

**Development of Spatial Mental Representations
in an Embodied Artificial Neural Network
Using Sequential and Egocentric Data**

Master thesis by
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Abstract

The current study investigated the development of spatial relations in an artificial neural network. Design constraints and requirements for the artificial neural network were formulated from literature, in an attempt to make the network psychologically and neurobiologically plausible. Egocentric route information was taught to a network using back propagation. The network was embodied in a Lego Mindstorms robot. The (embodied) network successfully managed to navigate a learned maze. Using principal component analysis to investigate the representations the network built, components for direction and location were found. They hinted at preparation effects and the basis for an emerging allocentric representation. No evidence for the ability to find novel routes was found.

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1. Introduction

Humans are very capable of finding their way in known and unknown environments. It is such a natural activity for most that they do not even pay much attention to the task. They just do and when they get lost, asking for directions generally solves the problem. A helpful passerby gives a sequence of directions and we are able to form an idea of where we are, where our goal is, and how to get there. It has been widely found that humans are very flexible in completing various route finding tasks (e.g. Noordzij, Zuidhoek & Postma, 2006). To complete such tasks, it is necessary to have some mental representation of the spatial information. However, the nature of the representations necessary for spatial tasks is still under debate (e.g. Burgess, 2006). This thesis tries to model such spatial representations in an artificial system.

In this chapter, I first explain why it is useful for psychology to investigate artificial systems performing human tasks. In the next chapter, an outline of the field is given, in order to show where hiatus are and how they might be filled. The third chapter ends with a description of an embodied artificial neural model that can perform a route-finding task.

1.1 Psychology and artificial intelligence

To understand why psychologists are interested in modeling artificial mental systems it is important to consider where psychology came from. Psychology has its roots in ancient philosophy and medicine. Hippocrates started describing natural causes of psychological conditions, gave clear descriptions of many behavioral problems, and formulated theories of temperament and motivation. These theories were very influential in science and though science has since moved on, some of Hippocrates' ideas are still used in

contemporary language (Hothersall, 2004, p.18). Behaviorism (focus on behavior), combined with some introspection, were the main psychologists tools for the bulk of the psychological history. It provided us with some great theories of mind, but was largely limited to behavior and did not reveal much of the inner workings of the brain.

Only recently, tools have become available that allow for in vivo measurements of electrical or metabolic changes, which are related to brain activity. Neuroscientific tools such as electroencephalography (EEG), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), and magnetoencephalography (MEG) enable us to probe the activation patterns of the working brain. These techniques generally show what areas of the brain are active during some task, but they do not easily show how these active brain areas solve some task or produce behavior. Initiatives, such as knife-edge scanning microscopy for imaging and reconstruction of three-dimensional anatomical structures, give extremely detailed (sub-micron resolutions) neuroanatomical maps of neurons, their interconnectiveness, and their larger scale structures (Mayerich, Abbott, & McCormick, 2008). These impressive neuroscientific feats provide us with a wealth of information on the anatomy of the brain. However, to make a translation from physiology to cognition we need more than knowledge of the neuroanatomy and theories of behavior. We need a way to investigate the mechanisms that generate intelligence and cognition, which is exactly the focus of artificial intelligence research. This is where neuroscience, artificial intelligence, and psychology meet. We all want to understand the structural (neural) elements that root cognition, perception, and other psychological constructs and we all need models to accomplish it (van der Velde, 2010).

Now that it is clear why psychologists are interested in modeling artificial cognition systems, it is time to give a, far from complete, overview of the work done so far in this multidisciplinary field. I focused on spatial cognition and in particular on the representations needed to complete a spatial route-finding task. First, spatial cognition was investigated from the psychological and neuroanatomical view. This yielded some constraints to which a psychological and neurological plausible artificial route finding system should adhere. With such constraints in mind, artificial neural models were investigated leading to an artificial neural network that is able to perform a route-finding task in a psychological and neurological plausible way.

2. Spatial Cognition

This chapter presents theoretical background on spatial cognition. The goal is to formulate a set of design constraints or guidelines for an artificial neural network. Psychological and neurobiological literature is discussed, after which some examples from artificial intelligence are presented.

2.1 Psychology

The cognitive mechanisms involved during navigation center on the creation, retrieval, and application of spatial representations. The factors involving differences between spatial representations were summed up aptly in four factors by Taylor, Brunyé, and Taylor: “*The nature of [...] spatial mental representations may vary as a function of at least the following: extent of experience [...], nature of experience [...], environmental scale and complexity [...], and individual differences*” (p.2, Taylor, Brunyé, & Taylor, 2008). These factors relate to human cognition. This thesis, however, will describe an embodied artificial neural model that can perform a route-finding task. Since the goal is to create an artificial system that is rooted in (human) cognition, these human factors will have to be taken into account.

Human spatial cognition seems to depend on at least two distinct spatial representations: egocentric and allocentric representations (Burgess, 2006). Egocentric and allocentric spatial representations differ in their frame of reference. In an egocentric frame of reference, all objects or locations are represented in relation to the observer. In an allocentric frame of reference, however, objects or locations are represented

independent of the observer, thus in object-object or location-location relations (e.g. Burgess, 2006; Zaehle, Jordan, Wüstenberg, Baudewig, Dechent, & Mast, 2007).

Burgess (2006), in an opinion piece, summed up behavioral data, which suggests that both representations are products of distinct systems. These two systems can operate separately but they can also cooperate. As an example of separation, experiments by Waller and Hodgson (2006) showed that the spatial cognitive system is able to switch between representations. They showed participants an array of objects briefly, then rotated the participant and asked them to point towards an object. An increase in pointing error variation occurred after 135° of rotation but not after 90° or less. According to the authors, this indicates a switch from one representation to another instead of a slow compromise of one representation (Waller & Hodgson, 2006). This seems to indicate that both systems can operate separately. However, the systems clearly have to work together. For more supporting empirical evidence, please refer to Wang and Spelke (2000) or Burgess (2006).

Allocentric representations are more suitable for long-term storage, as it is likely that the body will have moved between presentation and recall. As imagery and sensory perception are egocentric by nature, every time an allocentric representation is created or used, a translation has to be made to and from egocentric representations. This also holds true when allocentric information is used for action oriented (and thus egocentric) representations (Burgess, Becker, King, & O'Keefe, 2001; Burgess, 2006). All this is of importance because this thesis will focus on egocentric representations developed during or for a route-finding task. Neuropsychological studies have shown that egocentric representations can occur separate from allocentric representations (e.g. Burgess, Becker,

King, & O'Keefe, 2001). This means that an artificial system that can form (only) egocentric representations is rooted in (neuro)psychological reality. However, it seems important for such an egocentric artificial system to be compatible with an allocentric artificial system (more on this in the discussion).

Denis and Zimmer (1992) showed spatial mental representations are similar, whether they are built up from visual experience or from spatial descriptions. Humans are consistently found to be capable of building usable spatial representations from simple descriptions that contain some form of spatial information (e.g. Cocude, Mellet, & Denis, 1999; Noordzij & Postma, 2005; Noordzij, Zuidhoek, & Postma, 2006). The mechanism that builds and uses a mental spatial representation appears to be very flexible. For example, consider the mental spatial representation that can be built from a route description or a survey description. A route description describes the environment in egocentric clues, such as 'go left at the bakery'. A survey description gives information about the environment in an allocentric manner (e.g. the bakery is to the north of the zoo). After learning a route or a survey description, the same tasks (e.g. guessing the distance between two points, or verifying first person perspective statements after learning a layout) can be completed (e.g. Noordzij, & Postma, 2005). Interestingly they later found that blind people perform better at a spatial task after listening to a route description compared to a survey description. This was even true when the spatial task explicitly favored a survey description (Noordzij, Zuidhoek, & Postma, 2006). Blind people rarely use survey descriptions (e.g. a map) and mainly rely on route descriptions to get around. At least for spatial information, this implies that the mechanism that builds

a spatial mental representation benefits if the spatial description is given in a familiar or consistent way.

To understand the flexibility of spatial mental representations further, it is important to consider the goals under which the representations are formed or used. Without a goal, one would be wandering around aimlessly. It might not be possible to not have a goal; even if one is wandering around aimlessly, it might be exactly the fulfillment of the goal ‘wandering around aimlessly’. Also, consider the example given earlier; a mental spatial representation built from the description of a route or survey can be used to complete the same tasks (Noordzij, & Postma, 2005). During training, the goal might be composing an elaborate mental spatial model, for example with the intention to do well on a test. Later the spatial knowledge acquired might be used in fulfilling the goal of getting to a location as quickly as possible (e.g. Maguire et al., 2000). Goals seem sufficiently important to address them explicitly in the embodied artificial neural model, which is discussed later in this thesis.

Besides selecting a learned route, it is also possible to infer a novel route between two visited points. For example, if there are three points (A, B, C) and the routes between A-B and B-C are known, it is easy to go from A to C via B. It is also possible to take shortcut A-C, thus inferring a novel route (see figure 1). Humans are capable of computing such novel routes, however, only when there are landmarks present along the routes to guide them (Foo, Warren, Duchon, & Tarr, 2005). The capability of the embodied artificial neural model to compute a novel route is discussed later in this thesis.

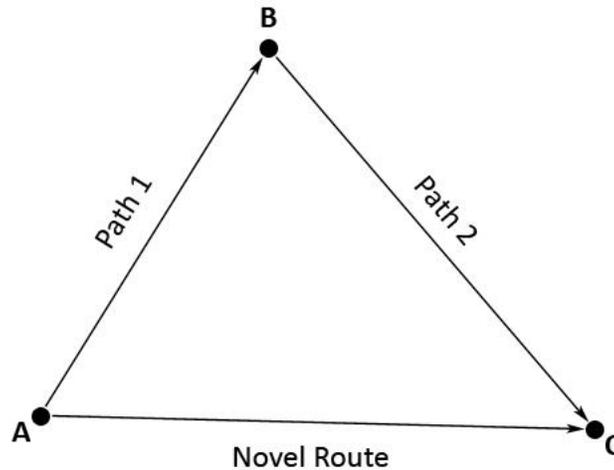


Figure 1: Three destinations (A, B, C). Two learned paths (A-B and B-C) leave one novel route to be discovered (A-C).

Summarizing, we can already specify some of the requirements the artificial neural network should meet. For the artificial neural network to be an approximation of how humans build and use spatial mental representations, it must:

- (1) Consist of separate, but closely intertwined, systems for different spatial reference frames;
- (2) Benefit from a spatial description given in a familiar or consistent way during training;
- (3) Make use of goals in building and using a spatial mental representations;
- (4) Be capable of selecting familiar routes and computing novel routes.

2.2 Neuroscience

The questions of what brain areas are involved in spatial cognition, and with how many neurons, are difficult to answer precisely, yet they are important for an (artificial) model of spatial cognition. Involvement of brain areas was found to vary over spatial tasks and

the representations required. Zaehle and colleagues (2007) investigated the difference between an egocentric and an allocentric frame of reference in an fMRI study. They found that the processing of egocentric spatial relations caused activation in the medial superior–posterior areas, whereas allocentric spatial coding seemed to require an additional involvement of the right parietal cortex, the ventral visual stream and the hippocampal formation (Zaehle, Jordan, Wüstenberg, Baudewig, Dechent, & Mast, 2007). This suggests that in the human spatial cognitive system the egocentric spatial coding only requires a subsystem of the entire processing resources needed for an allocentric spatial coding task. Note, however, that Zaehle et al. used novel spatial stimuli in their experiment.

Mellet et al. (2000) compared brain activation in route and survey navigation tasks, using pre-learned spatial information, with PET. It seems logical that route navigation would have an egocentric frame of reference, while survey navigation would use allocentric representations. They found that the tasks shared some brain activation, but also caused activation in distinct areas. The right hippocampus was active in both survey and route tasks, and therefore might hold the neural equivalent of a dual-perspective representation. During a route navigation task, additional activity was found in the parahippocampal gyrus. This suggests, this area is used when there are landmarks in the environment (Mellet et al., 2000). Similar results were found when imaging the active brain areas during mental replay of navigation (Ghaem et al., 1997).

Note that this seems opposite to what the Zaehle study found. However, Zaehle used novel stimuli while Mellet et al. (2000) and Ghaem et al. (1997) used previously learned stimuli. In addition, the tasks differed; Zaehle et al. (2007) used a spatial visual judgment

task, while Mellet and colleagues (2000) asked participants to imagine navigating an environment. Therefore, the discrepancy might be due to the difference in task or a difference between learning and recovering spatial information.

Both findings, however, do seem to indicate that there are distinct, albeit closely related, systems for different forms of spatial information. In other words, there seems to be neuroanatomical evidence that egocentric and allocentric spatial information are processed in distinct areas of the brain. This gives some legitimacy to a model that is fairly specific for one spatial task (i.e., there might be different models for different tasks). However, a spatial model should be versatile and with minor adjustments or additions capable of performing different tasks.

The structure of the cortex, and that of the bordering hippocampi, is highly regular. There are distinct layers of neurons stacked on top of each other. Across these layers are small vertical columns spanning the layers. Both layers and columns are strongly intra- and interconnected. Further, neurons within a column generally have similar response characteristics and it is suggested that they operate as a (functional) group. Finally, similar cortical circuits are found all over the cortex (e.g. van der Velde, 2010). This pushes us further to try to find simple and versatile mechanisms of cognition that are like building blocks. One such neural circuitry building block might not be powerful enough to perform anything but the most basic form of cognitive operations, but more blocks together might show more complex computing power.

The size of brain areas can vary as a result of high (navigational) skill dependency. In an often-quoted study by Maguire and colleagues (2000), London taxi drivers were found to have bigger posterior hippocampi than controls. Also, the amount of time spend

as a taxi driver correlated positively with posterior hippocampal volume. This coincides nicely with the idea that this area is responsible for storing spatial information about the environment (Maguire et al., 2000). It might also imply that the mechanism responsible for building and using spatial mental representations can recruit more neurons if necessary, which is of importance to keep our (artificial) mental model rooted in biology.

Summarizing we can specify some more requirements an artificial neural network should meet. In order for an artificial neural network to maintain a root in biology, it should follow these guidelines:

- (5) The model can be (single) task specific;
- (6) The model should have a simple mechanism to produce cognition;
- (7) These mechanisms should be like building blocks;
- (8) It should be possible to change or combine these simple basic building blocks to change their function.

2.3 Artificial cognition

Now that it is clear what the spatial mental model and the artificial neural network should be able to do, it is time to review what artificial models are out there and which we might use. First, some descriptions of mental models are given and from these models, a spatial mental model that can represent route information emerges.

Artificial intelligence (AI) and cognitive modeling provide an important opportunity for improving our understanding of human cognition. Traditional psychology uses human behavior as the main source of data while neuropsychology mainly studies the workings of neurons and neuronstructures. However, to understand intelligence and cognition truly,

we also need to understand the mechanisms that generate them. To accomplish this we can try to model such mechanisms, while of course adhering to the constraints that came from psychological and neuroscientific research. Modeling cognition forces us to acknowledge factors that might have stayed hidden otherwise.

Many AI researchers stem from computer sciences and, therefore, often find symbolic, mathematic, and algorithmic solutions to model cognition. Such symbolic solutions can be very powerful, see for example the “Walter Simulation” by Ballard and Sprague (2006). Their modeled virtual character “Walter” is capable of a lane keeping task while avoiding obstacles and collecting collectables. They accomplished this by dividing a task into behaviors and each behavior into microbehaviors. Such microbehaviors can be accomplished by fairly simple programs. When more of such microbehaviors are combined, behavior that is more complex can be accomplished (Ballard & Sprague, 2006). Such studies show the success of a modular approach to cognition. Also, it gives further credibility to a model that tries to explain just one (or a few) aspect of cognition, which is exactly the scope of this thesis.

There are many ways to model cognition, for example using symbolic algorithms (e.g. Ballard & Sprague, 2006), dynamic systems (e.g. Schöner, 2006, also refer to appendix A), or neural networks. The modeling technique used in this thesis is neural networking. Neural networking has synonyms such as distributed representations (e.g. Elman, 1991), back propagation networks (e.g. Hecht-Nielsen, 1989), connectionism (e.g. Bechtel & Abrahamsen, 2001), and parallel distributed processing (e.g. McClelland & Rogers, 2003; Rogers & McClelland, 2008). Neural networks can come in many forms and shapes. In the next chapter a brief explanation is given of what a (feed forward)

neural network is and what it can do (cf. appendix B, Bechtel & Abrahamsen, 2001, and Zeidenberg, 1990). Two basic forms will be elaborated on further, the simple recurrent network (e.g. Elman, 1991), and the Rumelhart network (e.g. McClelland & Rogers, 2003); see figure 2 and the next chapter for the distinction.

