

Perception Understanding Action: Adding Understanding to the Perception Action Cycle with Spiking Segmentation

Paul Kirkland^{1,*}, Gaetano Di Caterina¹, John Soraghan¹ and George Matich²

¹*Neuromorphic Sensor Signal Processing Lab, Centre for Image and Signal Processing, Electrical and Electronic Engineering, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland, UK*

²*Leonardo MW Ltd, London, UK*

Correspondence*:

Paul Kirkland

paul.kirkland@strath.ac.uk

2 ABSTRACT

3 Traditionally the Perception Action cycle is the first stage of building an autonomous robotic
4 system and a practical way to implement a low latency reactive system within a low Size, Weight
5 and Power (SWaP) package. However, within complex scenarios, this method can lack contextual
6 understanding about the scene, such as object recognition-based tracking or system attention.
7 Object detection, identification and tracking along with semantic segmentation and attention are
8 all modern computer vision tasks in which Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) have shown
9 significant success, although such networks often have a large computational overhead and
10 power requirements, which are not ideal in smaller robotics tasks. Furthermore, cloud computing
11 and massively parallel processing like in Graphic Processing Units (GPUs) are outside the
12 specification of many tasks due to their respective latency and SWaP constraints. In response
13 to this, Spiking Convolutional Neural Networks (SCNNs) look to provide the feature extraction
14 benefits of CNNs, while maintaining low latency and power overhead thanks to their asynchronous
15 spiking event-based processing. A novel Neuromorphic Perception Understanding Action (PUA)
16 system is presented, that aims to combine the feature extraction benefits of CNNs with low
17 latency processing of SCNNs. The PUA utilises a Neuromorphic Vision Sensor for Perception
18 that facilitates asynchronous processing within a Spiking fully Convolutional Neural Network
19 (SpikeCNN) to provide semantic segmentation and Understanding of the scene. The output is
20 fed to a spiking control system providing Actions. With this approach, the aim is to bring features
21 of deep learning into the lower levels of autonomous robotics, while maintaining a biologically
22 plausible STDP rule throughout the learned encoding part of the network. The network will be
23 shown to provide a more robust and predictable management of spiking activity with an improved
24 thresholding response. The reported experiments show that this system can deliver robust
25 results of over 96% and 81% for accuracy and Intersection over Union, ensuring such a system
26 can be successfully used within object recognition, classification and tracking problem. This
27 demonstrates that the attention of the system can be tracked accurately, while the asynchronous
28 processing means the controller can give precise track updates with minimal latency.

29 **Keywords:** Spiking, Convolution, Segmentation, Tracking, STDP, Neuromorphic, Neural Network, Asynchronous

1 INTRODUCTION

30 Understanding and reasoning is a fundamental process in most biological perception action cycles. It is
31 through understanding of our visual perception that helps to inform our basic decision-making processes
32 like ‘friend or foe’ and “edible or inedible”, which ultimately is key to progression or survival. Adding
33 some level of understanding into this cycle can help to deliver a robust robotic system that could perform
34 more complex variations of simple following and tracking tasks. Computer Vision (CV) has made this
35 understanding a reality for robotics systems, with traditional CV methods providing simple feature
36 extraction at low latency, or modern deep learning-based Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) providing
37 state of the art results in almost every task with high precision and accuracy, but at the cost of higher
38 latency and computation throughput. This often leaves the CNN out of the reach of the small robotic
39 system world due to its lower power and computational specifications. Modern research looks towards
40 biological inspirations to help solve these tasks, by bringing forward neuromorphic robotics, which seeks
41 to merge the computational advantages of system such as the neuromorphic event-based vision sensor
42 (NVS) and neuromorphic processors together, combined with Spiking Neural Network (SNN) which can
43 allow for processing and control system structures. Typically a robotic system in this domain might aim to
44 reach a Perception, Cognition, Action cycle, while the simpler approach of Understanding as a step toward
45 cognition could be realised in an easier way, using the Perception Understanding Action (PUA) cycle as a
46 stepping stone towards this goal.

47 Perception using neuromorphic vision sensors has become a promising solution. An NVS, as for example
48 the Dynamic Vision Sensor (DVS) (Lichtsteiner et al., 2008), mimics the biological retina to generate
49 spikes in the order of microseconds, in response to the pixel-level changes of brightness caused by motion.
50 NVSs offer significant advantages over standard frame-based cameras, with no motion blur, a high dynamic
51 range, and latency in the order of microseconds (Gehrig et al., 2018). Hence, the NVS is suitable for
52 working under poor light conditions and on high-speed mobile platforms. There has been considerable
53 research detailing the advantages of using an NVS in various vision tasks, such as high-speed target
54 tracking (Mueggler et al., 2017; Lagorce et al., 2015) and object recognition (Kheradpisheh et al., 2018).
55 Moreover, due to the fact that a pixel of an NVS is a silicon retinal neuron represented by an asynchronously
56 generated spiking impulse, this can be directly fed into Spiking Neural Networks (SNNs) as input spikes
57 for implementing target detecting and tracking in a faster and more neuromorphic approach.

58 Understanding through asynchronous spiking event-based computations like SNNs, often seen as the
59 low latency biologically inspired alternative to CNNs, could provide an alternative solution to tracking
60 and segmentation problems, through the ability to only compute on the currently active parts of the
61 network, which in comparison to Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) and CNNs can require orders of
62 magnitude less power consumption (Park et al., 2014). SNNs differ from normal computation processing
63 and take inspiration from closer to biology, where expensive memory access operations are negated due
64 to computations and memory being exclusively local (Paugam-Moisy and Bohte, 2012). Instead of using
65 numerical representations like traditional methods, SNNs use spikes to transmit information with a key
66 emphasis on the timing of those spikes. Several methods exist to train SNNs, with recent implementations
67 seeing a conversion from CNN to SNN (Cao et al., 2015; Hunsberger and Eliasmith, 2015; Sengupta et al.,
68 2019; Kim et al., 2019) yield promising results and open SNN architectures to the wider Machine and
69 Deep Learning (ML-DL) audience. However, this method is still burdened with the training computational
70 overhead and does little to utilise the efficiency of event driven computations. The SNN’s Spike Time
71 Dependent Plasticity (STDP) and spike-based back-propagation learning have been demonstrated to
72 capture hierarchical features in SpikeCNNs (Kheradpisheh et al., 2018; Masquelier and Kheradpisheh,

73 2018; Masquelier and Thorpe, 2007; Panda et al., 2017; O'Connor et al., 2013; Falez et al., 2019). Both of
74 these methods better equip the network to deal with event driven sensors, where the significant gains over
75 CNNs could be realised.

76 This work aims to build on the already successful perception-action models (Xie, 2003; Masuta et al.,
77 2017; Bohg et al., 2017; Nishiwaki et al., 2003) and add some semantic understanding to the robotic
78 system. With image segmentation seen as a critical low-level visual routine for robot perception, a
79 semantic understanding of the scene can play an important role for robots to understand the context in their
80 operational environment. This context can then lead to a change in the action that could be undertaken. In
81 this article, we show how using a spiking fully convolution neural network for event-based segmentation of
82 a neuromorphic vision sensor can lead to accurate perception and tracking capabilities with low latency
83 and computation overhead. Leveraging this spiking event-based segmentation framework to feed a spiking
84 control system allows the low latency to continue from the perception to the action.

85 The PUA system presented builds on SpikeSEG, a spiking segmentation network from previous work
86 (Kirkland et al., 2020), and extends it with a systematic approach to spike-based object recognition with
87 tracking, lateral inhibition classifications, a new thresholding mechanism and modification to STDP
88 learning process. Moreover, differently from (Kirkland et al., 2020), the novel work presented is applied to
89 a different application context, i.e. object recognition with attention. In light of this the novel contributions
90 of this work include:

- 91 • SpikeSEGs segmentation output is integrated into a spike-based control system to produce the
92 Perception-Understanding-Action system where the segmentation infers the attention of the system to
93 allow controller track updates.
- 94 • The revised network includes more features to enhance the segmentation ability, including:
 - 95 • Lateral inhibition pseudo classification mechanism for semantic segmentation-based attention.
 - 96 • A new Pre-Empt then Adapt Thresholding (PEAT) approach designed to deal with potentially noisy,
97 corrupt or adversarial inputs.
 - 98 • A modification to the STDP learning rules to include feature pruning (resetting) if under/over
99 utilised.

100 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews related research topics covering each of
101 the PUA framework individual sections. Section 3 presents the methodology, with an insight to each of the
102 proposed system components. The results are detailed in section 4 and section 5 provides the conclusion.

2 RELATED WORK

103 The allure of low latency object recognition and localisation has brought the attractive features of the NVS
104 (mainly the DVS) to the forefront of research. Early low latency control examples, such as the Pencil
105 Balancer (Conradt et al., 2009) and the Robotic Goalie (Delbruck and Lang, 2013), help to highlight the
106 latency advantages that an NVS can provide. Exploiting the sparse and asynchronous output of the sensor
107 allow successful applications to these low latency reactive tasks. However, both systems fall short of fully
108 capitalising on the event-driven asynchronous output, through a processing and control regime of similar
109 nature.

110 The concept of exploiting the NVS low latency continues into object tracking. Low latency tracking
111 relies upon robust feature detection, with geometric shapes being ideal features to detect. A number of
112 methods have been implemented successfully, such as geometric constraints (Clady et al., 2015) along

113 with advanced corner detection methods, as for example Harris (Vasco et al., 2016) and FAST (Mueggler
114 et al., 2017). The use of more complex features such as Gaussians, Gabors and other hand crafted kernels
115 (Lagorce et al., 2015) provides a pathway to modern Convolutional Neural Network feature extraction
116 approaches (Li and Shi, 2019), that implement a correlation filter from the learned features of the CNN.
117 This allows a multi-level approach whereby correlations of intermediate layers can also be performed to
118 improve the inherent latency disadvantage of the CNN approach, albeit with an accuracy trade-off.

119 Spiking Neural Networks have seen success with NVS data used for object detection and classification
120 (Bichler et al., 2012; Stromatias et al., 2017; Paulun et al., 2018). Recent work has implemented Spiking
121 Convolutional Neural Networks (Kheradpisheh et al., 2018; Falez et al., 2019) with NVS-like data created
122 using a difference of Gaussian filter, suggesting the combination of SNNs and Deep Learning could yield
123 successful results (Tavanaei et al., 2019). SNNs have also been utilised for tracking with an NVS through
124 implementations inspired by the Hough Transform (Wiesmann et al., 2012; Seifozakerini et al., 2016;
125 Jiang et al., 2019), to be able to detect and track lines and circles. Spiking Neural Networks can also be
126 utilised to implement control systems, from simple altitude control (Levy, 2020) to an adaptive robotic
127 arm controller (DeWolf et al., 2016). Ultimately the majority of research only utilises one aspect of the
128 SNN, either processing or control. Even though SNNs have been shown to implement a full perception
129 cognition action cycle with Spaun (Eliasmith et al., 2012), underpinning the ideology of a fully spike-based
130 neuromorphic system similar to that proposed with the Perception Understanding Action framework in this
131 paper.

3 METHODOLOGY

132 3.1 Perception-Understanding-Action Framework

133 The Perception-Understanding-Action framework specifies how the system will utilise the asynchronous
134 event driven nature of the Neuromorphic spiking domain, and it is illustrated in Figure 1. In the Perception
135 block, the NVS is used to sparsely and asynchronously encode the luminosity changes within the scene.
136 In the Understanding block, inputs are understood through the use of the Encoder-Decoder SpikeCNN
137 (SpikeSEG (Kirkland et al., 2020)) contextualising and building understanding of the scene through
138 semantic segmentation. In the Action block, the segmented output is used to provide an input to the spike
139 counters at the edge of the field of view, allowing a simplistic semantic tracking controller to be realised.
140 This control output would then be able to influence motors or actuators to allow an asynchronous end
141 to end Neuromorphic system. This system aims to provide a low latency competitor to the Perception
142 Action robotic system where the sensor input is directly fed to the controller, while providing an upgraded
143 feature representation to the more complex line and edge detection-based approaches. The system can even
144 provide benefits or replace some computer vision-based robotic tasks which utilise CNNs for complex
145 feature extraction, while providing lower latency and computational overhead. Furthermore, compared to
146 the CNN, the SCNN provides a more readily understandable processing stage, where features are sparse
147 and more visually interpretable.

148 3.2 Perception

149 A key element in producing a low latency system with a low computational overhead is to have a sensor
150 that can exploit the sparse and asynchronous computational elements of an SNN while still giving a detailed
151 recording of the scene. Neuromorphic Vision Sensors (NVS) (*event-based Vision Sensors*) (Lichtsteiner
152 et al., 2008; Brandli et al., 2014) have recently become more popular and widespread. These camera-like
153 devices are bio-inspired vision sensors that attempt to emulate the functioning of biological retinas. They
154 differ from conventional cameras in that, they don't record all the information the sensor sees at set intervals.
155 Instead these sensors produce an output only when a change is detected. This in turn means they are

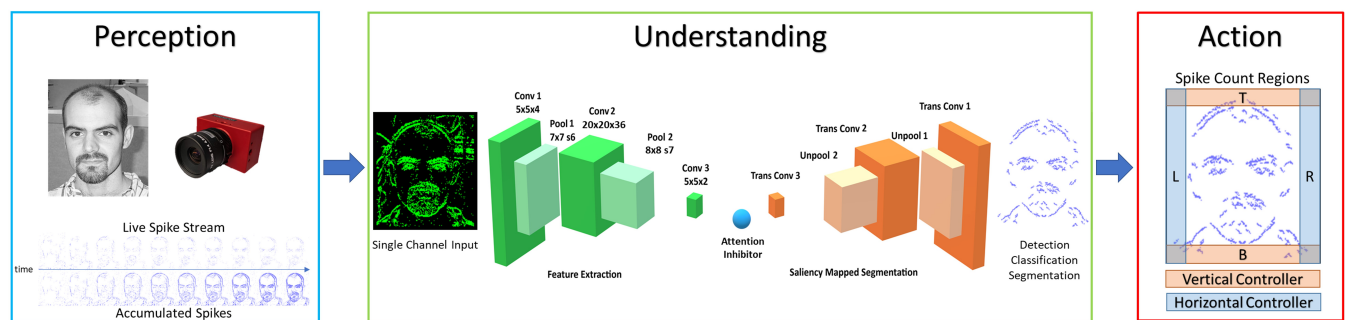


Figure 1. Perception Understanding Action Framework, with internal system diagrams showing the Perception input (image from Caltech Dataset (Li Fei-Fei et al., 2018) , the Understanding network SpikeSEG (Kirkland et al., 2020) and the Action controller method.

