Reconstruction of k Impulse Functions from k Measurements of a Linear Dynamical

I. MATHEMATICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Expected Value of Stochastic Discrete Maps

Consider a network represented by directed graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$, where $\mathcal{V} = 1, \dots, n$, and $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$ are the sets of network vertices and directed edges. Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be the weighted and directed adjacency matrix of \mathcal{G} . At each time point $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$, we associate each node i with a discrete non-negative random variable X_i^t .

The evolution of the dynamics in our system follow a hierarchical stochastic process. Starting at some non-random initial state x^0 , we define discrete non-negative random variable X_j^t that represents the number of successful transmissions received by node j at time t. Initially, we define

$$X_j^{t+1} \sim \sum_{i=1}^n B(X_i^t, a_{ji}),$$

which is the sum of binomial distributions conditioned on random variables that are the states at time t. The expectation of this conditional distribution is given by

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[X_j^{t+1}] &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X_j^{t+1}|\boldsymbol{X}^t]] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n B(X_i^t, a_{ji})]] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[B(X_i^t, a_{ji})]] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}X_i^t] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}\mathbb{E}[X_i^t] \\ &= \boldsymbol{a}_i \boldsymbol{X}^t. \end{split}$$

In vector form, this expectation becomes

$$\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{t+1}] = A\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^t],$$

which we see is a simple discrete linear map.

B. Upper Bound on Variance

As exciting as linearity in these stochastic linear maps are, the distributional variances provide more trouble. First, we establish a useful inequality for our purposes. If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are real numbers such that $\alpha_i \geq 0$ where $\sum_{i=1}^n = c$, and X_1, \dots, X_n are random variables. Then

$$Var\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} X_{i}\right) \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}\right) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} Var(X_{i})$$

$$\leq c \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} Var(X_{i}).$$

For hierarchical mixture models, we have the following formula

$$\begin{aligned} Var[X_j^{t+1}] &= \mathbb{E}\left[Var\left[X_j^{t+1}|\boldsymbol{X}^t\right]\right] + Var\left[\mathbb{E}\left[X_j^{t+1}|\boldsymbol{X}^t\right]\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}(1-a_{ji})X_i^t\right] + Var\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}X_i^t\right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}(1-a_{ji})\mathbb{E}\left[X_i^t\right] + Var\left[\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}X_i^t\right] \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}(1-a_{ji})\mathbb{E}\left[X_i^t\right] + c\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ji}Var\left[X_i^t\right], \end{aligned}$$

which, we see is linear in the expected value and variance of X_i^t , and therefore can write

$$Var\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{t+1}\right] \leq (A - A_2)\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{t}\right] + cAVar\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{t}\right],$$

where A_2 is a matrix with entries $[a_2]_{ij} = [a]_{ij}^2$. We notice this relationship is recurrent, and can propagate all the way back to some initial condition

$$Var\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{t+1}\right] \leq \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k} c^{i} \left[A^{k+1} - A^{i} A_{2} A^{k-i}\right]\right) \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}\right] + c^{k+1} A^{k} A_{2} Var\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}\right],$$

and when the branching parameter c = 1:

$$Var\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{t+1}\right] \leq \left((k+1)A^{k+1} - \sum_{i=0}^{k} A^{i}A_{2}A^{k-i}\right)\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}\right] + A^{k}A_{2}Var\left[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}\right].$$

Another way to represent this inequality is

$$Var[\mathbf{X}^{t+1}] \le \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k} c^{i} A^{i} A^{*} A^{k-i}\right) \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{0}] + c^{k+1} A^{k} A_{2} Var[\mathbf{X}^{0}].$$

Here we see that $A^* = A - A_2$ acts as a sort of dispersion matrix, where the more A^* projects the eigenvector with largest eigenvalue of A away from itself, the lower the variance will be. One trivial way to decrease the variance is to make the entries $[a]_{ij}$ close to 0 or 1 such that the entries of $[a(1-a)]_{ij}$ become very small. We also see that the variance of the original distribution propagates linearly with the time step, implying that for critical systems with branching parameter = 1, the variance of the original distribution does not factor into the growth of the state variance beyond a constant value.

C. Intuition of Variance Bound and Slope From 1 Eigenvector Case

Suppose our matrix A contained only a single non-zero eigenvalue $\lambda = 1$ composed of some eigenvector \boldsymbol{v} such that $A = \boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^T$. Then for \boldsymbol{v}_2 containing squared elements of \boldsymbol{v} , we have

$$\begin{split} Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{t+1}] &\leq \left((k+1)A^{k+1} - \sum_{i=0}^{k} A^{i}A_{2}A^{k-i} \right) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] + A^{k}A_{2}Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] \\ &\leq \left((k+1)(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})^{k+1} - \sum_{i=0}^{k} (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})^{i}(\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})^{k-i} \right) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] + (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})^{k}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] \\ &\leq \left((k+1)(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (k-1)(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}) \right) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] + (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] \\ &\leq \left((k+1)(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (k-1)(\boldsymbol{v}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{2})^{2}(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) - (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})(\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}) \right) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] + (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] \\ &\leq \left(k(1 - (\boldsymbol{v}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{2})^{2}) + 1 + (\boldsymbol{v}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{2})^{2}(\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T}) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] - (\boldsymbol{v}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{2})(\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}^{T} + \boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}) \mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}] + (\boldsymbol{v}\boldsymbol{v}^{T})\boldsymbol{v}_{2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}^{T}Var[\boldsymbol{X}^{0}]. \end{split}$$

While this expression may look very confusing, the key aspect to notice is that the only term that depends on the time step k is

$$1 - (\boldsymbol{v}^T \boldsymbol{v}_2)^2,$$

where $v^T v_2$ is simply a sum of each element of v raised to the third power. Hence, the closer the entries of v are to 1, the smaller this slope will be. To maximize this slope, we just require that every element of v is equal to $\frac{1}{n}$. Hence, for the extreme case where our matrix has rank 1 with one non-zero eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector, we see that the increase in variance over time is given by a very simple expression.

