

Combining biophysical and statistical methods for understanding neural codes

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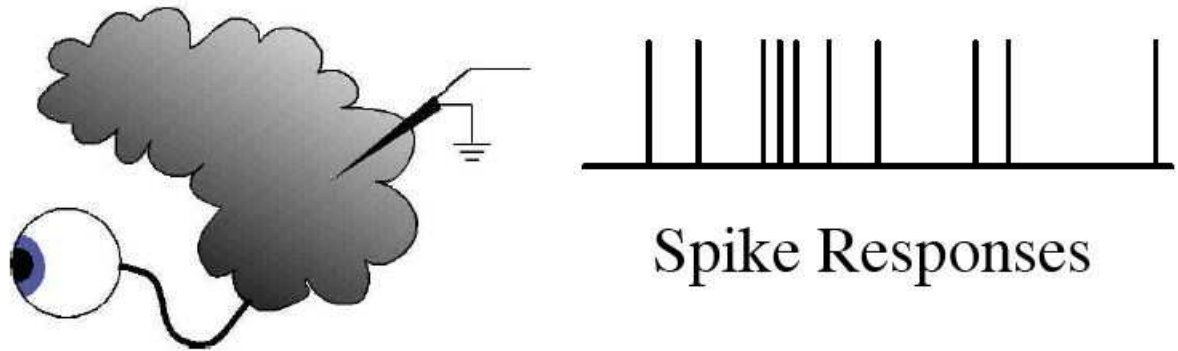
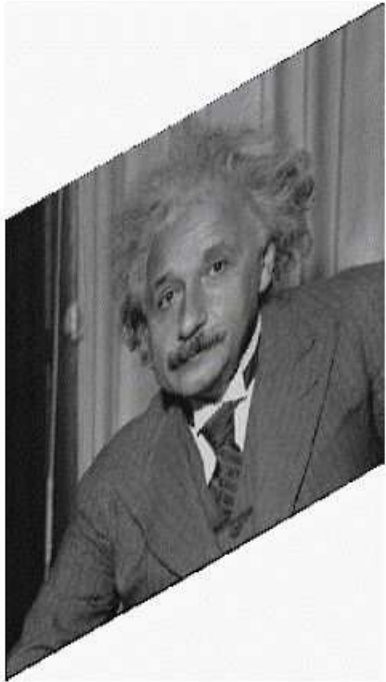
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The neural code



Input-output relationship between

- External observables x (sensory stimuli, motor responses...)
- Neural variables y (spike trains, population activity...)

Probabilistic formulation: $p(y|x)$

Basic goal

...learning the neural code.

Fundamental question: how to estimate $p(y|x)$ from experimental data?

General problem is too hard — not enough data, too many inputs x and spike trains y

Avoiding the curse of insufficient data

Many approaches to make problem tractable:

1: Estimate some functional $f(p)$ instead

e.g., information-theoretic quantities (Paninski, 2003)

2: Select stimuli as efficiently as possible (Machens, 2002; Paninski, 2005; Lewi et al., 2006)

3: Fit a model with small number of parameters

Neural encoding models

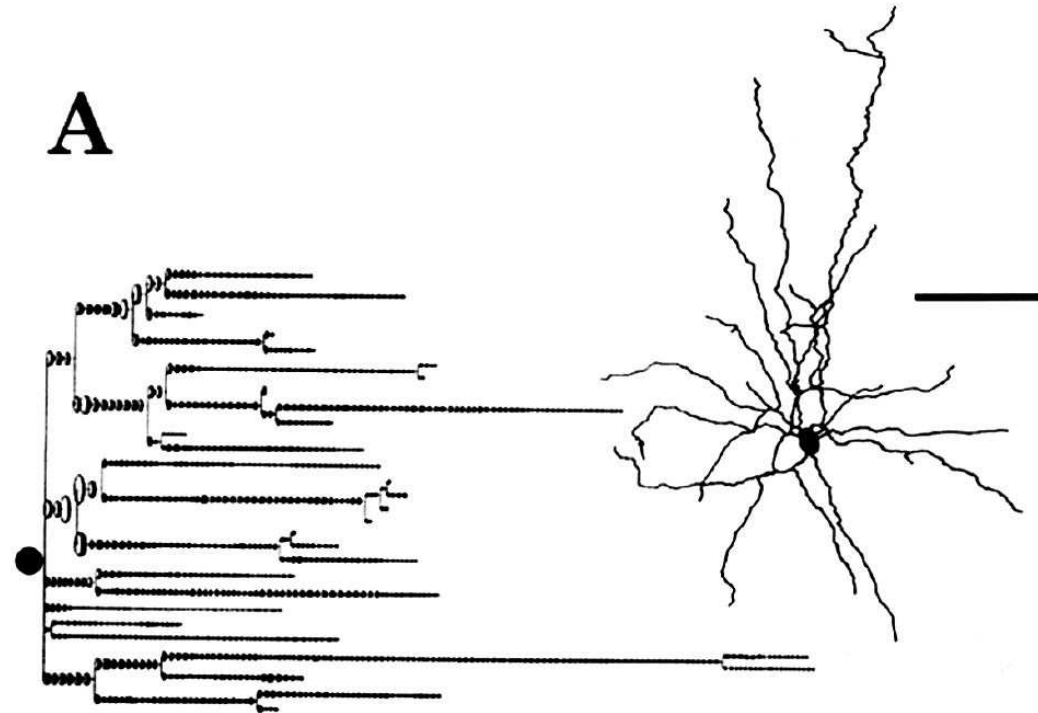
“Encoding model”: $p_{\theta}(y|x)$.

— Fit parameter θ instead of full $p(y|x)$

Main theme: want model to be flexible but not overly so

Flexibility vs. “fittability”

Multiparameter HH-type model



Regional Conductances (mS/cm²)

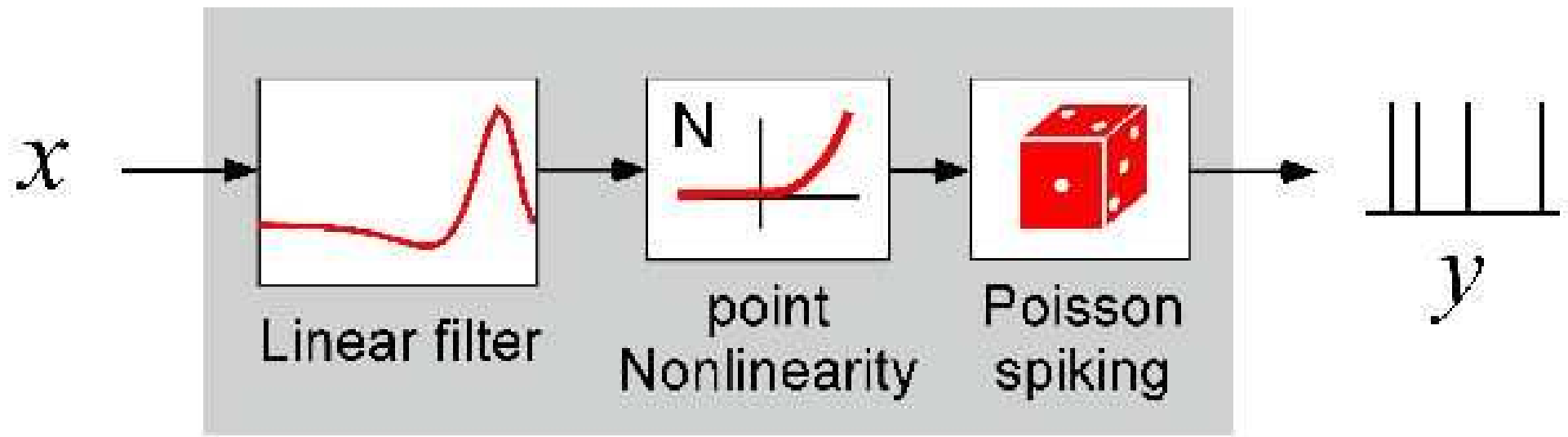
Model	Current	Dendrites	Soma	AH	NR	Axon
EC2.5 REAL	I_{Ca}	2.0	1.5	1.5	—	—
$j = 1$	$I_{K,Ca}$	0.001	0.065	0.065	0.065	0.065
SD* (real) = 21.9 μm	I_{Na}	25	80	100–150†	100	40–70‡
SD (EC2.5) = 20 μm	I_K	12	18	18	18	12–18‡
$\tau_{Ca} = 1.5$	I_A	36	54	54	54	—
$E_L = -60$ mV	Leak (Real)	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008	0.008
$E_{Na} = 35$ mV	(EC2.5)	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005

— highly biophysically plausible, flexible

— **but** very difficult to estimate parameters given spike times alone

(figure adapted from (Fohlmeister and Miller, 1997))

Cascade (“LNP”) model



— easy to estimate via correlation-based methods
(Simoncelli et al., 2004)

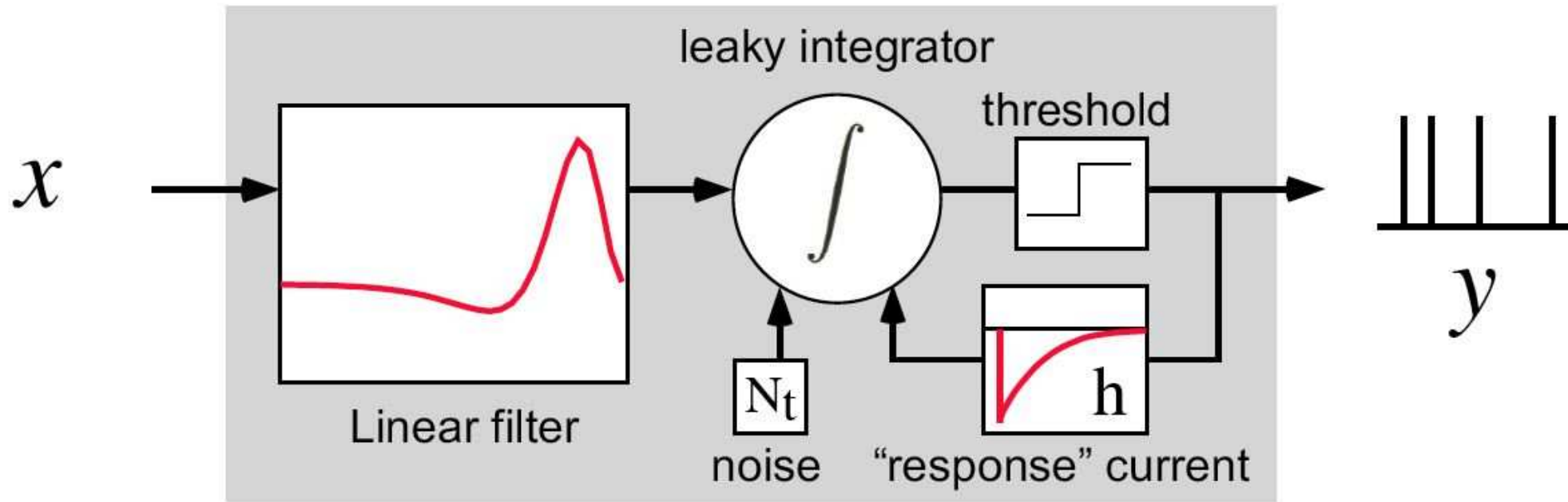
— **but** not biophysically plausible (fails to capture spike timing details: refractoriness, burstiness, adaptation, etc.)

Two key ideas

1. Use likelihood-based methods for fitting.
 - well-justified statistically
 - easy to incorporate prior knowledge, explicit noise models, etc.
2. Use models that are easy to fit via maximum likelihood
 - **concave** (downward-curving) functions have no non-global local maxima \implies concave functions are easy to maximize by gradient ascent.

Recurring theme: find flexible models whose loglikelihoods are guaranteed to be concave.