156 capturing the luminosity at a set point in time, meaning a continuous temporal derivative of luminosity is
 157 output. Whenever this happens, an event $e = [x, y, ts, p]$ is created, indicating the x and y position along
 158 with the time ts at which the change has been detected and its polarity, where $p \in \{1, -1\}$ is a positive or
 159 negative change in brightness. This change in operation not only increases the sparsity of the signal but
 160 allows for it to output asynchronously. Resulting in microsecond temporal resolution and considerably
 161 lower power consumption and bandwidth. These parameters make the NVS an ideal candidate for object
 162 tracking, especially of fast moving objects (Delbruck and Lichtsteiner, 2007; Glover and Bartolozzi, 2017),
 163 however many methods are still yet to utilise this spiking sensor within a match spiking processing such as
 164 SNNs.

165 3.3 Understanding through Spiking Segmentation

166 The Understanding of this system is inferred from the semantic segmentation operation carried out by the
 167 SpikeSEG network (Kirkland et al., 2020), seen in Figure 1 within the Understanding block. The SpikeSEG
 168 segmentation network has received a number of improvements and upgrades along with its integration
 169 within the PUA framework.

170 3.3.1 Network Architecture

171 The network architecture illustrated within Figure 1 (Understanding) is made up of two main sections
 172 seen in green and orange, that relate to the encoding and decoding layers respectively. The network is
 173 split into these two sections where training only occurs on the encoding side, while the weights are tied to
 174 the mirrored decoding layers. This allows a integrate and fire neuron with layer-wise STDP mechanism
 175 with adaptive thresholding and pruning to be used to help compress the representation of the input to
 176 allow the decoding layer to segment the image based on the middle pseudo classification layers. This
 177 encoding-decoding structure symbolises a feature extraction then shape generation process. The learning of
 178 the encoding process aims to extract common spatial structures as useful features, then decode those learned
 179 features over to the shape generation process, unravelling the latent space classification representation
 180 but with a reduction in spike due to the max pooling process. The network has 9 computational layers
 181 (*Conv1-Pool1-Conv2-Pool2-Conv3-TransConv3-UnPool2-TransConv2-UnPool1-TransConv1*) as seen in
 182 Figure 1. Between the Conv3 and TransConv3 layers, there is a user-defined attention inhibition mechanism,
 183 which can operate in two manners: No Inhibition, which allows semantic segmentation of all recognised
 184 classes from the pseudo classification layer; or With Inhibition, that only allows one class to propagate

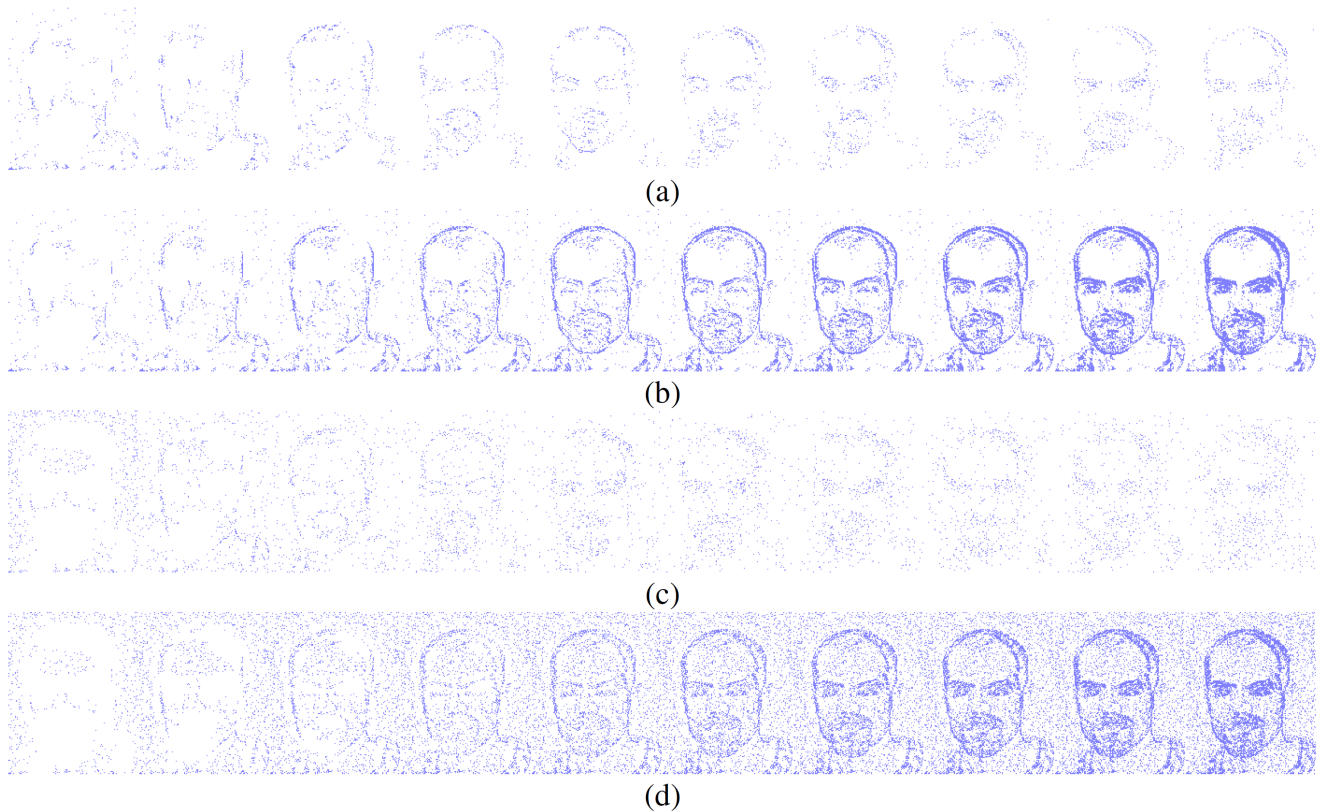


Figure 2. Input event streams from N-Caltech Dataset 'Face', with (a-b) showing a 10ms clip over 10 steps going from left to right. (a) showing the input to the network per step and (b) showing the accumulated inputs for easier visualisation. (c-d) show a 10ms clip over 10 steps with additive noise to show how extra noise affects the input stream, with (c) showing per step and (d) showing accumulated.

185 forward to the decoding layers. This attention not only provides a reduction in the amount of computation,
 186 but also simplifies the input to the controller.
 187 3.3.2 Encoding

188 The encoding part of this system is derived from a basic SpikeCNN with a simplified STDP learning
 189 mechanism (Kheradpisheh et al., 2018). To allow the network to better suit the framework and encoding
 190 decoding structure a number of modification are applied. As the structure of the network is now fully
 191 convolutional there is no longer a requirement for a global pooling layer for classification. Instead the final
 192 convolution layer is utilised as a mock classifier by mapping the number of known classes to the number
 193 of kernel used for feature learning. This method is also used to help the interperitability of the system
 194 as having one kernel per classes allows for better visualisation of the network features. Through the use
 195 of a modified STDP rule and adaptive neuron thresholding, the encoder aims to capture the reoccurring
 196 features that are most salient through the event stream inputs. The input events are fed into the network
 197 via a temporal buffering stage, to allow for a more plausible current computing solution such as on the
 198 Intel Loihi Neuromorphic chip (Davies et al., 2018), while ideally they would just be a constant stream.
 199 To internally mimic the continuous data, 10ms of event data is buffered into 10 steps, representing 1ms
 200 each (this value of 10ms is chosen to empirical testing and based on the input spike count of the N-Caltech
 201 Dataset); this input data stream is shown in Figure 2. Fig 2, also illustrates what 1ms of data looks like
 202 over the 10ms (a) and how it looks if accumulated over 10ms (b). Figure 2 then demonstrates how added
 203 noise affects the input stream, repeating the images in Fig 2 (a) and (b) with noise in 1ms steps in (c) and

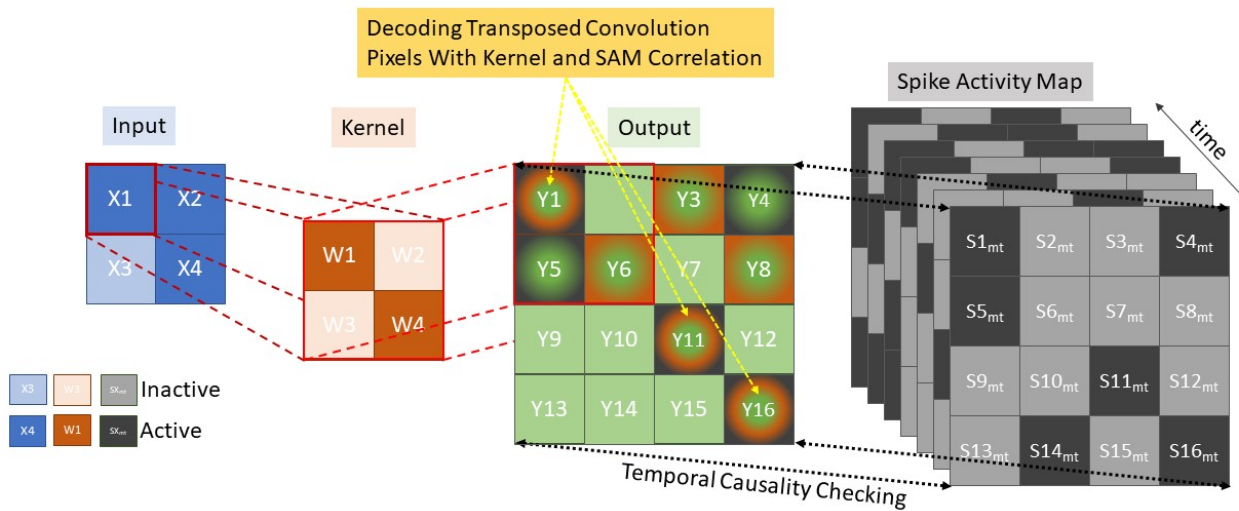


Figure 3. Decoding using transposed convolutions with spike activity mapping, resulting in active pixel saliency mapping

204 accumulated over 10ms in (d). For each time step in the encoding processing, a spike activity map Sk_{mt} is
 205 also produced, where m is the feature map and t is the time step. This allows an account of the exact spatial
 206 time location of each active pixel used in the encoding processing, which helps allow the decoder to map
 207 these active areas back into the pixel space.

208 3.3.3 Decoding

209 The Decoding Process makes use of the same unpooling and transpose convolutions as (Long et al.,
 210 2015; Simonyan et al., 2013; Badrinarayanan et al., 2017; Zeiler and Fergus, 2014) taking pixels in the
 211 latent classification space back into the original pixel space. However, no learning mechanism is used, as
 212 the mapping is based on temporal activity and pixel saliency mapping, utilising a similar method to tied
 213 weights (Hinton et al., 2006) and switches (activations within the pooling layers) from the encoding layer
 214 to map directly to the decoding such that $W_{ij}(\text{encoding}) = W_{ji}(\text{decoding})$. This modification is required to
 215 deal with the temporal component of the spiking network, as now the latent pixel space representation must
 216 be unravelled with the constraints and context of space and time. Changes are made to both the transposed
 217 convolutions and the unpooling layers. The transposed convolution still functions as a fractionally strided
 218 convolution of the weight kernel as normal. However, now an extra step of comparing the output mapping
 219 with a temporal spike activity map of the post convolution pixel space is required as illustrated in Figure 3,
 220 where the conventional Input via Kernel to Output stage remains, with an added Spike Activity Map check
 221 on each term in the output for temporal causality.

