Information theoretic approaches to deciphering the neural code with functional fluorescence imaging

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Abstract

Information theoretic metrics have proven highly useful to quantify the relationship between behaviorally relevant parameters and neuronal activity with relatively few assumptions. However, such metrics are typically applied to action potential recordings and were not designed for the slow timescales and variable amplitudes typical of functional fluorescence recordings (e.g. calcium imaging). Therefore, the power of information theoretic metrics has yet to be fully exploited by the neuroscience community due to a lack of understanding for how to apply and interpret the metrics with such fluorescence traces. Here, we used computational methods to create mock action potential traces with known amounts of information and from them generated fluorescence traces to examine the ability of different information metrics to recover the known information values. We provide guidelines for the use of information metrics when applied to functional fluorescence and demonstrate their appropriate application to GCaMP6f population recordings from hippocampal neurons imaged during virtual navigation.

Introduction

Neurons encode parameters important for animal behavior, at least in part, through the rate of production of action potentials. Evidence for this fundamental insight into the brain's language for coding different types of parameter spaces can be found from electrophysiological action potential recordings of orientation tuning in the visual system (Hubel and Wiesel, 2009), chemical sensing in the olfactory system (Leveteau and MacLeod, 1966; Wachowiak and Shipley, 2006), and spatial encoding in the hippocampus (O'Keefe, 1976). Defining metrics to quantify the relationship between a neuron's spiking rate and the behavioral parameter spaces has therefore become a key step in deciphering the neural code, but there are many metrics used for quantification. These metrics are often used to compare neural responses across conditions or in neurons with complex responses, but the underlying assumptions of the different metrics then become important factors to consider when determining which one to use.

Information theory is growing in popularity in the neuroscience community, largely because it provides a means to quantify rate coding with relatively few assumptions compared to other metrics. For example, information theory can be applied to neurons with widely varying response properties because it: 1. Is a nonlinear metric, and therefore does not require the linearity assumptions of correlation metrics (e.g. (Grubb and Thompson, 2006; Hinman et al., 2016; Jiaying Tang, 2015; Kropff et al., 2015), 2. Does not assume a response shape, as is often the case with Gaussian receptive field mapping metrics (e.g. Kraus et al., 2015; Soo et al., 2011) or metrics using curve fitting to an exponential or polynomial curve (Hinman et al., 2016; Jiaying Tang, 2015), and 3. Uses the full time trace or full shape of the mean response profile, rather than defining receptive fields as the portion that exceeds some threshold (e.g. Harvey et al., 2009; Niell and Stryker, 2008; Pastalkova et al., 2008). A useful information theoretic measure is mutual information (MI). Typically measured in bits per unit time, MI describes the increase in predictability of the neural response when behavioral parameters are known. However, MI can be nontrivial to estimate from neural and behavioral recordings and its estimation is an ongoing area of research (Belghazi et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2017; Kraskov et al., 2004; Timme and Lapish, 2018).

Here we focus on the most widely used estimator of MI used in neuroscience, the SMGM estimator which was developed by Skaggs, McNaughton, Gothard and Markus (Skaggs et al., 1993), though as a point of comparison, we also consider the Binned Estimator (Timme and Lapish, 2018) and a technique developed by Kraskov, Stogbauer and Grassberger (KSG, Kraskov et al., 2004). The Binned Estimator estimates the joint probability distribution using a 2D histogram of neural response vs. behavioral variable; this transforms continuous variables into discrete values. This estimator requires dense sampling of both neural activity and behavioral spaces and is dependent on the exact number of bins and binning method (Timme and Lapish, 2018). It has been used to estimate behavioral information contained in extracellularly recorded action potentials (García-Rosales et al., 2018; Linsenbardt et al., 2019), EEGs (Dauwels et al., 2010; Jeong et al., 2001; Min, 2003), and LFPs (Belitski et al., 2008). KSG estimates mutual information by examining the distance between data-points in the neural activity-behavioral parameter space. This technique is relatively more complex to use and has been benchmarked primarily on well-behaved, continuous random variables. The KSG estimator has been used to estimate behavioral information contained in continuous neural data, such as FMRI (Gómez-Verdejo et al., 2012), AP waveform shape (Chen et al., 2019), MEG (Robinson and Mandell, 2015), LFP (Manyakov and Van Hulle, 2008), and intracellular recordings (Sun et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017).

