

# Spiking Neural Networks as Analog Dynamical Systems: Basic Paradigm and Simple Applications

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**Abstract** — A class of fully asynchronous Spiking Neural Networks is proposed, in which the latency time is the basic effect for the spike generation. On the basis of the classical neuron theory, all the parameters of the systems are defined and a very simple and effective analog simulator is developed. The proposed simulator is then applied to elementary examples in which some properties and interesting applications are discussed.

**Index Terms** — Neuron, Spiking Neural Network (SNN), Latency, Event-Driven, Plasticity, Threshold, Neuromorphic, Neuronal Group Selection.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Spiking Neural Networks (SNN) represent a very simple class of simulated neuromorphic systems in which the neural activity consists of spiking events generated by firing neurons [1], [2], [3], [4]. A basic problem to realize realistic SNN concerns the apparently random times of arrival of the synaptic signals [5], [6], [7]. Many methods have been proposed in the technical literature in order to properly desynchronizing the spike sequences; some of these consider transit delay times along axons or synapses [8], [9]. A different approach introduces the spike latency as a neuron property depending on the inner dynamics [10]. Thus, the firing effect is not instantaneous, as it occurs after a proper delay time which is different in various cases. These kinds of neural networks generate apparently random spikes sequences as a number of desynchronizing effects that introduce continuous delay times in the spike generation. In this work, we will suppose this kind of desynchronization as the most effective for SNN simulation. Spike latency appears as intrinsic continuous time delay. Therefore, very short sampling times should be used to carry out accurate simulations. However, as sampling times grow down, simulation processes become more time consuming, and only short spike sequences can be emulated. The use of the event-driven approach can overcome this difficulty, since continuous time delays can be used and the simulation can easily proceed to large sequence of spikes [11],[12].

The class of dynamical neural networks represents an innovative simulation paradigm, which is not a digital system, since time is considered as a continuous variable. This property presents a number of advantages. It is quite easy to simulate very large networks, with simple and fast simulation approach [13]. On the other hand, it is possible

to propose very simple logical circuits, which can represent useful examples of applications of the method. The paper is organized as follows: description of some basic properties of the neuron, such as threshold and latency; simulation of the simplified model and the network structure on the basis of the previous analysis; finally, discussion of some examples of effective applications of the proposed approach.

## II. ASYNCHRONOUS SPIKING NEURAL NETWORKS

Many properties of neural networks can be derived from the classical *Hodgkin-Huxley Model*, which represents a quite complete representation of the real case [14], [15]. In this model, a neuron is characterized by proper differential equations describing the behaviour of the membrane potential  $V_m$ . Starting from the resting value  $V_{rest}$ , the membrane potential can vary when external excitations are received. For a significant accumulation of excitations, the neuron can cross a threshold, called *Firing Threshold (TF)*, so that an output spike can be generated. However, the output spike is not produced immediately, but after a proper delay time called *latency*. Thus, the latency is the delay time between exceeding the membrane potential  $TF$  and the actual spike generation.

This phenomenon is affected by the amplitude and width of the input stimuli and thus rich dynamics of latency can be observed, making it very interesting for the global network evolution.

The latency concept depends on the definition of the threshold level. The neuron behaviour is very sensitive with respect to small variations of the excitation current [16]. Nevertheless, in the present work, an appreciable maximum value of latency will be accepted. This value was determined by simulation and applied to establish a reference threshold point [13]. When the membrane potential becomes greater than the threshold, the latency appears as a function of  $V_m$

The latency times make the network spikes desynchronized, in function of the dynamics of the whole network. As shown in the technical literature, some other solutions can be considered to accounting for desynchronization effects, as, for instance, the finite time spike transmission on the synapses [8], [9], [10].

A simple neural network model will be considered in this paper, in which latency times represent the basic effect to characterize the whole net dynamics.

