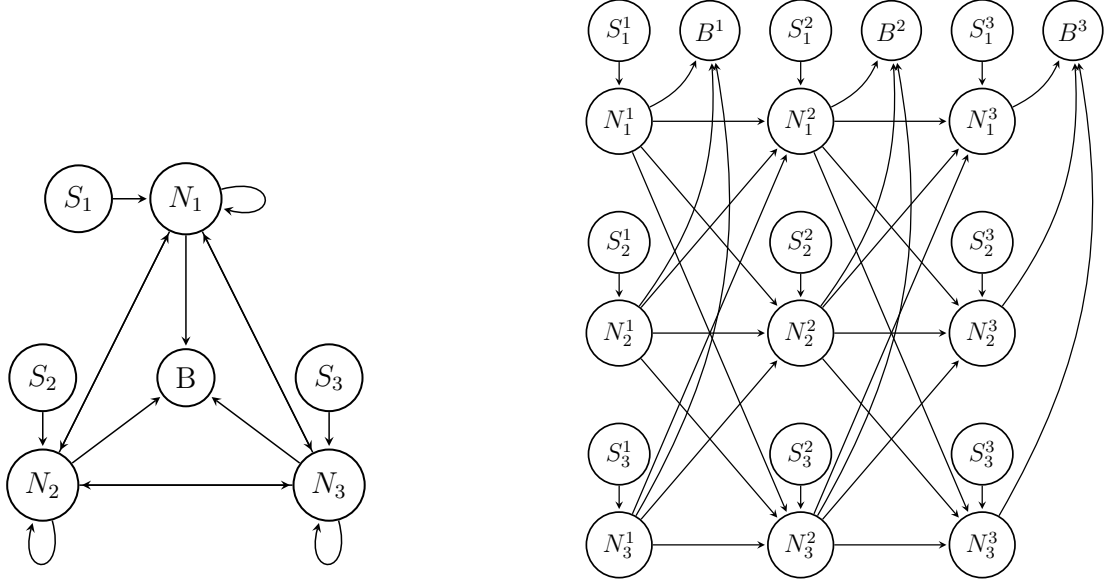


1 Introduction



(a) Schematic of three densely-connected neurons (N) with single-unit stimulation (S) and behavior readout (B).

(b) Dynamic bayesian network for time $t \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.

Figure 1

Suppose $\mathcal{N} = \{\forall i N_i\}$ is a set of neurons indexed by $i \in I, I = \{1, \dots, n\}$. Let the random variable $N_i^t : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ represent the fluorescence of neuron i at time $t \in \mathbb{N}$ for a sample space Ω , and $\mathcal{N}^t = \{\forall i N_i^t\}$. We denote a single observation of fluorescence by n_i^t .

2 Rate of transmission

See **Figure 2a**. For the sake of simplicity, we only consider binary states $S_i^t \in \{-1, 1\}$ and $N_i^t \in \{0, 1\}$. We achieve the latter by creating an activation function a with activation threshold α :

$$a(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \geq \alpha \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let $\forall i \forall t (A_i^t = a(N_i^t))$ and $\mathcal{A}^t = \{A_1^t, \dots, A_n^t\}$. Then, the rate of transmission R between \mathcal{S}^t and \mathcal{A}^t can be calculated with the help of the information entropy equation H :

$$R = H(\mathcal{S}^t) - H(\mathcal{N}^t | \mathcal{S}^t)$$

If we choose a binary stimulus for each neuron independently and uniformly, then

$$H(\mathcal{S}^t) = - \sum_{i=1}^n 0.5 \log_2(0.5) + 0.5 \log_2(0.5) = n$$

Thus, the stimulus entropy is n bits. To simplify the calculation of $H(\mathcal{N}^t|\mathcal{S}^t)$, we assume that a maximal optogenetic stimuli dominates neuronal input:

$$(do(S_j^o) = -1 \vee do(S_j^o) = 1) \rightarrow (p(N_j^o|\forall i \forall \tau N_i^{o-\tau}, S_i^o) = p(N_j^o|S_j^o) = do(S_i^o))$$

The calculation for rate of transmission is then straightforward:

$$R = n - \sum_i H(N_i^t|do(S_i^t))$$

If we choose a non-uniform stimulus space, we can calculate the redundancy by one minus the ratio of a source to its maximum entropy.

