

A spiking neural network model of reinforcement learning in the basal ganglia

Guilherme Miotto

Student of the MSc. in Computer Science at the University of Freiburg

ABSTRACT

It is widely accepted that synaptic plasticity is the underlying mechanism that makes learning possible. However, it is not clear how traditional Hebbian plasticity rules, like spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP), could allow learning by trial-and-error. The issue is a temporal one: while rules like STDP operate in the time scale of dozens of miliseconds, learning by trial-and-error requires making associations between action and action-outcome, and these two elements may occur seconds apart from each other. This problem is known as credit assignment or distal reward problem, and can be solved using three-factor plasticity rules. These rules employ the concepts of eligibility traces and chemical neuromodulators to determine which synapses should be reinforced or weakened at the moment of the action-outcome exposure.

In this work, we build and simulate a network of spiking neurons based on the striatum, the main input nucleus of the vertebrate basal ganglia. The striatum receives sensory excitatory inputs from the cortex and a dopaminergic modulatory signal from the Ventral Tegmental Area (VTA). This network is able to consistently learn cue-action associations in an instrumental conditioning task. It is also capable of adapting to action-reward contingency inversions.

This report is a description of the activities performed as a requirement for the 16 ECTS course **Master project** in the research field neurorobotics, during the summer semester of 2019.

KEYWORDS

Reinforcement learning Dopamine Plasticity Spiking neurons Simulation

INTRODUCTION

In the field of Computer Science, Reinforcement Learning (RL) is a set of Artificial Intelligence (AI) algorithms that defines an agent capable of taking actions in an environment to maximize rewards. The agent must be (at least partially) aware of the current state of the environment in order to evaluate the possible actions. If the agent is not exploring, it takes the action with the highest value and experiences the action-outcome. Based on the action-outcome, the agent can update its prediction mechanisms and repeat the process. As this

loop is iterated over and over again, the actions of the agent become less random and more effective in maximizing reward. This kind of trial-and-error learning is also observed in biological systems.

In animals, the state representation can be divided into two parts. The animal's own internal state, for example, memories, hunger level, arousal level, etc., and the external state which is acquired via sensory stimuli. Based on the state representation, the animal then takes an action that is expected to maximize rewards (e.g. food, mating opportunities) or minimize punishments (e.g. pain, encounters with predators). The ability to learn by trial-and-error seems to be fundamental for animals to thrive in their natural habitats.

But also in more controlled settings, biological rein-

Manuscript compiled: Tuesday 24th September, 2019 ¹Corresponding author: guilherme.miotto@gmail.com



forcement learning can be observed. For instance, in instrumental conditioning experiments, animals can learn to associate certain cues (e.g. an odor or a light) to certain actions (e.g. pull a lever) if this specific cueaction pattern is paired with reward delivery (e.g. a food pellet) or punishment avoidance (e.g. turning off an electric shock). Such similarities between the "artificial" and the biological reinforcement learning beg the question of whether they operate by similar computations. And if so, where in the brain would those computations take place. Scientific investigation, especially during the last three decades, has begun to clarify this matter.

There is a good amount of evidence that the basal ganglia is highly involved in reinforcement learning at least for simple behaviors (Tai et al. (2012); Kravitz et al. (2012); Cox and Witten (2019); Kwak and Jung (2019); Neftci and Averbeck (2019)). The basal ganglia is a set of sub-cortical nuclei present in the brain of vertebrates that plays an important role in motor control and movement initiation (Graybiel et al. (1994); Mink (1996); Turner and Desmurget (2010)). The input nucleus of the basal ganglia is the striatum. The striatum receives massively convergent afferents from the cortex (Haber (2016)), therefore it is "aware" of the state of the environment. The output of the basal ganglia is mainly directed to the thalamus that is then forwarded back to the cortex. This cortico-basal-thalamo-cortico loop, that receives sensory information as inputs and outputs movement initiation signals, gives the basal ganglia a suitable structure to perform reinforcement learning.

Another key element of this system is the dopaminergic projection coming from the midbrain. Axons from the Ventral Tegmental Area (VTA) and Substantia Nigra pars Compacta (SNc) densely innervate the striatum and there they branch profusely. The main neurotransmitter released by those axons is dopamine (DA) which acts as a neuromodulator in the striatum. Since the late 90's, it is known that midbrain dopaminergic neurons encode reward prediction errors (RPE) (Schultz et al. (1997)); meaning that they fire above the baseline firing rate when the animal experiences an unexpected reward and, likewise, they fire bellow their baseline when an unpredicted aversive event happens. If something rewarding or aversive happens that was already predicted by the animal, DA neurons keep firing at their baseline. The RPE encoded by DA neurons is staggering similar to the time-difference error (TD-error) used in AI's RL. Therefore, this signal could

be used to modulate plasticity of the cortico-striatal synapses to perform reinforcement learning.

However, traditional models of Hebbian plasticity, like spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP), does not account for a neuromodulator third-factor. In the traditional form of STDP, synaptic weights are adjusted based solely on the timing of the spikes of the pre and post-synaptic neurons. If the pre-synaptic neuron fires before the post-synaptic one, the synapse is potentiated. Conversely, the synapse is depressed if the post-synaptic neuron fires before the pre-synaptic one. But if the difference between the spike time of the neurons is greater than approximately 100ms, the change in the synaptic strength is negligible ((Bi and Poo 1998)). This limited time-window poses a challenge for RL: how to determine which synapses of the decision-making circuitry should be potentiated or depressed if the action-outcome can be experienced seconds after the decision was made? One possible solution is a three-factor plasticity rule with eligibility traces.

In the three-factor plasticity rule discussed in this study, synaptic weights are adjusted based not only on spike-timings but also on the extracellular concentration of a neuromodulator, more specifically, dopamine. According to this rule, the pairing pre and post-synaptic spikes will not be enough to drive synaptic weight changes, but it will raise the amount of eligibility trace of that synapse. The eligibility trace has a natural decay so that if it is not increased by spike pairing events, it will tend to zero. If the extracellular concentration of dopamine deviates from baseline, all synapses with a non-zero eligibility trace will have their weights adjusted. For the decision-making process, this translates as follows: First, the animal gets to a state where an action has to be taken. Then, it integrates sensory information and the internal state, both arriving from the cortex and landing on the striatum. The decision-making is conducted in the striatum and the corticostriatal synapses that were active in the process have their eligibility traces increased. During the next seconds, if the dopamine concentration in the striatum doesn't deviate from the baseline, no synaptic weight is changed. However, if the animal receives an unexpected reward, dopamine concentration increases and synapses with non-zero eligibility trace will be strengthened. Conversely, if the action-outcome was unexpected aversive, dopamine concentration will fall and the eligible synapses will be depressed. This system ensures that actions that resulted in unexpected



rewards become more likely to be taken again in the future, while actions that resulted in punishments become less likely to be repeated.

While this theory of decision making in the striatum via STDP modulated by dopamine is appealing due to its simplicity and powerful implications, it was not clear until recently whether it was biologically plausible. However, an ever-growing body of evidence seems to support it. First of all, activation of dopamine neurons has been shown to lead to, for instance, operant self-stimulation (Rossi et al. (2013)), habit acquisition (Yin and Knowlton (2006); Graybiel and Grafton (2015)) and addiction (Kauer (2004)). Therefore, it seems clear that animals will learn to repeat behaviors that previously increased activity of dopamine neurons. Moreover, training animals on instrumental conditioning tasks was shown to selective increase synaptic weights of certain populations of cortico-striatal synapses (Xiong et al. (2015)). Also, stimulating distinct groups of cortico-striatal neurons was sufficient to bias the decision-making of rodents towards specific actions (Tai et al. (2012); Znamenskiy and Zador (2013)). Finally, plasticity of corticostriatal neurons in rodents was shown to be indeed modulated by dopamine (Pignatelli and Bonci (2015); Brzosko et al. (2019)), and this modulation seems to be based on an eligibility trace that allows maximum weight change for rewards arriving no later than two seconds after the spike pairing (Shen et al. (2008); Yagishita et al. (2014); Fisher et al. (2017); Shindou et al. (2019) but see Pawlak et al. (2010) and Gerstner et al. (2018) for reviews). Biological evidence of eligibility traces is a remarkable example of theoretical predictions guiding experimentalists to relevant findings.