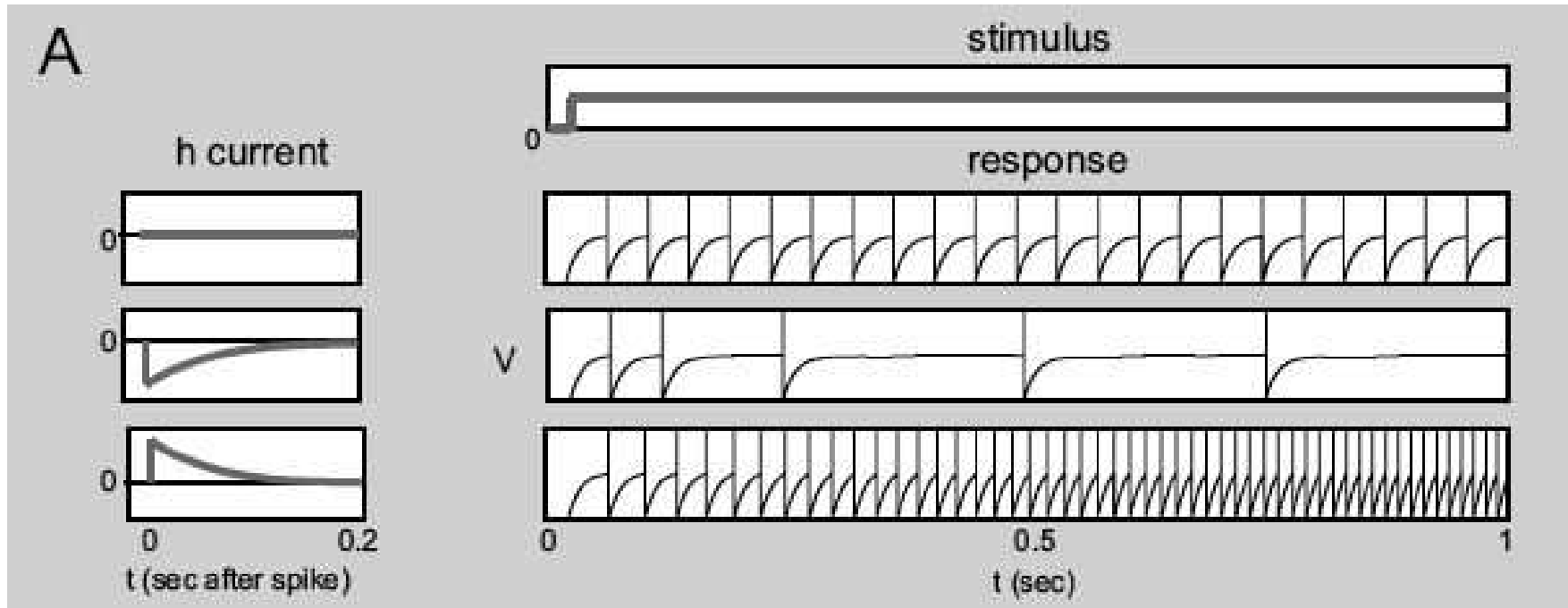
Filtered integrate-and-fire model



$$dV(t) = \left(-g(t)V(t) + I_{DC} + \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}(t) + \sum_{j=-\infty}^0 h(t - t_j) \right) dt + \sigma dN_t;$$

(Paninski et al., 2004b)

Model flexibility: Adaptation



The estimation problem

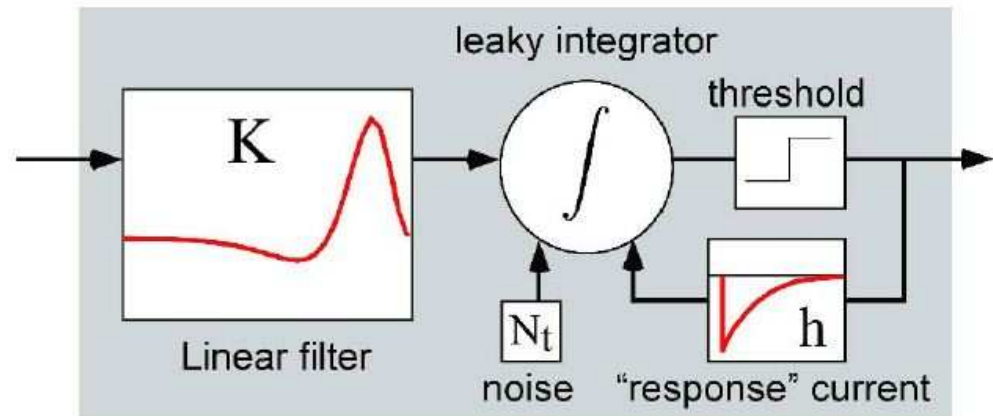
Learn the model parameters:

\vec{K} = stimulus filter

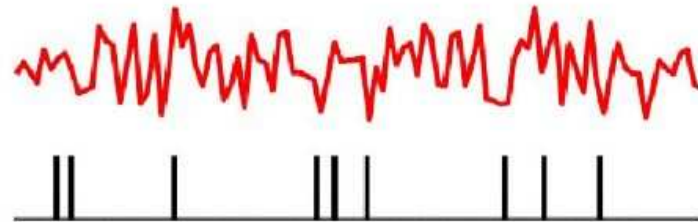
g = leak conductance

σ^2 = noise variance

\vec{h} = response current

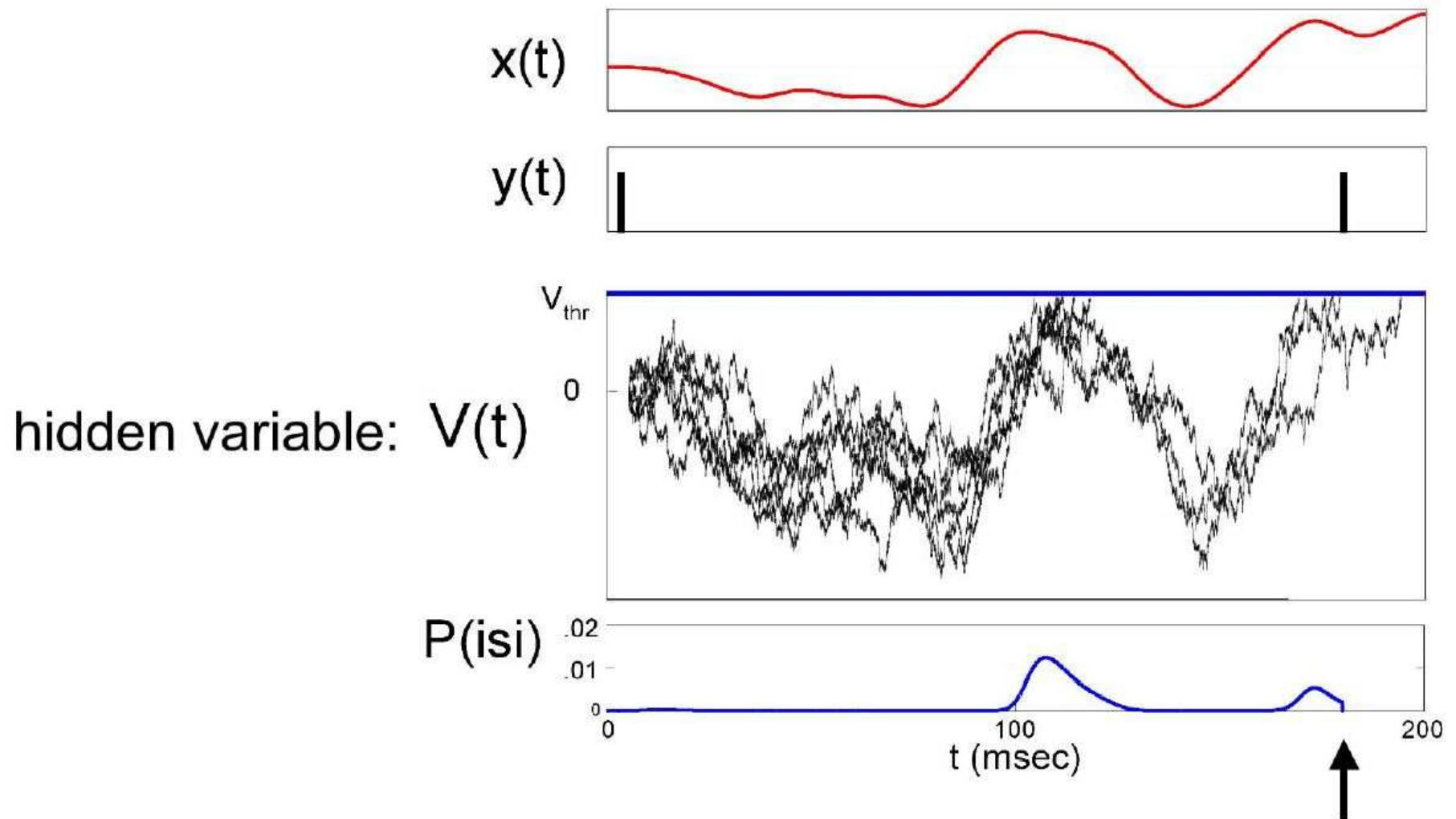


From: stimulus train $x(t)$
spike times t_i



(Paninski et al., 2004b)

First passage time likelihood



$P(\text{spike at } t_i) = \text{fraction of paths crossing threshold for first time at } t_i$
(via Fokker-Planck, integral equation, or EM; (Paninski et al., 2004b;
Paninski et al., 2007; Nikitchenko and Paninski, 2007))

Maximizing likelihood

Maximization seems difficult, even intractable:

- high-dimensional parameter space
- likelihood is a complex nonlinear function of parameters

Main result: The loglikelihood is concave in the parameters, no matter what data $\{\vec{x}(t), t_i\}$ are observed.

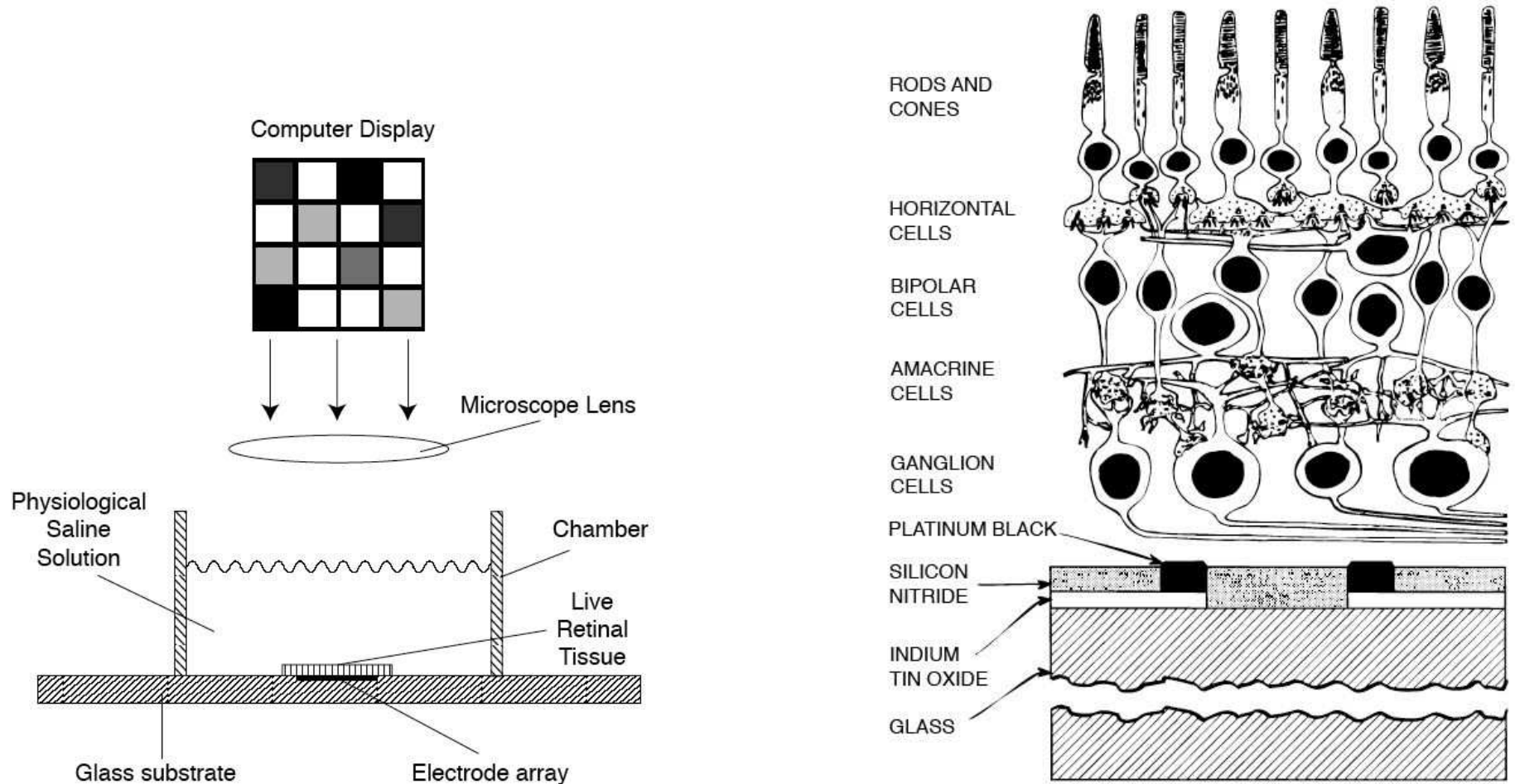
\implies no non-global local maxima

\implies maximization easy by ascent techniques.

