

# Crossing the Cleft: Communication Challenges Between Neuroscience and Artificial Intelligence

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## 11 **Abstract**

12 Historically, neuroscience principles have heavily influenced artificial intelligence (AI), for example  
13 the influence of the perceptron model, essentially a simple model of a biological neuron, on artificial  
14 neural networks. More recently, notable recent AI advances, for example the growing popularity of  
15 reinforcement learning, often appear more aligned with cognitive neuroscience or psychology,  
16 focusing on function at a relatively abstract level. At the same time, neuroscience stands poised to  
17 enter a new era of large-scale high-resolution data and appears more focused on underlying neural  
18 mechanisms or architectures that can, at times, seem rather removed from functional descriptions.  
19 While this might seem to foretell a new generation of AI approaches arising from a deeper  
20 exploration of neuroscience specifically for AI, the most direct path for achieving this is unclear.  
21 Here we discuss cultural differences between the two fields, including divergent priorities that should  
22 be considered when leveraging modern-day neuroscience for AI. For example, the two fields feed  
23 two very different applications that at times require potentially conflicting perspectives. We highlight  
24 small but significant cultural shifts that we feel would greatly facilitate increased synergy between  
25 the two fields.

## 26 **1 Introduction**

27 Neural-inspired artificial intelligence (AI) is based upon the fundamental assumption that brain  
28 circuits have been optimized by evolution. While biological brains face different evolutionary  
29 constraints compared to modern-day computers, it stands to reason that further exploration of the  
30 brain's underlying mechanisms and using these mechanisms to inform emerging approaches to AI  
31 will capture aspects of cognition that are currently challenging for AI (see Aimone, 2019 and  
32 Hassabis et al. 2017 for in depth discussions). Correspondingly, notable advances in artificial  
33 intelligence (AI), for example reinforcement learning (e.g. as used by AlphaZero, see Silver et al.,

34 2018), the Transformer network (Vaswani et al., 2017), and deep convolutional networks  
35 (Krizhevsky et al., 2012), are based upon descriptions or theories of brain function. Currently, the  
36 direct path for incorporating modern-day neuroscience (which is increasingly designed for more  
37 detailed descriptions of brain circuits and mechanisms) into AI approaches is unclear, although the  
38 numbers of efforts focused on this challenge are growing. This article describes differences between  
39 the two fields that, if addressed, could significantly expand the path from neuroscience to AI to  
40 ensure the continued growth of neural-inspired AI.

41 How AI can best leverage modern-day neuroscience, and correspondingly, how modern-day  
42 neuroscience can best inform the field of AI remain open questions and active areas of discussion.  
43 One confounding factor is that the brain can be understood at multiple levels, all of which have  
44 impacted AI (for recent reviews see Yamins and DiCarlo, 2016; Sinz et al 2019). At the  
45 phenomenological level (also referred to here as function level), efforts to include additional brain-  
46 inspired elements include attention (Mnih et al., 2014), episodic memory (Blundell et al., 2016),  
47 continual learning (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017), imagination (Thomee et al. 2007), and transfer learning  
48 (Pan and Yang 2010). At a more mechanistic level, efforts remain centered on applying relatively  
49 standard training techniques to hand-crafted architectures incorporating novel neural-inspired  
50 elements (for example, see the incorporation of recurrence for visual processing in George et al.,  
51 2017; George et al., 2018; Nayebi et al., 2018; Kar et al., 2019; Kubilius et al. 2019). Examples of  
52 efforts to include biophysical detail at the single-neuron or synapse level include spiking neural  
53 networks (Tavanaei et al., 2019), neurogenesis (Draelos et al., 2017), spine stabilization (Kirkpatrick  
54 et al., 2017), and context-dependent activation or gating of neurons (Masse et al., 2018; Rikhye et al.,  
55 2018). While there is certainly interest in incorporating additional neural-inspiration at multiple  
56 levels, approaches for doing so do not appear to be growing at the same pace as the wealth of  
57 neurobiological data being produced by the broader neuroscience community.