In the present study, we simulate a network of spiking neurons that is capable of learning by trial-anderror in a biological plausible way. The task at hand is an instrumental conditioning protocol, involving two different sensory cues and two possible actions. The network is capable of learning the correct cue-action associations and to adapt when the action-reward contingency change.

METHODS

The network, being a generic theoretical model, was built to be agnostic towards the sensory modality and nature of the actions. However, to make the results presented here easier to relate, the task shown in Figure 1A was used to illustrate the kind of problem the network has to solve. In this task, a rat is trained in

a two-choice forced action problem, known in the AI field as a two-arm bandit problem. The training process consists of a sequence of many trials. A trial starts with the presentation of an auditory cue; it could either be a high or a low pitch sound. Cue selection is done at random with 50-50 probability. After that, the rat has to communicate its decision by poking a snout-port either at the left-hand side or at the right-hand side. If the sound presented was a low tone and the rat chooses the left-hand side, then the animal is rewarded with a drop of water; it is also rewarded if the sound was high and the choice was the right-hand side. The other two possible combinations (low-right and high-left) are not rewarded. After some seconds a new trial starts.

The basic structure of the network of spiking neurons, here used as an abstraction for the rat's brain, is shown in Figure 1B. The cortical network is made of 1250 neurons, which are randomly connected to each other with a fixed in-degree of 125. From those neurons, 1000 are excitatory and 250 are inhibitory. Inhibitory synapses are 8 times stronger than the excitatory ones. The striatal network is made 200 hundred inhibitory neurons that connect to each other with a fixed in-degree of 20. The synaptic strength in the striatum is the same as the inhibitory neurons in the cortex. All synapses within the cortex and striatum are static. All neurons in the cortex and striatum are current-based leaky-integrate-and-fire neurons, with alpha-function shaped synaptic currents. Both cortex and striatum receive excitatory drive from Poissonian spike trains in order to bring the average firing rate of those networks to around 1 Hz, as observed in-vivo (Swadlow (1990); Hikosaka et al. (1989)). The excitatory population of the cortex connects to the striatum with a fixed in-degree of 100. These are the only plastic connections of the model. Initially, their synaptic weight is the same as other cortical excitatory synapses. Cortico-striatal synaptic plasticity is controlled by a three-factor rule modulated by dopamine concentration. The dopamine concentration is a consequence of the activity in the VTA, which, for simplicity, is modeled as a single neuron that fires once every 0.1 ms. Every-time the VTA neuron spikes, dopamine concentration increases by a fixed value, but this concentration also decays exponentially, therefore, the concentration tends to a quasi-constant baseline value. As long as the dopamine concentration stays at baseline levels, the weights of the network remain fixed. The only way that the dopamine concentration can deviate from the baseline is if the VTA changes its firing rate.



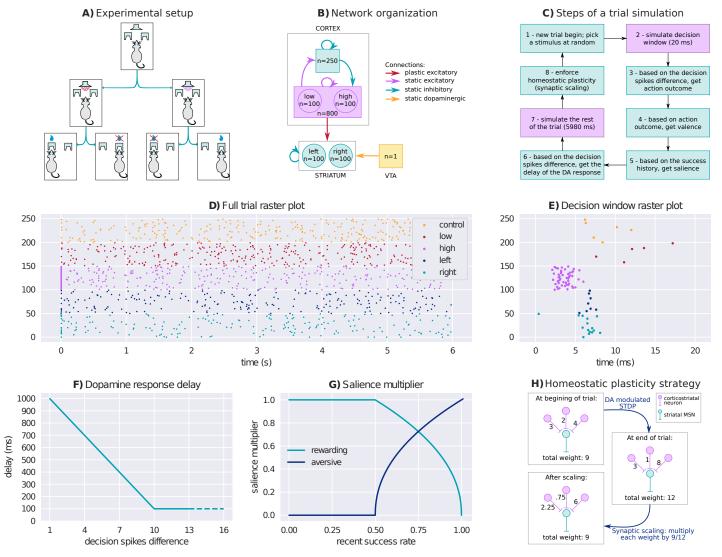


Figure 1 Methods. A) The task modeled: A rat is placed in a cage with two snout-poke ports. Next, an auditory cue is presented; it could be either a low tone or a high tone. Then, the rat must decide which port to poke. To get a reward, the rat has to poke the left port when the low tone is presented, or the right port when the high tone is presented. Other combinations do not provide any reward. B) Basic network structure: The network can be divided into three subnetworks: cortex, striatum and VTA. The cortex has 1250 neurons; 250 inhibitory and 1000 excitatory. From the 1000 excitatory neurons, 100 of them are sensitive to low tones and 100 sensitive to high tones. The striatum has 200 inhibitory neurons, 100 encoding the action go-left and 100 go-right. All neurons from cortex and striatum connect to each other with fixed indegree of 10% the size of the pre-synaptic population. Cortico-striatal connections are plastic, all the others are static. The VTA is modeled as a single neuron, whose firing rate regulates dopamine concentration. Dopamine concentration is broadcasted equally among all cortico-striatal synapses. C) Steps involved in the simulation of one trial. D) Raster plot of randomly selected neurons in a randomly selected trial. Samples of 50 neurons from 5 subpopulations are shown. Orange: cortex neurons that are not sensitive to any cue; Red: cortex neurons that are sensitive to low tones; Pink: cortex neurons that are sensitive to high tones; Blue: Striatum neurons encoding the action go-left; Red: Striatum neurons encoding the action go-right; In this example trial, the presented cue was a high tone and the action taken was go-right. E) Same raster plot as in D but zoomed into the decision window (first 20ms of the trial) F) Delay between end of the decision window and the disturbance of the VTA firing rate as a function of the difference between the number of spikes of the go-left and go-right populations. G) Salience of the dopaminergic response as a function of the success rate in case of taking rewarded actions (rewarding) and unrewarded actions (aversive). H) An example of how homeostatic plasticity is performed. At the end of every trial, each neuron in the striatum scale all its input synaptic weights by the same constant. This constant is the one that brings the sum of these weights back to the value it had at the beginning of the trial.

For this network to be able to interact with the environment it needs to be sensitive to sensory inputs and be able to take actions. Sensory stimuli are inputted at the cortex. From the 1000 excitatory cortical neurons 200 of them, picked at random, are sensitive to auditory stimuli: 100 to low-pitch and 100 to high-pitch sounds. Each trial starts with the auditory cue presentation. When the cue is presented, the corresponding population receives a direct current stimulation of 300 pA during 10 ms. This is sufficient to reliably make a great share of that population fire.

Actions are read from the striatum. From the 200 neurons in the striatum, half of them encode the action go-left and the other half the action go-right. The selected action is determined by the population that fires the most during the decision making time-window, which spans the first 20 ms of each trial. This is the same decision-making strategy used by Izhikevich (2007). Figure 1D shows a raster plot of an example trial and Figure 1E is a zoom of the first 20ms of this trial.

Depending on whether the action taken was rewarded or not, VTA firing rate momentarily increases or decreases. The change in firing rate starts just after some delay. This delay is variable and it represents the time to fulfill the action movements and experience the action outcome. This delay is proportional to the difference in the number of spikes of the striatal populations. If this difference is high, the delay is short. If the difference is small, the delay is long. This is to reflect the biological observation that the difference in activity of competing action-enconding populations is proportional to the action vigor (Gold and Shadlen (2007); Ding and Gold (2013)). In other words, if the competition between candidate actions is won by a large margin, the winner action is executed faster and the animal experiences the action-outcome sooner. The delay can vary between 1000ms, if the spike-count difference is just 1, and 100 ms, if the spike difference is equal or greater than 10, as shown in Figure 1F. After deciding when the action-outcome will be revealed, it is necessary to establish how salient the dopamine response will be, i.e. how strong the change in VTA's firing rate will be.

