Neural Statics and Dynamics

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Abstract. A formal theory of systems was proposed previously as providing a quantitative basis for neural computation. This theory dictated the architectural aspects of a pyramidal-neuron system model including its operation, adaptation, and most importantly, its computational objective. The principal result was a perceptron architecture that, through adaptation, learns to ask a specific space-time question answered by a subset of the space-time binary codes that it can observe. Each code is rendered biologically by spatial and temporal arrangement of action potentials. Decisions made whether the learned question is answered or not are based on a logarithmic form of Bayes' Theorem which induces the need for a linear weighted superposition of induced synaptic effects. The computational objective of the system is simply to maximize its information throughput. The present paper completes prior work by formalizing the Hamiltonian for the single-neuron system and by providing an expression for its partition function. Besides explaining previous work, new findings suggest the presence of a computational temperature T above which the system must operate to avoid "freezing" upon which useful computation becomes impossible. T serves at least two important functions: (1) it provides a computational degree of freedom to the neuron enabling the realization of probabilistic Bayesian decisioning, and (2) it can be varied by the neuron so as to maximize its throughput capacity in the presence of measurement noise.

OVERVIEW

Communications systems [1] and general systems, which we simply call *systems*, have been described from a common perspective [2–5] that embraces the quantification of the relativity of information and action through the formulation of *logical questions* and *assertions* [6]. A communications system generates and inserts symbols into a channel, while a receiver attempts to acquire and reconstruct the information at the other side of the channel. Similarly, a system acquires information from its inputs and then uses that information to guide its output decisions. The neuron, having well-defined inputs and outputs, comprises a "system" and therefore should abide by a theory of systems that enables the quantification of the system computational objective and renders a design.

The design objective of a communications system is the reliable reconstruction of input codes by the receiver at the output. Similarly, the computational objective of a single-neuron system can be the reliable reconstruction of its input at its output. While a communications system may seek the lossless transmission of information, this represents an impossible goal for a neural system owing to the relative sizes of the input codebook (2^n) and output codebook (2) per channel usage assuming that action potentials represent binary signals. Regardless, the system computational goal can remain the maximal preservation of the information content of its input information at its output.

Previously results are summarized [7–14] followed by new results including the proposed system Hamiltonian and its partition function. We conclude with the definition and interpretation of the computational temperature $T = 1/\beta$, which serves to regulate neural decisioning and computation in the presence of variable non-specific measurement noise. One question that arises is whether the functionality of other kinds of neurons and neural systems can be derived in a similar fashion through the judicious selection of their respective Hamiltonians.

SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS RESULTS

Figure 1 summarizes the previous model of neural computation including its regulatory mechanisms for maximizing its information transfer capacity in the absence of noise. This is achieved through a homeostatic balancing of its information acquisition rate to its output decision rate through the coordinated adaptation of its $2n + 1$ parameters, where n is the number of neural inputs. Central to Figure 1 is an information or *I*-diagram [15] described by the ellipse labeled *Y* lying inside the ellipse labeled *X*. Here *X* and *Y* denote *logical questions* [6,7]. The *I*-diagram shown in Figure 1 depicts the system output decision rate or entropy being maximized through the enlargement of *Y*. The acquired information *X* can have maximal relevancy to *Y* as shown by the conformal matching of *Y* and *X*. Finally, the redundant information in *X* is eliminated as indicated by the shrinking of *X*.

Y represents the output information of the system and is defined by $Y \equiv \{y, \sim y\}$, where *y* and $\sim y$ are complementary assertions and represent the presence and absence of an action potential at any instant in time. *Y* is ostensibly the system "output" codebook. The system input information *X* is formally the conjunction of the questions X_i, $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ which describe the individual input information sources and therefore $X = X_1 \wedge X_2 \wedge .... \wedge X_n$. Each X_i is binary like *Y*. The *conjunction* [6] of the logical questions X_i yields *all* possible 2^n input codes *X* that can be rendered to the system at any instant in time and therefore represents its "input" codebook. An "instant" is on the order of the duration of an action potential.

