### State-space methods for understanding neural computation

Liam Paninski

Department of Statistics and Center for Theoretical Neuroscience Columbia University http://www.stat.columbia.edu/~liam *liam@stat.columbia.edu* April 1, 2010

— with S. Koyama (CMU), J. Vogelstein (JHU), W. Wu (FSU), M. Ahrens (UCL), Y. Ahmadian, Q. Huys, J. Kulkarni, T. Machado, Y. Mishchenko, A. Packer, K. Rahnama Rad, M. Vidne, R. Yuste (Columbia).

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# Some exciting open challenges for statistical neuroscience

- inferring biophysical neuronal properties from noisy recordings
- reconstructing the full dendritic spatiotemporal voltage from noisy, subsampled observations
- estimating subthreshold voltage given superthreshold spike trains
- extracting spike timing from slow, noisy calcium imaging data
- reconstructing presynaptic conductance from postsynaptic voltage recordings
- inferring connectivity from large populations of spike trains
- decoding behaviorally-relevant information from spike trains
- optimal control of neural spike timing

— to solve these, we need to combine the two classical branches of computational neuroscience: dynamical systems and neural coding

### An inverse problem: inferring cable equation parameters



Can we recover detailed biophysical properties?

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

#### Estimating biophysical parameters from V(x,t)

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

$$I_{i}^{\text{channels}} = \sum_{c} \bar{g}_{c} g_{c}(t) (E_{c} - V_{i}(t))$$
$$I_{i}^{\text{synapses}} = \sum_{s} (\xi_{s} * k_{s})(t) (E_{s} - V_{i}(t))$$
$$I_{i}^{\text{intercompartmental}} = \sum_{s} g_{a} \Delta V_{a}(t)$$

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

then estimating unknown parameters is standard convex nonnegative regression problem (albeit high-d):  $\min_{\theta \ge 0} ||Y - X\theta||^2$ .

#### Estimating channel densities from V(t)



(Huys et al., 2006)

#### Estimating channel densities from V(t)



## Estimating non-homogeneous channel densities

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



True g<sub>Na</sub> Estimated g<sub>Na</sub>

### The filtering problem

Spatiotemporal imaging data is very exciting, but we have to deal with noise and intermittent observations.



(Djurisic et al., 2004; Knopfel et al., 2006)

#### Basic paradigm: the Kalman filter

Variable of interest,  $q_t$ , evolves according to a noisy differential equation (Markov process):

$$dq/dt = f(q_t) + \epsilon_t.$$

Make noisy observations:

$$y_t = g(q_t) + \eta_t.$$

We want to infer  $E(q_t|Y)$ : optimal estimate given observations. We also want errorbars:  $Var(q_t|Y)$  quantifies how much we actually know about  $q_t$ .

If f(.) and g(.) are linear, and  $\epsilon_t$  and  $\eta_t$  are Gaussian, then solution is classical: Kalman filter.

#### The forward recursion

We want  $p(q_t|Y_{1:t}) \propto p(q_t, Y_{1:t})$ . We know that

$$p(Q, Y) = p(Q)p(Y|Q) = p(q_1) \left(\prod_{t=2}^{T} p(q_t|q_{t-1})\right) \left(\prod_{t=1}^{T} p(y_t|q_t)\right)$$

To compute  $p(q_t, Y_{1:t})$  recursively, just write out marginal and pull out constants from the integrals:

$$p(q_t, Y_{1:t}) = \int_{q_1} \int_{q_2} \dots \int_{q_{t-1}} p(Q_{1:t}, Y_{1:t}) = \int_{q_1} \int_{q_2} \dots \int_{q_{t-1}} p(q_1) \left( \prod_{i=2}^t p(q_i|q_{i-1}) \right) \left( \prod_{i=1}^t p(y_i|q_i) \right)$$
$$= p(y_t|q_t) \int_{q_{t-1}} p(q_t|q_{t-1}) p(y_{t-1}|q_{t-1}) \int_{q_{t-2}} \dots \int_{q_2} p(q_3|q_2) p(y_2|q_2) \int_{q_1} p(q_2|q_1) p(y_1|q_1) p(q_1).$$

So, just recurse

$$p(q_t, Y_{1:t}) = p(y_t | q_t) \int_{q_{t-1}} p(q_t | q_{t-1}) p(q_{t-1}, Y_{1:t-1}).$$

Linear-Gaussian case: requires  $O(\dim(q)^3 T)$  time; just matrix algebra. Approximate solutions in more general case, e.g., Gaussian approximations (Brown et al., 1998), or Monte Carlo ("particle filtering").

Key point: efficient recursive computations  $\implies O(T)$  time.