As mentioned before, the activity of the dopaminergic neurons of the VTA can encode RPEs. The RPE is the difference between the expected reward and the reward that was actually obtained. In the experiment modeled in this study (Figure 1A), RPEs tend to be large and positive during the first trials. This is be-

cause the animal has no reward expectations at this stage and all obtained rewards will be perceived as large positive surprises. However, reward expectations begin to increase as the animal gets trained on the task and the success rate gets larger than random chance (50%). Since the obtained rewards are not such surprises anymore, RPE decreases. Eventually, the animal will be certain that the reward will be delivered and the RPE for obtained rewards will be zero. Nevertheless, at this point, if the animal chooses the wrong action, the RPE will be very large but negative. This is because in this situation the expected reward is large, but the received reward was zero, therefore the RPE is large and negative. Positive RPEs are rewarding by nature, and animals tend to act to maximize them, negative RPEs are aversive and animals tend to avoid

It is out of the scope of this study to model the network of neurons that compute the RPE, therefore the activity of VTA is modeled here directly by equations. Equations 1 and 2 define the reward multiplier (r_m) and the aversion multiplier (a_m) , receptively. As expected, both equations are direct functions of the success rate (s_r) . They have a fixed behavior for success rates bellow 50% (naive rat; no expectations; doing just as well as random chance) and progressively change their values as the success rate gets higher than 50%. The success rate is calculated using the history of the last 31 trials. Both the length of the relevant history (31) and the exponent of the equations (0.4625) were determined by optimization, i.e. those are the values that resulted in the best performing networks. Finally, (r_m) and (a_m) are multiplied by 20 to arrive to how many extra/missing spikes should be added/subtracted to/from the VTA's regular activity. Equations 1 and 2 are shown graphically in Figure 1G.

$$r_m = \begin{cases} 1 & s_r \le 0.5\\ (2 - 2s_r)^{0.4625} & s_r > 0.5 \end{cases}$$
 (1)

$$a_m = \begin{cases} 0 & s_r \le 0.5\\ (2s_r - 1)^{0.4625} & s_r > 0.5 \end{cases}$$
 (2)

Simulations were conducted using NEST v2.16 (Gewaltig and Diesmann (2007); Linssen *et al.* (2018)). Mathematical details about the dopamine modulated plasticity model and how it was implemented on NEST can be found in Izhikevich (2007) and Potjans *et al.* (2010).



RESULTS

Figure 2 summarizes the main results of this study. Figure 2G shows that the network is capable of learning the task even in the face of an action-reward contingency inversion. To get to about 95% of success rate, the network takes about 25 trials when untrained and about 50 trials after the reversal.

The underlying mechanism of learning in this network is the selective reinforcement of certain corticostriatal synapses. Figure 2A shows the mean weight of the synapses between cortical neurons that are responsive to low-pitch sounds and the striatum. As training progresses, neurons from group this get biased towards increasing its connectivity to neurons from the go-left population. This makes the action go-left more likely after a low-tone cue is presented. Nevertheless, this connectivity preference is changed after contingency reversal. Figure 2B shows the same type of plot, but for cortical neurons that are responsive to high-tone sounds. The results are similar, the only difference is that the connectivity preference is inverted.

Not only the neurons of the low and high populations are involved in the decision making. In fact, all synapses between cortex and striatum are plastic and influence the action choice. But, because the remaining 800 cortical neurons are not directly sensitive to the cues, all the increased activity they get when a cue is presented comes from in-cortex recurrent connections with the low-tone and high-tone populations. Since a random network was used to model the cortex (no topology or feature-specific connectivity), these neurons receive on average the same amount of inputs from the low-pitch and high-pitch populations. Therefore, the overall effect is that the weights of these synapses remain roughly fixed, even though they are constantly being potentiated and depressed throughout the training, as shown in Figure 2C. However, it is possible to see in this Figure that the weights do not remain exactly fixed, but they decrease slowly. This is a consequence of the synaptic scaling mechanism, that depresses these synapses to "make room" for other synapses to be potentiated. This decay is not caused by the synaptic plasticity rule itself.

Figure 2E shows the absolute difference in the number of spikes of the striatal populations happening inside the decision window:

$$|spikes(left) - spikes(right)|_d w$$

It can be observed that this number increases as train-

ing progresses. This phenomena can be understood as the animal becoming surer of which action to take, and performing it faster (more vigor). Immediately after the reversal, this number drops considerably, because of the sudden increase in uncertainty.

Figure 2F shows the magnitude of RPE (i.e. the salience of the action-outcome) at each trial in case of success (rewarding) or failure (aversive). As explained before, in the beginning of the training, positive outcomes are very rewarding, but as the success rate increases, their become less rewarding. The opposite is observed for negative outcomes. At first, they are not aversive, but as the success rate increases, they become more aversive. When the performance is close to perfect, the rewarding salience is zero and the aversive salience is maximum. However, the network makes almost no mistakes anymore at this point, therefore, no RPE (rewarding or aversive) is experienced, and the dopamine concentration stays at its baseline. During this period, there is no change in synaptic weights as shown in Figures 2A and B.

DISCUSSION

In this study, a network of spiking neurons based on the interface between cortex and striatum was built. To overcome the distal reward problem, a three-factor plasticity rule was used. Even though all corticostriatal synapses were plastic, selective potentiation of subsets of synapses emerged as a consequence of training. This allowed the network to progressively increase its probability of getting more rewards. The network was able to learn an instrumental conditioning task commonly used in experiments with rodents. Reversal learning was also tested with satisfactory results.

The instrumental conditioning task used in this study was a simple one. However, it involves fundamental building blocks of decision making, that in turn are essential for more complex cognitive processes. Moreover, this task can be the testbed for many learning abilities, like cue-action association, reversal learning, handling probabilistic outcomes, handling ambiguous sensory information (e.g. cloud of tones) and balancing exploration-exploitation. This task also allows easy performance comparisons with traditional RL algorithms like TD-learning and q-learning. Therefore, future studies could easily be performed using the already built model.

The plasticity rule that was used in this study was the one implemented on NEST (Izhikevich (2007); Pot-



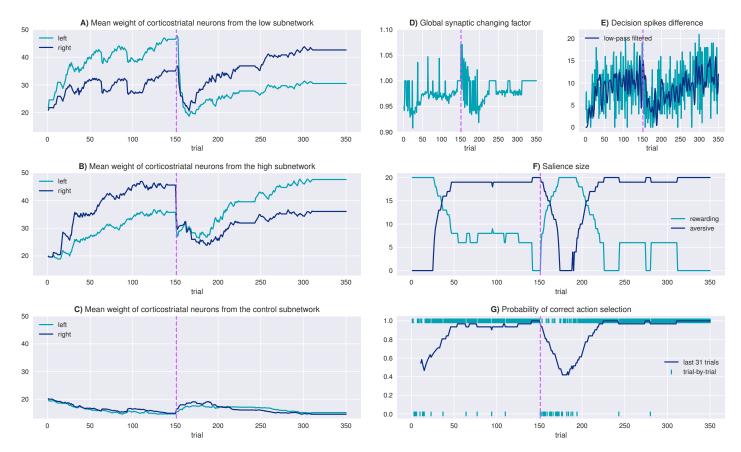


Figure 2 Results. The pink vertical line indicates the moment of action-reward contingency inversion A) Mean synaptic weight between cortical neurons that are sensitive to low-tone sounds and the striatum. B) Mean synaptic weight between cortical neurons that are sensitive to high-tone sounds and the striatum. C) Mean synaptic weight between cortical neurons that are not sensitive to sounds and the striatum. D) Ratio between the sum of all cortico-striatal weights before and after a trial. It gives an idea of how large are the changes in synaptic weight in every trial. E) Absolute difference between the number of spikes of the go-left and go-right striatal populations that occurred inside the decision window. F) Number of VTA spikes to be added to the baseline (rewarded trials – rewarding) or subtracted from the baseline (non-rewarded trials – aversive). G) Success history. The green vertical bars represents the result at each trial: 0 means failure and 1 means success. The dark blue line represents the success rate over the previous 31 trials.



jans et al. (2010)). This rule operates on the gatingprinciple, which means that weight changes just happen if dopamine concentration deviates from baseline; when the concentration is above baseline, normal STDP takes place (pre-before-post results in LTP and post-before-pre results in LTD), but when the concentration is below baseline, a reversed STDP happens (pre-before-post results in LTD and post-before-pre results in LTP). Although the gating principle is backed by some experiments (Yagishita et al. (2014); Fisher et al. (2017)), it is contradicted by other studies. For instance, a recent study (Shindou et al. (2019)) has shown that D1 neurons of the striatum undergo LTD at baseline dopamine concentrations when stimulated by prebefore-post protocol. But this LTD could be converted into LTP if a phasic increase of the dopamine concentration happened 2 seconds after the stimulation, raising the possibility that LTD itself could be an eligibility trace for D1 striatal neurons. Nevertheless, regardless of the specific role of dopamine in cortico-striatal plasticity, be it gating plasticity or converting LTD into LTP, from a computational neuroscience point-of-view what matters is that the dopamine concentration is capable of influencing the outcome of the synaptic weight change. Given that this feature is present, the influence of dopamine could be modeled in many different ways and the final computational results would be similar. In other words, the exact way that the dopamine influence is exerted, though important to be represented in future models, is not an essential requisite to demonstrate the computational capabilities of this kind of plasticity.

