

Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences



Statistics in neuroscience (with modelling here and there)

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Outline

- 1 Introduction to Statistics
The importance of sampling
- 2 Parameter estimation in fully observed models.
Maximum likelihood estimation
Least squares estimation.
- 3 Neuroscience
Intro and data-type
- 4 Single neuron modelling: HH-type models
Parameter estimation in partially observed models.
- 5 Leaky Integrate-and-Fire (LIF) models
Parameter estimation in fully observed models.
Parameter estimation from hitting times.

A good quote on Statistics

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Statisticians apply statistical thinking and methods to a wide variety of scientific, social, and business endeavours in such areas as:

- astronomy;
- chemistry (e.g. problem of estimating folding rates for some protein having a coordinate switching between the folded and unfolded state);
- biology (including physiology, **neuroscience**, etc.);
- bioinformatics (e.g. pattern recognition, see on Tuesday);
- economics/finance;
- engineering;
- genetics (detection of genetic variations);
- mathematics;
- medicine;
- **all kind of recognition**;
- physics (you’ve seen it yesterday);
- **psychology** (visual attention).

What is Statistics?

Statistics is the science of learning from data, and of measuring, controlling, and communicating uncertainty; and it thereby provides the navigation essential for controlling the course of scientific and societal advances. (Davidian, M. and Louis, T. A., 10.1126/science.1218685).

Before starting... Let us focus on:

- **Are our data/experiments good?**
- **What question do we want to answer?**

- **Which model do we want to consider?**
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- **Which model do we want to consider?**
 - + *All models are wrong, but some are useful.* G. E. P. Box.
 - *Statisticians, like artists, have the bad habit of falling in love with their models.* G. E. P. Box.

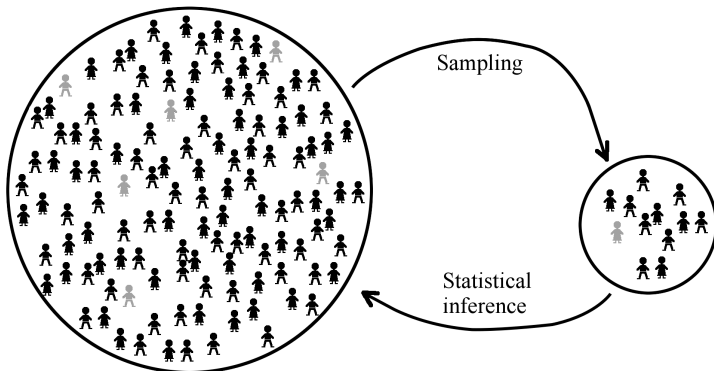
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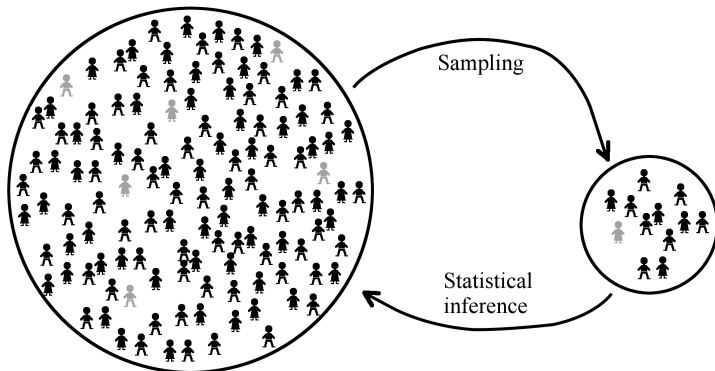
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All generalizations are false, including this one. Mark Twain.

The importance of good sampling/data

An election will be held next week and, by polling a sample of the voting population, we are trying to predict whether the Republican or Democratic candidate will prevail. Which of the following methods of selection is likely to yield a representative sample?

- (a) Poll all people of voting age attending a basketball game.
- (b) Obtain a copy of the voter registration list, randomly choose 100 names, and question them.
- (c) Use the results of a television call-in poll, in which the station asked its listeners to call in and name their choice.
- (d) Randomly choose 100 names from the telephone directory and call these people.

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The approach (d) led to a disastrous prediction in the **1936** presidential election, in which Franklin Roosevelt defeated Alfred Landon by a landslide. A Landon victory had been predicted by the Literary Digest. The magazine based its prediction on the preferences of a sample of voters chosen from lists of cars and telephone owners.

Why the Literary Digests prediction was so far off?

A further quote on Statistics and data

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	Male		Female	
Treatment	Standard	New	Standard	New
Dead:	950	9000	5000	5
Alive:	50(5%)	1000 (10%)	5000 (50%)	95(95%)

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The 2nd doctor, sum up the data in the following table:

Treatment	Standard	New
Dead:	5950	9005
Alive:	5050 (46%)	1095 (11%)

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Sample space, outcome, events, probability

Sample space Ω : set of all possible outcomes (i.e. results) of an experiment.

