Deep Learning and Brain Science: Modeling Neural Mechanisms to Enhance Learning and Memory in Education

Akash Mahamud¹, Jesmin Akter², Yu Zeyuan³,

Abstract

Deep learning is based on a brain-inspired model of learning and memory. Why are they essential? Deep learning architectures are based on how the brain works and how it retains information (using mechanisms like synaptic plasticity, spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP), and Hierarchical processing). These models connect cognitive neuroscience with educational technology, allowing educators to tailor learning modules to how students mentally process information. Neural principles such as Hebbian learning and attention are integrated into artificial intelligence to spur innovations around knowledge retention, memory consolidation, and adaptive tutoring systems. In addition, neuromorphic computing offers energy-efficient architectures for online feedback in educational systems. The potential of this intersectional approach to revolutionize education, promote sustainable learning, and improve accessibility and engagement cannot be overstated. With the help of deep learning and brain-inspired approaches, educational technology can transform how we teach and learn on a large scale.

Keywords: Deep Learning, Brain Science, Neural Mechanisms, Learning Memory, Educational Technology,.

Introduction

Deep learning refers to the cognitive process of learning information, values, and skills through formal or informal education and training. This is one of the most successful brain processes, assisting individuals in their economic, social, and intellectual development and allowing them to find employment that enables them to maintain a certain standard of living (Hertzog et al., 2008). The process of learning begins in early infancy. It continues throughout life since the brain is constantly expanding and changing in real-time as it adjusts to new knowledge and situations, and formal education has a distinct influence on the development of abilities, talents, potential, and knowledge (Siegel, 2020).

In recent years, deep learning and neuroscience has become a significant method for integrating the educational performance. By using perception to influence brain processes that strengthen learning and memory, deep learning models could be developed to enhance cognitive functions and customize learning experiences (Richards et al., 2019). On the other hand, when artificial intelligence (AI) and neuroscience are combined, learning can create learning environments adaptable to each student's needs, help them remember things better, and make learning more efficient. In this study, deep learning is a separation of machine learning and uses neural networks with several layers to model high-level abstractions from data. These models have substantially succeeded in various disciplines, including image and audio recognition and natural language processing. Deep learning algorithms in education can design personalized learning systems that dynamically adjust to the cognitive states of students (Wu et al., 2024). Cognitive neuroscience and neuroplasticity convey significant insights into the brain's mechanisms for processing, storing, and retrieving information; this understanding is crucial for developing instructional technologies that correspond with the brain's inherent learning mechanisms (Word, 2029; Oudeyer et al., 2016). Brain memory's ability to reorganize by forming new neural networks, identified as neuroplasticity, implies that deep learning is a continuous process that targeted treatments can enhance (Voss et al., 2017). Understanding cognitive load theory, which states that each learner has limited mental energy, makes it easier to create adaptive learning systems that prevent cognitive overload and create the best education environment. This study aims to investigate the convergence of deep learning and brain science, precisely how deep learning models may replicate and optimize neural processes that improve learning and memory

¹ Faculty of Teacher Education, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Email: md.suvro@yahoo.com

² Faculty of Psychology, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Email: jesmincug@yahoo.com. (Second Corresponding Author)

³ Faculty of Teacher Education, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Email: yuzeyuan@swu.edu.cn. (First Corresponding Author)

in educational institutions. It will specifically discuss how deep learning could generate personalized learning experiences compatible with the brain's ability to build memories and consume cognitive information. This research on deep learning in educational contexts discusses future approaches for merging brain-based learning theories with AI-driven technology.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Integrating deep learning and brain science to progress learning and memory in education and a fastexpanding field of study. The literature review examines significant concepts from deep learning and brain research and how they could be employed to facilitate the development of educational technologies that enhance learning outcomes.

Deep Learning in Education

Deep learning, an aspect of artificial intelligence, has shown significant promise in altering numerous parts of education, including personalized learning and assessment, content, and educational insights (Maghsudi et al., 2021). Artificial neural networks, a proportion of deep learning algorithms, can potentially advance learning experiences in ways that traditional educational technologies cannot expand (Chen et al., 2019). However, the ANNs are designed to replicate how the human brain processes information. These intersections are deep learning methodologies and neuroscientific applications, focusing on their implications for understanding brain functions, modelling neural processes, and advancing medical applications (Leisman, 2022).

Adaptive Learning Systems

Deep learning is an up-and-coming technique for education. It is the development of adaptive learning systems, which use deep learning algorithms to adapt learning experiences established on individual student needs, abilities, and progress (Demartini et al., 2024). By analyzing data from student interactions and engagement with content, deep learning models can adjust the difficulty of the material, provide personalized feedback, and propose appropriate learning resources (Siemens, 2013). For instance, platforms like Knewton and Dream Box adjust content in real-time, ensuring students always work within their proximal development zone. This study explores dynamic adjustment, which aligns with cognitive science theories, emphasizing the importance of scaffolding and progressive learning in educational settings (Vygotsky, 1978).

Neural Networks and Memory

In Addition, the significant application of deep learning is the expansion of intelligent tutoring systems (ITS), which use neural networks to simulate human-like interactions and provide personalized instruction. These structures can imitate the neural mechanisms of learning and memory by exhausting reinforcement learning algorithms, which reward students based on their performance; by modeling learning as a process of response and adjustment, ITS can enhance memory retention and promote deeper learning (VanLehn, 2011). Moreover, deep learning algorithms are used to envisage increased memory. However, psychological research in education states that spaced repetition revisiting information at increasing intervals helps improve long-term memory retention (Ebbinghaus, 1913). The researcher Dunlosky et al. (2013) examine that deep learning models can analyze students' conduct and determine the optimal timing for reviewing material to maximize memory consolidation and retrieval.

Brain Science and Learning

Brain science affords acute insights into the neural mechanisms that inspire learning and memory. Cognitive neuroscience and neuroplasticity schemes provide valuable knowledge that can inform the design of educational technologies.

Neuroplasticity and Learning

Neuroplasticity discusses the brain's capability to reorganize new neural connections to the learning experience; this perception challenges the traditional observation that the brain's structure is fixed after a certain age and has significant educational implications (Doidge, 2007). As a result, this understanding that learning can physically reshape the brain allows for designing educational interventions to foster neural growth and improve learning efficiency. Incorporating neuroplasticity into deep learning models allows for the development of educational tools that optimize memory formation and retention. For example, deep learning algorithms can design educational experiences that stimulate neuroplasticity by engaging students in tasks involving cognitive exertion and problem-solving. Active deep learning has been shown to strengthen neural connections and improve memory (Reber,2013).

