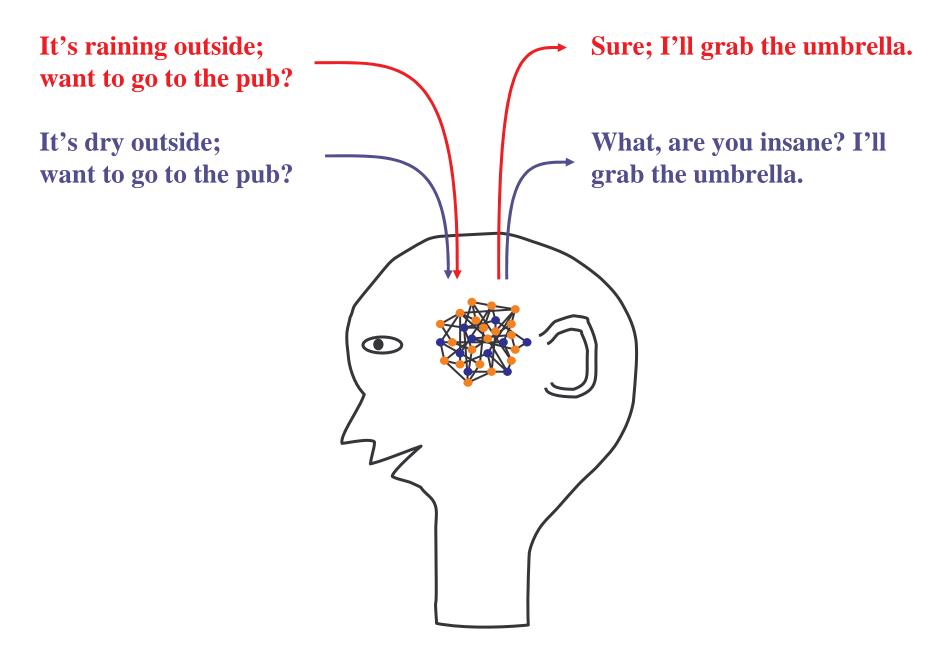
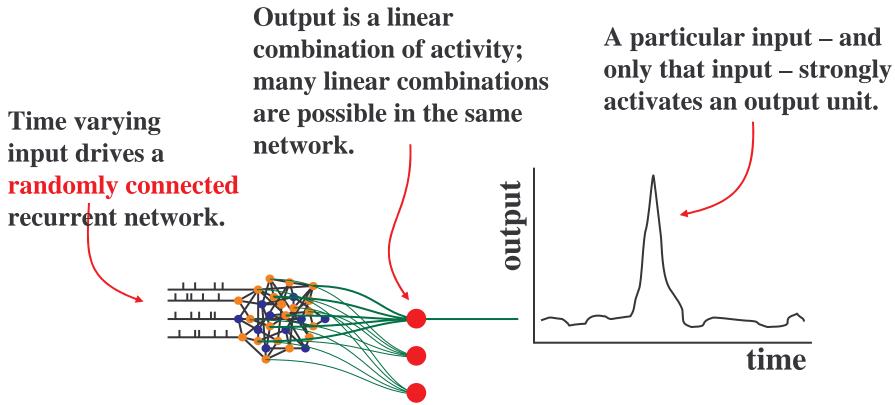
Typical exchanges in London



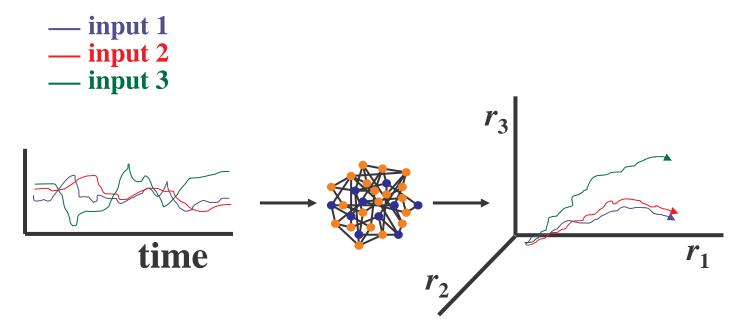
- The present state of networks depend on past input.
- For many task, "past" means 10s of seconds.
- Goal: understand how a single network can do this.
- Use an idea suggested by Jaeger (2001) and Maass et al. (2002).