#### Application: incomplete observations of V(t)

— Leaky integrator model:  $dV/dt = g_l[V_l - V(t)] + \epsilon_t$ 



#### Multicompartmental case

Easy extension of Kalman method:

$$d\vec{V}/dt = A\vec{V}(t) + \vec{\epsilon_t}$$
$$\vec{y}(t) = B\vec{V}(t) + \vec{\eta_t}$$

Example:

 $V_i(t) =$  voltage at compartment i

A = dynamics matrix (cable equation): includes leak  $(A_{ii} = -g_l)$  and inter-compartmental terms  $(A_{ij} = 0$  for non-adjacent compartments)

B = observation matrix

#### Low-rank approximations

Key fact: current experimental methods provide just a few low-SNR observations per time step.

Basic idea: if dynamics are approximately linear and time-invariant, we can approximate Kalman covariance  $C_t = cov(q_t|Y_{1:t})$  as a perturbation of the marginal covariance  $C_0 + U_t D_t U_t^T$ , with  $C_0 = \lim_{t \to \infty} cov(q_t)$ .

 $C_0$  is the solution to a Lyapunov equation. It turns out that we can solve linear equations involving  $C_0$  in  $O(\dim(q))$  time via Gaussian belief propagation, using the fact that the dendrite is a tree.

The necessary recursions — i.e., updating  $U_t, D_t$  and the Kalman mean  $E(q_t|Y_{1:t})$  — involve linear manipulations of  $C_0$ , using

$$C_t = [(AC_{t-1}A^T + Q)^{-1} + B_t]^{-1}$$
  

$$C_0 + U_t D_t U_t^T = ([A(C_0 + U_{t-1}D_{t-1}U_{t-1}^T)A^T + Q]^{-1} + B_t)^{-1},$$

and can be done in  $O(\dim(q))$  time (Paninski, 2009a).

## Example: inferring voltage from subsampled observations

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#### Example: summed observations

(Loading low-rank-horiz.mp4)

#### Application: synaptic locations/weights



#### Application: synaptic locations/weights

Including known terms:

$$d\vec{V}/dt = A\vec{V}(t) + W\vec{U}(t) + \vec{\epsilon}(t)$$

 $U_j(t) =$  known input terms

Example: U(t) are known presynaptic spike times, and we want to detect which compartments are connected (i.e., infer the weight matrix W).

#### **Detecting synapses**



(Paninski and Ferreira, 2008; Paninski et al., 2009)

#### Another application: neural prosthetics

 $q_t$ : hand position (red square);  $E(q_t|Y_{1:t})$ : green circle  $y_t$ : vector of observed spike counts at time t from multiple simultaneously recorded motor cortical neurons

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(Wu et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2009)

#### Another look: computing the MAP path

We often want to compute the MAP estimate

$$\hat{Q} = \arg\max_{Q} p(Q|Y).$$

In standard Kalman setting, forward-backward recursions also compute MAP (because E(Q|Y) and  $\hat{Q}$  coincide if p(Q|Y) is Gaussian).

More generally, write out the posterior:

$$\log p(Q|Y) = \log p(Q) + \log p(Y|Q) + const.$$
$$= \sum_{t} \log p(q_{t+1}|q_t) + \sum_{t} \log p(y_t|q_t) + const.$$

Two basic observations:

- If  $\log p(q_{t+1}|q_t)$  and  $\log p(y_t|q_t)$  are concave, then so is  $\log p(Q|Y)$ .
- Hessian H of  $\log p(Q|Y)$  is block-tridiagonal:  $p(y_t|q_t)$  contributes a block-diag term, and  $\log p(q_{t+1}|q_t)$  contributes a block-tridiag term.

Now recall Newton's method: iteratively solve  $HQ_{dir} = \nabla$ . Solving tridiagonal systems requires O(T) time.

— computing MAP by Newton's method requires O(T) time, even in highly non-Gaussian cases.

#### **Constrained optimization**

In many cases we need to impose constraints on  $q_t$  (e.g., nonnegativity). Easy to incorporate here, via interior-point (barrier) methods:

$$\arg \max_{Q \in C} \log p(Q|Y) = \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \arg \max_{Q} \left\{ \log p(Q|Y) + \epsilon \sum_{t} f(q_{t}) \right\}$$
$$= \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \arg \max_{Q} \left\{ \sum_{t} \log p(q_{t+1}|q_{t}) + \log p(y_{t}|q_{t}) + \epsilon f(q_{t}) \right\};$$

f(.) is concave and approaching  $-\infty$  near boundary of constraint set C. The Hessian remains block-tridiagonal and negative semidefinite for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , so optimization still requires just O(T) time.