To this purpose, significant latency properties have been analysed using the NEURON Simulation

Environment, a tool for quick development of realistic models for single neurons, on the basis of Hodgkin-Huxley equations [17].

Simulating a set of examples, the latency can be determined as a function of the pulse amplitude, or else of the membrane potential  $V_m$ . The latency behaviour is shown in Fig. 1, in which it appears decreasing, with an almost hyperbolic shape. These results will be used to introduce the simplified model, in the next section. Some other significant effects can easily be included in the model, as the *subthreshold decay* and the *refractory period* [10]. The consideration of these effects can be significant in the evolution of the whole network.

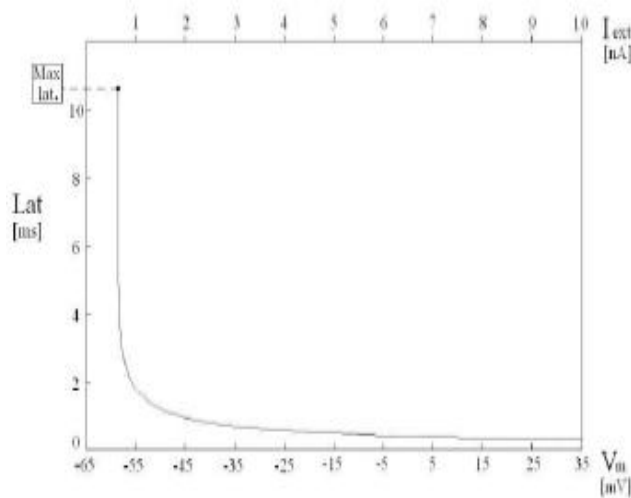


Figure 1. Latency as a function of the membrane potential (or else of the current amplitude  $I_{ext}$ , equivalently)

### III. SIMPLIFIED NEURON MODEL IN VIEW OF NEURAL NETWORK SIMULATION

In order to introduce the network simulator in which the latency effect is present, the neuron is modelled as a system characterized by a real nonnegative inner state  $S$ . This state  $S$  is modified adding to it the input signals  $P_i$  (called *burning signals*), coming from the synaptic inputs. They consist of the product of the presynaptic weights (depending on the preceding firing neurons) and the postsynaptic weights, different for each burning neuron and for each input point [13]. Defining the normalized threshold  $S_0$  ( $> I$ ), two different working modes are possible for each neuron:

- $S < S_0$ , for the neuron in the *passive mode*;
- $S > S_0$ , for the neuron in the *active mode*.

In the passive mode, a neuron is a simple accumulator, as in the *Integrate and Fire* approach. Some more significant effects can be considered in this case, as the *subthreshold decay*, by which the state  $S$  is not constant with time, but goes to zero in a linear way. Thus, the expression  $S = S_a - \Delta t \cdot ld$  is used, in which  $S_a$  is the previous state,  $\Delta t$  is the time interval and  $ld$  is the decay constant.

In the active mode, in order to introduce the latency

effect, a real positive *time-to-fire*  $t_f$ , is considered. It represents the time interval in which an active neuron still remains active, before the firing event. After the time  $t_f$ , the firing event occurs (Fig. 2).

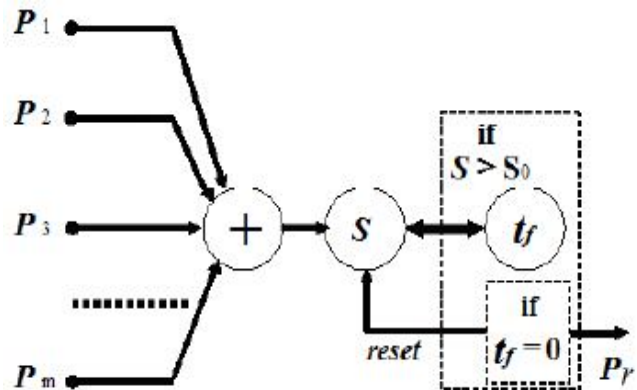


Figure 2. Proposed model for the neuron

The firing event is considered instantaneous and consists in the following steps:

- generation of the output signal  $P_r$ , called *presynaptic weight*, which is transmitted, through the output synapses, to the receiving neurons, said the *burning neurons*;
- reset of the inner state  $S$  to  $0$ , so that the neuron comes back to its passive mode.