Cognitive Load Theory

Sweller (1988) recommended that cognitive load theory presents a significant alternative concept in brain science that significantly affects how instructional technology is designed. According to these theories, the brain has an inadequate capability for processing information, and problem-solving activities are not highly beneficial for schema acquisition, which has been proven by increasing scientific evidence. Consequently, instructional methods are essential for alleviating the external cognitive burden from superfluous information that hinders learning and optimizing inherent cognitive strain from information crucial for comprehending the topic. Deep learning algorithms can assess students' cognitive load in real time and modify task difficulty appropriately. Examining configurations in student involvement and deep learning simulations, they may identify indicators of cognitive stress and adjust the learning environment to mitigate it. AI-driven tutoring systems may simplify activities when students exhibit disengagement, enabling them to refocus and assimilate material more efficiently (VanLehn, 2011).

Memory Consolidation and Spaced Repetition

Memory Consolidation is how information is reassigned from short-term to long-term reminiscence, which is influenced by sleep, rehearsal, and spaced repetition (Wagner et al., 2001). According to new research in cognitive neuroscience, gaps in learning can help memories stick by being timed so that they are intentionally missed between learning sessions (Cepeda et al., 2006). Deep learning procedures can generate instructional systems that use spaced repetition and assist students in reviewing knowledge at intervals according to their educational needs. Neuroscience technology can significantly improve learning retention and recall in educational settings.

Assimilation the deep learning and brain science in education

The amalgamation of deep learning and brain science can transform individuals' teaching. The brain's processes model and neural mechanisms involved in learning memory; AI-powered educational tools can be designed to create personalized learning environments.

Personalized Learning Memory Optimization

Deep learning systems that use brain concepts from science can deliver personalized learning experiences that improve memory retention and cognitive processing. For example, AI-powered systems could modify the content and presentation on the learner's cognitive area to ensure the material is additionally challenging and easy to comprehend (Siemens, 2013). Furthermore, educational technology may also increase long-term memory retention by using algorithms which imitate the brain's systems for storing and consolidating memories. On the other hand, AI systems may also evaluate student progress in real-time and make modifications to improve learning results. Deep learning algorithms, for example, may reinforce essential ideas through spaced repetition and boost the chance of knowledge retention over time (Cepeda et al., 2006).

Brain-Inspired Neural Networks

In this research, deep learning algorithms are the function of human brains and artificial neural networks. These networks mimic how neurons transmit information across synapses, allowing machines to learn from data in ways similar to human learning (LeCun et al., 2015). In addition, these networks are used to create intelligent tutoring systems and adaptive learning platforms that model how the brain processes and stores information. Research has also shown that deep learning systems can simulate cognitive tasks, language acquisition, problem-solving, and decision-making, which is ideal for educational applications (Hinton et al., 2012). By incorporating brain science into the design of these systems, educators can create learning experiences that more closely align with how the brain naturally processes information.

Deep Learning and Brain Science - Modeling Neural Mechanisms to Enhance Learning and Memory in Education

Integrating deep learning with brain science offers transformative potential in modelling and improving learning and memory processes within education. The theoretical framework combines conceptions from neuroscience, cognitive psychology, machine learning, and educational technology to establish a forceful foundation for advancing educational methodologies and technologies.

Neuroscientific Foundations of Learning and Memory

Integrating neuroscience into educational modernization mostly depends on understanding the brain's memory and learning processes. Brain plasticity, encoding, and retrieval theories directly influence deep learning models.

Neural Plasticity

Neural plasticity, the brain's capacity to remodel itself in response to experience, is a significant learning driver. Kolb et al. (2001) explain that synaptic strength, dendritic development, and axonal sprouting contribute to plasticity. These concepts may have been replicated in artificial neural networks (ANNs), which strengthen and reduce connections depending on learning gradients. Neural plasticity relates to the brain's incredible ability to reorganize its function in retort to learning. Also, this function capability defines crucial cognitive behavioral changes, making it a vital part of learning and memory (Galván, 2010). Neural plasticity has gathered disquiet through disciplines, not only for its biological relevance but also for its impact on computational simulations (Reilly, 2022). However, this approach associates neuroscience and machine learning by investigating the biological principles underpinning plasticity and their replication in ANNs.

Mechanisms of Neural Plasticity

Neural plasticity arises through changes at multiple levels of brain organization. According to Kula et al., (2017), three key mechanisms contribute to neural plasticity:

- a) **Synaptic Strength:** The modulation of synaptic strength is at the core of neural flexibility. Two well-studied processes are long-term potentiation and long-term depression. LTP increases synaptic strength, often triggered by high-frequency stimulation, whereas LTD decreases synaptic strength following low-frequency stimulation (Bliss & Lømo, 1973). These changes occur through modifications in receptor density, neurotransmitter release, and ion channel activity.
- b) Dendritic Development: Dendrites are highly dynamic branching structures of neurons. They can extend, retract, or modify their spines to form new synaptic connections. The morphology of dendritic spines is closely related with learning memory. For instance, animal models' enriched environments have increased dendritic arborization, showing that experiences can shape brain architecture (Kolb et al., 2010).

c) **Axonal Sprouting:** Neurons can generate new axonal branches that connect with previously unconnected neurons. Axonal sprouting is particularly prominent after brain injury, allowing the brain to reroute signals and partially compensate for lost functions.

Applications of Neural Plasticity in Learning and Recovery

Neural plasticity is essential to numerous procedures:

- a) **Learning and Memory:** Neural circuits were adjusted to encode new information. Hebbian theory, encapsulated in the phrase "cells that fire together, wire together," underscores the importance of synchronized activity in strengthening neural connections (Hebb, 1949).
- b) **Development:** During critical periods of development, the brain is remarkably plastic. Sensory experiences shape neural maps, such as the somatosensory and visual cortices, through competitive processes that prune redundant connections (Hensch, 2005).
- c) **Recovery from Injury:** After a stroke or traumatic brain injury, neural plasticity facilitates functional recovery. Rehabilitation therapies, such as constraint-induced movement therapy, capitalize on this adaptive capacity by encouraging the use of affected limbs to strengthen neural pathways (Taub et al., 2006).