The SMGM estimator, on the other hand, relies on the assumption that AP firing follows an inhomogeneous Poisson process. The SMGM estimator therefore requires binning of only the behavioral variable(s), in contrast to the Binned Estimator. The profile of firing rates vs. behavioral variable is then used to estimate the MI. The relative simplicity of the SMGM estimator has added to its popularity and widespread use in neuroscience applications for estimating behavioral information contained in single unit action potential recordings. This metric has proven useful in quantifying rate coding in place cells (Knierim et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2006; Markus et al., 1995; Poucet and Sargolini, 2013), complex spatial responses in neurons such as hippocampal interneurons (Frank et al., 2001; Wilent and Nitz, 2007), odor sequence cells (Allen et al., 2016), time cells (MacDonald et al., 2013), head direction cells (Stackman and Taube, 1998), speed cells (Fyhn et al., 2002), and face differential neurons (Nguyen et al., 2014, 2013), and has been used across multiple different species (Hazama and Tamura, 2019; Mankin et al., 2019; Yartsev and Ulanovsky, 2013). Furthermore, as a single neuron metric it provides statistical power for comparisons. Thus, it has been used to quantify differences in rate coding across different brain regions (Simonnet and Brecht, 2019) and has also been used to examine the effect on rate coding by experimental interventions such as lesions (Calton et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2004), inactivations (Brandon et al., 2011; Hok et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2009; Koenig et al., 2011), and applications of drugs (Newman et al., 2014; Robbe and Buzsáki, 2009). Further, it has been used to examine differences in encoding that arise during different behaviors (Aronov and Tank, 2014; Park et al., 2011; Zinyuk, 2000), and to demonstrate changes arising in disease models (Fu et al., 2017; Gerrard et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2007). SMGM information is often normalized from measuring bits per unit time to measure bits per AP. This creates a measure sensitive only to the selectivity of a neuron, and not the average firing rate of the neuron.

The power of MI estimators has yet to be fully exploited by the neuroscience community. For example, the estimators have not yet been widely used to compare encoding properties of large numbers of genetically identified neurons, or to quantify information content of other discrete signaling events such as synaptic inputs; both of which are difficult to study using electrophysiological methods.

In vivo imaging of functional indicators has emerged as an important tool, largely because it possesses these capabilities. For example, using fluorescent calcium indicators, the functional properties of hundreds to tens of thousands of neurons can be simultaneously recorded in rodents (Dombeck et al., 2007;

Radvansky and Dombeck, 2018; Sheffield et al., 2017; Stirman et al., 2016; Stringer et al., 2019; Ziv et al., 2013) or hundreds of thousands of neurons in zebrafish (Ahrens et al., 2013), as well as the whole brain in invertebrates such as *C. elegans* (Nguyen et al., 2016) and *Drosophila* (Keller and Ahrens, 2015; Mann et al., 2017). Furthermore, the genetic identity of the recorded neurons can be assured (Jing et al., 2018a, 2018b, 2018c; Khoshkhoo et al., 2017; Sheffield et al., 2017) and subcellular structures are accessible, allowing for functional recordings from synapses and dendrites using different functional fluorescent indicators (e.g. Jing et al., 2018d; Marvin et al., 2019, 2018; Scholl et al., 2017; Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015). However, functional fluorescence indicators generate signals that are not a direct readout of the underlying quantal events. For example, somatic recordings from neurons labeled with fluorescent calcium indicators reveal intensity variations that are correlated with somatic AP firing rates but appear as a smoothed and varying amplitude version of the action potential train. This transformation from action potential train to fluorescence trace is an active area of research (Dana et al., 2018; Éltes et al., 2019; Greenberg et al., 2018), but it is often approximated by convolving the action potential train with a kernel, which defines the indicator's response to a single action potential. These kernels typically take the shape of a sharp increase in fluorescence followed by an exponential decay to baseline (Chen et al., 2013; Dana et al., 2018; Pachitariu et al., 2018; Park et al., 2013; Yaksi and Friedrich, 2006). Therefore, while functional fluorescence imaging and information theoretic quantification may prove to be a powerful new combination of tools to study neural correlates of behavior, it is critical to remember that functional fluorescence signals represent altered versions of the underlying physiological events.

Caution is then needed when applying information metrics to continuous functional fluorescence traces, yet the imaging community is already pushing forward and beginning to use information metrics, particularly SMGM. This metric has already been applied to somatic calcium responses to compare the information content of the same neurons across different behavioral epochs (Heys and Dombeck, 2018), to quantify information across different populations of neurons in different brain regions (Hainmueller and Bartos, 2018), to quantify information across different genetically identified neural populations (Khoshkhoo et al., 2017), to examine encoding by subcellular structures (Rashid et al., 2020), and to classify the significance of encoding particular parameters by individual neurons (Kinsky et al., 2018; Mau et al., 2018; Rashid et al., 2020).

However, it is essential to recognize some of the assumptions underlying these information metrics are violated by functional florescence recordings. All three metrics (SMGM, KSG and Binned Estimation) assume stationarity in the neural response, which is violated by the elongated time responses and relatively slow fluctuations of the fluorescence intensity of the reporters. When applied to spiking data, there is also a change in units: rather than action potential counts, functional fluorescence traces are typically plotted in units of florescence change with respect to the baseline ($\Delta F/F$). One possible solution to these issues would be to deconvolve calcium traces to recover APs; however, deconvolution is an active area of research, and the accuracy of these methods has recently been questioned (Evans et al., 2019). Ideally, the calcium traces could be used directly to measure spiking information, without the need for such an in between, potentially error introducing, step.