58 Identifying the appropriate “depth of understanding”, or level of abstraction, for describing how  
59 neural circuits implement cognition (or any other task) in a manner that facilitates incorporation into  
60 an AI model is one of the greatest challenges facing neural-inspired AI. In our opinion, a significant  
61 but subtle challenge arises from differing perspectives between the two fields, largely driven by the  
62 end-goal applications that drive each field. Neuroscience has been pulled by funding priorities  
63 towards a focus on identifying loci of dysfunction (i.e., in disease or disorders) for potential  
64 therapeutic targets. This translates to a culture that emphasizes defining and describing specific  
65 system components. AI applications, on the other hand, require demonstrated improvements on  
66 performance on a specific task. For neural-inspired AI, there is often a focus on problems for which  
67 human performance still exceeds that of computers (see “Challenges of bringing neuroscience to  
68 artificial intelligence”). For such problems, AI culture is primarily focused on understanding how a  
69 system produces a solution at an algorithmic-level, rather than understanding the underlying  
70 mechanisms or the biological neural architectures. In contrast to neuroscience, AI research  
71 experiences almost no pull along the form axis.

72 The view of these cultural differences is further complicated by a seeming abundance of riches – the  
73 fact that there are multiple levels across which the two fields may interact. Using visual processing  
74 as an example to highlight the cultural differences and differing foci between the two fields, we can  
75 describe “levels” of research using three fundamental questions to describe the impact of a particular  
76 research effort: 1) “What is it?”, or form, is defined as understanding the specifics of the components  
77 that comprise the neural circuit or neural network. 2) “How does it work?”, or mechanism, is defined  
78 as understanding how components of a network work together. 3) “What does it do?”, or function, is  
79 developing the “higher-level” description or abstraction of function. These three levels may be

80 mapped to Marr's three levels for understanding an information processing system, implementation,  
 81 algorithm, and computation, respectively (Marr 1982); however here we have cast the levels as  
 82 questions to highlight the viewpoint of a researcher interested in incorporating new information into  
 83 models (whether for neuroscience or AI).

84 We illustrate these differences of our above example in Figure 1. As with Marr's levels, although the  
 85 three axes are drawn orthogonally, we acknowledge that the axes are not completely independent, as  
 86 any one experiment can impact multiple axes. For example, a combination of optogenetic labelling  
 87 and large-scale calcium imaging can be used to characterize the responses of a specific subtype of  
 88 neuron within a brain area. While describing the spatiotemporal features of this type of neuron's  
 89 receptive field is form, inferring the underlying connectivity and interactions between cell types maps  
 90 to the mechanism axis, and capturing a more abstract description of the functional role of this  
 91 subtype within the larger population of recorded cells is aligned with the function axis.

## 92 **Figure 1 about here**

93 While mechanism and function are both relevant for neuroscience, the drive for identifying  
 94 therapeutic targets arising from a need for biomedical applications results in a strong pull  
 95 predominantly along the form axis, as indicated by the red dashed arrow. This is not to say that all  
 96 neuroscience work is only aligned along one axis. For example, Hubel and Wiesel's seminal work  
 97 (1962, indicated by the red star) characterizing receptive fields in visual cortex could be described as  
 98 impacting two different axes. We would consider the ongoing efforts to further characterize  
 99 responses and connectivity of various subtypes of neurons in V1 (for example see Jiang et al 2015) as  
 100 oriented along the form axis (what is it?), but the hierarchical model of visual processing (vertical red  
 101 arrow) as oriented along the mechanism axis (how does it work?). The hierarchical model was fairly  
 102 abstracted; it could be argued that this level of abstraction facilitated development of subsequent  
 103 hierarchical models in AI, for example Fukushima's (1980) neocognitron. Indeed, while many of the  
 104 new tools becoming available today are specifically designed to address the form of large-scale  
 105 neural circuits (see the next section, "Why neuroscience for artificial intelligence"), they will produce  
 106 data that will drive new models at both the mechanism and function levels. Nevertheless, we would  
 107 argue that orientation towards the "what is it?" question will continue to dominate, driven by the  
 108 traditional applications of the field.

109 As with neuroscience, AI encompasses efforts aligned with all the axes described in Figure 1, but the  
 110 drive for improving the performance on a specific task results in a significant pull along different  
 111 axes than neuroscience. Algorithm development cannot proceed without some attention to  
 112 mechanism (as well as implementation, see "Specialized hardware: agonist or antagonist?"), and  
 113 often critical breakthroughs in performance arise from developing architectures. For example, the  
 114 neocognitron (based upon Hubel and Wiesel's hierarchical model and indicated by the blue star),  
 115 arguably inspired the architecture of convolutional networks (CNNs, LeCun et al., 1998),  
 116 representing advancement along the mechanism axis. Nevertheless, answering the question of "what  
 117 does it do?" (or perhaps put more colloquially, "what is it good for?") is critical for applying a model  
 118 to any application space. Training a convolutional network (e.g., for image classification, blue arrow)  
 119 is application along the function axis. Similarly, implementing "human-like" computations (dashed  
 120 blue arrow), like those thought to underlie cognition, while likely drawing from both mechanism and  
 121 form, primarily will be oriented along the function axis.