222 Since the encoding neurons emit at most one spike per buffered time input, the Spike Activity Map is
 223 used to keep track of the first spike times (in time-step scale) of the neurons. Every stimulus is represented
 224 by M feature maps, each constitutes a grid of neurons seen as a kernel value K , equal to the row-major
 225 linear indexing of the kernel. Let Tp be the processing steps between the tied encoding and decoding layer

226 with a maximum possible difference of 9 processing time-steps (5 encoding and decoding layers each).
 227 While each encoding layer has a value $Te_{m,k}$, which denotes the spike time of the encoding neuron placed
 228 at position (k) of the feature map m, where $0 \leq m < M, 0 \leq k < K$. The individual decoding layer then
 229 considers this stimulus as a three-dimensional binary spike tensor S of size $Tp_{max} \times M \times K$ where a spike
 230 in the decoding layer Sd is a function of :

$$Sd(Tp, Te, m, k) = \begin{cases} 1 & Td_{m,k} = Te_{m,k} + Tp \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

231 Where the decoding time $Td_{m,k}$ for each map and kernel value is compared to the equivalent encoding
 232 layer $Te_{m,k}$ offset by the processing time Tp . It is this $Te_{m,k} + Tp$ that is represented by the Spike Activity
 233 Map shown in Figure 3 where $Sk_{m,t}$ is illustrated as the process ensuring $Td_{m,k} = Te_{m,k} + Tp$ while
 234 'Output' demonstrates an example of the transposed convolution process. To reduce memory overhead only
 235 the last 9 Spike Activity Maps as this is the minimum requirement to ensure temporal causality. Within
 236 Figure 3, the green and orange squares represent the transposed convolution outputs and the green, orange
 237 and black outputs represent the outputs from the transposed convolution decoding that also matched up with
 238 encoding layer, through correlation with the Spike Activity Map. This demonstrates how the Spike Activity
 239 Map reduces the 'Output' values to only those with equivalent temporal values. The saliency mapping
 240 occurs within the unpooling layers which operate on a similar manner in order to keep temporal causality,
 241 but due to the max pooling operation working in reverse only one pixel per pooling kernel is processed.
 242 With reference to Figure 3, this would mean the orange kernel would only have one active square, which
 243 reduces the output significantly. The measure allows only the most salient features to propagate through the
 244 decoding layers, resulting in the segmentation with only those features that best fit the pseudo classification.
 245 A verbal illustration being, if there are 9 time steps between Conv-1 and TConv-1, while only 5 steps
 246 between Conv-2 and TConv-2 and 1 step between Conv-3 and TConv-3. So, if a spike occurs at time step 2
 247 within Conv-1, the temporal check will only allow TConv-1 to allow a spike at that location at time step 11.
 248 **3.3.4 Adaptive Neuron Thresholding**

249 The adaptive neuron thresholding used within this paper builds upon the Pre-Emptive Neuron Threshold-
 250 ing (Kirkland et al., 2019, 2020). Improvements are made by no longer solely relying on synaptic scaling
 251 from the input number of spikes as a means of homeostasis. Although this was successful in stopping
 252 the progression of less structured noise features within the first convolution layer and structured noise
 253 when synaptic scaling was applied to all layers. Along with the structured noise filtering process, this
 254 homeostasis rule also accidentally removes some of the less common desired features from propagating as
 255 discrimination between these and noise from input spike count is insufficient. The update to the algorithm
 256 sees an adaptive element in the form of intrinsic layer-wise synaptic scaling (a layer-wise spike counter)
 257 added to the thresholding parameter to potentially counter this less common feature removal. During
 258 training the thresholding is set as follows

$$V_{thr}(S_{in}, S_l) = \begin{cases} \frac{K_l}{4} & \text{for } S_{in} < S_{in(min)} \\ c + mV_{thr} + h^- & \text{for } S_l < H_l \\ c + mV_{thr} + h^0 & \text{for } S_l = H_l \\ c + mV_{thr} + h^+ & \text{for } S_l > H_l \\ \frac{K_l}{2} & \text{for } S_{in} > S_{in(max)} \end{cases} \quad \text{for } S_{in(min)} < S_{in} < S_{in(max)} \quad (2)$$

259 Where V_{thr} is the neuron threshold, dependent on both the spiking input rate, S_{in} , and the layer-wise
 260 spike rate, S_l . m is gradient of the linear relationship between V_{thr} and S_{in} , with c being the y-intercept.
 261 h the homeostasis offset is determined to be either positive, negative or zero dependent on the layer-
 262 wise spike count, S_l when compared to the set homeostasis value H_l . While K_l is the convolution
 263 kernel size within that layer. The equation follows a piecewise function such that V_{thr} is described as
 264 $\{V_{thr} \in \mathbb{N} \mid \frac{K_l}{4} < V_{thr} < \frac{K_l}{2}\}$. When the spike input rate S_{in} is within a normal range, the function is then
 265 defined by the bounded linear relationship with the homeostasis offset. The values of h^- , h^0 , h^+ and H_l
 266 are set through empirical testing by monitoring the range of S_l and S_{in} values from the N-Caltech dataset.

267 Once training is complete and the features within the convolution kernels are known, the thresholding
 268 changes to take into account the size of the feature, as the range of threshold values might now be smaller
 269 than in the training stage. This modification changes the outer bounds of the threshold as shown

$$V_{thr}(S_{in}, S_l) = \left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{F_{min}}{2} \\ c + mV_{thr} + h^- \quad \text{for } S_l < H_l \\ c + mV_{thr} + h \quad \text{for } S_l = H_l \\ c + mV_{thr} + h^+ \quad \text{for } S_l > H_l \\ F_{min} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{for } S_{in} < S_{in(min)} \\ \text{for } S_{in(min)} < S_{in} < S_{in(max)} \\ \text{for } S_{in} > S_{in(max)} \end{array} \quad (3)$$

270 Where F_{min} is the smallest feature size within that layer. This parameter change ensure the threshold
 271 value does not exceed the smallest feature size, which would result in that neuron being unable to reach
 272 firing potential. In both cases the training and testing the input spike count S_{in} value affects the threshold
 273 for each input spike buffer, while the layer-wise spike count S_l is average over 10 inputs.

274 This allows a layer-wise adaptability dependent on the amount of spiking within the previous layer.
 275 The algorithm now permits a high volume of spiking activity at the input to be initially pre-emptively
 276 dealt with, ensuring a large amount of spiking activity does not reach the controller, causing an undesired
 277 response. Then adapting the thresholds to allow sufficient spiking activity ensures a smoother and more
 278 robust controller output of the system. The key element of this method is to ensure a more robust and
 279 predictable outcome when a noisy, corrupt or adversarial input is received. With this being more of a
 280 concern due to the system be asynchronous end to end, a high volume incoherent input could directly lead
 281 to a wild or undesired response from the controller. This approach errs on the side of caution with the
 282 sudden increase in input spikes being inhibited first, and then excited to a desired level, in contrast to a
 283 typical intrinsic response of allowing the activity, and then inhibiting to a desired response.

284 3.3.5 Changes to STDP training with active pruning

285 A simplified unsupervised STDP rule (Kheradpisheh et al., 2018; Bi and Poo, 1998) is used throughout
 286 the training process, including a Winner Take All (WTA) approach to STDP, that operates by only allowing
 287 one neuron (feature) in a neuronal map (feature map) to fire per time constant; this is viewed as an intra
 288 map competition. This WTA approach then moves onto the inter map inhibition, only allowing one spike
 289 to occur in any given spatial region, typically the size of the convolution kernel, throughout all the maps.
 290 As a result of these inhibition measures, two features can tend towards representing the same feature until
 291 such point where one becomes more active, while the other gets inhibited to the point of infrequent or
 292 no use. At this stage the feature representation has become obsolete and can be pruned or reset, allowing
 293 the opportunity to form another more useful feature. To capture this information the layer-wise training
 294 method make use of the training layers convergence values

$$C_l = \sum_k \sum_i \frac{w_{ki}(1 - w_{ki})}{n_{w_{ki}}} \quad (4)$$

295 Where C_l is the convergence score for the layer and w_{ki} is the i th synaptic weight of the k th convolution
 296 kernel. The $n_{w_{ki}}$ is the number of individual weights contained with the layer calculated by kernel size and
 297 the number of kernels in the previous and current layers, $n_{w_{ki}} = K \times k_{pre} \times k_{cur}$. The pruning function
 298 makes use of the convergence score that is typically used to indicate when training is complete, as the
 299 convergence tends to zero due to the weights tending to 0 or 1. Noticing that the layer-wise convergence
 300 is just a sum across all the kernels allows a modification to calculate the convergence across each kernel
 301 within that layer with respect to all previous maps.

$$C_{k_{cur}} = \sum_{k_{pre}} \sum_i \frac{w_{k_{pre}i}(1 - w_{k_{pre}i})}{n_{w_{k_{pre}i}}} \quad (5)$$

302 This new terms $C_{k_{cur}}$ allows monitoring of each kernel during the learning process, as previously
 303 mentioned obsolete kernels that learned similar features are less active, resulting in higher convergence
 304 numbers while maintaining a high spiking activity. The high spiking activity is due to the kernel maintaining
 305 the high starting weight value which are random values drawn from a normal distribution with the mean
 306 of $\mu = 0.8$ and standard deviation of $\sigma = 0.05$. However the kernel does not exhibit a feature that allows
 307 it to spike quick enough to receive a weight update from the STDP WTA rule. As the kernel had already
 308 started a convergence to a particular feature, once under-active it then attempts to convergence to another
 309 commonly occurring feature. However, the kernel often convergences to a useless feature representation
 310 that is unhelpful to the final result of the network. This pruning method, rather than simply removing
 311 the kernel, gives it the chance to learn a new feature from scratch by resetting the kernels weights. Thus
 312 allowing the best chance of convergence to a useful feature. This pruning process takes place once the
 313 convergence value of the layer C_l drops below the original starting value. As initially the weights are
 314 deconverging from the mean weight initialisation, before returning to the original convergence value on the
 315 way to zero. Once this milestone has been reached the pruning function in activated

$$Prune_{k_{cur}}(C_{k_{cur}}, C_l, S_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } C_{k_{cur}} > \bar{C}_l + 1\sigma_{C_l} \quad \text{and} \quad S_k > \bar{S}_l + 3\sigma_{S_l} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

316 where \bar{C}_l is the mean convergence for that layer, σ_{C_l} is the standard deviation of that layers values, S_k is
 317 the spike activity within an individual kernel. \bar{S}_l is the mean spike count of that layer and σ_{S_l} is it standard
 318 deviation. If a kernel value has a convergence score higher than 1 STD from the mean while having a
 319 spiking activity 3 STD higher than the mean spike rate in that layer, the kernel is reset with the initial
 320 weight distribution. Since many of the kernels are already converging to useful features this newly reset
 321 kernel will convergence to a new unrepresented feature.

322 3.3.6 Latent Space Inhibition for Attention

323 In order to have the network change its focus or attention, the latent space pseudo classification layer
 324 also acts as an inhibition layer for this mechanism. This operates by inhibiting other neurons in that layer
 325 if a specific neurons feature is chosen to be the attention. This is an external mechanism to the network
 326 as otherwise, the network will give equal attention to the full scene and semantically segments all known

327 objects within a scene. This allows a simplification of the output of the network fed to the controller,
328 allowing the attention of the system to be narrowed to that particular pseudo-class. This segmentation-based
329 attention can then be used to follow a given class dependent on the output of the controller. It operates
330 between convolution layer 3 and trans-convolution layer 3 with the same principals as the inter map
331 inhibition with the encoder, though now the spatial region is the whole latent space. This inhibition can also
332 work autonomously where the pseudo-class with the most activity is the attention of the network, allowing
333 the network to switch attention to known classes based on their prevalence within the scene.

334 **3.4 Tracking with Attention**

335 The Action part of the system with its spiking controller is directly influenced by the attention mechanism,
336 as when no attention is chosen the controller acts on all the segmented data being output by the SpikeSEG
337 network. This could cause unwanted control output if the scene contained more than one known class, as
338 unknown classes should still be removed by the process. Once a class has been chosen as the attention,
339 the segmentation output is reduced to only that class, as illustrated in Figure 1 (Action), which allows for
340 simple spike counter controller to produce a more robust and reliable output. The reduction in information
341 initially by the NVS which then further reduces through the semantic segmentation and attention, allow
342 the implementation of this simple spike counter. This is due to the segmentation output only containing
343 information relating to the attention of the network, the controllers task is just to keep this in the center
344 of the field of view. The simplicity of the controller also allows it to take advantage of the asynchronous
345 event-driven system to provide low latency tracking updates a key element of the system. However, if there
346 was more than one instance of a class in a scene there is no way to separate the two instances, so tracking
347 would be based off all instances of a class. Nevertheless, this system would make an improvement over
348 the purely spiking activity tracking systems by adding some semantic context to the activity, while the
349 simplified spike counter in this instance allows class based tracking could be enhanced with more complex
350 spike tracking such as dynamic neural fields (Renner et al., 2019)

4 RESULTS

351 In this section, a series of experiments on individual and multi event-stream recordings are presented. The
352 metric used in this paper is the Intersection over Union (IoU, also know as the Jaccard Index) to grade
353 the segmentation, which guides the control system of the network and ultimately, with user choice, the
354 Attention of the system. This metric was used due to the availability of the bounding box annotations within
355 the subset of the N-Caltech dataset that was used within the experiments. The feasibility of the attention-
356 based tracking is also encapsulated within the IoU value, though due to the small saccade movements of
357 the camera within the N-Caltech dataset, it is infeasible to use this to highlight spike-based tracking. This
358 is due to two issues throughout the movements. The first is the IoU value only receives a small change
359 as the displacement is often less than 10 pixels. The second is that the occurrence of segmented spike
360 activity in the controlled regions, is due to the tight field of view around the class in scene. This results in
361 the testing of the Perception and Understanding system only with this data. To ensure testing of the full
362 Perception, Understanding and Action system, two further experiments were carried out. The first with
363 multi input streams on a large input space and the second using our own captured DVS data of a desk
364 ornament with a hand held sensor. Lastly, the results sections show how the system is more robust and
365 interpretable than alternative models, with the use of the Pre-Empt and Adapt Thresholding and the contour
366 like sparse features within the weights of SpikeSEG.

367 Within these experiments the step time for any processing is now linked to the input time step, meaning
368 internal propagation of spikes takes one step (or 1ms) per layer, resulting in a 1ms lag to get the segmented
369 results. This allows for better visualisation of the asynchronous manner of the processing and control

370 for each step. However, this does not reflect the actual processing time of the network which, given its
371 complexity compared to similar models ran on neuromorphic hardware, would most likely be able to
372 execute this task in real-time for the 1ms step, meaning a full pass through the network per input step.
373 However, testing in this manner would not fully highlight the asynchronous advantage especially within a
374 dynamic environment.

375 One further note is that throughout all the testing the features of Convolution Layer 1 are pre-set to best
376 found features for initial edge detection, which results in a horizontal, vertical and two diagonal lines which
377 can be see later in the Interpretability Section 4.3.2 within Figure 14.