A possible **outcome** ω is an element of the sample space, i.e. $\omega \in \Omega$.

An **event** A is a subset of the sample space Ω , i.e. $A \subset \Omega$.

* Rules for probabilities are for statistics what arithmetics is for mathematics.

Some famous results from probability theory:

Let A and B be two events in Ω , with $\mathbb{P}(B) > 0$.

* **Conditional probability** for A given B : $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$.

* **Multiplication rule**. $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A|B)\mathbb{P}(B) = \mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A)$.

* **Bayes' Theorem**: $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(B|A)\mathbb{P}(A)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$ \Rightarrow we can compute $\mathbb{P}(A|B)$ from $\mathbb{P}(B|A)$.

* **Law of total probability**. If $\{B_1, \dots, B_n\}$ is a finite partition of Ω , then

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i)$$

* A, B are **independent** if $\mathbb{P}(A \cap B) = \mathbb{P}(A)\mathbb{P}(B)$.

Theorem: A, B independent $\iff \mathbb{P}(A|B) = \mathbb{P}(A)$.

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Let's go back to our medical issue

Treatment	Male (M)		Female (F)	
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We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(A|N, M) = 0.1 &> \mathbb{P}(A|S, M) = 0.05 \\ \mathbb{P}(A|N, F) = 0.95 &> \mathbb{P}(A|S, F) = 0.50 \end{aligned}$$

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However $\mathbb{P}(A|N) = 0.1 < \mathbb{P}(A|S) = 0.46.$

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How can that be possible? Look at this table

	Standard	New
Male	1000 (9%)	10000 (99%)
Female	10000 (91%)	100 (1%)

and think about **conditional probability!**

Random variables. Sample space. Distribution

We use probability theory to describe phenomena involving randomness.

The sample space Ω is the set of all possible outcomes (i.e. results) ω of an experiment.

A **random/stochastic variable** X is the random outcome of an 'experiment'.

E : set containing the possible values assumed by X . **Discrete** rv: $E = \mathbb{N}$ or subset (finite/infinite). Continuous rv: $E = \mathbb{R}$ or (infinite) subset.

The distribution of X describes the probability of an outcome or ranges of outcomes. To define it, we need to specify the probability of each outcome.

Examples when rolling dice:

- * X : rv recording the outcome when rolling a die. Ω ? E ?
- * X : rv counting the ones when rolling 2 dice. Ω ? E ?

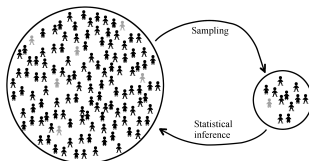
Statistical model

We run an experiment and we get some data.

- 1 We perform a statistical analysis, e.g. estimate some parameter, run some tests, etc.
- 2 We derive our conclusions **based on our data**.

New data \Rightarrow New statistical analysis \Rightarrow New conclusion ?

How much can we rely on our conclusions/estimates?



* **Data** (or observations) $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$: outcome of an experiment. \mathbf{x} is a value (realization) of a **random variable** $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$.

* **Idea**: use \mathbf{x} to obtain info about the distribution (why?) of \mathbf{X} .

* **Statistical Model**: set \mathcal{P} of possible probability measures P_θ parametrized by a parameter θ , that is

$$\mathcal{P} = \{\mathbb{P}_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\},$$

with Θ : parameter space.

Samples, statistical models and statistics

***Identifiability**: For $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \Theta$, if $\theta_1 \neq \theta_2 \Rightarrow \mathbb{P}_{\theta_1} \neq \mathbb{P}_{\theta_2}$. [e.g. FPTs for Wiener process]

***Sample $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$** : collection of independent rvs X_i with distribution $P_{i,\theta} \Rightarrow$ Statistical model:

***iid sample \mathbf{X}** : collection of iid rvs where all X_i have the same distribution $P_{i,\theta} = P_{1,\theta} \Rightarrow$ Statistical model:

$$\text{Obs } p(\mathbf{x}; \theta) := p_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{indep.}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n p_{i,\theta}(x_i) \stackrel{\text{ident. distr}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n p_{1,\theta}(x_i).$$

*A **statistic** is a function of the random sample which *compresses the data*, i.e. it defines a *data reduction/data summary*. Very well known statistics:

$$\text{Sample mean } \bar{X} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i; \text{ Sample variance } S^2 := \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2, \text{ minimum and maximum.}$$

Mathematical statements derived from statistical methods are exact under the chosen model but their validity in practice depends on how well the model reflects the problem! \Rightarrow All models are true and good BEFORE validating them on data. \Rightarrow Model validation (Does the model fit the data?) is **CRUCIAL**.