122 Our intent is not to suggest that a bias along any one axis is more valuable than along another.  
 123 However, the differences in Figure 1 are illustrative of why the two fields can sometimes be

124 perceived as diverging, even as the fundamental research questions seem well-aligned. It is worth  
 125 noting that neuroscience's general bias towards form and AI's general bias towards function may  
 126 perpetuate a disconnect between the two fields, as each field will be predisposed to build upon  
 127 advances framed along dominant biases of the field. For example, identification of a new type of  
 128 interneuron (as would arise from further characterization of types of neurons in visual cortex) will not  
 129 be readily incorporated into an existing machine learning approach or AI model without an  
 130 accompanying *functional* description of the role of the interneuron within the biological neural  
 131 network. Conversely, a generalized functional description of inhibition in an ANN may not be readily  
 132 explored in a biological brain without some indication of form, or how that function might be  
 133 implemented using known biological components (i.e., different interneuron subtypes).

134 In spite of cultural differences, there are indications that cross-pollination between the fields is  
 135 thriving. Within the field of visual processing, it has been encouraging to see analogies drawn  
 136 between the architecture of high-performing neural networks and visual cortex (e.g. George et al.,  
 137 2017; George et al., 2018). Moreover, such comparisons have been extended to demonstrate that  
 138 task-optimized deep convolutional networks appear to utilize representations similar to the single-  
 139 unit responses of neural circuits contained within the ventral visual processing pathway (Khaligh-  
 140 Razavi and Kriegeskorte, 2014; Yamins et al., 2014; Güçlü and van Gerven, 2015; Cadena et al.,  
 141 2019). Several recent studies have proposed deep networks, trained to predict best stimuli for  
 142 individual neurons, as validatable models of V1 (Walker et al., 2019) as well as higher-order areas of  
 143 visual processing (Bashivan et al., 2019; Ponce et al., 2019). These works are examples of hybrid  
 144 research, a product of both fields, that could facilitate development of a common language.

145 While a common language that spans both fields may be an ambitious goal, acknowledgement of  
 146 differing priorities (or application drivers) may be the first step to subtle shifts in perspective that  
 147 could do much to address the cultural differences between fields. For neuroscience, communicating  
 148 new neuroscience knowledge on a function level will do much to ensure impact on AI. Similarly, a  
 149 slight broadening of receptiveness of AI to differing levels of neuroscience would greatly facilitate  
 150 adoption of new neuroscience knowledge. These shifts in focus are small but significant and would  
 151 do much to increase the synergy between neuroscience and artificial intelligence.

## 152 2 Why neuroscience for artificial intelligence?

153 Neuroscience is in the midst of a technology development era that is producing new tools for  
 154 exploring the brain's circuits with higher resolution and in greater detail than previously possible.  
 155 First, recent advances in both electron microscopy (EM) imaging (e.g. Zheng et al., 2018), combined  
 156 with novel reconstruction algorithms (e.g. Januszewski et al., 2018) are already resulting in new  
 157 connectomes of unprecedented scale (e.g. Li et al., 2019), with even larger and higher-resolution  
 158 volumes on the horizon. Potentially combined with other techniques such as the bar-coding of  
 159 individual neuronal connections (Zador et al., 2012), neuroscience is now positioned such that a  
 160 whole mammalian brain connectome is within reach. Second, and complementary to the large-scale  
 161 connectomic datasets on the horizon, neuroscience also continues to advance large-scale calcium  
 162 imaging (see Girven and Sparta, 2017 and Lecoq et al., 2019 for reviews) and multi-unit recording  
 163 techniques, increasing the range of physical and temporal scales with which populations of neurons  
 164 may be recorded (see Stevenson and Kording, 2011 for a timeline). Third, a broader range of tools  
 165 are now available for simultaneously identifying, recording and manipulating multiple populations  
 166 from different cell-types (see Huang and Zeng, 2013 and Simpson and Looger, 2018). Detailed  
 167 descriptions of interactions between different cell-types, including different temporal scales of

168 plasticity, are essential for describing neuronal “motifs” that potentially constitute canonical  
 169 computations in the brain (Douglas et al., 1989; Harris and Shepherd, 2015).

