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Stimulus reconstruction (single spiking neuron, dynamic stimuli)

- Spike train discrination (spike based)
- Stimulus discrimination (single neuron, rate based, static stimulus $s = \{s_a, s_b\}$)
- Population decoding (multiple neurons, rate based, static stimulus $s \in \mathbb{R}$)
- **(**) Dynamic population decoding $(s(t) \in \mathbb{R})$

- Hippocampal place cells: how is location encoded?
- Retinal ganglion cells: what information is sent to the brain? What is discarded?
- Motor cortex: how can we extract as much information as possible from a collection of M1 cells?

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Decoding examples

Overview

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explicitly.

Neural Decoding

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Understanding the neural code.

- Given spikes, what was the stimulus?
- What aspects of the stimulus does the system encode? (capacity is limited)
- What information can be extracted from spike trains:
 - By "downstream" areas? Homunculus.
 - By the experimenter? Ideal observer analysis.
- What is the coding quality?
- Design of neural prosthetic devices

Related to encoding, but encoding does not answer above questions explicitly.

- Dayan and Abbott §3.4, Rieke Chap 2 and Appendix
- Estimate the stimulus from spike times t_i to minimize e.g. $\langle s(t) s_{est}(t) \rangle^2$
- First order reconstruction:

$$s_{est}(t- au_0) = \sum_{t_i} K(t-t_i) - \langle r
angle \int d au K(au)$$

- The second term ensures that $\langle s_{est}(t) \rangle = 0$
- Delay τ₀ can be included to make decoding easier: predict stimulus at time t – τ₀ based on spikes up to time t (see causal decoding below)

- Let $r(t) = \sum \delta(t t_i)$
- Mimimizing squared error (similar to Wiener kernels) gives implicit equation for optimal *K*

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau' Q_{rr}(\tau - \tau') K(\tau') = Q_{rs}(\tau - \tau_0)$$

where

$$Q_{rr}(\tau - \tau') = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T dt \langle (r(t - \tau) - \langle r \rangle) (r(t - \tau') - \langle r \rangle) \rangle$$

$$Q_{rs}(\tau - \tau_0) = \langle r \rangle C(\tau_0 - \tau)$$

where $C(\tau) = \langle \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} s(t_i - \tau) \rangle$ is STA from encoding slides.

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Quality of reconstruction

• Or use Fourier space

$$ilde{K}(\omega) = rac{ ilde{Q}_{
m rs}(\omega) \exp(i\omega au_0)}{ ilde{Q}_{
m rr}(\omega)}$$

- Note, one can design the stimulus (e.g. Gaussian white noise), but one can not design the response *r*(*t*).
- If Q_{rr}(τ) ≈ ⟨r⟩δ(τ) (tends to happen at low rates, hence not very relevant) then K is the STA, so decoder equals encoder

$$\mathcal{K}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\langle n \rangle} \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} s(t_i + \tau - \tau_0) \right\rangle$$

• Note, for constant Poisson process $Q_{rr}(\tau) \approx \langle r \rangle \delta(\tau)$

[Gabbiani and Koch, 1998][non-causal kernel]



Figure 9.19 Fraction γ of the white stimulus (10 Hz cutoff frequency) shown in figures 9.18 and 9.20 that can be recovered from single-spike trains of various neuron models (mean firing rate: 50 Hz). The bottom axis shows the order of the threshold gamma distribution implementing encoding noise. These models are identical to those of figure 9.3 (except that the refractory period has been set to zero). While a Poisson neuron ($\pi = 1$) encodes relatively poorly the stimulus ($\gamma = 14\%$), a single perfect integrate-and-fire neuron is only a source ($\pi = 8$).

Define reconstruction quality as : $\gamma = 1 - \frac{[\langle (s_{est}-s)^2 \rangle]^{1/2}}{\sigma_s}$. An I&F transmits more information than Poisson (cf. encoding).

- H1 neuron of the fly
- Solid line is reconstruction using acausal filter
- Note, reconstruction quality will depend on stimulus



Causal decoding

- Organism faces causal (on-line) decoding problem.
- Prediction of the current/future stimulus requires temporal correlation of the stimulus. Example: in head-direction system neural code correlates best with future direction.
- Requires $K(t t_i) = 0$ for $t \le t_i$.

$$\mathbf{s}_{est}(t - au_0) = \sum_{t_i} \mathbf{K}(t - t_i) - \langle \mathbf{r}
angle \int d au \mathbf{K}(au)$$

• Delay τ_0 buys extra time



Causal decoding



Causality

Finding optimal kernel while imposing causality analytically is harder.