The idea:



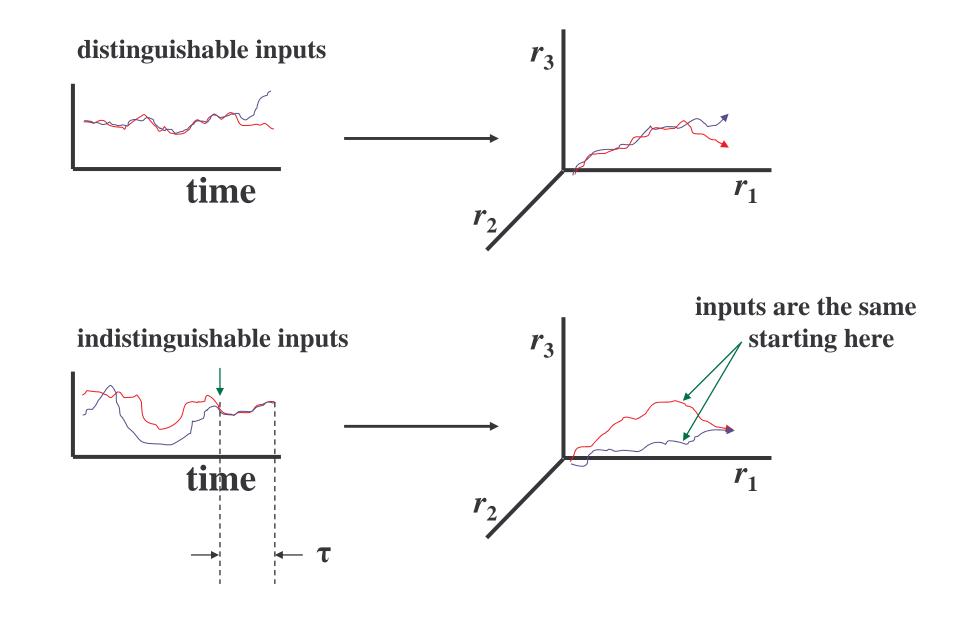
Can randomly connected networks like this one do a good job classifying input?

In other words: can randomly connected networks tell that two different inputs really are different? Answer can be visualized by looking at trajectories in activity space:

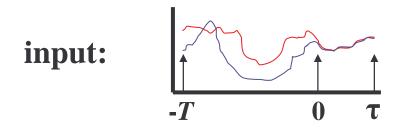


Activity space (*N*-dimensional)

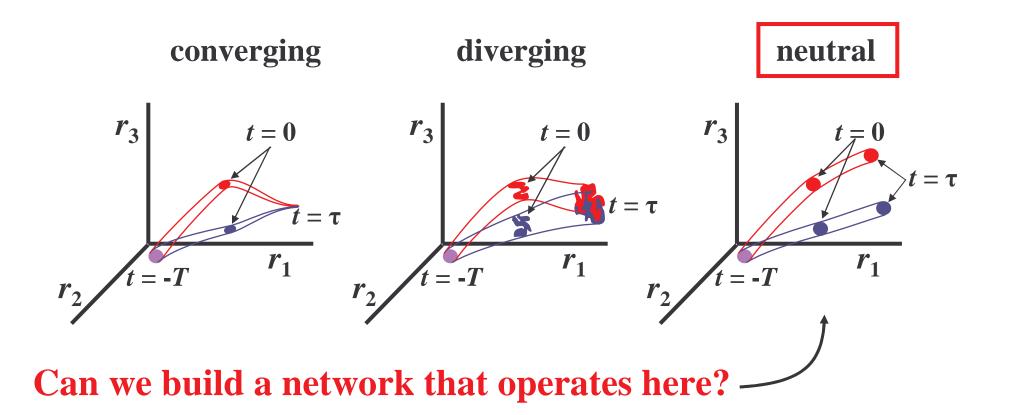
There is a subtlety involving time:



How big can we make τ before the inputs are indistinguishable?



Three main regimes:



Reduced model*:

$$x_{i}(t+1) = \operatorname{sign}\left[\sum_{j} w_{ij} x_{j}(t) + u_{i}(t)\right]$$

random matrix
mean = 0
variance = σ^{2}/N
number of neurons = N

Question: what happens to nearby trajectories?

*Bertschinger and Natschläger (2004): low connectivity. Our network: high connectivity. <u>Analysis is virtually identical.</u>

Analysis

Two trajectories:

 $x_{1,i}(t)$ and $x_{2,i}(t)$ (different initial conditions) **Normalized Hamming distance:** $d(t) = (1/N) \sum_{i} \frac{x_{1,i}(t) - x_{2,i}(t)}{2}$ simulations How does d(t) evolve in time? For small d, d(t+1) $d(t+1) \sim d(t)^{1/2}$ 0 This leads to very rapid growth of small separations: d(t)

 $d(t) \sim d(0)^{1/2^t} \implies d(t) \sim 1 \text{ when } t \sim \log \log [1/d(0)]$

"Derivation"

 $x_i(t+1) = \operatorname{sign}[h_i(t) + u]$ $\sum_j w_{ij} x_j(t)$

What happens if **one** neuron (neuron *k*) is different between the two trajectories?