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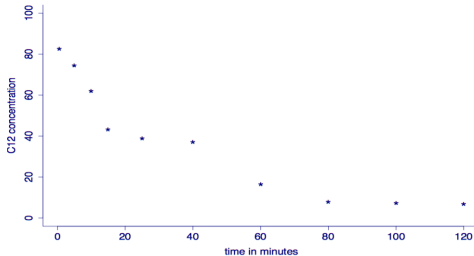
Sample mean $\bar{X} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$; *Sample variance*

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Example: Deterministic vs Stochastic models.

Experimental data of dodecanedioic acid (C12) in rat livers

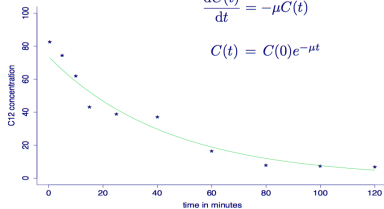


Data from: S. Ditlevsen, A. De Gaetano. *Stochastic vs. deterministic uptake of dodecanedioic acid by isolated rat livers*. Bulletin of Mathematical Biology, 67 (3), 547–561, 2005.

Assuming exponential decay

$$\frac{dC(t)}{dt} = -\mu C(t)$$

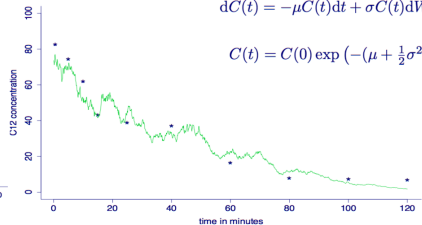
$$C(t) = C(0)e^{-\mu t}$$



Assuming exponential decay with noise

$$dC(t) = -\mu C(t)dt + \sigma C(t)dW(t)$$

$$C(t) = C(0) \exp\left(-\left(\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)t + \sigma W(t)\right)$$



Estimate of $C(0)$ and μ ?

Estimate of $C(0)$, μ and σ ?

Estimation in fully (discretely) observed diffusion processes

* **Diffusion process**: Stochastic process obtained as solution of a SDE (e.g. using Ito's formula).

$$dX_t = b(X_t; \theta)dt + \sigma(X_t; \theta)dW_t \quad \theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$$

X , b and W d -dimensional, σ : $d \times d$ matrix.

State space: $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$.

For $d = 1$, $D = (l, r)$, $-\infty \leq l < r \leq \infty$.

Data: X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} , $t_i = \Delta i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Prop: A diffusion process is a **Markov process**.

Markov process (Hints)

* For simplicity, let us consider discrete time stochastic process $\{X_t : t \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

* Finite *state-space* $S = \{1, \dots, m\}$ such that $X_t = j \in S$ for all $t \in \mathbb{N}$.

* **Markov property**: Define $\mathbf{X}^{(t)} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_t)$ the history till time t . Then

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} | \mathbf{X}^{(t)}) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} | X_t, X_{t-1}, \dots, X_1) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} | X_t).$$



* A **Markov chain** (MC) is a stochastic process with the property that the future states are independent of the past states **given the present state**.

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Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).

$$dX_t = b(X_t; \theta)dt + \sigma(X_t; \theta)dW_t \quad \theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$$

***Data:** X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} , $t_1 < \dots < t_n$.

***Likelihood function:** $L_n(\theta) = p(X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n}; \theta)$.

(What is a likelihood function? Meaning? Interpretation?)

* Maximizing the likelihood yields the **maximum likelihood estimator**.

* Note: It is easier to maximize the log-likelihood $l_n(\theta) = \log L_n(\theta)$ (it has the same maximum).

* For simplicity: assume $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. only one parameter unknown (similar for $\theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$). Derive $\hat{\theta}$ as follows:

- 1 Compute the likelihood function $L_n(\theta)$;
- 2 Compute the **log-likelihood** $l_n(\theta) = \log L(\theta)$;
- 3 Compute the **score function(s)** $\partial_\theta l_n(\theta)$;
- 4 Estimator $\hat{\theta}$ such that $\partial_\theta l_n(\theta) = 0$.

How to compute the likelihood $L_n(\theta)$?

The “correct” likelihood function

$$dX_t = b(X_t; \theta)dt + \sigma(X_t; \theta)dW_t \quad \theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p.$$

Data: X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} , $t_1 < \dots < t_n$.