(1) Gain Adaptation (λ)

The optimal gain vector λ is the largest eigenvector of the input conditional covariance matrix **R**:

$$\lambda(t + \Delta t) = \lambda(t) + \pi_1 \zeta(\boldsymbol{x})[\boldsymbol{x}(t) - \beta^{-2} \zeta(\boldsymbol{x})\lambda(t)]$$

(2) Delay Equalization (τ)

Elements of the optimal time delay vector must satisfy "momentum" equalization:

$$\tau_i(t + \Delta t) = \tau_i(t) - \pi_2 \lambda_i\, y(t)\, dx_i(t - \tau_i)/dt$$

(3) Threshold Adaptation (μ)

The optimal decision threshold μ is average somatic potential inducing firing events:

$$\mu(t + \Delta t) = (1 - \alpha)\, \mu(t) + \alpha\, \lambda^T(t)\, \boldsymbol{x}(t)$$

Somatic evidence potential for firing: $\zeta(\boldsymbol{x}, t) = \lambda^T \boldsymbol{x}(t) - \mu$
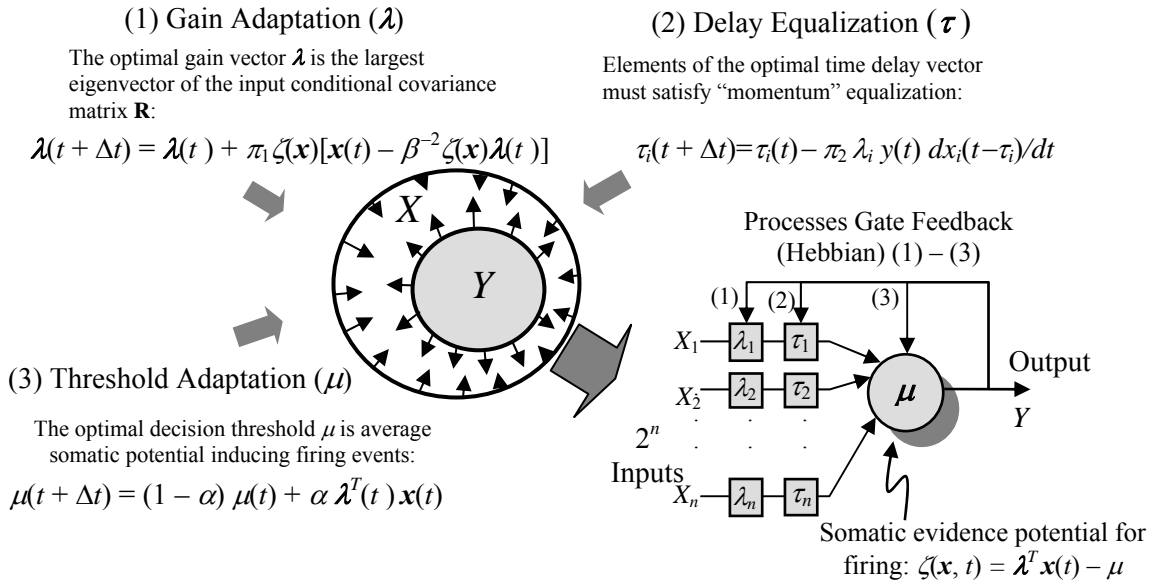
Figure 1: Overview of noiseless model of single-neuron computation.

