

ATR's Artificial Brain (CAM-Brain) Project: A Sample of What Individual CoDi-1Bit Model Evolved Neural Net Modules Can Do

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Abstract- This paper presents a sample of what evolved neural net circuit modules using the so-called "CoDi-1Bit" neural net model can do. This work is part of an 8 year research project at ATR which aims to build an artificial brain containing a billion neurons by the year 2001, that will be used to control the behaviors of a kitten robot "Robokoneko". It looks as though the figure is more likely to be 40 million, but the numbers are not of great concern. What is more important is the issue of evolvability of the cellular automata (CA) based neural net circuits which grow and evolve in special FPGA (Field Programmable Gate Array) hardware, at hardware speeds (e.g. updating 150 billion CA cells per second, and performing a complete run of a genetic algorithm, i.e. tens of thousands of circuit growths and fitness evaluations, to evolve the elite neural net circuit in about 1 second). The specialized hardware which performs this evolution is labeled the CAM-Brain Machine (CBM). It implements the CoDi-1Bit model, and will be delivered to ATR probably in January 1999. The CBM should make practical the assemblage of 10,000s of evolved neural net modules into humanly defined artificial brains. For the past few months, the latest hardware version of the CBM has been simulated in software to see just how evolvable and functional individual evolved modules can be. This paper reports on some of the results of these simulations.

1 Introduction

ATR's CAM-Brain Project aims to build an artificial brain containing up to a billion artificial neurons by the year 2001. The essential ingredient in this project is a special piece of hardware, based on Xilinx company's FPGA XC6264 chips which grow and evolve cellular automata based neural network circuits (modules) at electronic speeds. This machine, called a "CBM" (CAM-Brain Machine), can update the cellular automata (CA) cells which form the basis of the neural network at a rate of 150 Billion a second, and can complete a full run of a genetic algorithm with tens of thousands of circuit growths and fitness evaluations of those grown circuits in about one second. Hence the CBM will make "brain build-

ing" practical. Tens of thousands (and higher magnitudes) of evolved neural net modules can be evolved and assembled into humanly defined artificial brain architectures. The cellular automata based neural net model used in the CBM had to be simple enough to be implementable in state-of-the-art programmable logic (the Xilinx XC6264 chips). The constraints imposed by the electronics were rather severe, so we could not afford to give many bits to the states of the neural signals which traverse the grown neural nets. In fact, the model we use is called "CoDi" (Collect and Distribute) and uses only single bit signaling [1]. Thus the inputs and outputs of each "CoDi module" are spiketrains.

We were then faced with the problem of interpreting the meaning of a spiketrain input or output (i.e. choosing a representation for the spiketrains). After some initial experimentation with various spiketrain representations, we eventually settled on one we called "SIIC" (Spike Interval Information Coding) [3], which convolves the spiketrain output with a digitized analog convolution function (see section 3 for an explanation, and Fig. 1 for the convolution function). The result of this convolving (convolution) is an analog waveform (usually time varying) output which can then be compared to some user supplied analog target waveform. The fitness of the CoDi module (the CA based neural net circuit) grown and signaled by the CBM is then a function of the sum of the absolute differences between the target and the actual analog waveform values at each clocktick. Experiments were performed using SIIC to generate random "Fourier" curves of the form $\sin(t) + 0.3 \cos(2t) + 0.5 \sin(3t)$ etc. Constantly firing binary inputs were supplied to a CoDi module, which was evolved to output a spike train which when convolved with the SIIC gave the above "Fourier" curve quite accurately. See Fig. 2. Thus the SIIC enabled users ("evolutionary engineers" (EEs)) to convert the abstract spiketrains into a visually comprehensible analog wave form, whose fitness can be easily measured when compared to a target waveform.

However, despite the success of the SIIC, we felt that this was only half the story. We needed some process which would perform the opposite task, namely converting an analog waveform into a spike train. This is done with the "Hough Spiker Algorithm (HSA)" which is explained in section 4.