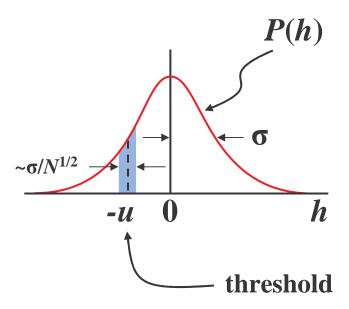
$$x_{1k} = -x_{2,k}$$

$$h_{1,i} = h_{2,i} \pm 2w_{ik}$$

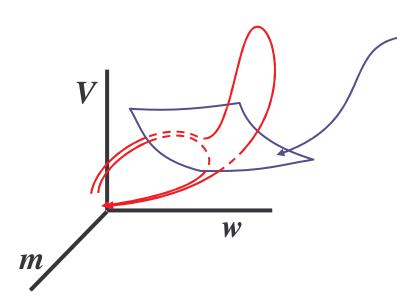
$$= h_{2,i} + Order(\sigma/N^{1/2})$$

=> $N O(\sigma/N^{1/2})/\sigma = O(N^{1/2})$ neurons are different on the next time step.

In other words, d(0) = 1/N $d(1) \sim N^{1/2}/N = N^{-1/2} = d(0)^{1/2}$



Real neurons:

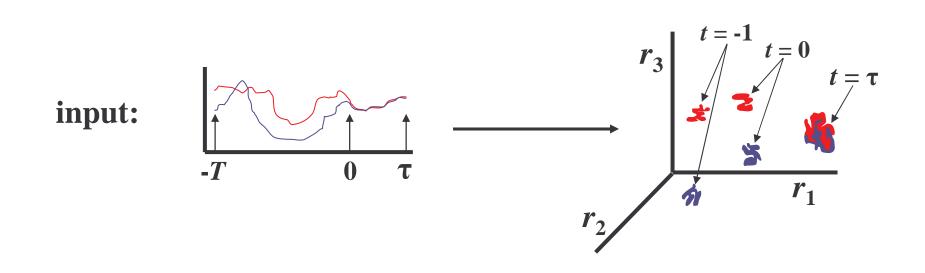


spike generation surface: small
differences in initial conditions
are strongly amplified (=> chaos).

van Vreeswijk and Sompolinsky (1996) Banerjee (2001)

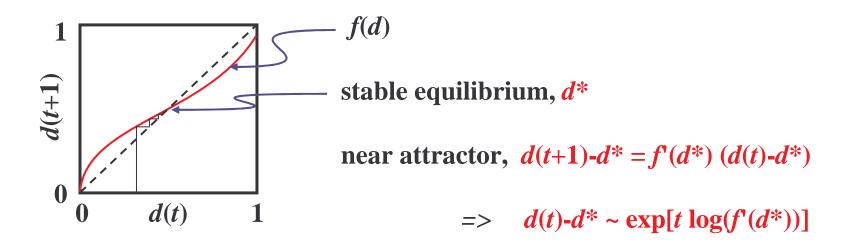
Operation in the neutral regime (on the edge of chaos) is not an option in realistic networks.

Implications

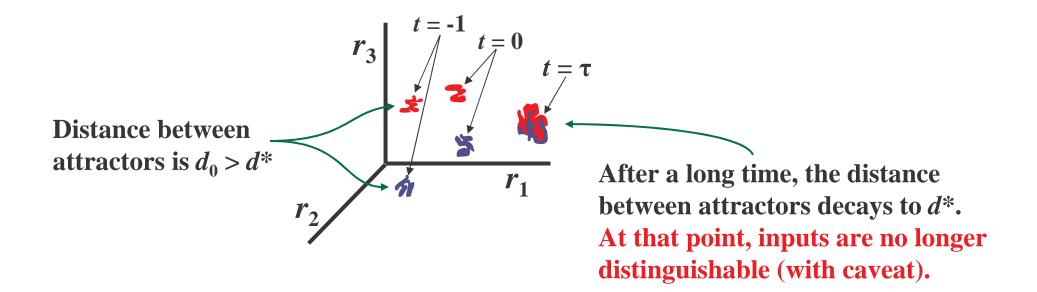


- Trajectories evolve onto chaotic attractors (blobs).
- Different initial conditions will lead to different points on the attractor.
- What is the typical distance between points on an attractor?
- How does that compare the typical distance between attractors?

Typical distance between points on an attractor: *d**.