3 Feedforward entropy

See **Figure 2b**. We use variational inference to calculate a network’s feedforward entropy. Variational inference provides a locally-optimal, exact analytic solution to approximate the posterior distribution of feedforward entropy; however, manually deriving the exact set of equations is infeasible for all but the smallest networks. Instead, we use the probabilistic programming language *Pyro* to iteratively update parameters. The rough algorithm for updating the bayesian network after each optogenetic stimulus and recorded neuronal response is as follows:

1. Sample n_i input neurons in a set X and $n - n_i$ output neurons in a set Y such that $X \cap Y = \emptyset$ and $X \cup Y = \mathcal{N}$.
2. Sample an optogenetic stimulus \mathcal{S} where $\mathcal{S}_x = \{S_i|i \in \{j|N_j \in X\}\}$, $S \in \mathcal{S}_x \rightarrow (S = 1 \vee S = -1)$ and $S \notin \mathcal{S}_x \rightarrow S = 0$.
3. Observe the neuronal response (fluorescence) of Y
4. Calculate $H(X, Y)$ and use this observation to update our posterior distribution of belief for feedforward entropy.
5. Repeat 1-4, randomly sampling a new X and Y each time.

The feedforward entropy limit is obtained at $n_i = n/2$. We can test if this theoretical result holds for an arbitrary neuronal network by repeating the protocol for multiple choices of $n_i \in [1, n - 1]$.

4 Entropy production

See **Figure 2c**. To calculate entropy production, we first choose a time t_i to stimulate input, and a time t_o to observe neuronal response where $t_o > t_i$. We define entropy production as the change in entropy per unit of time.

$$\frac{H(\mathcal{N}_i^t) - H(\mathcal{N}_i^t|\mathcal{N}_o^t)}{t_o - t_i}$$

We likewise use variational inference to sample from stimulus space, observe response space, and update our posterior belief of entropy production.