In addition, in active mode, a biunivocal correspondence between the inner state  $S$  and  $t_f$  holds, called the *firing equation*. In the model, a simple choice of the normalized firing equation is the following one:

$$t_f = 1 / (S - I), \text{ for } S > S_0.$$

The time  $t_f$  is a measure of the latency, as it represents the time interval in which the neuron remains in the active state. If  $S_0 = 1 + d$  (with  $d > 0$ ), the maximum value of time-to-fire is equal to  $1 / d$ . The above equation is a simplified model of the behaviour shown in Fig. 1. Indeed, as the latency is a function of the membrane potential, time-to-fire depends from the state  $S$ , with a similar shape, like a rectangular hyperbola. The simulated and the firing equation behaviours are compared in Fig. 3.

The following rules are then applied for the active neurons.

- If appropriate inputs are applied, the neuron can enter in its active mode, with a proper state  $S_A$  and a corresponding time-to-fire  $t_{fA} = 1 / (S_A - I)$ .
- According to the biunivocal firing equation, as the time increases of  $t_x$  ( $< t_{fA}$ ), the time-to-fire decreases to the value  $t_{fB} = t_{fA} - t_x$  and the corresponding inner state  $S_B$  increases to the new value  $S_B = 1 + 1 / t_{fB}$ .
- If, after the time interval  $t_x$ , a new input is received, the new inner state  $S_B$  must be considered. As a consequence, the effect of the new input pulse becomes less relevant for greater values of  $t_x$  (namely for greater values of  $S_B$ ).

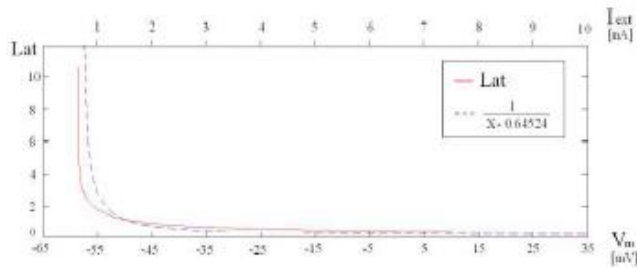


Figure 3. Comparison between the latency behaviour and that of the denormalized firing equation. The two behaviours are similar to rectangular hyperbola

The proposed model is similar to the original integrate-and-fire model, except for the introduction of a modulated delay for each firing event. This delay time strictly depends from the inner dynamics of the neuron.

*Time-to-fire* and *firing equation* are basic concepts to make asynchronous the whole neural network. Indeed, if no firing equation is introduced, *time-to-fire* is always equal to zero and any firing event is produced exactly when the state  $S$  becomes greater than  $S_0$ . Thus, the network activity is not time modulated and the firing events are produced at the same time. On the other hand, if neuron activity is described on the basis of continuous differential equations, the simulation will be very complex and always based on discrete integration times. The introduction of the continuous *time-to-fire* makes the evolution asynchronous and dependent on the way by which each neuron has reached its active mode.