Quantifying the effects of the above violations on measurements of information using functional fluorescence recordings using an analytical solution is particularly challenging with behaviorally modulated neural recording data. However, a more tractable means of quantifying the effects would be to use a simulation study to measure the induced biases and changes in measurement quality (Morris et al., 2019). This strategy makes use of pseudo-randomly generated action potential traces and has the

advantage that the ground truth parameters of the simulations are known, while variability due to behavior and other features can be incorporated. For example, this technique was previously used to examine measures of theta phase precession, rhythmicity, neural correlation, and cellular dynamics (Climer et al., 2015, 2013; Cohen and Kohn, 2011; Østergaard et al., 2018).

To provide the field with guidelines for the use of information metrics applied to functional fluorescence recording data, we used computational simulation methods to create a library of ten thousand mock neurons whose spiking output carry an exact, known (ground-truth) amount of information about the animal's spatial location in its local environment. We used real behavioral data of spatial position over time from mice navigating in virtual linear tracks and then simulated the spatial firing patterns of the mock neurons using an inhomogeneous Poisson process framework (Brown et al., 2003; Climer et al., 2013; Paninski, 2004). We then simulated fluorescent calcium responses for each neuron in each session by convolving the action potential trains with calcium kernels for different indicators, primarily GCamp6f (Chen et al., 2013), and then we added noise. MI metrics (between spatial location and the neural signals) were then applied to the spiking or fluorescence traces to quantify the performance of the metrics for estimating information. We focused on testing the performance of the SMGM method, and then compared its performance to the Binned Estimation and KSG methods. We also applied a deconvolution algorithm to test its performance. We found that the SMGM method applied directly to the mean ΔF/F intensity map could best recover the ground truth information. We provide guidelines for the use of the SMGM metric when applied to functional fluorescence recordings and demonstrate the appropriate application of these guidelines to GCaMP6f population recordings from CA1 hippocampal pyramidal neurons in mice navigating virtual linear tracks. From this CA1 analysis, we quantified the spatial information content of large populations of pyramidal neurons and then performed Bayesian decoding of mouse position from different information containing subsets of this large population. Interestingly, we found that the population quantile with the lowest information values were still able to decode mouse position to the closest quarter of the track. Thus, we provide new findings about the neural code for space that were made possible by the information metrics and guidelines that we introduce here.

Results

The SMGM information metrics

Here we review the derivation of the SMGM information metrics and the underlying assumptions. For illustrative purposes throughout this manuscript, we use the example of spatial encoding in which the firing pattern of neurons carry information about the animal's location along a linear track; however, the derivations, equations and conclusions generalize to encoded variables over other domains and dimensionalities.

Consider a random variable X representing the positions an animal might take, with x being its value measured at one time sample. The positions are subdivided into N spatial bins, such that x can take on the values $\{1,2,\ldots,N\}$. For our analyses, N=60. Consider a random variable Y representing the number of action potentials a neuron might fire, where y is the count measured within a time sample. y can take on the values of $\{0,1,\ldots,+\infty\}$. X and Y are both discrete. If X and Y both obey the assumption that each time sample is independent (i.e. they are stationary), then the mutual information (I, in bits per sample) between X and Y is expressed as follows:

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{y=0}^{+\infty} p_{X,Y}(x_i, y)\log_2\frac{p_{X,Y}(x_i, y)}{p_X(x_i)p_Y(y)} \qquad 1$$

Where $p_X(x_i)$ is the (marginal) probability that the animal is in the ith spatial bin during a time sample, $p_Y(y)$ is the probability that the neuron fires y action potentials in the time sample, and $p_{X,Y}(x_i, y)$ is the joint probability that the neuron fires y action potentials and is in the ith bin. Recall that $p_{X,Y}(x_i, y) = p_{Y|X}(y|x_i)p_X(x_i)$, where $p_{Y|X}(y|x_i)$ is the conditional probability that the neuron fires y action potentials given that the animal is in the ith spatial bin. We can thus rewrite Equation 1 as follows:

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{y=0}^{+\infty} p_{Y|X}(y|x_i)p_X(x_i)\log_2\frac{p_{Y|X}(y|x_i)}{p_Y(y)} \qquad 2$$