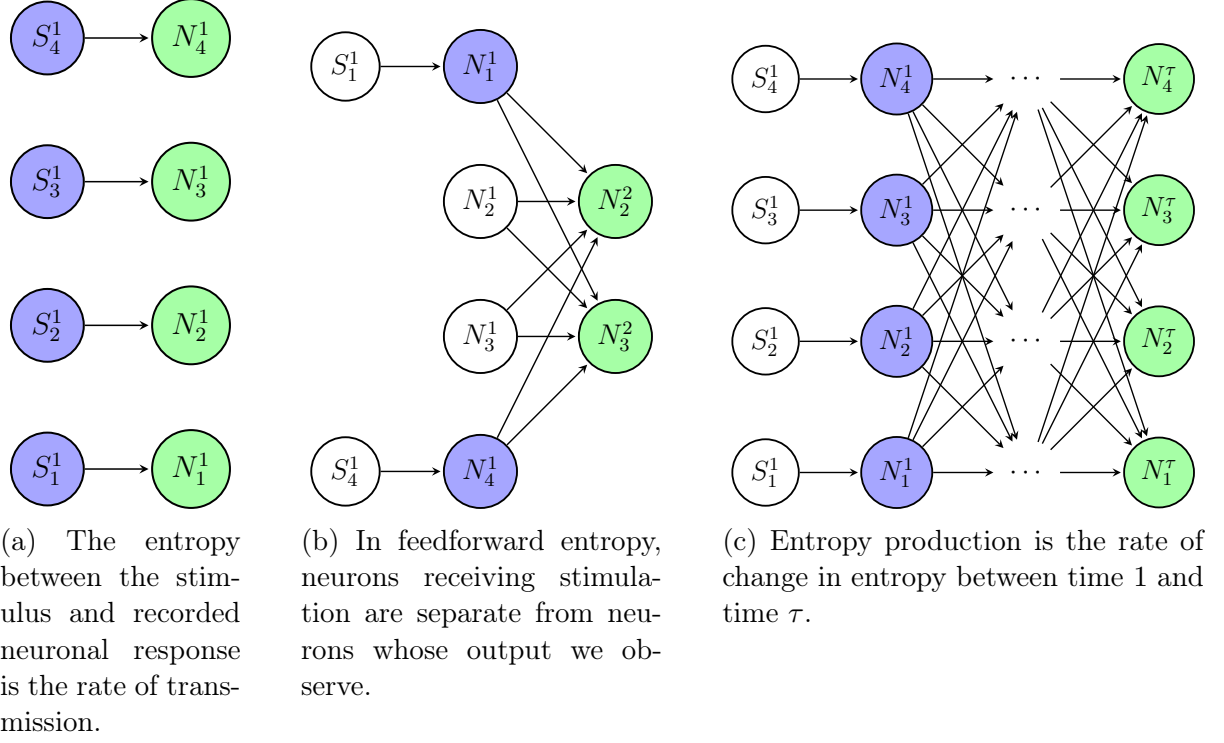


Figure 2: Entropy is measured between blue nodes and green nodes.

5 Bayesian Network

We define a first-order bayesian network with a graph inspired from feedforward neural networks (**Figure 1**):

$$p(N_1^t, \dots, N_n^t) = p(N_1^{t-1})p(N_2^{t-1}|N_1^{t-1}) \cdots p(N_n^{t-1}|N_1^{t-1}, \dots, N_{n-1}^{t-1})$$

Let $j \in I$ and $o \in T$ be arbitrary. By the first-order assumption,

$$p(N_j^o | \forall i \forall \tau N_i^{o-\tau}) = p(N_j^o | \forall i N_i^{o-1})$$

To make the temporal dependencies tractable, we further assume that

$$\forall t \forall \tau p(N_j^t | \forall i N_i^{t-1}) = p(N_j^\tau | \forall i N_i^{\tau-1})$$

However, the spatial dependencies are still untractable: the joint probability distribution requires 2^n calculations for n neurons and is therefore NP-Hard. Thus, we must also reduce complexity by establishing conditional independence of neurons. This can be achieved through many methods, including by using the *PC algorithm* to eliminate edges in the bayesian network and by modeling each neuron's conditional distribution by a finite mixture model $p(N_j^t | \forall i N_i^{t-1}) = \sum_i w_i p(N_j^t | N_i^{t-1})$. The latter strengthens the relationship to deep learning networks and permits the use of automatic differentiation to optimize weights between neurons.

Optogenetic stimulation of neuron i at time t is represented by the factor $S_i^t \in [-1, 1]$, which influences N_i^t . Typically, we exogenously set our stimulation to a particular value. Following the *do-calculus* notation, we denote this by $do(N_i^t) = 1$ for maximal excitation, $do(N_i^t) = 0$ for no stimulation, and $do(N_i^t) = -1$ for maximal inhibition.

6 Long term potentiation & depression

Let i, j be arbitrary. We consider long term potentiation (LTP) as an increase in conditional entropy between N_i^{t-1} and N_j^t , and long term depression (LTD) as a decrease in conditional entropy between N_i^{t-1} and N_j^t . For simplicity, we presume perfect optogenetic control over whether a neuron is spiking or not:

$$R = H(\mathcal{S}) \rightarrow S_i^t = do(N_i^t)$$

We consider a paired stimulus at time $\tau - 1$ and τ , and consider the change in synaptic strength for time periods $t_- \in \{x | x < \tau\}$ and $t_+ \in \{x | x > \tau\}$. We define LTP of synapse (N_i, N_j) as:

$$(do(N_i^{\tau-1}) = 1) \wedge (do(N_j^\tau) = 1) \rightarrow \forall t_- \forall t_+ H(N_j^{t_-} | N_i^{t_- - 1}) < H(N_j^{t_+} | N_i^{t_+ - 1})$$

We define LTD of synapse (N_i, N_j) as:

$$(do(N_i^{\tau-1}) = 1) \wedge (do(N_j^\tau) = 0) \rightarrow \forall t_- \forall t_+ H(N_j^{t_-} | N_i^{t_- - 1}) > H(N_j^{t_+} | N_i^{t_+ - 1})$$

.