In the classical neuromorphic models, neural networks are composed by excitatory and inhibitory neurons. The consideration of these two kinds of neurons is important since all the quantities involved in the process are always positive, in presence of only excitatory firing events. The inhibitory firing neurons generate negative presynaptic weights  $P_r$ , and the inner states  $S$  of the related burning neurons can become lower. For any burning neuron in the active mode, since different values of the state  $S$  correspond to different  $t_f$ , time-to-fire will decrease for excitatory, and increase for inhibitory events. In some particular case, it is also possible that some neuron modifies its state from active to passive mode, without any firing process, in the case of proper inner dynamics and proper inhibitory burning event. In conclusion, in presence of both excitatory and inhibitory burning events, the following rules must be considered.

a. *Passive Burning*. A passive neuron still remains passive after the burning event, i.e. its inner state is always less than the threshold.

b. *Passive to Active Burning*. A passive neuron becomes active after the burning event, i.e. its inner state becomes greater than the threshold, and the proper the time-to-fire can be evaluated. This is possible only in the case of excitatory firing neurons.

c. *Active Burning*. An active neuron affected by the burning event, still remains active, while the inner state

can be increased or decreased and the time-to-fire is properly modified.

d. *Active to Passive Burning*. An active neuron comes back to the passive mode without firing. This is only possible in the case of inhibitory firing neurons. The inner state decreases and becomes less than the threshold. The related time-to-fire is cancelled.

The simulation program for continuous-time spiking neural networks is realized by the *event driven* method, in which time is a continuous quantity computed in the process. The program consists of the following steps:

1. Define the network topology, namely the burning neurons connected to each firing neuron and the related values of the postsynaptic weights.
2. Define the presynaptic weight for each excitatory and inhibitory neuron.
3. Choose the initial values for the inner states of the neurons.
4. If all the states are less than the threshold  $S_0$  no active neurons are present. Thus the activity is not possible for all the network.
5. If this is not the case, evaluate the time-to-fire for all the active neurons. Apply the following cyclic simulation procedure:

5a. Find the neuron  $N_0$  with the minimum time-to-fire  $t_{f_0}$ .

5b. Apply a time increasing equal to  $t_{f_0}$ . According to this choice, update the inner states and the time-to-fire for all the active neurons.

5c. Firing of the neuron  $N_0$ . According to this event, make  $N_0$  passive and update the states of all the directly connected burning neurons, according to the previous burning rules.

5d. Update the set of active neurons. If no active neurons are present the simulation is terminated. If this is not the case, repeat the procedure from step 5a.

In order to accounting for the presence of external sources, very simple modifications are applied to the above procedure. In particular, input signals are considered similar to firing spikes, though depending from external events. Input firing sequences are connected to some specific burning neurons through proper external synapses. Thus, the set of input burning neurons is fixed, and the external firing sequences are multiplied by proper postsynaptic weights. It is evident that the parameters of the external sources are never affected by the network evolution. Thus, in the previous procedure, when the list of active neurons and the time-to-fire are considered, this list is extended also to all the external sources.

In previous works [13], the above method was applied to very large neural networks, with about  $10^5$  neurons. The set of postsynaptic weights was continuously updated according to classical *Plasticity Rules* and a number of interesting global effects have been investigated, as the well known Neuronal Group

Selection, introduced by Edelman [18], [19], [20], [21].

In the present work, the model will be applied to small neural structures in order to realize useful logical behaviours. No plasticity rules are applied, thus the scheme and the values of presynaptic and postsynaptic weights will be considered as constant data. Because of the presence of the continuous time latency effect, the proposed structures seem very suitable to generate or detect continuous time spike sequences. The discussed neural structures are very simple and can easily be connected to get to more complex applications. All the proposed neural schemes have been tested. by a proper MATLAB simulator.

IV. ELEMENTARY STRUCTURES

In this section, a number of elementary applications of the simplified neuron model will be presented. The purpose is to introduce some neural structures in order to generate or detect particular spike sequences. Since the considered neural networks can generate analog time sequences, time will be considered as a continuous quantity in all the applications. Thus, very few neurons will be used and the properties of the simple networks will be very easy to describe.

A. Analog time spike sequence generator.

In this section, a neural structure, called neural chain, will be defined. It consists of m neurons, called  $N_1, N_2, \dots, N_m$ , connected in sequence, so that the synapses from the neuron  $N_k$  to the neuron  $N_{k+1}$  is always present, with  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, m-1$  (Fig. 4). In the figure,  $EI_1$  represents the external input,  $N_k$  the neuron k, and  $P(N_k, N_{k-1})$  the product of the presynaptic and the postsynaptic weights, for the synapses from neurons  $N_{k-1}$  to neuron  $N_k$ .