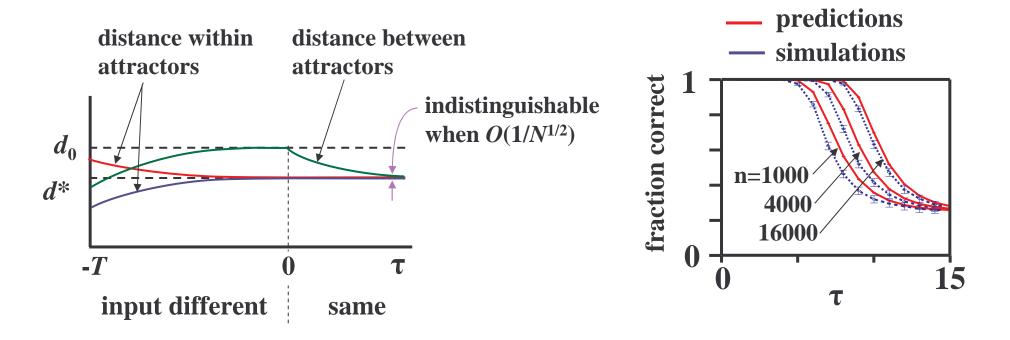
Typical distance between attractors: d_0 at time 0; d^* at long times.



All points on the attractor are a distance $d^*+O(1/N^{1/2})$ apart. Distance between attractors is $d^*+(d(0)-d^*)\exp[t\log(f'(d^*))]+O(1/N^{1/2})$.

State of the network no longer provides reliable information about the input when $\exp[\tau \log(f'(d^*))] \sim 1/N^{1/2}$, or:

$$\tau \sim \frac{\log N}{-2\log(f'(d^*))}$$



Linear readout

Conclusions

- 1. Expanding on a very simple model proposed by Bertschinger and Natschläger (2004), we found that randomly connected networks cannot exhibit a temporal memory that extends much beyond the time constants of the individual neurons.
- 2. Scaling with the size of the network is not favorable: memory scales as log *N*.
- 3. Our arguments were based on the observation that high connectivity, recurrent networks are chaotic (Banerjee, 2001), and so our conclusions should be very general.

Technical details

Mean field limit:

$$d(t) = \operatorname{prob}\left\{\operatorname{sign}\left[\sum_{j} w_{ij} x_{1,j}(t) + u_{i}(t)\right] \neq \operatorname{sign}\left[\sum_{j} w_{ij} x_{2,j}(t) + u_{i}(t)\right]\right\}$$

Define:

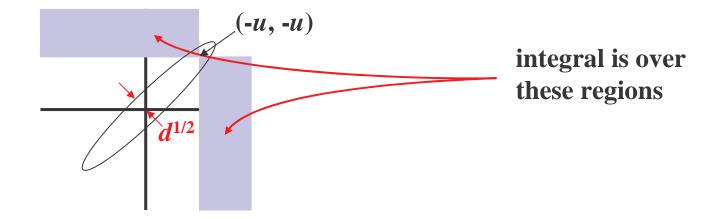
$$h_{k,i} = \sum_{j} w_{ij} x_{k,j}(t), \qquad k=1, 2$$

 $h_{k,i}$ is a zero mean Gaussian random variable.

Covariance matrix: $R_{kl} = \langle h_k | h_l \rangle = (1/N) \sum_i \sum_{jj'} w_{ij} x_{k,j}(t) | w_{ij'} x_{l,j'}(t) = (\sigma^2/N) \sum_j x_{k,j}(t) x_{l,j}(t) = \sigma^2 [1 - 2d(t) (1 - \delta_{kl})]$ More succinctly:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sigma^2 \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 - 2d \\ 1 - 2d & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

Can compute d(t+1) as a function of d(t) by doing Gaussian integrals:



The $d^{1/2}$ scaling is generic; it comes from the fact that the Gaussian ellipse has width $d^{1/2}$ in the narrow direction.

This scaling also holds for more realistic reduced models with **excitatory** and inhibitory cells and synaptic and cellular time constants.

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i}(t+1) &= \operatorname{sign}\left[\sum_{j} w_{xx,ij} z_{xj}(t) - \sum_{j} w_{xy,ij} z_{yj}(t) + u_{i}(t)\right] + (1-\alpha)x_{i}(t) \\ y_{i}(t+1) &= \operatorname{sign}\left[\sum_{j} w_{yx,ij} z_{xj}(t) - \sum_{j} w_{yy,ij} z_{yj}(t) + u_{i}(t)\right] + (1-\beta)y_{i}(t) \\ z_{xi}(t+1) &= x_{i}(t) + (1-\kappa) z_{xi}(t) \\ z_{yi}(t+1) &= x_{i}(t) + (1-\gamma) z_{yi}(t) \end{aligned}$$
leaky integrator synapses with temporal dynamics

References:

H. Jaeger, *German National Research Center for Information Technology, GMD Report 148* (2001).
W. Maass, T. Natschläger, and H. Markram, *Neural Computation* 14:2531-2560 (2004).
Bertschinger and Natschläger, *Neural Computation* 16:1413-1436 (2004).
C. van Vreeswijk and H. Sompolinsky, *Science* 274:1724-1726 (1996).
A. Banerjee, Neural Computation 13:161-193, 195-225 (2001).