170 It would seem natural for the technological advances described above to drive a new and potentially  
 171 revolutionary generation of neural-inspired ANNs. As increasingly accurate computational graphs of  
 172 neurons become available, the question of how the brain is wired is no longer the limiting factor for  
 173 developing novel and potentially revolutionary neural-inspired ANN architectures. Neuroscience  
 174 now has the capability to record from the same populations of identifiable neurons for lengths of time  
 175 that were previously unfeasible. Combined with advances in data analytics, neuroscience can now  
 176 provide access to a range of neural temporal dynamics that were previously inaccessible. For  
 177 example, the recent work by Trautmann et al. (2019) suggests that neural population dynamics can be  
 178 extracted from silicon probe recordings without pre-requisite spike sorting, thus alleviating the data-  
 179 processing bottleneck facing multi-unit recording techniques. These technological advances are  
 180 particularly relevant from an algorithmic development point of view because the ability of a static  
 181 graph (without corresponding knowledge of the temporal dynamics) to inform or constrain a  
 182 computational neural model has historically remained unclear, as it is likely that temporal dynamics  
 183 play a central role in biological neural processing. Nevertheless, the path from increased biological  
 184 detail associated with large-scale recordings to a reduced form appropriate for incorporation into an  
 185 artificial neural network is unclear. A neural model that reduces the temporal dynamics of these  
 186 large-scale recordings to a more canonical form, even if at the expense of some biological detail,  
 187 would do much to alleviate the disconnect (even if underutilizing the richness of the large-scale  
 188 neurobiological data).

189 It is worth noting that Hubel and Wiesel’s hierarchical model of simple and complex cells in visual  
 190 cortex was a significant influence behind the development of the neocognitron, widely regarded as  
 191 the predecessor to CNNs, even in the absence of anatomical validation. When considering the  
 192 cultural differences raised in the previous section, one might even argue that the impact of Hubel and  
 193 Wiesel’s work was facilitated by the lack of anatomical validation as the hierarchical model was  
 194 made accessible by its simplicity. Today computational neuroscience, driven by the availability of  
 195 new large-scale datasets, is increasingly focused towards high throughput methods for data  
 196 (Gouwens et al., 2019) to provide meaningful constraints for primarily mechanistic models. These  
 197 efforts are synergistic with experimental neuroscience, as model validation often identifies critical  
 198 gaps in knowledge. However, a more functional angle, potentially continued in parallel to the more  
 199 detailed neural modeling, would do much to facilitate impact on AI.

### 200 3 Challenges of bringing neuroscience to artificial intelligence

201 While AI researchers are highly motivated to explore novel approaches, (e.g. neural-inspired  
 202 architectures), that interest can fade without a relatively quick demonstrated impact on accepted  
 203 benchmarks. In spite of the foundational work of Fukushima (1980) and LeCun (1998), it was not  
 204 until AlexNet won the ImageNet Large-Scale Visual Recognition Challenge (Krizhevsky et al., 2012)  
 205 that CNNs rose to the level of popularity that they enjoy today. While it can be argued that the rise  
 206 of CNNs was driven as much because availability of GPUs and large-scale data sets made training  
 207 them tenable for the first time, their success and continued popularity is a significant example of how  
 208 a concept, drawn from neuroscience and framed within the correct context (in this case tractability of  
 209 training the network combined with success on a benchmark) can drive significant advances. It was  
 210 the clear demonstration of function (successful application of the architecture) that drove the current  
 211 and relatively widespread use of convolutional networks today.