If all the quantities  $P(N_k, N_{k-1})$  are greater than the threshold value  $S_o = 1 + d$ , any neuron will become active in presence of a single input spike from the preceding neuron in the chain. This kind of excitation mode will be called, level 1 working mode. It means that a single excitation spike is sufficient to make active the receiving neuron. If all the neurons 1, 2, .. m, are in the level 1 working mode, it is evident that the firing sequence of the neural chain can proceed from 1 to m if the external input  $EI_1$  is firing at a certain initial time. This of course is an open neural chain, but, if a further synaptic connection from neuron  $N_m$  to neuron  $N_1$  is

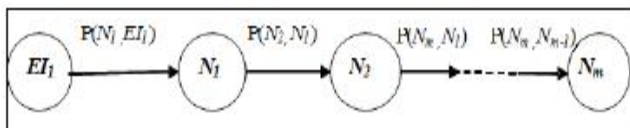


Figure 4. Open neural chain

present, the firing sequence can repeat indefinitely and a closed neural chain is realized (Fig. 5).

The basic quantity present in the structure is the sequence of the spiking times generated in the chain.

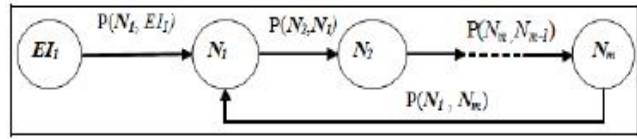


Figure 5. Closed neural chain

Indeed, since all the positive quantities  $P(N_k, N_{k-1}) - S_o$  can be chosen different with  $k$ , different latency times will be generated, thus the spiking times can be modulated for each  $k$  with the proper choice of  $P(N_k, N_{k-1})$ .

In this way, a desired sequence of spiking times can be obtained. The sequence is limited for open neural chain, periodic for closed neural chain.

The above elementary neural chain can be modified in many ways. A simple idea consists of substituting a neuron  $N_k$  in the chain with a proper set of neurons  $N_{kh}$  with  $h = 1, 2, \dots, m_k, (m_k > 1)$  (Fig. 6).

This set of  $m_k$  neurons are excited by the neuron  $N_{k-1}$  with proper values of  $P(N_{kh}, N_{k-1})$  for the synapses from neuron  $N_{k-1}$  to neuron  $N_{kh}$ . If the excitations of the neurons  $N_{kh}$  are in level 1 working mode, the neurons  $N_{kh}$  will fire to neuron  $N_{k+1}$  after proper latency times, different for each  $h$ . It is evident that, in this case, the neuron  $N_{k+1}$  should fire when all the input spikes are received. Therefore, the neuron  $N_{k+1}$  should become active when all the input spikes from

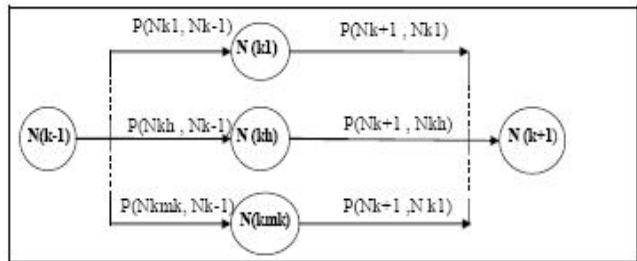


Figure 6. Extended neural chain element

neurons  $N_{kh}$  are received. Thus, the excitation mode is not at level 1 working mode. This kind of excitation mode can be called, level  $m_k$  working mode, since  $m_k$  input signal are now necessary to obtain the firing. The firing times of this structure can easily be evaluated.

