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Structure of Receptive Fields in a Computational Model of Area 3b of Primary Sensory Cortex

Georgios Is. Detorakis¹ and Nicolas P. Rougier^{2,3,4,*}

¹Laboratoire des signaux et systèmes, Supélec, Gif-sur-Yvette, France

²INRIA Bordeaux Sud-Ouest, Bordeaux, France

³LaBRI, Université de Bordeaux, Institut Polytechnique de Bordeaux,
Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, UMR 5800, Talence, France

⁴Institut des Maladies Neurodégénératives, Université de Bordeaux,
Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, UMR 5293, Bordeaux, France

*Corresponding author: Nicolas.Rougier@inria.fr

Abstract

In a previous work, we introduced a computational model of area 3b which is built upon the neural field theory and receives input from a simplified model of the index distal finger pad populated by a random set of touch receptors (Merkell cells). This model has been shown to be able to self-organize following the random stimulation of the finger pad model and to cope, to some extent, with cortical or skin lesions. The main hypothesis of the model is that learning of skin representations occurs at the thalamo-cortical level while cortico-cortical connections serve a stereotyped competition mechanism that shapes the receptive fields. To further assess this hypothesis and the validity of the model, we reproduced in this article the exact experimental protocol of DiCarlo et al. that has been used to examine the structure of receptive fields in area 3b of the primary somatosensory cortex. Using the same analysis toolset, the model yields consistent results, having most of the receptive fields to contain a single region of excitation and one to several regions of inhibition. We further proceeded our study using a dynamic competition that deeply influences the formation of the receptive fields. We hypothesized this dynamic competition to correspond to some form of somatosensory attention that may help to precisely shape the receptive fields. To test this hypothesis, we designed a protocol where an arbitrary region of interest is delineated on the index distal finger pad and we either (1) instructed explicitly the model to attend to this region (simulating an attentional signal) (2) preferentially trained the model on this region or (3) combined the two aforementioned protocols simultaneously. Results tend to confirm that dynamic competition leads to shrunken receptive fields and its joint interaction with intensive training promotes a massive receptive fields migration and shrinkage.

Keywords: Receptive Field — Neural Field — Somatosensory Cortex — Area 3b — SI — Computational Model — Self-Organization

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Introduction

In a previous work ([Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#)), we proposed a computational model of the somatosensory cortex based on neural field theory ([Amari \(1977\)](#); [Bressloff \(2011\)](#)). This model allowed us to investigate formation and maintenance of ordered topographic maps in the primary somatosensory cortex during the critical period of development (postnatal), where representations are shaped, and the post-critical period, where representations are maintained and possibly reorganized in face of cortical or sensory lesions or dynamic changes of the environment. The main hypothesis of the model is that feed-forward thalamo-cortical connections are an adequate site of plasticity while cortico-cortical connections drive a competitive mechanism that is central in the learning process. The model relies functionally on the balance between lateral excitation and inhibition, allowing to widen or sharpen the response of the model and plays a critical role in the shaping of the receptive fields during development. This modulation of the balance may originate from at least two distinct processes at two different time scales. In the long-term, neurogenesis/neuronal death and synaptogenesis/synaptic degeneration [Edelman \(1987\)](#) are ontogenetic factors that shape cortical connectivity during development as explained in [Bressler and Tognoli \(2006\)](#). Synaptic density spikes during the childhood followed by a decline during adolescence and adulthood [Feinberg et al. \(1990\)](#).

To further support this hypothesis, we first reproduced in this article the experimental protocol of [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#) that has been used to characterize the structure of receptive fields (RFs) in area 3b of primary somatosensory cortex in three alert monkeys. This protocol is based on the passive stimulation of the distal finger pad using a rotating drum. This allowed the authors to show that most RFs contain a single, central region of excitation and one or more regions of inhibition. In this work, we adapted this protocol to our model and validated our results using the same modified linear regression algorithm to characterize excitatory and inhibitory components of each RF. This helped us to tune the model and we found very consistent results using a stereotyped profile for lateral connections, resulting from a fixed balance between the amount of excitation and inhibition.

We further processed our analysis by considering the dynamic modulation of the competition following a top-down signal that is supposed to originate from higher order cortical areas and has been implemented as a gain multiplication at the level of the lateral intra-cortical connections. In the short-term perspective, such modulation allows the model to give a sharper and stronger response to any stimulus. In the long term perspective, the repeated modulation of the response has a long-lasting influence onto the structure of the RFs. We hypothesized such a modulation to represent a form of somatosensory attention (spatial attention) because such modulation has been already proposed in the visual dimension as a possible mechanism for spatial attention, more specifically in area V4 [Salinas et al. \(1997\)](#); [Salinas and Sejnowski \(2001\)](#). Indeed, attention has been mostly studied in the visual system and can be defined as a mechanism that enhances the processing of interesting (understood as behaviorally relevant) locations (spatial or featural) while darkening the rest [Posner \(1980\)](#); [Treisman \(1988\)](#). The first neural correlate of that phenomenon has been discovered by [Moran and Desimone \(1985\)](#) in V4 where neurons respond preferentially for a given feature in their receptive fields. Since then, attentional effects have been found in each map of the ventral stream but also in the dorsal stream (area MT encoding for stimulus movement, LIP representing stimuli in a head-centered reference frame). Such attentional effects have also been identified in other modalities as well: auditory [Fritz et al. \(2007\)](#); [Picton and Hillyard \(1974\)](#), motor [D.A. Norman \(1980\)](#) and somatosensory to a much lesser extent, [Hsiao et al. \(1993\)](#). In fact, even if the somatosensory system has been extensively studied in monkeys and rats, the nature of attentional mechanisms and how they may affect neocortical maps of somatosensory cortices remain largely unknown.

Our main hypothesis is that the modulation of a response in area 3b may be one of the core mechanism, even though the origin of the modulation signal is not detailed in this article. To test this hypothesis, we developed a specific protocol where modulation occurs only if a presented stimulus is located within a region of interest (RoI) that corresponds to the attended region and we compared results with a protocol where the region of interest is specifically trained. Results tends to highlight a prominent role of the modulation into

118 the shrinkage of the RFs even if only the joint interaction of training and attention lead to maximal effects.

119 Material & Methods

120 Model

121 Finger pad

We modeled a skin patch of the index distal finger pad where Merkel’s ending complex (MEC) density is known to be the highest and to convey information about touch and pressure, [Pare et al. \(2002\)](#). These receptors have been shown to have a sustained response to any mechanical deflection of the skin tissue. We thus considered a set of 256 receptors uniformly spread over the skin patch. When a stimulus is applied at a given position \mathbf{z} of the skin patch, its mechanic property extends the pressure level to nearby locations ([Goodwin et al., 1995](#)). More formally, the response s_i of any receptor i located at \mathbf{r}_i is given by the following equation:

$$s_i(\mathbf{z}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{r}_i\|\right) \quad (1)$$

122 It is apparent that when a stimulus is present and its distance from the corresponding receptor tends to
123 zero, the activity is the highest possible. On the contrary, when there is no stimulus present, the activity
124 is zero. This model assumes a very simple correlation between the distance of the receptor to the stimulus
125 center and its level of activity. We chose such a simple model because it eases the mathematical analysis of
126 the model and we are not interested in the full modeling of the finger pad. More accurate models can be
127 found in [Srinivasan \(1989\)](#) (waterbed model), [Dandekar et al. \(2003\)](#) (finite elements) and in [Sripati
128 et al. \(2006b\)](#) (continuum mechanics) but we do not think using these models would fundamentally change
129 the properties of our model (see figure 1 for a comparison of the waterbed and Gaussian surface deflection
130 models) since the set of 256 receptors encode a two-dimensional quantity that corresponds to the position
131 of the stimulus.

132 Dorsal pathway

The dorsal column-medial lemniscus (DCML) pathway is the major afferent pathway for mechanosensory information and mediate tactile discrimination as well as proprioception ([Purves et al., 2001](#)). There exist several relays along this path (dorsal root ganglion, gracile and cuneate nuclei of caudal medulla and ventral posterior lateral nucleus of the thalamus) that convey information from first order neurons up to the somatosensory cortex. We modeled this complex pathway as a direct transformation of the MEC activity corresponding to the mean distance between receptors activity and the corresponding feed-forward weights. Consequently, and considering a stimulus at position \mathbf{z} on the skin patch, the input $I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t)$ received by a neuron \mathbf{x} of SI is given by equation:

$$I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t) = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^n |s_i(\mathbf{z}) - w_f^i(\mathbf{x}, t)| \quad (2)$$

133 where i designates a specific skin receptor and $w_f^i(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the feed-forward weight at time t linking receptor
134 i to neuron \mathbf{x} . This equation implies that any SI neuron receives input from all the skin receptors. From
135 a neurophysiological point of view, such an assumption is valid to the extent that we considered only a
136 small skin patch on distal finger pad. The transformation itself can be considered as the complement of the
137 normalized distance between the set of receptors and the set of feed-forward weights. Such transformation is
138 maximal ($I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = 1$) for a given stimulus \mathbf{z} if $\forall i, s_i(\mathbf{z}) = w_f^i(\mathbf{x}, t)$. This is true because equation (1) implies
139 that the maximum amplitude of a stimulus is equal to one and we assumed that the feed-forward weights,
140 w_f , are bound between 0 and 1 and therefore the maximal value of $I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = 1$ and the minimum value can
141 be $I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = 0$.