D. Exact Variance for First Step

Suppose our initial inputs are drawn from independent distributions with mean $\mathbb{E}[X^0]$ and variance $Var[X^0]$. Then the firing rates immediately after have exact variance

$$Var[\mathbf{X}^{1}] = \mathbb{E}[Var[\mathbf{X}^{1}|\mathbf{X}^{0}]] + Var[\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{1}|\mathbf{X}^{0}]]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[A^{*}\mathbf{X}^{0}] + Var[A\mathbf{X}^{0}]$$

$$= A^{*}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{0}] + A_{2}Var[\mathbf{X}^{0}]$$

$$= A\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{0}] + A_{2}(Var[\mathbf{X}^{0}] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{0}])$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{1}] + A_{2}(Var[\mathbf{X}^{0}] - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^{0}]).$$

We see that there is a linear aspect in the growth of the variance, where one component of $Var[X^1]$ is $\mathbb{E}[X^1]$. This term increases the variance as quickly as the mean, which is bad. Alternatively, the second term can reduce the variance of X^1 if the variance of the initial distribution is lower than the expected value. Suppose very simply that there is no variance in the initial distribution. Then $Var[X^1] = \mathbb{E}[X^1] - A_2\mathbb{E}[X^0]$. From this relation alone, we see that to minimize some measure of variance to expected value, we want our initial condition to excite the largest eigenmode of A_2 , not necessarily A.

E. Bayes Theorem and Posteriors

In the quest to understand the question of input reconstruction, suppose we have some initial state X^0 drawn from some distribution. The question we are interested in is how to reconstruct this initial state given a measurement later on. Suppose this later measurement occurs at time T = 1. Then $X_j^1 \sim \sum_{i=1}^n B(X_i^0, a_{ji})$. If all inputs to the jth neuron are identical, then $X_j^1 \sim \sum_{i=1}^n B(X_i^0, a_j) = B(o_j^T X^0, a_j)$. Hence,

$$P(X_j^1 = x_j^1 | \mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}_0) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{o}^T \mathbf{X}^0 \\ x_j^1 \end{pmatrix} a_j^{x_j^1} (1 - a_j)^{\mathbf{o}^T \mathbf{X}^0 - x_j^1}.$$

Via Bayes Theorem, we can invert this conditional probability

$$P(\mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0 | X_j^1 = x_j^1) = \frac{P(X_j^1 = x_j^1 | \mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}_0) P(\mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0)}{P(X_i^1 = x_i^1)}.$$

We note that because what we measure is X_j^1 , across all guesses of initial state, $P(X_j^1 = x_j^1)$ remains constant. We also note that if the initial states are drawn independently of each other, $P(\mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i^0 = x_i^0)$. Hence, we can write

$$P(\mathbf{X}^0 = \mathbf{x}^0 | X_j^1 = x_j^1) \propto \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{o}^T \mathbf{X}^0 \\ x_j^1 \end{pmatrix} a_j^{x_j^1} (1 - a_j)^{\mathbf{o}^T \mathbf{X}^0 - x_j^1} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i^0 = x_i^0),$$

which we can write as the log-likelihood

$$\log \left(P(\boldsymbol{X}^{0} = \boldsymbol{x}^{0} | X_{j}^{1} = x_{j}^{1}) \right) \propto \log \left(\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{o}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}^{0} \\ x_{j}^{1} \end{pmatrix} \right) + \log \left(a_{j}^{x_{j}^{1}} (1 - a_{j})^{\boldsymbol{o}^{T}} \boldsymbol{X}^{0} - x_{j}^{1} \right) + \log \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_{i}^{0} = x_{i}^{0}) \right)$$

$$\propto \log \left(\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{o}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}^{0} \\ x_{j}^{1} \end{pmatrix} \right) + x_{j}^{1} \log (a_{j}) + (\boldsymbol{o}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}^{0} - x_{j}^{1}) \log (1 - a_{j}) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(P(X_{i}^{0} = x_{i}^{0}) \right)$$

$$\propto \log \left(\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{o}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}^{0} \\ x_{j}^{1} \end{pmatrix} \right) + x_{j}^{1} \log \left(\frac{a_{j}}{1 - a_{j}} \right) + \boldsymbol{o}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}^{0} \log (1 - a_{j}) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(P(X_{i}^{0} = x_{i}^{0}) \right),$$

which in theory we can use to find the most likely initial condition given what we know about the stimulus distribution and measured data by setting $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}^0} \log(P(\boldsymbol{X}^0 = \boldsymbol{x}^0 | X_j^1 = x_j^1)) = \boldsymbol{0}$.

F. State-Space and Statistical Mechanics

The next approach is to use statistical mechanics to enumerate the tree of probabilities for transitioning from one state to another. Consider a vector \mathbf{X}^t of n random variables at time t, drawn from $X_j^{k+1} \sim \sum_{i=1}^n B(X_i^k, a_{ji})$. Because the state transition process does not depend on system memory, the probability of transitioning from any state \mathbf{x}_m to any other state \mathbf{x}_p is completely governed by a non-hierarchical sum of binomial distributions. Hence, we can enumerate all possible discrete states \mathbf{x}_i , as

$$m{x}_i \in \left(egin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, egin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \cdots, egin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \cdots, egin{bmatrix} d \\ d \\ \vdots \\ d \end{bmatrix} \right),$$

and the probability of transitioning from any state x_m and x_p is given simply as the product of sums of binomial distributions.