Parallels in Artificial Neural Networks

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) draw inspiration from the principles of biological neural plasticity. ANNs are computational systems that mimic the brain's ability to learn and adapt. Two aspects of ANNs reflect biological plasticity:

- a) **Weight Adjustment:** In ANNs, the connections between bumps (analogous to synapses) are represented by weights. This learning process occurs through algorithms that adjust these weights to minimize error. This process mirrors synaptic plasticity, where the strength of connections changes in response to activity patterns (Goodfellow et al., 2016).
- b) **Pruning and Dropout:** Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) use pruning and dropout strategies to eliminate insignificant connections, similar to the brain's synaptic pruning function. These methods enhance computational efficiency and reduce overfitting, analogous to how the brain refines its networks during development (Srivastava et al., 2014).

The Role of the Hippocampus and Prefrontal Cortex

The efficient anatomy of the brain system that provisions memory for routine measures affords preliminary perceptions of how the brain encodes, organizes, and retrieves memories (Svoboda et al., 2006). We familiarize ourselves with information system entities and proceedings, and the places where they occur are processed (separately in the cerebral cortex). Thus, multiple sensory pathways for vision, touch, hearing, and initially process information about the identity of perceptual objects and events and their outputs, which then converge onto multimodal cortical 'association' areas (Rohe & Zeise, 2021). On the other hand, this study discusses these pathways as the information flow for 'what' we remember. There is also a distinct stream of pathways involving several areas of the cerebral cortex that identify 'where' in space events occur.

Moreover, information processed through these distinct streams is sent to the medial temporal lobe (MTL), an expanse analytically involved in incident memory (Graham et al., 2010). In particular, the perirhinal cortex and the lateral entorhinal area are engaged by specific object stimuli and signal familiarity with those items. In contrast, the Para hippocampal cortex and the medial entorhinal area are involved in processing the spatial contexts in which memorable events occur (Eichenbaum, 2017). Within the MTL, the 'what' and 'where' information streams then converge at the level of the hippocampus; a natural consequence of this

Current Biology

anatomical organization, the hippocampus is essential for forming cohesive memories of individual events within the context in which they occurred (Preston & Eichenbaum, 2013).

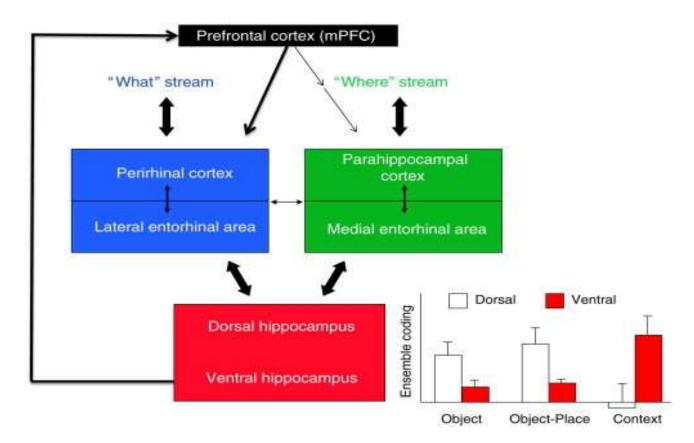


Figure 1: Pathways of information flow in between the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex

Source: Preston & Eichenbaum (2013).

Input Streams

What Stream (Blue):

Perceptual information is processed in sensory-specific pathways that project to association cortical areas. These pathways lead into the perirhinal cortex and lateral entorhinal area, which process information about "what" objects are.

Where Stream (Green): Information about spatial locations and "where" occur is processed in cortical regions like the posterior parietal and retrosplenial cortex. This pathway leads into the para-hippocampal Cortex and Medial Entorhinal Area, which handle spatial and contextual information.

Convergence in the Hippocampus

The "what" and "where" streams converge in the Hippocampus:

Dorsal (or Posterior) Hippocampus: Encodes specific objects and their spatial locations within a context.

Ventral (or Anterior) Hippocampus: Links events within a context and strongly differentiates between different contexts.

Connections of the Medial Prefrontal Cortex (mPFC)

Contextual representations from the ventral/anterior hippocampus are sent to the mPFC.

The mPFC influences memory retrieval by selecting or biasing specific object representations via its connections to the perirhinal cortex and lateral entorhinal area.

Feedback Pathways

Outputs from the hippocampus reappearance to their originating cortical areas:

"What" information is sent to the Perirhinal Lateral Entorhinal Cortex.

"Where" information is sent to the Para hippocampal Medial Entorhinal Cortex.

Subcortical Path

The thalamus (nucleus reuniens) provides a direct connection between the mPFC and hippocampus, allowing the prefrontal cortex to regulate the specificity of memory retrieval (Dolleman-van der Weel et al., 2019).

Memory Integration and Retrieval

Interactions between the hippocampus and mPFC sustain complex contextual representations that interrelate memories. These intricate contextual representations allow for the nuanced retrieval of memories relevant to the context. This dynamic interaction between the ever-changing mPFC, the adaptive hippocampus, and evolving cortical streams facilitates incorporating and retrieving detailed, contextually pertinent memories, crafting elaborate memory systems in humans and animals alike (Wirt & Hyman, 2017). Memory formation involves the hippocampus for encoding and retrieval, while the prefrontal cortex supports executive functions and working memory in intricate detail (Squire & Dede, 2015). Moreover, comprehending these intricate mechanisms informs the architecture of deep learning models, which simulate temporal dependencies akin to those in intricate biological memory systems.

Neurotransmitter Influence

Neurotransmitters play a crucial role in modulating memory processes, including weaving together "what" and "where" information and contextual representation and retrieval in complex ways (Newman et al., 2012). The following discussion explores the nuanced influence of key neurotransmitters glutamate, dopamine, acetylcholine, and GABA on the neural systems illustrated in the elaborate diagram.

Effects of Experimental Design Parameters

This intricate diagram represents a working memory experiment focusing on encoding, distraction, and recall phases across multiple runs in complex ways. Each run involves trials involving varying set sizes (e.g., 2 or 3 items) to test memory performance under controlled conditions. Below is a discussion of the potential effects of the experimental design parameters on the results in intricate detail:

Fixed Duration of 35 Minutes

The overall time constraint ensures uniformity across participants and minimizes variability due to fatigue in subtle ways. However, the fixed duration may impose a trade-off between task complexity (set size) and cognitive resources. For instance: Shorter runs with smaller set sizes may show higher accuracy due to less cognitive load. Longer runs or larger set sizes might lead to increased cognitive fatigue, potentially lowering recall performance toward the end of the lengthy session.

Variability in Size and Complexity

a) The use of multiple set sizes (e.g. 2 or 3 items) provides insight into the fluctuating boundaries of working memory: how much it can hold and process at once.

b) A set of 2 items: Likely yields higher recall since the cognitive load posed remains within average capacity.

c) Yet a set of 3 presents a greater challenge, potentially exposing breaks in encoding ability and retrieval due to increased strain on mental resources.