The structure of Fig. 6 can easily be extended introducing set of neurons for each value of  $k$ . In addition, the output of the neural chain can be carried out introducing output synapses for a set of the neurons in the chain. The output synapses can be used directly or collected to proper target neuron.

B. Elementary spike timing sequence detector

In this section, an elementary structure is discussed to detect input spike timing sequences. The properties of the structure depend on the proper choice of the values of postsynaptic weights, together with the basic effect called *subthreshold decay*. The idea is based on the network shown in Fig. 8. It consists of two branches connecting the External Inputs  $EI_1$  and  $EI_2$  to the output neuron  $TN_{10}$ .



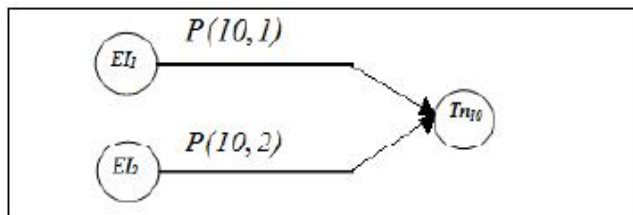


Figure 8. Elementary Spike Timing Sequence Detector. The detection is called positive when the firing of the target neuron is obtained, otherwise negative

In the figure,  $P(10, 1)$  is the product of the presynaptic and the postsynaptic weights for the synapses from  $EI_1$  to  $TN_{10}$ , while  $P(10, 2)$  refers to the synapses from  $EI_2$  to  $TN_{10}$ . If the values are properly chosen, the system can work at level 2 working mode. This means that  $TN_{10}$  becomes active in presence of the two spikes from  $EI_1$  and  $EI_2$ . As an example, if  $P(10,1) = P(10,2) = 0.6$ , and the spikes from  $EI_1$  and  $EI_2$  are produced at the same time,  $TN_{10}$  becomes active with the state  $S(TN_{10}) = 1.2 (> S_0)$ , so that an output spike is produced after a proper latency time. In this case, the output spike generated by  $TN_{10}$  stands for a positive detection. However, if the spiking times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  of  $EI_1$  and  $EI_2$  are different (for instance  $t_2 > t_1$ ), only the value of  $S(TN_{10}) = 0.6$  is present at the time  $t_1$ . Taking into account the linear subthreshold decay, the state at the time  $t_2$  will grow down to  $S(TN_{10}) = 0.6 - (t_2 - t_1) \cdot ld$ . Thus, the new spike from  $EI_2$  could not be able to make active the target neuron  $TN_{10}$ ; thus, the detection could be negative. This is true if the values of  $P(10, 1)$  and  $P(10,2)$ , the time interval  $(t_2 - t_1)$  and the linear decay constant  $ld$  are properly related. In any case, the detection is still positive if the interval  $t_2 - t_1$  is properly limited. Indeed, for a fixed value of  $t_1$ , the detection is positive if  $t_2$  is in the interval A, as shown in Fig. 9. Therefore, the proposed structure can be used to detect if the time  $t_2$  belong to the interval A.

The above elementary discussion can easily be extended. If the structure is modified as in Fig. 10, in which a Delay Neuron  $DN_3$  is added, the time interval A can be chosen around a time  $t_1 + D_i$ , in which  $D_i$  is the delay time related to  $DN_3$ .

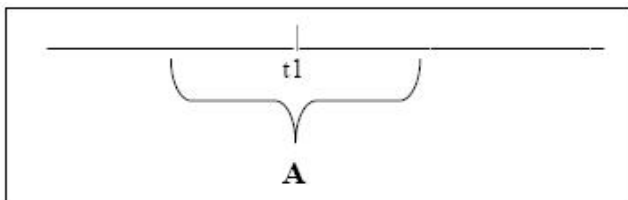


Figure 9. Symmetric interval A. When  $t_2$  belongs to interval A, the detection is positive

The value of  $D_i$  can be obtained as the latency time of  $DN_3$ , from a proper value of  $P(3,1)$ . Of course the neuron  $DN_3$  must work at level 1 working mode.