Application: retinal ganglion cells

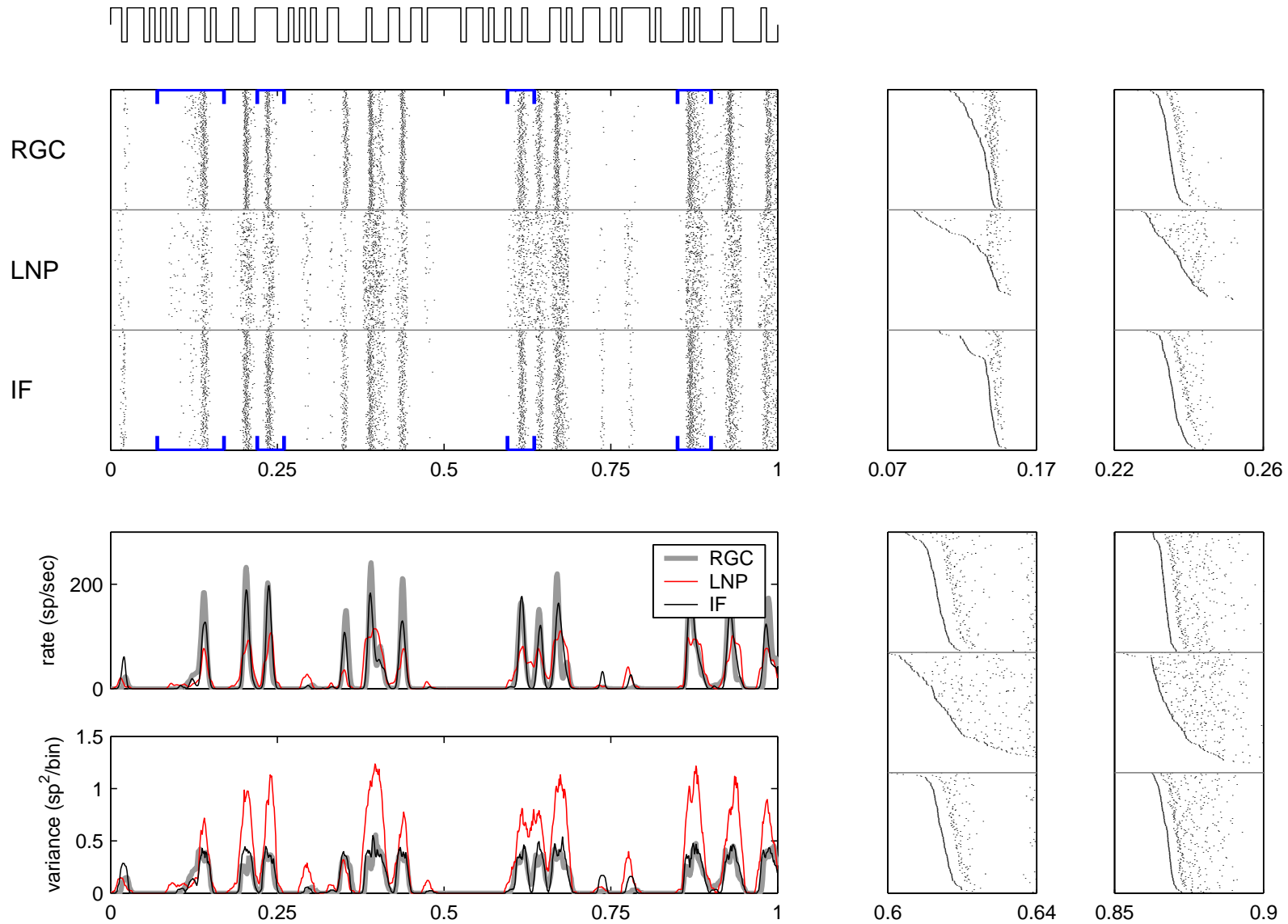
Preparation: dissociated macaque retina

— extracellularly-recorded responses of populations of RGCs



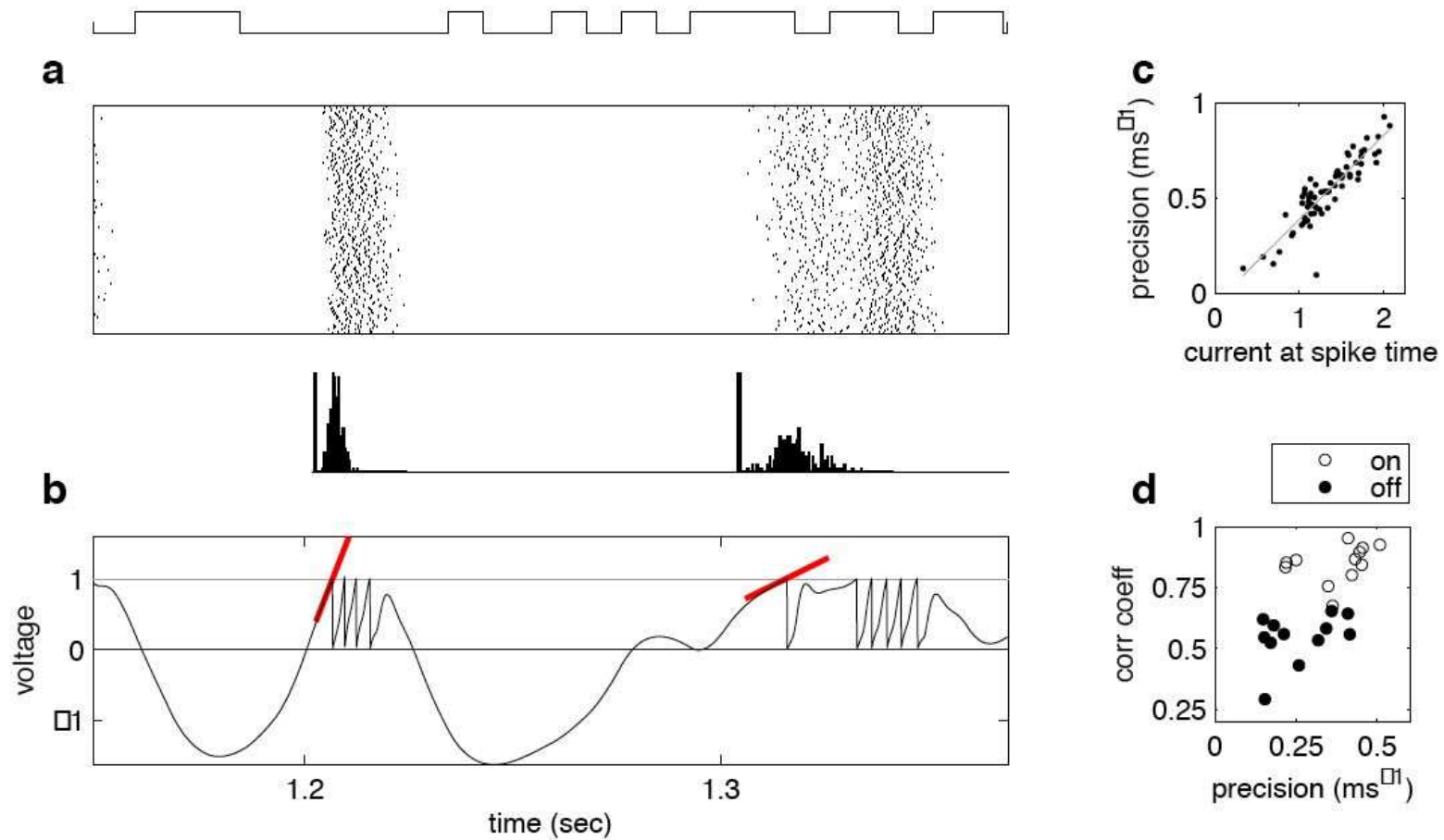
Stimulus: random “flicker” visual stimuli

Spike timing precision in retina



(Pillow et al., 2005)

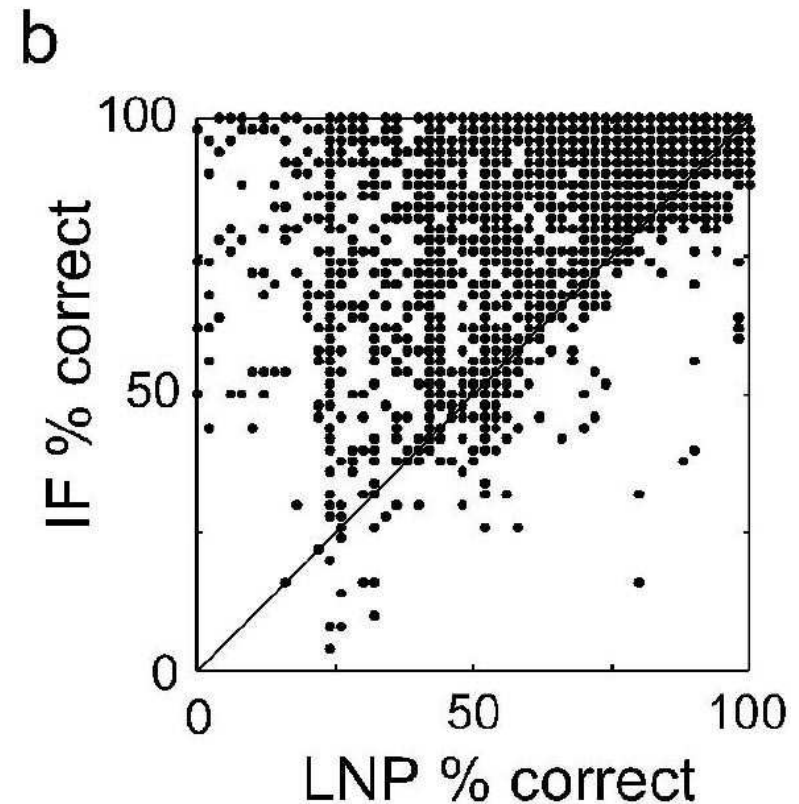
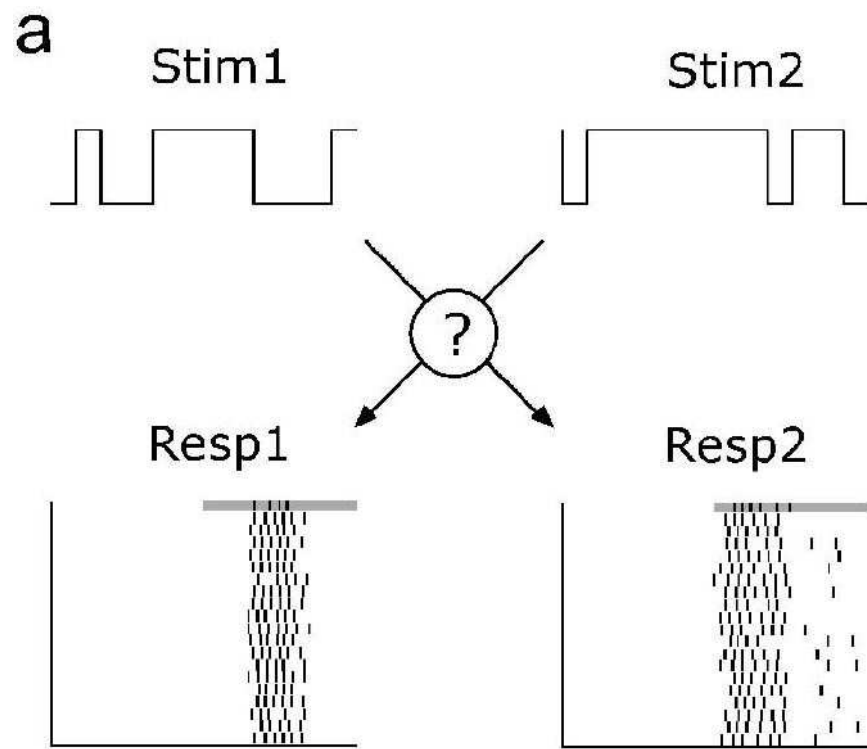
Linking spike reliability and subthreshold noise



(Pillow et al., 2005)

Likelihood-based discrimination

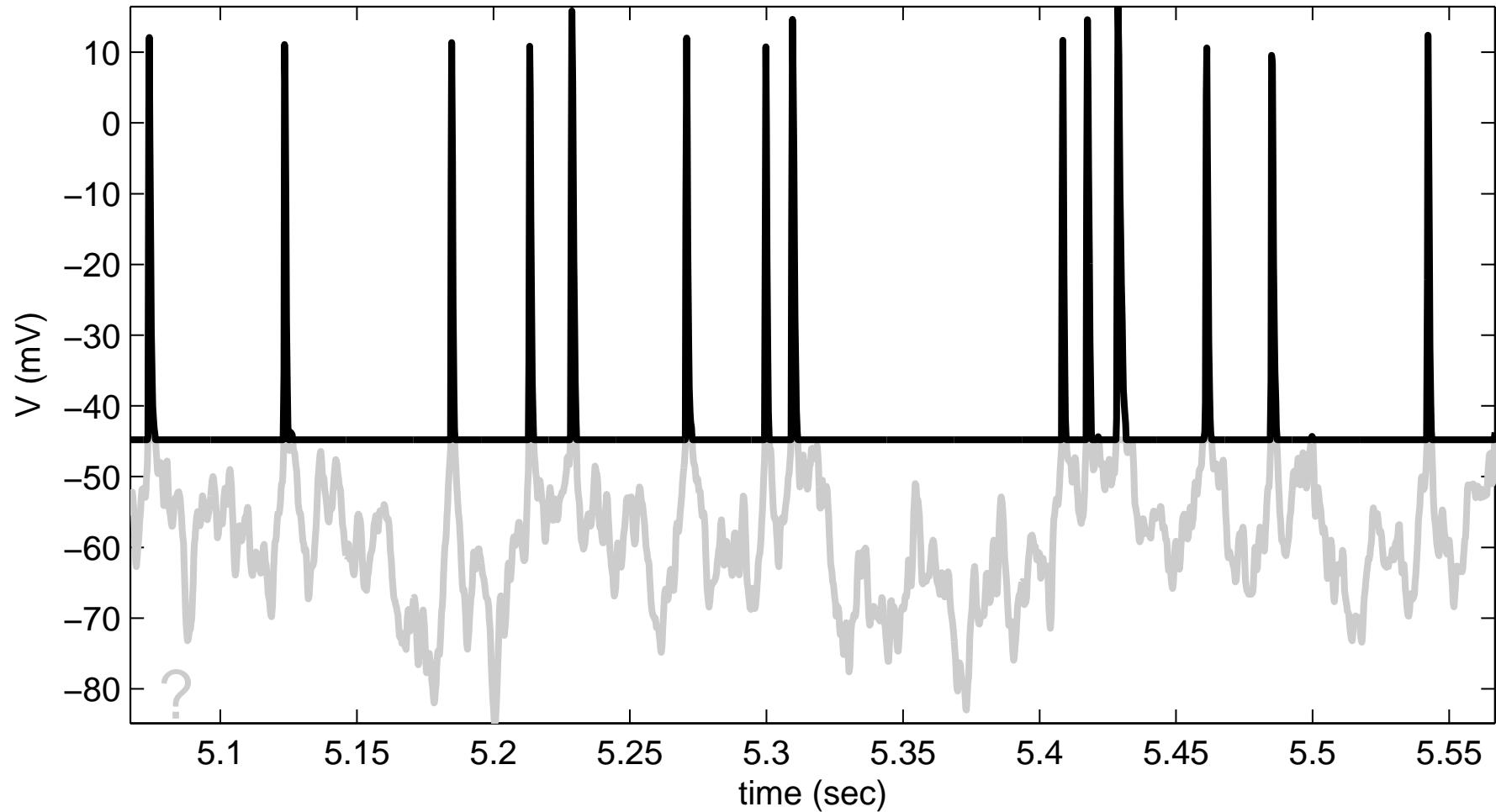
Given spike data, optimal decoder chooses stimulus \vec{x} according to likelihood: $p(\text{spikes}|\vec{x}_1)$ vs. $p(\text{spikes}|\vec{x}_2)$.