We have the “correct”(under the assumed model) likelihood-function:

$$L_n(\theta) = p(X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n}; \theta).$$

Applying Bayes’ theorem several times we get

$$\begin{aligned} L_n(\theta) &\stackrel{\text{Bayes' Th.}}{=} p(X_{t_n}|X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta) \times p(X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta) \\ &= \text{Continuing applying Bayes' theorem this way} \\ &= p(X_{t_n}|X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta) \times p(X_{t_{n-1}}|X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_{n-2}}; \theta) \times \dots \\ &\quad \dots \times p(X_{t_2}|X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}; \theta) \times p(X_{t_1}|X_{t_0}; \theta)p(X_{t_0}; \theta) \end{aligned}$$

An important property of our observations, which they inherit from the diffusion process: they are a Markov process. Thus:

$$p(X_{t_n}|X_{t_0}, X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta) = p(X_{t_n}|X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta)$$

and therefore

$$L_n(\theta) = p(X_{t_n}|X_{t_{n-1}}; \theta) \times \dots \times p(X_{t_1}|X_{t_0}; \theta)p(X_{t_0}; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(X_{t_i}|X_{t_{i-1}}; \theta)p(X_{t_0}; \theta).$$

$$\stackrel{\text{log-lik}}{\Rightarrow} \ln(\theta) = \log p(X_{t_0}; \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(X_{t_i}|X_{t_{i-1}}; \theta)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Score function}}{\Rightarrow} \partial_{\theta} \ln(\theta) = [\partial_{\theta} p(X_{t_0}; \theta)]/p(X_{t_0}; \theta) + \sum_{i=1}^n [\partial_{\theta} p(X_{t_i}|X_{t_{i-1}}; \theta)]/p(X_{t_i}|X_{t_{i-1}}; \theta).$$

Likelihood function:
$$L_n(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(\Delta_i, X_{t_{i-1}}, X_{t_i}; \theta) p(X_{t_0}; \theta), \quad \Delta_i := t_i - t_{i-1}$$

with $p(\Delta_i, X_{t_{i-1}}, X_{t_i}; \theta) = p(X_{t_i} | X_{t_{i-1}}; \theta)$ **transition density**, i.e. probability density function of the conditional distribution of $X_{t+\Delta}$ given that $X_t = x$. (Also conditional density of $X_{t+s+\Delta}$ given $X_{t+s} = x$ since the process is time homogeneous).

* If $p(\Delta, x, y; \theta)$ is

known \Rightarrow **MLE** as before, either analytically or numerically, i.e.

1. compute the log-likelihood $l_n(\theta)$.
2. solve $\partial_\theta l_n(\theta) = 0$.

unknown (or nasty) What to do?

1st Approach Approximate $p(\Delta, x, y; \theta)$ with something we like, e.g. normal transition density.

\Rightarrow Derive the approximate likelihood function.

\Rightarrow Derive an estimator as before, setting the score function to zero.

2nd Approach Consider other suitable function instead of the likelihood (e.g. **Least squares estimation**).

Alternative: Unknown quantities can be also approximated by simulations!

Example: Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU) process

$$dX_t = -\beta(X_t - \alpha)dt + \sigma dW_t$$

where $\beta > 0$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma > 0$ and $X_0 = x_0$.

Solution (Using Ito's formula):

$$X_t = \alpha + (x_0 - \alpha)e^{-\beta t} + \sigma \int_0^t e^{-\beta(t-s)} dW_s.$$

Sum of deterministic terms and an integral of a deterministic function with respect to a Wiener process with normally distributed increments
 \Rightarrow The distribution is normal.

The **conditional expectation** is

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t | X_0 = x_0] = \mathbb{E} \left[\alpha + (x_0 - \alpha)e^{-\beta t} + \sigma \int_0^t e^{-\beta(t-s)} dW_s \right] =$$

The **conditional variance** is

$$\text{Var}(X_t | X_0 = x_0) = \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sigma \int_0^t e^{-\beta(t-s)} dW_s \right)^2 \right] \stackrel{\text{Ito's isom.}}{=} \sigma^2 \int_0^t e^{-2\beta(t-s)} ds$$

Thus, $(X_t | X_0 = x_0) \sim N \left(\alpha + (x_0 - \alpha)e^{-\beta t}, \frac{\sigma^2}{2\beta} (1 - e^{-2\beta t}) \right)$.

Asymptotically $X_t \sim N \left(\alpha, \frac{\sigma^2}{2\beta} \right)$ (or always if $X_0 \sim N \left(\alpha, \frac{\sigma^2}{2\beta} \right)$).

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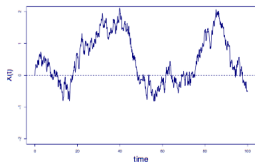
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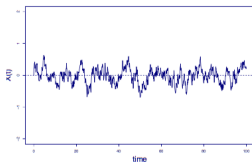
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Parameter interpretation in the OU process

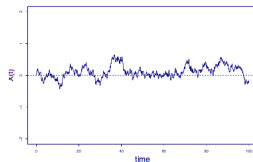
Asymptotically $X_t \sim N(\alpha, \frac{\sigma^2}{2\beta})$.



$$\beta = 0.01, \sigma = 1$$



$$\beta = 0.1, \sigma = 1$$



$$\beta = 0.01, \sigma = 0.5$$

β : how “strongly” the system reacts to perturbation.

(the “decay rate” or “growth-rate”).

σ^2 : the variation or the size of the noise.

α : the asymptotic mean.