The ellipse labeled *X* in Figure 1 is shrinking and becoming congruent to the ellipse labeled *Y*. This is computationally accomplished through the cooperative adaptation of two *n*-vectors consisting of a gain vector λ and a time-delay vector τ. At equilibrium, the gain vector λ should be aligned along the largest eigenvector of the conditional input covariance matrix [10] defined by $\mathbf{R} = \left\langle \left[\boldsymbol{x} - \left\langle \boldsymbol{x} \middle| y = 1 \right\rangle \right] \left[\boldsymbol{x} - \left\langle \boldsymbol{x} \middle| y = 1 \right\rangle \right]^T \middle| y = 1 \right\rangle$. The condition $y = 1$ corresponds to the explicit Hebbian gating [16] of this and the other system adaptation rules. One "online" way for a neuron to sequentially compute λ is through the modification of an equation originally proposed by Oja [10, 17]. This equation appears in its modified form in Figure 1 and is labeled *(1) Gain Adaptation*. The form of this equation enforces the normalization constraint $|\lambda|^2 = \beta^2$, where β will be seen to correspond to the inverse computational temperature of the neural system.

The vector τ defines a dendritic delay parameters that adapt cooperatively and lie in 1-to-1 those of λ. The ability to modify individual dendritic delays is essential if the neuron is to define the specific space-time codes that allows it to efficiently maximize its information throughput. The

adaptation of the individual delays τ_i comprising $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ are driven by the equation in Figure 1 labeled *(2) Delay Equalization*. Delay equalization seeks to achieve an equilibrium condition whereby there is zero average "momentum" transfer between the environment and the neuron, where "momentum" is defined by $\lambda_i y(t)dx_i(t-\tau_i)/dt$. Thus, the gain λ_i acts like mass and the time derivative $dx_i(t-\tau_i)/dt$ like velocity, with the output $y(t)=1$ serving as an explicit Hebbian gate. While the adaptation of the two *n*-vectors $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ and $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ serves to determine *what* and *when* the neuron selectively acquires information from its environment (the learned space-time code), a single parameter μ determines *what* and *when* decisions are generated. The parameter μ is the system decision threshold against which the measurement innovations $\nu = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{x}$ are compared. The scalar μ is predicted to undergo modest variations [10] that drive it to the equilibrium value of $\mu = E\{\nu\,|\,y=1\}$. This condition can easily be realized through the long-term temporal averaging of ν, contingent on a positive firing event $y=1$. An especially simple algorithm for achieving this is a convex sum such as that in Figure 1 labeled *(3) Threshold Adaptation* with $\alpha\in(0,1)$. In summary, the mutually cooperative adaptation of the $2n+1$ spatiotemporal parameters $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, $\boldsymbol{\tau}$, and μ serves to achieve the computational objective and functionality described graphically by the *I*-diagram in Figure 1.

Regarding neural decisioning, the terms that define the *evidence* function $\zeta = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{x} - \mu$ are in 1-to-1 correspondence with Bayes' theorem expressed logarithmically [8] such that Eq. (1) holds:

$$\beta \log \frac{p(y=1\,|\,\boldsymbol{x})}{p(y=0\,|\,\boldsymbol{x})} = \beta \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x}\,|\,y=1)}{p(\boldsymbol{x}\,|\,y=0)} + \beta \log \frac{p(y=1)}{p(y=0)}$$

$$= \beta\,(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{x} - \mu) = \beta\,\zeta\,. \tag{1}$$

Therefore, μ can be understood to be the logarithm of the prior odds of firing while $\nu = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{x}$ is the neural log-likelihood measurement statistic which is sufficient. The coefficient β is a scale factor having no preferred value in the absence of noise. The optimal adaptation of μ drives the system to have maximum output entropy [10] thereby making the last term in Eq. (1) approach zero since $p(y=0) = p(y=1) = \frac{1}{2}$.

Simulations have validated the described neural model and determined it to be exact [10] in the sense that the resulting noiseless neural capacity is maximized at 1 bit. However, three outstanding issues remain with this model. First, one would expect that the firing rule itself should be probabilistic, abiding by Eq. (1) as opposed to being deterministic as achieved through a simple threshold test. Secondly, the inverse temperature β is a free parameter with no apparent preferred scale, although it is known from simulations that if β exceeds a critical value of approximately 2, then the neuron ceases to function [10]. Third, the role and effect of measurement noise are not captured in this model. The remainder of this paper describes how these issues can be resolved in a mutually consistent manner that gives deeper insights into the previous results including the role of measurement noise in neural decisioning and the use of β by the neuron to mitigate the deleterious effects of measurement noise.