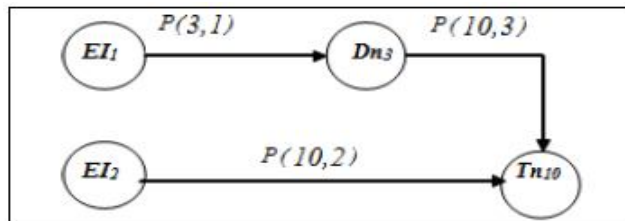


Figure 10. Delayed Spike Timing sequence Detector

C. Spike timing sequence detector with inhibitors

In this section a structure able to detect significant input spike timing sequences will be introduced. The properties of the proposed neuron structure strictly depend on the presence of some inhibitors which make the network properties very sensitive.

The proposed structure will be described by a proper example. The scheme is shown in Fig. 11.

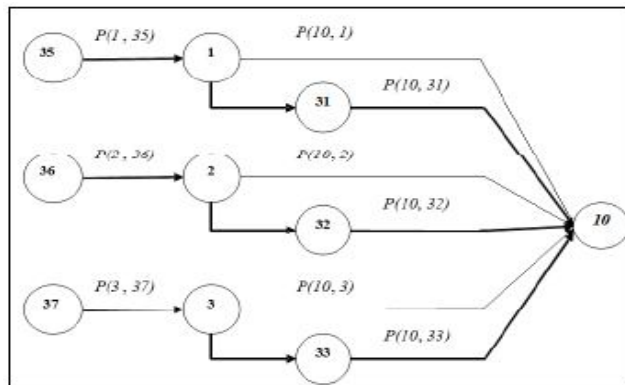


Figure 11. Spike timing sequence detector using inhibitors: an example. The detection is called positive when the firing of the target neuron is obtained, otherwise negative

The network consists of three branches connected to a Target Neuron. The structure can easily be extended to a greater number of branches. The neurons of Fig.11 can be classified as follows:

TABLE I		TABLE II		TABLE III		TABLE IV	
n	t	n	t	n	t	n	t
35	7.0000	35	7.0000	35	7.0000	36	7.0000
37	7.0000	37	7.0000	37	7.0000	35	15.0000
36	7.0000	36	7.0000	36	7.0000	37	15.5714
1	17.0000	1	17.0000	3	17.0000	3	17.0000
2	17.0000	2	17.0000	1	17.0000	2	17.0000
3	17.0000	3	17.0000	33	17.0000	1	17.0000
31	18.9231	31	18.9231	31	18.9231	33	18.9230
33	18.9231	33	18.9231	2	18.9231	32	18.9231
32	18.9231	32	18.9331	32	18.9231	31	18.9231
10	19.9231	--	---	--	---	10	19.9256

TABLE I. FIRING TABLE FOR THE CASE A SIMULATION. THE DETECTION IS POSITIVE.

TABLE II. FIRING TABLE FOR THE CASE B SIMULATION. NO FIRING FOR THE NEURON  $TN_{10}$ . THE DETECTION IS NEGATIVE.

TABLE III. FIRING TABLE FOR THE CASE C SIMULATION. NO FIRING FOR THE NEURON  $TN_{10}$ . THE DETECTION IS NEGATIVE.

TABLE IV. FIRING TABLE FOR THE CASE D SIMULATION. THE DETECTION IS POSITIVE.

External Inputs : neurons 35, 36, 37,  
 Excitator Neurons : neurons 1, 2, 3,  
 Inhibitory Neurons : neurons 31, 32, 33,  
 Target Neuron : neuron 10.