3. Neural network models

In this chapter, some existing artificial neural network models are discussed. A combination of existing models leads to a model that can learn and represent a route.

3.1 Neural networks

The most basic feed-forward neural network has two distinct layers, made up of input and output neurons respectively. Each neuron has a certain activation value, which is loosely related to the firing rate of a biological neuron. The neurons in the input layer are connected to the neurons in the output layer via synapses. Each synapse or connection has a certain weight, which is based on the strength of a biological synapse. The activation of each neuron is based on the activations of the neurons that have connections to it, and the weight of those connections. Often there is another layer of neurons, a hidden layer, between the input and output layer, with which the network can perform computations or integrate, extract or retrieve more complex forms of information. The activation of a neuron i is updated using the following formula:

$$Act_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta(\sum_j(Act_j \times Weight_{ij}) - ActThres_i)}}$$

Where the activation for neuron i (Act_i) can be calculated by summing the activation of all j neurons that have a connection to i with weight ij minus the resistance to activation change by neuron i ($ActThres_i$). This value is put into a logistic function with β as slope constant, for a more detailed description refer to appendix B (e.g. Hecht-Nielsen, 1989).

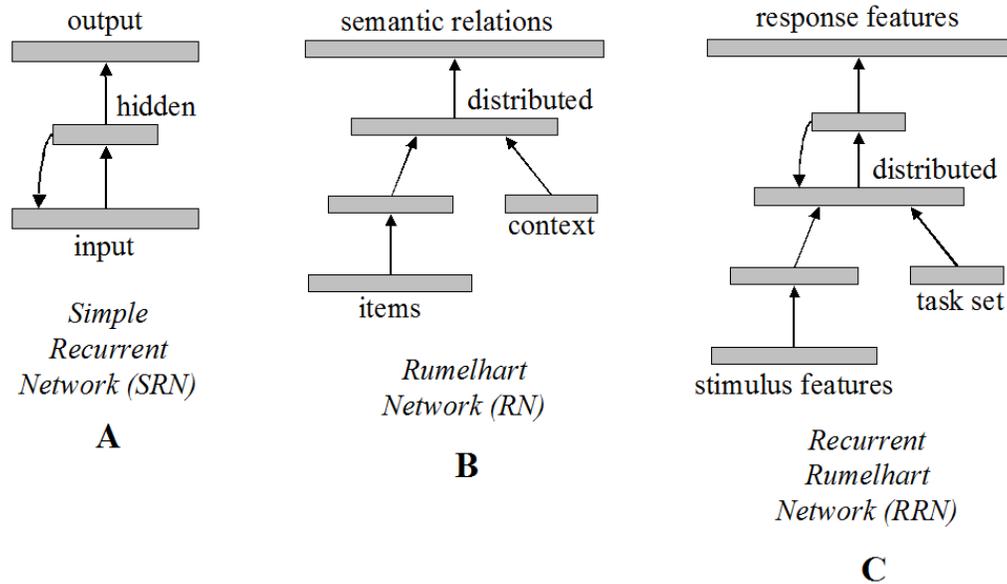


Figure 2: A simple recurrent network (A), a Rumelhart network (B), and a Recurrent Rumelhart network (C).

A network designer can hardwire the way in which the neurons are interconnected and the weight of these connections into the network. Most feed-forward neural networks, however, employ back propagation as a learning mechanism. Back propagation is a method in which the error, the difference between the current output and the desired output, of a neural network is reduced by altering the (synaptic) connections between the neurons of the network (Hecht-Nielsen, 1989). For a more detailed description of neural networking, the math, and learning by back propagation refer to appendix B.

Simple recurrent networks (see figure 2 A) have their roots in language studies because they can represent a sequence and its serial ordering (e.g. Elman, 1991). During training, the activation in the hidden layer of the input of the previous item in the sequence is still present. This 'copy of the previous item' is presented as input to the network, in combination with the current item in the sequence. This coupling causes the network to associate the previous with the current item in a sequence. After training

(using back propagation) the simple recurrent network can 'predict' the next item in the sequence (Elman, 1991). This ability might be useful as a building block for route finding skills. The simple recurrent network could report the next step, the direction to turn, in a route that it knows. However, it cannot discriminate between (overlapping) routes.

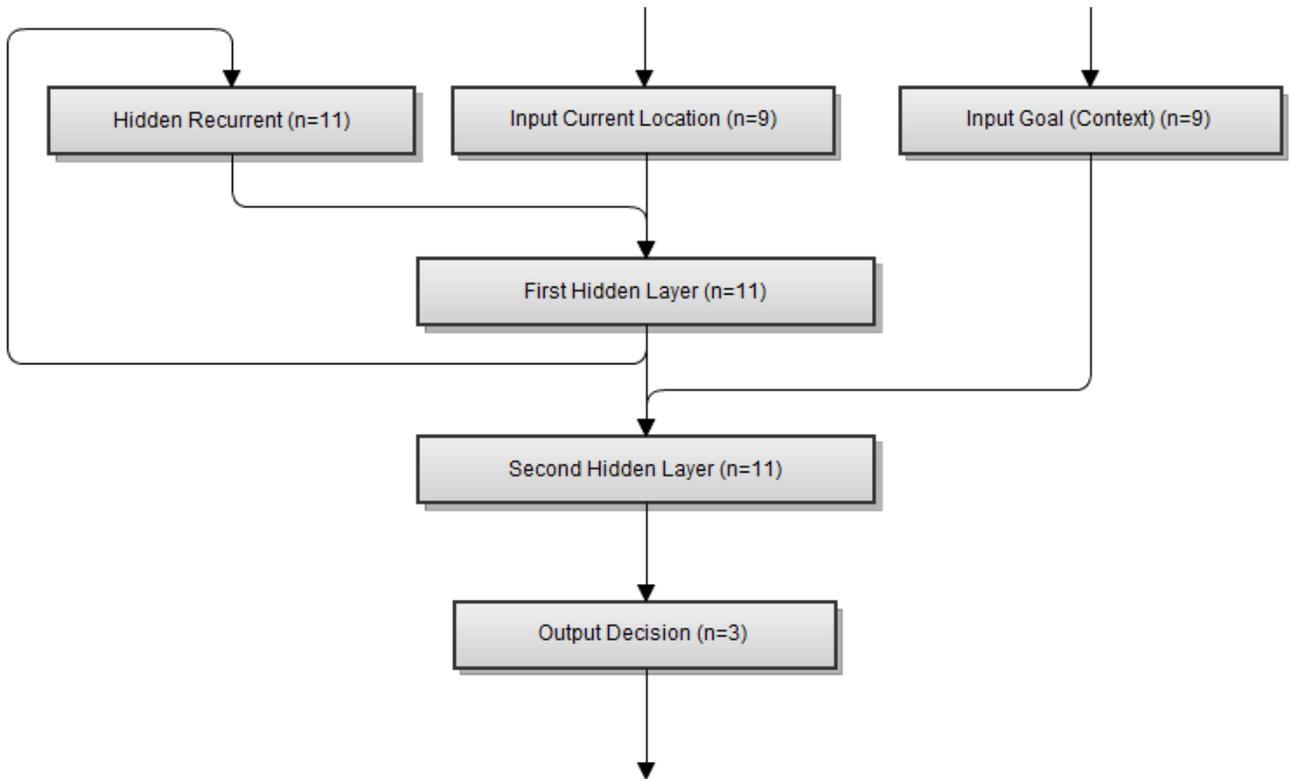


Figure 3: The proposed neural network that can model the spatial route information. The network consists of four layers. The number of neurons is displayed for each group. The top layer is the input layer where three groups serve as input for the network: the current location, the destination, and a copy of the first hidden layer (hidden recurrent). This copy of the previous first hidden layer activation (recurrent) and the current location are fed into the first hidden layer. The first hidden layer feeds a copy of its activation, via the recurrent connections, to the hidden recurrent layer. It also feeds to a second hidden layer that combines the goal and the input. In the output layer the (turning) decision necessary to reach the destination, will become active.

A Rumelhart network (see figure 2 B) can represent context and as such it might discriminate between sequences, grammatical context, or perhaps routes as in our case. For example, in a language case the network could learn the difference between 'canary can fly' and 'canary has wings'. When the same input is given, 'canary', the network can distinguish between outputs 'fly' or 'wings' because of the context, either 'can' or 'has' (McClelland & Rogers, 2003). However, the Rumelhart network is not capable of learning sequential information (such as a route).

3.2 Spatial cognitive neural model for route information

A recurrent Rumelhart network (see figure 2 C) is a combination of a simple recurrent network and a Rumelhart network, combining the ability to represent sequential information and context. Therefore, a recurrent Rumelhart network might be able to learn, represent, and distinguish between different (overlapping) routes. See figure 3 for the network I developed. During the learning of routes, the input is the sequence of locations along the route and the corresponding output of directions. The recurrent nature of the network builds the temporal order representation of the items. The context is the goal (the final location), which is continuously presented to the context neurons (called task set in figure 2 C). This results in a network that represents the sequence of directions of routes and can distinguish between different routes using the goal or destination of the route. After learning, a destination is presented to the network as a goal and the first location as the input. The network now generates the direction to get to the next location on the route. When this next location is presented as input the network generates the next following direction. These steps continue until the goal is reached. Additionally, it is

possible to start midway in a learned route, as long as the ‘start’ location is in one of the learned routes to the goal. Starting midway in a route comes with the additional constraint that the direction an embodied network (e.g. robot) is facing is compliant with the direction of the route.

Now that an artificial spatial (route) neural model is presented (see figure 3), I will repeat the requirements stipulated earlier from the psychological and neuroanatomical review. The described neural network was embodied and tested against the requirements, see chapter 4. The results (chapter 5) are discussed in the discussion, chapter 6. In order for the artificial neural network to be a possible approximation of how humans build and use spatial mental representations, it must:

- (1) Consist of separate, but closely intertwined, systems for different spatial reference frames;
- (2) Benefit from a spatial description given in a familiar or consistent way during training;
- (3) Make use of goals in building and using a spatial mental representations;
- (4) Be capable of selecting familiar routes and computing novel routes.

Moreover, in order for an artificial neural network to maintain a root in biology it should follow these guidelines:

- (5) The model can be (single) task specific;
- (6) The model should have a simple mechanism to produce cognition;
- (7) These mechanisms should be like building blocks;
- (8) It should be possible to change or combine these simple basic building blocks to change their function.

4. Methods

In this chapter, a description is given of how the neural network was modeled, what it learned, and how it learned. Also, it is reported in what way the neural network was embodied and what tasks this embodied network performed. Finally, a description is given of the methods that were used to test whether the network could perform the task and how it could perform the task. The results of these tests can be found in the next chapter. The results are discussed in chapter 6.

4.1 Modeling the neural network

The neural network was modeled using *MemBrain Neural Network Simulator*, version 03.06.02.00 (MemBrain, 2010). This program allows users to model, teach, test, and export neural networks of arbitrary size and architecture. The neural network model described earlier (figure 3) was implemented in the program, see also appendix D. The number of neurons in each hidden layer necessary for the model to be successful was not known. Informal analysis revealed that each hidden layer needed 11 neurons for the network to be taught a number of routes (nine in our case) of limited length (max four decisions). The current network consisted of 18 input neurons, three output neurons, 33 hidden neurons, and 594 connections (including 121 recursive connections). The hidden neurons were organized in two hidden layers and one recurrent hidden group in the input layer. This hidden recurrent group serves as input to the (feed forward) network, which is why it is located in the input layer. However, its activation is hidden, since it is fed by the activation from the first hidden layer. Less (hidden) neurons in the network is possible, but increases the training time needed before the network reaches an acceptable error

level. More on the training of the network later, first the spatial environment that was taught will be discussed.

4.2 The spatial environment

The (embodied) network will navigate a grid-like maze. For this thesis a maze with nine intersections or positions was used, however an arbitrary number of positions can be used if enough neurons are available in the neural net. Intersection, position, and location are used as synonyms throughout this thesis. Each position has a number and positions double as destinations. As the (embodied) network traverses through the maze, it makes a turning decision at each intersection (even if there is only one possibility). Thus, a route (e.g. to P₅) consists of a sequence of positions (e.g. P₁, P₄, P₇, P₈, P₅) with the corresponding directions to turn (e.g. straight, straight, right, right).

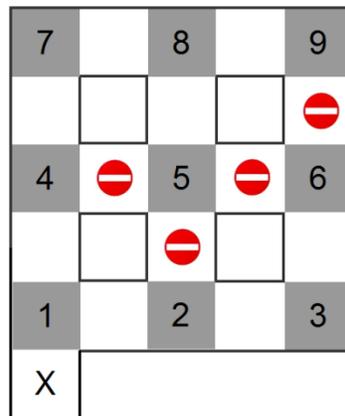


Figure 4: The maze that was used to train de neural network. It contains nine positions (or intersections), the grey areas, named 1 through 9. The start point of each route is the X, facing toward position 1. Four blockades are in place, so that each position can only be reached via one route. More than one choice in direction is possible at two intersections (P1 and P8).

Table 1: The routes to the various goals and the corresponding directions at the positions during the route (S = straight, R = right, and L = left). Also, the color code for each goal/position is shown.

Goal	Route	Directions	Color code for goal position
P ₁	P ₁	-	Yellow, Green, Red
P ₂	P ₁ , P ₂	R	Yellow, Red, Green
P ₃	P ₁ , P ₂ , P ₃	R, S	Green, Yellow, Red
P ₄	P ₁ , P ₄	S	Green, Red, Yellow
P ₅	P ₁ , P ₄ , P ₇ , P ₈ , P ₅	S, S, R, R	Red, Yellow, Green
P ₆	P ₁ , P ₂ , P ₃ , P ₆	R, S, L	Red, Green, Yellow
P ₇	P ₁ , P ₄ , P ₇	S, S	Yellow, Green, Yellow
P ₈	P ₁ , P ₄ , P ₇ , P ₈	S, S, R, S	Yellow, Red, Yellow
P ₉	P ₁ , P ₄ , P ₇ , P ₈ , P ₉	S, S, R, S	Green, Yellow, Green

Further, in this particular case each route started at the same position, at the X in figure 4. Some “roads” were closed to decrease the complexity of the maze, as fewer routes are possible, see figure 4. Also, this ensures that the routes are highly overlapping. A route was constructed to each location, see table 1 for all the routes and their corresponding directions.

4.3 Training the network

The routes and directions from table 1 were taught to the network using back propagation. Back propagation is a method in which the error, the difference between the

current output and the desired output, of a neural network is reduced by altering the (synaptic) connections between the neurons of the network (Hecht-Nielsen, 1989). Before training starts, the weights of the links in the untrained network are randomized. In training, there are two phases for each stimulus, the feed forward and the back propagation. The first input of a sequence is presented as input to the network. The network feeds this input forward and produces an output, which is likely to be far from the desired output. This difference between desired and actual output is designated as the error. Next, the contribution to the error is calculated for each neuron in the previous layer and the weight of its connection is altered accordingly. This back propagation of error is carried out for each layer in the network. When the back propagation is complete, the next item in the stimulus set is presented as input and the cycle repeats (cf. appendix B, Hecht-Nielsen, 1989).

Back propagation is a powerful learning tool. However, presenting the entire set of stimuli once is often not enough to get a well-trained network, especially if the stimulus set is large. After little training, the network will continue to make errors. It is difficult to predict how many training cycles are necessary to get adequate network performance. This is solved by setting an error level that the network has to reach. Training continues until this level is reached. The time (amount of training cycles) to reach the desired error level varies, as the network is randomized before training.

4.4 Embodying

The (spatial) neural network was embodied in the Lego Mindstorms platform. This platform includes a small processing unit, several sensors, and actuators. The robot built

with this platform, see figure 5, was named Wobot (Wayfinding Robot). The processing power and memory of the platform is limited therefore, it was not feasible to teach the neural network using the processor in the robot. This means Wobot cannot drive around and learn new things. It was also considered whether a Bluetooth link to a PC could be used to exchange real-time sensor data from the robot to the neural network and issue real-time motor commands from the network to the robot. Such a real-time link proved very troublesome, so a more proof-of-concept approach was taken. Please refer to the appendix C for a more detailed description of the Mindstorms platform and its limitations (also cf. Toledo, 2006). The neural network was trained on a PC and the trained network was uploaded to the robot. Thus, to teach Wobot a new route a new (trained) network has to be uploaded. The robot is capable of supplying the network with sensor data and computing the output of the network. The network output, in turn, influences Wobot's motors. This cycle was real-time. The exact procedures of uploading a neural network, along with the programming code used to embody the network, can be found in appendix C, E, and F.