- Hope that $K(\tau) = 0$ for $\tau < 0$ and τ_0 sufficiently large.
- Wiener-Hopf method (spectral factorization)
- Expand $K(\tau)$ using a causal basis
- Use discrete formulation

Delay τ_0 = 160 ms. (C: full (non-causal) kernel) At time *t* estimate $s(t - \tau 0)$:

Spikes 1..4: contribute because stimulus is correlated (right tail of K)

Spikes 5..7: contribute because of τ_0

Spikes 8, 9,... : have not occurred yet.

[Dayan and Abbott (2001)]

Higher order reconstruction

Build a library of spike patterns (up to triplets). Measure mean and covariance of $P(s|\{t_0, t_1, ..\})$). Reconstruct with weighted sum of means, §A6 [Rieke et al., 1996]



- Stimulus reconstruction similar to encoding problem. But
 - Response is given, can not be choosen to be white
 - Imposing causality adds realism but reduces quality
- The reconstruction problem can be ill-posed. It is not always possible to reconstruct stimulus (cf dictionary). For instance: complex cell.

Still, the cell provides information about the stimulus. Could try to read the code, rather than reconstruct the stimulus (e.g. ideal observer)

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2. Spike train discrimination

Given two spike trains. How similar are they, or how they compare to template?

Problem: very high dimensional space.



Cricket auditory neuron in response to 2 songs, 5 repeats/song [Machens et al., 2003]

'Edit distance': two processes [Victor and Purpura, 1997]

- Deleting/inserting a spike costs 1
- Moving a spike costs $\frac{1}{2}[1 \exp(-|\delta t|/\tau)]$, with parameter τ .

Spike distances

Simpler algorithm:

Convolve (filter) with a exponential $\tilde{f}(t) = \sum_{t_i < t} \exp(-(t - t_i)/t_c)$ and calculate L_2 distance

$$D^{2} = \frac{1}{t_{c}} \int_{0}^{T} dt [\tilde{f}(t) - \tilde{g}(t)]^{2}$$

Similar to coherence of between trains [van Rossum, 2001]

Application to cricket auditory neurons: Play songs repeatedly and discriminate [Machens et al., 2003]



Optimal discrimination when τ similar to neural integration time

3. Stimulus Discrimination





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SNR and ROC curves

Discriminate between response distributions $P(r_1)$ and $P(r_2)$. ROC: vary decision threshold and measure error rates. Larger area under curve means better discriminability Shape relates to underlying distributions.





For Gaussian distributed responses define single number

$$SNR = 2 rac{[\langle r_1
angle - \langle r_2
angle]^2}{var(r_1) + var(r_2)}$$

Note, $SNR = 2 \frac{|\langle r_1 \rangle - \langle r_2 \rangle|}{sd(r_1) + sd(r_2)}$ is also used, neither is principled when $var(r_1) \neq var(r_2)$.

- Dayan and Abbott §3.2
- $p(s|\mathbf{r})$, where **r** is response across neurons and/or time
- In general s can be continuous, e.g. speed
- First, discrimination i.e. distinguishing between two (or more) alternatives (e.g. stimulus or no stimulus)
- For now no time-dependent problems.



- Some single neurons do as well as animal!
- Possibility for averaging might be limited due to correlation?
- Population might still be faster [Cohen and Newsome, 2009] •

[Hung et al., 2005]

- Recording from \sim 300 sites in the Inferior Temporal (IT) cortex
- Present images of 77 stimuli (of different objects) at various locations and scales in the visual field.
- Task is to categorize objects into 8 classes, or identify all 77 objects
- Predictions based on one-vs-rest linear SVM classifiers, using data in 50 ms bins from 100 ms to 300 ms after stimulus onset

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Fig. 1. Accurate readout Α of object category and identity from IT population activity. (A) Example of multi-unit spiking responses of 3 indepen-Site 1 dently recorded sites to Site 2 5 of the 77 objects. Ras-Site 3 🚼 ters show spikes in the 200 ms after stimulus onset for 10 repetitions

each column indicates the classifier predictions (in color code).