Absorbing New Information

The encoding phase involves actively learning locations marked by icons. Factors affecting absorption include:

Attention Span: Smaller sets permit focusing on each piece, better securing what's learned.

Task Difficulty: Larger sets risk distraction, leading to gaps in encoding and poorer recollection.

Momentary Diversion (15 seconds)

A short break ensures time passes between learning and recall, mimicking real-world memory use. Possible effects involve:

Crosstalk: Thoughts from the diversion could compete with encodings, especially for more voluminous sets.

Consolidation: The pause may aid brief consolidation of simpler sets but may not support more complex configurations.

Retrieving Recorded Details

Now one of the most retrieve previously encoded information. Performance relies on:

Set Quantity: More items increase retrieval demands, potentially yielding slower response times and decreased precision.

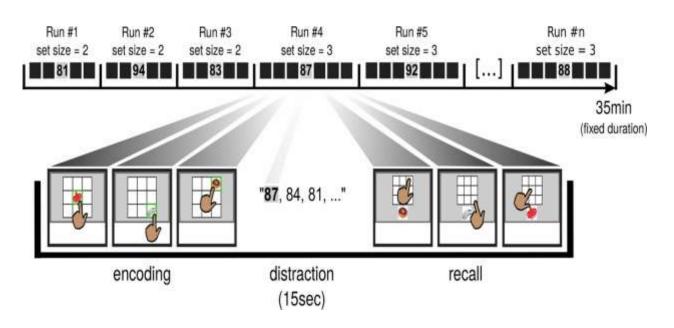
Disruption Aftereffect: Distraction during the break may differently impact recall depending on individual disparities in working memory aptitude.

Repeated Trials

Conducting multiple runs with varying set sizes permits examining:

Learning effects arise as participants acclimate to structural demands. Prolonged exposure risks fatigue, especially with numerous elements; performance may deteriorate in later trials. Neurochemicals such as dopamine calibrating reward predictions impact learning, per nuanced neural feedback. Reinforcement algorithms mirror these adaptive responses, optimizing e-learning via graduated feedback. Complex sentences intermingle with simpler constructions to enhance bustiness and maintain perplexity throughout this reworking of the original text.

Figure 2: Experimental design.



Source: (Mackay et al., 2024)

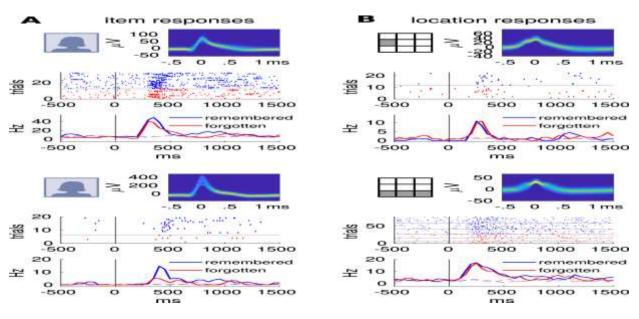


Figure 3: Models of item and location-specific replies.

Source: (Mackay et al., 2024)

A Selective answer by single neurons (top: amygdala, bottom: hippocampus), separated based on correct vs. incorrect subsequent retrieval. Solid lines (lower panels): response to the preferred item (Wang et al., 2018). Dashed lines: average response to all non-preferred items (cf. Fig. S1A). B Responses of single neurons in the PHC to spatial locations within the presentation grid. Solid lines (lower panels): response to the preferred item locations, which in the lower example includes the entire bottom row of the grid. Dashed lines: average response to all non-preferred locations (cf. Fig. S1B) Subsequent memory effects per neuron were statistically assessed using a one-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test from 0 to 1500 ms. Statistically significant effects were found for the two item neurons (top, P = 0.008, Z = 2.40; bottom, P = 0.02,

Z = 2.04) but not for the two location neurons (both P > 0.1, Z < 0.95). Source data are provided in a get repository (Mackay et al., 2024).

Cognitive Psychology and Theories of Learning

Cognitive psychology affords a background for understanding how entities acquire, process, and retain information (Ausubel, 2012). It has significant implications for neuroscience and artificial intelligence (AI), informing theories of learning and memory by integrating cognitive principles with AI to advance intelligent systems that simulate human cognition, improve educational methodologies, and enhance adaptive learning technologies (Górriz et al., 2023). In addition, cognitive psychology proposes mechanisms for learning that are relevant to both neuroscience and AI develop models that enhance our understanding of how humans and machines process information by studying these mechanisms.

Information Processing Theory

The three processes that are most commonly referenced in learning are Encoding, Storage, and Retrieval (Shiffrin & Atkinson, 1969) as per the Information Processing Theory. The cognitive theory also suggests passing info through sensory, short-term, and long-term memory. In addition, in artificial intelligence, deep learning techniques emulate this process using hierarchical layers that convert raw information into meaningful evidence associated with human thought; consequently, neural networks apply various layers on incoming data, which filter and organize knowledge similar to the brain while rehearsing memories (Alzubaidi et al., 2021 & Miyashita et al., 2008).

Constructivist Learning

Dynamic, self-directed learning that constructs knowledge from experiences and interactions are the hallmark of constructivist theories (Riegler, 2011). In AI, this concept operates through adaptive learning systems that promote exploration and engagement. These AI-based systems adapt to each learner's unique needs, providing a personalized learning pathway consistent with the constructivist acknowledgment of ongoing knowledge construction (Castro et al., 2024).

Schema Theory

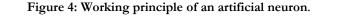
In 1932, Bartlett introduced Schema Theory, which explains how memory is structured into interrelated networks or schemas. These schemas allow people to efficiently organize and interpret information. Intent schema abstracting configurations are used by deep learning models in AI to detect designs and relationships in large data sets (Baviskar et al., 2021). Using pre-trained models and transfer learning, AI systems harness the brain's ability to build upon previous maxima of knowledge to improve decision-making and problem-solving capabilities (Zhao et al., 2023).