212 In the case of AI, function is often defined by application. Broadly speaking, computer tasks may be  
 213 divided into two categories: those for which a computer is currently better suited, and those for which  
 214 a human is currently better suited. The latter category of tasks is an obvious desired application  
 215 space for neuroscience, and AI has traditionally focused on improving performance in these areas  
 216 while continuing to leverage capabilities for which a computer is better suited (e.g. extracting  
 217 patterns from large corpuses of data). One example of a such a task is learning from a single or a few  
 218 examples (zero-, one-, or few-shot learning). State-of-the-art algorithms currently achieve modest  
 219 success at these tasks (Snell et al., 2017), but still remain unable to meet or beat human performance.  
 220 A second, potentially related, task is extrapolating information to new examples (semi-supervised  
 221 learning). Humans are able to recognize examples of a class of stimuli, even if presented in very  
 222 different environments, after exposure to only a few labeled examples of that class with several  
 223 unlabeled examples of that class and other classes. Developing algorithms that are capable of self-  
 224 labelling new examples of a class remains a challenge for computer science (although see Arjovsky  
 225 et al., 2019), presenting a real limitation to data processing algorithms as the process of labelling data  
 226 is relatively expensive (and therefore large labeled datasets are not always readily available).  
 227 Although these tasks are seemingly trivial for human beings, computer algorithms struggle to match  
 228 human performance.

229 Demonstrating the value of looking to neuroscience for novel solutions to these tasks is particularly  
 230 challenging, as neuroscience does not currently understand how the brain performs these tasks on the  
 231 levels towards which neuroscience is biased. It is reasonable to assume that AI will be most strongly  
 232 impacted by efforts aligned with the function axis (see Figure 1). Models of human behavior and  
 233 human memory exist in a functional form, but they are relatively disconnected from studies at the  
 234 neural circuit level (Krakauer et al., 2017). On one hand, this application space presents an  
 235 opportunity for neural-inspired AI, as neuroscience will likely utilize approaches spanning all of the  
 236 previously mentioned levels (form, mechanism, and function) to answer these questions. On the other  
 237 hand, opportunities for neuroscience to impact this axis in the near future are constrained by the fact  
 238 that most neuroscience tools available today are designed for exploring the form and mechanism of  
 239 neural circuits (as previously discussed).

240 One practice that facilitates re-framing neuroscience form or mechanism data into a functional  
 241 description appropriate for impacting AI is considering the functional context of the neural circuit (or  
 242 single neuron) within the brain when assessing potential impact on AI. The majority of successful  
 243 developments in neural-inspired AI (included those reviewed in this article) follow this practice. At  
 244 the same time, we would encourage a broader perspective when considering which areas of  
 245 neuroscience to draw from. A continued or increased focus on drawing from human cognition runs  
 246 the risk of maintaining the disconnect between AI and neuroscience as the needed conversion from  
 247 mechanistic and form descriptions to more functional ones may be slow to mature. In addition, our  
 248 observation (discussed more fully in the next section) is that there are many opportunities for  
 249 neuroscience to impact AI that will be overlooked without a broadening of the perceived “impact  
 250 space” for neuroscience within AI.

## 251 4 Crossing the cleft

252 Currently a theoretical “gap” exists between neuroscience and AI as researchers seek to establish the  
 253 “right” level of abstraction for translation between the two fields. While, as previously mentioned,  
 254 the incorporation of neuroscience into AI development is often viewed as, at best, a superficial  
 255 treatment of the understanding of neural circuits that neuroscience has to offer, neuroscience could do  
 256 much to broaden its impact on AI through relatively small efforts to describe new discoveries in a

257 function-oriented manner (answering the question of “What does it do?” in Figure 1), in addition to  
 258 the form- and mechanism-oriented manners that are more common in the general neuroscience  
 259 community. It is also worth noting that in some cases translation to a functional description may  
 260 require loss of fidelity to the underlying mechanisms and form. Indications are that a cultural shift  
 261 within computational neuroscience to describe brain theory in a more “machine-learning-accessible”  
 262 manner has already begun (see recent papers by Marblestone et al., 2016 and Richards et al., 2019).  
 263 As already described, neuroscience has also begun to adopt machine learning approaches to further  
 264 develop computational models of neural systems, as seen for the visual system (Khaligh-Razavi and  
 265 Kriegeskorte, 2014; Yamins et al., 2014; Güçlü and van Gerven, 2015; Bashivan et al., 2019; Cadena  
 266 et al., 2019; Ponce et al., 2019; Walker et al., 2019).

