

Neuromorphic computing

Robotics M.Sc. programme in Computer Science

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Outline

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Fundamentals of neuroscience
- 3. Simulating the brain
- 4. Software and hardware simulations
- 5. Robotic applications



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What is neuromorphic computing?

We can define **neuromorphic computing** as the act of performing a computation in a manner similar to the brain.

Our brain elaborates inputs coming from our sensors and produces outputs in term of generated motions and stored information.





Why neuromorphic computing (in robotics)?

This kind of computing is very similar to what can be found in a robotic controller.

But the sensors and actuators are completely different, compared to the ones of humans and animals, thus the brain is substituted by a computer.





Why neuromorphic computing (in robotics)?

Today, bio-inspired sensing and actuation technologies are starting to emerge.







As such, neuromorphic computing can be used to control this new kind of robots.





Why neuromorphic computing (in robotics)?

Moreover, we found out that classic control techniques fail when applied to complex robotic platforms.



Thus, we would like to apply neuromorphic computing to give brains to robots.





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Neuronal physiology

The neuron is the fundamental structural and functional unit of the brain.



Visual Cortex

Cerebellum

Optic Tectum

(Drawings by Ramón y Cajal, c. 1900)





Neuronal physiology

Many kind of neurons share the same cellular physiology.





Neuronal physiology

Neuronal electrophysiological activity lies on the cell membrane.

- Lipid bilayer, impermeable to charged ions.
- Ionic channels allow ions to flow in or out, selectively.
- The neuron maintains a potential difference across it membrane via the ionic pumps (expelling Na⁺ and allowing K⁺ in).
- When no external stimulus is present, we can refer to it as **resting potential**.





The activity of a neuron (its "output") is the **action potential** (or spike), generated by voltage-gated ionic channels.

- 1. An external electric stimulus reach the membrane, depolarizing it.
- Depolarization of the membrane opens Na⁺ channels (→ even more depolarization).
- 3. If membrane potential exceeds the **threshold potential**, an action potential occurs.
- Afterwards, the membrane repolarize by expelling K⁺ ions and the neuron enters the refractory period.



The action potential is transmitted through the axon towards other neurons.

Each non-myelinated section (node of Ranvier) replicates the spike.



Propagation speed ranges from 1 to 100 m/s.



The activity of a neuron is measured by computing its **firing rate**, expressed as the mean number of spikes per second.



$$rate = \frac{n.spikes}{time}$$

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1s

The instantaneous firing rate cannot be computed real-time, due to causality.

Usually, we are interested in looking at the spike events, instead of the membrane potential, and for a high number of neurons (a population). We can do so with raster plots.





Synapses

Axons and dendrites are connected through **synapses**. Each neuron has roughly 1000-10000 synapses.





Synapses

Synapses can be chemical or electrical, excitatory or inhibitory:



- a chemical **excitatory** synapse releases Glutamate \rightarrow opening of ion channels for Na⁺ influx \rightarrow membrane depolarization (membrane potential *increases*);
- a chemical **inhibitory** synapse releases GABA neurotransmitter \rightarrow K+ leaves cell through ion channels \rightarrow membrane hyperpolarization (membrane potential *decreases*).

Every synapse, once reached by an action potential, generates a *postsynaptic current* (PSC) which turns in a *postsynaptic potential* (PSP).

Synapses and action potentials

Each spike coming for presynaptic neurons and activating excitatory synapses contributes to the generation of an action potential in the postsynaptic neuron. Conversely, inhibitory synapses reduce the activity of postsynaptic neurons.

Synaptic plasticity

Synapses are the basis for memory and learning.

If neuron A repeatedly takes part in making neuron B spike, then the synapse from a to B is strengthened and vice versa. This leads to two phenomena:

Synaptic plasticity

This adaptation mechanism depends on the timing of the EPSP and the action potential. Thus, it is called **Spike-Timing-Dependent Plasticity** (STDP).

Neural information processing

What kind of information can a neuron process?

Neural information processing

What kind of information can a neuron process?

None! (by himself)

Information is processed by means of the network topology and synaptic properties.

A simple way of processing information is the **receptive field** topology.

Each receptive field is made up of several input neurons and one output neuron that modulates the combination of their responses.

Receptive fields have been identified in the human brain to encode sensory information (auditory system, somatosensory system, visual system).

The retinal circuit implements receptive fields to process the image.

Preferred stimulus?

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Preferred stimulus

Neural response

The retinal circuit implements receptive fields to process the image.

Receptive fields from the retina are in turn used to create oriented receptive fields in the visual cortex.

Receptive fields and neural coding

Each sensory input has its own dedicated brain areas, with receptive fields. This is common feature among animals. E.g. cricket cercal cells.

This kind of information processing, where an neural population is used to encode different values of the same information is called **population coding**.

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Each sensory input has its own dedicated brain areas, with receptive fields. This is common feature among animals. E.g. cricket cercal cells.

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> Is the representation efficient? Aren't c_1 and c_2 enough?

Neural coding

There are other ways for neurons to encode information, such as **rate coding**, where all the information is encoded by directly translating it into firing rates. This is common in many sensory afferents, e.g. mammalian muscle spindles.

Neural coding

A more complex encoding mechanism is **temporal coding**, where absolute or relative spike times are used. There are evidence for this kind of encoding in the auditory and gustative systems.

Pitch and loudness

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Neuron abstractions

In order to simulate the behaviour of neural circuits we have to model the neuron dynamics.

Thus, we have to translate neurophysiologic properties into equations that we can implement.