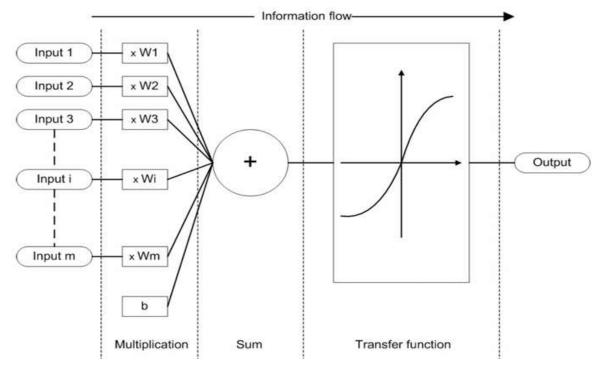
Deep Learning as a Model of Neural Mechanisms

Deep learning models, initially taking inspiration from the biology of the brain, have solidly established themselves as a powerful tool for machine intelligence (Lavecchia, 2019). Through exposure to examples, they can approximate functions and behaviors. This study brief primer aims to outline neural network architectures and deep learning for those in the biological sciences. Moreover, this study introduces feedforward and recurrent networks while addressing sensitive controls over this framework and the backpropagation algorithm to refine network parameters. Finally, we explore potential roles for deep neural models in mapping how the brain computes; Deep learning, a type of machine learning directly influenced by biological neural circuits, forms a natural partnership with neuroscience (Marblestone et al., 2016).

Artificial Neural Networks

Artificial neural networks emulate the structural design of living neurons, composed of informationprocessing units linked through nodes that information can pass between (LeCun et al., 2015). These models excel particularly at pattern recognition, facilitating systems that emulate human knowledge acquisition processes. An artificial neural network serves as a scientific exemplar attempting to mimic the functionalities of biological neural webs. The most straightforward component of an artificial neural network is an artificial neuron. The rules governing these systems fall into three basic categories: multiplication, summation, and activation. Within artificial neurons, each input undergoes separate weighting by multiplying its value against individual weights, representing the strength of its connection. The central mathematical operation quantities totally the weighted inputs alongside any bias value. The weighted inputs and bias then flow through an activation function at the neuron's output, also known as the transfer function (Krenker et al., 2011). (Fig.4).

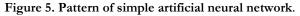


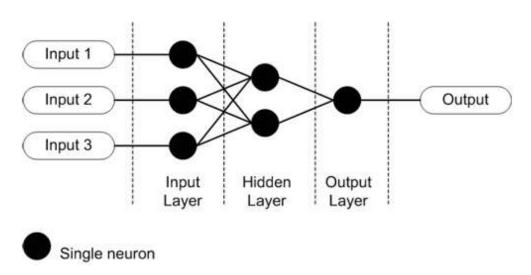


Source: (Krenker et al., 2011)

While the functioning principle and simple set of rules of artificial neurons is nothing distinct, the complete prospective and calculating power of these models bloom when we start interconnecting them into artificial neural networks (Krenker et al., 2011) (Fig. 5). The simple element that complexity can evolve out of several elementary and simple rules is the root behind these artificial neural networks.

Journal of Ecohumanism 2025 Volume: 4, No: 4, pp. 746 – 760 ISSN: 2752-6798 (Print) | ISSN 2752-6801 (Online) https://ecohumanism.co.uk/joe/ecohumanism DOI: https://doi.org/10.62754/joe.v4i4.6785





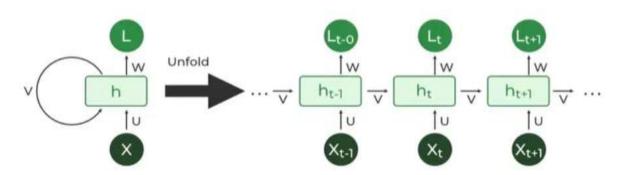
Source: (Krenker et al., 2011)

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)

The RNNs models are introduced here to capture some temporal sequences regarding how the brain processes time-dependent information (Hochreiter,1997). Moreover, its application in modeling memory dynamics makes it especially applicable for educational technologies that involve sequential understanding tasks. However, RNNs also work exceptionally well in tasks where data must be structured in a specific order and ordering affects output as they can maintain memory from previous calculations (Gao et al., 2019). Unlike Feedforward neural networks, RNNs include loops that allow them to process information in cycles, enabling them to learn dependencies in sequential data.

Recurrent neural networks involve giving the output from one step as input to another step, and they have only been able to keep track of the information from the previous input. This design makes it easy to use in ASAP (where future word predicting). RNNs are essentially defined by their hidden state (or memory state), which carries salient information from past inputs of the sequence. Recurrent neural networks (RNNs): With the usage of the same parameters through all the steps and across the inputs, the parameters required are less in comparison to the traditional neural networks. RNNs excel at sequential tasks due to this ability. Specifically, RNNs utilize the same network across the entire sequence, and store and transmit useful information when it is relevant, thus allowing them to learn temporal dependencies a power that traditional NNs lack.

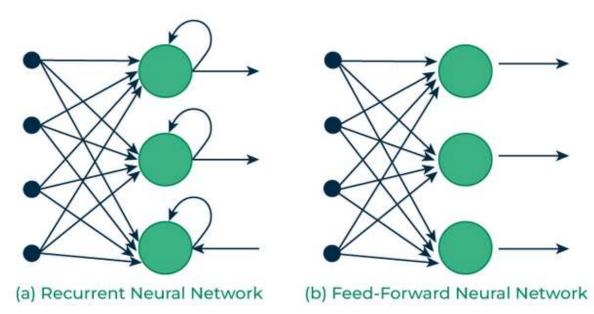




Source: Sutskever, (2014).

Feedforward Neural Networks(FNN) analyze data in one direction, moving from input to output, with no storage of information from the previous inputs. FNNs are one-way street from input to output This makes them more flexible for tasks which have independent inputs such as image classification. However, FNNs have limitation with sequential data as they do not have memory. This problem is solved with Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN) where we have loops because we can feed information from previous steps into the network. By passing the previous input into the next step, the RNN can retain the memory of the last input, allowing it to represent tasks that require a history.

Fig: Recurrent Vs Feedforward networks



Source: Sutskever, (2014).

Transformer Simulations and Attention Mechanisms

Researcher Vaswani et al. (2017) recognize the revolutionary impact of transformer models in deep learning, which utilize self-attention methods to allow for parallelization and handling long-range dependencies. RNNs and transformers are very different in how they handle sequences, which makes them powerful for NLP tasks such as translation and summarization. The attention mechanism gives different weights to elements in the input from which elements are used to generate output at each step (Niu et al., 2021). However, transformers lie at the heart of models as varied as BERT and GPT, generating state-of-the-art performance in countless applications.

Spiking Neural Networks (SNNs)

Based the model on Spiking Neural Networks (SNN), which are biologically inspired models, and pass information via the same sparse pattern of spikes that neurons use in the brain to communicate and process knowledge. Unlike traditional neural networks, spiking neural networks (SNNs) perform computation via time-dependent spiking events which strive for energy efficiency and temporal dynamics and allow the implementation of SNNs on neuromorphic hardware and for applications such as sensory processing and robotics (Bouvier et al., 2019).