The network can work in different ways on the basis of the values  $P(k, h)$  of the products of the presynaptic and the postsynaptic weights. Since the firing of the target neuron depends both on the excitators and the inhibitors, the detection can become very sensitive in function of the excitation times of the external inputs, with proper choices of the quantities  $P(k, h)$ . Indeed, some target neuron excitations can make it active so that the firing can be obtained after a proper latency interval. However, if an inhibition spike is received in this interval, the target neuron can come back to the passive mode, without any output fire.

As an example, called Case A, the simulation program has been used with the following normalized values:

$P(1,35) = P(2,36) = P(3,37) = 1.1$  ;  
 $P(31,1) = P(32,2) = P(33,3) = 1.52$  ;  
 $P(10,1) = P(10,2) = P(10,3) = 0.5$  ;  
 $P(10,31) = P(10,32) = P(10,33) = -4$ .

In this example, the three parallel branches of Fig. 11 are exactly equal and the latency time for the target neuron firing is such that the inhibition spikes are not able to stop it. In the simulation, equal firing times for the external inputs are chosen (equal to the arbitrary normalized value of 7.0000). The firing times ( $t$ ) for the neurons ( $n$ ) are obtained by the simulation program (tab.I).

It can be seen that the firing of target neuron 10 occurs at normalized time  $t = 19.9231$ , so that the detection is positive.

This example is very sensitive, since very little changes of the values can make the detection negative. In the new Case B, the same values of the Case A are chosen, except the firing time for the external input 36.

The new normalized value is equal to 7.0100 and differs from that of the other input times. The small time difference makes the detection negative. The new values for the firing times are shown in tab.II.

In a further Case C, the firing times are chosen equal (as in the Case A), but the actions of external inputs are different so that different latency times are now present for the excitatory neurons 1, 2, 3. In particular, starting from the values of tab.III, only the following data are modified.

$P(1,35) = 1.5$ ;  $P(2,36) = 1.1$ ;  $P(3,37) = 1.7$ ;

As in previous example, the detection is negative. In the Case C, all External Inputs generate the spikes at the time  $t = 7.0000$ . However, the different values of  $P(1,35)$ ,  $P(2,36)$  and  $P(3,37)$  make different the working times of the three branches of Fig. 11. Indeed, the firing times of excitator neurons 1, 2 and 3 are the following ones:

$t(1) = 9.0000$ ,  $t(2) = 17.000$ ,  $t(3) = 8.4286$ .

From these data, it can be seen that the branch of 2 is delayed of  $(17.0000 - 9.0000) = 8.0000$  with respect to that of neuron 1, and of  $(17.0000 - 8.4286) = 8.5714$  with respect to that of neuron 3. Thus, all the networks can be resynchronised, if the External Inputs generate the spikes at different times, namely  $(7.0000 + 8.0000) = 15.0000$  for neuron 35 and  $(7.0000 + 8.5714) = 15.5714$  for neuron 37.

Using these data, we present the final Case D, in which the detection is positive, since the differences present in the Case C are now compensated. The network of Fig.11 can detect input spikes generated at the times shown in the table. It can easily be seen that the detection is still positive for equal time intervals among the input spikes. However, different time intervals or different input spike order makes the detection negative.

The synthesized structures can be easily interconnected each other, in a higher level, to perform specific tasks. This will allow us to realize useful applications.

## CONCLUSIONS

Neural networks based on a very simple model have been introduced. The model belongs to the class of Spiking Neural Networks in which a proper procedure has been applied to accounting for latency times. This procedure has been validated by accurate latency analysis, applied to single neuron activity by simulation methods based on classical models. The firing activity, generated in the proposed network, appears fully asynchronous and the firing events consist of continuous time sequences. The simulation of the proposed network has been implemented by an event-driven method. The model has been applied to elementary structures to realize neural systems to generate or detect spike sequences in a continuous time domain.

In future works, the structures could be used to realize more complex systems to obtain analogic neural memories. In particular, proper neural chain could be useful as information memories, while proper sets of sequence detectors could be used for the information recalling. In addition, the use of sets of sequence detectors could be useful in classification problems.

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