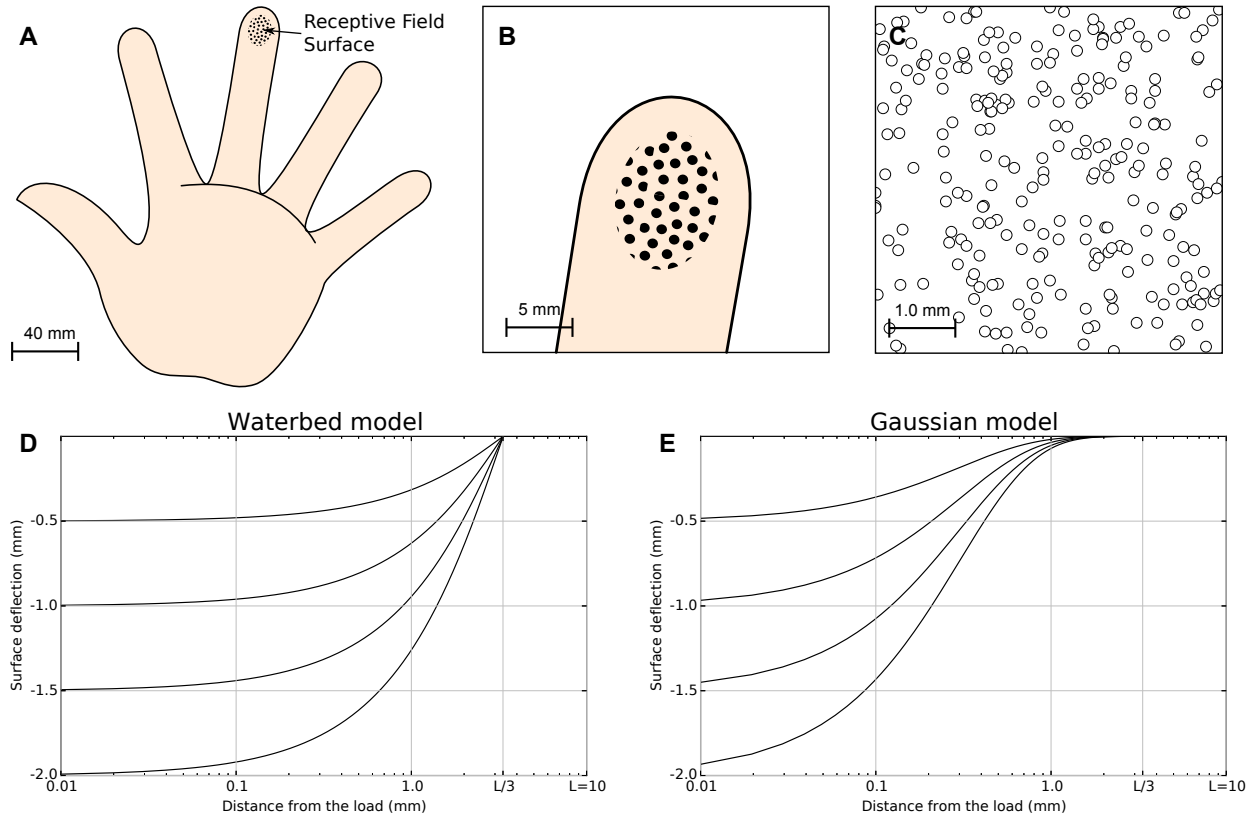


Figure 1: **Skin model.** The finger pad skin patch is approximately of size 25mm^2 , using a receptor density of $10/\text{mm}^2$. It has been modeled as a planar surface and we considered 256 MEC's that are arranged in a regular grid over the whole surface with a position jitter of 5%. This results in a quasi-uniform distribution consistent with actual distribution of MEC as reported in [Pare et al. \(2002\)](#). **A.** Schematic diagram of the hand. **B.** Position and relative size of the skin patch. **C.** Magnification of the skin patch showing MECs distribution. **D.** Waterbed surface deflection model from [Srinivasan \(1989\)](#). **E.** Gaussian surface deflection model from [Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#). Each model predicts smaller deflection as a function of the distance from the load.

142 **Area 3b**

Area 3b of the somatosensory cortex has been modeled using neural field theory (Amari, 1977; Taylor, 1999; Wilson and Cowan, 1973) which considers the cortex as a continuous surface Ω . Considering a stimulus \mathbf{z} , the dynamic of the field is given by equation:

$$\tau \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \underbrace{-u(\mathbf{x}, t)}_{\text{decay term}} + \underbrace{\int_{\Omega} w_l(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) f(u(\mathbf{y}, t)) d\mathbf{y}}_{\text{lateral interaction}} + \underbrace{I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t)}_{\text{feed-forward input}} \quad (3)$$

where $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the membrane potential at position \mathbf{x} , τ is the membrane time constant, f is the firing rate function, w_l is the lateral connections function and $I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t)$ is the output from the DCLM pathway as defined in previous section. The dynamic of the field is tightly linked to the lateral connections function w_l that defines the behavior of the field (traveling waves, spiral waves, bump solutions, see Bressloff (2011) for extensive review). In Detorakis and Rougier (2012), we defined w_l as a difference of Gaussian functions such as to obtain bump solutions. More precisely, we assume w_l is both isotropic and homogeneous (i.e. $w_l(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = w_l(|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|)$) and defined as

$$w_l(x) = w_e(x) - w_i(x) = \underbrace{K_e \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma_e^2}\right)}_{\text{excitatory part}} - \underbrace{K_i \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)}_{\text{inhibitory part}} \quad (4)$$

143 where (K_e, σ_e) and (K_i, σ_i) are constants that describe the extent and the strength of short-range excitation
 144 and long-range inhibition ($\sigma_i \gg \sigma_e$).
 145

Learning occurs at the thalamo-cortical level using an Oja-like learning rule (proportional to a pre-synaptic measure multiplied by a post-synaptic quantity) which solves stability problems that is known to exist in the standard Hebbian learning rule (see Oja (1982)). It reads:

$$\frac{\partial w_f(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \gamma \underbrace{(s(\mathbf{z}) - w_f(\mathbf{x}, t))}_{\text{pre-synaptic term}} \underbrace{\int_{\Omega} w_e(|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|) f(u(\mathbf{y}, t)) d\mathbf{y}}_{\text{post-synaptic term}} \quad (5)$$

146 where γ is a constant learning rate. We showed in Detorakis and Rougier (2012) how this learning rule,
 147 coupled with the neural field, allow the model to self-organize and develop topological representations of the
 148 skin patch. All the details are given in Detorakis and Rougier (2012) but briefly, equation (3) allows
 149 the model to exhibit a single bump of activity (for any input) and the learning rule (5) exploits this bump
 150 solution to promote learning at position where the excitatory part of the lateral connections function is
 151 maximal. It is to be noted that because of the pre-synaptic term and the boundedness of receptors values
 152 (i.e. are bounded between 0 and 1), feed-forward weights are also bounded between 0 and 1.

153 **Gain modulation**

154 As explained earlier, the shape of the bump solution of the neural field can be controlled via lateral con-
 155 nnections function w_l . We have been using until now a stereotyped profile defined by the extent and the
 156 strength of short-range excitation (K_e, σ_e) and long-range inhibition (K_i, σ_i) . This profile is used for the
 157 whole duration of the initial training protocol and has a direct influence on the self-organization process. We
 158 could have used instead a wider/weaker or thinner/stronger profile as shown in figure 3 but more importantly,
 159 we can also modify it *online*, provided a signal is sent to indicate which profile is to be used for processing the
 160 next stimulus. This is what we refer as the attentional signal, originating from higher cortical areas. More
 161 precisely, we can use two parameters sets, (K'_e, K'_i) and (K''_e, K''_i) , and use the first set when no attentional
 162 signal is present and the second one, when an attentional signal is present.

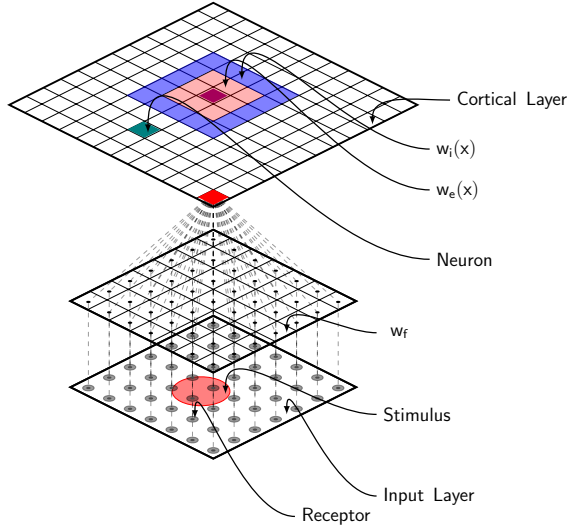


Figure 2: **Schematic of the full model.** Area 3b has been modeled using a neural field with lateral short-range excitation (w_e) and long-range inhibition (w_i). Each unit is fed with the information from all the 256 MEC receptors via feed-forward connections (w_f).