The network built in this study operates in a fundamentally different way from an AI RL algorithm (e.g. TD-learning), but it is still possible to compare some characteristics of those two. For instance, in AI RL, exploration is generally handled as an add-on rule and not by the algorithm itself. For example, the epsilon-greedy method will ocasionally overwrite the RL algorithm's desired action with a random one. On the other hand, exploration arises naturally in the presented network as a consequence of the random neural activity. Indeed, the learning process selectively potentiates certain groups of cortico-striatal synapses, but this is not enough to make action selection deterministic, it only increases the probability of choosing certain actions.

The network is capable of basic reversal learning, but animals use a more elaborated reversal mechanism that the network is not capable to reproduce. In the deterministic outcome scenario, as the one explored in

this study, rats tend to decrease the amount of trials they need to learn the reversed action-reward contingency. Which means that after the first time the contingency is reversed, it can take a couple of trials for the animal to get back to its previous success rate. However, as training progresses, the number of "relearning trials" reduce and, eventually, a single non-rewarded trial is enough to make the animal flip its decisionmaking rule. This is a strong indication that the animal is relying on something more than altering the synaptic weights between cortical sensory inputs and striatal decision making populations. A hypothesis is that the animal expands its state representation with an extra feature: a latent variable representing the contingency currently being rewarded. Latent variables are not obtained directly via sensory input, instead, they are inferred by the animal. However, the network presented here can not learn any latent variable. As a consequence, every time a contingency reversal occurs, the network takes roughly the same time to relearn the new association³. This is a great deficiency compared to what is observed in animals.

How animals learn latent variables and compose their state representations is an open and active research question (Gershman *et al.* (2015); Tervo *et al.* (2016)), but some theories begin to emerge (Costa *et al.* (2015); Wilson *et al.* (2014)). Expanding the model of this study, so that it can dynamically handle state representations with latent variables, could be an interesting direction for further developments of this project.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am thankful to my advisors Prof. Dr. Stefan Rotter and Prof. Dr. Joschka Boedecker for the guidance and fruitful discussions. Also thanks to my colleagues Jijo George and Janine Laturner for helping me with IT issues and giving me ideas for code troubleshooting. This work would not be possible without the computer cluster NEMO, which is supported by the state of Baden-Württemberg through bwHPC and the German Research Foundation (DFG) through grant INST 39/963-1 FUGG (bwForCluster NEMO).

LITERATURE CITED

Bi, G.-q. and M.-m. Poo, 1998 Synaptic modifications in cultured hippocampal neurons: dependence on

³ This result is not explicitly shown. In Figure 2, just one reversal was performed.



- spike timing, synaptic strength, and postsynaptic cell type. Journal of neuroscience **18**: 10464–10472.
- Brzosko, Z., S. B. Mierau, and O. Paulsen, 2019 Neuromodulation of spike-timing-dependent plasticity: Past, present, and future. Neuron **103**: 563 581.
- Costa, V. D., V. L. Tran, J. Turchi, and B. B. Averbeck, 2015 Reversal learning and dopamine: a bayesian perspective. Journal of Neuroscience 35: 2407–2416.
- Cox, J. and I. B. Witten, 2019 Striatal circuits for reward learning and decision-making. Nature Reviews Neuroscience p. 1.
- Ding, L. and J. I. Gold, 2013 The basal ganglia's contributions to perceptual decision making. Neuron **79**: 640–649.
- Fisher, S. D., P. B. Robertson, M. J. Black, P. Redgrave, M. A. Sagar, *et al.*, 2017 Reinforcement determines the timing dependence of corticostriatal synaptic plasticity in vivo. Nature communications **8**: 334.
- Gershman, S. J., K. A. Norman, and Y. Niv, 2015 Discovering latent causes in reinforcement learning. Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences 5: 43–50.
- Gerstner, W., M. Lehmann, V. Liakoni, D. Corneil, and J. Brea, 2018 Eligibility traces and plasticity on behavioral time scales: experimental support of neohebbian three-factor learning rules. Frontiers in neural circuits 12.
- Gewaltig, M.-O. and M. Diesmann, 2007 Nest (neural simulation tool). Scholarpedia 2: 1430.
- Gold, J. I. and M. N. Shadlen, 2007 The neural basis of decision making. Annual review of neuroscience 30.
- Graybiel, A. M., T. Aosaki, A. W. Flaherty, and M. Kimura, 1994 The basal ganglia and adaptive motor control. Science **265**: 1826–1831.
- Graybiel, A. M. and S. T. Grafton, 2015 The striatum: where skills and habits meet. Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in biology 7: a021691.
- Haber, S. N., 2016 Corticostriatal circuitry. Neuroscience in the 21st Century pp. 1–21.
- Hikosaka, O., M. Sakamoto, and S. Usui, 1989 Functional properties of monkey caudate neurons. i. activities related to saccadic eye movements. Journal of neurophysiology **61**: 780–798.
- Izhikevich, E. M., 2007 Solving the distal reward problem through linkage of stdp and dopamine signaling. Cerebral cortex 17: 2443–2452.
- Kauer, J. A., 2004 Learning mechanisms in addiction: synaptic plasticity in the ventral tegmental area as a result of exposure to drugs of abuse. Annu. Rev. Physiol. **66**: 447–475.
- Kravitz, A. V., L. D. Tye, and A. C. Kreitzer, 2012 Dis-

- tinct roles for direct and indirect pathway striatal neurons in reinforcement. Nature neuroscience **15**: 816.
- Kwak, S. and M. W. Jung, 2019 Distinct roles of striatal direct and indirect pathways in value-based decision making. eLife 8.
- Linssen, C., M. E. Lepperød, J. Mitchell, J. Pronold, J. M. Eppler, *et al.*, 2018 Nest 2.16.0.
- Mink, J. W., 1996 The basal ganglia: focused selection and inhibition of competing motor programs. Progress in neurobiology **50**: 381–425.
- Neftci, E. O. and B. B. Averbeck, 2019 Reinforcement learning in artificial and biological systems. Machine Intelligence p. 3.
- Pawlak, V., J. R. Wickens, A. Kirkwood, and J. N. Kerr, 2010 Timing is not everything: neuromodulation opens the stdp gate. Frontiers in synaptic neuroscience 2: 146.
- Pignatelli, M. and A. Bonci, 2015 Role of dopamine neurons in reward and aversion: a synaptic plasticity perspective. Neuron **86**: 1145–1157.
- Potjans, W., A. Morrison, and M. Diesmann, 2010 Enabling functional neural circuit simulations with distributed computing of neuromodulated plasticity. Frontiers in computational neuroscience 4: 141.
- Rossi, M. A., T. Sukharnikova, V. Y. Hayrapetyan, L. Yang, and H. H. Yin, 2013 Operant self-stimulation of dopamine neurons in the substantia nigra. PLoS One 8: e65799.
- Schultz, W., P. Dayan, and P. R. Montague, 1997 A neural substrate of prediction and reward. Science **275**: 1593–1599.
- Shen, W., M. Flajolet, P. Greengard, and D. J. Surmeier, 2008 Dichotomous dopaminergic control of striatal synaptic plasticity. Science **321**: 848–851.
- Shindou, T., M. Shindou, S. Watanabe, and J. Wickens, 2019 A silent eligibility trace enables dopamine-dependent synaptic plasticity for reinforcement learning in the mouse striatum. European Journal of Neuroscience 49: 726–736.
- Swadlow, H. A., 1990 Efferent neurons and suspected interneurons in s-1 forelimb representation of the awake rabbit: receptive fields and axonal properties. Journal of Neurophysiology **63**: 1477–1498.
- Tai, L.-H., A. M. Lee, N. Benavidez, A. Bonci, and L. Wilbrecht, 2012 Transient stimulation of distinct subpopulations of striatal neurons mimics changes in action value. Nature neuroscience 15: 1281.
- Tervo, D. G. R., J. B. Tenenbaum, and S. J. Gershman, 2016 Toward the neural implementation of structure