378

379 **4.1 Perception to Understanding with Segmentation**

380 Initially two subset classes from the N-Caltech dataset (Orchard et al., 2015) are used to evaluate the
381 Understanding section of the system. On this single stream input typically only containing a singular class
382 with variable amounts of background noise and clutter, the network is able to gain an accuracy of 96.8%
383 within the pseudo classification layer and a 81% mean Intersection over Union score over each of the
384 10ms buffered input that resulted in successful segmentation, results are also shown in Table 1. This is an
385 improvement on the single results seen within (Kirkland et al., 2020) of 92% and 67% for accuracy and
386 IoU, with the improved feature creation allowing a more detailed representation allowing an improvement
387 in both the accuracy and segmentation. The test results are based on training with 200 samples from the
388 Face and Motorbike classes with another 200 used for testing. This number was limited as the "Easy Faces"
389 has just over 400 images and was converted into "Faces" within the N-Caltech dataset with the "Faces"
390 category being removed. 400 images provided an equal training set between the Face and Motorbike classes.
391 The images in Figure 4 shows how the segmentation process was completed firstly through encoding the
392 event stream input through 3 convolution and two pooling layers Fig 4 (b-d and i-k), resulting in a sparse
393 latent space representation used to provide a classification of this binary task Fig 4 (d and k). Fig 4, then
394 shows how the classification locations are then mapped back onto the pixel space through the undoing of
395 the 3 convolutions and 2 pooling layers Fig 4 (e-g and l-n). For illustrative purposes, both the face and
396 motorbike are accumulations of the network activity according to 10ms input buffer and full propagation of
397 spikes through the network. Each convolution process is shown, with pooling omitted, Convolution Layer 1
398 is shown in Fig 4 (b and i) while layer 2 Fig 4 (c and j) with (d and k) showing the third convolution also
399 used as pseudo classification. Fig 4 (e and l) show the second transposed convolutional layer, named to
400 mirror the encoding side, while Fig 4 (f and m) show transposed convolution 1 and Fig 4 (g and n) display
401 the segmented outputs. This segmentation result is shown overlapped onto the input for two examples
402 within Figure 5. The colours used within Figure 4 are linked to the corresponding feature that was activated
403 in that layer with Fig 4 (c and j) showing different coloured features active for each the face and motorbike,
404 with section 4.3 exploring what the feature maps contain. This output from the SpikeSEG network can
405 feed directly into the spiking controller of the PUA system, guiding any movement that would be required
406 to follow the attention of the system. Although the controller in this context is unable to operate due
407 to the narrow field of view and limited movement, the Understanding section of the system does still
408 capture this small saccade movement of the camera within the segmented output as seen in this overlapped
409 output image, Figure 6 with (a) showing a downward and right shift of the segmented pixels over time,
410 relating to the inverse movement performed by the camera, while Fig 6 (b) and (c) show the two further
411 saccade movements. The segmentation also maintains an IoU value of above 0.7 throughout the movement,
412 meaning the segmentation is of good quality throughout (0.5 being acceptable, 0.7 being good and 0.9
413 being precise) (Zitnick and Dollár, 2014), for reference if the full input size is used for IoU the average
414 output is approximately 0.57. Consequently, this means tracking would still be possible through alternative

415 non-spiking methods such bounding boxes or centroid/center of mass calculation, but would remove the all
416 spiking asynchronous feature of this system.

417 4.1.1 N-Caltech Dataset Extended

418 To further evaluate the scalability of the model, a further 2 experiments are carried out with 5 and 10
419 classes. This allowed testing the model with 2, 5 and 10 classes within the same experimental parameters ,
420 that being 16 features per class in second convolution layer and 1 per class in the third convolution layer,
421 with active thresholding and pruning. 16 features was found to be a suitable value for number of features
422 through prior empirical testing, where more features gave no further improvement, while less features was
423 unable to capture the variation of some classes. The further classes added are: Inline Skate, Watch and
424 Stop Sign for the 5 class, while Camera, Windsor Chair, Revolver, Stegosaurus and Cup are added for
425 the 10 class experiment. These classes are chosen due to low variability in image spatial structure. As the
426 network is only looking for natural spatial structural similarity avoidance of classes which have a large
427 intraclass variance compared to the overall interclass relationship (Zamani and Jamzad, 2017). With this in
428 mind and due to some the additional classes having a smaller number of sequences, the number of training
429 and testing instances was changed to suit, at 20 training and 10 testing. Overall the network was able to
430 achieve classification accuracies of 86% and 75% and IoU values of 76% and 71% for the 5 and 10 classes
431 respectively, results are shown in Table 1. The decrease in overall accuracy with additional classes is to
432 be expected at the features built in the second convolution layer tend to get more similar. This is visually
433 detailed in section 4.3.2 with the Interpretability showing the different features learned in the convolution
434 layers. With this closer similarity of layer-wise features, an example of how the active pruning mechanism
435 is shown in Figure 7, where a number of the features within the second convolution layer have a slower
436 convergence rate while maintaining a high spike activity. This typically suggests the feature is not very
437 discriminative and is an ideal candidate for being reset to learn a new feature. Figure 7, shows the original
438 features just prior to reaching the pruning check point within (a), then indicates which features are chosen
439 to prune with the feature being reset to random initialisation within (b), the finally resulting in new features
440 shown in (c).

441

442 Drawing insight from the result, within the 5 class experiment the inter class variance was high. However,
443 once the 10 classes were added this inter and intra class variances seems to overlap. Resulting in many of
444 the classes relying on similar features constructed from circles, with Motorbike, Cup, Camera, Watch, Stop
445 Sign and Face at times producing features are that undistinguishable from one another. It was also noted
446 that as the number of classes increased the difference between average number of features in a kernel per
447 class (that is ones that can be recognised as belonging to a particular class) leads to a higher likelihood that
448 the class with the highest average feature number will be the most active. Within the last experiment with
449 the 10 classes this was prevalent within the Revolver class as it had an average feature count in convolution
450 layer 2 of around 200, while the average for camera was 110. This results in a higher chance that the
451 revolver was classified by mistake ultimately bringing the overall accuracy down.

452 4.2 Perception, Understanding and Action

453 This section is split into two parts both further testing the full PUA system, the first continues using the
454 N-Caltech Dataset, however with multiple simultaneous inputs. The second part makes use of recorded
455 data of desk ornament from a hand-held NVS to provide a further example of how the system works within
456 another test environment and how the action part of the system deals with a moving class.

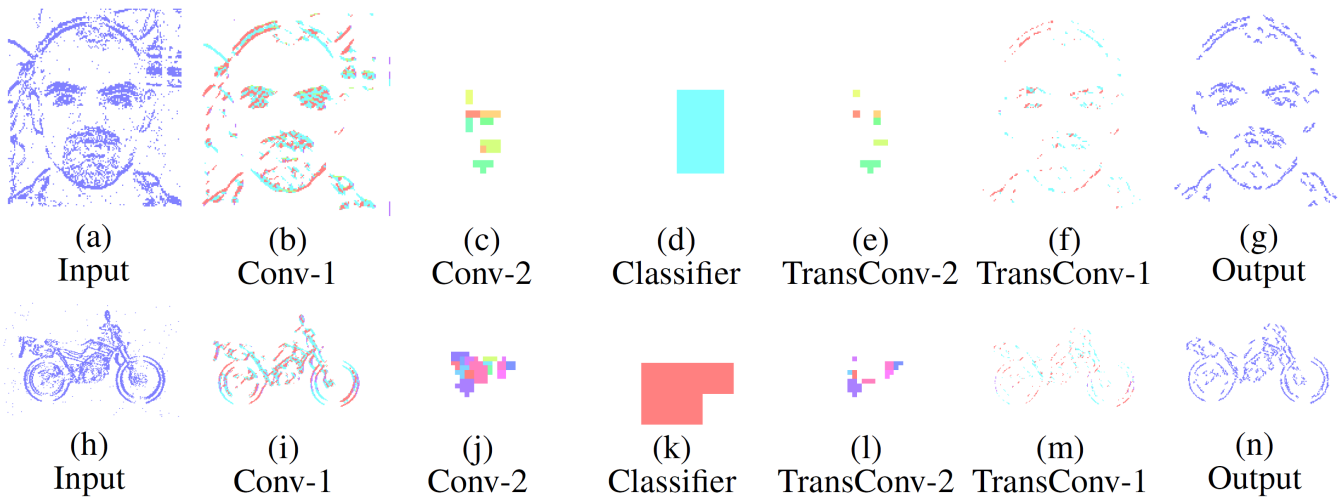


Figure 4. Segmentation performance of the network on an example face (a-g) and motorbike (h-n), highlighting the encoding transition into the latent space used for pseudo classification (a-d, h-k), then retracing of chosen features back to pixel level (d-g, k-n).

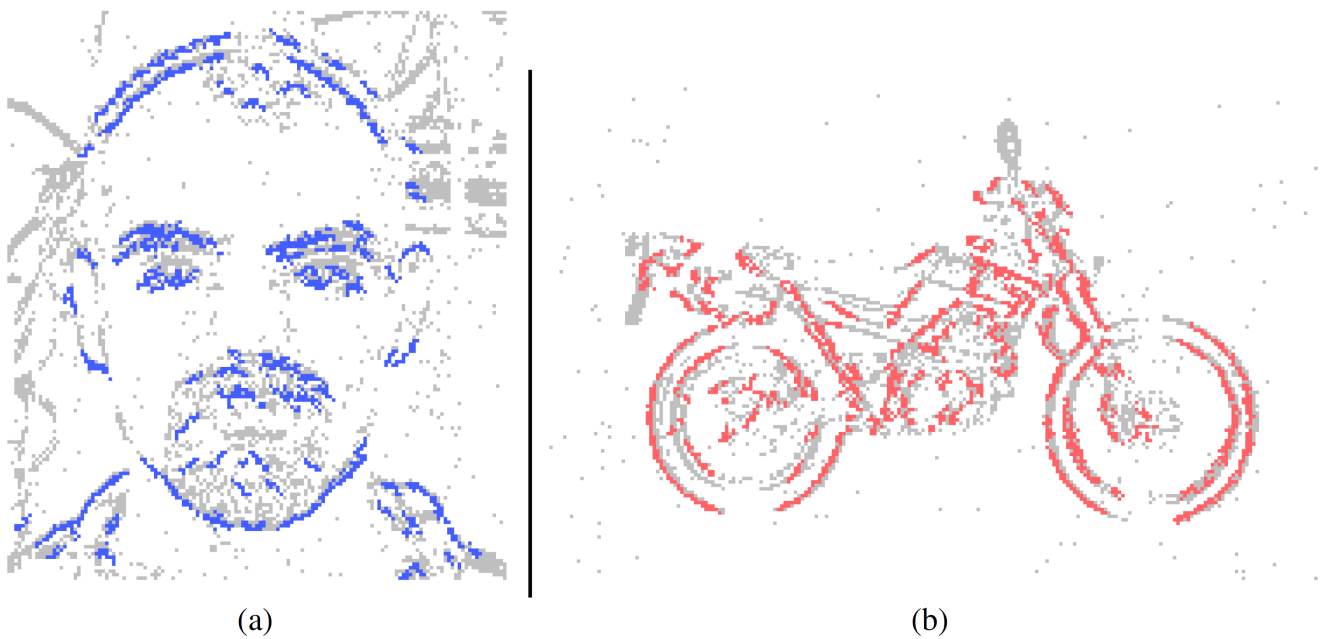


Figure 5. Segmentation overlays for the (a) Face and (b) Motorbike class from the N-CalTech dataset

457 4.2.1 N-Caltech Mutli-Stream Input

458 Building upon the results gathered from the successful process in section 4.1, this experiment looks
 459 at how the system would deal with multiple input streams. This allows the network to demonstrate the
 460 segmentation ability in the face of multiple distractors and spatio-temporal Gaussian noise with an average
 461 PSNR of 18dB, an example of the input with and without noise is shown in Figure 8 (b) and (a) respectively.
 462 Figure 8 also demonstrates the layout of the new input image, which is based on the Face class subset, but
 463 is 3 times the size to make a 3x3 grid where each corner and the centre will host an input stream. Each
 464 stream is presented for 300ms (dictated by the recording length in the dataset) then some of the locations

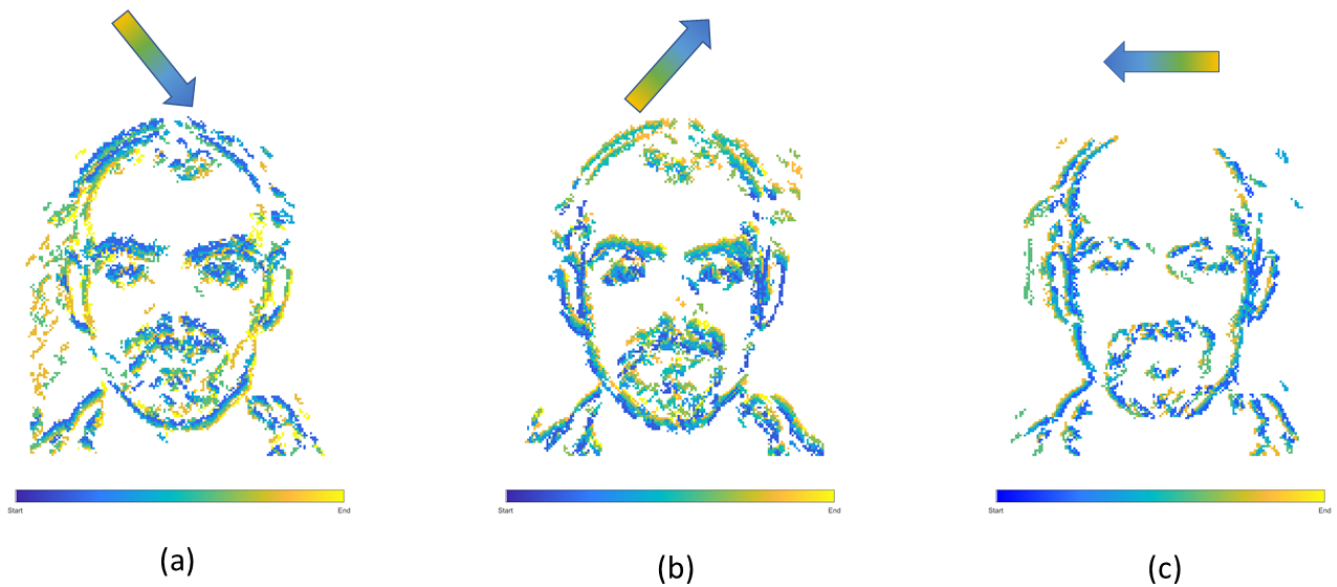


Figure 6. Overlapped Segmentation output over the complete event stream, showing the triangle of movements over the three saccades, (a) first movement, (b) second movement, (c) third movement.