Using accurate model is essential (Pillow et al., 2005)

Example 2: decoding subthreshold activity

Given extracellular spikes, what is most likely intracellular $V(t)$?



Computing $V_{ML}(t)$

Loglikelihood of $V(t)$ (given LIF parameters, white noise N_t):

$$L(\{V(t)\}_{0 \leq t \leq T}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \int_0^T \left[\dot{V}(t) - \left(-gV(t) + I(t) \right) \right]^2 dt$$

Constraints:

- Reset at $t = 0$:

$$V(0) = V_{reset}$$

- Spike at $t = T$:

$$V(T) = V_{th}$$

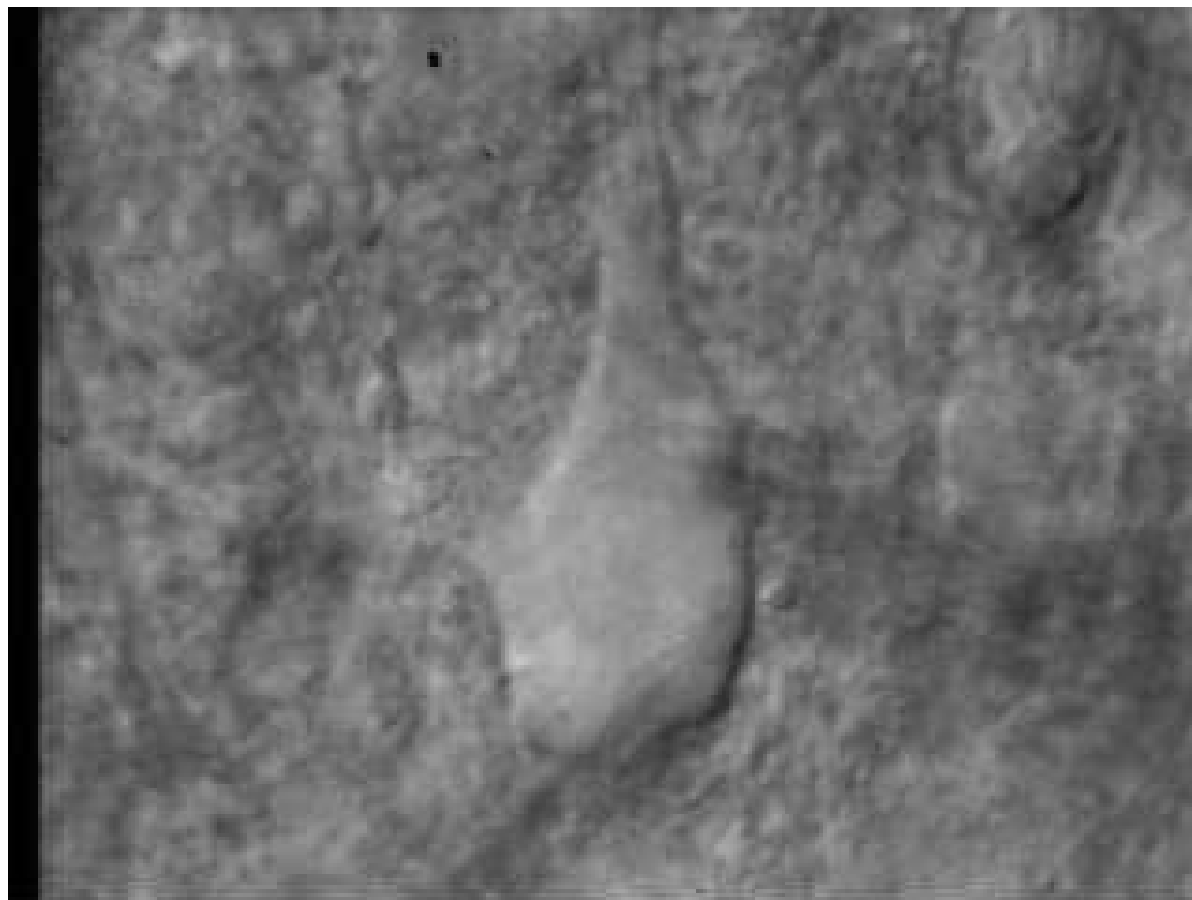
- No spike for $0 < t < T$:

$$V(t) < V_{th}$$

Quadratic programming problem: optimize quadratic function under linear constraints. **Concave**: unique global optimum.

Application: *in vitro* data

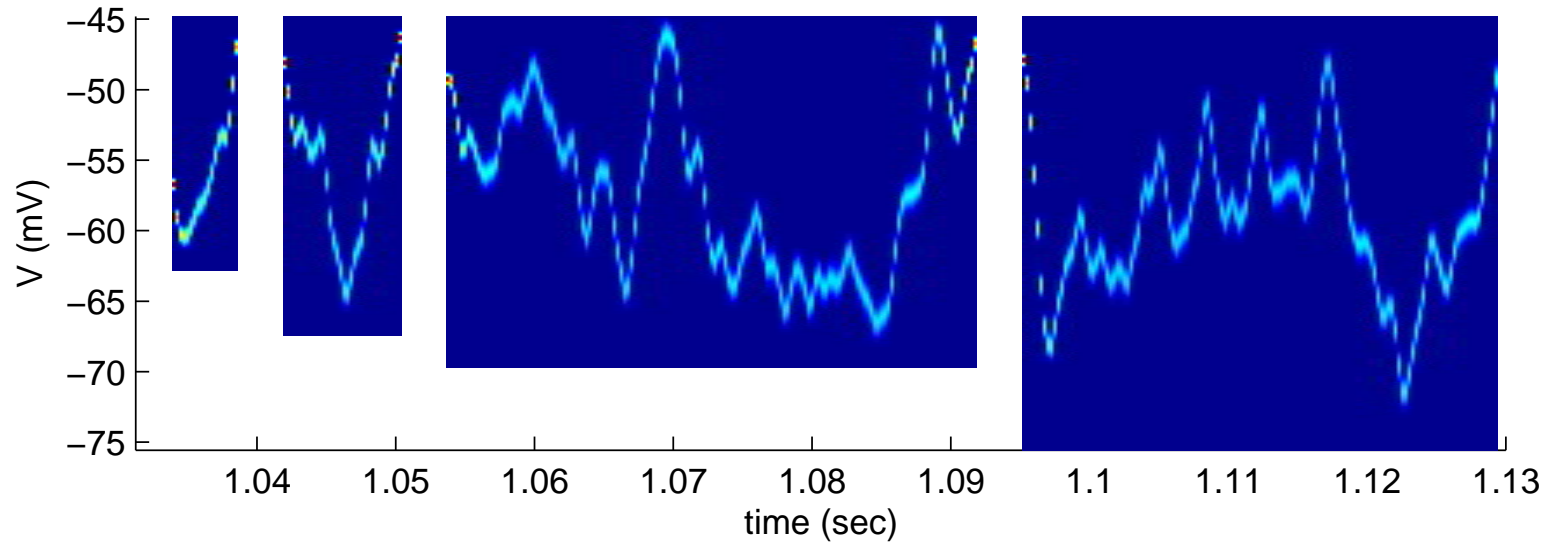
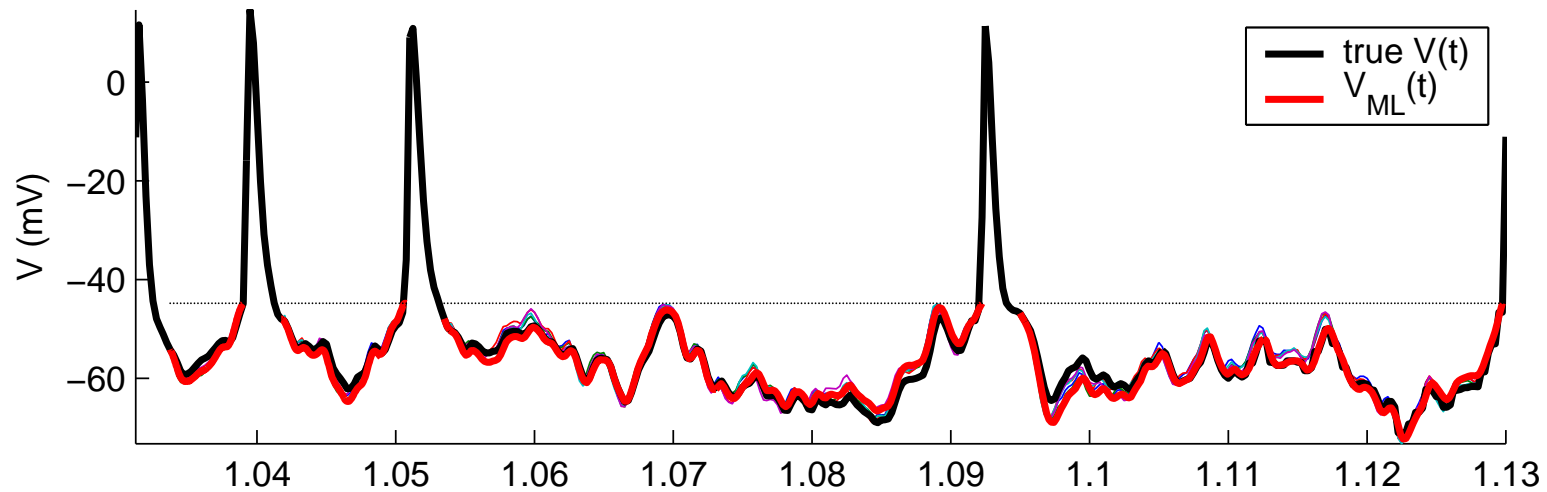
Recordings: rat sensorimotor cortical slice; dual-electrode whole-cell



Stimulus: Gaussian white noise current $I(t)$

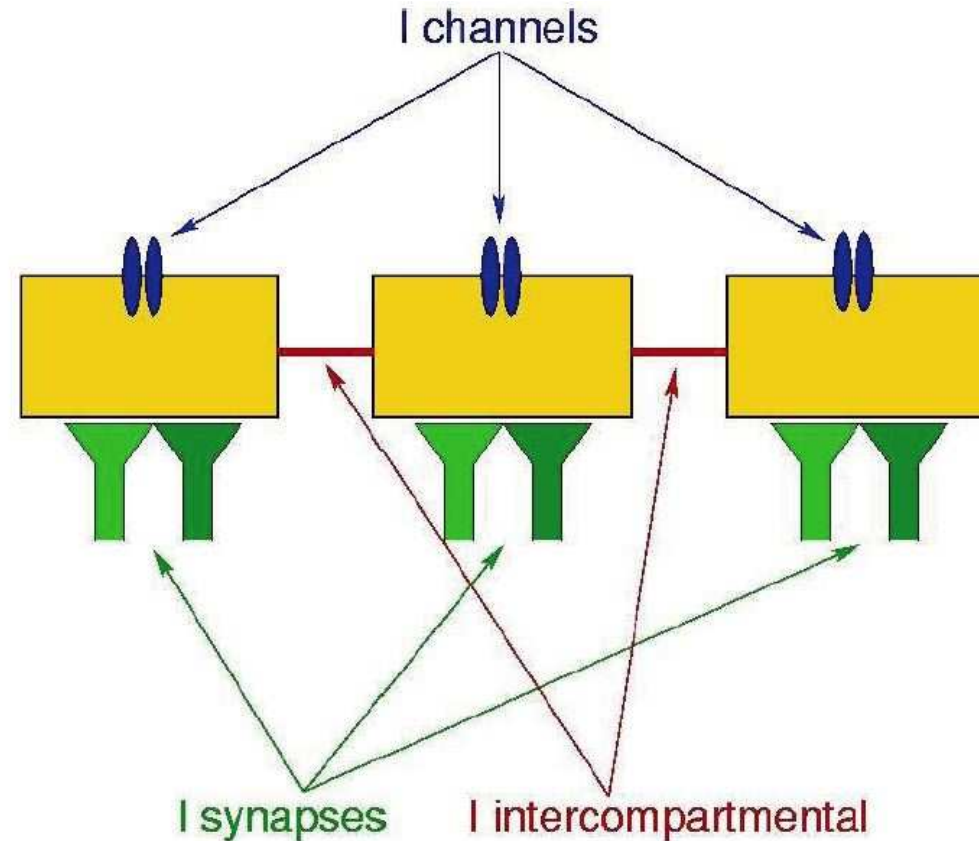
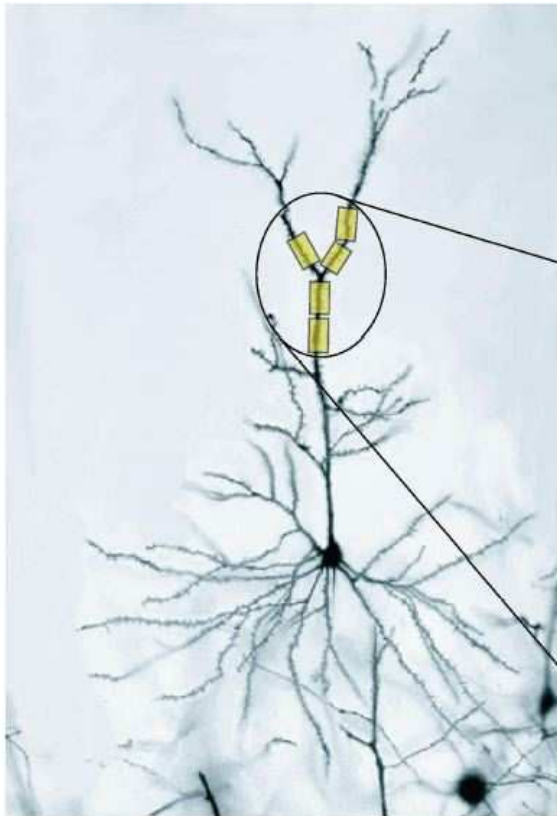
Analysis: fit IF model parameters $\{g, \vec{k}, h(\cdot), V_{th}, \sigma\}$ by maximum likelihood (Paninski et al., 2003; Paninski et al., 2004a), then compute $V_{ML}(t)$

Application: *in vitro* data



(Applications to spike-triggered average (Paninski, 2006a; Paninski, 2006b).)