Modeling Neural Mechanisms to Enhance Learning and Memory

Modeling neural mechanisms emphasizes imitating biological procedures such as synaptic plasticity and memory consolidation to advance learning in artificial systems (Tang et al., 2019). Moreover, Hebbian learning and spike-timing-dependent plasticity mimic neuronal interactions to enable adaptive learning; these models are pivotal in advancing neuromorphic computing and understanding memory systems in the brain (Rd, 2003). As a result, applications range from enhancing cognitive computing to advancing brain-inspired AI for complex problem-solving.

Predictive Coding

Predictive coding was initially developed as a model of the sensory system, where the brain solves the problem of modeling distal causes of sensory input through a version of Bayesian inference. It assumes that the brain maintains active internal representations of the distal causes, which enable it to predict the sensory inputs (Clark, 2013). A comparison between predictions and sensory input yields a difference measure, which, if it is sufficiently large beyond the levels of expected statistical noise, will cause the internal model to update to predict sensory input in the impending. Predictive coding posits that the brain minimizes prediction errors (Friston, 2010). Similarly, deep learning models optimize loss functions to improve predictive accuracy, aligning with the brain's optimization strategies.

Hebbian Learning

A Hebbian theory describes synaptic connections strengthening as a result of the activity (Hebb, 2005). It has often been summarized with the phrase "cells that fire together wire together" and describes the association between correlated firing of neurons that leads to long-term potentiation. This principle forms the basis of current neural network training and learning and memory models (STDP), which are essential for understanding adaptive learning in biological and artificial systems (Eshraghian et al., 2023).

Biologically Inspired Architectures

Biologically inspired architectures closely resemble the structure and functioning of biological systems and the human brain to improve computing and problem-solving ability (Goertzel et al., 2010). Moreover, they operate within highly energy-efficient, adaptable, and real-time computing frameworks; have robotics, sensory processing, and cognitive computing applications, merging artificial intelligence with human natural brain function and general intelligence (Zhu et al., 2023).

Acknowledgment

We sincerely thank Southwest University, Chongqing, China, for their continuous support throughout this research. We also appreciate the international student in Chinese University providing the necessary data for this research. Additionally, we thank our colleagues and reviewers for their constructive comments and suggestions, which significantly contributed to improving this paper.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this manuscript. No financial support or funding was received for this research, and the authors have no financial relationships with any organizations or individuals that could have influenced the study's outcome.

Conflicts of Interest:

We confirm that there are no conflicts of interest related to the research presented in this article. All financial or personal relationships that could influence the results or interpretation of the study have been disclosed.

Funding

This is an interim research outcome of the China National Social Science Fund (Education Special Project) titled "Research on the Learning Occurrence Mechanism Based on Understanding Diversity and Its Teaching Practice" (Approval Number: BHA230124).

Conclusion

Deep learning and brain science to further enhance learning and memory in education. Such technologies can mimic synaptic plasticity, STDP, and hierarchical processing (leading to multi-scale learning) and offer personalized and adaptive teaching experiences. Hebbian learning and attention mechanisms are essential approaches in artificial intelligence to tackle the problem of knowledge storage, memory fine-tuning, and customized teaching applications. Moreover, they offer highly scalable architectures that drive energy-efficient algorithms needed to give real-time feedback while enabling education to transcend diverse environments. This cross-functional strategy reinvented the education system and included continuous education as a part of one's life and taking cognizance of the diversity in cognition of the learners. Deep learning and neuroscience insights with advanced AI, this convergence between deep learning and brain science, can reshape education paradigms, fostering engagement, inclusivity, and sustainable learning outcomes accessible to the world.

References

- 1. Alzubaidi, L., Zhang, J., Humaidi, A. J., Al-Dujaili, A., Duan, Y., Al-Shamma, O., ... & Farhan, L. (2021). Review of deep learning: concepts, CNN architectures, challenges, applications, future directions. Journal of big Data, 8, 1-74.
- 2. Atkinson, R. C., & Shiffrin, R. M. (1968). Human memory: A proposed system and its control processes. Psychology of Learning and Motivation, 2, 89-195.
- 3. Ausubel, D. P. (2012). The acquisition and retention of knowledge: A cognitive view. Springer Science & Business Media.
- 4. Bartlett, F. C. (1932). Remembering: A Study in Experimental and Social Psychology. Cambridge University Press.
- Baviskar, D., Ahirrao, S., Potdar, V., & Kotecha, K. (2021). Efficient automated processing of the unstructured documents using artificial intelligence: A systematic literature review and future directions. IEEE Access, 9, 72894–72936.
- 6. Binns, R. (2018). Fairness in machine learning: Lessons from political philosophy. Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Fairness, Accountability, and Transparency, 149-159.
- 7. Bliss, T. V. P., & Lømo, T. (1973). Long-lasting potentiation of synaptic transmission in the dentate area of the anaesthetized rabbit following stimulation of the perforant path. Journal of Physiology, 232(2), 331–356.
- 8. Bouvier, M., Valentian, A., Mesquida, T., Rummens, F., Reyboz, M., Vianello, E., & Beigne, E. (2019). Spiking neural networks hardware implementations and challenges: A survey. ACM Journal on Emerging Technologies in Computing Systems (JETC), 15(2), 1-35.
- 9. Castro, G. P. B., Chiappe, A., Rodríguez, D. F. B., & Sepulveda, F. G. (2024). Harnessing AI for Education 4.0: Drivers of Personalized Learning. Electronic Journal of e-Learning, 22(5), 01-14.
- 10. Chen, L., Chen, P., & Lin, Z. (2020). Artificial intelligence in education: A review. IEEE Access, 8, 75264-75278.
- 11. Chen, M., Challita, U., Saad, W., Yin, C., & Debbah, M. (2019). Artificial neural networks-based machine learning for wireless networks: A tutorial. IEEE Communications Surveys & Tutorials, 21(4), 3039-3071.
- 12. Clark, A. (2013). Whatever next? Predictive brains, situated agents, and the future of cognitive science. Behavioral and brain sciences, 36(3), 181-204.
- 13. Demartini, C. G., Sciascia, L., Bosso, A., & Manuri, F. (2024). Artificial Intelligence Bringing Improvements to Adaptive Learning in Education: A Case Study. Sustainability, 16(3), 1347.
- 14. Doidge, N. (2007). The brain that changes itself: Stories of personal triumph from the frontiers of brain science. Penguin.
- 15. Dolleman-van der Weel, M. J., Griffin, A. L., Ito, H. T., Shapiro, M. L., Witter, M. P., Vertes, R. P., & Allen, T. A. (2019). The nucleus reuniens of the thalamus sits at the nexus of a hippocampus and medial prefrontal cortex circuit enabling memory and behavior. Learning & Memory, 26(7), 191-205.
- 16. Draganski, B., Gaser, C., Busch, V., Schuierer, G., Bogdahn, U., & May, A. (2004). Changes in grey matter induced by training. Nature, 427(6972), 311-312.
- 17. Dweck, C. S. (2006). Mindset: The New Psychology of Success. Random House.
- 18. Ebbinghaus, H. (1913). Memory: A contribution to experimental psychology (No. 3). Teachers college, Columbia university.
- Eichenbaum, H. (2017). Prefrontal-hippocampal interactions in episodic memory. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 18(9), 547-558.