7 Connectome programming

To speed up the process of programming a circuit using LTP & LTD, we can modify multiple synapses for neuron N at each timestep. Consider synapses for potentiation $P = \{(N_i, N_j) | \forall N_i \in \mathcal{N}, \text{arbitrary } N_j \in \mathcal{N}\}$ and synapses for depression $D = \{(N_i, N_d) | \forall N_i \in \mathcal{N}, \text{arbitrary } N_d \in \mathcal{N}\}$ where $P \cap D = \emptyset$ and $P \cup D = \{(N_i, N_d) | \forall N_i, N_d \in \mathcal{N}\}$. Then, instead of doing one synapse modification per two time points, we can do multiple in parallel, starting with the neurons that are synapsed by some N_a , and subsequently proceeding to every other neuron. $\forall (N_i, N_p) \in P \forall (N_i, N_d) \in D$ where $N_i = N_a$:

$$(do(N_i^{\tau-1}) = 1) \wedge (do(N_p^\tau) = 1) \wedge (do(N_d^\tau) = 0)$$

Therefore, we can modify synaptic weights in linear time with respect to the number of neurons. Of course, we may need to undergo multiple cycles of LTP & LTD to adjust conditional entropy to the precise level we desire.

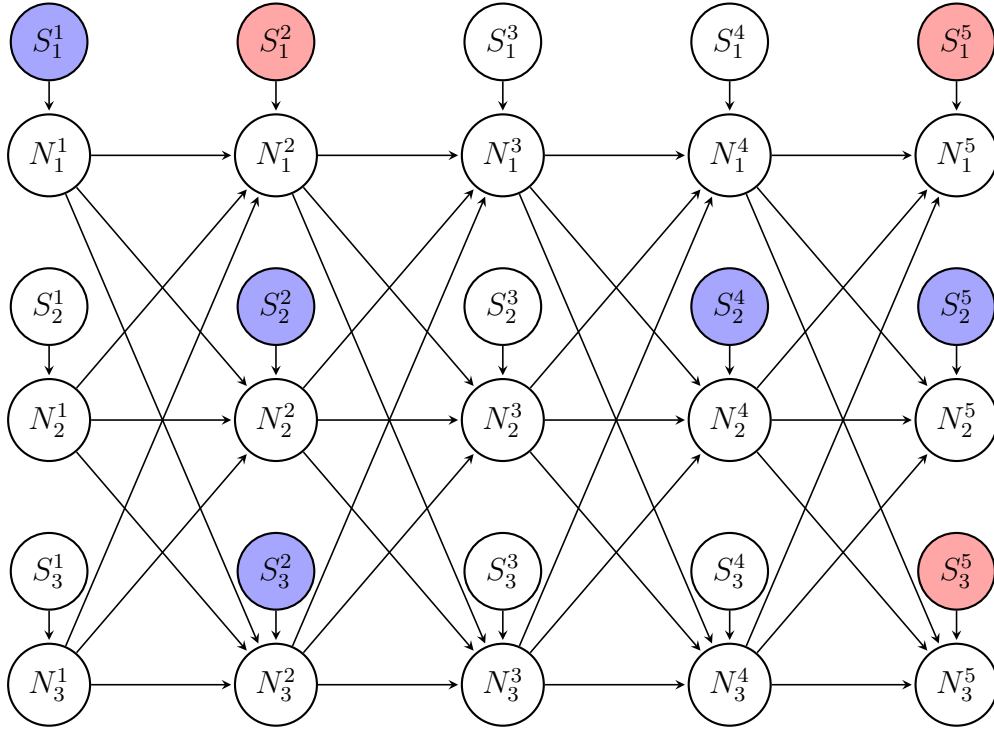


Figure 3: Implementation of LTP & LTD using excitation (blue) and inhibition (red). Starting at time 1, the synapses (N_1, N_2) and (N_1, N_3) undergo LTP while (N_1, N_1) undergoes LTD. At time 4, the synapse (N_2, N_2) undergoes LTP while (N_2, N_1) and (N_2, N_3) undergo LTD.