Wobot's sensor array consists of three ultrasonic distance sensors for lane keeping and one down facing color sensor for recognizing locations. How lane keeping is implemented will be discussed later, first the way Wobot recognizes where it is will be explained. An efficient way for a robot (or for an animal for that matter) to determine its location, is using vision. Unfortunately, the Lego Mindstorms platform does not include a camera. It does, however, include a rudimentary color sensor that can recognize a meager six colors (barely, as I will explain later). As mentioned earlier, the used maze has nine locations that need recognizing, so simply assigning a color to each location would lead

to ambiguity as some colors are assigned to more than one location. This was solved by using a three-color barcode that identifies a location, see figure 6 and table 1. As you can see from figure 6, red looks more like pink, this is intentional and because the color sensor detected red more reliable, if the actual color was pink rather than red. A signaling color (white) was used as a signal in the software that a route was coming up; this means that if the sensor detected the signaling color the robot would start keeping count of what colors it saw. When the signaling color was detected again, the color code was finished and the code could be looked up. The resulting location was fed to the neural network to get a direction. In addition, the signaling color prevents interference from the color of the ground, as the ground color might be used in a color code.



Figure 5: The Lego Mindstorms robot, which I dubbed Wobot (for Wayfinding Robot). From top to bottom of the picture, the following components can be identified. The white box, called the brick, houses the processor and other electronics. To the left and right the tracks are visible, both powered by their own motor. Below the brick there are three distance sensors visible, pointed forward and slightly to the left and right. At the bottom of the image a color sensor is visible, it is facing down.



Figure 6: A photograph of one of the intersections (P_5) in the real world maze.

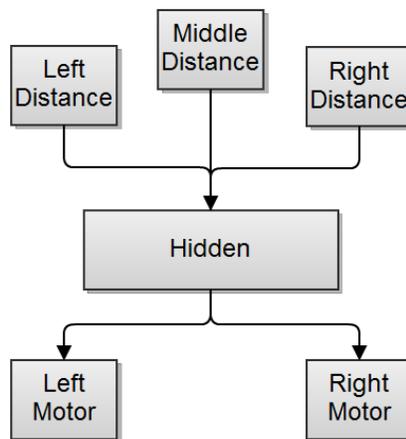


Figure 7: The simple neural network that handles lane keeping. The distance sensors provide input to the top three neurons. The input neurons feed into a hidden layer of some (four) neurons. The hidden layer feeds the two output neurons, which drive their respective motor.

4.5 Lane keeping

Robot lane keeping is done with an embodied simple neural network, see figure 7. This network was trained on all possible 'extreme situations' and consequently managed to infer all intermediate situations. For example, if the middle distance sensor detects zero distance, meaning it bumped into something, both motors should be put in reverse. If the

left distance sensor detects decreasing distance, the right motor is slowed down, thus turning right. Lane keeping did is switched off during a turn and switched back on when the turn is complete.

4.6 Testing the network

Testing whether the neural network architecture works (after training) can be done virtual, by presenting input to the network and check whether the output is as expected. Also, it is possible to test analog, embodied, in the real world. Both ways of testing were done, albeit an analog test was executed only with one version of the neural network (as a proof of concept). The results of the tests are presented in the results chapter.

4.7 Network analysis

The successful completion of the tests shows whether a neural network has managed to build some representation with which it can solve the spatial navigation task. It is more interesting, however, to see how the network managed to solve its task. To reiterate the point made in the introduction, in order to understand cognition it is necessary to understand the mechanisms behind cognition. One way to approach this is to understand the way in which an artificial neural network managed to solve a task. The solution to a task an artificial neural network found might not at all resemble the way a biologic neural network solves the same task. Nonetheless, investigating the artificial neural network can give us an idea how a biological system *might* work.

To investigate how the network represents the spatial environment, we can directly observe the internal state of the network as it makes decisions. In other words, the

activation of the (hidden) neurons can be scrutinized for every (environmentally) possible input. This shows how all possible states are represented in the network. However, simply looking at the hidden neuron activation patterns might not reveal much, as this would be a diagram with as many dimensions as hidden neurons. Therefore, I conducted a rotation of the axes of the dimensions, using principal component analysis (PCA). This technique can be used to find the axis along which the most variance occurs. This means that it can reveal the structure of the data as it is represented in the neural network (see also Elman, 1991, & Kutner, Nachtheim, Neter, & Li, 2005).

To obtain the data for this analysis, each position in every route was presented to the trained network and the activation value of all neurons was exported for each of these instances. This dataset, with essentially as many dimensions as neurons, was imported in a statistical program (SPSS18). There the covariance matrix is calculated to find the principal components and their eigenvalues. The first few, relevant, components are investigated further. These most relevant components serve as ‘viewpoints’ from which the data can be observed in the most informative way. An interpretation is given for the relevant components.

5. Results

In this chapter, the results are summed up. The results are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

5.1 Virtual results

For the current spatial neural network, an error level of $1e-7$ was reached after about 100 training cycles. This training provided already adequate network performance. The maximum error level for the network in this thesis, however, was set to $1e-10$, which generally took over 6.000 training cycles to reach. The $1e-10$ threshold was chosen as it makes errors during testing extremely unlikely. Also, because processing power was not an issue. No errors were found, the network performed perfectly accurate on all learned routes.

5.2 Analog results

The spatial neural network performed equally well in the embodied environment. There were many instances where the robot provided erroneous data to the network, which led to a failure to reach the goal location.

The embodiment of the network did not produce insurmountable problems, for the programming code refer to appendix E and F. The platform, however, did come with a troublesome color sensor. It was very difficult to make it read colors correctly. The sensor made many errors, which lead to erroneous data being fed to the neural network (see appendix C for a more detailed description of the limitations of the Lego Mindstorms

platform). Whenever the color sensor worked appropriately, however, Wobot was consistently able to find its way in the maze.

5.3 Network analysis

The PCA of the spatial neural network revealed 20 components from which four are relevant, see figure 8. The four relevant components combined, explain 84,9% of the variance.

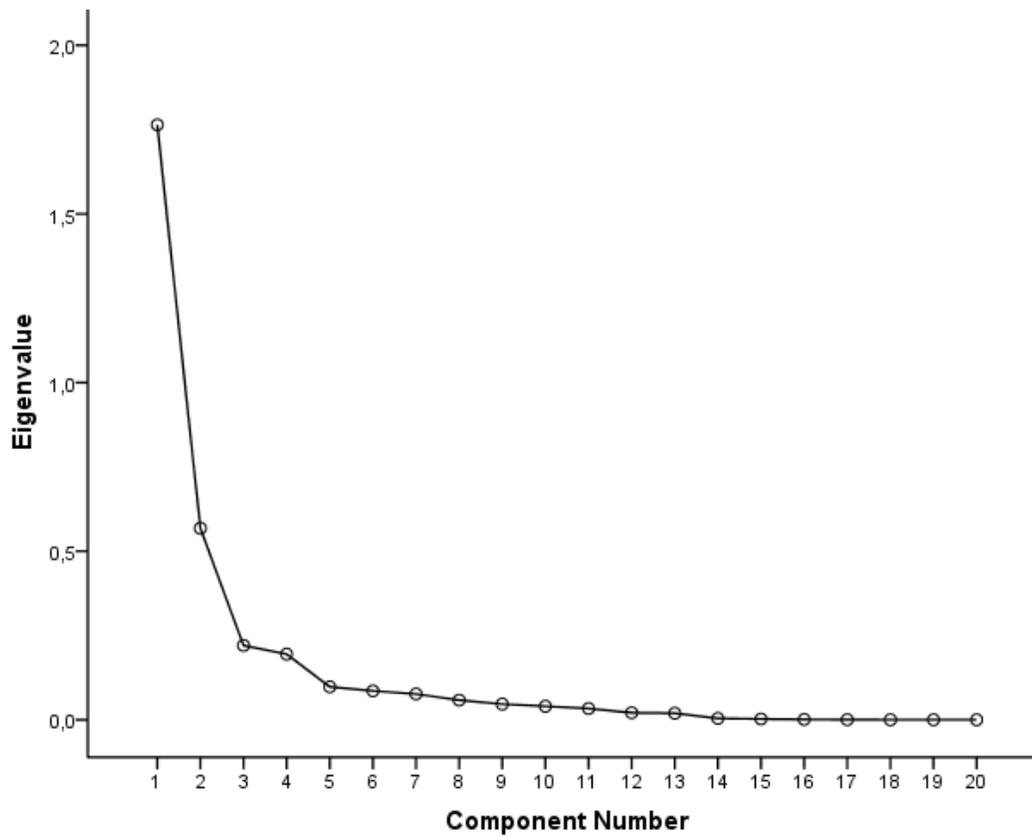


Figure 8: The principal components found and their respective eigenvalues.

The four relevant components were investigated using component plots of the factors, figures 9, 10, 11, and 12. In such plots, each factor is noted as a point along the component scale. Each factor, or instance, represents a decision point along a route. This means that destinations are not shown in the figures, as these require no further action by the network. Names of the instances were constructed as follows: the goal location _ the name of the position along the route _ the rank in the route and the direction to turn at this position (L = left, S = straight, and R = right). This makes it relatively easy to interpret what the components encode.

Component 1 seems to encode for the decision to go straight versus turning, as all straight instances score above 0.6 on the scale, see figure 9. Right and left turns are scoring below 0.3.

Component 2 is not so easy to interpret. It seems to encode for location 1 versus other locations, as all location 1 instances score above 0.6 on the scale, see figure 10. However, in combination with other components, for example component 3, it is possible to see a clustering of most locations, see figure 10.

Component 3 seems to encode for the right turns. All right turn instances are scoring above 0.4 on the components' scale. However, so does one instance where the decision is straight (i.e. Goal9_P8_4S), see figure 10.

Component 4 seems to encode for going left, see figure 9. In only one instance turning left is required (i.e. Goal6_P3_3L). Interestingly, there seems to be a preparation or expectation in the instance that turning left will be required at the next instance (i.e. Goal6_P2_2S). In this instance the network is required to go to location 6 (goal6) and is at position 2 (P2), which is the second position in the route toward 6. Finally, the network

is required to go straight (S) here. The interesting thing is, however, that the instance that will follow Goal6_P2_2S will require the network to go left and that the P2 instance seems to represent this. The instance is scoring higher on component 4, which encodes for a left turn.

Finally, two 3D figures are shown, figure 11, and 12. Figure 11 observes all components that encode for direction. It shows that a clear representation exists in the network, which distinguishes between all directions (left, straight, right). Figure 12 shows that there is a representation in the network that distinguishes all locations and their rank in a route, effectively showing a representational map. Note here that the rank is not something that is explicitly known in the network, it was added in the figure for readability. However, as the network gets feedback from the environment, it does not need to represent rank. The environment feeds the network with the actual current location and it is, for this network at least, irrelevant whether or not this was the expected location.

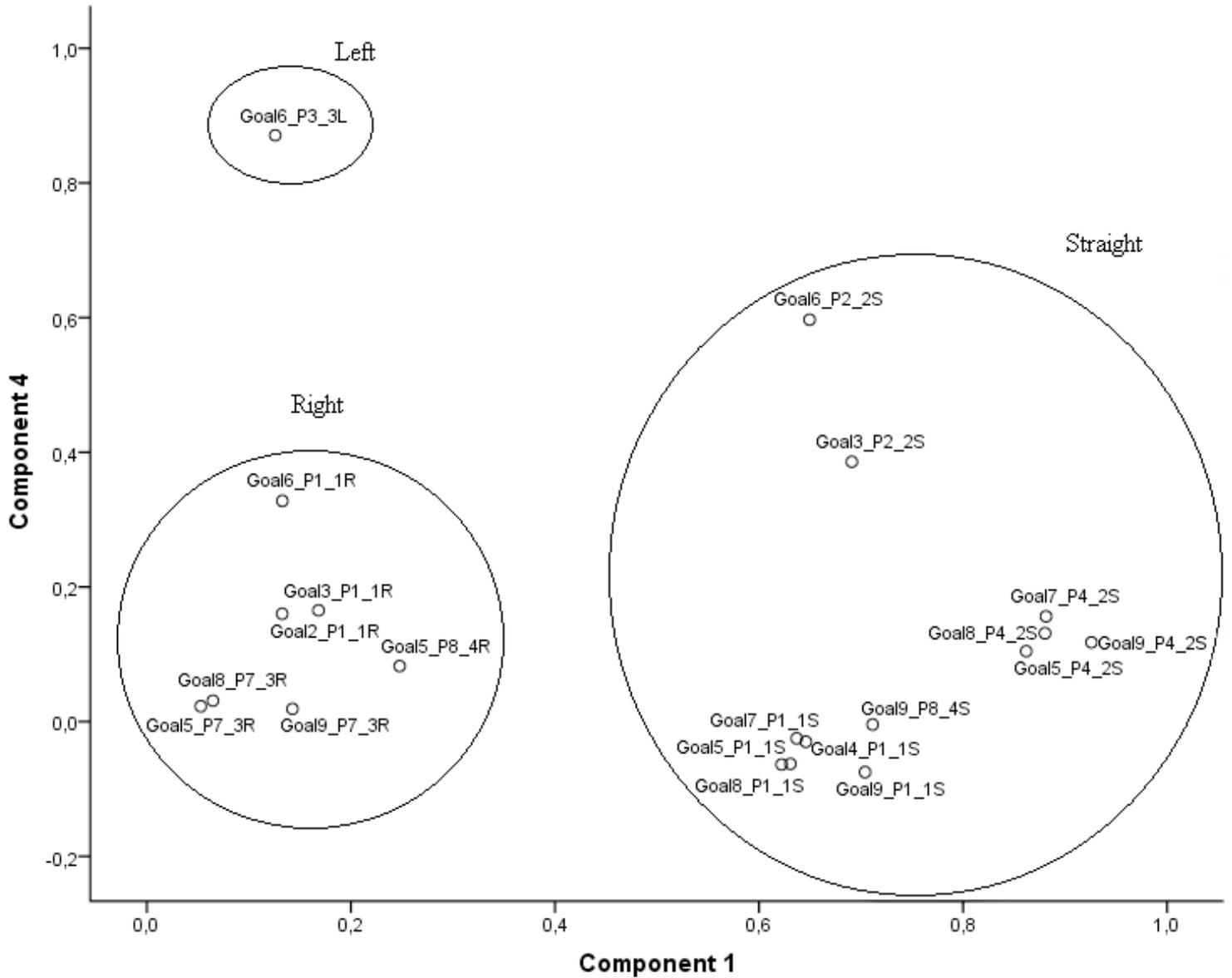


Figure 9: Components 1 and 4. Component 1 seems to encode for straight vs. turning; all instances and only the instances in which going straight is required are scoring higher than 0.6 on the scale (circle Straight). Component 4 seems to encode for going left, the only instance in which left is required (circle Left) scores higher than all other instances. These two components can make a distinction between all directions: Straight, right, and left.