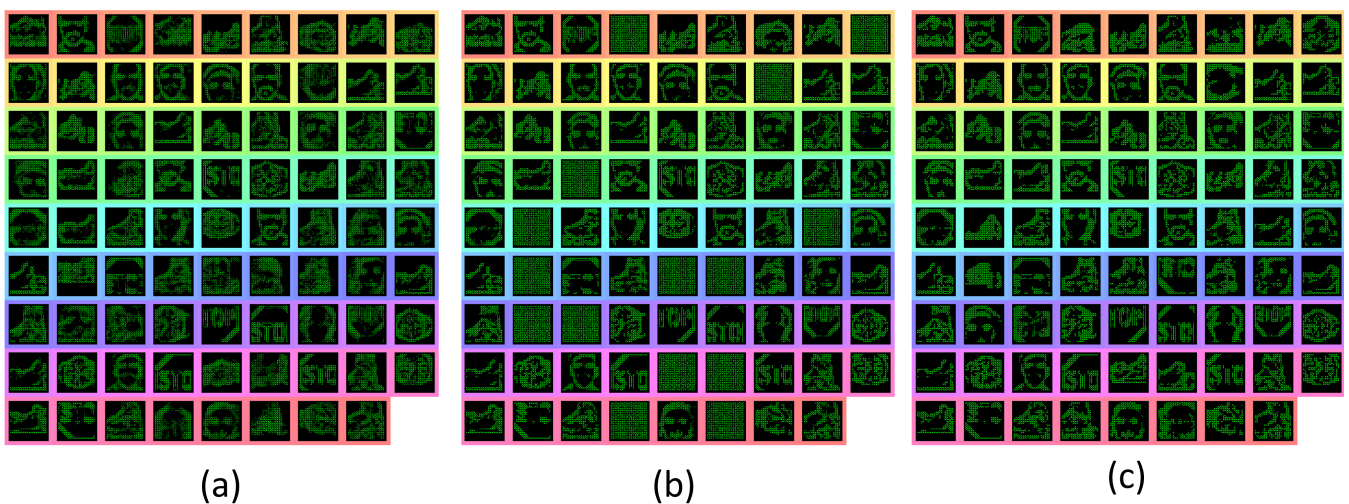


Figure 7. Features from the second convolution layer during training highlighting the pruning process. (a) highlights the features prior to pruning, (b) shows which feature were reset to initial parameters and (c) shows the newly learned features.

465 are changed and the next stream is played. The input streams illustrated in Figure 8 (a) and (b), consist
 466 of 1 face and 2 motorbikes for the known classes and 2 Garfield streams for the unknown, with Fig 8
 467 (b) demonstrating the affect of noise on the input. This gives an opportunity to display the asynchronous
 468 layer-wise spike propagation once thresholds have been surpassed, while also offering an insight into how
 469 an SNN reduces computational throughput with this thresholding value.

470 Figure 9 displays both this asynchronous throughput of activity and how the network reduces the
 471 numbers of computations, even when presented with noise and distractors, with the time axis showing an
 472 accumulation of spikes to ease with visibility. Figure 9 shows that by Conv 1 the added noise is mostly
 473 removed as it lacks any real structured shape, but the distractor, Garfield, remains and progresses onto

474 Conv 2. During this layer though, due to its low saliency with any of the learned features for the classes of
475 Face or Motorbike the distractor is removed from the processing pipeline. This leaves only the two known
476 classes, which then progress onto the Conv3 layer, then through the decoder layers to the output where they
477 are successful segmented. When testing the multi-stream input without any noise the accuracy and IoU
478 value is identical to the single stream instance at 96.8% and 81%. Then with added noise this value sees
479 a slight reduction to 95.1% and 79% for accuracy and IoU, these results are also shown in Table 1. The
480 decreases being attributed to the noisy pixels directly contacting or occurring within the class boundary,
481 as the network has no real way to discern this noise from actual data. This is clearly shown within the
482 segmented output comparisons shown in Figure 10, where the noiseless output (a) and the noisy (b) show
483 considerable difference in their respective segmentations with far more diagonal lines present in the noisy
484 output (b) in comparison to (a). This outcome could have been predicted and will be highlighted in section
485 4.3 as the first layer of the network has a larger feature representation for the diagonal line when compared
486 to the horizontal and vertical lines, with more pixels allocated to representing the diagonal lines rather than
487 horizontal and vertical, due to the larger variety of edges this feature had to represent. Meaning relatively
488 with the same threshold the diagonal feature is more likely to be activated than the horizontal and vertical.

489 With the segmentation successfully output the spiking controller now has less spiking activity so should
490 find it easier to be able to track a given class. The tracking starts once the user has made a selection of which
491 class is to become the attention of the network. Experimentally this was tested by selecting the attention
492 after two successful multi class segmentation examples where the stream inputs were repositioned. Figure
493 11 displays the outputs of the three inputs (a), (b) and (c) with their subsequent paths to segmentation.
494 Figure 11 shows that for inputs (a) and (b) the network is correctly segmenting the input and displaying an
495 output with a highlighted segment displayed in the 3x3 grid. It is only in Fig 11 (c) that the guided attention
496 mechanism is triggered causing the inhibition of the other class in the propagation between layer Conv 3
497 and T-Conv 3. This feature is highlighted with the red circle showing which neurons are now no longer
498 represented in the subsequent layer and thus no longer computed out to the segmentation, highlighting
499 part of the efficiency in SNN. The last section of the diagram in Figure 11 highlights the attention of the
500 network being drawn to the face located on the bottom left of the grid, which in the spiking controller
501 would result in an output of left and down to ensure the face is located within the central region. The
502 arrow within the Fig 11 (c) also indicated the movement of the track update, which is based off the central
503 region as within the previous two sequences the multiclass attention doesn't give a control output. This
504 attention-based tracking update is delivered within 34ms or 34 input steps, which with the 11ms processing
505 lag with each layer to propagate through the network results in a 31ms delay within the 300ms input stream.
506 This may seem like a considerable amount of time, but as shown in both Figures 2 and 9 due to the way the
507 N-Caltech dataset was recorded, the first 30ms of the recording contains very little information due to the
508 lack of movement with the main concentration of spiking activity during the middle of each of the saccade
509 movements. To test this the first 30ms of events were removed from all the input streams which result in a
510 reduction in track update to 15ms and with the offset of 11ms to progress through the network means a
511 4-5ms latency to get from input to a control output if the processing could be done in real-time. However,
512 even this latency is mainly from the initial delay in spiking activity within the network first layer, suggesting
513 once running the latency would decrease. This would make it a highly competitive alternative or efficient
514 middle ground between highly precise CNNs and low latency edge detection systems. Furthermore, the
515 total number of average calculations represented by the images seen in Figure 11 is only approx 9% of the
516 total available calculations (equivalent CNN) due to the sparse nature of both the features and the SNN
517 thresholding processing. Approx 10% of capacity is used in the encoding process and approx 5% in the
518 decoding process, which is visualised in both Figures 9 and 11.

519 4.2.2 Tracking from Handheld NVS

520 For this section, the SpikeSEG network was retained to be able to identify a panda desk ornament and
521 aims to better highlight the control and tracking aspects of the PUA system. The input stream recorded from
522 DVS346 NVS has the panda start on the far left in the field of view then the camera pans to the left resulting
523 in the panda being on the far right, with an example of the input images shown in Figure 12 (a). The results
524 detail how well the segmentation would work within this example, with the extra complexity of 3D shapes
525 and natural indoor lighting conditions. Overall the results of the 1 second test stream, show that only 60ms
526 (6%) of streaming footage failed to produce a segmentation output. This also occurs at the points where the
527 least amount of movement of the camera happens, the turning points, subsequently producing fewer output
528 spikes. Nevertheless, this results in no actual loss in tracking accuracy as the panda object stayed within the
529 previous segmentations IoU bounding box. Furthermore, the IoU for this test stream was 75% , shown in
530 Table 1, perhaps lower than expected given the high level of accuracy within the classification/segmentation
531 process. This is illustrated in Figure 12 (a) where the middle section of the panda is not well resolved by
532 the sensor, meaning on occasion the segmentation output was only of the top or bottom section. Figure 12
533 (b), (c) and (d) also show the full system process for the two different control outputs of moving left (d)
534 and right (c), that is when the segmentation area enters the proximity of the spike counter at the edges of
535 the output image. Within Figure 12 (d) there is also an example of how the system overcame a background
536 object that could have affected simpler approaches, as originally the input image had a background object
537 on the right hand side of the image. Due to the feature extraction and segmentation, the background object
538 was unable to influence the controller which without the Understanding-based segmentation would have
539 had spiking activity in both left and right spike counters.

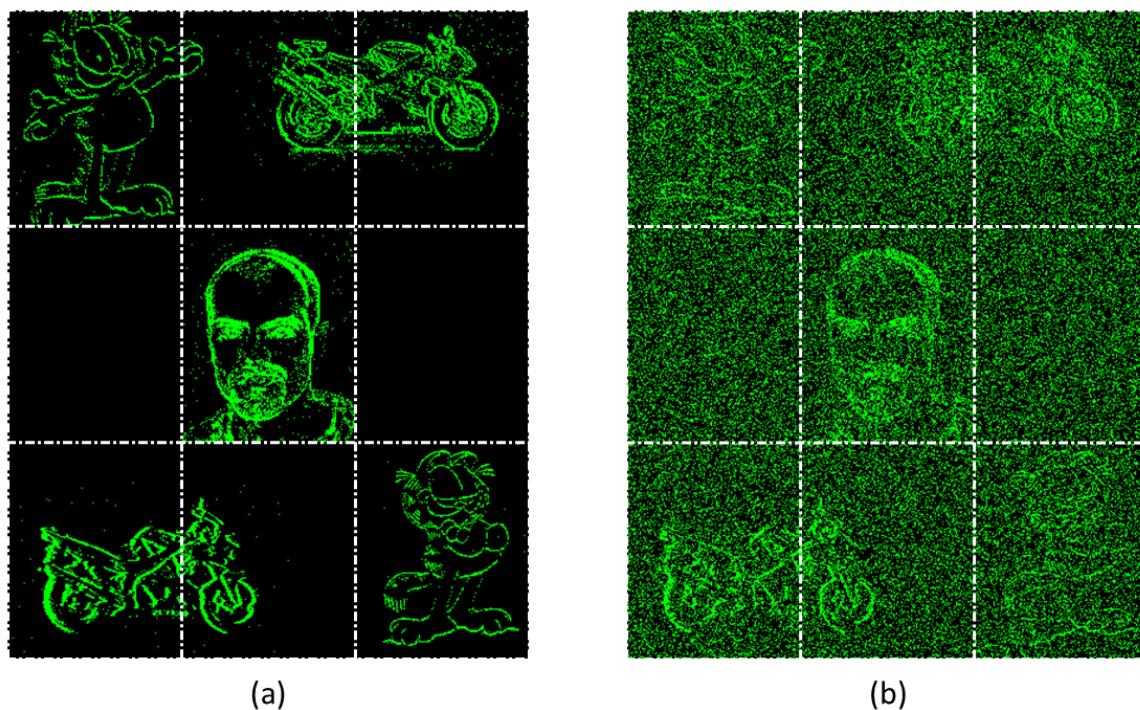


Figure 8. Example of input for the Multi-Stream Input without noise (a) and with noise (b), both with extra gridlines indicating the 3x3 grid which determines the initial location of the inputs.

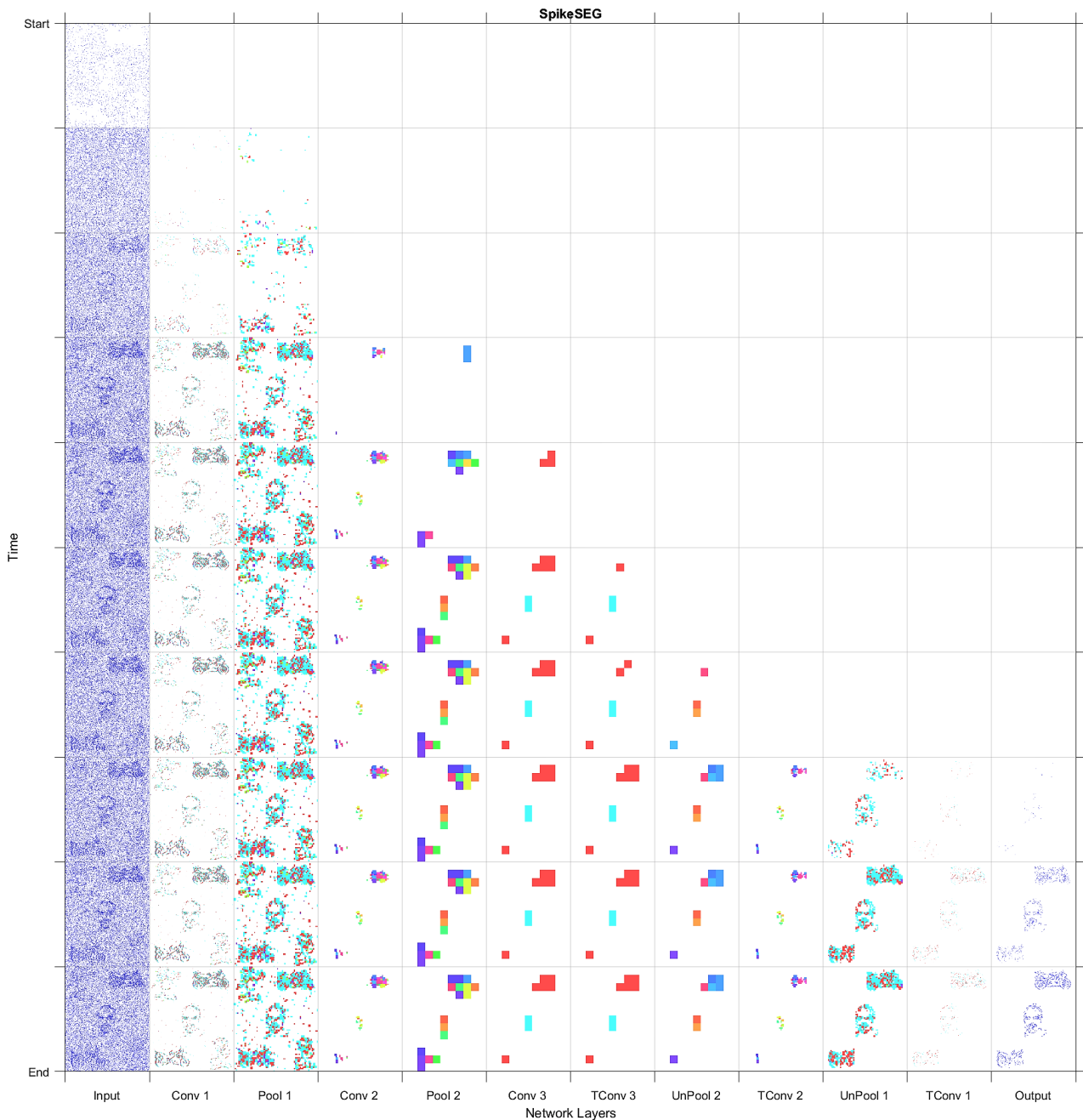


Figure 9. Full Layer-wise spiking activity for the system, showing the progression of spikes through the network encoding then decoding section into the segmentation output

540 4.3 Robustness and Interpretability

541 This section highlights two key features of utilising an SNN approach for this framework, the first is
 542 system robustness, especially that pertaining to Perception and Understanding (the sensor and processing)
 543 and how that affects the Actions of the system. The second feature is that of interpretability something that
 544 is not often not associated with CNN type approaches.