267 In addition to better aligning with the goals of AI, from our viewpoint the impact of neuroscience on  
 268 AI can also be extended by taking a broader view when considering what neural systems are relevant  
 269 for fostering the development of neural-inspired AI (in particular those with more mature functional  
 270 models derived from mechanistic and form data). One example of such an area is the exploration of  
 271 visual processing in non-mammalian (but still strongly visual) animals. Recent work has identified  
 272 neurons in the dragonfly visual system that exhibit a form of predictive gain modulation, in which  
 273 visual responses to predicted prey-position are selectively enhanced (Wiederman et al., 2017), even  
 274 in the presence of a second potential target (Wiederman and O’Carroll, 2013). Phenomenologically,  
 275 the selective gain modulation of visual responses in the dragonfly system has obvious parallels with  
 276 selective visual attention observed in macaque visual cortex (McAdams and Maunsell, 1999; Treue  
 277 and Martinez-Trujillo, 1999). While the underlying neural circuitry and specific mechanisms are still  
 278 under investigation in both the non-human primate and dragonfly systems, the relative simplicity of  
 279 the dragonfly system has facilitated development of function-level models of the dragonfly  
 280 mechanism (for example Wiederman et al 2008) and subsequently development of dragonfly-inspired  
 281 target tracking algorithms (Bagheri et al., 2015, 2017b) implemented on robotic platforms (Bagheri et  
 282 al 2017a).

283 A second example of the potential continued impact of neuroscience towards AI is the continued  
 284 incorporation of elements of spatial coding as observed within the hippocampal formation into  
 285 navigation algorithms. When place fields (O’Keefe, 1971) and head-direction cells (Taube et al.,  
 286 1990a,b) were first characterized, they were accompanied by hypothetical functional descriptions of  
 287 their roles in spatial coding. While abstract, these proposed functions facilitated their incorporation  
 288 into robot navigation systems (Arleo and Gerstner, 2000) as well as SLAM (simultaneous  
 289 localization and mapping) algorithms (e.g. RatSlam, Milford et al., 2004). More than a decade later,  
 290 the field continues to draw from neuroscience discoveries (Zhou et al., 2018, Kresier et al., 2018a,b),  
 291 including grid cells (Fyhn et al., 2004; Banino et al., 2018; Cueva and Wei, 2018), and 3-dimensional  
 292 representations (Yu et al., 2019). While it remains to be seen whether the hippocampal spatial code  
 293 is representative of a more general framework for cognition (Bellmund et al., 2018; Hawkins et al.,  
 294 2019), advances in our understanding of the spatial navigation system of animals have clearly had  
 295 continued impact on development of artificial brain-inspired navigation algorithms, with longer-term  
 296 implications for autonomous or semi-autonomous navigation systems that will rely on some form of  
 297 AI.

298 While these neural systems may be viewed as esoteric by some, the successes in these areas suggest  
 299 that a common language (or at least a common perspective) is already being developed, even if  
 300 restricted to certain applications in which neuroscience has had a demonstrated but limited impact.  
 301 While it may be debatable whether modern neuroscience is poised to unravel the neural circuits  
 302 underlying cognition, these examples illustrate that there are several avenues by which continued

303 application of neuroscience to AI will 1) continue to grow communication between the two fields and  
 304 2) foster the development of neural-inspired AI application areas that could eventually form the  
 305 foundation for more general neural-inspired AI.

306 **5 Specialized hardware: agonist or antagonist?**

307 One potentially complicating aspect to looking to a broader range of neural systems for impacting AI  
 308 is the potential increase in computational cost. As discussed previously, the availability of modern  
 309 high-performing computing platforms such as GPUs are a significant factor in the recent success of  
 310 deep neural networks. While ideally neural-inspired algorithms should not be biased by the dominant  
 311 computer architectures of the time, in practice the cost of applying an algorithm to particular  
 312 application domains will be a consideration. For this reason, aspects of neuroscience that can be  
 313 incorporated into a deep learning framework have an advantage for impacting AI in that they can be  
 314 run on high-performing technology. While using a deep learning framework as a “best-practices”  
 315 guideline may be beneficial in the short-term to foster communication between neuroscience and AI,  
 316 an unfortunate side effect is that many neural systems with much to offer (for example the  
 317 hippocampus) may contain architectures that are rather distinct from the hierarchical processing  
 318 models that inspired deep neural networks.