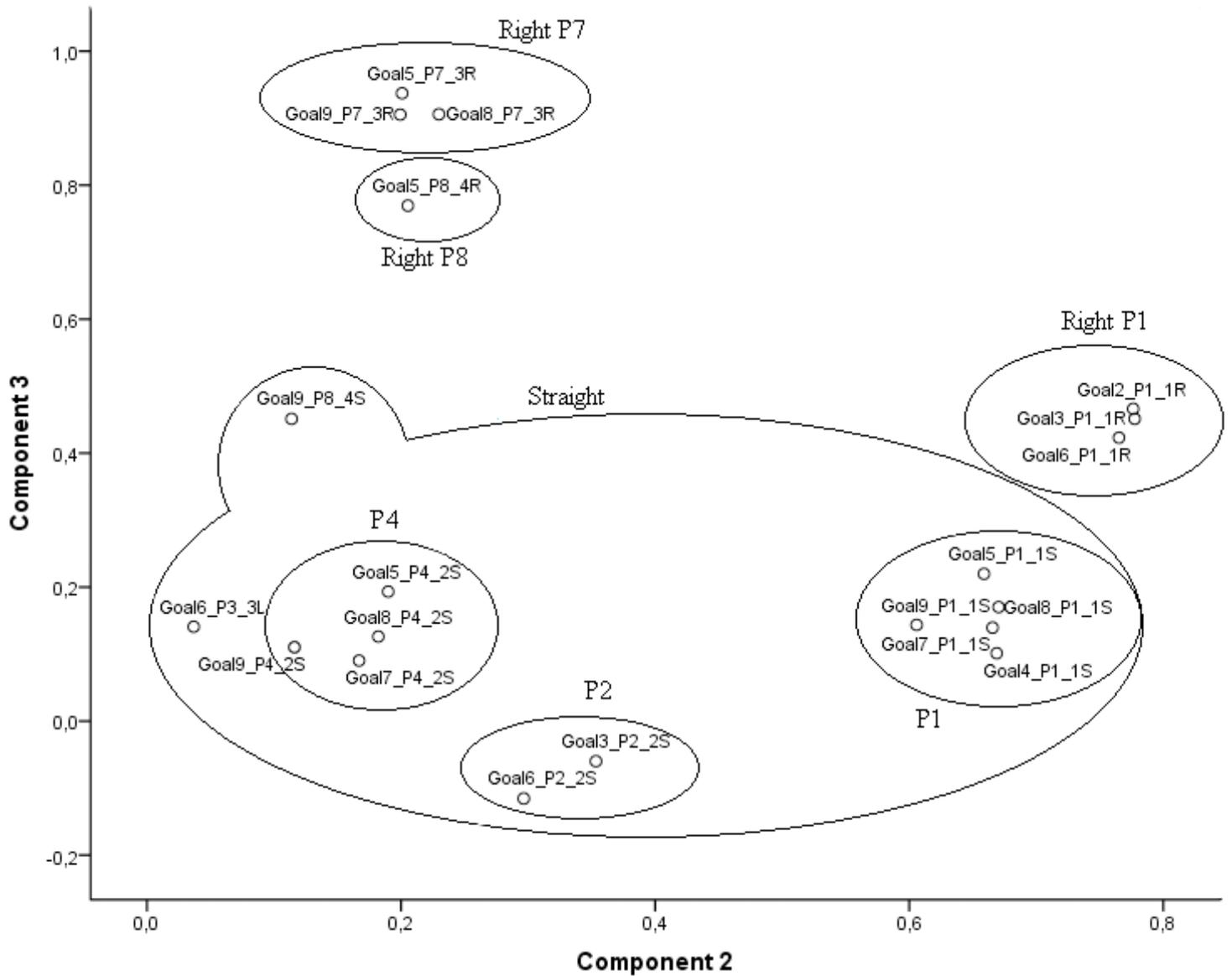


Figure 10: Components 2 and 3. Component 3 seems to encode for turning right (circles Right P1, Right P7, and Right P8) and other directions ('circle' Straight). Component 2 seems to hold some location information. This is most prominently visible for position 1 (which is the first position in every route) as all instances for position 1 score above 0.6 on component 2 scale (see circles P1 and Right P1).

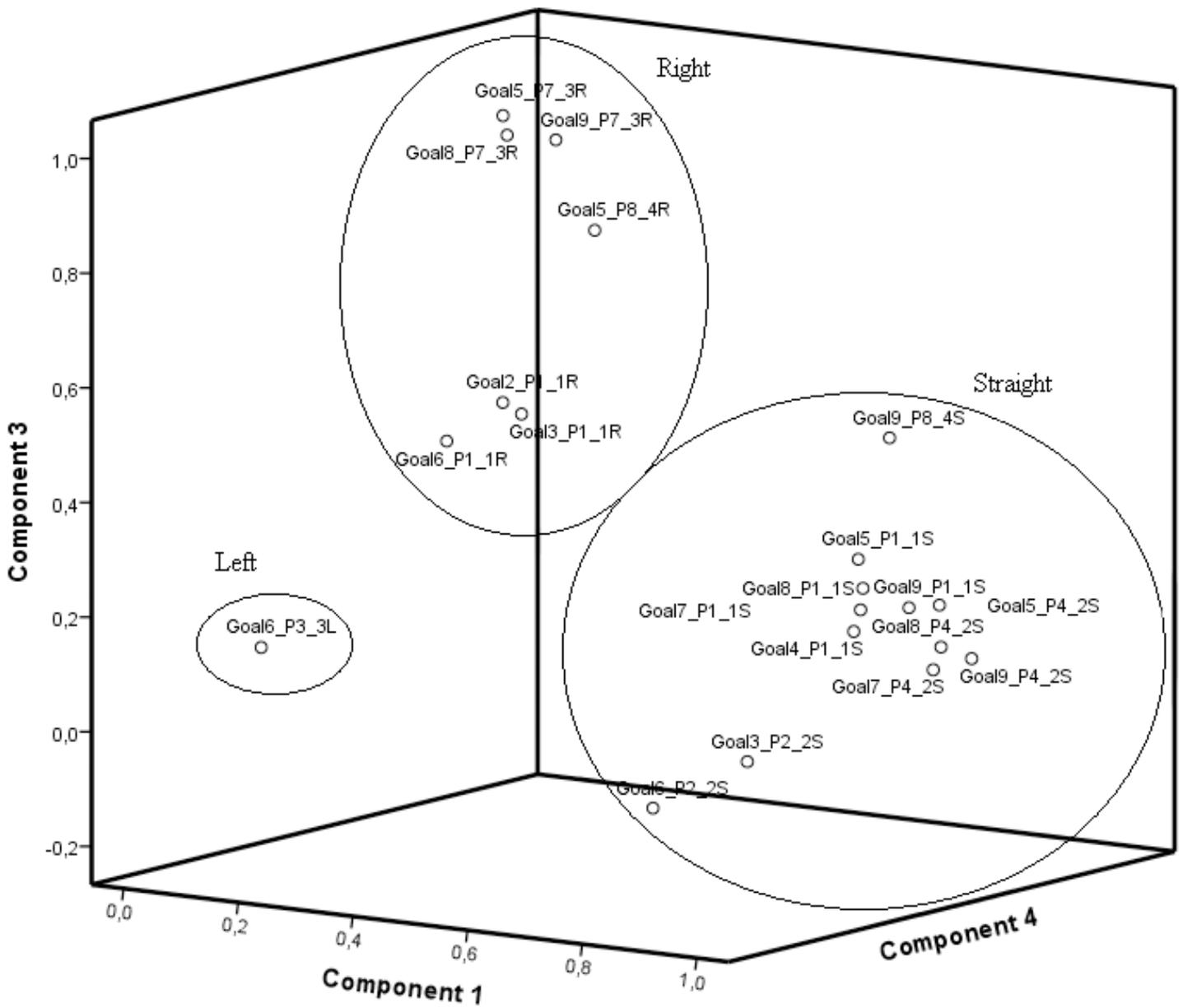


Figure 11: A three-dimensional plot of components 1, 3, and 4. These are the components that seem to encode for the turning decisions. Three clear groupings can be observed, turning left, going straight, and turning right.

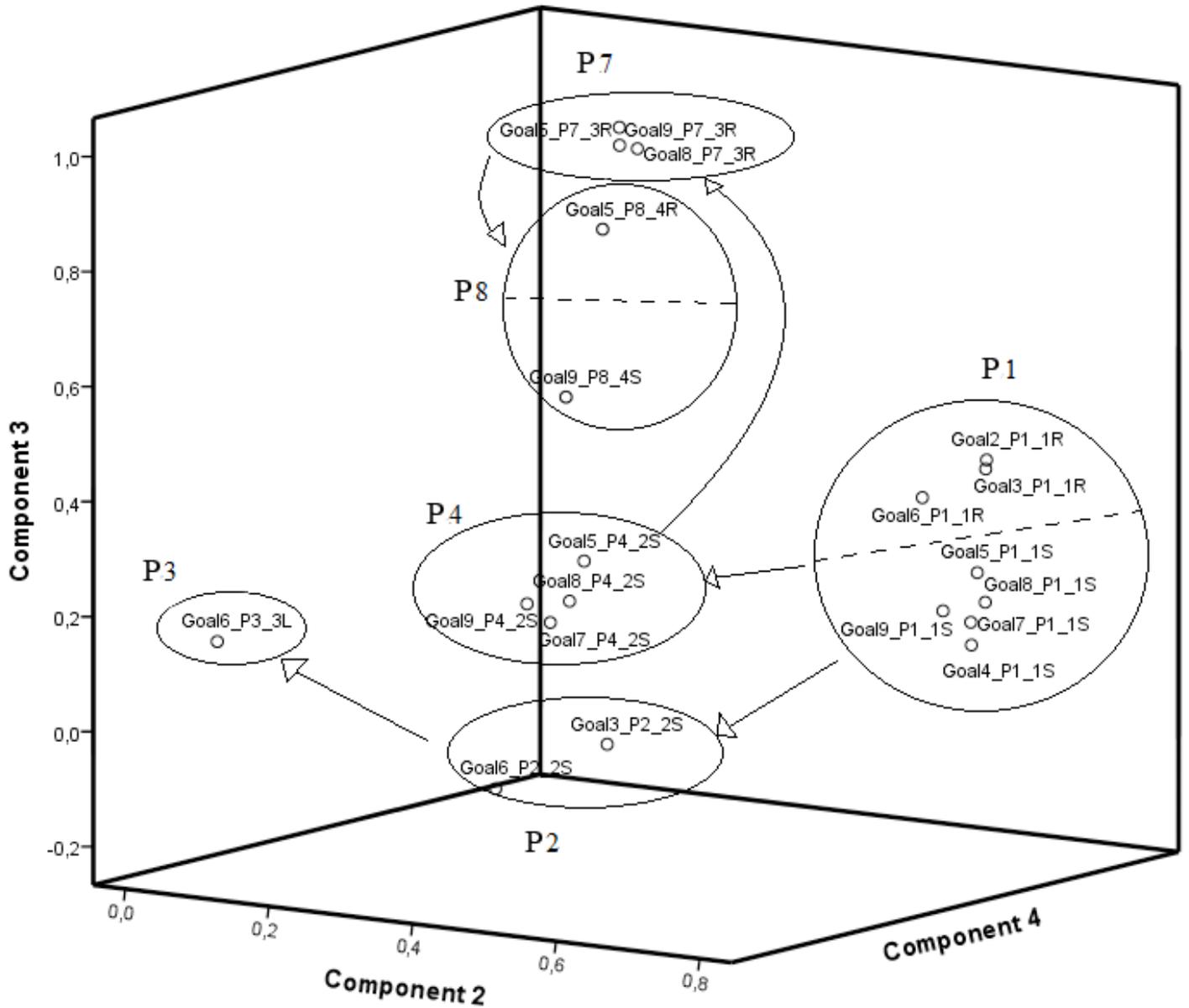


Figure 12: A three-dimensional plot of components 2, 3, and 4. In this plot, the various choice positions in the maze are circled and labeled. Note that the 'end of the line' positions (P5, P6, and P9) are not shown since the network never makes a decision there. Additionally, arrows show the rank order in which each position is visited during all possible routes. Also, note that the positions with more than one possibility to turn have these possibilities represented in different clusters in the state space (see dashed lines in P1 and P8).

6. Discussion and conclusions

First, in this chapter the theoretical demands, which became apparent in the introduction chapter, are recapitulated to discuss the success of the neural network model. Second, some possible improvements to the current neural network model are discussed, and some alternative neural networks are proposed. A preliminary analysis of these alternative networks is described. Third, the embodied network and the robotic platform used are discussed and possible improvements are mentioned. Finally, this chapter discusses future directions for spatial artificial neural models and the current model in particular.

6.1 Theoretic demands from psychology

The introduction summed up some demands that a spatial artificial neural network should meet to be rooted in psychology. First, these points are repeated, and then the results of the current network are viewed in light of these points. For the artificial neural network to approximate how humans build and use spatial mental representations, it must:

- (1) Consist of separate, but closely intertwined, systems for different spatial reference frames;
- (2) Benefit from a spatial description given in a familiar or consistent way during training;
- (3) Make use of goals in building and using a spatial mental representations;
- (4) Be capable of selecting familiar routes and computing novel routes.

Now that the neural network model is tested, we can investigate its performance in respect to the demands that came from the literature. First, the different spatial reference

frames (1). It is difficult to investigate this with the current network, as it does not have the capability to understand or express anything allocentric. The network is fed spatial information with an egocentric frame of reference (current location) and produces egocentric spatial information (turn decisions). The network performs well with this egocentric task. Interestingly, the PCA revealed that the network did form a representation that seems compatible with the basis of an allocentric representation of the maze, see figure 12. Clustering of locations was observed. In itself, this is not enough to form an allocentric representation. The crucial difference between an egocentric and an allocentric spatial representation is the way in which the relation between the objects is represented. The egocentric perspective represents all locations relative to the self, in other words, to the current location. The allocentric frame of reference represents a spatial environment in object-object relations. In our case, this would be location-location relations. To form location-location relations, the network needs to represent locations separately. This is accomplished to some extent already, as shown by the clustering of locations in figures 10 and 12. However, to form an allocentric representation, it is also necessary to form some sort of relation between the locations.

The only location relation information the current neural network has, is the direction to turn to get from one location to the next. It uses this information to form location-location relations. In figure 9, an effect is visible that appears to be a preparation effect. When the network has the goal to go to location 6, the route is P1, P2, P3, P6. A left turn has to be made at location 3. This turn-left representation is clearly visible in figure 9, principal component 4. Interestingly, when the goal is location 6, location 2 also scores high on the turn-left representation in activation space. Thus, the network represents the

relation between the two locations (P2 and P3) and their relative turning decisions. This is a consequence of the sensitivity for sequential information of this network, as it has a recurrent loop (Elman, 1991). It is possible to interpret this effect as a preparation effect, a preparation or expectation to go left shortly. However, it is also possible to interpret this as a location-location relation or an emerging allocentric representation.

Humans seem to benefit from a consistent frame of reference when learning spatial relations (2). As of yet, this is not possible to test with the current neural network, as it can only be fed (and thus learn) egocentric relations. Even if there is a hint at different frames of reference in the spatial representation, the network cannot express such knowledge. Thus, multi-frame of reference information would remain implicit. Therefore, whether an artificial neural network would benefit from a consistent frame of reference can only be investigated if such a network can understand and express different frames of reference.

The use of goals in the network (3) was implemented successfully. The network consistently reached the goal. In addition, it was tested whether an artificial neural network could learn overlapping routes without the aid of goals. This was not possible, without the goals, the network was not able to discern between routes. That meant that at a choice intersection, the network ‘chose’ the direction that occurred most often in the learned set.

As mentioned earlier, the network was able to select familiar routes. In the current experiment, the maze did not allow for the computing of novel routes (4). Each location had a route leading to it and all these routes were taught to the network already. However, not every route possible in the maze was taught. For example, a more efficient route to

location 5 would be P1, P2, P5. Not surprisingly, the network was unable to find such alternate routes. It did not have any information to infer that this would be possible. To make this possible, the network needs to know that P2 and P5 are adjacent.

In an informal follow up experiment, only the routes to each possible 'end point' were taught to the network (the routes to P5, P6, and P9), see figure 4. The network was able to get to each of these locations, following the learned route. However, the network was not able to reach the locations in between the 'end points'. Therefore, it seems that the network had not induced the other locations as possible goals. Concluding, it seems unlikely an artificial neural network such as the current network, will be able to compute novel routes.

Summarizing, of the demands that came from the psychology literature, demands 1 and 3 were implemented successfully in the current mental model. The neural network was devised with egocentric representations in mind. It was fed only egocentric information, yet it managed to form a representation that hinted at an emerging allocentric representation. In addition, the use of goals was implemented successfully and goals were found to be instrumental to distinguish between overlapping routes. Novel route finding is not a capability of this network. Finally, the benefit of frame of reference consistency was untestable, as the network was not able to express itself in other frames of reference than the egocentric frame.

6.2 Theoretic demands from neurophysiology

This section discusses the specifications that a spatial artificial neural network should meet in order to be rooted in neurobiology. First, these points are repeated and then the

current network is reviewed in light of these points. In order for the artificial neural network to maintain rooted in biology, it should follow these guidelines:

- (5) The model can be (single) task specific;
- (6) The model should have simple mechanisms to produce cognition;
- (7) Such mechanisms should be like building blocks;
- (8) It should be possible to change or combine these simple basic building blocks to change their function.

First, point (5) is not really a demand; it is more of an allowance. The network was able to perform a route navigation task only. A next generation of this artificial neural model should have more abilities. For example, it should have the ability to learn and express different frames of reference. Many additions to the current network can be envisioned, which brings us to the next neurobiological specifications.

