

TD 10 – Neuronal Coding & Information Theory

1 Mutual Information

1.1 Characterizing the distribution of a discrete random variable

① Entropy & Average number of questions

- Only one possible color.

Number of questions : It is not necessary to ask any question since the color of the ball is certain.

Entropy : $H = -1 \log(1) = 0$.

- Two possible colors.

Number of questions : One question is sufficient, for instance "Is it red ?" if the possible colors are blue and red.

Entropy : $H = -p \log(p) - (1-p) \log(1-p)$.

- $H = 0$ for $p = 0$ or 1
- $H = \log(2)$ is maximal at $p = 0.5$.

- Half the balls are red, one fourth are green and one fourth are blue.

Number of questions : A set of questions could start with "Is it red ?"

- 1/2 chance that the answer is yes.
- 1/2 chance that the answer is no, in which case another question is needed to distinguish green and blue.

Entropy : $H = -\frac{1}{2} \log(\frac{1}{2}) - \frac{1}{4} \log(\frac{1}{4}) - \frac{1}{4} \log(\frac{1}{4}) = \frac{1}{2} \log(2) + \frac{1}{2} \log(2) + \frac{1}{2} \log(2) = \frac{3}{2} \log(2)$

- Comment : In general the entropy of a random variable X is an upper bound on the average number of questions needed to find out the value of X in a given event. The 'unit' of the entropy is in *bits of information* : 1 question = 1 bit of information = $\log(2)$.

1.2 Mutual information between two discrete random variables

② Mutual information between uncorrelated stimulus and response

r and s are uncorrelated implies that $p(s, r) = p(s)p(r) \quad \forall s, r$.

Thus : $\log\left(\frac{p(s, r)}{p(s)p(r)}\right) = \log(1) = 0 \quad \forall s, r$

③ Mutual information for binary stimuli with identical probability

For a given activity $r = 0, 1$, then the stimulus s is entirely known. Therefore, the entropy of s given r is null (no information left to know, using the previous analogy there is 0 questions to ask) : $H(s|r) = 0$.

Both stimuli have same probability, then $H(s) = \log(2)$.

Thus : $I(s, r) = \log(2)$.

④ Mutual information for two neurons

- For two neurons : As before, if r_1 and r_2 are known then s is entirely known. Even further, if one of r_1, r_2 is known then the other is known as well. Thus : $H(s|r_1, r_2) = 0 = H(s|r_1) = H(s|r_2)$.

Again, $H(s) = \log(2)$. Thus : $I(s|r_1, r_2) = I(s|r_1) = I(s|r_2) = \log(2)$. • For one neuron :

⑤ Redundancy

$R = \log(2)$, which is equal to the mutual information. This means that the whole information is redundant between the two neurons, as expected.

1.3 Mutual information for continuous random variables

⑥ Entropy of the Gaussian distribution

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(r) &= - \int dr P(r) \log[P(r)] = \int dr P(r) \left[\frac{(r - r_0)^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\left\langle \frac{(r - r_0)^2}{\sigma^2} \right\rangle + \log(2\pi\sigma^2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi\sigma^2)]
 \end{aligned}$$

⑦ Mutual information for a Gaussian stimulus with Gaussian noise

- Method 1 : Using $I(s, r) = H(r) - H(r|s)$.

$p(r|s)$ is distributed as a gaussian of mean Ws and variance σ^2 , therefore :

$$H(r|s) = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi\sigma^2)]$$

$p(r)$ is distributed as a gaussian of mean 0 and variance $w^2c^2 + \sigma^2$, therefore :

$$H(r) = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi(w^2c^2 + \sigma^2))]$$

Thus :

$$\begin{aligned}
 I(s, r) &= \frac{1}{2} [-1 - \log(2\pi\sigma^2) + 1 + \log(2\pi(w^2c^2 + \sigma^2))] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{w^2c^2}{\sigma^2} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Method 2 : Using $I(s, r) = H(s) - H(s|r)$.