545 4.3.1 Robustness

546 The added robustness of the PUA approach comes from the Understanding section within the PEAT
 547 (Pre-Empt then Adapt Thresholding) mechanism. As mentioned in section 3.3.2, the buffering of input

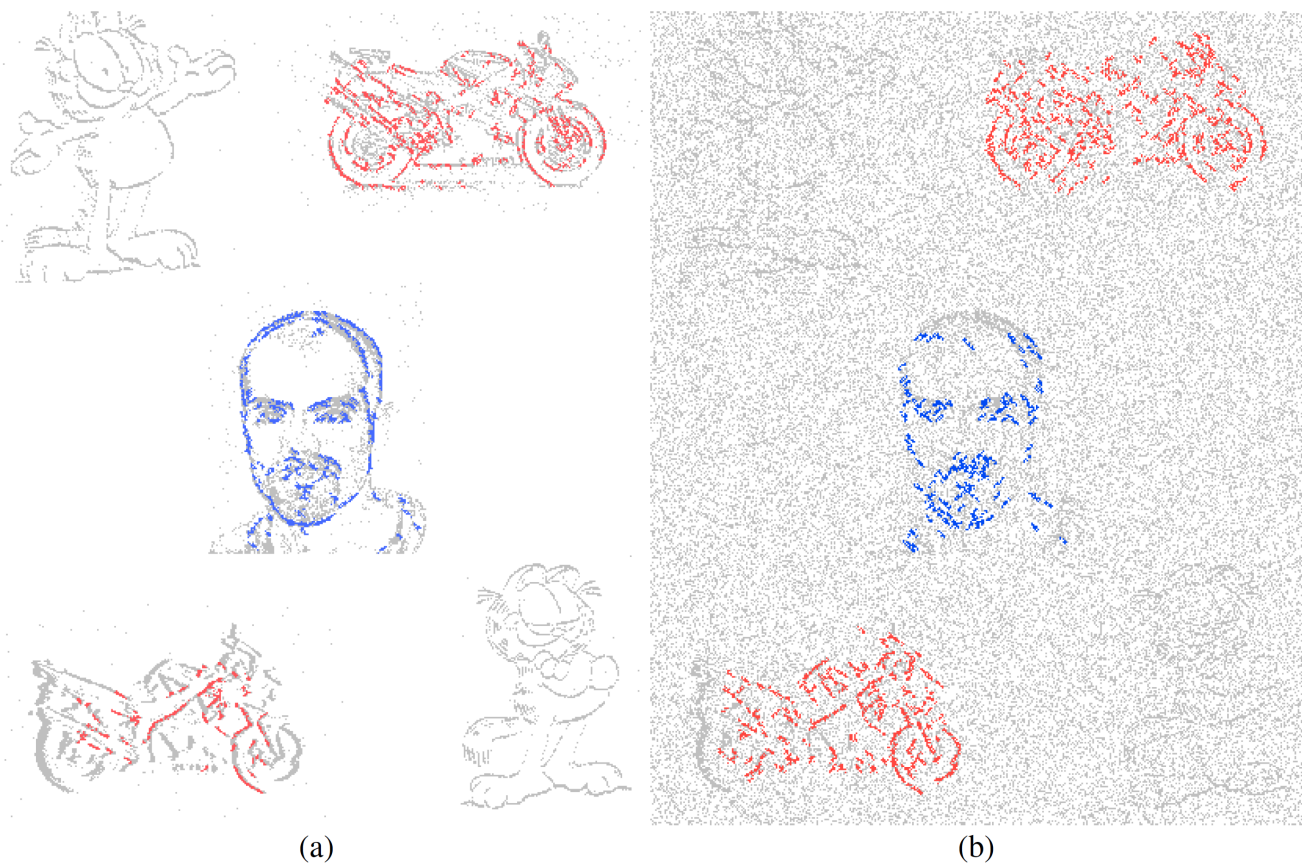


Figure 10. Segmentation overlays for the (a) Multi-Stream Input and (b) Multi-Stream Input with noise, including the classes Face, Motorbike and Garfield from the N-CalTech dataset)

548 spikes allows a spike counter to be implemented, allowing a pre-emptive rather than reactive approach to
 549 the thresholding within the network. Permitting synaptic scaling homeostasis to increase the threshold
 550 values on all layers, ensuring noisy or adversarial inputs are mitigated first. Subsequently, if the spike level
 551 persists the threshold levels using an intrinsic homeostasis may be adapted. An example of this system at
 552 work is illustrated within Figure 13, with (a) showing a multi-stream input with no noise, then the input is
 553 corrupt with noise in (b), (c) and (d) showing the resulting effects of the noise throughout the system with
 554 and without the PEAT mechanism active. The PUA framework implements the regime that no output is
 555 better than an incorrect output, especially when the input is degraded due to noise or adversarial sensor
 556 values. This robustness features is highlighted in the output of Fig 13 (b) which is incorrect and if passed to
 557 the controller could cause an undesired response, meanwhile in Fig 13 (c) the PEAT is seen to allow the
 558 network to threshold the noise level resulting in no segmentation output. Incidentally, Figure 13 (d) could
 559 be the adaptive outcomes of both approaches (b) and (c), it is just intermediate control output suppression
 560 that adds an extra level of robustness to the system.
 561 4.3.2 Interpretability

562 The interpretability of a system is often overlooked when values of accuracy or precision appear to be
 563 high. But understanding or gaining some insight into how the system got to an answer could be a valuable
 564 advantage for SCNN compared to conventional CNNs. As SCNN trained using STDP happen to produce
 565 a sparse feature variation of typical CNN outputs, the SCNN results in features that are more akin of
 566 those from contour matching papers (Barranco et al., 2014) while CNNs typically take on features that

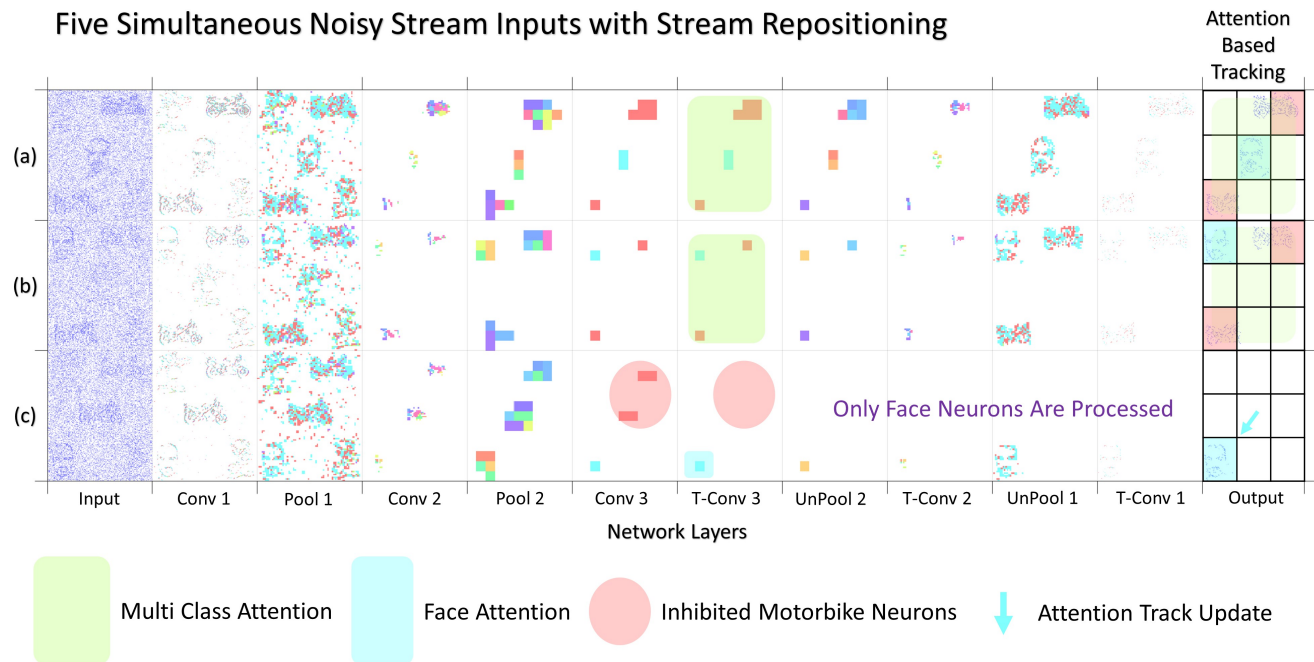


Figure 11. Image showing three separate multi input data streams. (a) and (b) both representing the full system layer-wise computations when no attention is selected, while (c) shows the layer-wise computation after the Face class has been selected as the attention of the network, thus enabling a simplification of the output and activating the action part of the system with a tracking controller update.

567 resemble textures (Olah et al., 2017). These texture maps are often hard to interpret, although modern
568 approaches have found ways to highlight the most salient parts of an input with reference to these texture
569 maps. Nevertheless it is still often difficult to predict how the system might react to an unknown input. The
570 features that were learned for the testing of the N-Caltech dataset used within this work is shown in Figure
571 14. Figure 14 (a), illustrates the differences between the previous version of the model and the current
572 implementation with PEAT and pruning improving the feature extraction, using the same Conv-1 features
573 representing simple edge detection structure of horizontal, vertical and two diagonal lines. Figure 14 (a)
574 then shows the mapping those features onto the weights of the Conv-2 resulting in the features that resemble
575 shapes and objects before the classification stage in Conv-3. It can be seen that half of the 36 features in
576 Conv-2 relate to the Face class and the other half the Motorbike, with these features helping to build up
577 the classification layers with two features either Face or Motorbike. This image helps to explain what the
578 network has learned and how it appears to be looking for contour like shapes to help it distinguish between
579 inputs. Along with this insight into how the network operates, it also allows the user to perhaps understand
580 why it might not always give the correct answers. Similar to how if creating a system using hand-crafted
581 contours features, you would understand the limitation this allows a similar understanding to be had. This
582 could allow manual manipulation of features or manual pruning throughout the training if the user happens
583 to have expert knowledge of the task, bringing neural networks closer to known computer vision-based
584 techniques, which could provide an interesting overlap, especially in the robotics domain.

585 In order to perceive how the additional classes affects the interpretability of the system Figure 14 (b) and
586 (c) highlights a sub-selection of the features within the 5 and 10 class models. This highlights how the

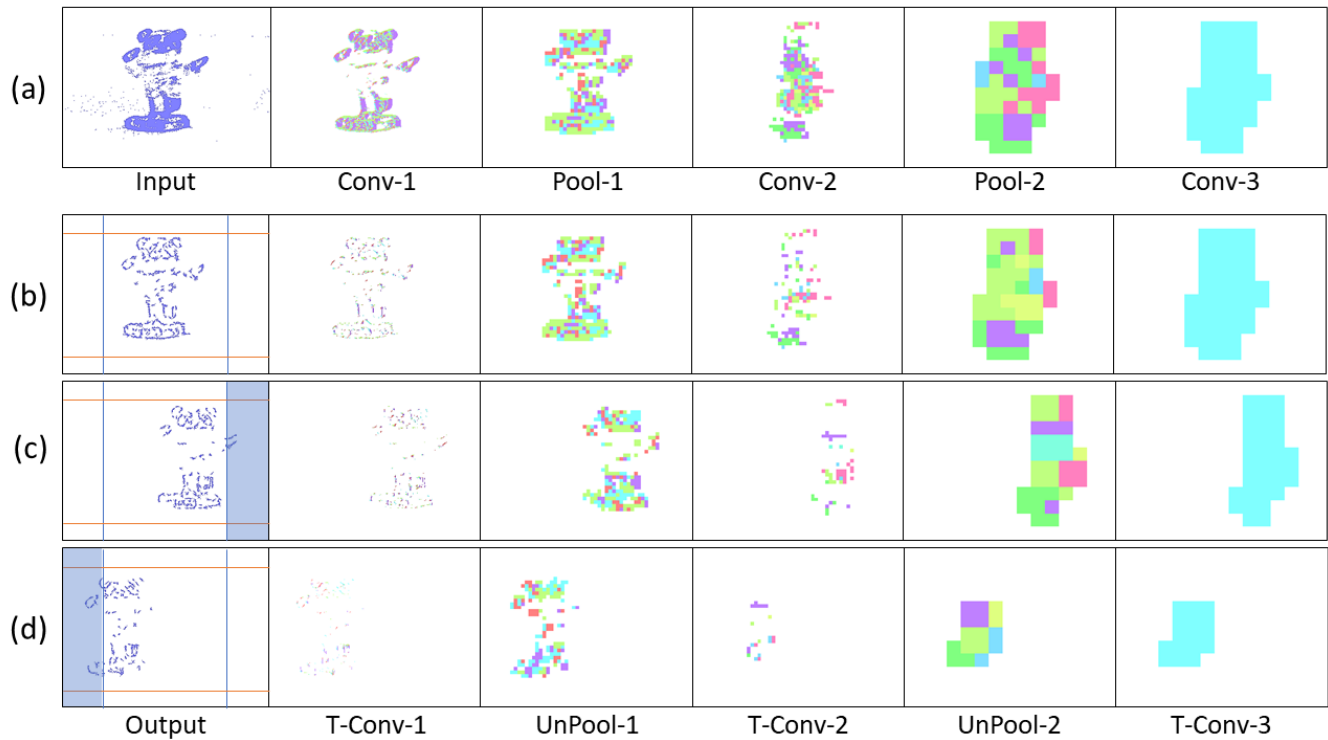


Figure 12. (a) Panda Input Image, (b) Panda reaching rightmost boundary triggering a control action, (c) Panda reaching leftmost boundary triggering a control action.