NEW RESULTS

The core element of the current model is the single-neuron probability distribution $p(\boldsymbol{x},y)$. Its derivation [7–14] is based on the principle of maximum entropy (ME) [18, 19]. Furthermore, this and other fundamental inductive logic principles such as Bayes' Theorem seem to entirely guide the neural regulation and operation. Therefore, just as all statistical mechanics is built from information theory [20], the mechanics of neural computation may be based on similar principles. The assumption made in deriving $p(\boldsymbol{x}, y)$ is that the neuron is capable of computing average statistics on $n+1$ observables that include the joint input-output moments $<x_i\,y>$ for $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ and the output moment $<y>$. If the fluctuations in these averages are small, then the law of large numbers guarantees that the averages approach the corresponding statistical moments thereby enabling the application of the ME principle. The ME functional maximized over the joint input-output distribution $p(\boldsymbol{x}, y)$ is

given by $\quad J = -\sum_{X,Y} p(\mathbf{x}, y) \log p(\mathbf{x}, y) + \lambda_0 \sum_{X,Y} p(\mathbf{x}, y) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i E\{x_i y\} - \mu E\{y\}$, with the optimal

distribution determined by solving $\delta J / \delta p = 0$ for $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$. This gives $p(\mathbf{x}, y) = \exp(-\beta H)/Z$, where $H = -\zeta y = -(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{x} - \mu)y$ is the system Hamiltonian and partition function Z and β is a free parameter. It can be seen that $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ and μ are $n+1$ Lagrange multipliers in J. The partition function Z is given by

$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in B^n} \sum_{y \in B} \exp\left[\beta \left(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{x} y - \mu y \right) \right] = \exp(1 - \lambda_0) , \qquad (2)$$

where B^n is a binary n-cube and where $B \equiv \{0, 1\}$. Therefore the resulting neural model is analogous to an "Ising" model for a magnetic system with varying coupling strengths λ_i residing in a mean field of strength μ. Since β is a free parameter, it can be absorbed into the parameters λ_i and μ and then subsequently ignored in the following analysis and this assumption enforced.

The partition function in Eq. (2) can be evaluated by summing first over the outputs $y \in B$ to obtain $Z = 2^n [1 + e^{-\mu} \Sigma \exp(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{x})]$, with the summation over B^n. This sum can be evaluated in many ways including standard transfer matrix techniques used in statistical physics [21] or even by direct

inspection and seen to be $\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in X} \exp(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (1 + e^{\lambda_i})$. It can be verified using $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ in conjunction

with a known equilibrium value for the specified threshold of $\mu = E\{\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{x} | y=1\}$, that $\mu = \Sigma \lambda_i \exp(\lambda_i)/[1+\exp(\lambda_i)]$ or $\mu = \Sigma \lambda_i p(x_i=1|y=1)$. After finding the Taylor expansion of $\exp(\lambda_i)/[1+\exp(\lambda_i)]$ about $\lambda_i = 0$, keeping the first two terms and then simplifying, Z becomes

$$Z = 2^n + 2^n \prod_{i=1}^{n} \cosh\left(\frac{\beta \lambda_i}{2} \right) e^{-\beta^2/4} . \qquad (3)$$