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Example: Least squares estimation for OU.

* Consider the OU process (for simplicity with only one parameter):

$$dX_t = -\theta X_t + W_t, \quad (\text{i.e. } \beta = \theta, \alpha = 0, \sigma = 1).$$

* **Data:** X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} with $\Delta = t_i - t_{i-1} \Rightarrow$ Data: $X_\Delta, X_{2\Delta}, \dots, X_{n\Delta}$.

* For these parameter values, we saw before that

$$\begin{aligned} (X_{t_i} | X_{t_{i-1}}) &= (X_{i\Delta} | X_{(i-1)\Delta}) \sim N \left(X_{(i-1)\Delta} e^{-\theta\Delta}, \frac{1 - e^{-2\theta\Delta}}{2\theta} \right) \\ \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}_\theta(X_{i\Delta} | X_{(i-1)\Delta}) &= X_{(i-1)\Delta} e^{-\theta\Delta} \quad \text{Var}_\theta(X_{i\Delta} | X_{(i-1)\Delta}) = \frac{1 - e^{-2\theta\Delta}}{2\theta}. \end{aligned}$$

Idea: Approximate $X_{i\Delta}$ with its conditional mean.

\Rightarrow We can find an estimator for θ by **minimizing**

$$K_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(X_{i\Delta} - e^{\theta\Delta} X_{(i-1)\Delta} \right)^2$$

\Rightarrow **Least squares estimation or minimum contrast estimation.**

Solve $\frac{d}{d\theta} K_n(\theta) = 0$ gives us

$$\hat{\theta} = -\frac{1}{\Delta} \log \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_{(i-1)\Delta} X_{i\Delta}}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_{(i-1)\Delta}^2} \right),$$

provided that $\sum_{i=1}^n X_{(i-1)\Delta} X_{i\Delta} > 0$.

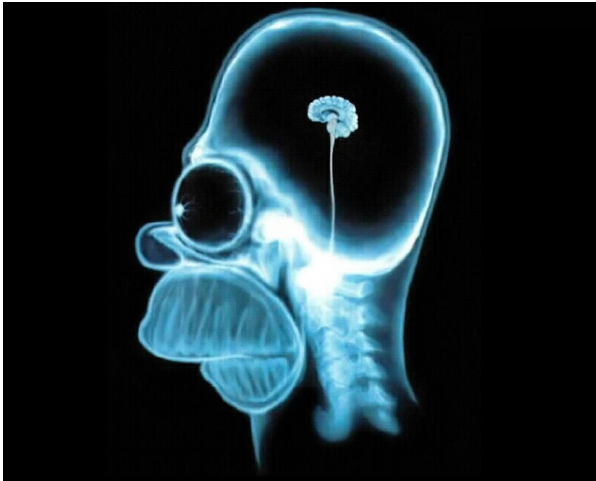
* **Note:** Since $p(X_{i\Delta} | X_{(i-1)\Delta}; \theta)$ is known, one could also perform **MLE**.

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How does a human brain look like?

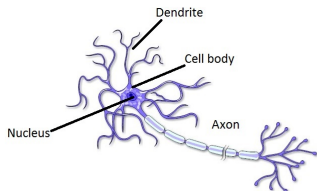
What is going on in our brain?
How does a single neuron look like?

How does a human brain look like?



What is going on in our brain?
How does a single neuron look like?

Structure of a neuron and neuron activity



Three functionally distinct parts:

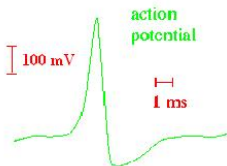
- 1 dendrites: input device collecting signals
- 2 soma (cell body): central processing unit
- 3 axon: output device

Connections between neurons are due to synapses (presynaptic, postsynaptic): **chemical neurotransmitters**

* Two different types of measurements of the neuronal activity:

- 1 Intracellular recordings. Type of data: sampling from the membrane potential V_t .
- 2 Extracellular recordings. Type of data: spike times.

Action Potential or Spike

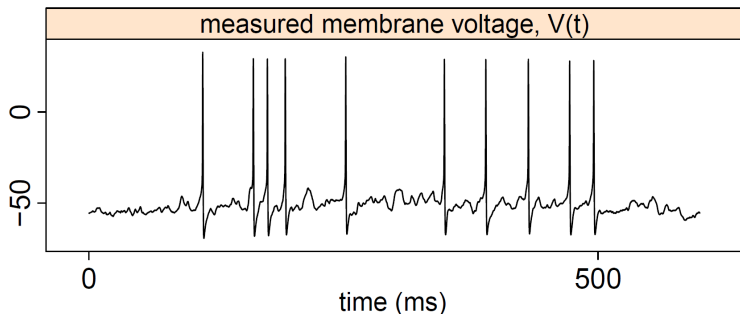


An action potential (or spike) is a short voltage pulse of 1-2 ms of duration and around 100mV of amplitude. The action potentials of a specific neuron have a characteristic shape.