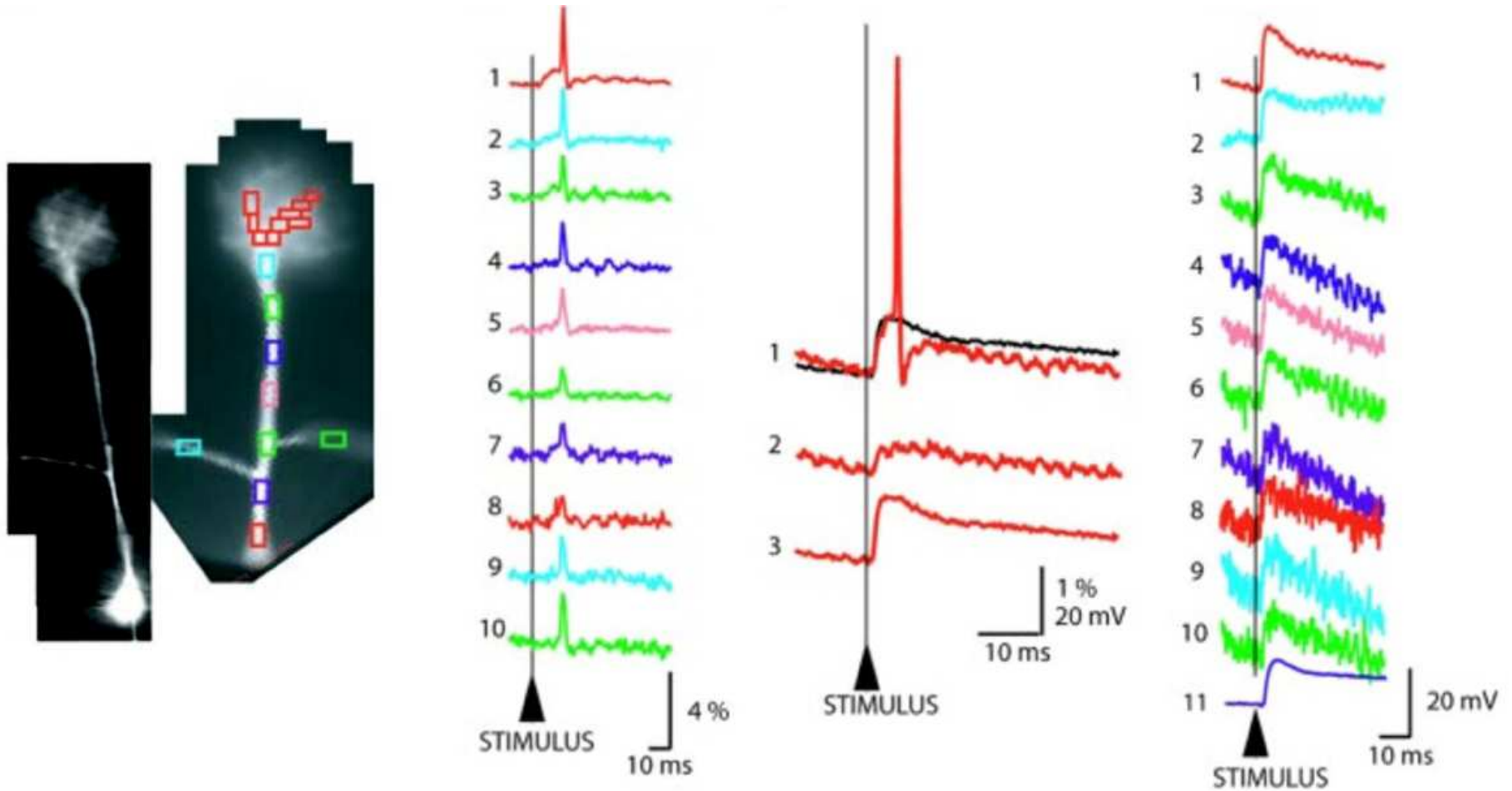
Part 3: Back to detailed models



Can we recover detailed biophysical properties?

- Active: membrane channel densities
- Passive: axial resistances, “leakiness” of membranes
- Dynamic: spatiotemporal synaptic input

Spatiotemporal voltage recordings



Djurisic et al, 2004

Conductance-based models

$$C \frac{dV_i}{dt} = I_i^{\text{channels}} + I_i^{\text{synapses}} + I_i^{\text{intercompartmental}}$$

$$I_i^{\text{channels}} = \sum_c \bar{g}_c g_c(t) (E_c - V_i(t))$$

$$I_i^{\text{synapses}} = \sum_s (\xi_s * k_s)(t) (E_s - V_i(t))$$

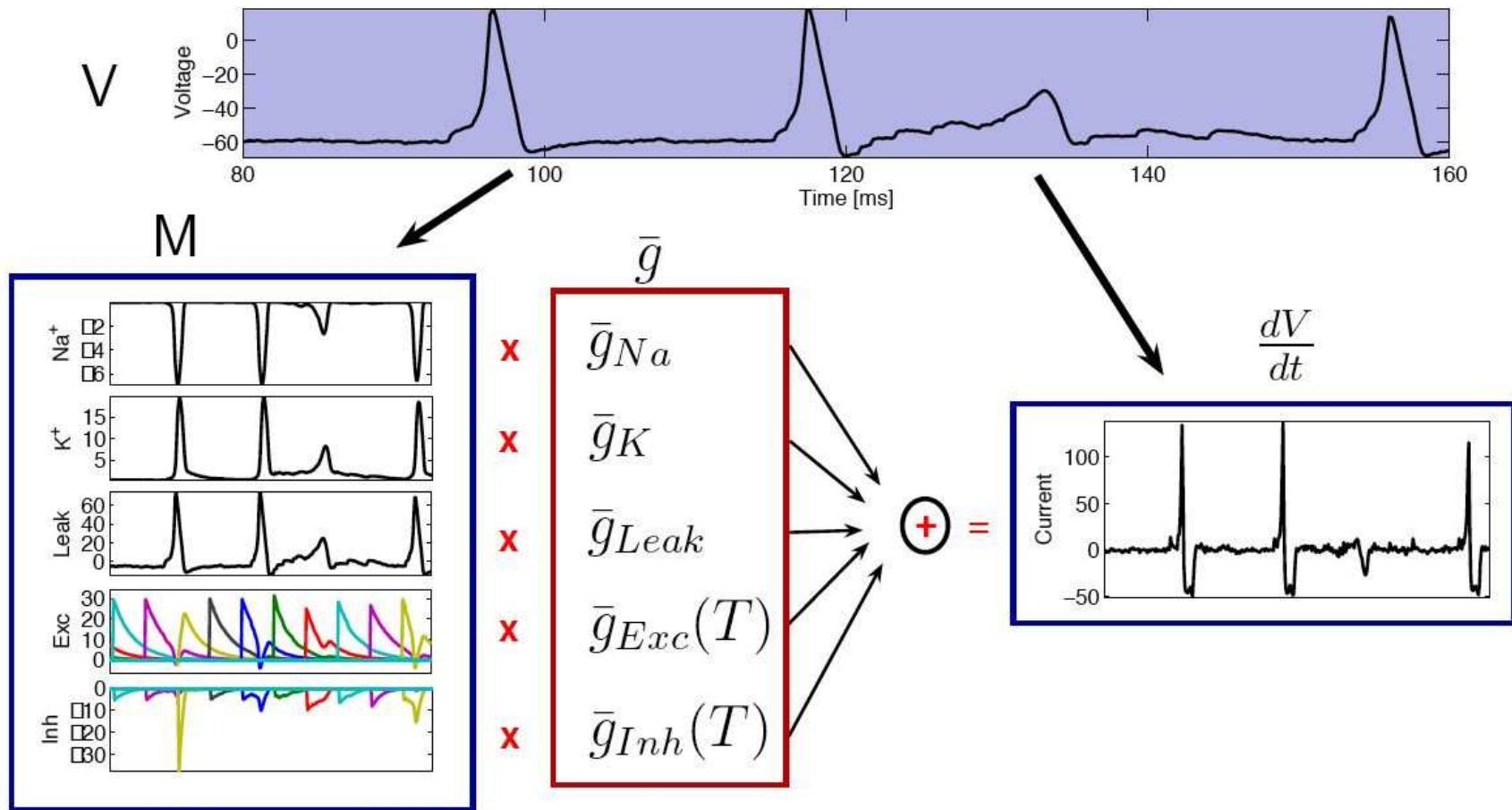
$$I_i^{\text{intercompartmental}} = \sum_a g_a \Delta V_a(t)$$

Key point: **if** we observe full $V_i(t)$ + cell geometry, channel kinetics known + current noise is log-concave,

then loglikelihood of unknown parameters is concave.

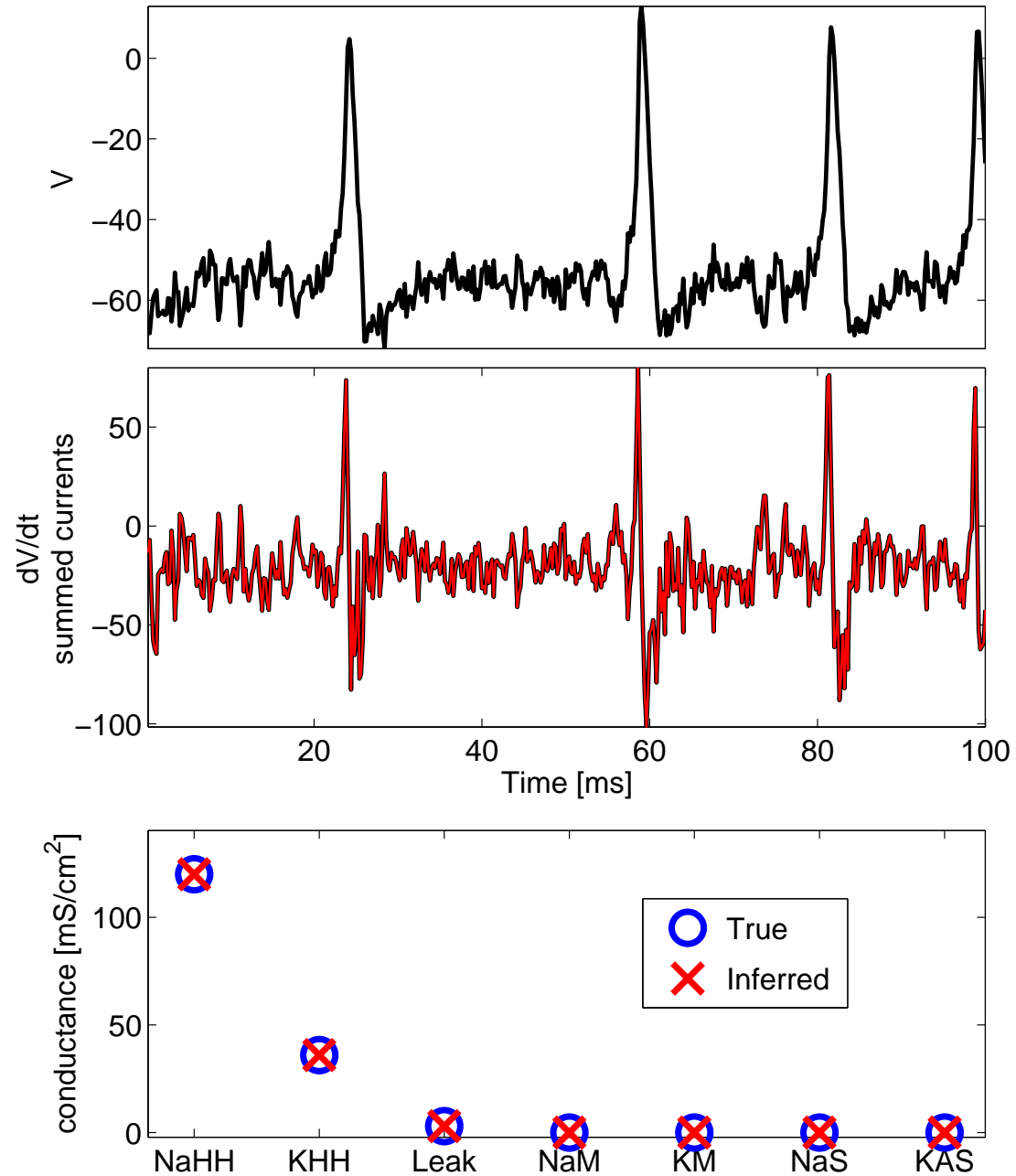
Gaussian noise \implies standard nonnegative regression (albeit high-d).