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi c^2)]$$

$p(s|r)$ is a product of Gaussians, therefore the inverse variances add.

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(s|r) &= \frac{p(r|s)p(s)}{p(r)} \propto p(r|s)p(s) \\
 H(s|r) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log \left(2\pi \frac{1}{\frac{1}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{\sigma^2}} \right) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus :

$$\begin{aligned}
 I(s, r) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log(2\pi) + \log(c^2) - 1 - \log(2\pi) + \log \left(\frac{1}{c^2} + \frac{w^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{c^2w^2}{\sigma^2} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Method 3 : Using $I(s, r) = H(s) + H(r) - H(s, r)$.

For a multivariate Gaussian of covariance matrix Σ :

$$p(\vec{X}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^N |\Sigma|}} \exp(-(\vec{X} - \vec{X}_0)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\vec{X} - \vec{X}_0))$$

The entropy is given by :

$$H(\vec{X}) = \log \left(1 + \sqrt{(2\pi e)^N |\Sigma|} \right)$$

Here $\vec{X} = (r, s)$, the covariance matrix is given by :

$$\begin{aligned}
 r^2 &= w^2s^2 + z^2 + wsz \Rightarrow \langle r^2 \rangle = w^2c^2 + \sigma^2 \\
 rs &= ws^2 + sz \Rightarrow \langle rs \rangle = wc^2 \\
 \Sigma &= \begin{pmatrix} \langle r^2 \rangle & \langle rs \rangle \\ \langle rs \rangle & \langle s^2 \rangle \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} w^2c^2 + \sigma^2 & wc^2 \\ wc^2 & c^2 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Its determinant is $|\Sigma| = c^2 \sigma^2$. (Note : The formula for the variances stem from the null mean).

Thus :

$$\begin{aligned} H(r, s) = 1 + \log(2\pi\sigma) \quad \Rightarrow \quad I(s, r) &= \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi c^2)] + \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi(w^2 c^2 + \sigma^2))] - 1 - \log(2\pi c\sigma) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log \left[\frac{c^2(w^2 c^2 + \sigma^2)}{c^2 \sigma^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log \left[1 + \frac{w^2 c^2}{\sigma^2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

⑧ Mutual information for the model of Gaussian inputs with covariance matrix

r is Gaussian, as a sum of Gaussians.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle r \rangle &= \sum_{j=1}^N w_j \langle s_j \rangle + \langle z \rangle = 0 \\ \langle r^2 \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_{i,j=1}^N w_i w_j s_i s_j + 2 \sum_{j=1}^N w_j s_j z + z^2 \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^N w_i w_j c_{i,j} + \sigma^2 = \vec{W}^T C \vec{W} + \sigma^2 \\ H(r) &= \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi(\vec{W}^T C \vec{W} + \sigma^2))] \\ H(r|s) &= \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi\sigma^2)] \\ I(r, s) &= H(r) - H(r|s) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left[1 + \frac{\vec{W}^T C \vec{W}}{\sigma^2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Since C is symmetrical and real, it can be diagonalized in an orthonormal basis. Let $w_{j,new}$ denote the coordinates of \vec{W} in this new basis and λ_j the eigenvalues of C .

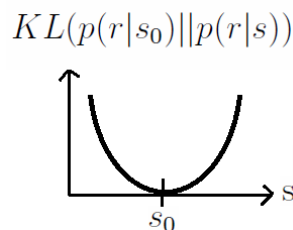
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{W}^T C \vec{W} &= \sum_j \lambda_j w_{j,new}^2 \\ \|\vec{W}\|^2 &= \sum_j w_{j,new}^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

The mutual information is therefore maximal when \vec{W} is aligned with the eigenvector of C associated with the maximum eigenvalue $\lambda_{j,max}$. Indeed, since the noise has the same variance in all directions, the direction with the best signal to noise ratio is the one where the signal has the highest variance.