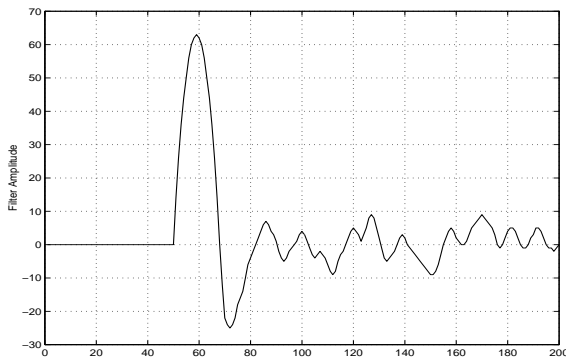


Figure 1: Decoding filter for the spike trains.

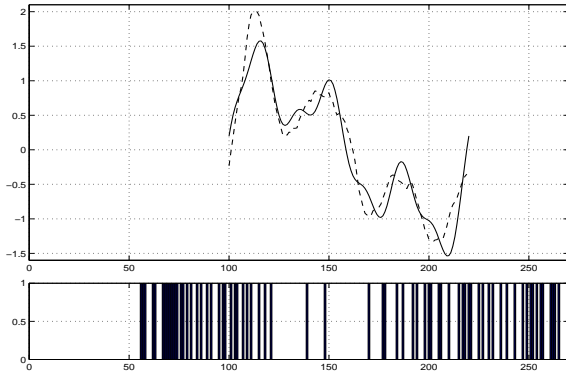


Figure 2: Sum of sines and cosines generated by the CoDi model and SIIC method.

The SIIC and the HSA combined will be very useful to evolutionary engineers (EEs), because they will be able to think entirely in terms of analog waveform inputs and outputs when evolving CoDi modules.

An EE will be able to use the HSA (the "spiker") in the context of CoDi module evolution. The EE specifies (for example) two analog inputs I_1 and I_2 . Each of these inputs are passed through the HSA, resulting in two spiketrains ST_1 and ST_2 , which are input to each CoDi module in the genetic algorithm population. Each CoDi module outputs (usually) a single spiketrain ST_{out} which passes through the SIIC convolver resulting in an output analog waveform WF_{out} . This output waveform can then be compared to a target waveform WF_{targ} to measure the CoDi module's fitness. Note, that the inputs to a CoDi module need not begin as analog waveforms. They can take the form of raw bit streams and be input directly to the CoDi module without a spiking conversion. For example, if a CoDi module is to be used to detect some "visual" pattern of 1 bit pixels, then those 1 bit pixels can be supplied directly to the CoDi module's input points. However, with the HSA approach, it may be possible to take analog input, e.g. in the form of speech sounds or phonemes etc, and convert them to spiketrains beforehand. Using the HSA and the SIIC as two transforming procedures (i.e. from ana-

log to spiketrain and back), the EE is freed from having to think in terms of spiketrains, which may be difficult to interpret. These two transforms will allow the evolution of CoDi modules to be automated to some extent. For example, one can imagine EEs drawing or computer generating an initial input analog waveform that represents some pattern to be detected, i.e. a CoDi module is to be evolved that gives a high output when that particular waveform is presented to it, and a low output for any other waveform. Since the CBM can evolve such a module in about a second, it will be possible to evolve many such modules rather quickly and then assemble them into humanly defined artificial brain architectures.

Actually, evolving a pattern detector as suggested above may involve several sequential and partial fitness measurements. For example, to evolve a particular waveform WFa detector module, would involve presenting the waveform WFa to it (the "positive" example) and then sequentially, "negative" examples which differ from it. The target output waveform for the positive example would be a high output (strong activation) for the positive example fitness score F_+ , and a low output (weak activation) for the negative examples fitness scores $F(i)_-$, for each of the negative examples "i". The total fitness of the module would be the sum of the partial fitnesses ($F_+ + F(i)_-$ for all "i"). To change the weighting of the partial fitnesses, the number of clocks ticks over which the partial fitness measurements occur can be changed, e.g. the time for the positive example measurement could be increased to equal the total number of clocks ticks for the negative examples. The CBM itself clears out the internal 1 bit signals for each partial fitness measurement, and then sums the partial fitness values, while using the same circuit.