Estimating channel densities from $V(t)$



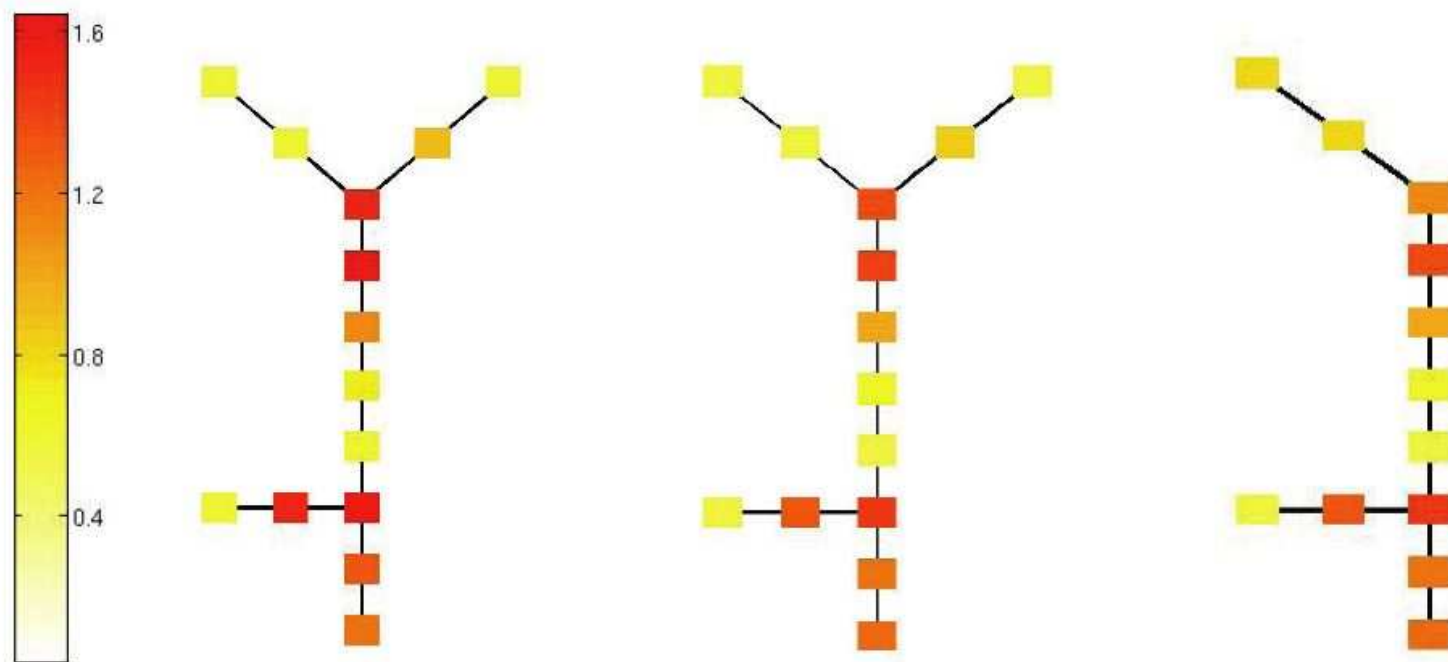
(Huys et al., 2006)

Estimating channel densities from $V(t)$



Estimating non-homogeneous channel densities and axial resistances from spatiotemporal voltage recordings

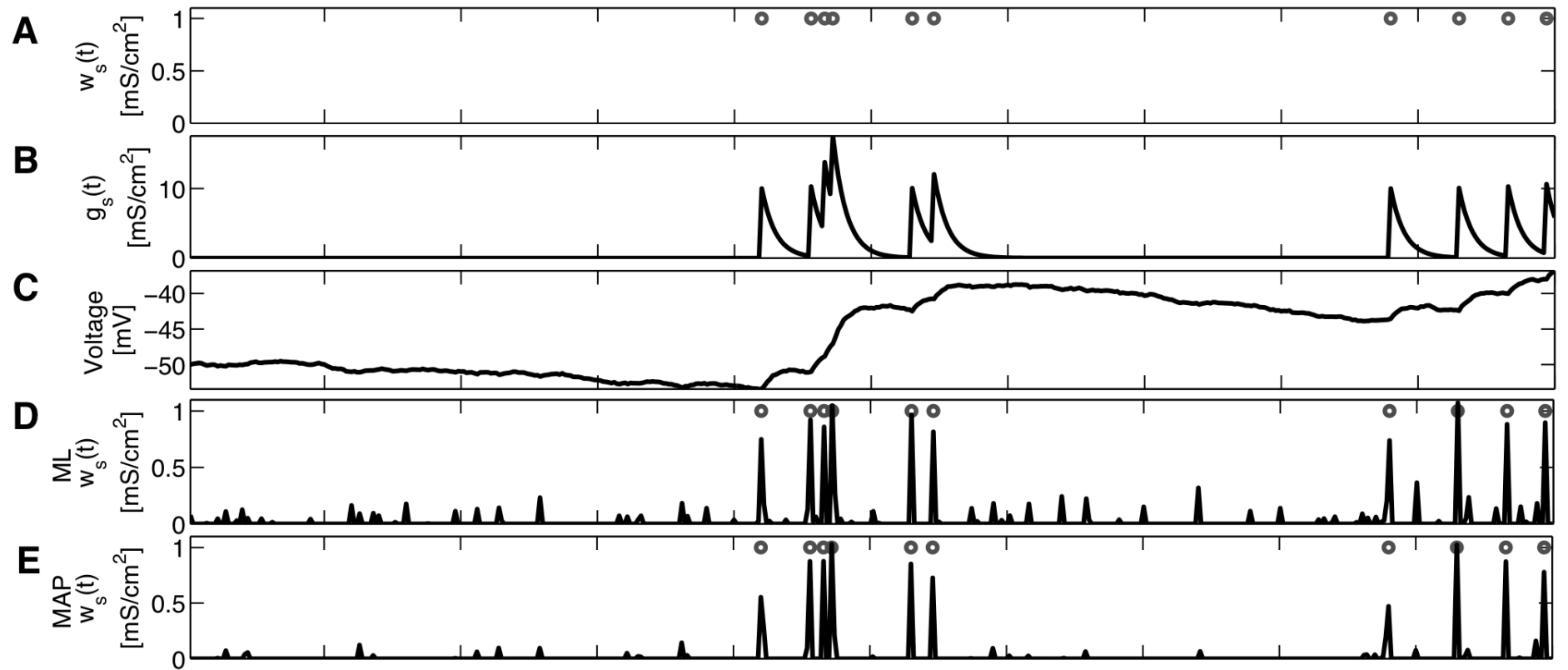
$$I_i^{\text{channels}} = \sum_c \bar{g}_c g_c(t) (E_c - V_i(t))$$