319 For this reason, when looking more broadly within neuroscience to inspire AI, it will be useful to  
 320 also look beyond current computing technologies to what technologies may be on the horizon.  
 321 Recent years have seen an increased prioritization of neuromorphic hardware solutions for AI  
 322 applications (Blouw et al., 2019, Esser 2015, and Severa et al., 2019) in addition to their long-  
 323 proposed use for neuroscience modeling (Furber, 2012 and Indiveri et al., 2011). Programmable  
 324 neuromorphic hardware remains a somewhat immature technology compared to GPUs and CPUs,  
 325 however there are now a number of technologies such as IBM’s TrueNorth (Merolla et al., 2014) and  
 326 Intel’s Loihi chips (Davies et al., 2018) that have sufficient neurons to implement a variety of neural  
 327 circuits, especially some of the more succinct circuits (e.g. the dragonfly system discussed above).  
 328 The trade-off for this programmability is potential increased difficulty of implementation. Until  
 329 these newer neuromorphic hardware mature, it is likely that GPUs and other accelerators will  
 330 continue to prove most effective for simple neural networks.

331 The effectiveness of GPUs at accelerating deep neural networks in some ways demonstrates that  
 332 initial costs (for example increases in required computational power) may be acceptable when  
 333 initially exploring new areas of neuroscience for impacting AI. Although neuromorphic technologies  
 334 have demonstrated computational advantages, these advantages typically come with restrictions on  
 335 the set of neural capabilities (e.g. leaky integrate-and-fire neurons) that may be effectively  
 336 implemented. From our perspective, the neuromorphic hardware community is, in many respects,  
 337 still searching for clear evidence of what aspects of the brain should be incorporated in hardware.  
 338 Should potential computational advantages be demonstrated, there will be considerable interest in  
 339 pursuing aspects of neural realism that can fully realize these advantages.

340 **6 Summary**

341 We have discussed certain cultural differences between neuroscience and AI that, from our  
 342 viewpoint, hinder cross-pollination between the two fields. While such cross-pollination is, in itself,  
 343 a challenging proposition, much of these differences are driven by diverging priorities and  
 344 perspectives rather than technical obstacles. Neuroscience is primarily focused towards  
 345 understanding form, the components of biological neural circuits, and mechanism, how neural

346 circuits work. New neural data, driven by a stream of new tools for dissecting neural circuits, will be  
347 described from this perspective. AI, on the other hand, seeks to increase performance (with respect  
348 to an objective function), especially on tasks where human performance still exceeds that of  
349 computer algorithms. While it is natural to look to neuroscience to inform the next generation of AI  
350 algorithms, AI requires information in a more abstracted language than neuroscience typically  
351 produces. Incorporation of neural elements be biased towards functional descriptions of neural  
352 circuits and the brain.

353 There are indications that there is already a cultural shift within neuroscience to communicate results  
354 on a more function-oriented level (although the fields have yet to arrive at an agreed-upon “common  
355 language”). Our view is that this slight shift in perspective will do much to facilitate translation of  
356 new neuroscience knowledge to AI algorithms. We also suggest that neuroscience impacts on AI  
357 could be enhanced by broadening the current perspective regarding what areas of neuroscience are  
358 relevant to AI. We have pointed to two example neural systems (spatial navigation in the  
359 hippocampus and visual processing in insects) that have been successful at maintaining an open  
360 pipeline to impacting ANN development and implementation in robotic systems and that, in our  
361 view, demonstrate the potential of “alternative” neural systems to inform AI. History (and hindsight)  
362 will eventually reveal the “right” source of inspiration and the correct language with which to  
363 communicate. Our current view is that there is tremendous potential for the two fields to work  
364 together synergistically, potential that can only be realized through broader exploration of a wide  
365 range of possibilities.

## 366 7 Conflict of Interest

367 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
368 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

## 369 8 Author Contributions

370 FC wrote the first draft of the manuscript. JA, MS and FC wrote sections of the manuscript. All  
371 authors participated in discussions regarding the content of the manuscript, manuscript revision, and  
372 read and approved the submitted version.