With the further assumption that the firing of the neuron follows Poisson statistics, we can then estimate the mutual information as follows: let the action potential rate (action potential/s or Hz) in a single bin be λ_i, and the average across the session be $\bar{\lambda}$. For an arbitrarily small time window Δt, the probability that an action potential occurs in that window is $\Pr(Y = 1|x = i) = \lambda_i\Delta t$, with the probability that an action potential occurs regardless of position as $\Pr(Y = 1) = \bar{\lambda}\Delta t$. We can thus rewrite Equation 2 as:

$$I(X;Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i\Delta t p_X(x_i)\log_2\frac{\lambda_i}{\bar{\lambda}} \qquad 3$$

By integrating over one second ($\int_0^1 I(X;Y)d\Delta t$) we obtain the first key SMGM metric for spatial information as measured by action potential firing, which is in units of bits per second:

$$\widehat{I_s^E} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i p_X(x_i)\log_2\frac{\lambda_i}{\bar{\lambda}} \qquad 4$$

For notation, we will use a carrot (^) to indicate an information value that is measured from experiment, the superscript (E in this case) to show the source of the data, and a subscript to show the units/formula used (bits per second in this case). Thus, $\widehat{I_s^E}$ is the information measured via electrophysiology in bits per second. This metric is linearly dependent on the average firing rate of the neuron, and this dependence is often removed through normalization by the average firing rate to obtain the second key metric of spatial information as measured by action potential firing, which is in units of bits/(second*Hz), or more commonly, bits per action potential:

$$\widehat{I_{AP}^E} = \frac{1}{\bar{\lambda}}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i p_X(x_i)\log_2\frac{\lambda_i}{\bar{\lambda}} \qquad 5$$

Therefore, these two key metrics of spatial information are defined completely by quantities that can be experimentally measured: the mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) from the action potential counts over the duration of the recording, the action potential firing rate in the ith bin from the average rate map (λ_i), and the

probability that the animal is in the ith spatial bin from the normalized occupancy map ($p_X(x_i)$). The quantity of and noise in these measurements effects the quality of the metric: in particular, undersampling due to low firing rates or low trial counts induces a substantial positive bias (Treves and Panzeri, 1995).

In the derivation of these metrics, there are two key assumptions that are violated by functional fluorescence recordings. First, the recordings do not follow Poisson statistics: instead of discrete counts of action potentials (y), the functional fluorescence traces consists of a continuous relative change in fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$), and instead of a firing rate map (λ_i) measured in Hz, average intensity maps in units of $\Delta F/F$ are generated. The stationarity assumption is also violated: due to the slow decay, a time sample of the fluorescence traces depend on the previous samples. The violation of these assumptions by functional fluorescence recording will affect the precision and induce biases in the SMGM information metrics. Since these effects have not previously been addressed or quantified, we measured these biases here using a simulation study.