- learning. Current opinion in neurobiology **37**: 99–105.
- Turner, R. S. and M. Desmurget, 2010 Basal ganglia contributions to motor control: a vigorous tutor. Current opinion in neurobiology **20**: 704–716.
- Wilson, R. C., Y. K. Takahashi, G. Schoenbaum, and Y. Niv, 2014 Orbitofrontal cortex as a cognitive map of task space. Neuron **81**: 267–279.
- Xiong, Q., P. Znamenskiy, and A. M. Zador, 2015 Selective corticostriatal plasticity during acquisition of an auditory discrimination task. Nature **521**: 348.
- Yagishita, S., A. Hayashi-Takagi, G. C. Ellis-Davies, H. Urakubo, S. Ishii, *et al.*, 2014 A critical time window for dopamine actions on the structural plasticity of dendritic spines. Science **345**: 1616–1620.
- Yin, H. H. and B. J. Knowlton, 2006 The role of the basal ganglia in habit formation. Nature Reviews Neuroscience 7: 464.
- Znamenskiy, P. and A. M. Zador, 2013 Corticostriatal neurons in auditory cortex drive decisions during auditory discrimination. Nature **497**: 482.



APPENDIX: SOURCE CODE

Following is the main part of the source code of the model presented here. The complete source code, including the plotting functions, can be found online at: https://github.com/gui-miotto/spiking-BG-RL. The most recent version of this report is available at this URL.

Listing 1 main.py

```
import sys, os
  import numpy as np
  from SpikingBGRL import Experiment
   if name == ' main ':
       # Build experiment
6
       exp = Experiment()
       # Make any tweaks here. For example:
       #exp.brain.vta.DA pars['A plus'] = .15 * exp.brain.vta.DA pars['weight']
10
       # Run normal conditioning
12
       success_history = exp.train_brain(n_trials=150, save_dir='run1')
       result = np.sum(success\_history[-100:])
14
       # Run reversal learning
15
       success_history = exp.train_brain(n_trials=150, rev_learn=True, save_dir='run1')
16
       result += np.sum(success history[-100:])
17
18
       print('Successful_trials:' result)
19
```

Listing 2 Experiment.py

```
import nest
  import numpy as np
3 from mpi4py import MPI
  from time import time
  from datetime import timedelta
  from . BrainStructures import Brain
   from .DatalO import ExperimentResults, ExperimentMethods, NetworkSnapshot
   class Experiment():
9
       """Class representing the instrumental conditioning of a brain. A experiment is sequence of
10
       trials. At each trial, a cue is presented to the brain and an action is taken by the brain.
11
       Class members whose names are followed by a trailing (e.g. self.success) are updated at every
12
       trial, the others are constant throughout the whole experiment.
13
14
           __init__(self, seed=42, debug_mode=False):
           """ Constructor
16
           Parameters
           seed: int, optional
20
               Master seed for EVERYTHING. Runs with the same seed and number of virtual processes
21
               should yeld the same results. By default 42
22
           self.debug = debug mode
24
           # Experiment parameters
26
           self.trial duration = 1100. if self.debug else 6000. # Trial duration
27
```

self.eval_time_window = 20. # Time window to check response via spike count



```
self.tail of trial = self.trial duration — self.eval time window
    self.min DA wait time = 100. # Minimum waiting time to reward
    self.max DA wait time = 1000. # Maximum waiting time to reward
    self.warmup_magnitude = 1. if self.debug else 25. # The duration of the warmup period is
                                                      # given by warmup_magnitude * vta.tau_n
    # A random number generator (used to determine the sequence of cues)
    self.rng = np.random.RandomState(seed)
    # The brain to be trained
    scale = .2 if self.debug else 1.
    self.brain = Brain(master seed=seed, scale=scale)
    self.brain initiated = False
   #MPI rank (here used basically just to avoid multiple printing)
    self.mpi rank = MPI.COMM WORLD.Get rank()
    self.rank0 = self.mpi rank == 0
def train_brain(self, n_trials=400, syn_scaling=True, aversion=True,
    rev_learn=False, baseline_only=False, full_io=True, save_dir='/tmp/learner'):
    """ Creates a brain and trains it for a specific number of trials.
    Parameters
    n_trials : int, optional
       Number of trials to perform, by default 400
    syn_scaling : bool, optional
        If True, a homeostatic plasticity rule (synaptic scaling like) will be applied at the
       end of every trial, by default True
    aversion: bool, optional
        If True, taking wrong actions makes dopamine sink bellow the baseline. If False, taking
       wrong actions will keep dopamine concentrarion at baseline levels. By default True.
    rev learn: bool, optional
        If True the stimuli/action association that results in reward is reversed, by default
        False
    baseline only: bool, optional
        If True dopamine is kept at baseline levels regardless of the action taken, by default
        False
    full io: bool, optional
        If False, there are no IOs to files and not essential MPI messages are not sent. Setting
        this variable to False is useful for tests and automated optimization processes that
       depend only on the success rate By default True.
    save dir : str, optional
        Directory where the outputs will be saved (if full_io=True). Existing files will be
        overwritten. By default '/tmp/learner'
    Returns
    list[bool]
       A list with the success history
   # Some handy variables
    color = {'red': '\033[91m', 'green': '\033[92m', 'none': '\033[0m'}
    # Create brain and simulate a warmup
    if not self.brain_initiated:
```

30

31

33

35

36

38

40

42

44

46

48

50 51

53

54

55

57

58

59

61

65

69

72

73

74

76 77

78

80

81

82

```
self. initiate brain(full io, save dir)
86
            # Simulate trials
88
            trials_wall_clock_time = list()
            for trial in range(1, n_trials +1):
                self.trial_begin_ = nest.GetKernelStatus('time')
91
                if self.rank0:
92
                    print(f'Simulating_trial_{trial}_of_{n_trials}:')
93
                # Adjust the amplitude of the dopamine bursts/dips
95
                self.brain.vta.adjust_salience_size(self.success_)
                # Simulate one trial and measure time taken to do it
                trial start = time()
99
100
                self. simulate one trial(
                    aversion=aversion, rev_learn=rev_learn, baseline_only=baseline_only)
101
                wall_clock_time = time() - trial_start
102
                trials_wall_clock_time.append(wall_clock_time)
103
104
                # Synaptic scaling
105
                if syn scaling:
                     self.brain.homeostatic_scaling(log_syn_change_factor=full_io)
107
108
                # Store experiment results on file(s):
                if full io:
110
                     self.brain.read_spike_detectors()
111
                     self.brain.read synaptic weights()
112
                    ExperimentResults (self). write (save_dir)
                self.brain.reset_spike_detectors()
114
115
                # Print some useful monitoring information
116
                n suc = np.sum(self.success)
                if self.rank0:
118
                    print(f'Trial_simulation_concluded_in_{wall_clock_time:.1f}_seconds')
119
                    print(f'End-of-trial_weight_change:_{self.brain.syn_change_factor_:.5f}')
                    if self.success [-1]:
121
                         print(f'{color["green"]} Correct_action{color["none"]}')
122
                    else:
                         print(f'{color["red"]} Wrong_action{color["none"]}')
124
                    print(f'{n_suc}_correct_actions_so_far_({n_suc_*_100._/_len(self.success_):.2 f}%)')
125
                    mean_wct = np.mean(trials_wall_clock_time)
126
                    print(f'Average_elapsed_time_per_trial:_{mean_wct:.1f}_seconds')
127
                    remaining_wct = round(mean_wct * (n_trials - trial))
                    print(f'Expected_remaining_time:_{timedelta(seconds=remaining_wct)}\n')
129
130
            if full io:
131
                self.brain.store_network_snapshot()
                NetworkSnapshot(self).write(save dir)
133
            return self.success
135
        def _initiate_brain(self, full_io, save_dir):
137
            # Create the whole neural network
138
            if self.rank0:
139
                print('\nBuilding_network')
            build start = time()
141
            n_nodes = self.brain.build_local_network()
142
```



```
build elapsed time = time() - build start
    # Write to file the experiment properties which are trial—independent
    if full io:
       ExperimentMethods(self). write(save dir)
    # Print build information
    warmup duration = self.warmup magnitude * self.brain.vta.tau n
    if self.rank0:
        print(f'Building_completed_in_{build_elapsed_time:.1f}_seconds')
        print('Number_of_nodes:', n_nodes)
        print(f'Initial_total_plastic_weight:_{self.brain.initial_total_weight:,}')
        print(f'Simulating_warmup_for_{warmup_duration}_ms')
    # Simulate warmup
    warmup start = time()
    syn_change = self.simulate_rest_state(
        duration=warmup_duration, reset_weights=True, return_change_factor=full_io)
    warmup elapsed time = time() - warmup start
    # Print warmup statistics
    if self.rank0:
        print(f'Warmup_simulated_in_{warmup_elapsed_time:.1f}_seconds')
        print(f'Synaptic_change_during_warmup:_{syn_change:.5f}\n')
    # Some variable initiation
    self.success = list()
    self.brain_initiated = True
def simulate one trial(self, aversion, rev learn, baseline only):
    # Decide randomly what will be the next cue and do the corresponding stimulation
    self.cue_ = ['low', 'high'][self.rng.randint(2)]
    self.brain.cortex.stimulate_subpopulation(spop=self.cue_, delay=self.brain.dt)
    # Simulate evaluation window and count the resulting decision spikes
    self.brain.vta.set_drive(length=self.eval_time_window, drive_type='baseline')
    nest.Simulate(self.eval time window)
    decision spikes = self.brain.striatum.count decision spikes()
    # Check if the action the correct one
    self.lminusr = decision spikes['left'] - decision spikes['right']
    if self.lminusr == 0:
        success = False
    else:
        success = (self.cue == 'low' and self.lminusr > 0) or \
                  (self.cue_ == 'high' and self.lminusr_ < 0)
        success = not success if rev learn else success
    self.success .append(success)
    # According to the action outcome, deliver the appropriate DA response
    if self.lminusr_ == 0 or baseline_only: # just keep the baseline
        self.brain.vta.set drive(length=self.tail of trial, drive type='baseline')
        wait_time = self.max_DA_wait_time - (abs(self.lminusr_) - 1) * 100.
        wait_time = round(np.clip(wait_time, self.min_DA_wait_time, self.max_DA_wait_time))
        drive_type = 'rewarding' if success else 'aversive' if aversion else 'baseline'
```