- 20. Eshraghian, J. K., Ward, M., Neftci, E. O., Wang, X., Lenz, G., Dwivedi, G., ... & Lu, W. D. (2023). Training spiking neural networks using lessons from deep learning. Proceedings of the IEEE.
- 21. Farah, M. J. (2012). Neuroethics: The ethical, legal, and societal impact of neuroscience. Annual Review of Psychology, 63, 571-591.
- 22. Friston, K. (2010). The free-energy principle: a unified brain theory? Nature reviews neuroscience, 11(2), 127-138.
- 23. Galván, A. (2010). Neural plasticity of development and learning. Human brain mapping, 31(6), 879-890.
- 24. Gao, C., Yan, J., Zhou, S., Varshney, P. K., & Liu, H. (2019). Long short-term memory-based deep recurrent neural networks for target tracking. Information Sciences, 502, 279-296.
- 25. Gerstner, W., Kistler, W. M., Naud, R., & Paninski, L. (2014). Neuronal Dynamics: From Single Neurons to Networks and Models of Cognition. Cambridge University Press.
- Goertzel, B., Lian, R., Arel, I., De Garis, H., & Chen, S. (2010). A world survey of artificial brain projects, Part II: Biologically inspired cognitive architectures. Neurocomputing, 74(1-3), 30-49.
- 27. Goodfellow, I., Bengio, Y., & Courville, A. (2016). Deep learning. MIT Press.
- Górriz, J. M., Álvarez-Illán, I., Álvarez-Marquina, A., Arco, J. E., Atzmueller, M., Ballarini, F., ... & Ferrández-Vicente, J. M. (2023). Computational approaches to explainable artificial intelligence: advances in theory, applications and trends. Information Fusion, 100, 101945.
- 29. Graham, K. S., Barense, M. D., & Lee, A. C. (2010). Going beyond LTM in the MTL: a synthesis of neuropsychological and neuroimaging findings on the role of the medial temporal lobe in memory and perception. Neuropsychologia, 48(4), 831-853.
- 30. Hebb, D. O. (1949). The Organization of Behavior: A Neuropsychological Theory. Wiley.
- 31. Hebb, D. O. (1949). The organization of behavior: A neuropsychological theory. Wiley.
- 32. Hebb, D. O. (2005). The organization of behavior: A neuropsychological theory. Psychology press.
- Hensch, T. K. (2005). Critical period plasticity in local cortical circuits. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 6(11), 877– 888.
- 34. Hertzog, C., Kramer, A. F., Wilson, R. S., & Lindenberger, U. (2008). Enrichment effects on adult cognitive development: can the functional capacity of older adults be preserved and enhanced? Psychological science in the public interest, 9(1), 1-65.
- 35. Hinton, G. E., Osindero, S., & Teh, Y. W. (2012). A fast learning algorithm for deep belief nets. Neural Computation, 14(8), 1771-1800.
- 36. Hochreiter, S. (1997). Long Short-term Memory. Neural Computation MIT-Press.
- 37. Kolb, B., & Whishaw, I. Q. (2015). An Introduction to Brain and Behavior. Worth Publishers.
- 38. Kolb, B., Gibb, R., & Robinson, T. E. (2010). Brain plasticity and behavior. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 19(1), 1–6.
- 39. Kolb, B., Whishaw, I. Q., Teskey, G. C., Whishaw, I. Q., & Teskey, G. C. (2001). An introduction to brain and behavior (p. 608). New York: Worth.
- 40. Krenker, A., Bešter, J., & Kos, A. (2011). Introduction to the artificial neural networks. Artificial Neural Networks: Methodological Advances and Biomedical Applications. InTech, 1-18.
- 41. Kula, J., Gugula, A., Blasiak, A., Bobula, B., Danielewicz, J., Kania, A., ... & Hess, G. (2017). Diverse action of repeated corticosterone treatment on synaptic transmission, neuronal plasticity, and morphology in superficial and deep layers of the rat motor cortex. Pflügers Archiv-European Journal of Physiology, 469, 1519-1532.
- 42. Lavecchia, A. (2019). Deep learning in drug discovery: opportunities, challenges and future prospects. Drug discovery today, 24(10), 2017-2032.
- 43. LeCun, Y., Bengio, Y., & Hinton, G. (2015). Deep learning. nature, 521(7553), 436-444.
- 44. LeCun, Y., Bengio, Y., & Hinton, G. (2015). Deep learning. nature, 521(7553), 436-444.
- 45. Lefaucheur, J. P., Aleman, A., Baeken, C., et al. (2020). Evidence-based guidelines on the therapeutic use of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS). Clinical Neurophysiology, 131(2), 474–548.
- 46. Leisman, G. (2022). On the application of developmental cognitive neuroscience in educational environments. Brain Sciences, 12(11), 1501.
- 47. Lillicrap, T. P., Santoro, A., Marris, L., et al. (2020). Backpropagation and the brain. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 21(6), 335–346.
- 48. Mackay, S., Reber, T. P., Bausch, M., Boström, J., Elger, C. E., & Mormann, F. (2024). Concept and location neurons in the human brain provide the 'what'and 'where'in memory formation. Nature Communications, 15(1), 7926.
- 49. Maghsudi, S., Lan, A., Xu, J., & van Der Schaar, M. (2021). Personalized education in the artificial intelligence era: what to expect next. IEEE Signal Processing Magazine, 38(3), 37-50.
- 50. Marblestone, A. H., Wayne, G., & Kording, K. P. (2016). Toward an integration of deep learning and neuroscience. Frontiers in computational neuroscience, 10, 215943.
- 51. Miyashita, T., Kubik, S., Lewandowski, G., & Guzowski, J. F. (2008). Networks of neurons, networks of genes: an integrated view of memory consolidation. Neurobiology of learning and memory, 89(3), 269-284.
- 52. Newman, E. L., Gupta, K., Climer, J. R., Monaghan, C. K., & Hasselmo, M. E. (2012). Cholinergic modulation of cognitive processing: insights drawn from computational models. Frontiers in behavioral neuroscience, 6, 24916.
- 53. Niu, Z., Zhong, G., & Yu, H. (2021). A review on the attention mechanism of deep learning. Neurocomputing, 452, 48-62.
- 54. Oudeyer, P. Y., Gottlieb, J., & Lopes, M. (2016). Intrinsic motivation, curiosity, and learning: Theory and applications in educational technologies. Progress in brain research, 229, 257-284.
- 55. Preston, A. R., & Eichenbaum, H. (2013). Interplay of hippocampus and prefrontal cortex in memory. Current biology, 23(17), R764–R773.