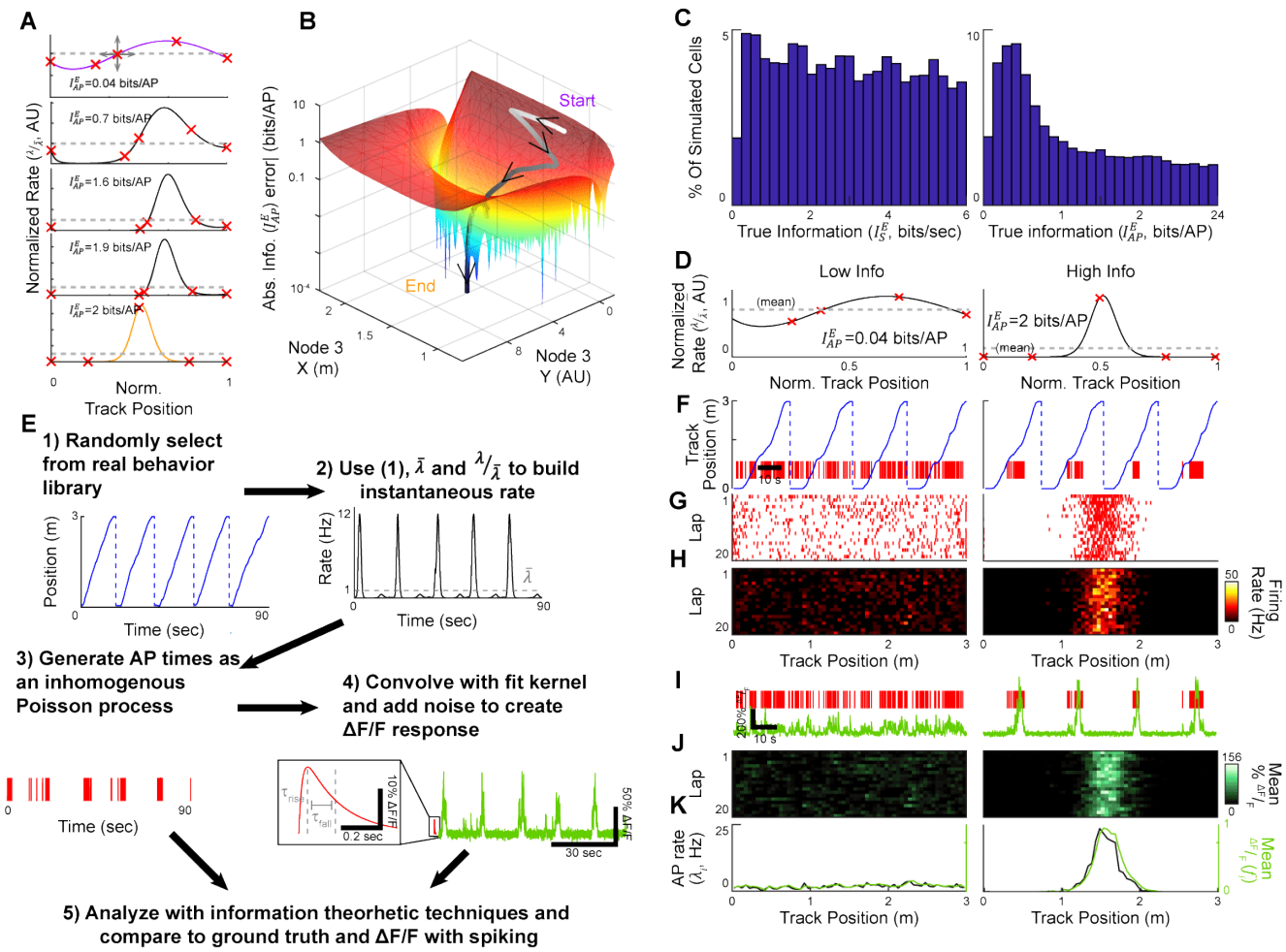


Figure 1. Procedures for generating a library of 10,000 neurons with known amounts of information. (A) Five splines with a gradient of ground truth information (I_{AP}^E) representing the steps in generating a continuous rate map ($\lambda(x)$) matching the desired target information, in this case 2 bits/action potential. Red X's indicate control nodes that were moved to change the shape of the spline and minimize the squared error to the target information. (B) Cross section of the error surface around the solution point as a

function of the position of node 3, and the trajectory taken by the solver to minimize the error and arrive at the target. (C) Histograms of ground truth information resulting from repeating the procedure in A-B 10,000 times to target a range of ground truth information values in bits per second (I_S^E) and bits per action potential (I_{AP}^E).(D) Splines representing $\lambda(x)$ at the solution point for a low (I_{AP}^E=0.04 bits per action potential, left) and high (I_{AP}^E, 2 bits per action potential, right) information neuron. (E) Steps to generate mock action potential and functional fluorescence data. (1) An example real behavior trace from a mouse running on a linear track that was used to generate the simulated spiking. (2) The behavior in combination with the rate maps generated in A-D were used to generate an instantaneous firing rate trace. (3) The instantaneous rate was used to pseudorandomly generate action potentials, as shown in this mock raster. (4) The action potential raster was convolved with the GCaMP6f kernel (red, inset) and noise was added to generate a mock $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ trace. (5) Large numbers of these traces were generated and used to assess the effects of many simulation parameters on the estimators. (F-L) Spiking and fluorescence activity patterns generated from the example simulated neurons shown in D and using a mean firing rate of 1 Hz. (F) Behavioral trace in blue with action potential raster shown in red. (G) Lap-by-lap raster of the neurons' firing vs mouse track position. (H) Lap by lap binned, firing rates vs mouse track position for the neurons (I) Action potential raster (red) and mock calcium traces for the same behavioral period shown in F. (J) Lap by lap mean binned fluorescence vs mouse position for the neurons. (K) Binned average firing rate (λ_i, black) and fluorescence intensity (f_i, green) maps for the two neurons. These maps were used for information analyses.

<u>*Building a ground truth library of 10,000 neurons with known values of information*</u>

To create a neuron with a known, ground truth information value, it was necessary to generate a continuous (i.e. infinitesimally small bins) rate map ($\lambda(x)$) matching the desired information. To do this, we first normalized the track length to 1 and assumed the animal's occupancy map to be spatially uniform $\left(p_X(x_i) = \frac{1}{N}\right)$. We then created an exponentiated cubic spline with 5 randomly positioned nodes (Figure 1A) to build a starting continuous map of the normalized instantaneous firing rate, $\frac{\lambda}{\bar{\lambda}}(x)$, with the integral normalized to 1. We calculated the ground truth amount of information in bits per action potential as follows:

$$I_{AP}^E = \int_0^1 \frac{\lambda}{\bar{\lambda}}(x) \log_2\left(\frac{\lambda}{\bar{\lambda}}(x)\right) dx \qquad 6$$