145

148

149

150

152

154

156

157

158

160

161 162

164

165

167

168

169

171 172

173

175

179

181 182

183

184

186

187

188

190

192

194

195 196

198

```
self.brain.vta.set drive(
200
                    length=self.tail of trial, drive type=drive type, delay=wait time)
201
202
            # Simulate the rest of the trial
203
            nest.Simulate(self.tail_of_trial)
204
205
206
        def simulate rest state(self, duration=100., reset weights=True, return change factor=True):
207
            """Simulates the network in its resting state, i.e.: no stimulus and under dopamine baseline
            levels. This function is used to simulate the warmup period and is a great debuging tool.
209
            Parameters
211
212
            duration: float, optional
213
                Simulation duration, by default 100.
            reset weights: bool, optional
215
                If true corticostriatal synapses will be set to it initial value after the simulation,
                by default True
217
            return change factor: bool, optional
218
                If True returns the synaptic change factor that happened during the simulation.
219
                by default True
221
            Returns
222
223
            [type]
224
                Synaptic change factor (i.e. the original total plastic weight divide by the total
225
                weight after simulation). Ideally should be as close to 1. as possible.
226
            self.brain.vta.set_drive(length=duration, drive_type='baseline')
228
            nest. Simulate (duration)
229
            syn change factor = self.brain.get total weight change() if return change factor else -1.
230
            self.brain.reset spike detectors()
            if reset weights:
232
                self.brain.reset_corticostriatal_synapses()
234
            return syn change factor
235
```

Listing 3 BaseBrainStructure.py

```
import nest
  import numpy as np
2
3
   class BaseBrainStructure(object):
       # static numpy random number generators
5
       _py_rngs = None
6
       @property
       def py_rngs(self):
8
           return type(self)._py_rngs
10
11
       def init (self, scale=1):
12
           self.scale = scale #TODO: make it static?
13
           self.N = dict() # Number of neurons in each subpopulation
14
                                  # Neuron handles for each subpopulation
           self.neurons = dict()
15
           self.spkdets = dict()
                                  # Spike detectors
16
           self.events = dict()
                                  # Events registered by the spike detectors
17
           self.grouped_synapses = list() # A list of lists of plastic synapses grouped by target
18
```

```
self.plastic weight setpoint = None # Total plastic weight per target neuron — will be used
19
                                                 # as homeostatic setpoint for each neuron
20
21
       def build_local_network(self):
23
           raise NotImplementedError('All_brain_scructures_must_implement_build_local_network()')
25
26
       def initiate_membrane_potentials_randomly(self, v_min=None, v_max=None, pops=['ALL']):
           if v min == None and v max == None:
28
               neu_pars = nest.GetDefaults('default_neuron')
               v_min, v_max = neu_pars['V_reset'], neu_pars['V_th']
           for pop in pops:
32
33
               node info = nest.GetStatus(self.neurons[pop])
               local_nodes = [(ni['global_id'], ni['vp']) for ni in node_info if ni['local']]
               for gid, proc in local_nodes:
                    nest.SetStatus([gid], {'V_m': self.py_rngs[proc].uniform(v_min, v_max)})
36
38
       def read_spike_detectors(self):
           for pop, spkdet in self.spkdets.items():
40
               self.events_[pop] = nest.GetStatus(spkdet, 'events')[0]
41
43
       def reset_spike_detectors(self):
44
           for spkdet in self.spkdets.values():
45
               nest.SetStatus(spkdet, {'n_events' : 0 })
47
48
       def group synapses per target(self, sources, targets, syn model):
49
           local_gids = [ni['global_id'] for ni in nest.GetStatus(targets) if ni['local']]
           self.grouped_synapses = [nest.GetConnections(sources, [gid], syn_model) for gid in local_gids]
51
       def homeostatic scaling(self):
           # TODO: this loop is naturally parallelized if using mpi. Maybe it could be interesting to
55
           # paralelize this loop also for multithreading
           for syns in self.grouped_synapses:
57
               current_weights = np.array(nest.GetStatus(syns, 'weight'))
58
               scaling_factor = self.plastic_weight_setpoint / np.sum(current_weights)
59
               new weights = scaling factor * current weights
60
               nest.SetStatus(syns, params='weight', val=new_weights)
61
```

Listing 4 Brain.py

```
import nest, multiprocessing
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from itertools import product
from mpi4py import MPI
from copy import deepcopy

from . BaseBrainStructure import BaseBrainStructure
from . Cortex import Cortex
from . Striatum import Striatum
```



Internal random number generator (RNG) for NEST (i.e. used by the kernel)

self.kernel_pars['rng_seeds'] = range(self.kernel_pars['grng_seed'] + 1, mid_seed)

v_procs = self.mpi_procs * self.kernel_pars['local_num_threads']

mid_seed = self.kernel_pars['grng_seed'] + 1 + v_procs



def configure kernel(self):