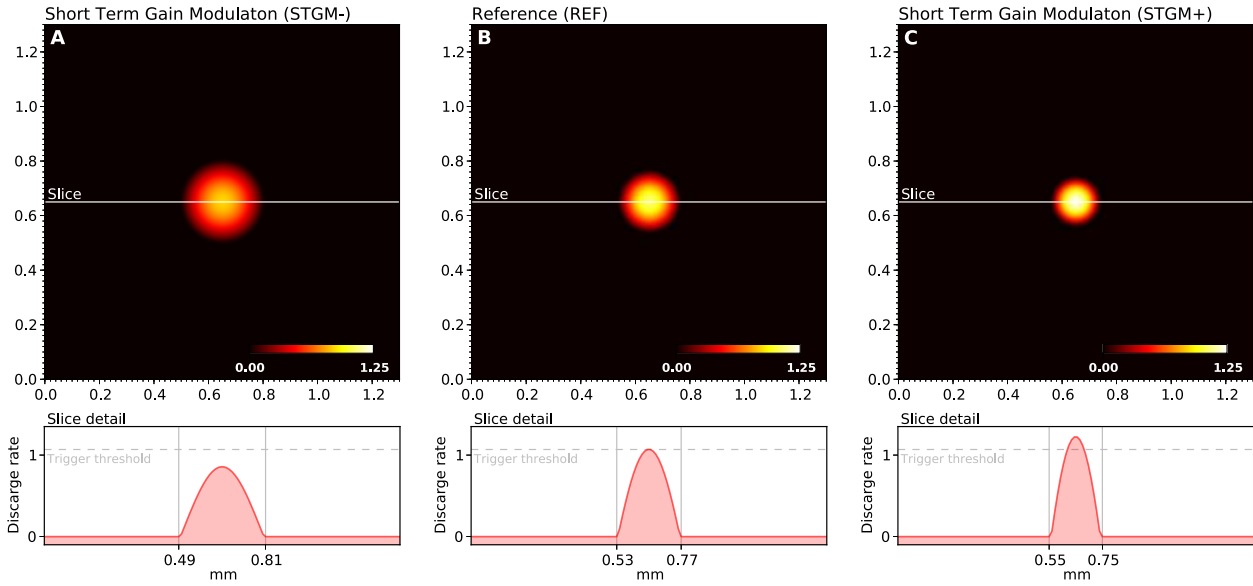


Figure 3: **Gain modulation.** The response of the model depends functionally on the balance between lateral excitation (gain K_e) and inhibition (gain K_i), allowing to widen (panel **A**) or sharpen (panel **C**) the peak of activity when a stimulus is presented. If we consider the trigger threshold to be the peak of nominal response (panel **B**), the same stimulus can either trigger a sharp response or not trigger any response at all, depending on the modulation. This modulation is considered in this work as a form of somatosensory attention.

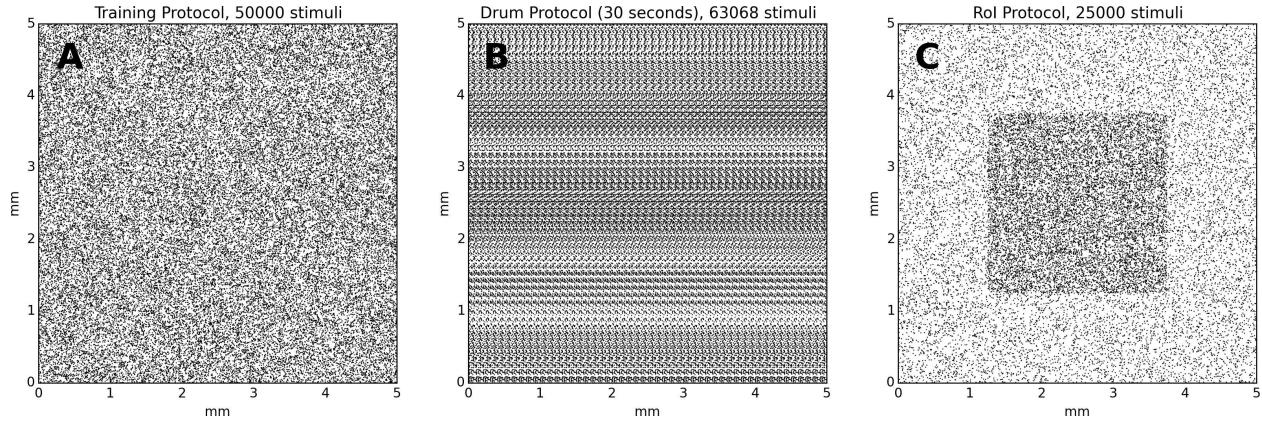


Figure 4: **Protocol stimuli sets.** **A** The training protocol set is made of 50000 stimuli distributed uniformly over the whole skin patch. At any moment, only one stimulus is presented to the model. **B** The drum protocol is based on a rotating drum made of 750 dots spread over the surface of the drum. The rotation of the drum makes stimuli to enter on the left side and exit on the right side of the skin patch, leading to temporal correlation between the different trials. At any moment, one to several stimuli can simultaneously stimulate the skin patch. **C** The RoI protocol, in the case of intensive training, is made of two sets of equal size (12500) for a total of 25000 stimuli. One set is made of stimuli exclusively located in the center of the skin patch and the other set is made of stimuli located outside this central region. This results in a higher (twofold) stimulus density in the central region. At any moment, only one stimulus is presented to the model.

163 Protocols

164 Initial training

165 Since the model initially possesses random weights, it is firstly necessary to train it in order to develop
 166 topological representations of the skin patch. We thus re-implemented the training protocol that has been
 167 used in [Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#) and the training set is made of 50000 stimuli with random positions
 168 uniformly distributed over the whole skin patch. Each stimulus is presented once to the model and equations
 169 (3) and (5) are evaluated simultaneously until stability is achieved, i.e. there is no noticeable difference
 170 between $u(t)$ and $u(t + \delta t)$. The model is reset and another stimulus is picked up until there is no more
 171 available stimuli. A significant difference with the original model is the toric implementation of skin patch
 172 and cortical model as well. This means that any part of a stimulus that lay outside the skin patch reappears
 173 at the opposite side of the skin patch. The same holds true for the cortical sheet. This has been done to
 174 avoid any boundary effects that are known to exist in self-organization models. Once the training ends, the
 175 model has developed a topological representation of the skin patch such that two neighbor neurons on area
 176 3b represent two neighbor location on the skin patch.

177 Drum Protocol

178 The drum protocol is a direct adaptation of the protocol that has been used in [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#).
 179 Authors used a cylindrical drum covered with a plastic sheet (28 mm \times 250 mm) that possesses raised dots
 180 pattern (with a density of 10 dots per square centimeter for a total of 750 dots). The drum was mounted
 181 on a rotating drum stimulator and the orientation and the angular velocity of the drum were adjusted to
 182 produce proximal-to-distal stimulus movement at 40mm/sec across the skin surface. The drum completed
 183 100 revolutions and the total time of simulation was 14 minutes and stepped a total distance of 20mm. We
 184 adapted the drum protocol as a planar surface of size 250mm \times 30mm and moved the skin patch over the full
 185 length (40mm/second) before jumping back to the start and shifting up the patch by 200 μ m. The drum

186 surface is made of 750 uniformly distributed dots, achieving a mean density of 10 dots/cm². Using a sample
187 time step of 5ms, the model has been fed with 120000 samples for a complete sweep of the drum surface.
188 Activity of all neurons are recorded at once without centering the drum onto each individual receptive field.

189 RoI Protocol

190 We first defined an arbitrary region of interest (RoI) on the surface of skin patch whose size is one quarter of
191 the total skin patch surface (see figure 4 panel C, the shaded squared area in the middle of the skin patch).
192 For the intensive training session, we used a set of 25000 stimuli such that one out of two stimuli landed into
193 the RoI (1 in / 1 out ratio, (see figure 4)). This means that the RoI, was twice more stimulated compared
194 to the rest part of the skin patch. We presented each stimuli once to the model until no more stimuli were
195 available. Learning occurs for the whole duration of the protocol. For the attentional experiment, we used
196 25000 uniformly spread stimuli over the whole skin patch. We presented each stimulus once to the model
197 until no more stimuli were available. If a stimulus position was within the RoI, (i.e. the center of the stimulus,
198 which is the most active zone of a stimulus) we explicitly instructed the model to attend to this stimulus
199 by modifying the gain of the lateral connections (K_e and K_i) as explained in the gain modulation section.
200 Learning occurs for the whole duration of the protocol.