The above gives an overview of the context in which the Hough Spiker Algorithm (HSA) operates, otherwise simply supplying the algorithm itself would be rather meaningless. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 gives a brief description of the "CoDi-1Bit" model [1], which is implemented by the CAM-Brain Machine (CBM) whose electronic restrictions impose a 1 bit neural signaling model. This 1 bit signaling then requires interpretation, and hence the need for transformations such as the SIIC and the HSA. Section 3 gives a brief description of the SIIC (Spike Interval Information Coding) representation which converts a spiketrain into an analog signal. Section 4 presents the Hough Spiker Algorithm (HSA) itself which does the opposite, i.e. converts an analog signal into a spiketrain, and shows some results of simulation experiments. Section 5 presents a sample of evolved CoDi modules, showing their functionalities and evolvabilities. Section 6 summarizes.

2 The "CoDi-1Bit" Neural Network Model & CAM-Brain Machine (CBM)

The CBM implements a so called "CoDi" (i.e. Collect and Distribute) [1] neural model. It is a simplified cellular automata based neural network model developed at ATR HIP

(Kyoto, Japan) in the summer of 1996 with two goals in mind. One was to make neural network functioning much simpler and more compact compared to the original ATR HIP model, to achieve considerably faster evolution runs on the CAM-8 (Cellular Automata Machine), a dedicated hardware tool developed at Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1989.

In order to evolve one neural module, a population of 30-100 modules is run through a genetic algorithm for 200-600 generations, resulting in up to 60,000 different module evaluations. Each module evaluation consists of - firstly, growing a new set of axonic and dendritic trees, guided by the module's chromosome. These trees interconnect several hundred neurons in the 3D cellular automata space of 13,824 cells ($24 \times 24 \times 24$). Evaluation is continued by sending spiketrains to the module through its efferent axons (external connections) to evaluate its performance (fitness) by looking at the outgoing spiketrains. This typically requires up to 1000 update cycles for all the cells in the module.

On the MIT CAM-8 machine, it takes up to 69 minutes to go through 829 billion cell updates needed to evolve a single neural module, as described above. A simple "insect-like" artificial brain has hundreds of thousands of neurons arranged into ten thousand modules. It would take 500 days (running 24 hours a day) to finish the computations.

Another limitation was apparent in the full brain simulation mode, involving thousands of modules interconnected together. For a 10,000-module brain, the CAM-8 is capable of updating every module at the rate of one update cycle 1.4 times a second. However, for real time control of a robotic device, an update rate of 50-100 cycles per module, 10-20 times a second is needed. So, the second goal was to have a model which would be portable into electronic hardware to eventually design a machine capable of accelerating both brain evolution and brain simulation by a factor of 500 compared to CAM-8. Now that these two transforms exist, it will be a lot more practical now for EEs to evolve CoDi modules quickly and easily, provided of course that the evolvability of the modules is adequate.

The CoDi model operates as a 3D cellular automata (CA). Each cell is a cube which has six neighbor cells, one for each of its faces. By loading a different phenotype code into a cell, it can be reconfigured to function as a neuron, an axon, or a dendrite. Neurons are configurable on a coarser grid, namely one per block of $2 \times 2 \times 3$ CA cells. Cells are interconnected with bidirectional 1-bit buses and assembled into 3D modules of 13,824 cells ($24 \times 24 \times 24$).

Modules are further interconnected with 92 1-bit connections to function together as an artificial brain. Each module can receive signals from up to 92 other modules and send its output signals to up to 32,768 modules. These intermodular connections are virtual and implemented as a cross-reference list in a module interconnection memory (see below).