63

64

65

```
# RNGs for the user (i.e used by these scripts)
    BaseBrainStructure.py rngs = \
        [np.random.RandomState(seed) for seed in range(mid_seed, mid_seed + v_procs)]
    # Configure kernel
    nest.set_verbosity(self.verbosity)
    nest.ResetKernel()
    nest.SetKernelStatus(self.kernel_pars)
def build local network(self):
    # Configure kernel and threads
    self. configure kernel()
    # Create default neuron and synapse (will be used by the structures bellow)
    nest.CopyModel('iaf_psc_alpha', 'default_neuron', self.neuron_params)
    nest.CopyModel('static_synapse', 'default_synapse', {
        'delay' : self.syn delay,
        'weight': self.J,
        })
    # Create neurons from structures of the brain
    for struct in self.structures:
        struct.build local network()
        self.spkdets.update(struct.spkdets)
        #TODO: there shouldnt be repeated keys here, assure that
    # Connect cortex to striatum in a balanced way (We wouldnt need to be so careful if the
    # network was larger, because the chance of having big percentual differences in
    # connectivity between suppopulations would be smaller
    self.plastic weight setpoint = self.cortex.C['E'] * self.J
    self.initial_total_weight = self.cortex.C['E'] * self.J * self.striatum.N['ALL']
    for source, target in product(['low', 'high', 'E_no_S'], ['left', 'right']):
        nest.Connect(
            self.cortex.neurons[source],
            self.striatum.neurons[target],
            { 'rule ': 'fixed_indegree', 'indegree': self.cortex.C[source]},
            corticostriatal_synapse'
    self.group_synapses_per_target( # For later use on synaptic scaling
        self.cortex.neurons['E'], self.striatum.neurons['ALL'], 'corticostriatal_synapse')
    # Get connections for later weight monitoring
    self.w_ind = ['low', 'high', 'E_rec', 'E']
    self.w_col = ['left', 'right', 'ALL']
    self.synapses = pd.DataFrame(index=self.w_ind, columns=self.w_col)
    self.weights count = deepcopy(self.synapses) # number of synapses
    self.weights_mean_ = deepcopy(self.synapses) # average weight
    self.weights_hist_ = deepcopy(self.synapses) # weight histogram
    for source, target in product(self.w_ind, self.w_col):
        cnns = nest.GetConnections(self.cortex.neurons[source], self.striatum.neurons[target])
        self.synapses.loc[source, target] = cnns
        self.weights_count.loc[source, target] = len(cnns)
    # Return total number of nodes in the network
    return nest.GetKernelStatus('network_size')
```

70

71

75

76

78 79

80

82

86

88

90

91

93

94

95

97

98

99

101

102

104

105

106

107 108

109

110

112

113

114

116

118

120

121

122

124

```
def read synaptic weights (self):
    for source, target in product(self.w_ind, self.w_col):
        weights = nest.GetStatus(self.synapses.loc[source, target], 'weight')
        self.weights_mean_.loc[source, target] = np.mean(weights)
        self.weights_hist_.loc[source, target] = np.histogram(
            weights, bins=21, range=(0., self.vta.DA pars['Wmax']))[0]
def reset_corticostriatal_synapses(self):
    nest.SetStatus(self.synapses.loc['E', 'ALL'], params='weight', val=self.J)
def homeostatic_scaling(self, log_syn_change_factor):
    if log syn change factor:
        self.syn_change_factor_ = self.get_total_weight_change()
    super(). homeostatic_scaling()
def get_total_weight_change(self):
    ""Calculates how much the total sum of plastic weights has increased/decreased in relation
    to the initial (before trials) values. This helps monitoring network explosions/implosions.
    (This function uses MPI communication.)
    Returns
    [float]
        initial_total_weight / current_total_weight ratio
    weights = nest.GetStatus(self.synapses.loc['E', 'ALL'], 'weight')
    total weight = np.sum(weights, dtype='f')
    recvbuf = np.empty(self.mpi_procs, dtype='f') if self.mpi_rank == 0 else None
    self.mpi comm. Gather(total weight, recvbuf, root=0)
    if self.mpi rank == 0:
        total weight = np.sum(recvbuf)
        change factor = self.initial total weight / total weight
    else:
        change_factor = None
    change_factor = self.mpi_comm.bcast(change_factor, root=0)
    return change_factor
def store network snapshot(self):
    """ Reads and stores all synaptic weights individually
    all_neurons = self.cortex.neurons['ALL'] + self.striatum.neurons['ALL']
    local neurons = [ni['global id'] for ni in nest.GetStatus(all neurons) if ni['local']]
    self.snapshot = list()
    for cnn in nest.GetConnections(all neurons, local neurons): # synapse info is stored in the
        cnn info = nest.GetStatus([cnn])[0]
                                                                  # post synaptic side
        self.snapshot_.append({
            'source' : cnn info['source'],
            'target' : cnn_info['target'],
            'weight' : cnn info['weight'],
            'delay' : cnn_info['delay'],
        })
```



128

130

131

132

133

135

136

137

139

140

143 144 145

147

148

150

151 152

154 155

156

158

159

161

162 163

165

166 167

169

170 171

173

175

177

178

179

181

Listing 5 Cortex.py

```
import math, nest
   from .BaseBrainStructure import BaseBrainStructure
2
   class Cortex(BaseBrainStructure):
       def __init__(self, neu_params, J_E, **args):
           super(). init (**args)
8
           # Number of neurons
           self.N['l'] = int(250 * self.scale) # number of inhibitory neurons
10
           self.N['E'] = 4 * self.N['l'] # number of excitatory neurons
11
           self.N['E\_rec'] = self.N['I\_rec'] = int(100 * self.scale) # num of neurons to record from
12
           self.N['low'] = self.N['high'] = int(100 * self.scale) # subpops associated to stimuli
13
           self.N['E_{no}S'] = self.N['E'] - self.N['low'] - self.N['high']
           self.N['ALL'] = self.N['I'] + self.N['E']
15
           # Connectivity
17
           epsilon = .1 # connection probability
18
           self.C = {pop : int(epsilon * n) for pop, n in self.N.items()} # num synapses per neuron
19
           # Synapse parameters
21
           g = 8. # ratio inhibitory weight/excitatory weight
           self.J = {'E' : J_E} # amplitude of excitatory postsynaptic current
23
           self.J['I'] = -g * self.J['E'] # amplitude of inhibitory postsynaptic current
25
           # Background firing rate
           eta = .88 # external rate relative to threshold rate
27
           nu_th = neu_params['V_th'] * neu_params['C_m']
28
           nu_th /= self.J['E'] * self.C['E'] * math.e * neu_params['tau_m'] * neu_params['tau_syn_ex']
29
           nu ex = eta * nu th
30
           self.bg_rate = 1000.0 * nu_ex * self.C['E']
31
32
           # Stimulation protocol
33
           self.stim duration = 10. #3. #ms
34
           self.stim_intensity = 300. #pA
36
37
       def build local network(self):
38
           # Create neurons
           for pop in ['E', 'I']:
40
               self.neurons[pop] = nest.Create('default neuron', self.N[pop])
41
42
           # Sample subpopulations
           cut = 0
44
           for pop in ['low', 'high', 'E_rec']:
45
               self.neurons[pop] = self.neurons['E'][cut:cut+self.N[pop]]
               cut += self.N[pop]
           self.neurons['l_rec'] = self.neurons['l'][:self.N['l_rec']]
48
           self.neurons['E no S'] = tuple(
49
               set(self.neurons['E']) - set(self.neurons['low']) - set(self.neurons['high']))
           self.neurons['ALL'] = self.neurons['E'] + self.neurons['I']
51
52
           # Connect subpopulations to spike detectors
53
           for pop in ['low', 'high', 'E_rec', 'l_rec']:
               self.spkdets[pop] = nest.Create('spike detector')
55
```

```
nest.Connect(self.neurons[pop], self.spkdets[pop])
56
57
           # Connect neurons with each other
58
           for pop in ['E', 'I']:
               syn_model_name = f'cortex_{pop}_synapse'
               nest.CopyModel('default_synapse', syn_model_name, {"weight": self.J[pop]})
61
               conn_params = {'rule': 'fixed_indegree', 'indegree': self.C[pop]}
62
               nest.Connect(self.neurons[pop], self.neurons['ALL'], conn params, syn model name)
63
           # Create and connect background activity
65
           background_activity = nest.Create('poisson_generator', params={"rate": self.bg_rate})
           nest.Connect(background activity, self.neurons['ALL'], syn spec='cortex E synapse')
67
           # initiate membrane potentials
69
           self.initiate membrane potentials randomly()
70
71
           # Create and connect sensory stimulus
           self.stimulus = dict()
73
           for pop in ['low', 'high']:
               self.stimulus[pop] = nest.Create('step current generator')
75
               nest.Connect(self.stimulus[pop], self.neurons[pop])
77
       def stimulate_subpopulation(self, spop, delay = 0.):
78
           stim_onset = nest.GetKernelStatus()['time'] + delay
           nest.SetStatus(self.stimulus[spop], params={
80
                'amplitude_times': [stim_onset, stim_onset + self.stim_duration],
81
                'amplitude values': [self.stim intensity, 0.],
82
           })
```