The current neural network was constructed from several building blocks (7). Primary building blocks are the input, output, and hidden layers, which make up many neural networks. These building blocks are simple (6) and can be combined in many ways (8).

The building block ‘input layer’ was used twice, once as the input layer in the traditional sense, and once as the input for context. This context allowed the network to represent goals, which allowed for a correct distinction between overlapping routes. Combining two hidden layers in a recurrent manner created sensitivity to the sequential nature of routes. In literature, both recurrent networks (e.g. Elman, 1991) and context layers (e.g. McClelland & Rogers, 2003) were used individually before. However, to the

best of our knowledge, no other integration of a recurrent and a contextual network exists at this moment.

6.3 Model improvement

Clearly, there is room for improvement to the current network model. In this section, ideas for improving the current model are discussed. As mentioned earlier, the network was not able to infer novel routes. Informal analysis showed this is not possible with the current neural network (see discussion of point (4) earlier). This did not come as a surprise, because with the data the network had available, even humans would unlikely infer novel routes. Foo et al. (2005) found that humans were able to infer novel routes only when landmarks were available. Therefore, it seems logical that some form of landmark recognition is needed in the artificial mental model, before novel route finding can be expected.

The current model could only handle a situation in which the starting location was known. From this starting position (the X in figure 4), each location taught, was reachable. This was also true if the robot started at an intermediate location on the route, as long as the direction the robot was facing was as prescribed by the route. If, for example, we would put the robot in front of location 3, it would not be able to reach any location other than location 6. Moreover, this would only work if the robot was facing in the correct direction, between locations 2 and 3 and towards location 3 (see figure 4). This is of course a serious limitation and should be improved in a future model.

One way to tackle the ‘starting anywhere’ problem is the availability of ‘movement history’ or knowing what the previous location was. The network would have to be

explicitly aware of where it was before, in addition to where it is now. In this manner, it should be possible to infer the direction of travel. Considering the maze (figure 4), for example, if the current location is 3 and the previous location was 2, it can be inferred we are traveling 'east'. If such a system is implemented, it is possible to find any goal location, provided a route towards the goal was learned. The robot could wander around randomly, until it recognizes a piece of the route (or the goal itself). Once the robot is on the route to the goal, to reach the goal the route can be followed.

Figure 13 shows a preliminary model that might accomplish such a feat. Both current and previous locations are presented as input, along with a goal as the context input. To implement this idea in an embodied system, additional programming is required (e.g. the random driving, turning around when driving into a dead end). In addition, it is not clear what response the network should give as long as it does not 'recognize' a route to its goal. As such, the model shown in figure 13 is a stepping-stone towards a model that can solve all these problems.

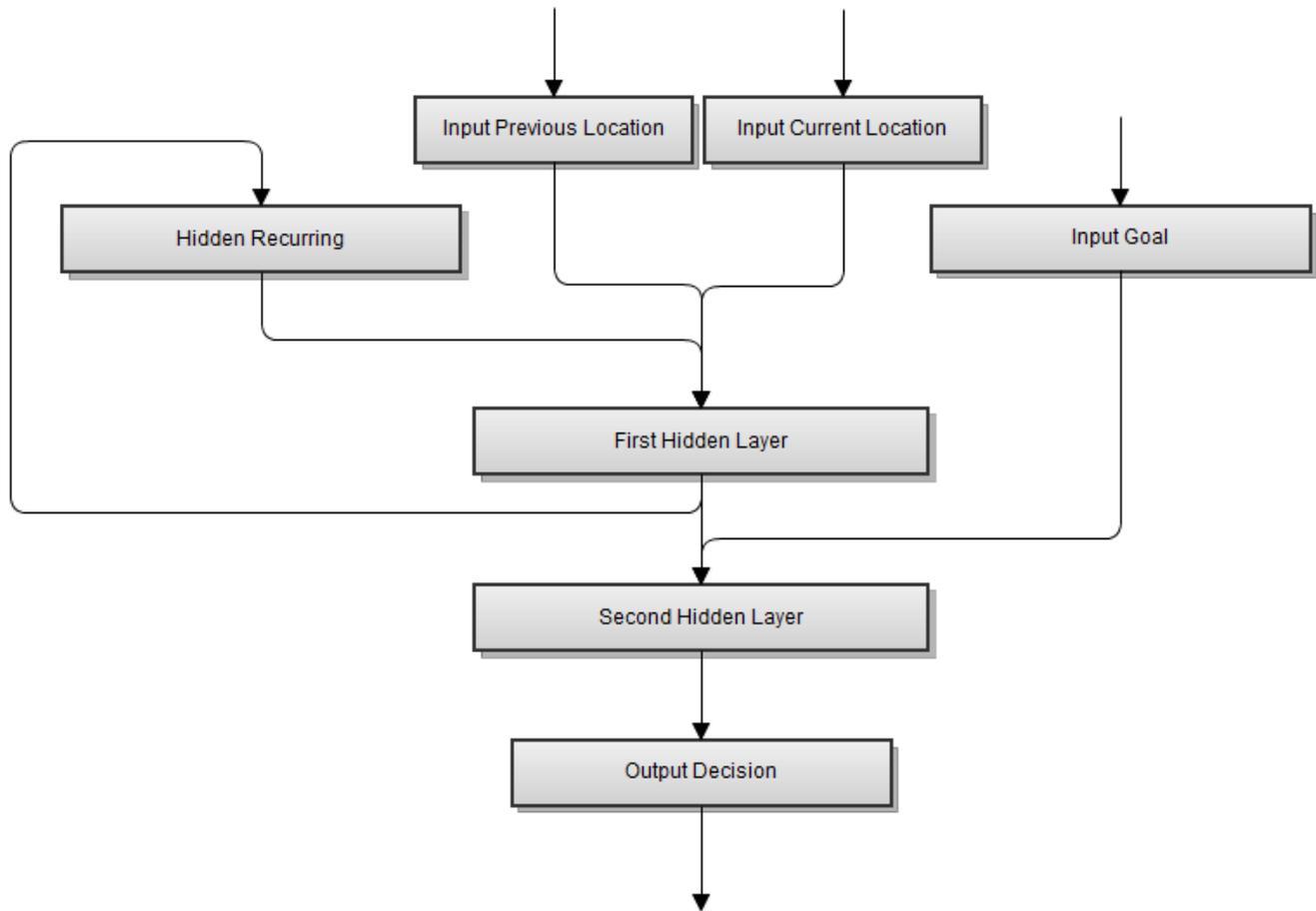


Figure 13: A preliminary neural network model that might eventually be able to start anywhere in a maze and still get to its specified goal. Both previous and current location are presented as input.

6.4 Embodied system

The embodiment of the neural network did not present insurmountable problems. This does not mean there were no problems. The Lego Mindstorms platform is limited, as it is a toy. A sophisticated toy, but a toy nonetheless. As described earlier, the color sensor was troublesome. It produced many errors, even after precautions were taken to reduce errors. The color sensor had to detect a color for at least 100 ms without interruption, before the color was confirmed. In addition, the memory of the platform only 256

kilobyte. This means that it is not possible to store and manipulate a large neural network. Using the current programming code, a network of 150 neurons and 4000 links is the approximate maximum size. Finally, using a real-time Bluetooth link between the robot and a PC was not feasible. More information on the platform can be found in appendix C.

An additional idea for improving the (embodied) network is error checking. As described earlier, the embodied system did not always get to its goal. The cause of such failures was attributed to the color sensor, which was instrumental in detecting the current location. Therefore, it seems wise to implement error checking. It might be possible to use the neural network for this. The network can predict the next location, in addition to the direction to turn. Following the turning direction will yield an updated 'current location'. The (previous) prediction could be compared to this new current location. If they do not match, something has gone wrong. Then, the robot might take action to correct the problem, for example backtracking to the previous location or rescanning the current location to check if it was a sensor error. In one of the earlier versions of the network model, predicting the next location was a feature. It was scrapped because it was deemed unnecessary for the task and tests at hand. The network model with the prediction of the next location can be seen in figure 14.

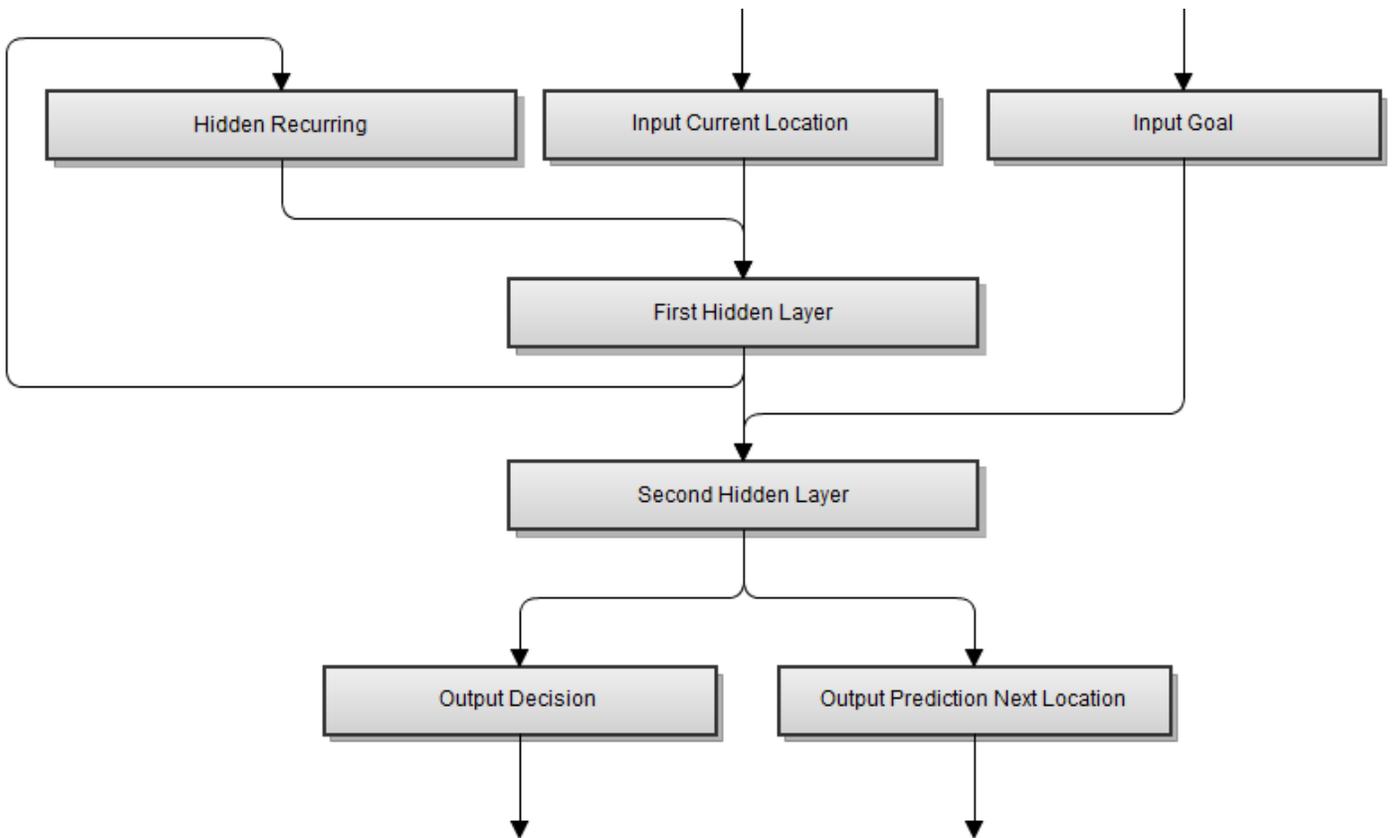


Figure 14: The neural network model is capable of predicting the next location in a route, in addition to the direction to turn in order to get there.

6.5 Practical implications and future directions

Most researchers are faced with the question ‘But what is the practical implication?’ after painstakingly elaborating on the theoretical side of their research. Therefore, a discussion of possible practical implications for the current network and future improved versions is given. First, the obvious practical application is embodying an artificial neural network in some robot or device that needs to find its way. As an example, an automated vacuum cleaning robot, such as the Roomba, might utilize a way finding neural network to find its docking station when it needs to recharge. Alternatively, it could be taught to visit places

it did not visit for a long time and use the network to navigate there. Especially in combination with the ability to learn new environments on its own, this could be a application.

Another application lies in combining several artificial neural networks, to create machines that can display more elaborate and complex behavior. There is a very wide array of artificial neural networks with different functions out there. A route-finding network like the current network, combined with a visual recognition network might yield a system for, for example, search tasks where route information is vital. In particular, after a disaster, it can be useful to have small robots search the rubble of a collapsed building for survivors. It might be possible to get the robots to deliver vital supplies, such as water, to the survivor, sustaining them while they wait for rescue workers to reach them.

Combining of artificial neural networks is an interesting field that, in my opinion, deserves further research. Especially, when neural networks are combined in a hierarchical way. For example, in this thesis, the network received its input, a location, from the program. The program read the color sensor and stored all the colors of the color code. Then it looked up the code in a library and fed the corresponding location as input to the network. It is also possible to let a neural network do this. It seems trivial to use a neural network for a task such as looking up a color code, nevertheless, a more complex visual system could benefit from the associative powers of a neural network. Such a system could first recognize a visual scene and then stimulate the representation of this scene in a route-finding network. A similar hierarchic structure can be envisioned for the motor system. The embodied system in the current thesis already used a neural network

to avoid collisions. This lane-keeping network was completely independent from the route-finding network, however.

There seems to be sense in thinking that combining more networks might be beneficial. Especially in an application with limited sensors such as the Lego Mindstorms robot, using all available sensor data seems wise. One network, for example the route finding network, might be able to use characteristics from another network, for example the characteristics of the lane (e.g. width), to infer more about the environment. This has some similarities to the micro behavior approach by Ballard and Sprague (2006). Human behavior seems to come from a collection of micro behaviors. Simple neural networks can produce such micro behaviors. A neural network consisting of several simple but closely interconnected networks might reveal 'larger' (macro) behaviors. In addition, combining several neural networks seems to be in accordance with neurobiology as the (human) brain consists of many closely interconnected networks. Combinations of closely interconnected simple neural networks might reveal interesting and novel solutions to a problem or a task.

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Appendix A: Dynamic field theory

In this appendix, I discuss another way to model (neural) representations, dynamic fields. The discussion given in this appendix is far from complete. It is meant to show that there are other mental modeling techniques out there. It is wise to keep an open mind to alternative ideas and techniques, even if they are not utilized.

Dynamic fields are mathematical representations of the activation distributions such as found using brain imaging techniques like EEG or fMRI on the working brain. Dynamic field theories have many ‘synonyms’ like dynamic systems (e.g. Schöner, 2006), dynamical hypothesis (e.g. van Gelder, & Port, 1995), neural dynamics (e.g. Grossberg, 1980; Lipinski, Sandamirskaya, Schöner, 2009), and population coding (e.g. Erlhagen, Bastian, Jancke, Riehle, & Schöner, 1999). Dynamic field modeling is a technique that generally does not model individual neurons; it models activation of areas. Such activation is explained as a competitive system in which neurons compete for activation by local excitation and global inhibition. This local excitation and global inhibition makes local peaks grow stronger while inhibiting peaks further away. It then becomes a competition between peaks, the peak with the highest (external or initial) excitation wins and (completely) inhibits the other peaks, see figure A1. The resulting activation peak, for lack of a better word, represents a certain input or answer to a computation (Schöner, 2006). Such an activation peak is not that different to a certain activation pattern in an artificial neural network.

Dynamic fields and neural networks can describe the same thing, so it is not surprising that they are similar. The main difference, in my opinion, is that neural networks describe the way in which neurons work together in groups to produce certain

activations and that the dynamical fields describe the overall distribution of activation. Another way of putting it, dynamic fields use an ‘infinite’ number of neurons to plot an activation pattern, while neural networks use a finite number.

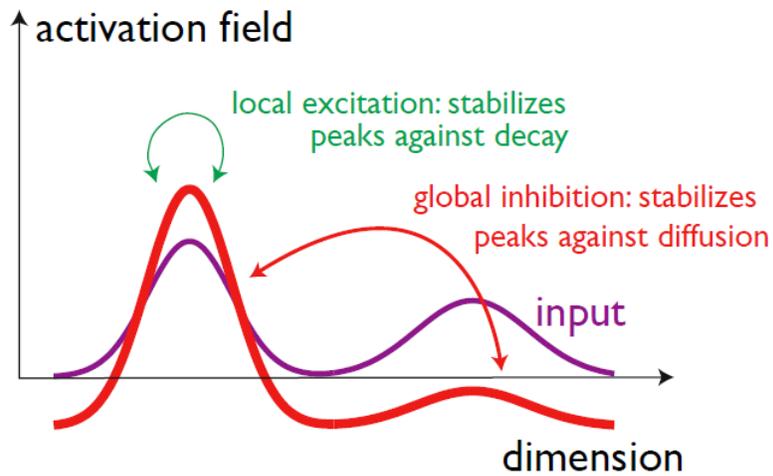


Figure A1: Local excitatory interaction helps sustain localized peaks of activation while long-range inhibitory interaction prevents diffusion of peaks and stabilizes against competing inputs (from Schöner, 2006).

