Adaptation and learning

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Learning

- Classical conditioning
 - Circuits involved in fear conditioning
 - Role of dopamine in conditioning
- Cortical organization

Phenomenology



Phenomenology: Reinforcement Learning



Uncontrolled cues are reduced by the wall between dog and experimenter. Saliva drips through the tube into the measuring bottle on the experimenter's side of the wall.

Reinforcement learning



Tremblay et. al., J Neurophysiol 80: 964-977, 1998;

Reinforcement learning (cont.)



Activity of DA neurons in VTA Left: neuronal response to reward tied to stimulus Right: neuronal response of trained neuron when reward is withheld

Variations of Conditioning 1

Extinction:

 Stimulus (bell) repeatedly shown without reward (food): conditioned response (salivating) reduced

Partial reinforcement:

• Stimulus only sometimes preceding reward:

conditioned response weaker than in classical case

Blocking (2 stimuli):

- First: stimulus S1 associated with reward: classical conditioning.
- Then: stimulus S1 and S2 shown together followed by reward: Association between S2 and reward not learned

Variations of Conditioning 2

- Inhibitory Conditioning (2 stimuli):
 - Alternate 2 types of trials:
 - 1. S1 followed by reward
 - 2. S1+S2 followed by absence of reward

Result: S2 becomes predictor of absence of reward

- Overshadowing (2 stimuli):
 - Repeatedly present S1+S2 followed by reward
 Result: often, reward prediction shared unequally between stimuli
- Secondary Conditioning:
 - S1 preceding reward (classical case). Then, S2 preceding S1
 Result: S2 leads to prediction of reward
 But: if S1 following S2 showed too often: extinction will occur

Classical conditioning paradigms

Paradigm	Pre-train	Train	Expectation
Pavlovian		s → r	s → r
Extinction	s → r	s → <none></none>	s → <none></none>
Partial		$s \rightarrow r, s \rightarrow < none >$	s → α r
Blocking	$s_1 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow r, s_2 \rightarrow < none >$
Inhibitory		$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow < none >, s_1 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow r, s_2 \rightarrow -r$
Overshadow		$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow \alpha r, s_2 \rightarrow \beta r$
Secondary	$s_1 \rightarrow r$	$s_2 \rightarrow s_1$	$s_2 \rightarrow r$

Rescorla-Wagner Theory (1972)

- Organisms only learn when events violate their expectations
- Expectations are built up when 'significant' events follow a stimulus complex
- These expectations are only modified when consequent events disagree with the composite expectation

Rescorla-Wagner Rule



Rescorla-Wagner Rule



Rescorla-Wagner Rule



Rescorla-Wagner and classical learning paradigms



Paradigm	Pre-train	Train	Expectation
Pavlovian		$s \rightarrow r$	$s \rightarrow r$
Extinction	s → r	s → <none></none>	s → <none></none>
Partial		$s \rightarrow r, s \rightarrow < none >$	$s \rightarrow \alpha r$

Rescorla-Wagner and classical learning paradigms (cont.)

Paradigm	Pre-train	Train	Expectation
Blocking	$s_1 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow r, s_2 \rightarrow < none >$



 $\Delta w = \varepsilon (r - v) \vec{u} \quad v = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{u}$

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Rescorla-Wagner and classical learning paradigms (cont.)

Paradigm	Pre-train	Train	Expectation
Inhibitory		$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow < none >, s_1 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow r, s_2 \rightarrow -r$

Inhibition:

Reward present when stimulus 1 is present;

Reward absent when stimulus 1 + stimulus 2 presented together

$$w_1u_1 \rightarrow \langle r \rangle \qquad w_1u_1 + w_2u_2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$w_2 u_2 \rightarrow -w_1 u_1$$

 $\Delta w = \varepsilon (r - v) \vec{u} \quad v = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{u}$

Rescorla-Wagner and classical learning paradigms (cont.)

Paradigm	Pre-train	Train	Expectation
Overshadow		$s_1 + s_2 \rightarrow r$	$s_1 \rightarrow \alpha r, s_2 \rightarrow \beta r$

Overshadow:

 $v=w_1+w_2$ goes to r, but w_1 and w_2 may become different if there are different learning rates ε_i for them

$$w_1 u_1 + w_2 u_2 \rightarrow \langle r \rangle$$

$$\Delta w = \varepsilon (r - v) \vec{u} \quad v = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{u}$$

Example: Responses in human DLPFC to surprise events



Subjects learned associations between cues (fictitious drugs) and outcomes (fictitious syndromes)

Fletcher et al., *Nature Neuroscience* 4, 1043 - 1048 (2001)

Asymmetry of Rescorla-Wagner rule



Positive contingency: the presence of 'drug' is a strong predictor of 'syndrome,' a surprise event is 'drug-no syndrome'

For a learned negative contingency ('no drug' then 'syndrome'), 'drug-syndrome' is unexpected

According to the Rescorla–Wagner rule, these two types of unexpectedness should induce different weight adjustments

Fletcher et al., *Nature Neuroscience* 4, 1043 - 1048 (2001)

Learned associations



 $\Delta P = P(\text{'syndrome' following 'drug'}) - P(\text{'syndrome' following 'no drug'})$

Subjects were sensitive to both positive and negative causal relationships, but were more sensitive to positive relationships

Fletcher et al., *Nature Neuroscience* 4, 1043 - 1048 (2001)

Neuronal activity patterns reflect the same differences





- Bilateral frontal regions show decreased activation with learning
- Right DLPFC is sensitive to unpredictability
- Learning effects are modulated by the configuration of the surprise event