2 Fisher Information

2.1 Distance between probability distributions

⑨ Sketch of the Kullback-Liebler divergence



⑩ Measure of local information

The second derivative at s_0 provides a measure of "how fast" both distributions separate out. The second derivative is used instead of the first derivative because the latter cancels at s_0 :

$$\begin{aligned} F(s_0) &= \frac{\partial^2 KL(p(r|s_0)||p(r|s))}{\partial s^2} \Big|_{s_0} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \int p(r|s_0) \log \left(\frac{p(r|s_0)}{p(r|s)} \right) dr \right] \Big|_{s_0} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \int p(r|s_0) \log(p(r|s_0)) dr \right] \Big|_{s_0} - \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \int p(r|s_0) \log(p(r|s)) dr \right] \Big|_{s_0} \end{aligned}$$

The first term does not depend on s and thus cancels, such that : $F(s_0) = - \int p(r|s_0) \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \log(p(r|s)) \right] \Big|_{s_0} dr$

2.2 Variance of the locally optimal estimator

(11) Unbiased estimator

Let us define $f(r) = \sqrt{p(r|s_0)}(\hat{s}(r) - s_0)$ and $g(r) = \sqrt{p(r|s_0)} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \log(p(r|s))(s_0)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int f(r)g(r) dr &= \int dr p(r|s_0)(\hat{s}(r) - s_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) \\ &= \int dr (\hat{s}(r) - s_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial s} p(r|s)(s_0) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left[\int dr (\hat{s}(r) - s_0) p(r|s)(s_0) \right] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial s} ((\hat{s}(r) - s_0))(s_0) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

The second last equality stems from :

$$\frac{\partial \log(p(r|s))}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0} = \frac{\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s}}{p(r|s)} \Big|_{s_0} = \frac{\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s}}{p(r|s_0)} \Big|_{s_0} \text{ such that } p(r|s_0) \frac{\partial \log(p(r|s))}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0} = \frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0}$$

The last equality comes from having an unbiased estimator. Applying the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality :

$$1 \leq \int dr p(r|s_0)(\hat{s}(r) - s_0)^2 \int dr p(r|s_0) \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) \right]^2$$

(12) Equality between two formulas

$$\begin{aligned} \text{On the one hand : } \int p(r|s_0) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \log(p(r|s)) \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2 dr &= \int p(r|s_0) \left(\frac{\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s}}{p(r|s)} \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2 dr \\ &= \int p(r|s_0) \left(\frac{\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s}}{p(r|s_0)} \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2 dr \\ &= \int \frac{\left(\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2}{p(r|s_0)} dr \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{On the other hand : } - \int p(r|s_0) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \log(p(r|s)) \Big|_{s_0} dr &= - \int p(r|s_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s}}{p(r|s)} \Big|_{s_0} \right) dr \\ &= - \int p(r|s_0) \frac{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} p(r|s) \times p(r|s) - \left(\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s} \right)^2}{p(r|s)^2} \Big|_{s_0} dr \\ &= - \int p(r|s_0) \frac{\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} p(r|s) \Big|_{s_0} p(r|s_0) - \left(\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2}{p(r|s_0)^2} dr \\ &= - \underbrace{\int \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} p(r|s) \Big|_{s_0} dr}_0 + \int \frac{\left(\frac{\partial p(r|s)}{\partial s} \Big|_{s_0} \right)^2}{p(r|s_0)} dr \end{aligned}$$

The first term vanishes because : $\left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \int p(r|s) dr \right|_{s_0} = \left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} 1 \right|_{s_0} = 0$.

(13) Locally unbiased estimator whose variance is equal to the inverse of the Fisher Information

For $f(r) = ag(r)$:

$$\int f(r)g(r) dr = \int f^2(r) dr = \int g^2(r) dr$$

Let us therefore consider $\hat{s}(r) - s_0 = a \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0)$. Note that the estimator does not depend on s , its mean value depends on s only through $p(r|s)$.