Intracellular recording

* Intracellular recording: Difference between the membrane potential (voltage) V_t internal to the cell and the surrounding. In absence of inputs, it spontaneously decays toward an initial voltage $V(0)$ of about $-65mV$.

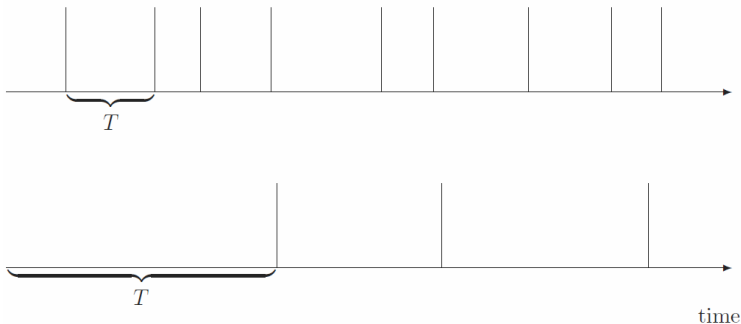
* **Data:** V_{t_1}, \dots, V_{t_n} from the membrane potential V_t .



Observations of the membrane potential in a spinal motoneuron of an adult red-eared turtle during 600 ms measured every 0.1 ms. Data from Berg Laboratory (Berg et al.2007)

Extracellular recording (Spike train)

We observe the spikes.



Two alternative approaches:

- **Rate coding** \Rightarrow Working with point processes.
- **Temporal coding** \Rightarrow Working with Interspike-Intervals (ISIs).

Relevant questions at a single-neuron level

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- **How to model the single neuronal behaviour?**
 - Models driven by ODEs (Lapique, Hodgkin-Huxley, FitzHugh-Nagumo, Morris-Lecar);
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 - Investigate relationships between inputs and output signal
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- **What information can we extract from data?**

Hodgkin-Huxley model & friends

Detailed model taking opening/closing of ion channels into account. A HH model is a system of 4 ODEs (V_t : membrane voltage) given by

$$C_m \frac{dV_t}{dt} = -g_K n^4 (V_t - E_K) - g_{Na} m^3 h (V_t - E_{Na}) - g_L (V_t - E_L) + I$$

Gating variables:

$$\dot{m} = \alpha_m(V_t)(1 - m) - \beta_m(V_t)m$$

$$\dot{h} = \alpha_h(V_t)(1 - h) - \beta_h(V_t)h$$

$$\dot{n} = \alpha_n(V_t)(1 - n) - \beta_n(V_t)n$$

A.L. Hodgkin and A. F. Huxley, *A quantitative description of membrane current and its application to conduction and excitation in nerve*, J. Physiol., 117(4): 500-544, 1952. \Rightarrow Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1963.

Important simplified versions: Morris-Lecar model, Fitzhugh-Nagumo model.

* These models create a feedback system capable of producing **spikes** (through limit cycle).

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Inference from intracellular recording

(for conductance/current based models as Hodgkin-Huxley & friends)

- * **Data:** Intracellular recording V_{t_1}, \dots, V_{t_n} .
- * **Goal:** Estimation of parameters appearing in both V_t and W_t .
- * **Unrealistic scenario:** Assume W_t to be observed.
 - * Why do we do that?
 - * How do we do that? MLE.
- * **Realistic scenario:**

S. Ditlevsen, A. Samson. Parameter estimation in neuronal stochastic differential equation models from intracellular recordings of membrane potentials in single neurons: a Review. J. Soc. Franc. Stat., 2015

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 - * Why do we do that?
 - * How do we do that? MLE.
 - * **Realistic scenario:** W_t is not observed!
- ⇒ **Estimation from partially observed models:**
- * If lucky: Hidden-Markov models.
 - * If not: particle filter for (non)-autonomous systems, stochastic approximation methods, EM algorithm (with particle filters), etc.

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Hidden Markov models (Hints)

Define the history up to time t :

$$\mathbf{C}^{(t)} = (C_1, C_2, \dots, C_t) \quad \mathbf{X}^{(t)} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_t)$$

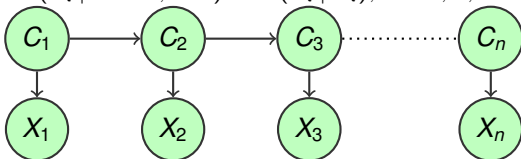
The model consists of two parts:

Unobserved **parameter process**: $\{C_t : t \in \mathbb{N}\}$ satisfying the Markov property:

$$P(C_t | \mathbf{C}^{(t-1)}) = P(C_t | C_{t-1}), t = 2, 3, \dots$$

Observed **state-dependent process**: $\{X_t : t \in \mathbb{N}\}$ satisfying conditional independence given the state of the MC:

$$P(X_t | \mathbf{X}^{(t-1)}, \mathbf{C}^{(t)}) = P(X_t | C_t), t = 1, 2, \dots$$



(Some of the) Goals when dealing with HMMs

* Forecasting for X_{t+n} given $\mathbf{X}^{(t)}$. * Local decoding of C_t given $\mathbf{X}^{(t)}$.