587 interpretability is still there for some of the features while others have become more difficult to understand,
 588 perhaps due to overlapping features from two classes. Overall, Figure 14 (b) and (c) highlight how reviewing
 589 of the features within a Spiking Neural Network can help to gain understanding about parts of the network,
 590 with the classification layers features representing each of the 5 and 10 classes. The visualisations help to
 591 explain why certain classes might struggle versus others due to similar sub classification features.

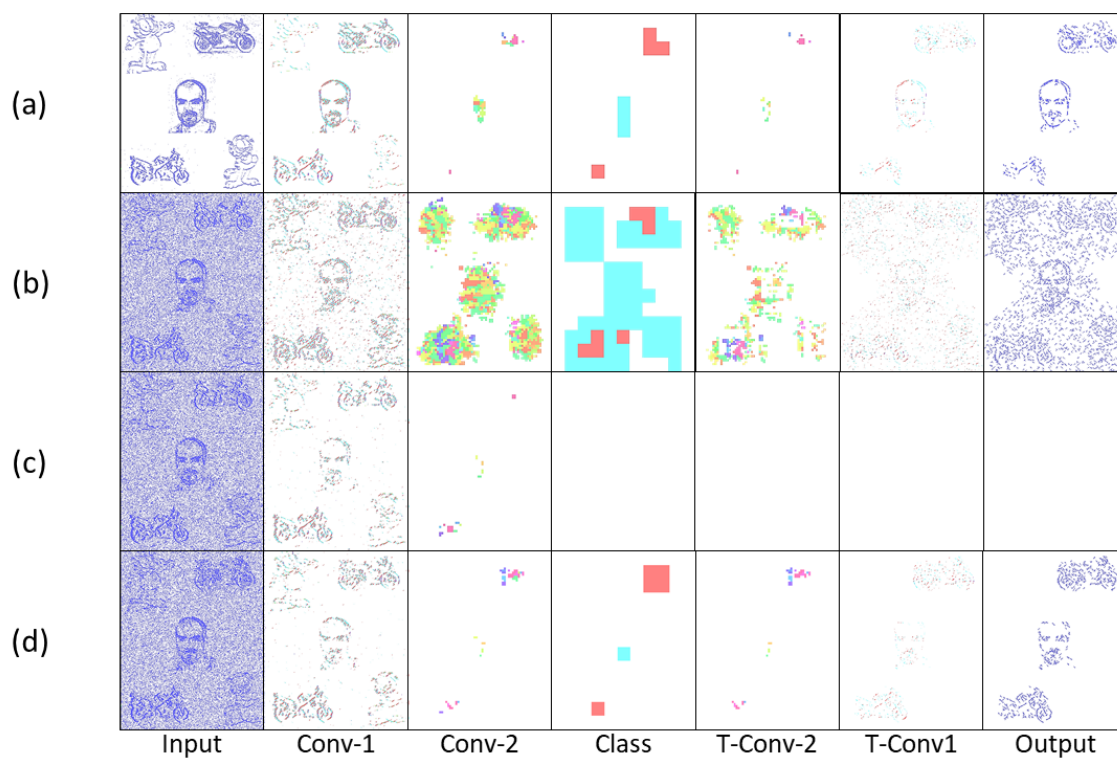


Figure 13. Highlighting the Robust noise suppression with the Pre-Empty then Adapt Thresholding mechanism.

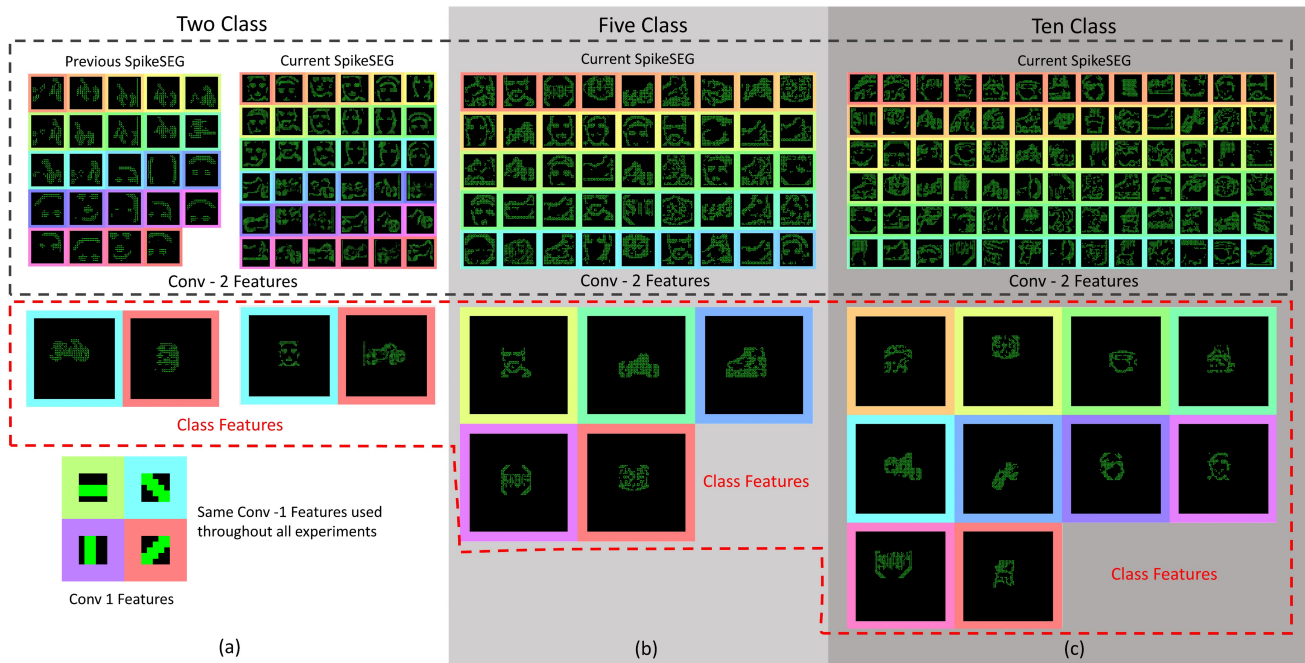


Figure 14. (a) Features map representations of the convolution layers, with colouring to match the latent space representation from the two class experiment, showing prior and current results of the Conv -2 features and Class features. The Figure also shows a selection of features from both the Five Class (b) and Ten Class (c) experiments. Top half showing the Conv -2 features and the bottom showing the Class Features. (a) Classes shown in Class Features are Motorbike-Face then Face-Motorbike for the previous and current results. (b) Classes shown in Class Features order are: Face, Motorbike, In-line Skate, Stop Sign and Watch. (c) Classes shown in Class Features order are: Stegosaurus, Watch, Cup, In-line Skate, Motorbike, Revolver, Camera, Face, Stop Sign and Windsor Chair.

5 DISCUSSION

592 The understanding method shown in this work details an unsupervised STDP approach. To fully utilise the
593 spiking nature of the processing it is paired with the perception method of spiking input sensor. Together
594 this perception understanding pair can successfully semantically segment up to 10 classes of the N-Caltech
595 dataset. The output of this process is a spiking grid indicating the location of the class within the scene,
596 which can be interpreted by the action system to allow the objects to be followed if attempting to leave the
597 field of view.

598 The full PUA process is completed in a spiking and fully convolutional manner. This ensures all
599 calculations are either spiking or spike counting. Allowing the network to maintain the temporal and
600 processing advantages, along with the asynchronicity associated with neuromorphic vision sensors, from
601 input to output. However, this method of processing is not without its drawbacks, as there is an overall
602 decrease in accuracy associated with this adding of extra classes. That perhaps indicates the limitation
603 with this unsupervised method in terms of problem scaling. For instances with the 100 classes available
604 within the N-Caltech dataset, the system would only be able to learn the most common features that occur
605 within each class, but only if they present a large enough variance. That is it will only learn common class
606 features as long as they look different enough from the other classes. Which is essentially what can be
607 seen happening with the 5 and 10 class experiments visualised in Figure 14 and Figure 7 (c). Figure 7 (c)
608 highlights that even with a high inter class variance the kernels sometimes learn differentiating features
609 from all other classes, while other times learns features that are an amalgamation of two or more classes.
610 The 5 class experiment displays this most prominently with the Bike and In-Line Skate classes, as there are
611 similarities between the outline shape of both objects.

612 Nevertheless, this ability to find most common features that express the highest variance from others,
613 is both the limitation and strength of this STDP approach. Limiting in that this approach might not scale
614 to larger datasets, but a strength in that it made the network asynchronous, adaptable, computational
615 sparse and visually interpretable. This highlights that the STDP method used might not be suitable for all
616 problems, but serves as a indication of the benefits if the problem is appropriate. This work demonstrates
617 that STDP alone can be used to find the most common features of a dataset. Which in turn, can be used to
618 successfully perform image classification and semantic segmentation. However, a further learning rule to
619 help focus on more discriminative features such as R-STDP (Izhikevich, 2007; Legenstein et al., 2008;
620 Mozafari et al., 2018) would be a useful extension. This could help in tackling the main issue of inter to
621 intra class variance differentiation. This could allow not only the most common feature to be discovered,
622 but the most common discriminative feature.

6 CONCLUSION

623 We proposed a new spiking-based system, the Perception Understanding Action Framework, which aims to
624 exploit the low latency and sparse characteristic of the NVS in a fully neuromorphic asynchronous event
625 driven pipeline. Using the understanding gained through the SpikeSEG segmentation, the network is able
626 to detect, classify and segment classes with high accuracy and precision. Then from this understanding, the
627 system makes a more informed decision about what action is to be taken. In this context, the framework
628 was able to show a semantic class tracking ability that combines feature extraction capability of CNNs
629 and low latency and computation throughput of line and corner detection methods. The framework also
630 explores the unique benefits that can be gained through utilising SNNs with interpretability and robustness,
631 with the use of thresholding algorithms and sparse feature extractions. The PUA framework also shows off
632 the unique attention mechanism, emphasizing how simple local inhibition rules when combined with an

Table 1. Results from each of the experimental setup, listing both the accuracy and intersection over union

Dataset	Classification Accuracy (%)	Intersection over Union (%)
N-CalTech (2 Class)	96.8	81
N-CalTech (5 Class)	86	76
N-CalTech (10 Class)	75	71
Multistream N-CalTech	96.8	81
Multistream N-CalTech with Noise	95.1	79
Panda	94	75

633 encoder decoder structure; this can help reduce the computation overhead of the semantic segmentation
 634 process. This research highlighted the series of benefits when utilising a fully neuromorphic approach with
 635 a pragmatic engineering and robotics outlook, looking at the biologically inspired mechanisms, features
 636 and benefits, then combining them with modern deep learning-based structures.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

637 Author PK is the main author and main contributor to the framework and experimental work. Authors PK,
 638 GD and JS contributed to the paper writing. Author GM was employed by the company Leonardo MW
 639 ltd. The remaining authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
 640 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

641 This work was support in part by Leonardo MW Ltd, as part of a PhD sponsorship programme. We would
 642 like to thank George Matich for discussion, reviewing and his helpful feedback.