Application of Rescorla-Wagner Rule to fMRI data



Predicting future reward : Temporal Difference Learning

- Try to predict the total future reward expected from time *t* onward to the time *T* of end of trial
- Assume time is in discrete steps

$$R(t) = \left\langle \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-t} r(t+\tau) \right\rangle$$

• Predicted total future reward from time t (one stimulus case):

$$v(t) = \sum_{\tau=0}^{t} w(\tau)u(t-\tau)$$

Problem: how to adjust the weight? Would like to adjust $w(\tau)$ to make v(t) approximate the true total future reward R(t) (reward that is yet to come) but this is unknown since lying in future

Predicting future reward

 If the time within a trial is taken to be discrete and all variables are functions of time, then v(t) can be taken as the expectation of reward later in the trial, and so for a trial of length T:

$$v(t) = \left\langle \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-t} r(t+\tau) \right\rangle$$

• For a single time-dependent stimulus:

$$v(t) = \sum_{\tau=0}^{t} w(\tau)u(t-\tau)$$

$$\Delta w(\tau) = \varepsilon \delta(t)u(t-\tau) \qquad \qquad \delta(t) = \sum_{\tau} r(t+\tau) + v(t)$$

Predicting future reward

Approximate ٠

$$\sum_{\tau=0}^{T-t} r(t+\tau) = r(t) + \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-t-1} r(t+1+\tau)$$
$$\approx r(t) + v(t+1) \qquad \qquad v(t) = \left\langle \sum_{\tau=0}^{T-t} r(t+\tau) \right\rangle$$

So:

$$\delta(t) = \sum_{\tau} r(t+\tau) - v(t)$$

$$\delta(t) = r(t) + v(t+1) - v(t)$$
temporal
temporal

Temporal difference learning rule

difference error

difference

Temporal difference learning rule



Example: Understanding pain conditioning in humans

- Animals (including humans) use environmental stimulus to predict future danger
- Seymour and colleagues used the temporal difference model to identify brain regions involved in the processing of aversive conditioning to sequential stimuli
- Using fMRI data gathered during pain conditioning, they identified those regions with strong negative or positive correlations with the temporal difference and the temporal difference errors predicted by their stimulus protocol

Pain conditioning protocol

- Subjects were asked to judge if cue were on the left or the right
- Second cue completely predicted intensity of pain stimulus
- First clue probabilistically predicted the intensity in a small percentage of trials, the second cue would reverse the prediction of the first trial



Seymour et al., *Nature* 429, 664-667 (2004) IE 665/565

Response predicted by Temporal Difference Rule



Seymour et al., *Nature* 429, 664-667 (2004) IE 665/565

Regions showing significant correlation with the temporal difference error

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Prediction error was highly correlated with activity in both the right and the left ventral putamen, as well as caudate, cerebellum, right insula, left substantia nigra

Seymour et al., *Nature* 429, 664-667 (2004)

Ventral Putamen showed biphasic response





Activity in ventral putamen showed a biphasic response, similar to that predicted by the temporal difference error



Comparison of Ventral Putamen activity between conditions



Positive prediction error: trial 3 – trial 2

Expectation was the first cue would predict stimulus, but it does not



Comparison of Ventral Putamen activity between conditions



Negative prediction error: trial 4 – trial 1

Expectation was that first cue would not predict stimulus, but it does



Right anterior insula showed correlations with temporal difference



How do the neurons know?





"When an axon of cell A is near enough to excite a cell B and repeatedly or persistently takes part in firing it, some growth process or metabolic change takes place in one or both cells such that A's efficiency, as one of the cells firing B, is increased."

Unsupervised learning

- Let u represent the pre-synaptic activity level, v the post-synaptic activity level
- Using a linear integrate-and-fire model:

$$\tau_r \frac{dv}{dt} = -v + \sum_{b=1}^{N_u} w_b u_b$$

• If the stimuli are presented slowly w.r.t. the neuron dynamics, then set *v* to the asymptotically steady-state value:

$$v = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{u}$$

Unsupervised learning (cont.)

• Basic plasticity rule (based on Hebb's conjecture):

$$\tau_{w} \frac{d\bar{w}}{dt} = v\bar{u}$$

• Averaged over all input patterns during training:

$$\tau_{w} \frac{d\bar{w}}{dt} = \left\langle v\bar{u} \right\rangle \qquad v = \bar{w} \cdot \bar{u}$$

$$= \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{w}$$
 where $\vec{Q} = \langle uu \rangle$

Stability

• Problem: what constrains the weights?

$$\tau_w \frac{d\bar{w}}{dt} = v\bar{u}$$

• Take the dot product of *w* with both sides:

$$\tau_{w}\vec{w}\cdot\frac{d\vec{w}}{dt} = v\vec{w}\cdot\vec{u}$$

• And note that:
$$\frac{d\left|\vec{w}\right|^2}{dt} = 2\vec{w}\frac{d\vec{w}}{dt} \quad \text{so} \quad \tau_w \vec{w}\frac{d\vec{w}}{dt} = \frac{\tau_w}{2}\frac{d\left|\vec{w}\right|^2}{dt}$$

Stability (cont.)

• So, given that $\tau_w \vec{w} \cdot \frac{d\vec{w}}{dt} = v\vec{w} \cdot \vec{u}$ and

$$\tau_{w}\vec{w}\frac{d\vec{w}}{dt} = \frac{\tau_{w}}{2}\frac{d\left|\vec{w}\right|^{2}}{dt} \qquad v = \vec{w}\cdot\vec{u}$$

• We note that:

$$\frac{\tau_w}{2} \frac{d\left|\vec{w}\right|^2}{dt} = v^2$$

- So, the weight vector grows continuously, and therefore we have unbounded growth we need to constrain it
 - Many (not very biologically plausible) saturation constraints have been proposed