200 ms before stimulus onset (control). (C) Categorization performance (n = 64 sites, mean \pm SEM) for different data sources used as input to the classifier: multi-unit activity (MUA) as shown in (B), single-unit activity (SUA), and

local field potentials (LFP, Supporting Online Material). (D) This confusion matrix describes the pattern of mistakes

made by the classifier (n = 256 sites). Each row indicates the actual category presented to the monkey (29), and

õ object set on test data (not used for training) as a function of the number of sites for 1 4 16 64 256 reading out object category (red, chance = 12.5%) or identity (blue, chance = 1.3%). The input from each site was the spike count in consecutive 50-ms bins from 100 to 300 ms after stimulus onset (28). Sequentially recorded sites were combined by assuming independence (Supporting Online Material). In this and subsequent figures, error bars show the SD for 20 random choices of the sites used for training; D the dashed lines show chance levels, and the bars next to the dashed lines show the range of performances using the

80

09 rect)

в 100 Categorization

C 100

Classifier output t fd hfmfh v b co 100 % of trials

[Hung et al., 2005]

What does this tell us?

- Performance of such classifiers provides a lower bound on the information available in the population activity
- If neurons were measured independently (paper is unclear), correlations are ignored. Correlation could limit or enhance information...
- Distributed representation
- Linear classifier can plausibly be implemented in neural hardware

4. Population Encoding

[Abbott et al., 1996] Face cells, rate integrated over 500ms, extrapolated to large #stimuli. Extract face identity from population response.



Coding is almost independent! (for these small ensembles)

- Dayan and Abbott §3.3
- Population encoding uses a large number of neurons to represent information
- Advantage 1: reduction of uncertainty due to neuronal variability (Improves reaction time).
- Advantage 2: Ability to represent a number of different stimulus attributes simultaneously (e.g. in V1 location and orientation).





[Dayan and Abbott (2001) after Theunissen and Miller (1991)]

At low velocities, information about wind direction is encoded by just four interneurons

$$\left(\frac{f(s)}{r_{\max}}\right) = [\cos(s-s_a)]_+$$

Note, rate coding assumed.

• Let **c**_{*a*} denote a unit vector in the direction of *s*_{*a*}, and **v** be a unit vector parallel to the wind velocity

$$\left(rac{f(s)}{r_{\max}}
ight) = [\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{c}_{a}]_{+}$$

- $\bullet\,$ Crickets are Cartesian, 4 directions 45°, 135°, $-135^\circ,\,-45^\circ$
- Population vector is defined as

$$\mathbf{v}_{pop} = \sum_{a=1}^{4} \left(\frac{r}{r_{\max}} \right)_{a} \mathbf{c}_{a}$$

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[Dayan and Abbott (2001) after Salinas and Abbott (1994)]

- Certain neurons in M1 of the monkey can be described by cosine functions of arm movement direction (Georgopoulos et al, 1982)
- Similar to cricket cercal system, but note:
 - Non-zero offset rates r₀

$$\left(\frac{f(s)-r_0}{r_{\max}}\right) = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{c}_a$$

• Non-orthogonal: there are many thousands of M1 neurons that have arm-movement-related tuning curves



Optimal Decoding

Calculate

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$$p(s|\mathbf{r}) = rac{p(\mathbf{r}|s)p(s)}{p(\mathbf{r})}$$

- Maximum likelihood decoding (ML): $\hat{s} = \operatorname{argmax}_{s} p(\mathbf{r}|s)$
- Maximum a posteriori (MAP): $\hat{s} = \operatorname{argmax}_{s} p(s)p(\mathbf{r}|s)$
- Bayes: mimimize loss

$$s_B = \operatorname{argmin}_{s^*} \int_{s} L(s, s^*) p(s|\mathbf{r}) ds$$

• For squared loss $L(s, s^*) = (s - s^*)^2$, optimal s^* is posterior mean, $s_B = \int_s p(s|r)s$.

Cricket Cercal System

• For the cercal system, assuming indep. noise

$$p(\mathbf{r}|s) = \prod_{a} p(r_{a}|s)$$

- where each $p(r_a|s)$ is modelled as a Gaussian with means and variances
- p(s) is uniform (hence MAP=ML)
- ML decoding finds a peak of the likelihood
- Bayesian method finds posterior mean
- These methods improve performance over the vector method (but not that much, due to orthogonality...)