## Example: computing the MAP subthreshold voltage given superthreshold spikes

Leaky, noisy integrate-and-fire model:

$$V_{t+dt} = V_t + \left(-\frac{V_t}{\tau} + I_t\right) dt + \sigma \sqrt{dt} \epsilon_t, \ \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

Observations:  $y_t = 0$  (no spike) if  $V_t < V_{th}$ ;  $y_t = 1$  if  $V_t = V_{th}$ 

Hard threshold  $\implies p(V|Y)$  is very non-Gaussian: "corners" at  $V_t = V_{th}$ .



(Paninski, 2006)

#### Example: inferring presynaptic input

$$g_j(t+dt) = g_j(t) - dtg_j(t)/\tau_j + N_j(t), \ N_j(t) \ge 0$$
$$y_t = I_t = \sum_j g_j(t)(V_j - V_t) + \epsilon_t$$

Hidden state  $q_t$ : vector of conductances  $g_t$  (Paninski, 2009b)



#### Example: inferring spike times from slow, noisy calcium data

$$C_{t+dt} = C_t - dt C_t / \tau + N_t; \ N_t > 0; \ y_t = C_t + \epsilon_t$$



 nonnegative deconvolution is a recurring problem in signal processing (Vogelstein et al., 2008).

#### Particle filter can extract spikes from saturated recordings



(Vogelstein et al., 2009)

#### Next challenge: circuit inference



#### Monte Carlo EM approach

Given the spike times in the network,  $L_1$ -penalized likelihood optimization is easy. But we only have noisy calcium observations Y; true spike times are hidden variables. Thus an EM approach is natural.

- E step: sample spike train responses R from  $p(R|Y, \theta)$
- M step: given sampled spike trains, perform  $L_1$ -penalized likelihood optimization to update parameters  $\theta$ .

E step is hard part here. Use the fact that neurons interact fairly weakly; thus we need to sample from a collection of weakly-interacting Markov chains, via Metropolis-within-blockwise-Gibbs forward-backward methods (Neal et al., 2003).

#### Simulated circuit inference



— Connections are inferred with the correct sign in conductance-based integrate-and-fire networks with biologically plausible connectivity matrices (Mishchencko et al., 2009).

Good news: connections are inferred with the correct sign. But process is slow; current work focusing on improved sampling methods (exploiting hybrid forward-backward blockwise-Gibbs approach).

#### Optimal control of spike timing

Optimal experimental design and neural prosthetics applications require us to perturb the network at will. How can we make a neuron exactly fire when we want it to?

Assume bounded inputs; otherwise problem is trivial.

Start with a simple model:

$$\lambda_t = f(V_t + h_t)$$
  

$$V_{t+dt} = V_t + dt (-gV_t + aI_t) + \sqrt{dt}\sigma\epsilon_t, \quad \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

Now we can just optimize the likelihood of the desired spike train, as a function of the input  $I_t$ , with  $I_t$  bounded.

Concave objective function over convex set of possible inputs  $I_t$ + Hessian is tridiagonal  $\implies O(T)$  optimization.

#### Simulated electrical control of spike timing



#### Example: intracellular control of spike timing



(Ahmadian et al 2010)



#### One last extension: two-d smoothing

Estimation of two-d firing rate surfaces comes up in a number of examples:

- place fields / grid cells
- post-fitting in spike-triggered covariance analysis
- tracking of non-stationary (time-varying) tuning curves
- "inhomogeneous Markov interval" models for spike-history dependence

How to generalize fast 1-d state-space methods to 2-d case? Idea: use Gaussian process priors which are carefully selected to give banded Hessians.

Model: hidden variable Q is a random surface with a Gaussian prior:  $Q \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, C);$ 

Spikes are generated by a point process whose rate is a function of Q:  $\lambda(\vec{x}) = f[Q(\vec{x})]$  (easy to incorporate additional effects here, e.g. spike history) Now the Hessian of the log-posterior of Q is  $C^{-1} + D$ , where D is diagonal (Cunningham et al., 2007). For Newton, we need to solve  $(C^{-1} + D)Q_{dir} = \nabla$ .

#### Example: nearest-neighbor smoothing prior



For prior covariance C such that  $C^{-1}$  contains only neighbor potentials, we can solve  $(C^{-1} + D)Q_{dir} = \nabla$  in  $O(\dim(Q)^{1.5})$  time using direct methods ("approximate minimum degree" algorithm — built-in to Matlab sparse  $A \setminus b$ code) and potentially in  $O(\dim(Q))$  time using multigrid (iterative) methods (Rahnama Rad and Paninski, 2009).

#### Estimating a time-varying tuning curve given a limited sample path









#### Conclusions

- GLM and state-space approaches provide flexible, powerful methods for answering key questions in neuroscience
- Close relationships between forward-backward methods familiar from state-space theory and banded matrices familiar from spline theory
- Log-concavity, banded matrix methods make computations very tractable

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