In a neuron cell, five (of its six) connections are dendritic inputs, and one is an axonic output. A 4-bit accumulator sums incoming signals and fires an output signal when a threshold

is exceeded. Each of the inputs can perform an inhibitory or an excitatory function (depending on the neuron's chromosome) and either adds to or subtracts from the accumulator. The neuron cell's output can be oriented in 6 different ways in the 3D space. A dendrite cell also has five inputs and one output, to collect signals from other cells. The incoming signals are passed to the output with an 5-bit XOR function. An axon cell is the opposite of a dendrite. It has 1 input and 5 outputs, and distributes signals to its neighbors. The "Collect and Distribute" mechanism of this neural model is reflected in its name "CoDi". Blank cells perform no function in an evolved neural network. They are used to grow new sets of dendritic and axonic trees during the evolution mode.

Before the growth begins, the module space consists of blank cells. Each cell is seeded with a 6-bit chromosome. The chromosome will guide the local direction of the dendritic and axonic tree growth. Six bits serve as a mask to encode different growth instructions, such as grow straight, turn left, split into three branches, block growth, T-split up and down etc. Before the growth phase starts, some cells are seeded as neurons at random locations. As the growth starts, each neuron continuously sends growth signals to the surrounding blank cells, alternating between "grow dendrite" (sent in the direction of future dendritic inputs) and "grow axon" (sent towards the future axonic output). A blank cell which receives a growth signal becomes a dendrite cell, or an axon cell, and further propagates the growth signal, being continuously sent by the root neuron, to other blank cells. The direction of the propagation is guided by the 6-bit growth instruction, described above. This mechanism grows a complex 3D system of branching dendritic and axonic trees, with each tree having one neuron cell associated with it. The trees can conduct signals between the neurons to perform complex spatio-temporal functions. The end-product of the growth phase is a phenotype bitstring which encodes the type and spatial orientation of each cell.

3 The Spike Interval Information Coding Representation, "SIIC"

3.1 Choosing a Representation for the CoDi-1Bit Signaling

The constraints imposed by state-of-the-art programmable (evolvable) FPGAs in 1998 are such that the CA based model (the CoDi model) had to be very simple in order to be implementable within those constraints. Consequently, the signaling states in the model were made to contain only 1 bit of information (as happens in nature's "binary" spike trains). The problem then arose as to interpretation. How were we to assign meaning to the binary pulse streams (i.e. the clocked sequences of 0's and 1's which are a neural net module's inputs and outputs)? We tried various ideas such as a frequency based interpretation, i.e. count the number of pulses (i.e. 1s) in a given time window (of N clock cycles). But this was thought to be too slow. In an artificial brain with tens of thou-

with one 1). When this pulse passes through the convolution function window, it adds each value of the convolution function to the output in turn.

A single pulse: $(100000 \dots t = +\infty)$ will be convoluted with the convolution function expressed as a function of time. At $t = 0$ its value will be the first value of the convolution filter, at $t = 1$ its value will be the second value of the convolution filter, etc. Just as a particular spike train is a series of spikes with time delays between them, so too the convolved spike train will be the sum of the convolution filters, with (possibly) time delays between them. At each clock tick when there is a spike, add the convolution filter to the output. If there is no spike, just shift the time offset and repeat.

The same example:

```

spike train      1 1 0 1 0 0 1
convolution filter 1 4 9 5 -2

t -> 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
out:
1      1  4  9  5 -2
1      1  4  9  5 -2
0      0  0  0  0  0
1      1  4  9  5 -2
0      0  0  0  0  0
0      0  0  0  0  0
1      1  4  9  5 -2
-----
1  5 13 15  7  7  6  2  9  5 -2

```

In the HSA deconvolution algorithm, we take advantage of this summation, and in effect do the reverse, i.e. a kind of progressive subtraction of the convolution function. If at a given clock tick, the values of the convolution function are less than the analog values at the corresponding positions, then subtract the convolution function values from the analog values. The justification for this is that for the analog values to be greater than the convolution values, implies that to generate the analog signal values at that clock tick, the CoDi module must have fired at that moment, and this firing contributed the set of convolution values to the analog output. Once one has determined that at that clock tick, there should be a spike, one subtracts the convolution function's values, so that a similar process can be undertaken at the next clock tick. For example, to deconvolve the convolved output (using the same value of the convolution function as in the simple example of the previous section:

```

1  5 13 15  7  7  6  2  9  5 -2
compare: 1  4  9  5 -2

```

It is assumed that spiking will irreversibly raise the value of the convolved output. If the convolution filter value at a given clock tick is less than that of the target waveform, spiking will bring the two values closer together. If the waveform value is still too low after a spike has occurred, a near future spike will bring the two closer together.