[[]Dayan and Abbott (2001) after Salinas and Abbott (1994)]

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General Consideration of Population Decoding



Poisson firing model over time *T*, count $n_a = r_a T$ spikes.

$$p(\mathbf{r}|s) = \prod_{a=1}^{N} \frac{(f_a(s)T)^{n_a}}{n_a!} \exp(-f_a(s)T)$$
$$\log p(\mathbf{r}|s) = \sum_{a=1}^{N} n_a \log f_a(s) + \dots$$

Approximating that $\sum_{a} f_{a}(s)$ is independent of *s*

[Dayan and Abbott (2001)]

• s_{ML} is stimulus that maximizes $\log p(\mathbf{r}|s)$, determined by

$$\sum_{a=1}^{N} r_a \frac{f_a'(s_{ML})}{f_a(s_{ML})} = 0$$

• If all tuning curves are Gaussian $f_a = A \exp[-(s - s_a)^2/2\sigma_w^2]$ then

$$s_{ML} = rac{\sum_{a} r_a s_a}{\sum_{a} r_a}$$

which is simple and intuitive, known as Center of Mass (cf population vector)

• Bias and variance of an estimator sest

$$egin{aligned} b_{est}(s) &= \langle s_{est}
angle - s \ \sigma_{est}^2(s) &= \langle (s_{est} - \langle s_{est}
angle)^2
angle \ \langle (s-s_{est})^2
angle &= b_{est}^2(s) + \sigma_{est}^2 \end{aligned}$$

• Thus for an unbiased estimator, MSE $\langle (s - s_{est})^2 \rangle$ is given by σ_{est}^2 , the variance of the estimator

Fisher information

• Fisher information is a measure of the curvature of the log likelihood near its peak

$$I_{F}(s) = \left\langle -\frac{\partial^{2} \log p(\mathbf{r}|s)}{\partial s^{2}} \right\rangle_{s} = -\int d\mathbf{r} p(\mathbf{r}|s) \frac{\partial^{2} \log p(\mathbf{r}|s)}{\partial s^{2}}$$

(the average is over trials measuring *r* while *s* is fixed)

 Cramér-Rao bound says that for any estimator [Cover and Thomas, 1991]

$$\sigma_{est}^2 \geq rac{(1+b_{est}'(s))^2}{I_F(s)}$$

- efficient estimator if $\sigma_{est}^2 = \frac{(1+b'_{est}(s))^2}{I_F(s)}$. In the bias-free case an efficient estimator $\sigma_{est}^2 = 1/I_F(s)$.
- ML decoder is typically efficient when $N \to \infty$.

Fisher information

- In homogeneous systems I_F indep. of *s*.
- More generally Fisher matrix $(I_F)_{ij}(\mathbf{s}) = \left\langle -\frac{\partial^2 \log p(\mathbf{r}|s)}{\partial s_i \partial s_j} \right\rangle_s$.
- Taylor expansion of Kullback-Leibler $D_{KL}(P(\mathbf{s}), P(\mathbf{s} + \delta \mathbf{s})) \approx \sum_{ii} \delta s_i \delta s_i (I_F)_{ij}$
- Not a Shannon information measure (not in bits), but related to Shannon information in special cases,e.g. [Brunel and Nadal, 1998, Yarrow et al., 2012].

Fisher information for a population

For independent Poisson spikers

$$I_{F}(s) = \left\langle -\frac{\partial^{2} \log p(\mathbf{r}|s)}{\partial s^{2}} \right\rangle = T \sum_{a} \langle r_{a} \rangle \left(\left(\frac{f_{a}'(s)}{f_{a}(s)} \right)^{2} - \frac{f_{a}''(s)}{f_{a}(s)} \right)$$

For dense, symmetric tuning curves, the second term sums to zero. Using $f_a(s) = \langle r_a \rangle$ we obtain

$$I_{ extsf{F}}(s) = T \sum_{a} rac{(f_{a}^{\prime}(s))^{2}}{f_{a}(s)}$$

For dense $f_a(s) = Ae^{-(s-s0+a.ds)^2/2\sigma_w^2}$ with density $\rho = 1/ds$, sum becomes integral

$$I_{F}=\sqrt{2\pi}\, T\!A
ho/\sigma_{
m W}$$



• Note that Fisher information vanishes at peak as $f'_a(s) = 0$ there

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Slope as strategy

Fig. 4. Prediction for other sensory systems (olfaction). Color map, schematic odor trail; gray line, path of an organism that followed the trail's peak concentration. This strategy is typically assumed for odor-trail following (3). Black line, path of the same organism when using a strategy similar to that of our bats, that is, following the maximum slope of the odorant concentration (17). The movement jitter in this case is smaller, making the tracking smoother and therefore faster.