The locations of the 5 nodes were then systematically varied [see Methods] to minimize the squared error between the value calculated in Equation 6 and a target amount of information (Figure 1A,B), in the end resulting in a mean error of 5.1*10^-9 bits/action potential and a mean absolute error of 1.5*10^-7 bits/action potential. The rate map at this convergence point was used for further analysis. This procedure was repeated to generate 10,000 mock neurons with a range of (known and ground truth) information values. Note that the value in Equation 5 cannot be higher than when all the action potentials arrive in one spatial bin; the rate in that bin is $N\bar{\lambda}$. If we assume uniform occupancy $\left(p_X(x_i) = \frac{1}{N}\right)$, then the maximum measureable information is $\log_2 N$, in our case, 5.9 bits/action potential with N=60 bins. Thus, the information values considered here range between 0 and 6 bits/action potential (Figure 1C). We chose a

mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) for the neurons between 0.1 and 4 Hz, a range observed for a variety of different cortical and hippocampal neurons during behavior (Buzsáki and Mizuseki, 2014; DeWeese et al., 2008; O'Connor et al., 2010; Roxin et al., 2011; Shafi et al., 2007). From Equations 4-5, the ground truth information in bits per second is $I_S^E = \bar{\lambda}\, I_{AP}^E$. I_S^E for these choices resulted in ground truth information values between I_S^E =0 and I_S^E =24 bits/sec (Figure 1C). Example low (I_{AP}^E=0.04 bits/action potential) and mid (I_{AP}^E=2 bits/action potential) rate maps are shown in Figure 1D.

These rate maps provided a basis for generating mock action potential firing data (and functional fluorescence data, see below). Under real experimental conditions, recording duration and bin sizes are finite and animal occupancy maps ($p_X(x_i)$) are not spatially uniform. These experimental limitations add error to the estimate of a neuron's ground truth information value. Therefore, in order to accurately re-create these limitations in our simulation study, we used real behavior datasets from head-restrained mice running along a 3 m virtual linear track for water rewards (acquired as in Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015). Unless otherwise indicated, all values reported will be the mean$\pm$standard deviation. We selected at random from a library of 574 behavior sessions from mice navigating along familiar tracks, and concatenated and truncated these sessions to create behavior sessions uniformly sampled up to 60 minutes in duration (average 30.2$\pm$17.1 minutes), resulting in an average 132 $\pm$ 71.2 laps per session and an average running speed of 19.3 + 3.87 cm/sec (Figure 1E.1). This behavior, the average firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$), and the normalized rate map ($\frac{\lambda}{\bar{\lambda}}(x)$) from the mock neurons were used to create an instantaneous firing rate trace (Figure 1E.2), sampled at 1 kHz, from which action potential times were generated assuming Poisson firing statistics (Figure 1E.3). Example mock spiking in response to behavior for low (0.04 bits/action potential) and mid (2 bits/action potential) information neurons can be seen in Figure 1F-H. From these spiking responses, we then generated mock fluorescence traces by convolving the raster with a double-exponential kernel matching the rise and fall times for GCaMP6f (Chen et al., 2013, Figure 1E.4) and adding random noise to model shot noise. Mock fluorescence traces for the two example neurons in Figure 1F-H can be seen in Figure 1I-J. The mock action potential and fluorescence traces were used to create session mean spatial maps – of binned firing rate (λ_i in Hz) and change in fluorescence (f_i in $\Delta F/F$), for information analyses (Figure 1K). By repeating this process, we built a large dataset of spiking and fluorescence traces, generated from our library of mock neurons with known amounts of information and using real animal spatial behavior. With tens of thousands of these mock neuron recordings, we could then assess the effects of many simulation parameters on the information values determined from the metrics - including firing rate, session duration, fluorescence kernel shape, and ground truth information value.

