_{ji}]^+$ transmitted from the $j^{th}$ $F_2$ node to the $i^{th}$ $F_1$ node and where $\sigma_i$ is the sum:

$$\sigma_i \equiv \sum_{j=1}^{N} S_{ji} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} [y_j - \tau_{ji}]^+.$$  \hfill (21)

Initially,

$$\tau_{ji}(0) = 0.$$  \hfill (22)

In a system such as ART 1 (Carpenter and Grossberg, 1987a) or fuzzy ART (Carpenter, Grossberg, and Rosen, 1991), where $F_1$ dynamics are defined so that the total top-down signal $\sigma_i$ is always greater than or equal to $x_i$, the distributed outstar allows thresholds $\tau_{ji}$ to grow but never shrink. The principle of atrophy due to disuse implies that a threshold $\tau_{ji}$ is unable to change at all unless (i) the path signal $y_j$ exceeds the previously learned value of $\tau_{ji}$; and (ii) the total top-down signal $\sigma_i$ to the $i^{th}$ node exceeds that node's activity $x_i$. In particular, if $\tau_{ji}$ grows large when the node $j$ represents part of a compressed $F_2$ code, then $\tau_{ji}$ cannot be changed at all when node $j$ is later part of a more distributed code, since threshold changes are disabled if $y_j \leq \tau_{ji}$. The adaptive threshold $\tau_{ji}$ thereby replaces strong $F_2$ competition as the guardian, or stabilizer, of previously learned codes.

References


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