Results summarized at the beginning of this paper are contingent on Z being approximately equal to 2^{n+1}. This can only be true if the second term in Eq. (3) is also approximately 2^n. Noting that $\Sigma \lambda_i^2 = \beta^2$ by constraint and assuming that the gains λ_i^2 have a nominal fixed value λ_0^2, then $\lambda_i = \lambda_0 = \beta/n^{1/2}$ in Eq. (3). Variations in λ_i from λ have been observed to have little impact on Z as compared to the factor $\exp(-\beta^2/4)$ in Eq. (3). Now, $Z = 2^n + 2^n \cosh^n(\beta/2n^{1/2}) \exp(-\beta^2/4)$, which we write as $Z = 2^n + Z_1$. The function $\log_{10} Z_1/2^n$ is plotted in Figure 2 as a two-dimensional grayscale image with log-intensity. The nominal operational region is where $\log_{10} Z_1/2^n \approx 0$. One can see criticality effects in β as it increases or $T = 1/\beta$ decreases. It can be seen that Z_1 and Z are relatively independent of n, however, there is a modest increase in the allowable lower range of T with increasing n.
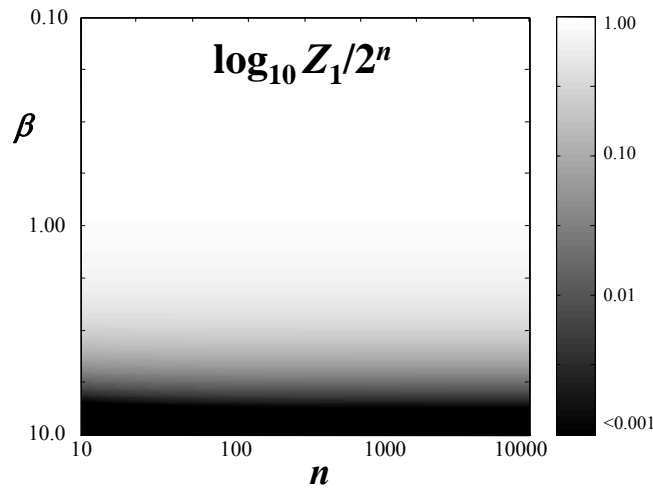

Figure 2: Critical region of neural operation over β and n.

As β exceeds 2, Z rapidly diminishes from 2^{n+1} to 2^n thereby violating the fundamental premise [8, 10] that $Z \approx 2^{n+1}$. As $Z \rightarrow 2^n$, the neural system ostensibly freezes and the number of system states is reduced by ½, thereby denying it the ability to perform useful computation. The effects on the described computational model as $Z \rightarrow 2^n$ have been observed in numerical simulations, but not previously explained [10].

If the soma serves as a spatiotemporal integrative structure by computing the innovation ν and then comparing it against the threshold μ, then neural decisions are deterministic. If this is true, then a neuron can achieve an optimal transduction rate of 1 bit per transaction or decision. However, this decision scheme obviates the flow of *a posteriori* probabilistic information per Eq. (1). If one admits the presence of neural inputs that are non-information bearing relative to ν, then these inputs can collectively induce a somatic noise potential $\eta(t)$ that, owing to a large number of nonspecific input sites and the central limit theorem, is posited as having a normal distribution $N(\mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$ in the soma. Noise effects, being additive and independent by assumption relative to $\zeta(t)$, give rise to a total somatic potential of $z(t) = \beta\zeta(t) + \eta(t)$.

Because of independence, the distribution of z is the convolution of the distributions of $\nu(t)$ and $\eta(t)$. This has a surprising result regarding neural decisioning. The probability of firing obeys almost exactly Bayes' theorem in Eq. (1) because the sigmoid function $p(y=1|x) = 1/[1+\exp(-\beta\zeta)]$ as derivable from Eq. (1), and the noise-induced probability of firing as derivable from the independence of ν and η and given by $p(y=1|\zeta+\eta) = \frac{1}{2} erfc[\zeta/(2^{1/2}\sigma_n)]$, are approximately equal if $\beta \approx (2\pi)^{1/2} \ln 2/\sigma_n$. Thus noise can provide an enabling mechanism for probabilistic decisioning using Bayes' Theorem. Regarding the mean induced noise potential μ_n, the threshold adaptation rule, left unchanged, ensures that the mean level of noise activity μ_n will be removed in adjustments to the threshold μ and hence the mean level of noise activity can effectively be eliminated through system habituation.