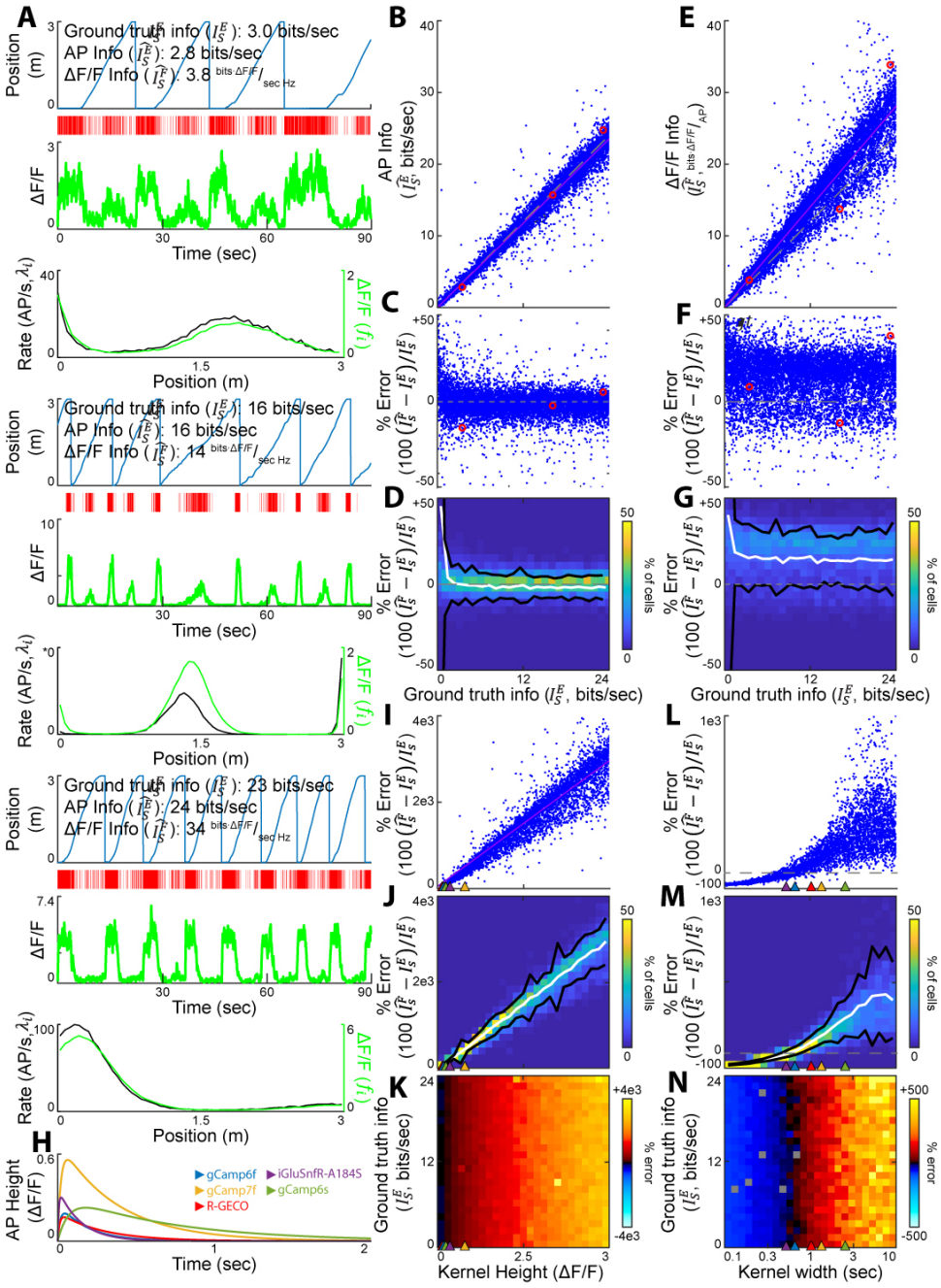


Figure 2. Quantification of the precision of the SMGM bits per second metric using action potentials or functional fluorescence recordings. (A) Three representative mock neurons spanning the range of ground truth information values in bits per second (I_S^E). From top to bottom for each: mouse track position vs time, action potential raster, fluorescence calcium trace (green), and firing rate map (λ_i, black) and change in fluorescence map (f_i, green). (B-D) The ground truth bits per second values are well recovered when measured from action potential traces. (B) Information measured from action potential data using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^E}$) vs ground truth information (I_S^E). Each dot is a single mock neuron, the gray dashed line is the unity line (perfect measurement), the pink line is the line of best fit. Red circles show the examples in A. (C) Percentage error for the information measurements shown in B. (D) Heat

map of percentage error measurements shown in C. Black lines are 2 standard deviations, the white line is the mean. (E-G) Effects of applying the SMGM bits per second metric to fluorescence traces. (E) Information measured from mock GCaMP6f traces using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^F}$) vs ground truth information (I_s^E). (F) Percentage error for the information measurements shown in E. (G) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in F. (H) Representative mock kernels mimicking responses from different indicators. (I-K) The effect of kernel height on estimating ground truth information (I_s^E) using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^F}$). Kernel height for the kernels shown in H are indicated by colored triangles (I) Percentage error as a function of kernel height (J) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in I with mean (white) and 2 standard deviations (black). (K) The average percentage error as a function of kernel height and ground truth information in SMGM bits per second (I_s^E). (L-N) The effect of kernel width on estimating ground truth information (I_s^E) using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^F}$). Kernel widths for the kernels shown in H are indicated by colored triangles. (L) Percentage error as a function of kernel width (M) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in L with mean (white) and 2 standard deviations (black). (N) The average percentage error as a function of kernel width.