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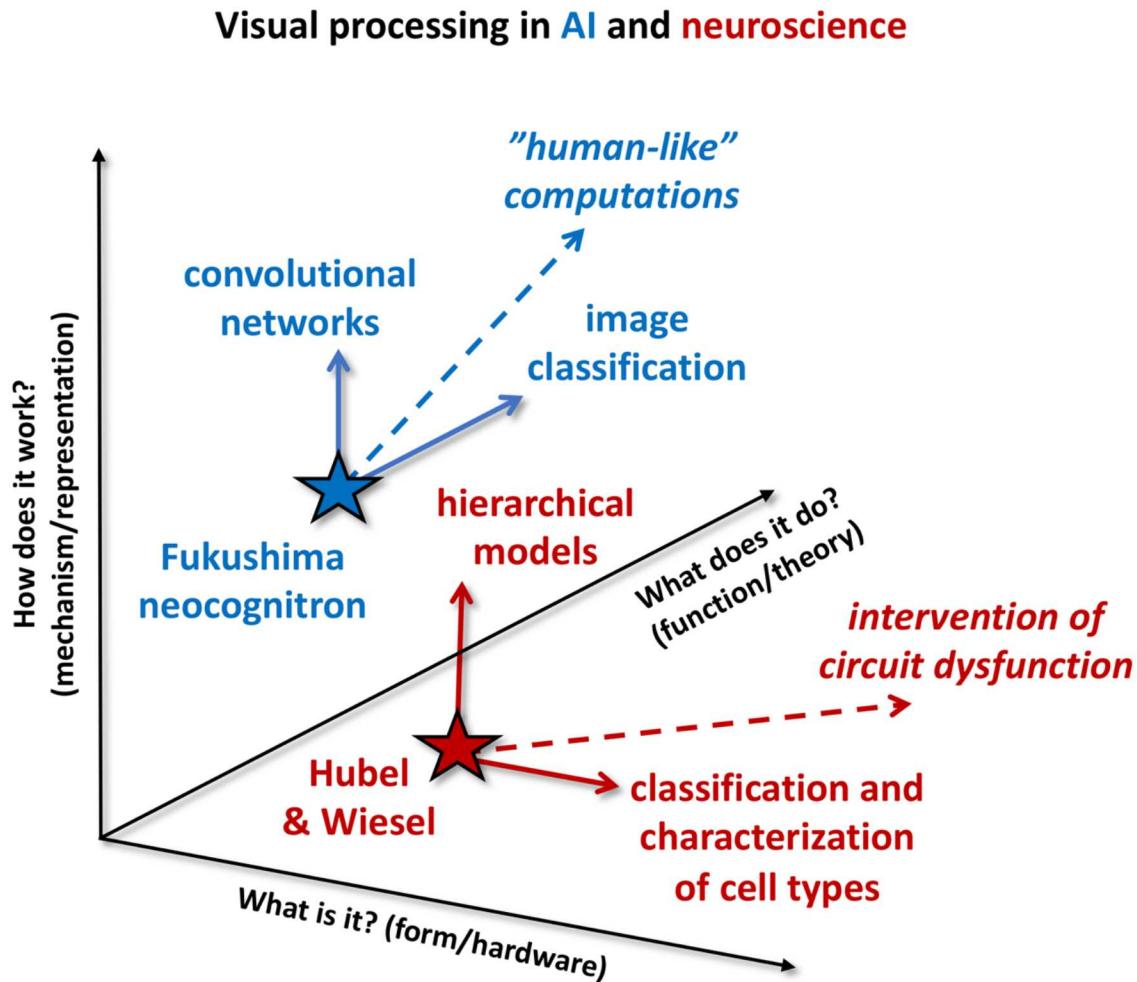
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575 Figure Legend:

576 Figure 1: Cultural differences between AI and neuroscience. Example studies from visual processing  
577 in AI (blue) and neuroscience (red) are projected onto three different “axes” of impact: answering the  
578 question of “what is it?” (form or hardware), answering the question of “how does it work?”  
579 (mechanism or representation), and answering the question of “what does it do?” (function or  
580 theory). Neuroscience results tend to be communicated answering the “what is it?” or “how does it  
581 work” questions. As an example, Hubel and Wiesel’s work (red star) characterizing simple and  
582 complex cells feeds continuing efforts along the form/hardware axis (horizontal solid red arrow) to  
583 further classify characterization of cell types in visual cortex. At the same time, Hubel and Wiesel’s  
584 hierarchical model of visual processing has had significant impact along the  
585 mechanism/representation axis (vertical solid red arrow). Neuroscience experiences a strong  
586 application pull along the “what is it” axis, for example to identify therapeutic targets of circuit  
587 dysfunction (dashed red arrow). AI research tends to focus on “what does it do?” and “how does it  
588 work?” Here, development of Fukushima’s neocognitron (blue star) into convolutional networks is  
589 illustrated as impact along the mechanism/representation axis (vertical solid blue arrow), while their  
590 application to image classification is impact along the function/theory axis (solid blue arrow). The  
591 dominant application pull on AI is to produce “human-cognition-like” computations (dashed blue  
592 arrow).

593 \*\*\* Figure 1 provided below for reference (actual file will be submitted separately)

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