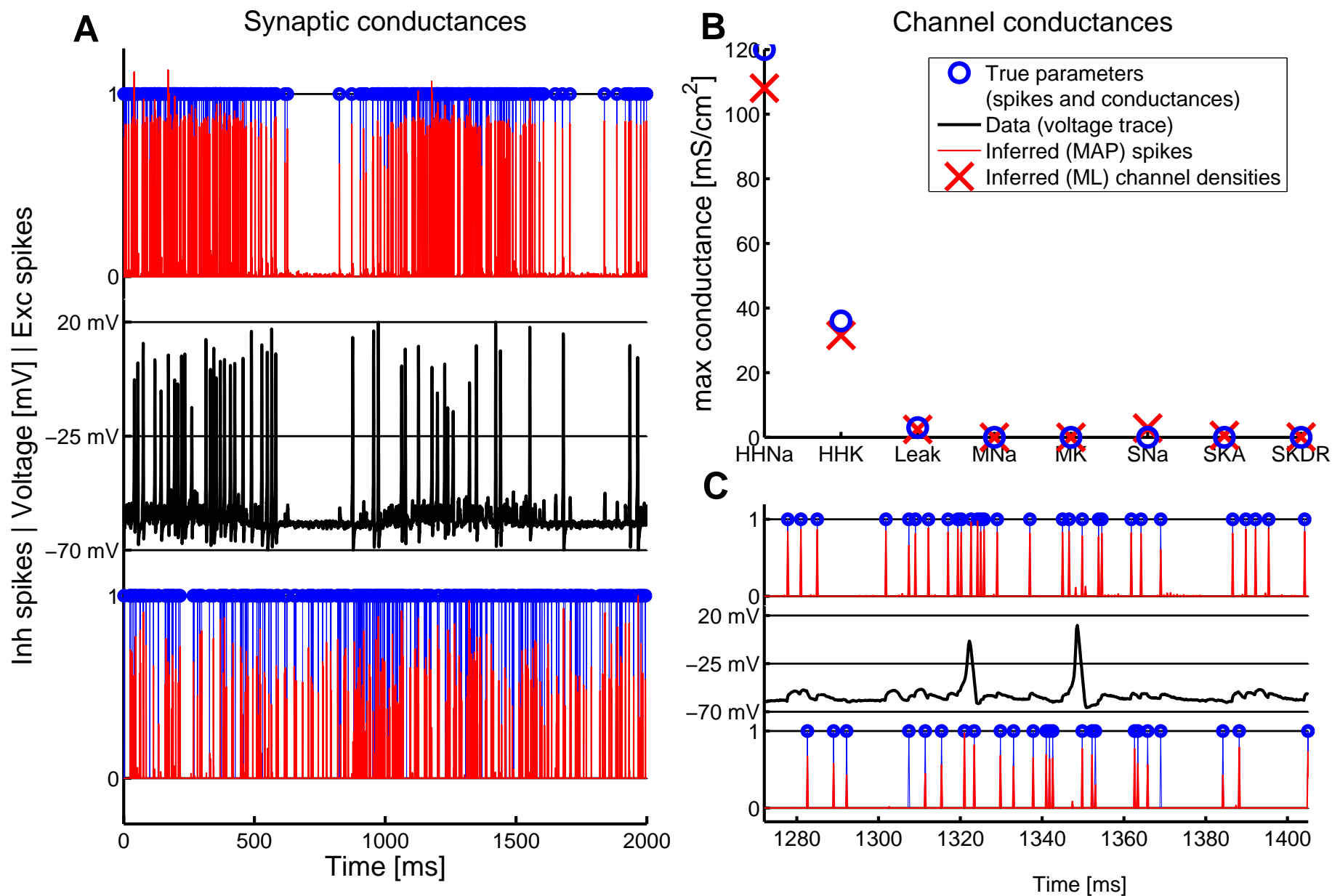
True g_{Na}

Estimated g_{Na}

Estimating synaptic inputs given $V(t)$

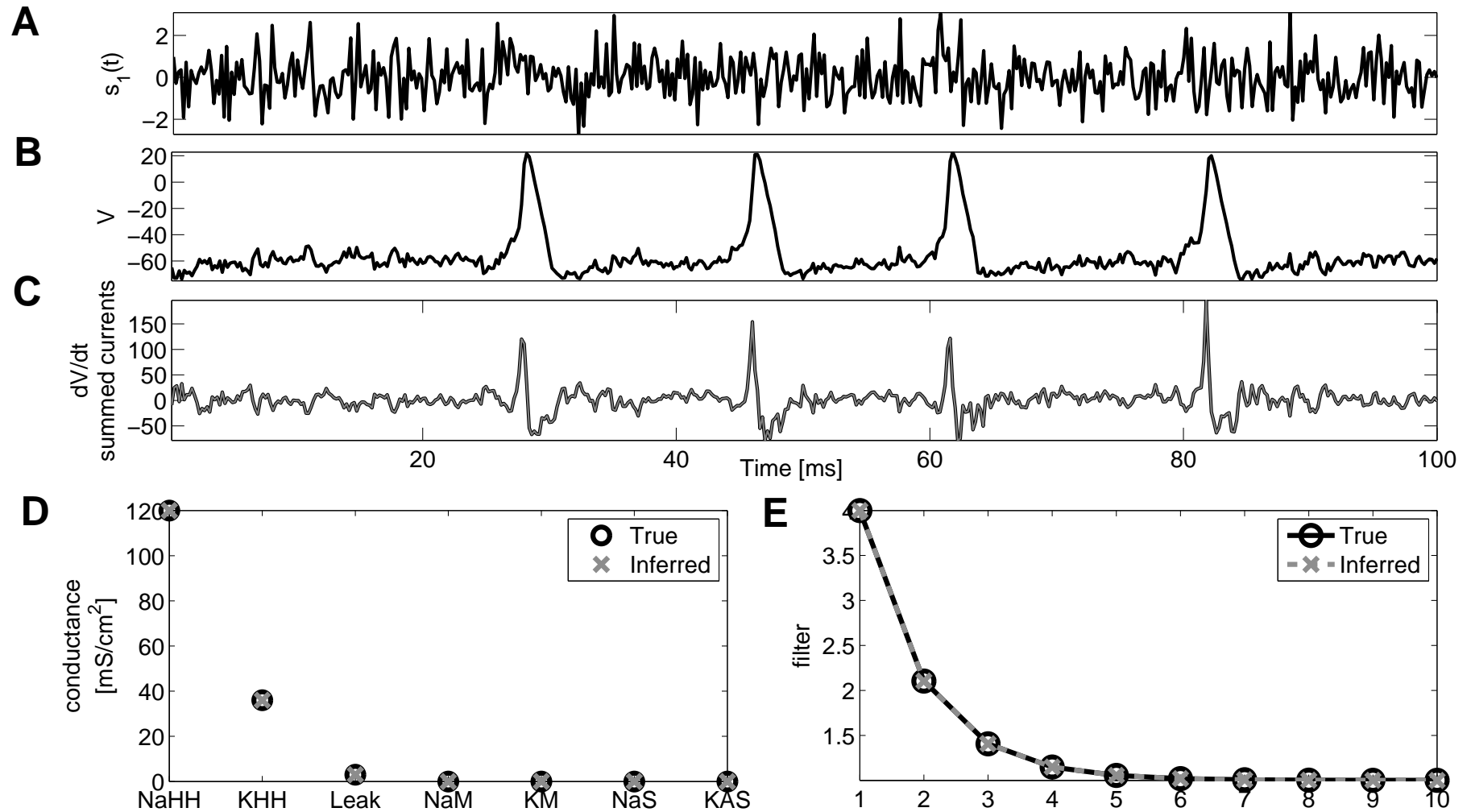


Estimating synaptic inputs given $V(t)$

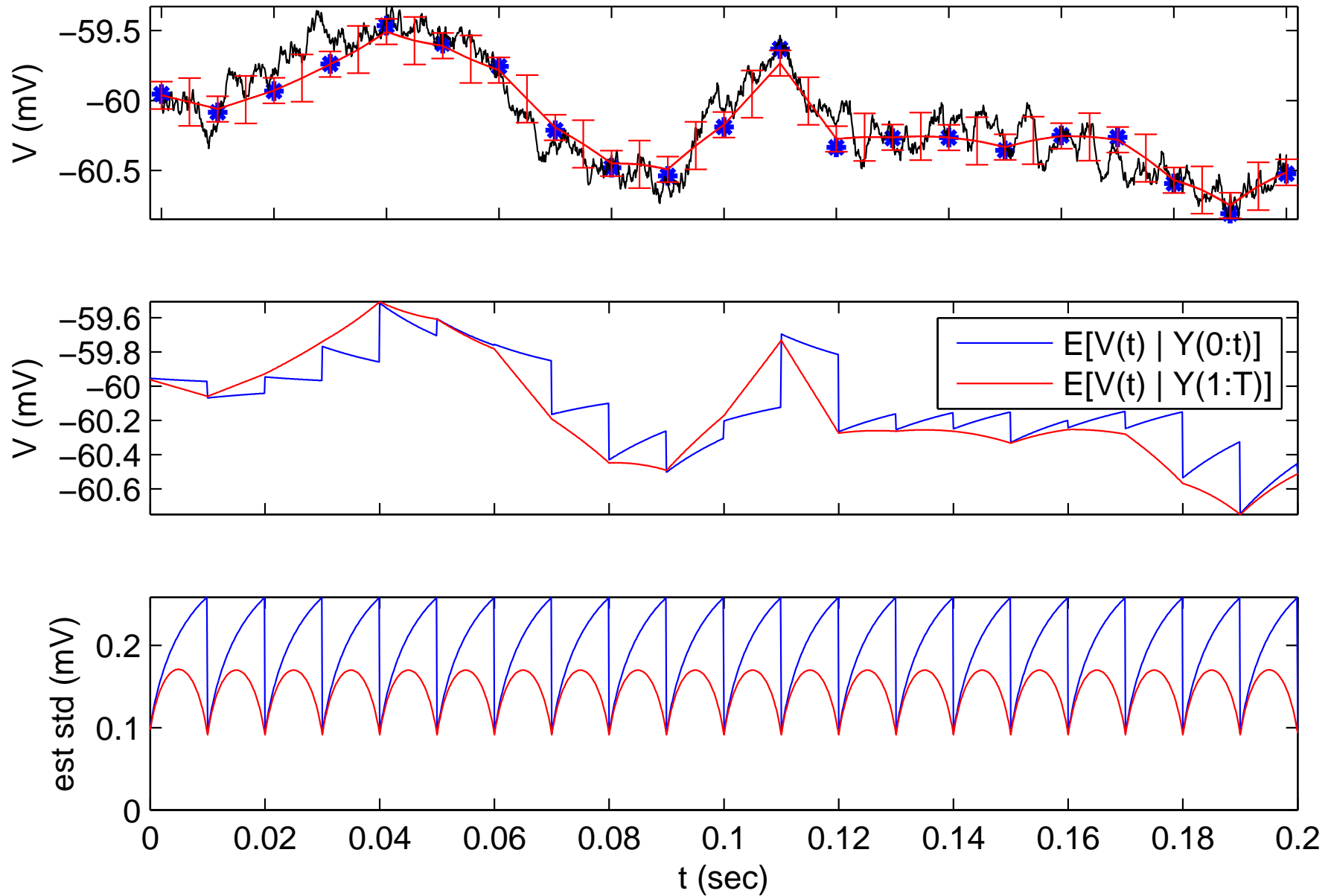


Estimating stimulus effects

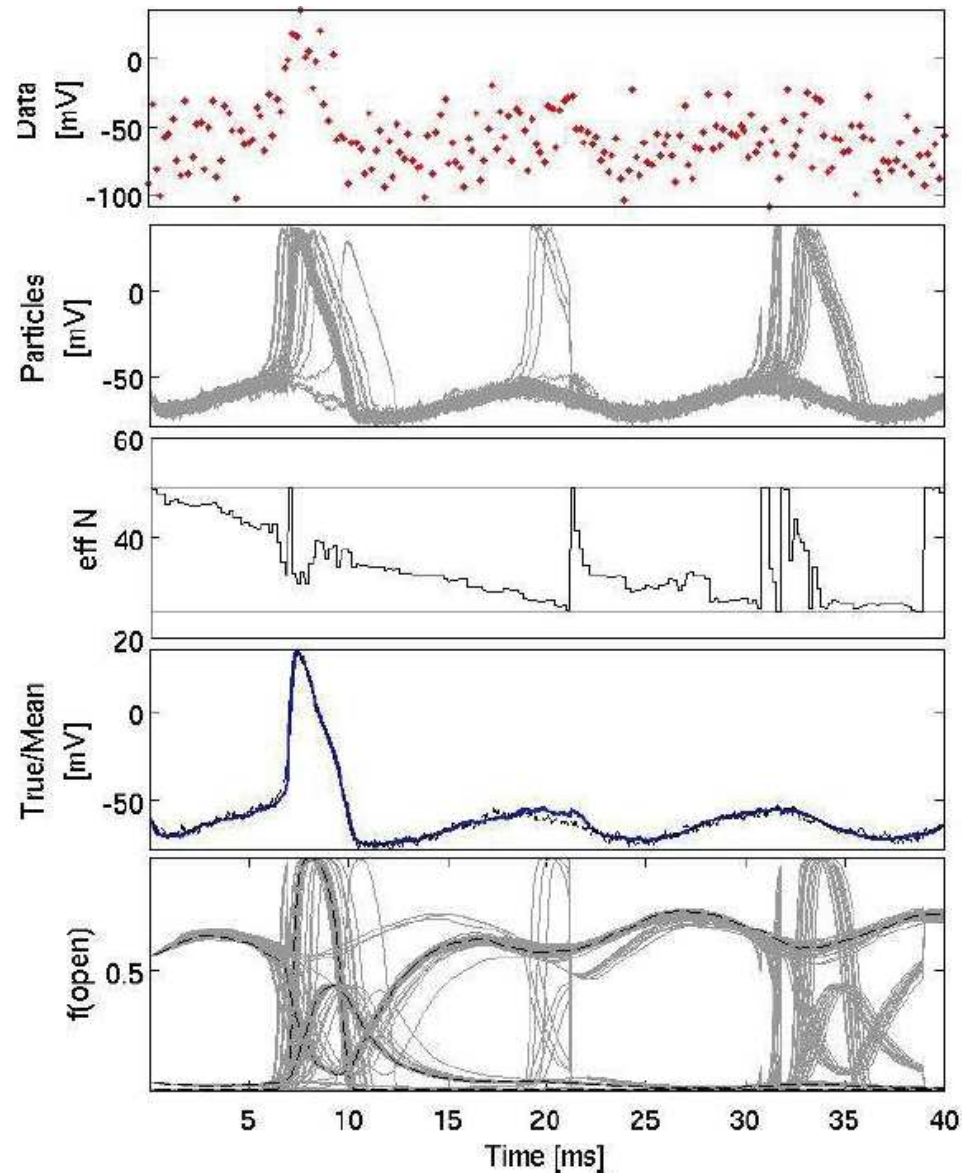
$$dV/dt = I_{channel} + \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}(t) + \sigma N_t$$



Dealing with incomplete observations: Kalman filter



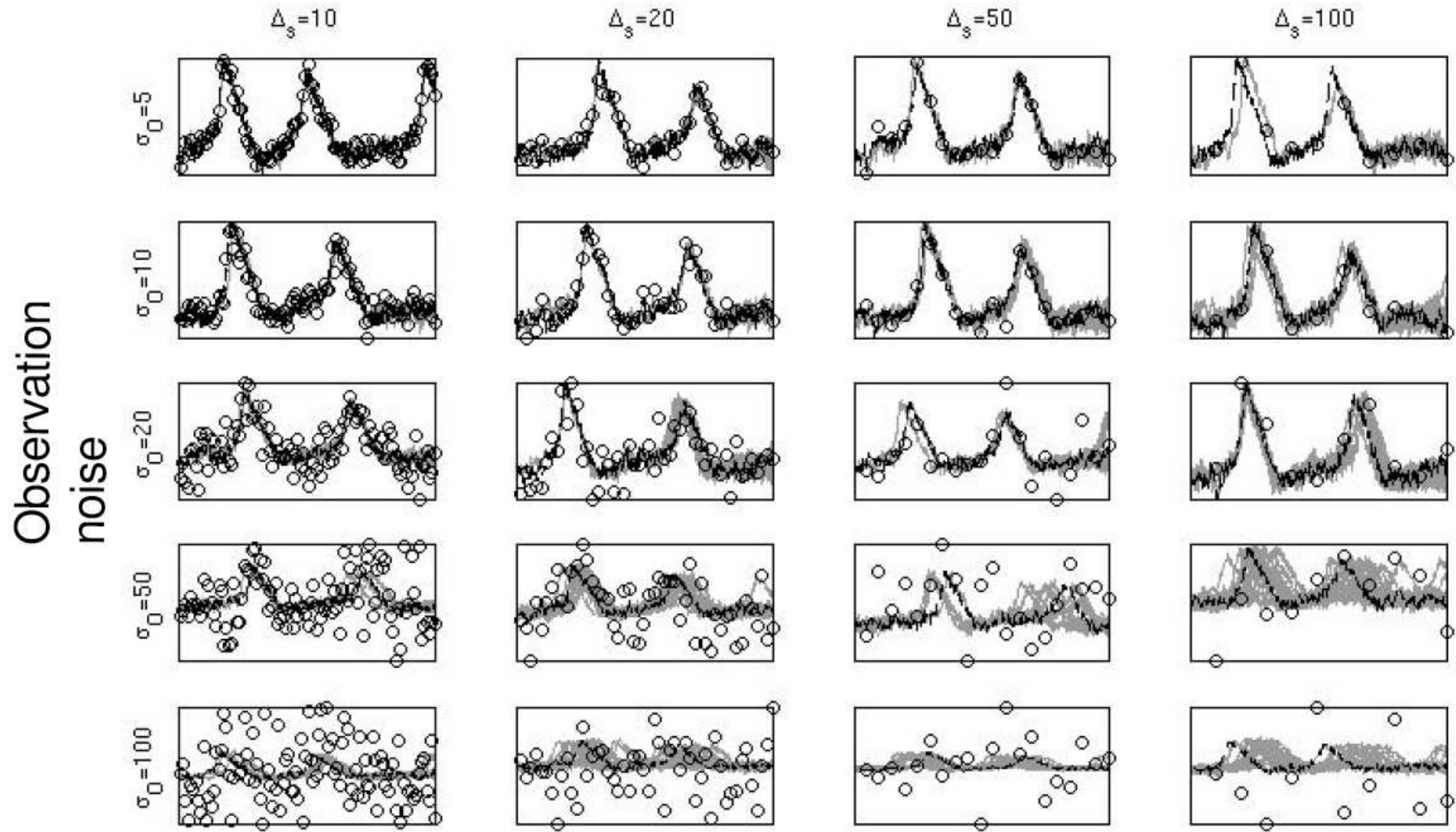
Smoothing given nonlinear dynamics



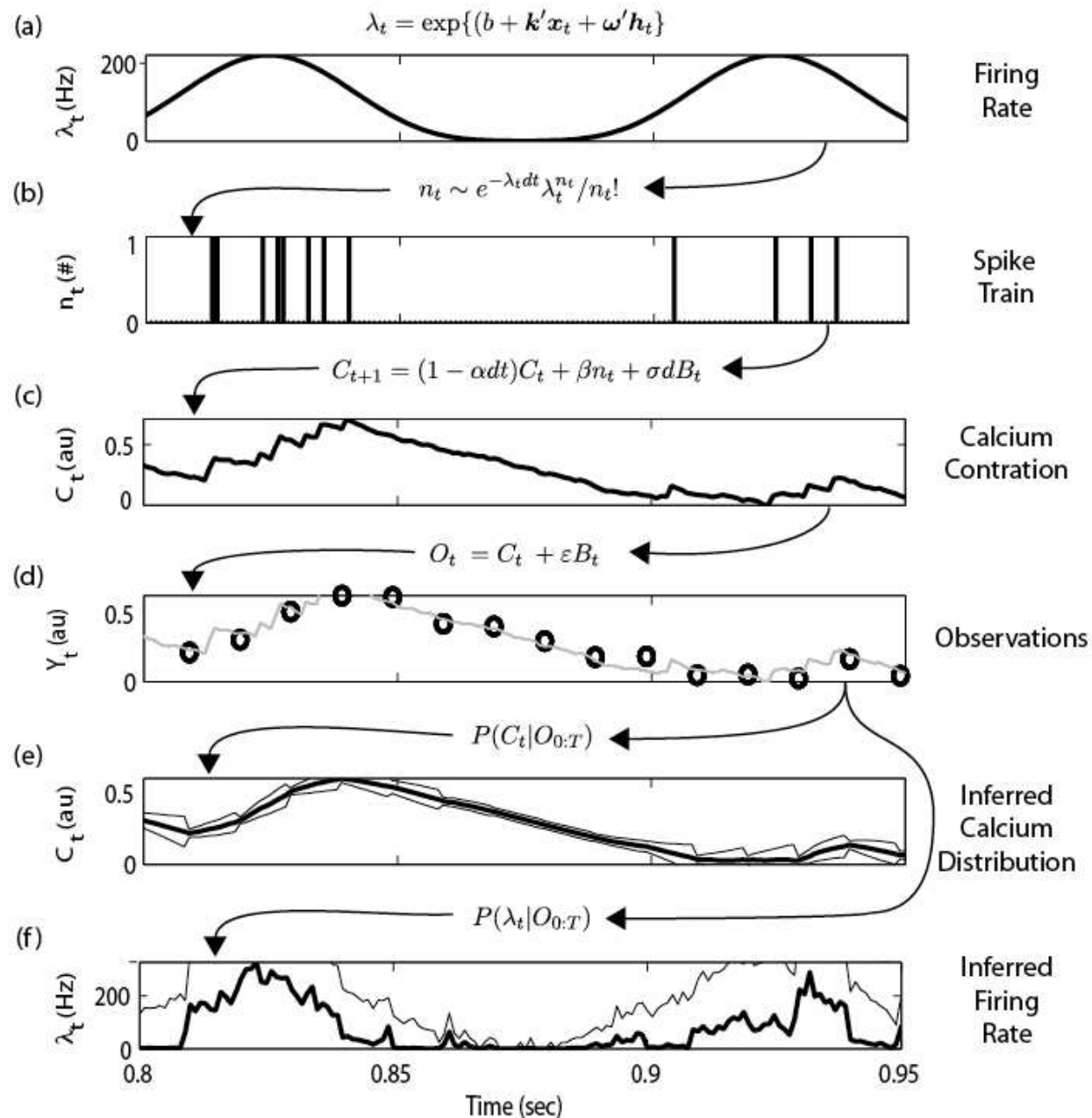
— via particle filtering (Huys and Paninski, 2006)