201 Results

202 Characterization of the RFs

203 We first report results concerning the characterization of RF structures observed in area 3b following the
204 exact protocol of [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#), that was used to investigate the two-dimensional structure of area
205 3b neuronal non-classical receptive fields (ncRFs) in three alert monkeys (non-classical receptive fields are
206 defined in Appendix B). As explained earlier, this protocol has been slightly adapted to meet the constraints
207 of the proposed computational model architecture. Following the initial training protocol were cortical
208 representations have been shaped (see [Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#)), we applied the drum protocol
209 for a total of 120000 samples (that can have multiple sites of skin patch stimulation because of the raised
210 dot patterns). From these data, we applied the exact same linear regression algorithm proposed and used
211 by [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#) for the characterization of the excitatory and inhibitory components of each
212 ncRF. More precisely, for each matrix representing an non-classical receptive field, we first convolved it with
213 a Gaussian filter ($\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1.7$) and applied a thresholding (10% of the absolute peak value) on
214 every value. If a value was below the threshold, it was set to zero. We let each pixel of the non-classical
215 receptive field to have at least two of the four neighbors non-zero and of the same sign such that isolated
216 islands of positive or negative values were not allowed if they had a total area less than $0.7mm^2$. Each
217 time we computed a ncRF, we also computed the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) as well as the noise index,
218 in order to constraint them to low values (see appendix B). After this preprocessing stage, we measured
219 the respective size of excitatory (positive) and inhibitory (negative) areas. The minimum and maximum
220 values of excitatory ncRFs were $9.12mm^2$, $25.92mm^2$, respectively for a mean size of 14.14^2 . The minimum
221 and maximum values of inhibitory ncRFs were $5.92mm^2$, $26.56mm^2$, respectively for a mean size of 14.4^2 .
222 Figure 5 shows the bivariate plot of excitatory versus inhibitory area (similar results have been found by
223 [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#)). Furthermore, a k-means classification of the ncRFs was performed on the ncRFs in
224 order to compare the number of ncRFs classes from the model with the number of classes in [DiCarlo et al.](#)
225 [\(1998\)](#). The k-means classification separated 16 different classes according to the topology of the excitatory
226 and inhibitory areas (homogeneity = 0.39, completeness = 1.0, V-measure = 0.56). We found non-classical
227 receptive fields whose excitatory area was surrounded by the inhibitory one as well as non-classical receptive
228 fields whose excitatory area was facing the inhibitory area (see figure 5). It is to be noted that figure 5 shows
229 a remarkable similarity with physiological results of [DiCarlo et al.](#), where most of the ncRFs are centered
230 around a central point of $15mm^2$ (excitatory) / $15mm^2$ (inhibitory). The spread is larger in the case of
231 [DiCarlo](#) but this was expected since we used a toric stimulation.

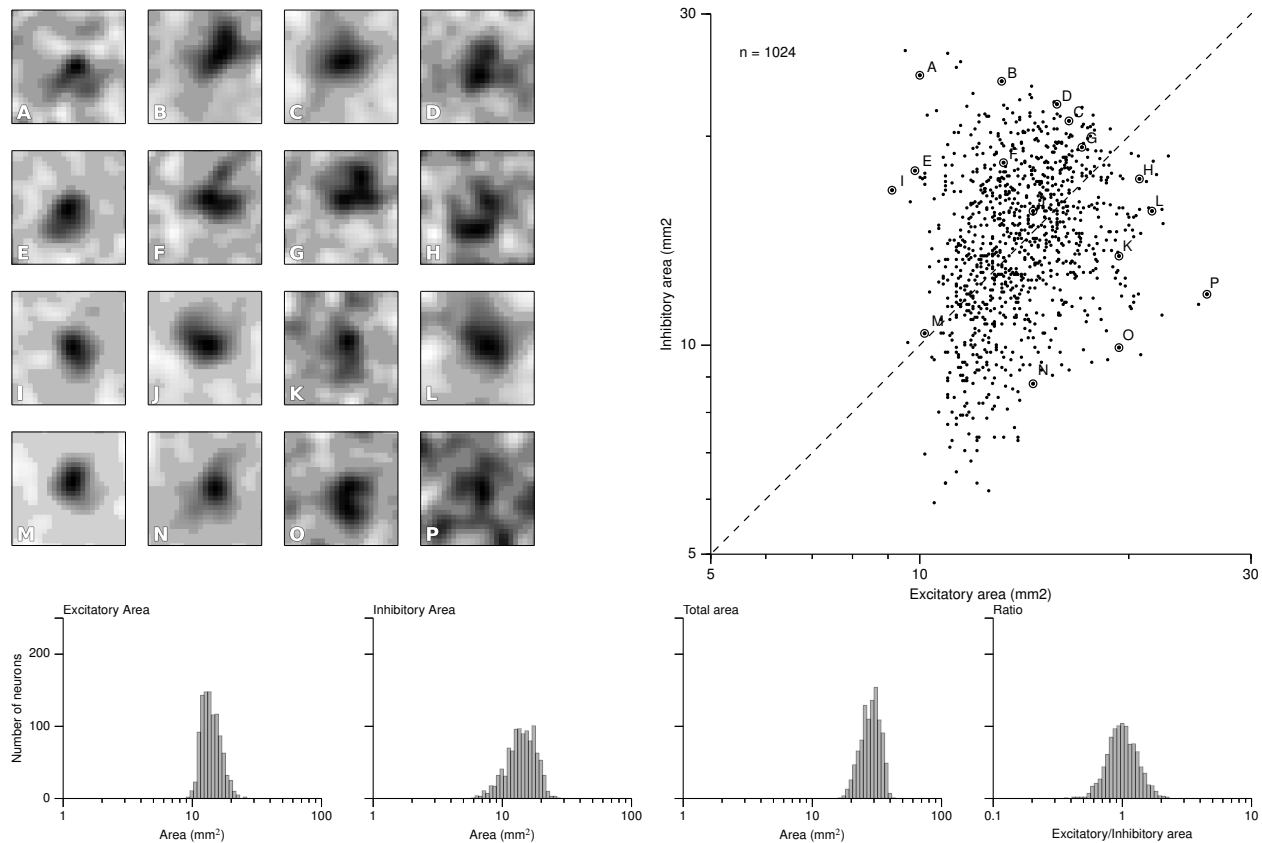


Figure 5: **Characterization of the ncRFs.** From the experimental drum protocol of [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#), we recorded 120000 responses for each of the 1024 neurons of the model and we subsequently applied the same analysis with [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#) to obtain the respective ncRF. The scatter plot on the *right* displays the balance between excitatory and inhibitory components of each ncRF. Excitatory area was measured as the total positive area in the thresholded ncRF (positive ncRF regions with values $\geq 10\%$ of the peak absolute ncRF value, see Materials and Methods and Appendix B). Inhibitory area was measured as the total negative-thresholded ncRF area (negative ncRF regions with absolute values $\leq 10\%$ of the peak absolute ncRF value). The left part of the figure illustrates the diversity of ncRFs and the letter corresponds to a point in the scatter plot. The bottom row shows the distributions of the sizes of ncRFs. The y-axis indicate the number of neurons ($n=1024$) and the x-axis, from left to right displays the excitatory area of ncRFs, the inhibitory area, the total area (is the sum of the excitatory and inhibitory areas) and the ratio of excitatory area to inhibitory one in logarithmic scale.

232 Training the RoI

233 During the specific training of the RoI, we considered a set of 25000 stimuli, half of them being located in
234 the RoI. We will later refer to this as the intensive protocol. At the end of the protocol, we measured the
235 location and the size of the classical receptive fields (cRF) or simply receptive fields (RF) (see appendix B
236 for details) and compared them to the control setup, that corresponds to the end of the nominal training
237 period (or the start of this protocol). Figure 6 (panel B) reveals a strong migration of most RF towards
238 the RoI with an overall final density being higher in the center of the RoI. We also measured RFs size at
239 the end of the protocol and compared them with control. The control setup shows a normal distribution
240 of sizes around a central value (2.1mm^2 , $\text{SD}=0.42$) while the intensive training setup leads to a significant
241 reduction of the RFs (1.6mm^2 , $\text{SD}=0.48$). Overall, there has been a significant decrease in the mean size of
242 RFs (see figure 7, panel B'). Such results are consistent with [Xerri et al. \(1994\)](#) that shows that intensive
243 training over a skin area can cause the corresponding cortical territory expansion with a simultaneous shrink
244 of receptive fields of neurons of the somatosensory cortex.