* Global decoding of (C_1, \dots, C_t) given $\mathbf{X}^{(t)}$.

Common method: EM algorithm

- * Iterative method to perform MLE with missing data.
- * Useful when the complete data likelihood is easier to maximized then the observed data likelihood.

Observed data: $X^{(N)} : (X_1, \dots, X_N)$.

Unobserved (missing, hidden) data: $C^{(N)} : (C_1, \dots, C_N)$.

Complete data: $(X^{(N)}, C^{(N)})$.

Observed data likelihood: $p(X_1, \dots, X_N; \theta)$.

Complete data likelihood (CDL) : $p(X_1, C_1, \dots, X_N, C_N; \theta)$.

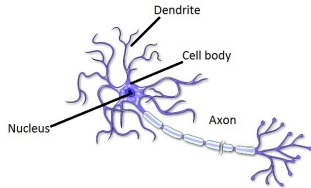
Idea: Choose an initial value for the parameter θ .

E-step: Conditional expectations of the missing data given the observations and the current value of θ .

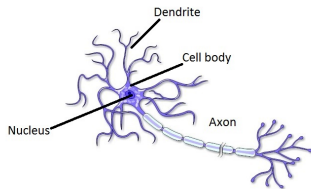
M-step: Update θ by maximizing the CDL with respect to θ , with the missing data replaced by their conditional expectations, calculated in the E-step.

Repeat until convergence, e.g. change in θ is less than some chosen value. \Rightarrow the obtained $\hat{\theta}$ is then a stationary point of the likelihood - not necessarily a global maximum.

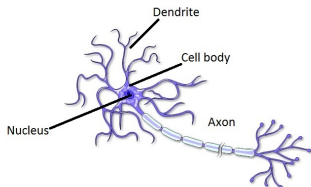
Leaky Integrate-and-Fire (LIF) models



Leaky Integrate-and-Fire (LIF) models



Leaky Integrate-and-Fire (LIF) models



The model:

$$dX_t = \mu(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dW(t); \quad X_0 = x_0$$

X_t : membrane potential at time t after a spike.

x_0 : initial voltage membrane potential at time t after a spike.

A spike is produced when the membrane voltage X_t exceed a firing threshold $S_t > X_0 = 0$.

After firing, the process is reset to x_0 . The interspike interval T is identified with the first passage time (FPT) of the threshold:

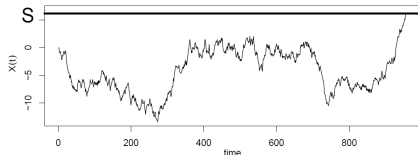
$$T = \inf\{t > 0 : X_t \geq S_t\}$$

KEY PROPERTY: Interspike intervals are iid! (Is this realistic??)

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Inference from intracellular recording (for LIF)

$$dX_t = \mu(X_t; \theta)dt + \sigma(X_t; \theta)dW(t); \quad X_0 = x_0, \quad \theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p.$$



* **Data:** Intracellular recording
 X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_n} .

* **Scenario:** Fully (discretely)
 observed process.

* **Goal:** Estimation of θ .

* This is NOT the same scenario we saw before: the presence of the threshold changes the underlying transition density!

⇒ Perform MLE from the previous transition free density
 introduce **biases** in the estimators!

⇒ We should consider the transition density of X_t in presence of absorbing boundary.

Issue: This density is often unknown! What to do?

* Numerical methods to calculate it.

* Monte-Carlo simulation based methods.

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Inference from extracellular recordings (for LIF)

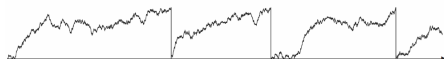
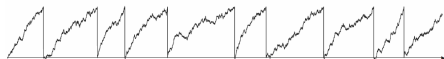
Simplest (and most common) hypothesis:

constant threshold $S_t = S > X_0$ (Is it realistic?)



time

Underlying processes



Note: There is only information on the time scale, nothing on the scale of X_t .

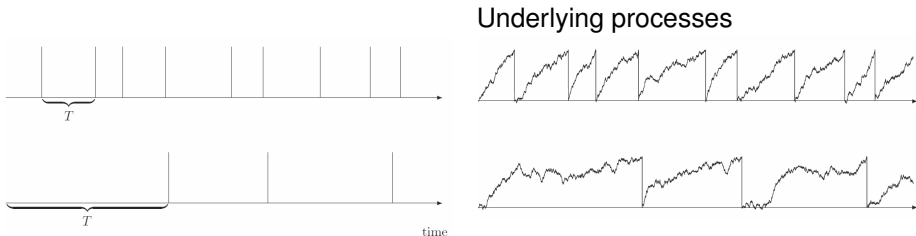
Interspike intervals are assumed to be iid (Is that realistic??).