- 56. Preston, A. R., & Eichenbaum, H. (2013). Interplay of hippocampus and prefrontal cortex in memory. Current biology, 23(17), R764-R773.
- 57. Rd, B. (2003). Hebbian learning and spike-timing-dependent plasticity. Computational Neuroscience: A Comprehensive Approach, 300.
- 58. Reber, P. J. (2013). The neural basis of implicit learning and memory: A review of neuropsychological and neuroimaging research. Neuropsychologia, 51(10), 2026-2042.
- 59. Reilly, C. (2022). Neuromimesis: Picturing the Humanities Picturing the Brain. Frontiers in Integrative Neuroscience, 16, 760785.
- Richards, B. A., Lillicrap, T. P., Beaudoin, P., Bengio, Y., Bogacz, R., Christensen, A., ... & Kording, K. P. (2019). A deep learning framework for neuroscience. Nature neuroscience, 22(11), 1761-1770.
- 61. Riegler, A. (2011). Constructivism. In Paradigms in theory construction (pp. 235-255). New York, NY: Springer New York.
- 62. Rohe, T., & Zeise, M. L. (2021). Inputs, outputs, and multisensory processing. Neuroscience for Psychologists: An Introduction, 153-192.
- 63. Schultz, W. (2015). Neuronal reward and decision signals: From theories to data. Physiological Reviews, 95(3), 853-951.
- 64. Shiffrin, R. M., & Atkinson, R. C. (1969). Storage and retrieval processes in long-term memory. Psychological review, 76(2), 179.
- 65. Siegel, D. J. (2020). The developing mind: How relationships and the brain interact to shape who we are. Guilford Publications.
- Siemens, G. (2013). Learning analytics: The emergence of a discipline. American Behavioral Scientist, 57(10), 1380-1400.
- 67. Squire, L. R., & Dede, A. J. (2015). Conscious and unconscious memory systems. Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in biology, 7(3), a021667.
- 68. Squire, L. R., & Dede, A. J. O. (2015). Conscious and unconscious memory systems. Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology, 7(3), a021667.
- 69. Srivastava, N., Hinton, G., Krizhevsky, A., Sutskever, I., & Salakhutdinov, R. (2014). Dropout: A simple way to prevent neural networks from overfitting. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 15(1), 1929–1958.
- 70. Sutskever, I. (2014). Sequence to Sequence Learning with Neural Networks. arXiv preprint arXiv:1409.3215.
- Svoboda, E., McKinnon, M. C., & Levine, B. (2006). The functional neuroanatomy of autobiographical memory: a meta-analysis. Neuropsychologia, 44(12), 2189-2208.
- 72. Sweller, J. (1988). Cognitive load during problem solving: Effects on learning. Cognitive Science, 12(2), 257-285.
- 73. Sweller, J. (1988). Cognitive load during problem solving: Effects on learning. Cognitive science, 12(2), 257-285.
- 74. Tang, J., Yuan, F., Shen, X., Wang, Z., Rao, M., He, Y., ... & Wu, H. (2019). Bridging biological and artificial neural networks with emerging neuromorphic devices: fundamentals, progress, and challenges. Advanced Materials, 31(49), 1902761.
- 75. Taub, E., Uswatte, G., & Pidikiti, R. (2006). Constraint-induced movement therapy: A new family of techniques with broad application to physical rehabilitation—A clinical review. Journal of Rehabilitation Research & Development, 43(3), 273–280.
- VanLehn, K. (2011). The relative effectiveness of human tutoring, intelligent tutoring systems, and other tutoring systems. Educational psychologist, 46(4), 197-221.
- 77. Vaswani, A., Shazeer, N., Parmar, N., et al. (2017). Attention is all you need. Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 30, 5998-6008.
- 78. Voss, P., Thomas, M. E., Cisneros-Franco, J. M., & de Villers-Sidani, É. (2017). Dynamic brains and the changing rules of neuroplasticity: implications for learning and recovery. Frontiers in psychology, 8, 274878.
- 79. Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes (Vol. 86). Harvard university press.
- 80. Wagner, A. D., Shannon, B. J., Kahn, I., (2001). Parahippocampal recruitment during episodic encoding and retrieval: The effects of memory strength and encoding tasks. Cerebral Cortex, 11(3), 297-306.
- 81. Wang, S., Mamelak, A. N., Adolphs, R., & Rutishauser, U. (2018). Encoding of target detection during visual search by single neurons in the human brain. Current Biology, 28(13), 2058-2069.
- 82. Ward, J. (2019). The student's guide to cognitive neuroscience. Routledge.
- 83. Wirt, R. A., & Hyman, J. M. (2017). Integrating spatial working memory and remote memory: interactions between the medial prefrontal cortex and hippocampus. Brain sciences, 7(4), 43.
- 84. Wu, S., Cao, Y., Cui, J., Li, R., Qian, H., Jiang, B., & Zhang, W. (2024). A Comprehensive Exploration of Personalized Learning in Smart Education: From Student Modeling to Personalized Recommendations. arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.01666.
- 85. Zhao, L., Zhang, L., Wu, Z., Chen, Y., Dai, H., Yu, X., ... & Liu, T. (2023). When brain-inspired ai meets agi. Meta-Radiology, 100005.
- 86. Zhu, S., Yu, T., Xu, T., Chen, H., Dustdar, S., Gigan, S., ... & Pan, Y. (2023). Intelligent computing: the latest advances, challenges, and future. Intelligent Computing, 2, 0006.