245 Modulating the RoI

246 In order to make the model to attend to the RoI, we considered a set of 25000 stimuli, uniformly spread
247 over the whole skin patch and we instructed the model to attend to a stimulus if this was within the RoI,
248 i.e. using different gains for the lateral connections. The major difference compared to the intensive training
249 experiment is the non-migration of the RFs towards the center of the RoI as shown in figure 6, panel C. The
250 distribution remains actually quasi-uniform and the RoI does not benefit from significant higher density.
251 However, the sizes of the RFs have shrunk by 33%, leading to a mean size of 1.4mm^2 ($\text{SD}=0.37$). This
252 demonstrates that migration and shrinkage of RFs are actually two distinct processes that can be (partly)
253 separated.

254 Joint effect of training and modulation

255 For studying the joint effect of training and modulation, we mixed the two RoI protocols and considered
256 both a non-uniform set of 25000 stimuli, half of them being located in the RoI and we instructed the model
257 to attend to a stimulus if it was located in the RoI. The final density of RFs shown in figure 6D reveals
258 a massive migration of the RFs towards the RoI with a simultaneous shrinkage in their sizes compared to
259 the control conditions (0.71mm^2 , $\text{SD}=0.04$). These results point out that the combined effects of intensive
260 training and modulation actually sum up, leading to both a massive migration and a dramatic shrinkage of
261 RFs, down to half the nominal size.

262 Discussion

263 Using the model presented in [Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#), we first validated it using the protocol
264 and neurophysiological data from [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#). We adapted the protocol to meet computational
265 constraints and relevant recorded data. Results clearly indicate that the model is able to capture the main
266 aspects of the original data recorded on three alert monkeys with most of ncRFs to contain a single region of
267 excitation and one or more regions of inhibition located on one, two, three, or all four sides of the excitatory
268 center. This is the first, to the best of our knowledge, computational model of area 3b that is able to replicate
269 real neurophysiological data with such accuracy even though we used a very simple model for the distal finger
270 pad and the dorsal column-medial lemniscus, as well. This tends to confirm that the thalamo-cortical feed-
271 forward connections are an adequate site of plasticity while cortico-cortical connections drive the competition
272 mechanism. Furthermore, even if the present study has been circumscribed to the spatial characteristics of
273 the receptive fields, ([Sripati et al., 2006a](#)) have shown spatio-temporal receptive fields (STRF) in area 3b
274 tend to have early excitatory region followed by in-field (replacing) greater inhibition. Authors conclude
275 that such *greater inhibition observed in cortical STRFs points to the existence of underlying intracortical*
276 *mechanisms* that is very consistent with our own hypothesis. To go further in this direction, we would need

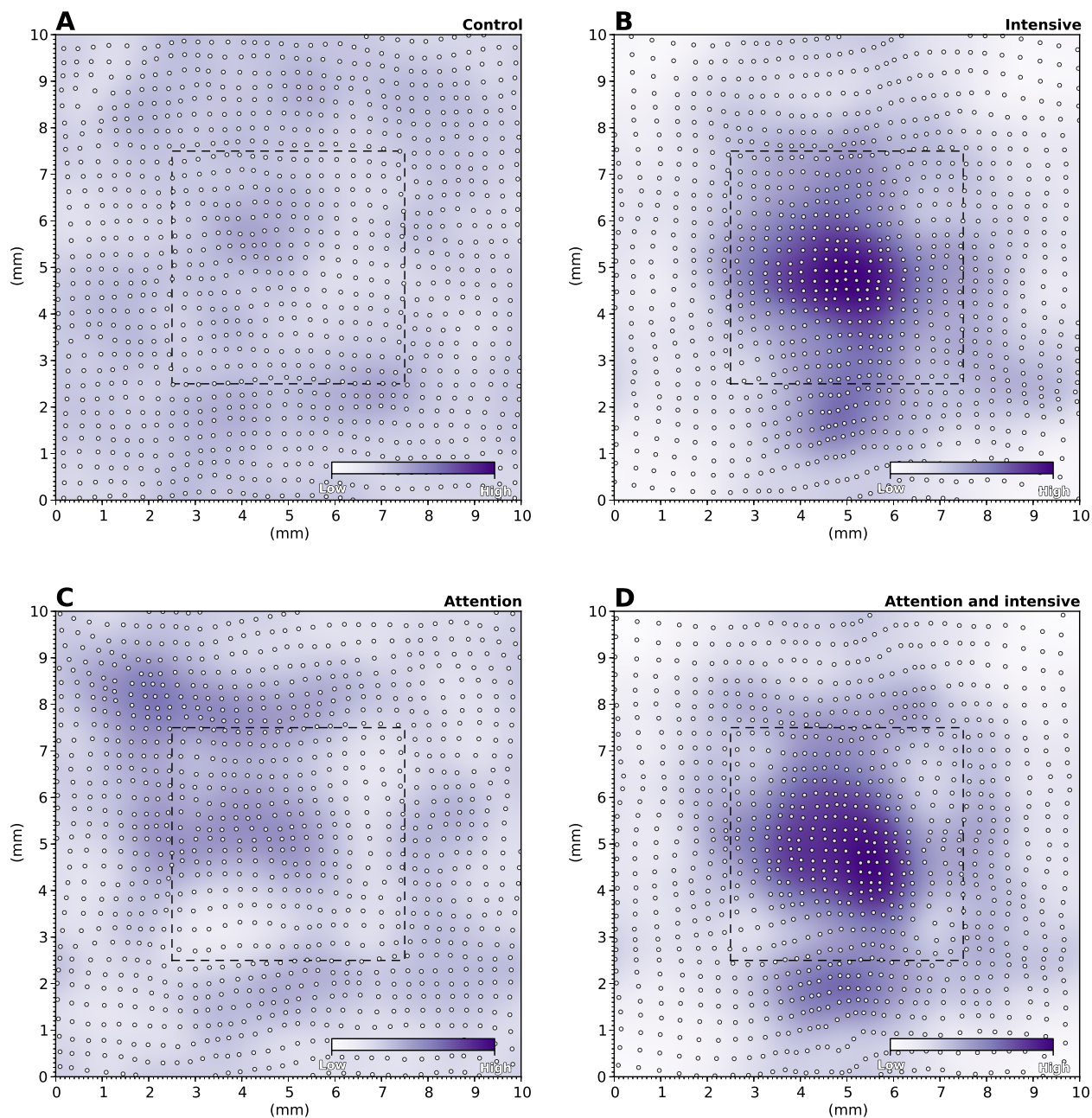


Figure 6: **RF Migrations.** **A.** The distribution of RFs over the skin patch is quasi-uniformly distributed for the control. **B.** Intensive training onto the RoI makes RFs to migrate towards the RoI leading to a higher density of RFs within the RoI. **C.** Explicitly attending the RoI modifies only marginally the distribution of RFs that tend to remain quasi-uniformly distributed over the whole skin patch. **D.** The joint effect of intensive training and attention leads to an even greater migration of RFs towards the RoI (compared to intensive training only).