Listing 6 Striatum.py

```
1 import nest
  import numpy as np
  from itertools import product
  from mpi4py import MPI
  from .BaseBrainStructure import BaseBrainStructure
   class Striatum(BaseBrainStructure):
       """ Abstraction of a striatum. Contains just inhibitiony neurons mutually connected randomly
       with constant indegree. Can be divided into two subpopulations. Connections within a
       subpopulation can have greate (i.e. less negative) weights than those across
10
       subpopulations. Class members whose names are followed by a trailing _
11
       (e.g. self.firing_rates_) are updated at every trial, the others are constant throughout
12
       the whole experiment.
13
14
       def __init__(self, C_E, J_I, **args):
15
           super(). __init__(** args)
16
           # Number of neurons
18
           \#n = int(1.25 * C_E) \# neurons per subpopulation
19
           n = int(100 * self.scale)
20
           self.N['left'] = self.N['right'] = n
21
           self.N['ALL'] = self.N['left'] + self.N['right']
22
           # Connectivity
24
           epsilon = .1 # connection probability
25
           self.conn_params = { 'rule ': 'fixed_indegree', 'indegree': int(epsilon * n)}
26
```



```
27
           # synapse parameters
28
           self.w = 0. # deviation between strength of inter and intra-subpopulation synapses
29
           self. J_{inter} = J_{inter} * (1. + self.w) # weight between neurons of distinct sub populations
           self. J_{intra} = J_{intra} * (1. - self.w) # weight between neurons of the same sub populations;
           # Background activity
33
           self.bg rate = 7950.
34
           # MPI communication
36
           self.mpi_comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
           self.mpi rank = self.mpi comm.Get rank()
38
           self.mpi procs = self.mpi comm.Get size()
40
       def build local network(self):
41
           # Create neurons and connect them to spike detectors
           for pop in ['left', 'right']:
                self.neurons[pop] = nest.Create('default_neuron', self.N[pop])
               self.spkdets[pop] = nest.Create('spike detector')
               nest.Connect(self.neurons[pop], self.spkdets[pop])
           self.neurons['ALL'] = self.neurons['left'] + self.neurons['right']
48
           # Connect neurons to each other
49
           nest.CopyModel('default_synapse', 'striatum_intra_syn', {"weight": self.J_intra})
           nest.CopyModel('default_synapse', 'striatum_inter_syn', {"weight": self.J_inter})
51
           for origin, target in product(['left', 'right'], ['left', 'right']):
52
               syn model = 'striatum intra syn' if origin == target else 'striatum inter syn'
               nest.Connect(self.neurons[origin], self.neurons[target], self.conn_params, syn_model)
55
           # Create and connect background activity
           background_activity = nest.Create('poisson_generator', params={"rate": self.bg_rate})
57
           nest.Connect(background_activity, self.neurons['ALL'], syn_spec='cortex_E_synapse')
59
           # initiate membrane potentials
           self.initiate_membrane_potentials_randomly()
62
       def count decision spikes (self):
63
           dec_spk = [nest.GetStatus(self.spkdets[pop], 'n_events')[0] for pop in ['left', 'right']]
           dec_spk = np.array(dec_spk, dtype='i')
           recvbuf = np.empty([self.mpi_procs, 2], dtype='i') if self.mpi_rank == 0 else None
           self.mpi_comm.Gather(dec_spk, recvbuf, root=0)
67
           if self.mpi rank == 0:
               recvbuf = np.sum(recvbuf, axis=0)
               decision_spikes = {pop : recvbuf[it] for it, pop in enumerate(['left', 'right'])}
70
           else:
71
               decision spikes = dict()
72
           decision_spikes = self.mpi_comm.bcast(decision_spikes, root=0)
73
           return decision spikes
74
```

Listing 7 VTA.py

```
import nest
import numpy as np
from .BaseBrainStructure import BaseBrainStructure

class VTA(BaseBrainStructure):
```



```
def __init__(self, dt, J_E, syn_delay, **args):
7
           super(). init (**args)
8
9
           self.dt = dt # simulation timestep
           self.N['ALL'] = 1 # Number of neurons. No need to scale here
11
12
           # Dopamine modulation parameters
13
           self.tau n = 200.
14
           self.DA_pars = {
               'weight': JE, # Default 1.
16
               'delay': syn_delay, # Default 1.; Synaptic delay
               'tau n' : self.tau n, # Default 200.; Time constant of dopaminergic trace in ms
18
               'b' : 1. / self.dt, # Default 0.; Dopaminergic baseline concentration
               'n': 1. / self.dt + 2.5 / self.tau n, # Default 0.; Initial dopamine concentration
20
               'A_plus': .1993088006 * J_E, # Default 1.; Amplitude of weight change for facilitation
               'A_minus': .102861686 * J_E, # Default 1.5; Amplitude of weight change for depression
22
               'Wmax': 3.8622647000698906 * J E, # Maximal synaptic weight
               #'tau_c': 1000., # Default 1000., # Time constant of eligibility trace in ms
24
               "tau plus': 20.0, # Default 20.; STDP time constant for facilitation in ms
25
               #'Wmin': 0., # Default 0. # Minimal synaptic weight
26
               #'vt' : volt_DA[0], # Volume transmitter will be assigned later on
28
           self.max_salience = 20 # integer greater than 0. Number of spikes added or subtracted to
29
                                    # the baseline in the face of rewarding or aversive events
30
                                    # (respectively)
31
           self.reward_size_ = self.max_salience
32
           self.aversion size = 0
33
           self.memory = 31 # How many trials is taken into account to calculate the salience size
           self.degree = .4625462336213272
35
36
37
       def adjust salience size (self, success history):
           recent successes = np.sum(success history[-self.memory:])
39
           failure_rate = (self.memory - recent_successes) / self.memory
    TODO: make it dependent on
                                                                            # the success rate, as in the
41
                                                                            # report
42
           # If failure rate is no better than chance, use max salience and zero
           if failure_rate >= .5:
45
               self.reward_size_ = self.max_salience
46
               self.aversion size = 0
           # Otherwise adjust salience gradually proportianally to the failure rate
           else:
49
               reward_mult = (2. * failure_rate) ** self.degree
50
               aversi mult = (1. - 2. * failure rate) ** self.degree
51
               self.reward_size_ = round(reward_mult * self.max_salience)
               self.aversion size = round(aversi mult * self.max salience)
53
               # round() returns an integer if ndigits is omitted
55
       def build local network(self):
57
           # Create nodes
58
           self.drive = nest.Create('spike_generator') # Spike generator to drive VTA activity
59
           self.neurons['ALL'] = nest.Create('parrot_neuron', self.N['ALL']) #A middleman parrot neuron
           self.vt = nest.Create('volume_transmitter') # volume transmitter
61
```



```
# Connect nodes in a chain
   # We can't connect the spike generator directly to the volume transmitter due to a NEST bug)
    nest.Connect(self.drive, self.neurons['ALL'], syn_spec={'delay' : self.dt})
    nest.Connect(self.neurons['ALL'], self.vt, syn_spec={'delay' : self.dt})
    self.DA_pars['vt'] = self.vt[0]
    # Create synapse that will be used by cortico-striatal neurons
    nest.CopyModel('stdp dopamine synapse', 'corticostriatal synapse', self.DA pars)
def set_drive(self, length, drive_type='baseline', delay=None):
    drive_types = ['baseline', 'rewarding', 'aversive']
    if drive type not in drive types:
        raise ValueError('drive type must one of those:', drive types)
    begin = nest.GetKernelStatus()['time'] + self.dt
    end = begin + length - .5 \star self.dt \# subtract .5 dt for numerical stability
    if drive type == 'baseline':
        spike times = np.arange(begin, end, self.dt)
   else:
        if delay is None:
            raise ValueError('It_is_necessary_to_specify_the_delay_for_reward_or_aversion')
        delivery = begin + delay
        if drive_type == 'rewarding': # i.e the baseline with some extra spikes
            spike_times = np.sort(np.concatenate((
                np.arange(begin, end, self.dt),
                np.arange(delivery , delivery + (self.reward_size_ - .5) * self.dt, self.dt)
            )))
        elif drive type == 'aversive': # i.e. the baseline with some missing spikes
            spike times = np.concatenate((
                np.arange(begin, delivery -.5 * self.dt, self.dt),
                np.arange(delivery + (self.dt * self.aversion_size_), end, self.dt)
           ))
    spike times = np.round(spike times, decimals=1)
    nest.SetStatus(self.drive, params={'spike_times' : spike_times})
```

65

69

70

72

73

76 77

78

82

84

85

88

91

92

93

95

97