REFERENCES

- 643 Badrinarayanan, V., Kendall, A., and Cipolla, R. (2017). SegNet: A Deep Convolutional Encoder-Decoder
 644 Architecture for Image Segmentation. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*
 645 39, 2481–2495. doi:10.1109/TPAMI.2016.2644615
- 646 Barranco, F., Fermuller, C., and Aloimonos, Y. (2014). Contour Motion Estimation for Asynchronous
 647 Event-Driven Cameras. *Proceedings of the IEEE* 102, 1537–1556. doi:10.1109/JPROC.2014.2347207
- 648 Bi, G.-q. and Poo, M.-m. (1998). Synaptic Modifications in Cultured Hippocampal Neurons: Dependence
 649 on Spike Timing, Synaptic Strength, and Postsynaptic Cell Type. *Journal of Neuroscience* 18, 10464–
 650 10472. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.18-24-10464.1998
- 651 Bichler, O., Querlioz, D., Thorpe, S. J., Bourgoin, J.-P., and Gamrat, C. (2012). Extraction of temporally
 652 correlated features from dynamic vision sensors with spike-timing-dependent plasticity. *Neural Networks*
 653 32, 339–348. doi:10.1016/J.NEUNET.2012.02.022
- 654 Bohg, J., Hausman, K., Sankaran, B., Brock, O., Kragic, D., Schaal, S., et al. (2017). Interactive
 655 Perception: Leveraging Action in Perception and Perception in Action. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics*
 656 33, 1273–1291. doi:10.1109/TRO.2017.2721939
- 657 Brandli, C., Berner, R., Minhao Yang, Shih-Chii Liu, and Delbruck, T. (2014). A 240 x 180 130 dB 3
 658 μ s Latency Global Shutter Spatiotemporal Vision Sensor. *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits* 49,
 659 2333–2341. doi:10.1109/JSSC.2014.2342715
- 660 Cao, Y., Chen, Y., and Khosla, D. (2015). Spiking deep convolutional neural networks for energy-efficient
 661 object recognition. *International Journal of Computer Vision* 113, 54–66
- 662 Clady, X., Ieng, S.-H., and Benosman, R. (2015). Asynchronous event-based corner detection and matching.
 663 *Neural Networks* 66, 91–106. doi:10.1016/J.NEUNET.2015.02.013

- 664 Conradt, J., Cook, M., Berner, R., Lichtsteiner, P., Douglas, R., and Delbruck, T. (2009). A pencil balancing
665 robot using a pair of AER dynamic vision sensors. In *2009 IEEE International Symposium on Circuits
666 and Systems (IEEE)*, 781–784. doi:10.1109/ISCAS.2009.5117867
- 667 Davies, M., Srinivasa, N., Lin, T.-H., Chinya, G., Cao, Y., Choday, S. H., et al. (2018). Loihi: A
668 Neuromorphic Manycore Processor with On-Chip Learning. *IEEE Micro* 38, 82–99. doi:10.1109/MM.
669 2018.112130359
- 670 Delbruck, T. and Lang, M. (2013). Robotic goalie with 3 ms reaction time at 4% CPU load using
671 event-based dynamic vision sensor. *Frontiers in Neuroscience* 7, 223. doi:10.3389/fnins.2013.00223
- 672 Delbruck, T. and Lichtsteiner, P. (2007). Fast sensory motor control based on event-based hybrid
673 neuromorphic-procedural system. In *2007 IEEE International Symposium on Circuits and Systems
674 (IEEE)*, 845–848. doi:10.1109/ISCAS.2007.378038
- 675 DeWolf, T., Stewart, T. C., Slotine, J.-J., and Eliasmith, C. (2016). A spiking neural model of adaptive arm
676 control. *Proceedings. Biological sciences* 283. doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.2134
- 677 Eliasmith, C., Stewart, T. C., Choo, X., Bekolay, T., DeWolf, T., Tang, Y., et al. (2012). A large-scale
678 model of the functioning brain. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* 338, 1202–5. doi:10.1126/science.1225266
- 679 Falez, P., Tirilly, P., Marius Bilasco, I., Devienne, P., and Boulet, P. (2019). Multi-layered Spiking
680 Neural Network with Target Timestamp Threshold Adaptation and STDP. In *2019 International Joint
681 Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN) (IEEE)*, 1–8. doi:10.1109/IJCNN.2019.8852346
- 682 Gehrig, D., Rebecq, H., Gallego, G., and Scaramuzza, D. (2018). Asynchronous, photometric feature
683 tracking using events and frames. In *Proceedings of the European Conference on Computer Vision
684 (ECCV)*. 750–765
- 685 Glover, A. and Bartolozzi, C. (2017). Robust visual tracking with a freely-moving event camera. In
686 *2017 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS) (IEEE)*, 3769–3776.
687 doi:10.1109/IROS.2017.8206226
- 688 Hinton, G. E., Osindero, S., and Teh, Y.-W. (2006). A Fast Learning Algorithm for Deep Belief Nets.
689 *Neural Computation* 18, 1527–1554. doi:10.1162/neco.2006.18.7.1527
- 690 Hunsberger, E. and Eliasmith, C. (2015). Spiking deep networks with lif neurons. *arXiv preprint
691 arXiv:1510.08829*
- 692 Izhikevich, E. M. (2007). Solving the Distal Reward Problem through Linkage of STDP and Dopamine
693 Signaling doi:10.1093/cercor/bhl152
- 694 Jiang, Z., Bing, Z., Huang, K., and Knoll, A. (2019). Retina-Based Pipe-Like Object Tracking Implemented
695 Through Spiking Neural Network on a Snake Robot. *Frontiers in Neurobotics* 13, 29. doi:10.3389/
696 fnbot.2019.00029
- 697 Kheradpisheh, S. R., Ganjtabesh, M., Thorpe, S. J., and Masquelier, T. (2018). STDP-based spiking
698 deep convolutional neural networks for object recognition. *Neural Networks* 99, 56–67. doi:10.1016/J.
699 NEUNET.2017.12.005
- 700 Kim, S., Park, S., Na, B., and Yoon, S. (2019). Spiking-yolo: Spiking neural network for real-time object
701 detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.06530*
- 702 Kirkland, P., Di Caterina, G., Soraghan, J., Andreopoulos, Y., and Matich, G. (2019). Uav detection: a
703 stdp trained deep convolutional spiking neural network retina-neuromorphic approach. In *International
704 Conference on Artificial Neural Networks (Springer)*, 724–736
- 705 Kirkland, P., Di Caterina, G., Soraghan, J., and Matich, G. (2020). Spikeseg: Spiking segmentation via
706 stdp saliency mapping. In *2020 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN)*. 1–8
- 707 Lagorce, X., Meyer, C., Ieng, S.-H., Filliat, D., and Benosman, R. (2015). Asynchronous Event-Based
708 Multikernel Algorithm for High-Speed Visual Features Tracking. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks*

- 709 and Learning Systems 26, 1710–1720. doi:10.1109/TNNLS.2014.2352401
- 710 Legenstein, R., Pecevski, D., and Maass, W. (2008). A learning theory for reward-modulated spike-
711 timing-dependent plasticity with application to biofeedback. *PLoS Computational Biology* 4, 1000180.
712 doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000180
- 713 Levy, S. D. (2020). Robustness Through Simplicity: A Minimalist Gateway to Neurorobotic Flight.
714 *Frontiers in Neurorobotics* 14, 16. doi:10.3389/fnbot.2020.00016
- 715 Li, H. and Shi, L. (2019). Robust Event-Based Object Tracking Combining Correlation Filter and CNN
716 Representation. *Frontiers in Neurorobotics* 13, 82. doi:10.3389/fnbot.2019.00082
- 717 Li Fei-Fei, Fergus, R., and Perona, P. (2018). Learning Generative Visual Models from Few Training
718 Examples: An Incremental Bayesian Approach Tested on 101 Object Categories. In *2004 Conference on
719 Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshop (IEEE)*, 178–178. doi:10.1109/CVPR.2004.383
- 720 Lichtsteiner, P., Posch, C., and Delbruck, T. (2008). A 120 dB 15micro s Latency Asynchronous Temporal
721 Contrast Vision Sensor. *IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits* 43, 566–576. doi:10.1109/JSSC.2007.
722 914337
- 723 Long, J., Shelhamer, E., and Darrell, T. (2015). Fully convolutional networks for semantic segmentation.
724 In *2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR) (IEEE)*, 3431–3440.
725 doi:10.1109/CVPR.2015.7298965
- 726 Masquelier, T. and Kheradpisheh, S. R. (2018). Optimal Localist and Distributed Coding of Spatiotemporal
727 Spike Patterns Through STDP and Coincidence Detection. *Frontiers in Computational Neuroscience* 12,
728 74. doi:10.3389/fncom.2018.00074
- 729 Masquelier, T. and Thorpe, S. J. (2007). Unsupervised learning of visual features through spike timing
730 dependent plasticity. *PLoS computational biology* 3
- 731 Masuta, H., Motoyoshi, T., Sawai, K., Koyanagi, K., and Oshima, T. (2017). Perception and action cycle
732 for cognitive robotics. In *2017 International Symposium on Micro-NanoMechatronics and Human
733 Science (MHS) (IEEE)*, 1–7. doi:10.1109/MHS.2017.8305180
- 734 Mozafari, M., Kheradpisheh, S. R., Masquelier, T., Nowzari-Dalini, A., and Ganjtabesh, M. (2018).
735 First-spike-based visual categorization using reward-modulated STDP. *IEEE Transactions on Neural
736 Networks and Learning Systems* 29, 6178–6190. doi:10.1109/TNNLS.2018.2826721
- 737 Mueggler, E., Bartolozzi, C., and Scaramuzza, D. (2017). Fast event-based corner detection
- 738 Nishiwaki, K., Sugihara, T., Kagami, S., Kanehiro, F., Inaba, M., and Inoue, H. (2003). Design
739 and development of research platform for perception-action integration in humanoid robot: H6. In
740 *Proceedings. 2000 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS 2000)
741 (Cat. No.00CH37113) (IEEE)*, vol. 3, 1559–1564. doi:10.1109/IROS.2000.895195
- 742 O'Connor, P., Neil, D., Liu, S.-C., Delbruck, T., and Pfeiffer, M. (2013). Real-time classification and
743 sensor fusion with a spiking deep belief network. *Frontiers in neuroscience* 7, 178. doi:10.3389/fnins.
744 2013.00178
- 745 Olah, C., Mordvintsev, A., and Schubert, L. (2017). Feature visualization. *Distill* doi:10.23915/distill.00007.
746 <https://distill.pub/2017/feature-visualization>
- 747 Orchard, G., Jayawant, A., Cohen, G. K., and Thakor, N. (2015). Converting static image datasets to
748 spiking neuromorphic datasets using saccades. *Frontiers in neuroscience* 9, 437
- 749 Panda, P., Srinivasan, G., and Roy, K. (2017). *Convolutional Spike Timing Dependent Plasticity based
750 Feature Learning in Spiking Neural Networks*. Tech. rep.
- 751 Park, J., Ha, S., Yu, T., Neftci, E., and Cauwenberghs, G. (2014). A 65k-neuron 73-Mevents/s 22-pJ/event
752 asynchronous micro-pipelined integrate-and-fire array transceiver. In *IEEE 2014 Biomedical Circuits
753 and Systems Conference, BioCAS 2014 - Proceedings (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers*

- 754 Inc.), 675–678. doi:10.1109/BioCAS.2014.6981816
- 755 Paugam-Moisy, H. and Bohte, S. M. (2012). Computing with Spiking Neuron Networks. In *Handbook of*
756 *Natural Computing*, eds. G. Rozenberg, T. Back, and J. Kok (Springer-Verlag). 335–376. doi:10.1007/
757 978-3-540-92910-9_10
- 758 Paulun, L., Wendt, A., and Kasabov, N. (2018). A Retinotopic Spiking Neural Network System for
759 Accurate Recognition of Moving Objects Using NeuCube and Dynamic Vision Sensors. *Frontiers in*
760 *Computational Neuroscience* 12, 42. doi:10.3389/fncom.2018.00042
- 761 Renner, A., Evanusa, M., and Sandamirskaya, Y. (2019). Event-Based Attention and Tracking on
762 Neuromorphic Hardware. In *2019 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*
763 *Workshops (CVPRW)* (IEEE), 1709–1716. doi:10.1109/CVPRW.2019.00220
- 764 Seifozakerini, S., Yau, W.-Y., Zhao, B., and Mao, K. (2016). Event-Based Hough Transform in a
765 Spiking Neural Network for Multiple Line Detection and Tracking Using a Dynamic Vision Sensor.
766 In *Proceedings of the British Machine Vision Conference 2016* (British Machine Vision Association),
767 94.1–94.12. doi:10.5244/C.30.94
- 768 Sengupta, A., Ye, Y., Wang, R., Liu, C., and Roy, K. (2019). Going deeper in spiking neural networks:
769 Vgg and residual architectures. *Frontiers in neuroscience* 13
- 770 Simonyan, K., Vedaldi, A., and Zisserman, A. (2013). Deep inside convolutional networks: Visualising
771 image classification models and saliency maps. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1312.6034*
- 772 Stromatias, E., Soto, M., Serrano-Gotarredona, T., and Linares-Barranco, B. (2017). An Event-Driven
773 Classifier for Spiking Neural Networks Fed with Synthetic or Dynamic Vision Sensor Data. *Frontiers in*
774 *Neuroscience* 11, 350. doi:10.3389/fnins.2017.00350
- 775 Tavanaei, A., Ghodrati, M., Kheradpisheh, S. R., Masquelier, T., and Maida, A. (2019). Deep learning in
776 spiking neural networks. *Neural Networks* 111, 47–63. doi:10.1016/J.NEUNET.2018.12.002
- 777 Vasco, V., Glover, A., and Bartolozzi, C. (2016). Fast event-based Harris corner detection exploiting the
778 advantages of event-driven cameras. In *2016 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots*
779 *and Systems (IROS)* (IEEE), 4144–4149. doi:10.1109/IROS.2016.7759610
- 780 Wiesmann, G., Schraml, S., Litzenberger, M., Belbachir, A. N., Hofstatter, M., and Bartolozzi, C. (2012).
781 Event-driven embodied system for feature extraction and object recognition in robotic applications.
782 In *2012 IEEE Computer Society Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition Workshops*
783 (IEEE), 76–82. doi:10.1109/CVPRW.2012.6238898
- 784 Xie, M. (2003). *Fundamentals of Robotics*, vol. 54 of *Series in Machine Perception and Artificial*
785 *Intelligence* (WORLD SCIENTIFIC). doi:10.1142/5230
- 786 Zamani, F. and Jamzad, M. (2017). A feature fusion based localized multiple kernel learning system
787 for real world image classification. *EURASIP Journal on Image and Video Processing* 2017, 78.
788 doi:10.1186/s13640-017-0225-y
- 789 Zeiler, M. D. and Fergus, R. (2014). Visualizing and understanding convolutional networks. In *European*
790 *conference on computer vision* (Springer), 818–833
- 791 Zitnick, C. L. and Dollár, P. (2014). *Edge Boxes: Locating Object Proposals from Edges* (Springer, Cham).
792 391–405. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-10602-1_26