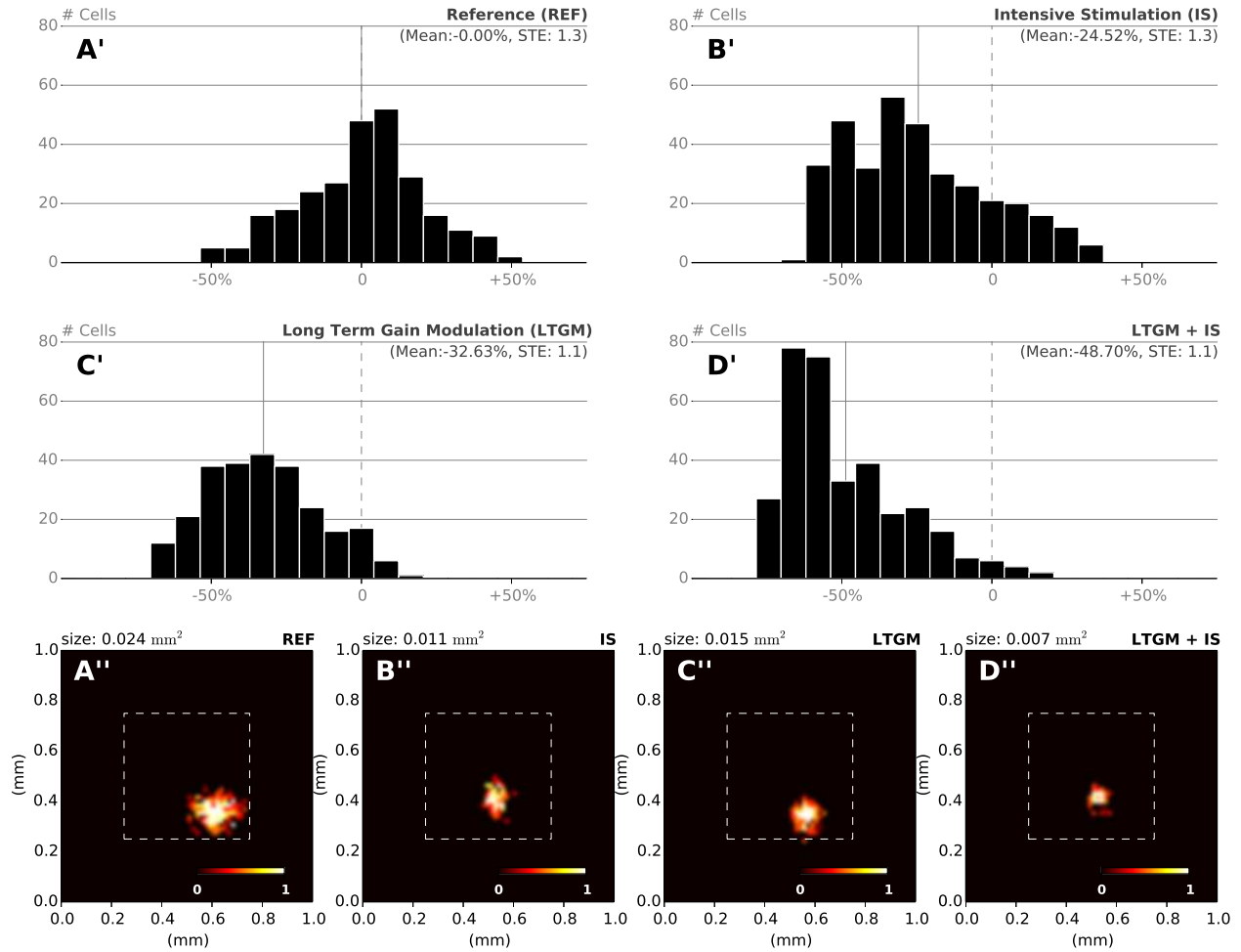


Figure 7: **RF Shrinkage**. **A'**. The relative histograms of RFs sizes after initial training (50000 samples) follows a normal distribution. **B'**. After model training, specifically in the RoI (with a 1/1 ratio) using 25000 extra samples, the mean RF size has been reduced by 25% compared to the nominal mean size. **C'**. By sharpening the model response when a stimulus is presented within the RoI (25000 samples), the mean RF size has been reduced by 33% compared to the nominal mean size. **D'**. The joint effect of training and modulation (25000 samples) leads to a dramatic shift in relative size of RF, with a mean size being half of the nominal mean size. **A'' D''**. Receptive field of a single cell recorded at the end of each of the aforementioned experiments. The receptive field size in the attentional/intensive condition (0.007 mm²) has shrunk to one third of the control size (0.024 mm²).

277 to consider finite transmission speed in cortico-cortical connections instead of instantenous connection **Hutt**
278 **and Rougier (2010)**.

279 We have also shown how this competition mechanism can be explicitly modulated by the modification of
280 the gain at both the excitatory and inhibitory lateral connection levels. Such instructed modulation leads
281 to receptive fields shrinkage in the region of interest while keeping intact the overall organization, with no
282 noticeable migration of RFs. We identified such modulation as a form of spatial attention that is believed
283 to be deployed selectively on this or that part of the body. Interestingly enough, these effects are known to
284 occur in the visual system and a number of recent studies have identified such effects in area MT (**Anton-**
285 **Erxleben et al., 2009; Womelsdorf et al., 2008**). More precisely, authors have shown how attention inside
286 the cRF shrinks it, whereas directing attention next to the cRF expands it. Authors uses in their modeling
287 work a bell shaped attentional signal while we have been using a constant attentional signal, modifying the
288 gain for the whole population at once.

289
290 However, in the literature, the evidence for the effects of such spatial attention on SI are still contra-
291 dictory. **Hsiao and Vega-Bermudez (2001)** has shown that attention is engaged in the modification of
292 RFs in both primary and secondary somatosensory cortices and **Braun et al. (2002)** have confirmed such
293 engagement of attention in the primary somatosensory cortex using neuroimaging techniques. However,
294 **Godde et al. (2000)** claimed that attention is not critical in enhancing performance during a discrimination
295 task even though, consecutive training or pairing stimulation (leading to co-activation) can affect the RFs.
296 In the case of intensive training of the RoI, our model tends to suggest a large expansion of the cortical
297 territory with a simultaneous shrinkage of the receptive fields as well as strong migration of their centers
298 towards the RoI. These findings are still contradictory with psychophysical and neurophysiological studies
299 such as **Godde et al. (2000); Pilz et al. (2004); Recanzone et al. (1992)**, where authors noticed that
300 the cortical representations undergo an expansion but at the same time RFs undergo a similar expansion.
301 However, other neurophysiological and neuroimaging studies have shown that when cortical representations
302 expand, RFs sizes seem to decrease **Elbert et al. (1995); Xerri et al. (1994)**. These latter results are
303 also consistent with early findings of **Sur et al. (1980)**. They found, from neurophysiological recordings
304 and mappings that the magnification factor of cortical representations is related to the size of RFs. More
305 precisely, the magnification factor is proportional to the size of RFs (the smaller the RFs the larger the
306 cortical representation). Our findings tend to confirm that cortical representations in the case of intensive
307 stimulation increase their relative size with a simultaneous RFs shrinkage. These findings indicate that
308 there are two distinct processes at work, namely modulation and training, that are believed to be present
309 simultaneously in most cases, while there may exist a few cases where only one process is active. This may
310 reconcile the aforementioned contradictory results. To confirm these findings, it would thus be necessary to
311 setup new experiments where modulation and training needs to be carefully dissociated. This can be done,
312 for example, by precisely controlling the amount of training received by a subject and by distracting the
313 subject such as drifting attentional process away from the primary task.

314
315 Even if our model suggests a hypothesis on how somatosensory spatial attention may modify the pro-
316 cessing of stimulus and promote reshaping of RFs, nothing has been said so far about the exact nature,
317 the origin and the selectivity of such attentional signal. **Sarter et al. (2005)** have proposed a possible
318 circuitry involving the basal forebrain corticopetal cholinergic system since it has been observed in several
319 studies **Donoghue and Carroll (1987); Jimenez-Capdeville et al. (1997)** that the loss of cortical cholin-
320 ergic system directly impacts attentional functions. Furthermore, **Juliano et al. (1991)** have shown that
321 the cholinergic depletion prevents expansion of somatosensory topographic maps, suggesting that cholin-
322 ergic neurotransmitters are critical in the structure of cortical representations. Similarly, **Rasmusson and**
323 **Dykes (1988); Tremblay et al. (1990a,b)** proposed that a cholinergic signal is responsible for the gain
324 modulation of neuronal populations and that the co-activation of basal forebrain and the somatosensory
325 cortex by cutaneous stimulation lead to enhanced cortical activity. Overall, such a signal may originate from
326 a complex network involving the insular cortex, the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, the posterior parietal
327 cortex, the ventromedial prefrontal cortex, the posterior cingulate cortex and the anterior cingulate cortex

328 as proposed by **Menon and Uddin (2010)**. The main point is that the insular cortex acts as a switch
329 between two different prefrontal networks leading to an attentional effect through saliency occurring in the
330 anterior insular cortex. We can thus speculate that such a cholinergic signal may affect the gain of intra-
331 cortical lateral connections and the explicit signal that has been used during the attended RoI protocol may
332 originate from a frontal decision.

333
334 Finally, even though we hardly notice it in our everyday life, somatosensory attention plays a critical
335 role in our perception of the outer world. For example, the contact of clothes on the skin can be largely
336 unattended even though all body receptors are activated at once. This results from habituation and yet, it
337 is still possible to concentrate on a specific part of the body to actually experience the contact. Such spatial
338 selectivity is very similar to the concept of the spotlight of attention proposed by **Posner (1980)** in the
339 eighties for the visual perception. At that time, authors were hypothesizing for the existence of a dedicated
340 control mechanism even though this view was later challenged by the premotor theory of attention proposed
341 by **Rizzolatti and Craighero (1988)**. This later theory postulates instead that there is no need for two
342 different mechanisms (attention and action) and has received support from several electrophysiological and
343 brain imaging studies. However, how this theory can be adapted to somatosensory attention remains unclear.
344 Our model cannot answer the question on the selectivity since we only used a broad and constant modulation
345 of the model. This choice has been made because we consider a small part of SI cortex where exactly one
346 bump of activity can exist anytime. If we were to consider a larger part of SI, where for example several
347 digit representations would co-exist, we would need a selective attentional signal to be able to direct gain
348 modulations to the relevant population involved in the representation of the RoI. This is quite a complex
349 problem, since this would involve not only a sensory representation of several digits (sensory homunculus),
350 but also a motor representation (motor homunculus) and visual information as well. This is far beyond
351 the scope of the present work but we think this might allow for a better understanding of somatosensory
352 attention.