Noise has one deleterious effect, however, if the neuron uses probabilistic decisioning. Although in one regard noise serves to realize Bayesian decisioning, a side effect is the reduction in the throughput capacity C of the neuron owing to the deleterious effects of noise. As $\sigma_n^2 \rightarrow 0$, the noiseless model holds and C approaches 1 bit per decision event and the noiseless model holds.

Since $z(t) = \beta\nu(t) + \eta(t)$, the inverse temperature β, although irrelevant in the noiseless model, offers a computational degree of freedom wherein it serves to mitigate the effects of noise by providing gain prior its addition. However, criticality limits the upper bound of possible gains β.

As stated earlier, the innovation $\nu(t)$ is a log-likelihood sufficient statistic. Therefore, the neuron can compute using the marginal distributions $p(x|y=0)$ and $p(x|y=1)$, or equivalently, the probabilities $p(\nu|y=0)$ and $p(\nu|y=1)$ if known. One can determine $p(\nu|y=0)$ and $p(\nu|y=1)$ directly from $p(x,y)$ under the assumption that the number of inputs n is large and ν consequently Gaussian. One can easily determine the mutual information between the input x rendered as the measurement statistic ν at the soma and the now nondeterministic output y. Sample results are shown in Figure 3, where noise is varied over a "signal-to-noise ratio" SNR=β/σ_n of 0.01 to 100, β is fixed at $\beta = 0.1$, and n is varied from 10^1 to 10^4. One can see that system capacity improves systematically with increasing n and that even for modest SNRs, useful information transfer by the neural system is possible.
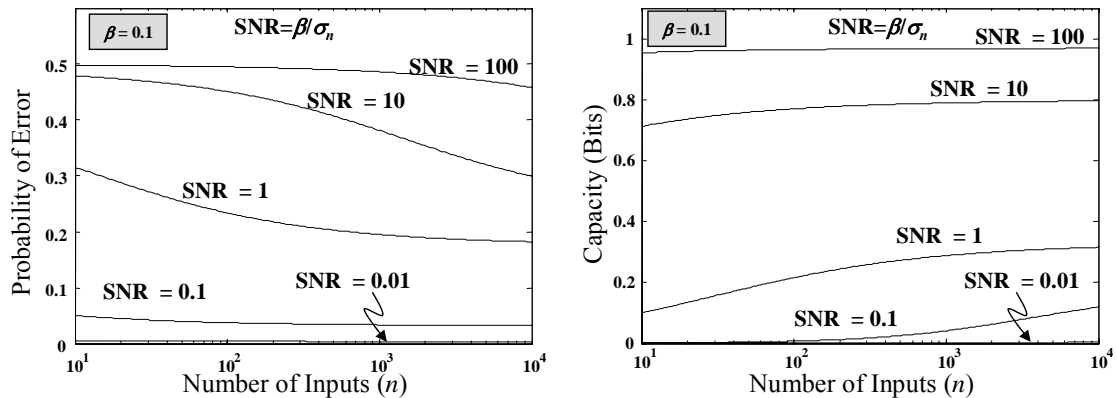

Figure 3: Probability of decision error (left) and neural system capacity (right) vs. SNR and n for $\beta = 0.1$.

SUMMARY

This paper summarizes previous and new results relating to a theory of neural computation based on the application of logic, probability, information theory and its extension to formal systems. Previous results describe a neural model defined by its $2n + 1$ parameters that interactively adapt upon the feedback of a positive firing event so as to maximize its information throughput capacity. New results substantiate and explain previous results and further predict the presence of a computational degree of freedom β called the system *computational inverse temperature*. This brings to total $2n + 2$ possible regulatory parameters. The inverse temperature β provides the neuron with the ability to maximize its information throughput in the presence of measurement noise and to perform probabilistic decisioning. Other findings and details must necessarily be reported at another time.

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