Population codes and noise correlations

Noise in neurons can be correlated $p(\mathbf{r}|s) \neq \prod_{a=1}^{N} p(r_a|s)$. Information in the code can go up or down with correlations depending on details [Oram et al., 1998, Shamir and Sompolinsky, 2004, Averbeck et al., 2006] ...



From paper on bat echo location [Yovel et al., 2010])

Gaussian noise model, with stimulus dep. covariance Q(s):

$$P(\mathbf{r}|s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^N \det Q}} e^{-[\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{f}(s)]^T Q^{-1} [\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{f}(s)]/2}$$

then [Abbott and Dayan, 1999]

$$I_F = \mathbf{f}'(s)Q^{-1}(s)\mathbf{f}'(s) + rac{1}{2}\mathrm{Tr}[Q'(s)Q^{-1}(s)Q'(s)Q^{-1}(s)]$$

When Q'(s) = 0 and $Q_{ij} = q(|i - j|)$, can use spatial Fourier representation. I_F becomes sum of signal-to-noise ratios

$$I_F = \sum_k rac{|\widetilde{f'(k)}|^2}{\widetilde{q}(k)}$$

Thus noise with same correlation length as f'(s) is most harmful [Sompolinsky et al., 2002]

Population codes and correlations: Retina



[Pillow et al., 2008]

Population codes and correlations: Retina



[Pillow et al., 2008]



Plots:[SNR for homo/heterogen; Fisher vs # neurons]

- Heterogeneity prevents information saturation caused by correlations[Shamir and Sompolinsky, 2006, Ecker et al., 2011]
- *#* informative Fourier modes grows with *N* only when heterogen.
- Yet, in expts reduced correlation is linked to improved performance [Cohen and Newsome, 2008]

Optimal receptive field width?

Alternative view on optimal coding width

Maximize $I_F = T \sum_{a} \frac{(f'_a(s))^2}{f_a(s)}$ to minimize MSE error [Zhang and Sejnowski, 1999]

- $(f'_a(s))^2$ is large for narrow curves
- *I_F* is increased by including many neurons in the sum, but this is in conflict with narrow tuning: trade-off
- Gaussian tuning curves and replace sum with integral. D = 1: accuracy best for infinitely narrow tuning
- For D = 2 there is no effect of the width on I_F .
- For D > 2 I_F increases as tuning curves broaden [Brown and Bäcker, 2006].
- What is D in various brain areas? (93 in IT [Lehky et al., 2014])



[Renart and van Rossum, 2012]

Consider transmission. Maximize I_F^{out} wrt connections.



Minimal loss if output is tuned to input. I.e. RF width depends on input.

Hippocampal Place Cell Decoding

[Brown et al., 1998]

- Encoding: place cells modelled as inhomogeneous Poisson processes
- Dynamic model: random walk
- Decoding: approximate Kalman filtering
- Approach here is to perform inference to invert the encoding process

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[Brown et al., 2004]

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Example: Motor decoding

[Shpigelman et al., 2005]

- Rhesus monkey, 43 electrodes in M1
- Monkey controls cursors on a screen using two manipulanda to perform a centre-out reaching task
- Predict hand velocity based on 10 time bins, each of length 100 ms in all 43 neurons.
- Can use linear regression, polynomial regression, Gaussian kernel (support vector regression), spikernel (allows time warping)
- More sophisticated methods outperform linear regression, but linear is already decent

State-of-the-art w. Kalman filters [Gilja et al., 2012]





15 sec

15 sor

FIG. 3. True X and Y positions of animal 1 running on figure-8 maze as compared with positions reconstructed by different methods with 25 place cells. Same 60-s segment is shown in all plots. Time window for reconstruction was 0.5 s, which was moved forward with a time step of 0.25 s. For a fair comparison of different methods, if none of 25 cells fired within time window, reconstructed position at preceding time step was used. Probabilistic or Bayesian methods were especially accurate and erratic jumps in reconstructed trajectory were reduced by a continuity constraint by using information from two consecutive time steps.



50 cm

- Reconstruction of temporal stimulus
- Spike distances
- Discrimination task
- Population decoding: vector method and "optimal" decoding methods
- Specialist applications using domain knowledge

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