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462 **Appendix A - Detailed description of the model**

463 **Tabular description**

A Model Summary

Populations	Three: receptors, thalamus and cortex
Topology	Two-dimensional, toric
Connectivity	Feed forward: one-to-all, lateral: all-to-all (including self-connections)
Neuron model	Dynamic rate model
Channel model	–
Synapse model	–
Plasticity	Oja-like learning rule
Input	Touch pressure from skin receptors
Measurements	Classical and non-classical receptive fields, topographic maps

B Topology

<i>Name</i>	<i>Type</i>
Receptors	Two-dimensional toric regular grid with jitter (5%)
Thalamus	None
Cortex	Two-dimensional toric regular grid

C Populations

<i>Name</i>	<i>Elements</i>	<i>Size</i>
Receptors	Mechanic input	256
Thalamus	Thalamic neuron	256
Cortex	Cortical neuron	32×32

D Connectivity

<i>Name</i>	<i>Source</i>	<i>Target</i>	<i>Pattern</i>
–	Receptors	Thalamus	Excitatory, fixed, one to one, non-plastic
W_f	Thalamus	Cortex	Excitatory, random uniform, one to all, plastic $W_f(\mathbf{x}, t) = U(0, 1)$
W_e	Cortex	Cortex	Excitatory, Gaussian, toric, all to all, non-plastic $W_e(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = K_e \exp\left(\frac{-\ \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\ ^2}{2\sigma_e^2}\right)$
W_i	Cortex	Cortex	Inhibitory, Gaussian, toric, all to all, non-plastic $W_i(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = K_i \exp\left(\frac{-\ \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\ ^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)$

E1 Neuron Model

<i>Name</i>	Thalamic
<i>Type</i>	Rate model
<i>Membrane potential</i>	$I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t) = 1 - \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=0}^k s_i(\mathbf{z}) - w_f^i(\mathbf{x}, t) $

E2 Neuron Model

<i>Name</i>	Cortical
<i>Type</i>	Dynamic rate model
<i>Membrane potential</i>	$\frac{1}{\tau} \frac{\partial U(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = -U(\mathbf{x}, t) + \alpha \int_{\Omega} W_i(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) f(U(\mathbf{y}, t)) d\mathbf{y} + \alpha I(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, t)$

F Plasticity

<i>Name</i>	<i>Description</i>
W_f	$\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial W_f(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \gamma (s(\mathbf{z}, t) - w_f(\mathbf{x}, t)) \int_{\Omega} W_e(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) f(u(\mathbf{y}, t)) d\mathbf{y}$

G Input

<i>Type</i>	<i>Description</i>
Mechanic	$s_i(\mathbf{z}) = \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \ \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{r}_i\)$

H Measurements

Classical and extended receptive fields of all cortical neurons

Table 1: Tabular description of the model following the prescription of [Nordlie et al. \(2009\)](#)

Algorithms

Training protocol

The initial training protocol described by equations (1) to (5) can be described using the following algorithm.
The full description of the learning process is given in Materials and Methods section and in [Detorakis and Rougier \(2012\)](#) as well.

Algorithm 1 Learning protocol

Require: $K_e, K_i, \sigma_e, \sigma_i, \gamma, \alpha, \tau, dt, S, \varepsilon$

 Compute w_e, w_i and w_l according to equation (4)
 for each stimulus \mathbf{z} in S **do**
 Reset the activity $u(\mathbf{x}, 0)$
 Compute receptors activity $s(\mathbf{z})$ according to equation (1)
 Compute input activity $I(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (2)
 while $|u(t) - u(t + dt)| < \varepsilon$ **do**
 Update $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (3)
 Update $w_f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (5)
 end while
 end for

469 RoI/modulation protocol

470 The RoI protocol with modulation requires a slightly different algorithm since w_e, w_i and w_l depend on the
471 position of the stimulus.

Algorithm 2 RoI/modulation protocol

Require: $K'_e, K'_i, K''_e, K''_i, \sigma_e, \sigma_i, \gamma, \alpha, \tau, dt, S, \varepsilon$
Compute w'_e, w'_i and w'_l according to equation (4)
Compute w''_e, w''_i and w''_l according to equation (4)
for each stimulus \mathbf{z} in S **do**
 Reset the activity $u(\mathbf{x}, 0)$
 Compute receptors activity $s(\mathbf{z})$ according to equation (1)
 Compute input activity $I(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (2)
 if stimulus is inside the RoI **then**
 $w_e, w_i, w_l \leftarrow w'_e, w'_i, w'_l$
 else
 $w_e, w_i, w_l \leftarrow w''_e, w''_i, w''_l$
 end if
 while $|u(t) - u(t + dt)| < \varepsilon$ **do**
 Update $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (3)
 Update $w_f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ according to equation (5)
 end while
end for

472 Convergence

473 In order to measure the convergence of the learning process, we measured:

- 474 1. the evolution over time of the root mean square error (RMSE) of the feed-forward weights
- 475 2. the evolution over time of the receptive fields during the development of the topographic map and
476 during the RoI protocol

RMSE has been measured using the following equation:

$$\text{RMSE}[w_f] = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=0}^M (\hat{\mathbf{w}}_f^i - \mathbf{w}_f^i)^2, \quad (6)$$

477 where $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_f^i$ dsignate the final feed-forward weights and \mathbf{w}_f^i the feed-forward weight at epoch i . Data is
478 recorded every 50 epochs and RMSE is computed at the end of the simulation since it requires the final
479 weights. Figure 8 displays RMSE for initial training and clearly shows the rapid convergence of the model
480 on the final set of weights.

481 Parameters

482 All the parameters of the model are given in table 2 below, where n is the number of neurons of the cortex
483 model, K_e is the excitatory gain, σ_e is the variance of the excitatory lateral connections, K_i is the inhibitory
484 gain, σ_i is the variance of inhibitory lateral connections, α is a free scaling parameter, τ is the synapses
485 temporal decay constant, and γ is the learning rate. For the RoI protocol, we use two sets of parameter, the
486 first set (RoI out) is used whenever the center of a stimulus is not within the RoI while the second set (RoI
487 in) is used each time a the center of a stimulus is within the RoI. The parameters of the model have been
488 tuned manually and a more detailed description of the role of each parameter can be found in [Detorakis
489 and Rougier \(2012\)](#).

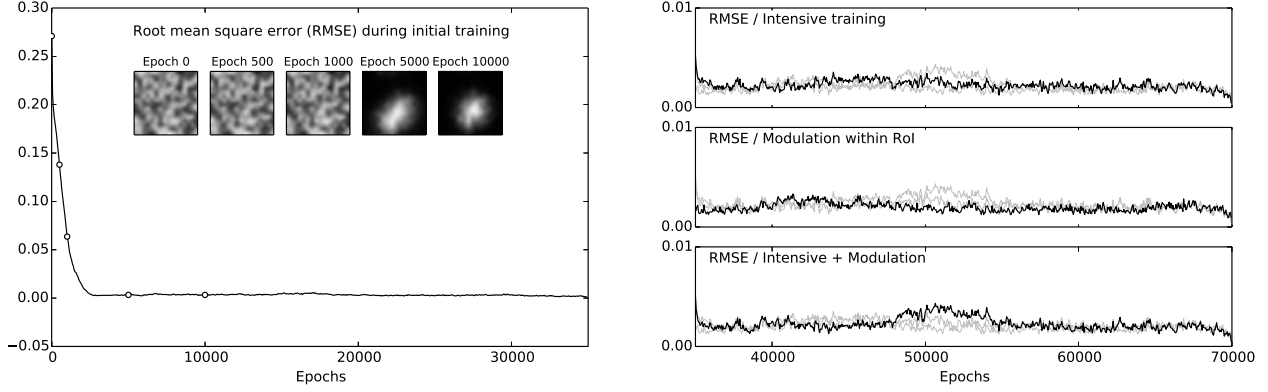


Figure 8: **Root-mean-square-error over thalamo-cortical weights.** Left. RMSE has been computed every 50 epochs during the initial training protocol and show a rapid convergence after 5000 epochs Right. RMSE has been computed for all RoI protocols to ensure no divergence occurs during training.

<i>Protocol</i>	n	K_e	σ_e	K_i	σ_i	α	τ	γ
Training	32×32	3.72	0.1	2.40	1.0	0.1	1.0	0.03
Drum	32×32	3.72	0.1	2.40	1.0	0.1	1.0	–
RoI out	32×32	8.02	0.1	6.10	1.0	0.1	1.0	0.03
RoI in	32×32	3.72	0.1	2.40	1.0	0.1	1.0	0.03

Table 2: Model parameters

490 **Simulation details**

491 Simulations were performed on a HP Z800 Workstation with 8Gb of memory. The source code of all
492 simulations is written in Python using Numpy and Scipy scientific libraries, and it can be found at [http://](http://webpages.lss.supelec.fr/perso/georgios.detorakis/software/index.html)
493 webpages.lss.supelec.fr/perso/georgios.detorakis/software/index.html. The training simulation
494 consumes ~ 45 MB of physical memory and requires ~ 30 minutes of real time (measured with *time* Unix
495 command). In all simulations, we used parameters given in table 2.