Appendix B: Artificial neural networking and back propagation

The most basic feed-forward neural network has two distinct layers, made up of input and output neurons respectively. Each neuron has a certain activation value, which is related to the firing rate of a biological neuron. The neurons in the input layer are connected to the neurons in the output layer via synapses. Each synapse or connection has a certain weight, which is based on the strength of a biological synapse. The activation of each neuron is based on the activations of the neurons that have connections to it, and the weight of those connections. Often there is another layer of neurons, a hidden layer, between the input and output layer, see figure B1. A neural network can perform simple computations with an input and output layer. However, with a hidden layer (one or more), a network can compute, represent, integrate, extract or retrieve more complex forms of information. The activation of a neuron i is updated using the following formula:

$$Act_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta(netinput_i)}}$$

With:

$$netinput_i = \sum_j (Act_j \times Weight_{ij}) - ActThres_i$$

Where the activation for neuron i (Act_i) can be calculated by summing the activation of all j neurons (Act_j) that have a connection to i with weight ij minus the resistance to activation change by neuron i ($ActThres_i$). This value is put into a logistic function with β as slope constant (Hecht-Nielsen, 1989).

For the example network from figure B1, to calculate the activation of the first hidden neuron, neuron C, the complete formula would look like this:

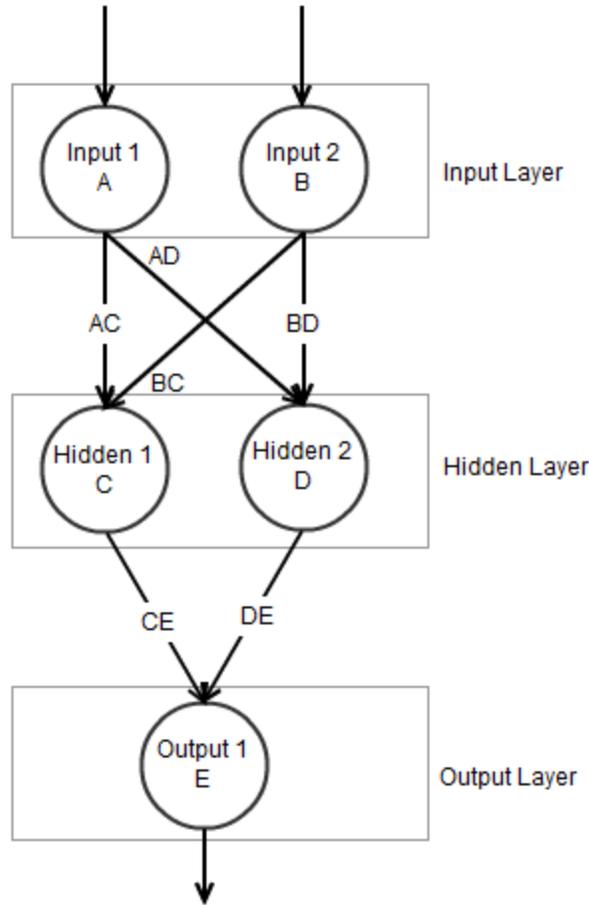


Figure B1: A simple feed forward network. Two input neurons in the input layer at the top, feed into two hidden neurons in the hidden layer, which feed into the single output neuron in the output layer at the bottom.

$$Act_C = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-3((Act_A \times Weight_{AB} + Act_B \times Weight_{BC}) - ActThres_C)}}$$

The way in which the neurons are interconnected and also the weight of these connections can be hardwired into the network by a network designer. Most feed-forward neural networks, however, employ a learning mechanism. Back propagation is a method in which the error, the difference between the current output and the desired output, of a

neural network is reduced by altering the weight of the (synaptic) connections between the neurons of the network (Hecht-Nielsen, 1989).

Often, learning starts with a randomization of all the weights. This insures that all connections have a value, which can be of importance in some programming languages. Next, each item in a training set is presented to the network. When the input layer of the network is stimulated in accordance with an item, the network calculates the activation of each neuron (using the formula described above). This feed forward phase will generate an activation for the output neurons that is likely incorrect. Thus, for every output neuron (u) there is a difference between desired output activation (d_u) and actual output activation (a_u). The error of the entire network is calculated as follows:

$$Error = \frac{1}{2} \sum_u (d_u - a_u)^2$$

When the error of network is found, the relative culprits to the error have to be found. In other words, the portion that each neuron contributes to the error has to be calculated in order to change the weight of the connection between the two neurons involved. The portion of error fed to the output neurons came from the hidden layer (one layer up). Therefore, the weight change necessary for all weights has to be calculated:

$$\frac{\delta Error}{\delta a_u} = -(d_u - a_u)$$

and

$$\frac{\delta a_u}{\delta netinput_u} = a_u(1 - a_u)$$

thus,

$$-\delta a_u = \frac{\delta Error}{\delta netinput_u} = \frac{\delta a_u}{\delta netinput_u} \times \frac{\delta Error}{\delta a_u} = -(d_u - a_u)a_u(1 - a_u)$$

where

$$netinput_u = \sum_h (Act_h \times Weight_{uh})$$

Now the input is traced back to the neuron in the layer above, in this case the hidden layer (h). First, calculate the portion of activation this weight contributed:

$$\frac{\delta netinput_u}{\delta weight_{uh}} = a_h$$

So, now finally it is possible to calculate the portion of error this weight contributed:

$$\frac{\delta Error}{\delta weight_{uh}} = -\delta a_u \frac{\delta netinput_u}{\delta weight_{uh}} = -(d_u - a_u)a_u(1 - a_u)a_h$$

Now change of weight can be calculated using the Hebbian learning rule:

$$\Delta weight_{uh} = lrate \times a_u \times a_h$$

Where, lrate is the learning rate. Thus, the weight change is calculated:

$$\Delta weight_{uh} = lrate \times \delta a_u \times a_h = lrate(d_u - a_u)a_u(1 - a_u)a_h$$

Weight changes deeper in the network are calculated iteratively. This means that the delta for the hidden layer (δa_h) nests the delta for the output layer (δa_u):

$$-\delta a_h = \frac{\delta Error}{\delta netinput_h} = \frac{\delta a_h}{\delta netinput} \times \frac{\delta Error}{\delta a_h} = a_h(1 - a_h) \sum_h -\delta a_u weight_{uh}$$

For the three-layered network, as displayed in figure B1, the final weight change is calculated as follows:

$$\Delta weight_{hi} = lrate \times \delta a_h \times a_i$$

For more information, refer to Bechtel and Abrahamsen (2001).

Appendix C: Guidance

In this appendix, four guides are included. The programs used to create the neural network for this thesis are discussed first. Next, the code is discussed and it is explained how to update the current code with another neural net. For example, if a new spatial environment is learned. Next, the platform used to embody the neural network is discussed. Special focus is on the limitations of the platform. Finally, a building guide is included to recreate Wobot, the robot used in this thesis.

Guide to MemBrain

Modeling an artificial neural network with many neurons is not easy, especially if you want to test many different versions of a neural network model. Fortunately, there are off-the-shelf tools available that can assist in such a task. MemBrain Neural Network Simulator, version 03.06.02.00, is such a tool. It allows users to model, teach, test, and export neural networks of arbitrary size and architecture (MemBrain, 2011).

MemBrain offers sufficient tutorials for novices to become acquainted with the program and its capabilities. Therefore, I will not describe how to create or teach a neural network. In order to use the trained neural network, it has to be exported. MemBrain can export a network in C code. Via the menu bar, code can be generated, see figure C1.

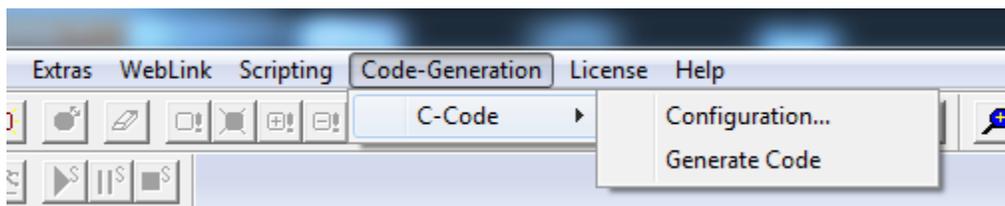


Figure C1: A screenshot of the code-generation menu in MemBrain.

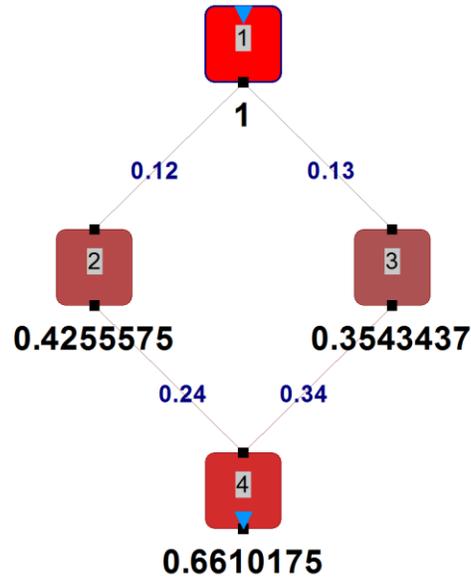


Figure C2: A very simple neural network in MemBrain. At the top, an input neuron (named 1) with activation 1 is visible. In the middle, the hidden neurons (2 and 3) are shown. At the bottom, output neuron (4) is visible. The weights are visible as the numbers on the lines between the neurons. The activation of the neurons is visible beneath the neuron.

The generated code for a very simple network, see figure C2, is located in a file named NeuralNetDef.c. Not shown in the figure are the activation thresholds of the hidden neurons, which are 0.22 for neuron 2 and 0.33 for neuron 3. The values of interest in this file look like this:

```

// additional parameters for all hidden neurons
const SHiddenNeuronParms NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[] =
{
  (FLOAT32)0.22, 0, 1,
  (FLOAT32)0.33, 1, 1
};

/// additional parameters for all output neurons
const SOutputNeuronParms NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[] =
{
  (FLOAT32)0, 2, 2
};

```

```
/// parameters for all links
const SNeuralLinkParms NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[] =
{
  (FLOAT32)0.12, 0,
  (FLOAT32)0.13, 0,
  (FLOAT32)0.24, 1,
  (FLOAT32)0.34, 2
};
```

For the NXC compiler to understand this code, some modifications are needed. Refer to appendix F for the proper syntax. The parameters for the hidden neurons consist of three values; the activation threshold, and two values that are used in looking up the weights for the incoming links to this neuron. For example for neuron 2: we know it has an activation threshold of 0.22. We can look this up in the array and notice neuron two is described in the first line (i.e. 0.22, 0, 1). The first number is the activation threshold. The second number is the location of the first link in the array with link information (NEURAL_LINK_PARMS). The third number (1) is the amount of input links, and thus the amount of lines in the link-array that have to be read. Observing the first line in the NEURAL_LINK_PARMS array confirms this is correct. We can observe the correct weight (0.12) for the link to neuron 2. In addition, in this line we observe another number. This number corresponds to an input neuron. In our case this is 0, as the input neuron is the first neuron (and in computer languages it is common to start counting at 0). To confirm this, we can look at the second line in the links-array and see that the second number is also a 0, which is fortunate because the weight 0.13 corresponds to the other link to the input neuron.

I am aware that the above does not seem very intuitive, but it is how the neural modeling tool MemBrain exports its neural networks (apparently, nothing is easy). It took

some effort on my part to comprehend this exported code, but with the above (and perhaps some trial-and-error); it should be possible for others to understand it readily.

Guide to code changes in BricxCC

The Lego Mindstorms brick can be programmed in Not eXactly C (NXC), which is a high-level language similar to C. NXC code can be compiled and uploaded to the brick using, BricxCC (BricxCC, 2011). For this thesis, the code was divided in two files; the algorithms (see appendix E) and the variables (see appendix F). The code in appendix E includes the 'task main', which starts all other tasks and sub routines. The code in appendix F is included at the top of the code in appendix E, effectively telling the compiler to start the byte-code with F and follow with E.

In most cases, changes in the code are done in appendix F only. For example, if the network learned new routes, the new exported network should replace the current network in the code. In addition, if the network layout has changed, values for the network layout in appendix F may have to be updated.

In some cases, adaptations need to be made to the program itself. To understand the program, a flowchart is included (see figure C3). When the program begins, first the user has to select a goal via the task 'goal button'. Then, the control task is started. This task keeps track of the sensors. The control task makes decisions based on the sensor data, and in particular, the color sensor. As long as the control task does not detect a color code, the lane-keeping task is activated. This task moves the robot forward and steers it clear of obstacles. When a color code is detected, the code is translated into a location. If this location is the destination, the program ends. If the location is not the destination, it is fed

to the navigation. This navigation task holds the artificial neural network. The network generates a turning decision (left, right or straight). A left or right turn cannot be executed by the lane-keeping task, and thus a separate task turns the robot in the desired direction. If the turn is completed, or no turn was required, the control task restarts the lane-keeping task. This moves the robot forward, until another (new) location is found.

Guide to Lego Mindstorms

The Lego Mindstorms platform is a very sophisticated toy, but a toy nonetheless. Maybe as such, it has its limitations, most notably for this thesis, the color sensor. It was not very reliable and extremely sensitive to the distance to the object. As described in the thesis, the sensor had problems with determining the correct color (e.g., the sensor found pink more red than actual red). Also, the sensor would only operate correctly if it was exactly 2 mm above the colored surface. Any bump in the surface or vibrations as the robot drove along caused the distance between sensor and surface to change. This meant the sensor registered black or more sporadically a different, unpredictable color. Often, this made the robot unable to reach its destination. It got lost.

A solution might be available. A different color sensor for the Lego Mindstorms platform is on the market; the HiTechnic NXT Color Sensor Version 2 for LEGO MINDSTORMS NXT (HiTechnic, 2011). This sensor can detect more colors (18 instead of 6) and it is less sensitive to surface-sensor distance, see figure C4.

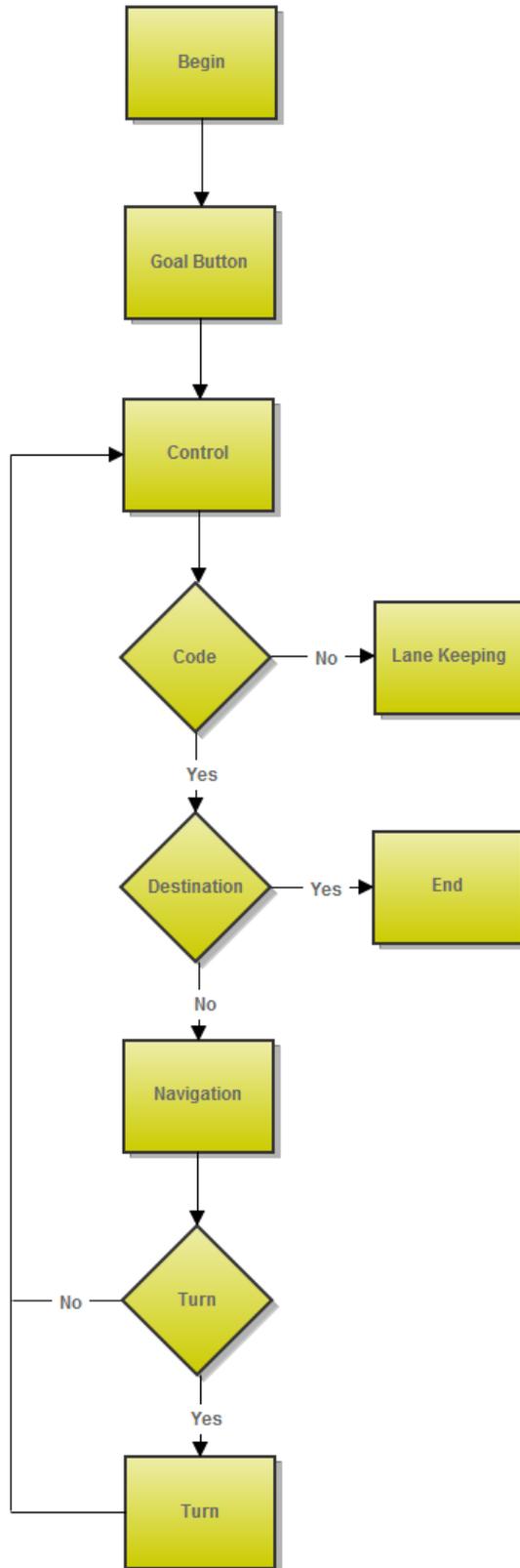


Figure C3: The flowchart for the Wobot software. The squares represent tasks and the diamonds represent decision points.