Using the fact that the estimator is unbiased :

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left(\int (\hat{s}(r) - s_0) p(r|s) dr \right) (s_0) \\ &= a \left(\int dr \frac{\partial}{\partial S} p(r|s) \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) \right) (s_0) \\ &= a \int dr \frac{\partial}{\partial S} p(r|s)(s_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) \end{aligned}$$

Using $\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s)) = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial S} p(r|s)}{p(r|s)}$:

$$1 = a \int dr p(r|s_0) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) \right)^2 = a F(s_0) \Rightarrow a = 1/F(s_0)$$

It can be verified that this is the right constant by checking that the variance of the obtained estimator is indeed equal to the inverse of the Fisher information :

$$\langle (\hat{s}(r) - s_0)^2 \rangle = a^2 F(s_0) = 1/F(s_0)$$

2.3 Examples of Fisher local information for different response models

(14) Dependence of Fisher Information on mean and variance

The Fisher information is the inverse of the variance of an estimator of s , its unit is therefore $1/[s]^2$. The unit of σ is $[f]$ and the unit of $f'(s)$ is $[f]/[s]$, therefore by dimensionality analysis :

$$F(s) \propto \left(\frac{f'(s)}{\sigma(s)} \right)^2$$

Indeed the Fisher Information is comparable to the signal to noise ratio.

(15) Neuron with Poisson firing rate

From the previous results, the optimal estimator is given by : $\hat{s}(r) - s_0 = \frac{1}{F(s_0)} \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0)$.

In this example : $\log(p(r|s)) = r \log(\lambda(s)) - \lambda(s) + \log(r!)$ such that :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) = r \frac{\lambda'(s_0)}{\lambda(s_0)} - \lambda'(s_0) = \frac{\lambda'(s_0)}{\lambda(s_0)} (r - \lambda(s_0))$$

The Fisher information is :

$$\begin{aligned} F(s_0) &= \int dr p(r|s_0) \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log p(r|s) \right]^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{\lambda'(s_0)}{\lambda(s_0)} \right)^2 \int dr p(r|s_0) (r - \lambda(s_0))^2 \\ &= \frac{\lambda'(s_0)^2}{\lambda(s_0)} \end{aligned}$$

The optimal estimator follows :

$$\hat{s}(r) - s_0 = \frac{\lambda(s_0)}{\lambda'(s_0)^2} \frac{\lambda'(s_0)}{\lambda(s_0)} (r - \lambda(s_0)) = \frac{r - \lambda(s_0)}{\lambda'(s_0)}$$

16 *Neuron with Gaussian noise*

The same developments give :

$$\log(p(r|s)) = -\frac{(r - f(s))^2}{2\sigma(s)^2} - \log((2\pi)^{1/2}) - \log(\sigma(s))$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial S} \log(p(r|s))(s_0) = \frac{f'(s_0)(r - f(s_0))}{\sigma(s_0)^2} + (r - f(s_0))^2 \frac{4\sigma'(s_0)\sigma(s_0)}{4\sigma(s_0)^4} - \frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)}$$

with $\int dr p(r|s_0) = 1$, $\int dr p(r|s_0)(r - f(s_0)) = 0$ and $\int dr p(r|s_0)(r - f(s_0))^2 = \sigma(s_0)^2$, such that $\int dr p(r|s_0)(r - f(s_0))^3 = \int dr p(r|s_0)(r - f(s_0))^4 = 0$. Then :

$$F(s) = \frac{f'(s_0)^2}{\sigma(s_0)^2} + 0 + \left(\frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)} \right)^2 + 0 - \sigma(s_0)^2 \frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)^3} \frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)} - 0 = \frac{f'(s_0)^2}{\sigma(s_0)^2}$$

The optimal estimator is :