Detailed neural abstraction

In these kind of models every aspect of the cell morphology is taken into account: diameter of the soma, length of the axon, position of synapses on the dendrites, distribution of ionic channels, neurotransmitter types, etc...

Pros:

- very accurate
- can model any aspect of neural activity

Cons:

- much knowledge is needed to model networks
- simulation times are high

Some detailed neural simulators exist, i.e. NEURON (www.neuron.yale.edu/neuron).

Too little abstraction!

Each neuron produces spikes with a mean firing rate (in a time interval).

We can sample the firing rate by dividing spikes into bags:

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We can sample the firing rate by dividing spikes into bags:

By doing so, we are:

- discretizing time
- forgetting about single action potential events

Activity of a postsynaptic neuron can be computed as a function of the rates of presynaptic neurons.

What about synapses? We can add weights on the connections.

→ Rosenblatt's perceptron and Artificial Neural Networks.

Too much abstraction!

Point neuron abstractions

Why are these called point-neuron abstractions?

Because we do not take into account the neuron morphology. Each neuron is dimensionless and currents propagate instantaneously from all the receiving synapses.

The neuron electrical properties can be described through electrical circuits:

- the lipidic membrane acts as a capacitor (C_m);
- all PSP can be summed up and represented as an external current generator (I_{ext}).

We are interested in the voltage between the two termination of the capacitor (membrane potential, V_m) and we also add the action potential rule:

If $V_m > V_{th}$ then V_m resets to V_{reset} and a spike is emitted.

A first circuit representing neural activity is the Integrate and fire model (IAF).

Kirchhoff's law:

$$I_C(t) = I_{ext}(t)$$

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$$\downarrow^{I}$$
$$I_{C}(t) = C_{m}\frac{dV_{m}(t)}{dt}$$

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By deriving the law of capacitance:

$$I_C(t) = C_m \frac{dV_m(t)}{dt}$$

Thus, we obtain:

$$\frac{dV_m(t)}{dt} = \frac{I_{ext}(t)}{C_m}$$

Point neuron abstractions – simulation loop (I)

We can employ the differential equation to compute the dynamics of the membrane in a simulation loop, by discretizing time in small intervals.

Neurons have the **refractory period**, that must be taken into account for an accurate simulation. Otherwise, the firing rate will rise indefinitely.

without:
$$r(I) = \frac{I}{C_m(V_{th} - V_{reset})}$$
 $\lim_{I \to +\infty} r(I) = +\infty$

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without:
$$r(I) = \frac{I}{C_m(V_{th} - V_{reset})} \quad \lim_{I \to +\infty} r(I) = +\infty$$

with:
$$r(I) = \frac{I}{C_m(V_{th} - V_{reset}) + t_{ref}I} \quad \lim_{I \to +\infty} r(I) = \frac{1}{t_{ref}}$$

In the IAF model, the membrane continues to keep the gained potential, even if there is no external input current and the spike threshold is not reached. This is not true for the biological neuron.

The **Leaky integrate and fire** model (LIAF) adds a resistance in the circuit in order to model the leakage of charge. Moreover, a battery is added to represent the equilibrium potential of the cell membrane.

Kirchhoff's law: $I_C(t) + I_R(t) = I_{ext}(t)$

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Kirchhoff's law:
$$I_C(t) + I_R(t) = I_{ext}(t)$$

Ohm's law: $I_R(t) = \frac{(V_m(t) - V_{rest})}{R}$
Thus, we obtain: $\frac{dV_m(t)}{dt} = \frac{I_{ext}(t)}{C_m} - \frac{(V_m(t) - V_{rest})}{C_m R}$

There are many others neuron models:

Hodgkin–Huxley: each ionic channel is modelled as a resistance-battery parallel circuit, with a probabilistic conductance.

$$\frac{dV_m(t)}{dt} = \frac{I_{ext}(t)}{C_m} - \frac{1}{C_m} \sum_i g_i (V_m(t) - E_i)$$

There are many others neuron models:

Izhikevich: two differential equations can model many different neuron behaviours.

Point neuron abstractions – synapses models

Each action potential is transmitted as an event to all postsynaptic neurons connected, after a transmission delay (travel time on the axon). When such event is received a proper EPSC or IPSC is generated and added to the total input current.

Point neuron abstractions – synapses models

Each synapse has a weight that has two roles:

- 1. distinguishing between inhibitory and excitatory synapses by being negative or positive;
- 2. representing the strength of the connection between the two neurons.

Synaptic weights can be changed via rules implementing STDP, for example:

$$\Delta w_{ij} = \sum_{f} \sum_{n} W(t_i^f - t_j^n) \quad W(x) = \begin{cases} A_+ e^{(-\frac{x}{\tau_+})} for \, x > 0\\ -A_- e^{(-\frac{x}{\tau_-})} for \, x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Point neuron abstractions – simulation loop (II)

Given the previous equations we could in principle create a network simulation loop like the following:

```
while (time < T) {
  foreach (n : neurons) {
    Iext = n.sum_external_currents(n.received_spikes)
    dVm = n.membrane_update(Iext, n.V)
    n.V += dVm * dt
                                                   Send spike through delayed
                                                   and weighted connection
    if (n.V > n.Vth) {
        n.send_spike()
        n.adjust_weights(n.received_spikes)
    }
    time += dt
  }
}
```


Neuromorphic computing resources

Neurology:

• "Principles of Neural Science" by Kandel et al.

Computational neuroscience:

- "Theoretical Neuroscience: computational and mathematical modeling of neural systems" by Peter Dayan and Larry Abbott
- Computational Neuroscience on Coursera

Other info (related):

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