The Lego Mindstorms brick features a very limited amount of memory and little processing power. It has a 16 MHz processor and only 256 kilobytes of memory (shared storage and working memory). The processing and memory limits led to a pursuit of a setup in which the neural network could be run externally (on a PC). This would circumvent the limits of the brick and allow for online learning of the neural network.

A real-time Bluetooth connection to a PC was considered. It was investigated whether the robot could send real-time sensor data to a PC, which would send back motor commands. The way the Bluetooth is setup in the Mindstorms platform, would mean a minimum delay of 100-200 ms between when sensor data was send and when motor commands could be received. The Bluetooth radio in the brick would be solely responsible for this delay (Toledo, 2006). Other possible delays would add up, such as the processing of commands in the brick or learning of the neural network on the remote PC. Such delay seemed impractical in the navigation task (and the obstacle avoidance) and a locally run artificial neural network approach was pursued. This approach has an advantage. The neural network is 'really' embodied and not embodied but run externally.

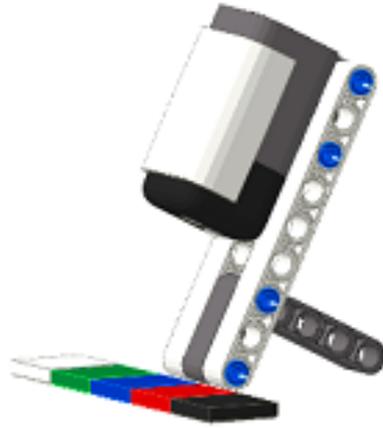


Figure C4: The HiTechnic NXT Color Sensor Version 2 for LEGO MINDSTORMS NXT in a setup that shows its optimal positioning (HiTechnic, 2011).

Building guide to Wobot

I created a Lego building guide for the robot. The guide is not included here, as it is rather voluminous. It is available on Google Docs, via:

https://docs.google.com/viewer?a=v&pid=explorer&chrome=true&srcid=0B4oq088EBZYeZjVhYTA4YzQtNTFkMi00OGI3LThjZDMtMDA1NTkxOTNjMTAw&hl=en_US

Appendix D: Neural network in MemBrain

In this appendix, the route finding network as modeled using MemBrain (2011) is displayed. This neural network learned a set of routes and the necessary turning decisions at the various locations along each route. In the figure location 9 is the goal and the current location is 8, resulting in the output 'straight'. See figure D1 caption for more details on the network layout.

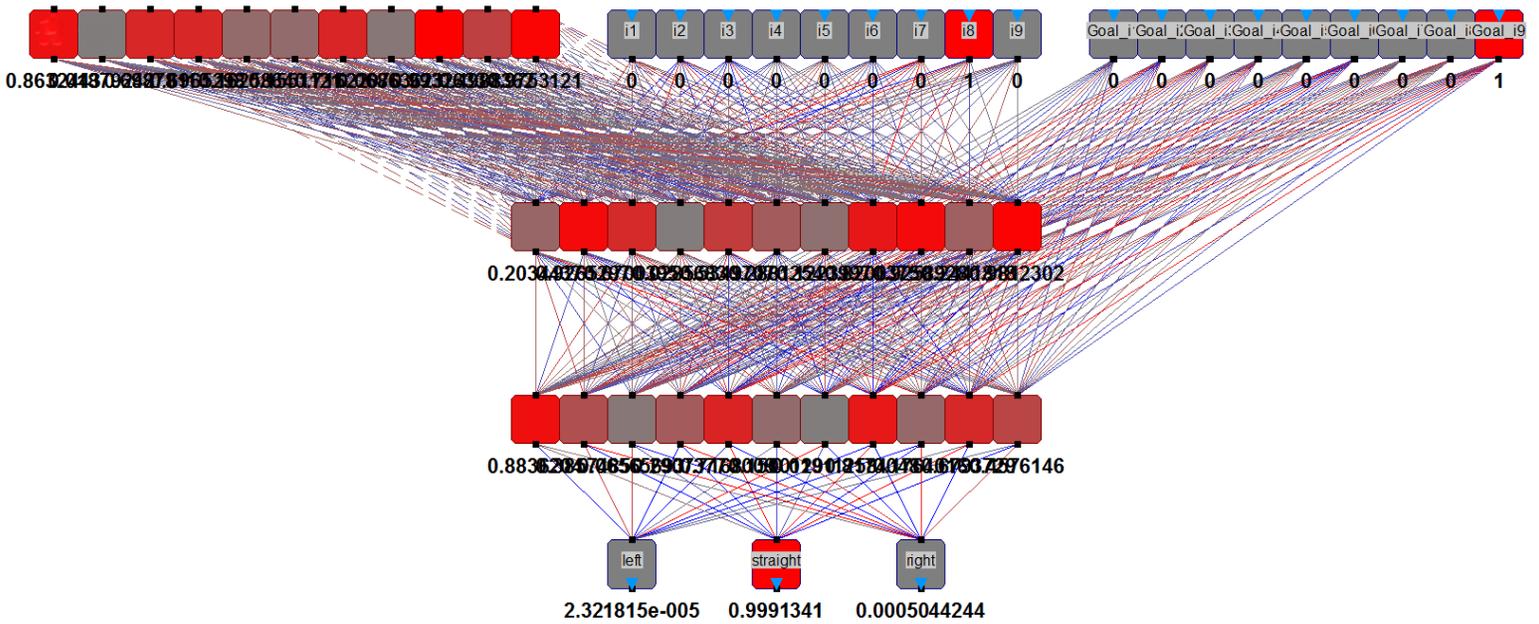


Figure D1: The route finding neural network as modeled in MemBrain. At the top the three input groups are visible. The top left shows a group of hidden neurons that are a copy of the previous activation in the first hidden layer. The top middle group of neurons inputs the current location to the network. At the top right, the neurons that encode for the goal location of a route are visible. At the bottom the output layer is visible, consisting of three neurons for the three possible turns. Between the input and output layers, the two hidden layers can be observed. (Image adapted from Membrain Neural Network Simulator).

Appendix E: NXC code, algorithms

The code used to embody the artificial neural network in the Lego Mindstorms robot is displayed in this and the next appendix. The code is organized in two appendices, because a differentiation was made between algorithms and variables. This appendix (E) contains all algorithms and the next appendix (F) contains all variables, including the variables for the neural networks. This means that someone who wants to change the weights of the neural network described in this thesis or the amount of neurons in the network, only makes changes to appendix F. If you wish to implement a different network, changes to the code described in this appendix might be necessary.

The code is written in Not eXactly C (NXC), which is a high-level language similar to C. It can be used to program the Lego Mindstorms NXT brick. NXC programs can be compiled and uploaded to the Lego Mindstorms brick using Bricx Command Center (BricxCC, 2011).

```
#include "include.nxc"

//using buttons to select goal, returns goal
sub goalbutton()
{
  TextOut(0, LCD_LINE1, "Select goal and");
  TextOut(0, LCD_LINE2, "press start:");
  goal = 1;//start at
  while ( ButtonPressed(BTNCENTER, true) != true ) //wait for start
  {
    ClearLine(LCD_LINE4);
    NumOut(0,LCD_LINE4, goal);
    if ( ButtonPressed(BTNRIGHT, true) != false) //press right is +1
    {
      if (goal < aant_locations) //highest goal is number of locations in maze
      {goal++;
        Wait(300);}
      else
    }
  }
}
```

```

else if ( ButtonPressed(BTNLEFT, true) != false) //left is -1
{
  if (goal > 1) //lowest goal is 1
  {goal--;
  Wait(300);}
  else
  }
else
}
ClearScreen();
TextOut(0,LCD_LINE1, "Ok, going to");
NumOut(0,LCD_LINE2, goal);
Wait(1000);
ClearScreen();
} //end goalbutton

//sensor can be called to renew sensordata (distance)
sub sensor()
{
  //what sensor on what port
  SetSensorLowspeed(IN_1);
  SetSensorLowspeed(IN_2);
  SetSensorLowspeed(IN_3);

  //reading sensor values
  DistMid = SensorUS(IN_1);
  DistRight = SensorUS(IN_2);
  DistLeft = SensorUS(IN_3);
} //end sensor

//sensorcolor can be called to update sensordata (color)
sub sensorColor() //extra steps because of noisy color sensor data
{
  SetSensorColorFull(IN_4);
  int sensorraw;
  int ik =0;

  while (true) //executes till new color is confirmed
  {
    sensorraw = Sensor(IN_4);
    Wait(1);

    if (sensorraw == Sensor(IN_4)) //true if after 1ms color is the same
    {
      ik++;
    }
    if (sensorraw != Sensor(IN_4)) //reset counter if color changed
    {

```

```

    ik=0;
  }
  if (ik > kleurnauwkeurigheid) //if color is the same for long enough (kleurnauwkeurigheid), Color is updated
  {
    Color = sensorraw; //update Color
    ik=0;
    NumOut(0, LCD_LINE8, Color);
    return; //stops sensorcolor
  }
} //einde while
/* color sensor color codes:
  1 = black
  2 = blue
  3 = green
  4 = yellow
  5 = red
  6 = white
*/
} //end sensorColor

//starting color shouldnt be black, sensor might be to close to ground
sub startcheck()
{
  sensorColor();
  while (Color == 1)
  {
    TextOut(0, LCD_LINE1, "Check colorsensor");
    TextOut(0, LCD_LINE2, "Color =");
    NumOut(50, LCD_LINE2, Color);
    sensorColor();
  }
} //end startcheck

//motorpwr can be called to change motorspeeds (by lane)
sub motorpwr(int C, int B)
{
  OnFwd(OUT_B, B);
  OnFwd(OUT_C, C);
}

//turning on an intersection is done by this quick and dirty function, takes direction and turns robot this way
sub turn(int direction)
{
  ClearLine(LCD_LINE1);
  TextOut(0, LCD_LINE1, "Turn");
  //little forward
  OnFwd(OUT_BC, turn_straight);
  Wait(1500);
}

```

```

//turn
if (direction == 0)      //left
{
  TextOut(60, LCD_LINE1, "Left");
  OnFwd(OUT_B, turn_circle);
  OnRev(OUT_C, turn_circle);
}
if (direction == 1)      //straight
{
  TextOut(60, LCD_LINE1, "Straight");
  OnFwd(OUT_B, turn_circle);
  OnFwd(OUT_C, turn_circle);
}
if (direction == 2)      //right
{
  TextOut(60, LCD_LINE1, "Right");
  OnRev(OUT_B, turn_circle);
  OnFwd(OUT_C, turn_circle);
}

Wait(600);
Coast(OUT_BC); //stop motors

op_kruising = false;
ClearLine(LCD_LINE1);
} //end turn

//task for lanekeeping, using a neural network
task lane()
{
  while (currentlocation != goal) //dont drive away when you are at your destination
  {
    while (op_kruising == false) //dont do lanekeeping when youre on an intersection
    {
      sensor(); //reading (distance)sensor

      //calculate input neuron activations
      //input neuron[0] represents distleft, [1] = right distance, [2] = forward distance
      //normalise distances to range 0 - 1, range neurons
      if ((DistLeft / DistMax) < 1){
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[0] = (DistLeft / DistMax);}
      else {
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[0] = 1; }

      if ((DistMid / DistMax) < 1){
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[2] = (DistMid / DistMax);}
      else {

```

```

LANE_NEURON_ACT[2] = 1; }

if ((DistRight / DistMax) <1){
LANE_NEURON_ACT[1] = (DistRight / DistMax);}
else {
LANE_NEURON_ACT[1] = 1; }

//display the neural input activation, you can use this to check whether the distance sensor work properly
ClearLine(LCD_LINE1);
ClearLine(LCD_LINE2);
TextOut(0, LCD_LINE1, "L M R");
NumOut(0, LCD_LINE2, LANE_NEURON_ACT[1]);
NumOut(40, LCD_LINE2, LANE_NEURON_ACT[2]);
NumOut(80, LCD_LINE2, LANE_NEURON_ACT[0]);
Wait(100);

//calculate hidden neurons
//i is used to 'walk through' activation of neurons in hidden layer
for (int i=0; i<aant_hid_lane;i++)
{
float InputSum = 0; //reset inputsum for next neuron
/*
First, calculate inputsum for current (i-th) neuron:
for-loop(j) selects relevant data: from start pointer
till (startpointer + nr of connections).
Select links (ie. weights) to current neuron.
Other words, forloop sums all ("link weight" * "activation of neuron on the other side of this link")
for all input connections to the current neuron
*/
for (int j = LANE_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i ) + 1)];
j < (LANE_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i ) + 1)] +
LANE_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i ) + 2) ]); j++)
{
InputSum += (LANE_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[(2*j)] *
LANE_NEURON_ACT[ (LANE_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[((2*j)+1) ]) ]);
}
//next calculate and update activation of current (i-th) neuron:
LANE_NEURON_ACT[( i + aant_in_lane)] = ACT(InputSum, LANE_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[(3*i)];
} //end calculation hidden neurons

//calculate output neurons
//workings are similar to hidden neuron calculation
for (int i=0;i<aant_out_lane;i++)
{
float InputSum = 0;
for (int j= LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i ) + 1)];
j < (LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i ) + 1)] +
LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i ) + 2) ]); j++)

```

```

    {
        InputSum += (LANE_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[(2*j)] *
                    LANE_NEURON_ACT[ (LANE_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[((2*) + 1)]) ] );
    }
    //calculate activation of neuron and normalize
    if (normalize == 1)
    {
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[(i+ aant_in_lane + aant_hid_lane)] = ((
        (ACT(InputSum,LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[(3*i)]) *2)-1);
    } else if (normalize == 0)
    {
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[(i+ aant_in_lane + aant_hid_lane)] =
        (ACT(InputSum,LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[(3*i)]));
    }
    }//end output calculation

    //motor power * activation motoneurons
    motorpwr((Pwr * LANE_NEURON_ACT[7]), (Pwr * LANE_NEURON_ACT[8]));

    //reset neurons for next iteration, not necessary for well trained networks
    for (int c=0;c<aant_neur_lane;c++)
    {
        LANE_NEURON_ACT[c] = 0;
    }

    }//end while loop for lane keeping
} //end while current location != goal
} //end task lane

```

```

sub kruising() //kruising is Dutch for intersection
{
    for (int i = 0; i<aant_iteraties; i++)
    {
        //input has range of 0 to 1

        //input neurons
        /*
        Input neurons for my network are supposed to go from NAV_NEURON_ACT[0]
        till NAV_NEUR_ACT[20], this means that:

        vorige turns:
        [0] = links
        [1] = rechtdoor
        [2] = right

        currentlocations:

```

[3-11] are locations 1-9

goals

[12-20] are goals 1-9

*/

//first input reset to 0

for (int j=0; j<aant_in_nav;j++)

{NAV_NEURON_ACT[j] = 0;}

//then vorige turn activeren

if (direction != 99) //deze if zet alleen vorige turn aan als ie niet net geinitialiseerd is, en er dus daadwerkelijk een vorige turn is

{NAV_NEURON_ACT[direction] = 1;}

//dan current location

NAV_NEURON_ACT[(currentlocation + 2)] = 1;

//dan goal

NAV_NEURON_ACT[(goal + 11)] = 1;

//hidden berekenen, i loopt van begin tot eind aantal hidden neuronen

//i wordt gebruikt om activatie van neuronen door te stappen

for (int i=0; i<aant_hid_nav;i++)

{

//reset voor volgend neuron

float InputSumN = 0;

/*

Eerst inputsom betreffende neuron berekenen:

for-loop(j) selecteert relevante data: van begin pointer

tot (beginpointer + aantal).