Appendix B - Data analysis

Classical receptive fields

A classical receptive field or a receptive field is defined as the locus of the skin on which a stimulus triggers a neural response, and describes as well the impact of the stimulus to the firing rate of a neuron. A cRF is a two-dimensional surface, which slope indicates the impact of the stimulus and its location points to the skin surface which is represented by the corresponding neuron. We computed the cRF of each neuron using a grid of $p \times p$ regularly spaced stimuli over the normalized skin patch. For each stimulus and after the model has converged, the activity of each neuron of the model has been recorded and aggregated into a $p \times p$ matrix that was identified as the cRF of the neuron. cRFs have been further characterized by determining their center of mass and size. The center of mass \mathcal{C} is computed according to the following equation:

$$\mathcal{C} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{p^2} \mathcal{V}_i \mathbf{s}_i}{\sum_{i=0}^{p^2} \mathcal{V}_i} \quad (7)$$

where \mathbf{s}_i is the position of a stimulus (i in $[1, p^2]$) and \mathcal{V}_i is the related activity of the neuron (activity of the neuron when stimulus \mathbf{s}_i is presented). The cRF area is computed using a normalized sum of the elements of the cRF that are greater than a threshold value (< 0.05). Using these two informations, we can build plots of cRFs lying at their respective position on the skin patch with high precision. We can therefore qualify the topographic organization of the cRF and, when relevant, we can define the migration as well as size modification. The density of cRF over the skin patch was evaluated using a Gaussian filter with standard deviation of 0.5 in each dimension.

Non-classical Receptive fields

We define non-classical receptive fields as the weights \mathbf{b} that minimize the error between the predicted firing rates of neurons and the observed ones. Such non-classical receptive fields reveal what is the optimal stimulus and how stimulus affect the firing rates of neurons. We computed non-classical receptive fields (ncRFs as opposed to cRFs) using the protocol and method (analogue to reverse correlation) defined in [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#). Therefore, the predicted impulse rate r_p of a neuron in response to the n th stimulus is defined to be the sum of the effects of each skin subregion to the neuron (see drum protocol for more details). Hence,

$$\mathbf{r}_p = b_0 + \sum_{i=1}^p b_i x_i(n) \quad (8)$$

where n is the number of the stimuli, p is the number of the different skin subregions, x_i is the stimulus relief, b_0 is the background firing rate and b_i is the strength of the effect of a dot (since the stimulus each time is a random dot pattern). Rewriting equation (8) in vector form we have,

$$\mathbf{r}_p = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$$

where \mathbf{r} is a $n \times 1$ vector of the firing rates, \mathbf{X} is a $n \times p$ matrix with values of ones in the first column and the stimuli in the remaining columns. Finally \mathbf{b} is a $p \times 1$ vector, which contains the weights of the effect of a stimulus to the neuron. This term is actually the non-classical receptive field of a neuron, since its values indicate the way that a stimulus affect the firing rate properties of a neuron. In addition, \mathbf{b} can be used in order to investigate further the optimality of each stimulus, in terms of neural responses. Besides the predicted firing rates, we had also a vector of observed discharge rates for every neuron, \mathbf{r}_o .

In order to compute the vector \mathbf{b} , which minimizes the mean-squared error between \mathbf{r}_p and \mathbf{r}_o , we solved the linear normal equations $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{r}_o$ by inverting the stimulus autocorrelation matrix,

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{r}_o \quad (9)$$

This method allows to compute the non-classical receptive fields, \mathbf{b} for all the neurons at one and indicates skin area that contribute positively to the firing rate (excitatory part) or negatively (inhibitory part). Throughout of this work anytime we refer to the non-classical receptive fields we mean the optimal vectors \mathbf{b} . For more details about this method refer to [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#).

Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and Noise Index (NI)

When we applied the threshold method described in the main text, we also measured the SNR and the Noise Index. From signal processing definition, noise is defined to be the residual of the subtraction between an original signal s and the filtered one \bar{s} (see main text for more details about filtering and thresholding method). In our case, the original signal is the receptive field and the filtered signal is the receptive field after the application of a Gaussian filter with zero mean and variance 1,7. SNR is given by $\text{SNR} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{S}{N} \right)$, where S is the power of the original signal s and N is the noise power. We measured the SNR for each RF and we found that the mean SNR was 8 (S.D.=1.5).

In addition, and in accordance with [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#), we computed the Noise Index (NI) according to equation $NI = 100 \frac{\text{Var}[\text{noise}]}{\max\{|s|\}}$. NI is given in terms of the absolute peak of the original signal s . We measured the Noise Index for each of the RF, finding a mean value of 1.5% (S.D.=0.01). Conclusively, both measures SNR and Noise Index pinpoint that the noise was eliminated.

Relative histogram of cRFS

Histograms of receptive field sizes have been made relatively to the control case in order to underline the various changes. Considering the mean size M (over the 32×32 RFs) of the control and a set $\{X_i\}_n$ of observations, histogram were built using a set $\{Y_i\}_n$ such that $Y_i = 100(X_i - m)/m$ with a fixed size bins of width 8%. Any bin with negative abscissa indicated a shrinking in RF size while positive abscissa indicated an expansion.

Cortical representation

Cortical representation is defined as the area of the cortical surface that respond when a stimulus is present within the RoI. Using the RoI protocol, we recorded the two-dimensional activation of the whole cortical model if, and only if, the stimulus center was located within the RoI (roughly half of the 25,000 stimuli). We summed these activations and normalized the result to get values in the $[0,1]$ interval.

Spatial event plot

During the execution of the drum protocol, the alignment of the stimulus and the responses of a specific neuron was done by applying the spatial event plot (SEP) method described in [Phillips et al. \(1988\)](#) and used by [DiCarlo et al. \(1998\)](#). The latter used a variation of SEP method in order to achieve better resolution. Since we deal with a computational model, the first version of the method was used because it is easier to achieve the alignment of the stimulus and the neural response. We isolated the receptive field of a specific neuron and applied the drum protocol (see main text for more details), recording all the responses of that neuron. The stimulus and the responses of the neuron were recorded for later processing. We processed the array of the responses by assigning a one to the element of array which contained an evoked response and a zero otherwise. Because the events array is a one-dimensional, we had to transform it into a two-dimensional one in order to fit the drum (input space). Therefore, we started from the lower right

550 corner (where the first stimulus was applied according to the drum protocol) and we continuously skimmed
551 the array. Every time the drum swept was completed, we moved the next line of the array above the current
552 one. At the end of this process, we obtained a spatial event plot, as it is depicted in figure 9B. In addition to
553 the SEP, we also convolved the stimuli (dot patterns) with the non-classical receptive field of a neuron such
554 as to obtain a prediction of the responses of the neuron to each stimulus. This method leads to the results
555 shown in figure 9A for a specific neuron.

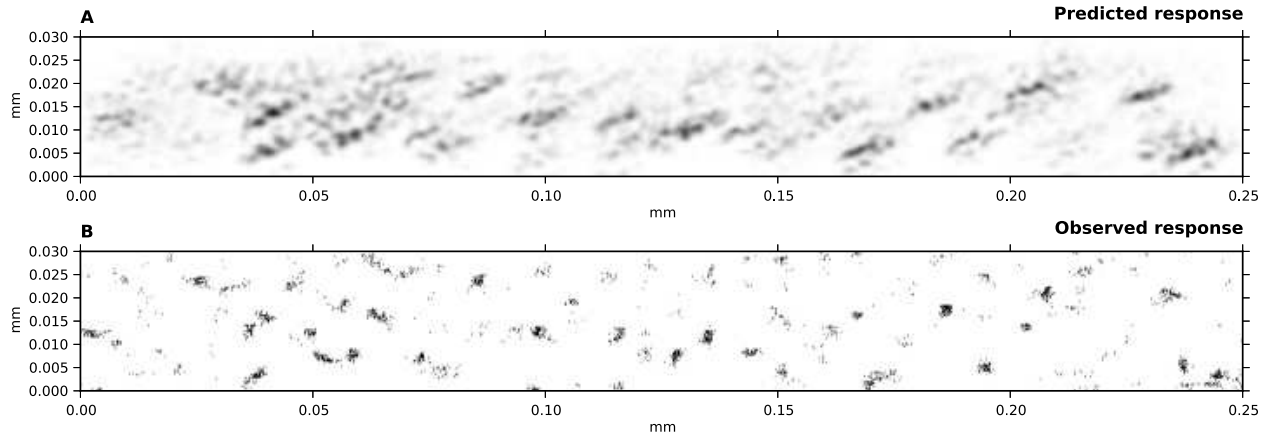


Figure 9: **Observed and predicted responses.** A. Neural impulse rates of the neuron (20, 16). In order to obtain this plot, we convolved the ncRF of the neuron with the random dot stimulus pattern. B. Spatial event plot of neuron (20, 16). Each dot represents the position where a stimulus triggers a response for the neuron. The axis x and y represent the length and the width of the drum (drum protocol, see the main text) in mm , respectively.