Common approaches: Maximum likelihood estimation ($p_T(t; \theta)$ is rarely known \Rightarrow we compute it numerically or via simulations), Moment estimation, Laplace estimator of T , etc.

Inference from extracellular recordings (for LIF)

Simplest (and most common) hypothesis:

constant threshold $S_t = S > X_0$ (Is it realistic?)



Note: There is only information on the time scale, nothing on the scale of X_t . \Rightarrow **Something is not identifiable in the model** from these data \Rightarrow something (typically the threshold S) has to be assumed known!

Interspike intervals are assumed to be iid (Is that realistic??).

Common approaches: Maximum likelihood estimation ($p_T(t; \theta)$ is rarely known \Rightarrow we compute it numerically or via simulations), Moment estimation, Laplace estimator of T , etc.

Example: Brownian motion with drift

Simplest model (known in neuroscience as **Perfect-Integrator**)

$$dX_t = \mu dt + \sigma dW_t, \quad \mu > 0, \sigma > 0; \quad X_0 = 0 < S$$

The FPT distribution of T is known (one of the few cases!): T is **Inverse Gaussian** with scale parameter S/μ and shape parameter S^2/σ^2 , with mean, variance and density:

$$T \sim IG\left(\frac{S}{\mu}, \frac{S^2}{\sigma^2}\right), \quad \mathbb{E}[T] = \frac{S}{\mu}, \quad \text{Var}(T) = \frac{S\sigma^2}{\mu^2},$$

$$p_T(t; \theta) = \frac{S}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 t^3}} \exp\left(-\frac{(S - \mu t)^2}{2\sigma^2 t}\right) \quad (1)$$

Note: **Identifiability issue** ($\tilde{S} = aS, \tilde{\mu} = a\mu, \tilde{\sigma}^2 = a^2\sigma^2, a > 0$ yield the same distribution!) \Rightarrow We cannot estimate S, μ, σ^2 at the same time \Rightarrow We assume S to be known.

\Rightarrow **Parameters** to estimate: μ and σ^2 .

Data: T_1, \dots, T_n FPTs of X_t through S . Important: **iid** rvs!

Possible approaches: **MLE** and **Moment Estimation**

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATORS

$$L_n(\theta) \stackrel{iid\ data}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n p_T(T_i; \theta) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{S}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 T_i^3}} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{(S - \mu T_i)^2}{2\sigma^2 T_i}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow l_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log p_T(T_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{S}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 T_i^3}} \right) - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(S - \mu T_i)^2}{2\sigma^2 T_i}$$

$$\text{Score functions:} \Rightarrow \partial_\mu l_n(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(S - \mu T_i)}{\sigma^2}; \quad \partial_{\sigma^2} l_n(\theta) = -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(S - \mu T_i)^2}{2(\sigma^2)^2 T_i}$$

Solving $\partial_\mu l_n(\theta) = 0$ and $\partial_{\sigma^2} l_n(\theta) = 0$ in μ and σ^2 , yields

$$\hat{\mu}_{MLE} = \frac{S}{\bar{T}}; \quad \hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = S^2 \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{T_i} - \frac{1}{\bar{T}} \right), \quad \text{with } \bar{T} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i \quad (\text{sample mean}).$$

MOMENT ESTIMATORS

Idea: Obtain estimators by equalizing true moments and sample moments. \Rightarrow
The moment estimators $\hat{\mu}_{ME}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{ME}^2$ are obtained by solving a system of 2 equations in 2 unknown (**true moments** = **sample moments**):

$$\mathbb{E}[T] = \frac{S}{\mu} = \bar{T}; \quad \text{Var}(T) = \frac{S\sigma^2}{\mu^3} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (T_i - \bar{T})^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mu}_{ME} = \frac{S}{\bar{T}} = \hat{\mu}_{MLE} \quad \hat{\sigma}_{ME}^2 = \frac{\hat{\mu}^3}{S} \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (T_i - \bar{T})^2 \neq \sigma_{MLE}^2.$$

Next time you deal with data

Important initial questions

- 1 Are the data “good” enough? Are they iid?
- 2 What question (do I want to)/can I answer from those data?
- 3 What can be a good model for the available dataset?

Once the previous questions have been answered, new questions arise:

- 1 How can I estimate the relevant parameters?
⇒ Develop reliable statistical methods.
- 2 How much can I trust my conclusions?
⇒ Use simulations to get simulated/asymptotic errors/confidence intervals for the true parameters.
- 3 Is the chosen model able to fit the data? ⇒ Model validation.
- 4 How should I choose between two possible competing models?
⇒ Model selection, e.g. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) .