Below is the C code for the algorithm. "DUR" is the duration of the spike train (the number of bits), "error" is the

sum of the differences of the convolution value and waveform value at each clock tick, "N_CONV" is the number of elements (integers) in the convolution function, "wave" stores the value of the waveform at each clock tick, "bits" stores the spiking history (0 or 1) for each clocktick, "thresh" is the threshold value to decide when error is small enough for a spike, "conv_fn" contains the values of the convolution function.

```

void deconv(int wave[ ], char bits[ ], int thresh)
{
    int i,j,ni;
    int error;

    for(i=0;i< DUR;i++) {
        error=0;
        for(j=0;j< N_CONV;j++) {
            if(i+j>DUR) break;
            if(wave[i+j]< conv_fn[j]) error+=conv_fn[j]
        }

        /* if error is okay, SPIKE! */
        if(error< thresh) {
            bits[i]=1;
            for(j=0;j< N_CONV;j++) {
                if(i+j>DUR) break;
                wave[i+j]-=conv_fn[j];
            }
        }
        else bits[i]=0;
    }
}

```

Fig. 3 shows an examples of the HSA in action. The original input analog signal O_i is shown as a stippled line. The spike train resulting from the analog input is sent into the SIIC convolutor (shown in Fig. 1). The resulting analog output should be very close to the original O_i and is shown as a solid line. The third line near the bottom is the absolute difference (error) between the two analog signals. The HSA seems to work well when the values of the waveforms are large and do not take values close to zero, and do not change too quickly relative to the time width of the convolution filter window. An example of applying too stringent an analog wave form is shown in Fig. 4. It may be possible to simply add a constant value to incoming analog signals before spiking them and to ensure that the analog signal does not change too rapidly.

Note however, that the HSA deconvolution algorithm was only discovered very recently, so the neural net module evolution that is discussed in section 5, does not use it. The inputs to these modules as specified by the EE (evolutionary engineer) were binary, not analog.

(Hough Spiker Algorithm). These two transformations allow users ("EEs" or "evolutionary engineers") to think entirely in terms of analog waveforms, both at input and when specifying target (desired) outputs. Thinking in analog terms is much easier than thinking in terms of spike intervals (i.e. the number of 0s between spikes (i.e. the 1s), which visually is rather meaningless. However, since the HSA was only invented very recently, the experiments reported on in this paper have the user specifying input in raw binary terms, not in analog waveforms which would be converted into spiketrains by the HSA. Nevertheless the results of the raw binary input cases are still very interesting. The results shown in section 5 make it clear that the evolvability of the CoDi-1Bit model modules is powerful and interesting. To fully test the capabilities of the CBM, we will need a CBM, but prior to its delivery, we have been simulating its performance and evolvability.

The issue of evolvability is always an open question, because not all modules evolve the way one wants. Evolutionary engineering is still a "black art". Criteria for good evolvability are not well understood. However, in practice, if it is found that a particular module does not evolve well, then alternative modules with different functional specifications can often be found to solve the same problem and that these alternative modules do evolve well.

The next step in the CAM-Brain Project is to design multi module systems, and to scale up the number of modules used. The CAM-Brain Machine (CBM) can update roughly 32000 modules at sufficient speed (150 Billion cellular automata (CA) cells a second) to enable real time control of a kitten robot. So with 32000 modules allowable by the hardware, BAs (brain architects) and EEs (evolutionary engineers) can afford to be ambitious. The great challenge now is how to design artificial brains. Hopefully within a few years, a new research field will be established, called simply "Brain Building".

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