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{s}(r) - s_0 &= \frac{\sigma(s_0)^2}{f'(s_0)^2} \left[\frac{f'(s_0)(r - f(s_0))}{\sigma(s_0)^2} + (r - f(s_0))^2 \frac{4\sigma'(s_0)\sigma(s_0)}{4\sigma(s_0)^4} - \frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)} \right] \\ &= \frac{r - f(s_0)}{f'(s_0)} + \frac{\sigma'(s_0)}{\sigma(s_0)} \frac{(r - f(s_0))^2 - \sigma(s_0)^2}{f'(s_0)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Supposing that the variance is constant, $\sigma'(s_0) = 0$, then again the optimal estimator is given by :

$$\hat{s}(r) - s_0 = \frac{r - f(s_0)}{f'(s_0)}$$

17 *Two independent neurons*

The Fisher Information for two independent neurons is the sum of the Fisher information of each neuron because :

$$\begin{aligned} p(r_1, r_2|s) &= p(r_1|s)p(r_2|s) \\ \log(p(r_1, r_2|s)) &= \log(p(r_1|s)) + \log(p(r_2|s)) \end{aligned}$$

3 **Bayesian inference****18** *Probability of observing a pattern of spikes*

$$\mathbb{P}(\{n_i\}|s) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{f_i(s)^{n_i}}{n_i!} \exp(-f_i(s))$$

19 *Estimate of the stimulus*

An estimate of the stimulus can be built by using the intuition that each neuron 'votes' for its preferred stimulus, such that the estimate is a weighted average :

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i}$$

Note that the same pattern can be caused by various stimuli, therefore by observing the pattern cannot allow to infer unambiguously the exact stimulus.

20 *Effect of the tuning curves on accuracy*

Using previous results, the Fisher information is

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f_i'(s)^2}{f_i(s)} \approx N \frac{(f_0/\sigma)^2}{f_0} = \frac{N f_0}{\sigma^2}$$

. This formula confirms the intuitions that the local accuracy improves with more neurons and tuning curves with higher-magnitudes, whereas it impairs with the variance of tuning curves (which contribute to greater overlap and more confusion).

②① Probability distribution of the stimulus using Baye's rule

$$p(s|\{n_i\}) = \frac{p_s}{p(\{n_i\})} \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{n_i!} \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^N f_i(s)\right) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N n_i \log(f_i(s))\right) \text{ where } p_s = p(s) \forall s$$

The tuning curves being evenly distributed along the stimulus range, it can be considered that $\sum_{i=1}^N f_i(s)$ does not depend on s .

$$p(s|\{n_i\}) = \Phi(\{n_i\}) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N n_i \log(f_i(s))\right) \quad (1)$$

②② Gaussian tuning curves

The estimate of the stimulus corresponds to the maximum of $\log(p(\{n_i\}|s))$:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \log(p(\{n_i\}|s)) = \sum_{i=1}^N n_i \left(-2 \frac{(s - s_i)}{2\sigma^2}\right) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N n_i s = \sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i \Leftrightarrow s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i}$$

The distribution of the stimulus is given by :

$$p(s|\{n_i\}) = \Phi(\{n_i\}) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N -n_i \frac{(s - s_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

The quantity inside the exponential rewrites :

$$\sum_{i=1}^N n_i (s - s_i)^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N n_i\right) s^2 - 2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i\right) s + \sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i^2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N n_i\right) \left(s - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i}\right)^2 + C$$

This implies that the distribution is Gaussian with the following parameters :

$$\text{Mean : } \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i s_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i} \quad \text{Variance : } \frac{\sigma^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i}$$

The variance of the posterior depends on the sum of the n_i , which is proportional to the number of neurons and the height of the tuning curves, therefore the variance is proportional to $\frac{\sigma^2}{N f_0}$.

The variance becomes infinitely small if the number of neurons becomes infinitely large or if the mean firing rate becomes infinitely large.

②③ Jitterred responses

The variability is now correlated across neurons :

$$p(s|\{n_i\}) = p(s|\hat{s})p(\hat{s}|\{n_i\})$$

It is now a product of Gaussians : the inverse variances add. In the previous conditions, $p(\hat{s}|\{n_i\})$ becomes infinitely narrow, its variance becomes infinitely small. However the variance of $p(s|\{n_i\})$ is necessarily larger than the variance of $p(s|\hat{s})$ which does not depend on the number of neurons or on their mean firing rate.