Linkjes (ie. weights) naar het betreffende neuron selecteren

*/

for (int j = NAV_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i) + 1)];

 j < (NAV_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i) + 1)] +

 NAV_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[((3 * i) + 2)]; j++)

{

 InputSumN += (NAV_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[(2*j)] *

 NAV_NEURON_ACT[(NAV_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[((2*j)+1))]]);

 }

//dan activatie van betreffende neuron berekenen:

NAV_NEURON_ACT[(i + aant_in_nav)] = ACTN(InputSumN, NAV_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[(3*i)];

}//einde hidden berekenen

//outneuronen berekenen

for (int i=0;i<aant_out_nav;i++)

```

{
//reset voor volgend neuron
float InputSumN = 0;
    for (int j= NAV_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i) + 1)];
        j < (NAV_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i) + 1)] +
            NAV_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[((3 * i) + 2)]); j++)
    {
        InputSumN += (NAV_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[(2*j)] *
            NAV_NEURON_ACT[ (NAV_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[((2*j) + 1))] ]);
    }
NAV_NEURON_ACT[(i+ aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav)] =
(ACTN(InputSumN,NAV_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[(3*i)])) ;

}

//einde output berekenen

//welke output heft grootst (winner takes all) is berekenen, output consequentie
if ( (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 1)]) && (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 2)]) )
{ direction = 0; }
if ( (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 1)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav)]) && (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 1)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 2)]) )
{ direction = 1; }
if ( (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 2)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav)]) && (NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 2)] > NAV_NEURON_ACT[(aant_in_nav + aant_hid_nav + 1)]) )
{ direction = 2; }
//output betekend:
//direction: left = 0, straight = 1, right = 2

}

//einde forloop

//output geven aan turn
turn(direction);
ClearLine(LCD_LINE7);
NumOut(0, LCD_LINE7, direction);
TextOut(10, LCD_LINE7, "direction");
Wait(2000);

//neuronen resetten voor volgende iteratie
/*for (int a=0;a<aant_neur_nav;a++)
{
    NAV_NEURON_ACT[a] = 0;
} */
} //einde navigatie

sub code() //hij komt hier binnen als ie van wit af is

```

```

{
int j = 0;
int temp = 0;

while (Color != 6) //zolang niet op wit (=kruispunt) kleur opslaan
{
/* if ((j == 0) && (Color != 0) && (Color !=6) && (Color !=1) && (aant_strepen_kleurcode > j)) //eerste kleur
    opslaan
{
    CurrentCode[j] = Color;
    j++;
} */

sensorColor(); //volgende kleur halen

if ((Color != temp) && (Color != 0) && (Color !=6) && (Color !=1) && (aant_strepen_kleurcode > j)) //true als
    nieuwe kleur, niet lege waarde en niet zwart of wit
    {
        CurrentCode[j] = Color;
        temp = Color;
        j++;
        ClearLine(LCD_LINE5);
        NumOut(0, LCD_LINE5, j);
        TextOut(10, LCD_LINE5, "Colors counted");
    }
/*if (aant_strepen_kleurcode < j)
{
    return; //uit while stappen
} */
} //einde while
ClearLine(LCD_LINE5);

//Kleurcode vertalen naar currentlocation
for (int i=0; i<aant_locations; i++)//aantal kruisingen doorlopen
{
    int teller = 0;
    for (int k=0; k<aant_strepen_kleurcode; k++) //aantal kleuren in kleurcode doorlopen
    {
        if ( COLORCODE[ ((i*(aant_strepen_kleurcode +1)) + k) ] == CurrentCode[ k ] )
        {
            teller++;
        }

        if (teller == aant_strepen_kleurcode)//dus 3 opeenvolgende kleuren kloppen
        {
            currentlocation = COLORCODE[(i*(aant_strepen_kleurcode +1) + aant_strepen_kleurcode)];
        }
    }
}

```

```

    }//einde currentlocation bepalen
    NumOut(0, LCD_LINE3, currentlocation);
    TextOut(10, LCD_LINE3, "Location");
    //Wait(1000);
} //einde code()

//kleurcodes lezen/bewaren/bewerken om lanekeeping of navigatie te beheren
task colorcode()
{
    op_kruising = false; //begint nooit op kruising, dan leest ie kleuren bij kruising afrijden (kwesties)
    //destination bereikt of niet
    while (currentlocation != goal)
    {
        sensorColor();

        //wait for white (sensorcode 6)
        if ((Color == 6) && (blackcount == 0)) //op kruising (1e zwarte lijn), verwacht nu kleurcode
        {
            blackcount = 1;
        }
        if ((Color != 6) && (blackcount == 1)) //op kleurcode
        {
            blackcount = 2;
            code(); //kleurcode lezen

            if (currentlocation == goal)
            {
                ClearScreen();
                TextOut(0, LCD_LINE1, "Arrived!");
                blackcount = 10;
                //Wait(500);
                stop lane;
                Coast(OUT_BC);
                Wait(5000);
                //play victory sound

                abort();
            }
            if (currentlocation == 0) //no code found, reset
            {
                TextOut(0, LCD_LINE8, "geen code");
                blackcount = 0;
            }
        }
    }

    if ((Color == 6) && (blackcount == 2) && (currentlocation != goal)) //van kleurcode af en op kruispunt
    {

```

```

op_kruising = true; //stopt lanekeeping
stop lane;
Coast(OUT_BC); //stop motors
TextOut(0,LCD_LINE1,"Voorkruising!");
Wait(500);

kruising(); //kruising rekest volgende stap uit en draait robot bij

TextOut(0,LCD_LINE2,"Nakruising!");
Wait(500);
op_kruising = false;
start lane;
blackcount = 3;
}

if ((Color != 6) && (blackcount == 3)) //van kruispunt af (op reverse kleurcode)
{
    blackcount = 4;
}

if ((Color == 6) && (blackcount == 4)) //op afsluitende witte lijn
{
    blackcount = 5;
}

if ((Color != 6) && (blackcount == 5)) //hele kruising verlaten
{
    blackcount = 0; //reset
}

} //einde while, betekend op goallocatie
}

task main()
{
    //startchecks doen: bv pas doorgaan als sensor niet zwart leest
    startcheck();

    //buttons gebruiken om goal te selecteren
    goalbutton();

    //controle en lane taak starten
    Precedes(colorcode, lane);
}

```

Appendix F: NXC code, variables

In this appendix, the variables for the artificial neural network are listed.

```
//parameters for navigation
int Color;
int goal;
bool op_kruising;
int direction = 99; //put it in impossible position at first
const int aant_strepen_kleurcode = 3;
const int aant_locations = 9;
const int aant_iteraties = 1; //how many iterations should the navigation network run for each instance

//parameters voor turn
int turn_circle = 60; //turn_circle = 75 is about 90 graden
int turn_straight = 60; //65 is about 12cm

//colorcode stuff
int CurrentCode[aant_strepen_kleurcode];
int currentlocation;
bool kleurlezen;
int kleurnauwkeurigheid = 120; //time that color is constant in ms
int blackcount = 0;

/*kleurcodes invullen en bijbehorende intersectienr
volgens format: kleur1, kleur2, ..., kleurn, intersectienr,
color sensor color codes:
    1 = black
    2 = blue
    3 = green
    4 = yellow
    5 = red
    6 = white
*/
const int COLORCODE[] =
{
4, 3, 5, 1,
4, 5, 3, 2,
3, 4, 5, 3,
3, 5, 4, 4,
5, 4, 3, 5,
5, 3, 4, 6,
4, 3, 4, 7,
4, 5, 4, 8,
3, 4, 3, 9
};
```

```

//dingen voor lanekeeping:
const byte DistMax = 25; //aangeven hoe breed de lane is
const bool normalize = 1; //outputneuronen normalizeren naar -1 / 0
long t;

//sensordata globaal beschikbaar
float DistMid;
float DistRight;
float DistLeft;

//motoractivaties
int B;
int C;
int Pwr = 40; //% motorvermogen in lanekeeping

//individuele neuron activatie
float Act;
float ActN;

//formule waarmee activatie van neuron uitgerekend wordt
//let wel, moet per netwerk andere naam ivm globale bereikbaarheid
#define ACT(InputSum,ActThres) \
Act = (1 / (1 + exp(-3 * ( InputSum - ActThres))))

#define ACTN(InputSumN,ActThres) \
ActN = (1 / (1 + exp(-3 * ( InputSumN - ActThres))))

//activatie array voor alle lanekeeping neuronen
//aangeven hoeveel neuronen in netwerk zitten
const byte aant_in_lane = 3;
const byte aant_hid_lane = 4;
const byte aant_out_lane = 2;
const byte aant_neur_lane = (aant_in_lane + aant_hid_lane + aant_out_lane);

//aantal en volgorde in array is: input,hidden,output
float LANE_NEURON_ACT[aant_neur_lane];

// additional parameters for all hidden neurons
const float LANE_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[] =
{
    1.787173, 0, 3,
    1.532864, 3, 3,
    1.526465, 6, 3,
    -0.220554, 9, 3
};

// additional parameters for all output neurons

```

```
const float LANE_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[] =
{
  4.46833, 12, 4,
  4.46615, 16, 4
};
```

```
// parameters for all links
```

```
const float LANE_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[] =
{
  1.465972, 0,
  -8.213511, 2,
  1.478527, 1,
  -1.613683, 0,
  1.048116, 2,
  1.26477, 1,
  1.043337, 2,
  1.248727, 0,
  -1.608341, 1,
  0.2584444, 0,
  0.4347664, 2,
  0.275253, 1,
  -1.9963, 3,
  0.4715854, 4,
  -2.192937, 5,
  5.784505, 6,
  -1.992644, 3,
  -2.214939, 4,
  0.4767092, 5,
  5.779757, 6
};
```

```
//aangeven hoeveel neuronen in netwerk zitten
```

```
const int aant_in_nav = 21;
const int aant_out_nav = 3;
const int aant_neur_nav = 57;
const int aant_hid_nav = (aant_neur_nav - aant_in_nav - aant_out_nav);
```

```
//activatie array voor navigatie
```

```
float NAV_NEURON_ACT[aant_neur_nav];
```

```
/// additional parameters for all hidden neurons
```

```
const float NAV_NEURON_PARMS_HIDDEN[] =
{
  -0.1036854, 0, 11,
```

```

0.3668929, 11, 11,
-0.0792937, 22, 11,
0.136707, 33, 11,
0.1657436, 44, 11,
0.4446662, 55, 11,
0.02316822, 66, 11,
-0.4624779, 77, 11,
0.2528726, 88, 11,
0.1511817, 99, 11,
-0.1358419, 110, 11,
-0.2447201, 121, 23,
0.3746862, 144, 23,
0.2375473, 167, 23,
-0.2593883, 190, 23,
0.5223933, 213, 23,
-0.1775616, 236, 23,
0.2903008, 259, 23,
0.1447954, 282, 23,
-0.3591918, 305, 23,
0.07387462, 328, 23,
-0.1795402, 351, 23,
-0.1821245, 374, 20,
-0.3109728, 394, 20,
0.09184624, 414, 20,
0.2914523, 434, 20,
0.2093737, 454, 20,
0.2012111, 474, 20,
-0.1866476, 494, 20,
-0.2810805, 514, 20,
0.2923291, 534, 20,
0.4272424, 554, 20,
-0.2929862, 574, 20
};

/// additional parameters for all output neurons
const float NAV_NEURON_PARMS_OUTPUT[] =
{
    0, 594, 11,
    0, 605, 11,
    0, 616, 11
};

```

```

/*note, for paper saving purposes the next pages
  are printed in two columns.*/
/// parameters for all links
const float NAV_NEURAL_LINK_PARMS[] =
{
  -0.04607612, 32,
  -0.1947516, 33,
  -0.3001059, 34,
  0.6478656, 35,
  -0.03749508, 36,
  -0.07418891, 37,
  0.3079551, 38,
  -0.5852257, 39,
  -0.2629418, 40,
  -0.4791997, 41,
  0.5395703, 42,
  0.07460979, 32,
  -0.4270882, 33,
  0.1951688, 34,
  0.1608358, 35,
  -0.2354473, 36,
  -0.5623091, 37,
  -0.1322427, 38,
  0.3661621, 39,
  -0.1363909, 40,
  0.3225932, 41,
  0.03897578, 42,
  0.03463511, 32,
  0.1099743, 33,
  -0.06871366, 34,
  -0.453012, 35,
  0.3071162, 36,
  -0.4532845, 37,
  0.2529164, 38,
  0.3778346, 39,
  -0.1128644, 40,
  -0.2490854, 41,
  -0.2266207, 42,
  0.2607281, 32,
  -0.02187565, 33,
  0.1389747, 34,
  -0.1478053, 35,
  0.2808233, 36,
  -0.2202783, 37,
  -0.3686299, 38,
  0.5485493, 39,
  0.1837366, 40,
  0.2129322, 41,
  -0.4919814, 42,
  -0.2063357, 32,
  -0.2189116, 33,
  0.4101669, 34,
  -0.3059344, 35,
  -0.1173352, 36,
  0.4952284, 37,
  0.319669, 38,
  -0.345582, 39,
  0.553055, 40,
  -0.0640868, 41,
  -0.1430984, 42,
  0.3081809, 32,
  0.1651343, 33,
  0.06825195, 34,
  0.2970314, 35,
  -0.3491393, 36,
  -0.5337529, 37,
  -0.05655213, 38,
  -0.2778435, 39,
  0.3125094, 40,
  -0.01718545, 41,
  -0.3100598, 42,
  0.02805696, 32,
  -0.1966186, 33,
  0.2533906, 34,
  0.178807, 35,
  0.3086085, 36,
  -0.3195972, 37,
  -0.06904113, 38,
  -0.3500529, 39,
  0.5155271, 40,
  0.4395974, 41,
  -0.2664073, 42,
  -0.1837437, 32,
  -0.1964326, 33,
  0.2940291, 34,
  0.3270709, 35,
  -0.05993629, 36,
  -0.07427272, 37,
  -0.3307962, 38,
  0.4283512, 39,
  0.1910288, 40,
  0.5065045, 41,
  0.142001, 42,
  -0.2341973, 32,
  0.3408906, 33,
  -0.4969815, 34,

```

0.3812514, 35,	-0.2131065, 27,
0.3566203, 36,	-0.1866099, 28,
-0.6033241, 37,	0.3726676, 29,
-0.1363282, 38,	0.1529743, 30,
0.3806947, 39,	0.398362, 31,
-0.1659743, 40,	-0.3124259, 0,
-0.2010765, 41,	0.4367426, 1,
0.1067511, 42,	0.08342322, 2,
0.1525594, 32,	0.1501504, 3,
0.0593756, 33,	-0.8159302, 4,
0.3407933, 34,	0.1647574, 5,
0.1622232, 35,	-0.5934923, 6,
-0.1515111, 36,	0.2099046, 7,
-0.2928939, 37,	-0.4244855, 8,
-0.1898366, 38,	-0.06528184, 9,
0.1062621, 39,	0.02422303, 10,
0.04453474, 40,	0.2619441, 11,
-0.1789008, 41,	0.2246569, 21,
0.1917746, 42,	-0.1104576, 22,
-0.6005276, 32,	-0.1335697, 23,
-0.03043847, 33,	0.1704974, 24,
-0.002461593, 34,	-0.06273952, 25,
-0.002688768, 35,	0.2479293, 26,
-0.3020954, 36,	0.295205, 27,
-0.0514572, 37,	0.0974323, 28,
-0.2743056, 38,	0.4271264, 29,
-0.4378282, 39,	0.4659519, 30,
0.3198417, 40,	-0.4629402, 31,
0.08757166, 41,	0.1508776, 0,
-0.5900541, 42,	-0.1544592, 1,
0.01981992, 0,	0.3731623, 2,
0.4609876, 1,	-0.3564397, 3,
-0.6030329, 2,	-0.117988, 4,
0.425017, 3,	-0.4389415, 5,
-0.2740159, 4,	0.3343066, 6,
-0.1655155, 5,	0.3196306, 7,
0.4094033, 6,	0.2857715, 8,
0.2954924, 7,	0.5379475, 9,
0.4902398, 8,	-0.002340018, 10,
0.09393275, 9,	-0.1117715, 11,
0.1422298, 10,	0.096283, 21,
0.2404379, 11,	0.03931276, 22,
-0.01258026, 21,	-0.4283414, 23,
0.3242318, 22,	-0.3486025, 24,
0.2591584, 23,	0.4855166, 25,
-0.510666, 24,	0.3614636, 26,
0.04626951, 25,	-0.225259, 27,
0.3750233, 26,	0.4113329, 28,

0.1765543, 29,
0.2382559, 30,
0.357497, 31,
-0.1390974, 0,
0.02428469, 1,
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