Subsampling and noise

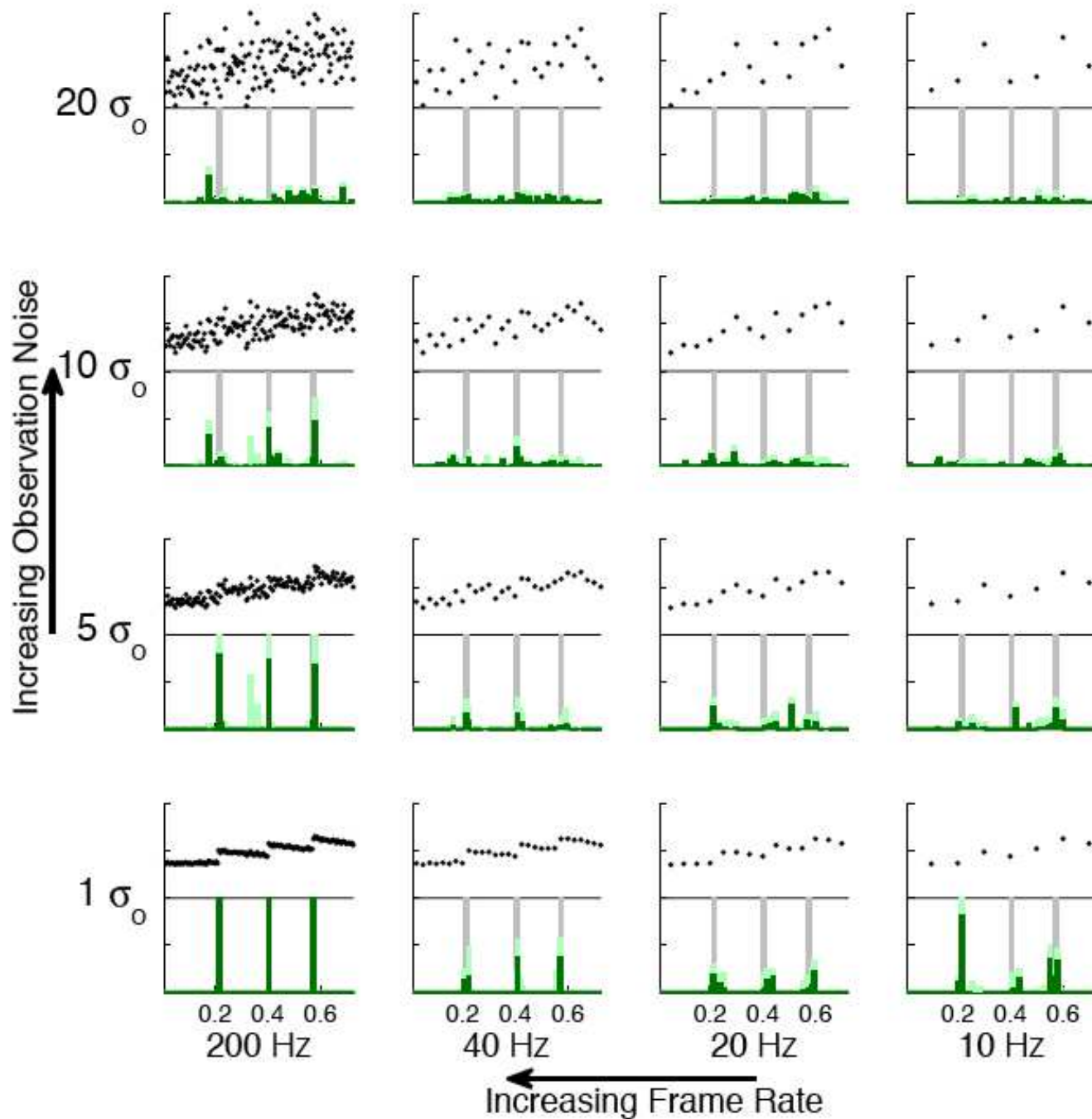
Temporal subsampling



Inferring spike rates from calcium observations



Inferring spike rates from calcium observations



Conclusions

Advantages of model-based approach:

- Flexibility of generative probabilistic framework
- Direct biophysical interpretability of estimated parameters
- Connections to statistical decoding methods, optimal experimental design (Paninski et al., 2008)
- Direct quantification of uncertainty

Next steps:

- Further applications to data
- Further relaxation of assumptions

Collaborators

Theory and numerical methods

- Y. Ahmadian, S. Escola, G. Fudenberg, Q. Huys, J. Kulkarni, M. Nikitchenko, K. Rahnama, G. Szirtes, T. Toyozumi, Columbia
- E. Simoncelli, NYU
- A. Haith, C. Williams, Edinburgh
- M. Ahrens, J. Pillow, M. Sahani, Gatsby
- J. Lewi, Georgia Tech
- J. Vogelstein, Johns Hopkins

Retinal physiology

- E.J. Chichilnisky, J. Shlens, V. Uzzell, Salk

Cortical *in vitro* physiology

- B. Lau and A. Reyes, NYU

References

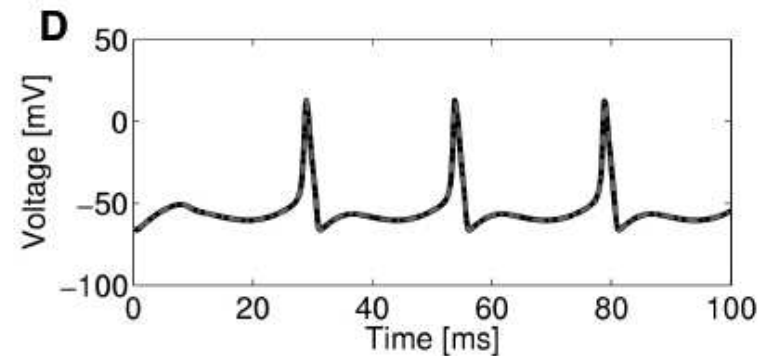
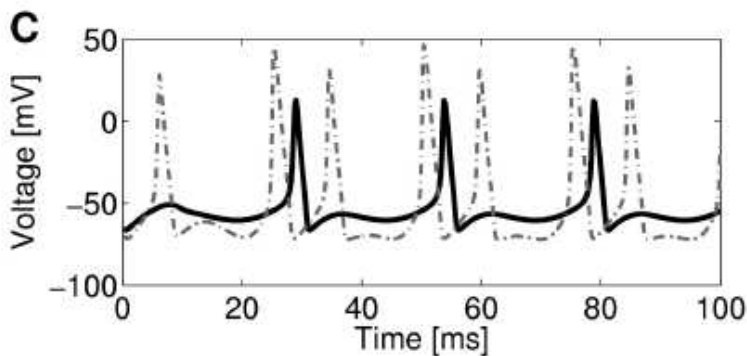
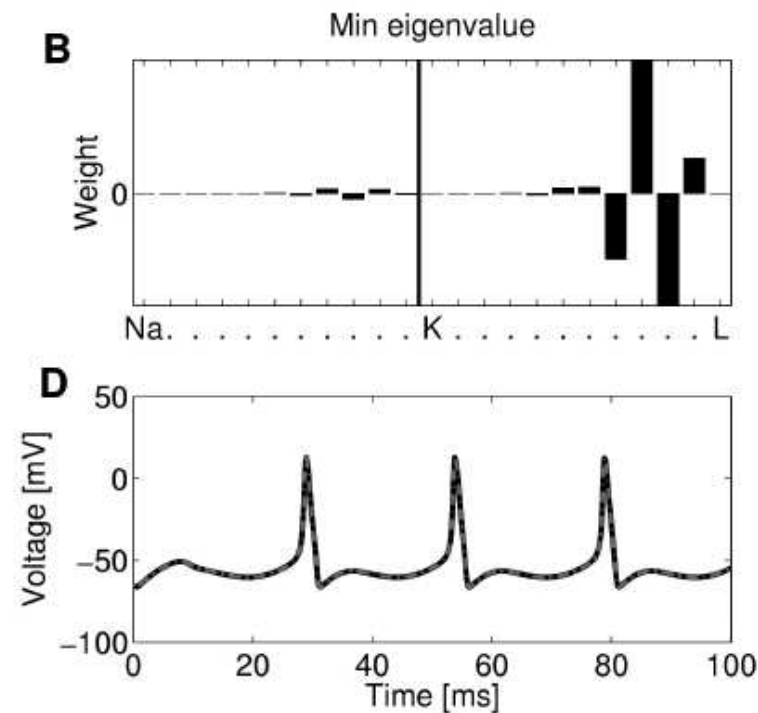
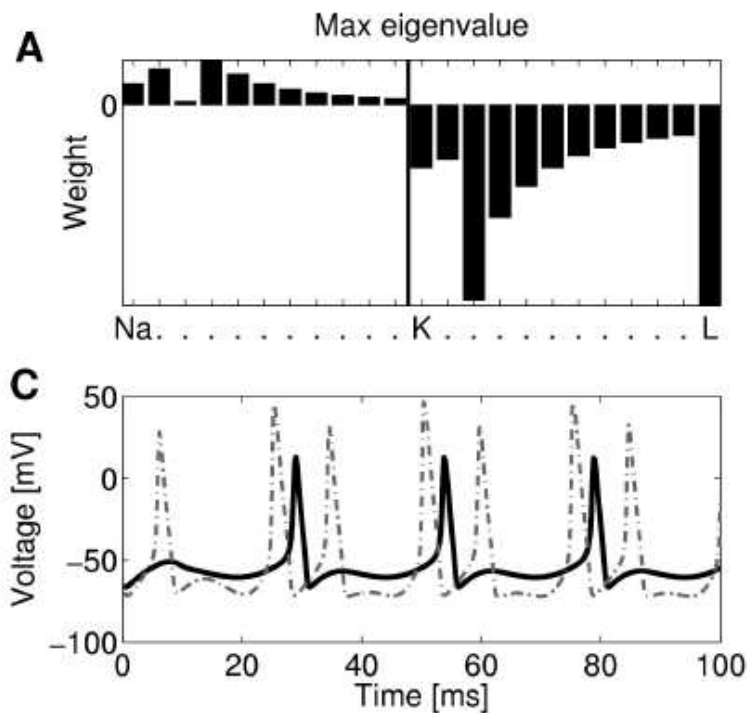
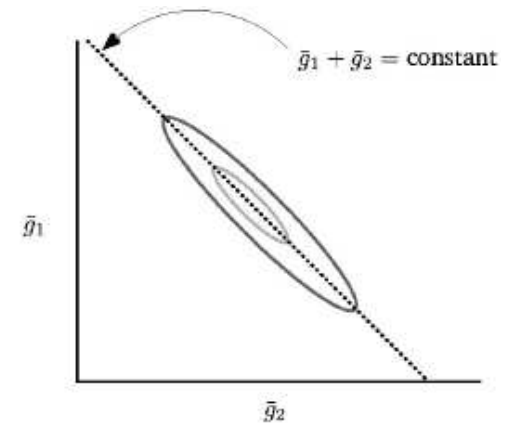
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Measuring uncertainty in channel densities

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{a}} \|\dot{\mathbf{V}} - \mathbf{J}\mathbf{a}\|^2$$

$$= \arg \min_{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{H}\mathbf{a} - 2\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{f} \quad s.t. \quad a_i \geq 0 \forall i$$



Forward equation method

Let $P(V, t)$ = density of $V(t)$.

$$\frac{\partial P(V, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial V^2} + g \frac{\partial [(V - V_{rest})P]}{\partial V}$$

under boundary conditions

$$P(V, t_{i-1}) = \delta(V - V_{reset}),$$

$$P(V_{th}, t) = 0;$$

$$V_{rest}(t) \equiv \frac{1}{g} \left(I_{DC} + \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}(t) + \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} h(t - t_j) \right).$$

Linear PDE may be solved efficiently via, e.g., Crank-Nicholson.

$$p_{t_{i-1}, V_{reset} \rightarrow V_{th}}(t_i | \{t_j\}_{j < i}, \theta, \vec{x}) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int P(V, t) dV.$$

Integral equation method

$p(t)$ solves several Volterra integral equations (via “method of images”; goes back to Schrodinger), e.g.:

$$G_{\theta}(V_{th}, t | V_{th}, V_{reset}) = \int_0^t G_{\theta}(V_{th}, t | V_{th}, s) p(s) ds$$

$G_{\theta}(y, t | x, s) =$ probability of $V(t) = y$, given $V(s) = x$
(Gaussian; analytically computable for OU process)

Discretized linear system is lower-triangular: $O((\frac{T}{dt})^2)$ solution

Can compute $\nabla p(t_i)$ w.r.t. θ via matrix perturbation: efficient maximization