<u>*Quantification of the accuracy and precision of the SMGM bits per second metric using functional fluorescence recordings*</u>

We first applied the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^E}$) to our mock action potential recording traces to verify that they can recover our ground-truth information values given finite recording durations and bin sizes, and non-uniform animal occupancy maps ($p_X(x_i)$). Figure 2A shows three mock neurons with ground truth information values of I_s^E =3, 15 and 23 bits/sec. When the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^E}$) was applied to the action potential traces from these example neurons, the information was well recovered, with $\widehat{I_s^E}$=2.8, 15 and 24 bits/sec, respectively. The results from these examples also held across the full 10,000 mock neuron library (Figures 2B-D), as a linear fit (y-intercept = 0.093$\pm$0.040, intercept p=4.6*10^{-6} bits per second and slope = 0.97 $\pm$0.0030, slope p<<0.01) explained nearly all the variance (R^2 = 0.97), the average error was 0.22$\pm$1.25 bits per second (1.0$\pm$0.69% error) and the absolute error was 0.64$\pm$1.05 bits per second (8.4$\pm$0.69% error). There is a substantial positive bias for the lowest firing rates and smallest number of trials (Supplemental Figure 1A-B) which has been previously well characterized (Treves and Panzeri, 1995). Thus, the SMGM bits-per-second metric ($\widehat{I_s^E}$) recovers the ground-truth information well using action potential recordings, with the only error coming from finite recording time and variable animal behavior.

We next discuss the changes to the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^E}$) commonly used for application to functional fluorescence traces (Hainmueller and Bartos, 2018; Heys and Dombeck, 2018), and explore the implications of these changes. Most simply, the mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) and the mean firing rate in a spatial bin (λ_i) are replaced by the mean change in fluorescence ($\bar{f}$) and the mean change in fluorescence in a bin (f_i). Making these substitutions in Equation 4 results in the information as measured by functional fluorescence:

$$\widehat{I_s^F} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i p_X(x_i) \log_2 \frac{f_i}{\bar{f}} \qquad 7$$

The fluorescence map f_i differs from the firing rate map λ_i in two ways. First, the fluorescence map is approximated by the firing rate map scaled by a factor c, dependent on the height and width of the kernel

and measured in units of $\frac{\Delta F/F}{Hz}$, and second it is smoothed by the kernel (Figure 1E4). If we discount the latter for a moment and focus on the scaling, $f \approx c\lambda$, we can see that substituting λ with $c\lambda$ in Equation 4 results in $\widehat{I_s^F} = c\widehat{I_s^E}$. The units for $\widehat{I_s^F}$ are no longer in bits per second, as it has previously been reported (Hainmueller and Bartos, 2018), but are instead in units of $\frac{bits\ \Delta F/F}{sec\ Hz}$ or $\frac{bits\ \Delta F/F}{AP}$, which are difficult to interpret (see *Guidelines for application of information theoretic metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data* section for further discussion). The effect of smoothing is difficult to analytically quantify since it both alters c by changing the average intensity and distorts the firing rate map. Therefore, to fully quantify the impact of convolving an action potential recording with a functional fluorescence kernel on recovering ground truth information, we used our mock fluorescence traces.

We applied a GCaMP6f modeled kernel to the 10,000 mock action potential traces to generate 10,000 mock fluorescence calcium traces. Figure 2A shows the fluorescence traces generated from three mock neurons with ground truth information values of I_s^E =3, 15 and 23 bits/sec. The effects of the convolution can be seen in the differences in scaling and shape between the fluorescence maps f_i and the firing rate maps λ_i. When the fluorescence metric ($\widehat{I_s^F}$) was applied to the fluorescence traces from these example neurons, the information recovered was $\widehat{I_s^F}$ = 3.8, 14 and 34 $\frac{bits\ \Delta F/F}{AP}$, respectively, indicating some deviations from the ground truth information values assuming the units are comparable. The results from these examples also held across the full 10,000 mock neuron library (Figures 2E-G), as there was a clear scaling of the ground truth information and a consistent overestimation with a mean error of 2.0$\pm$3.28 AU (19$\pm$30% error) and mean absolute error of 2.4$\pm$2.97 AU (22$\pm$27% error). The best-fit line of the measured information ($\widehat{I_s^F}$) versus the ground truth information (I_s^E) had an intercept near 0 (0.088$\pm$0.048 $\frac{bits\ \Delta F/F}{AP}$, p=0.07). The slope of this fit was 1.17$\pm$0.0036 $\frac{\Delta F/F}{Hz}$ (p<<0.01), which provides a measure of the scaling factor (c). This error was not corrected for with denser sampling: it remained consistent even at high firing rates and many trials (Supplemental Figure 1C-D). In addition to this scaling effect caused by c, smoothing of the rate map could induce nonlinearity in the relationship between $\widehat{I_s^F}$ and I_s^E. To test for such an effect, we fit the measured information in Figure 2E with a saturating exponential and compared the fits using a likelihood ratio test: the exponential did not significantly improve the fit (χ_1^2=2.8, p=0.095), which indicates that smoothing by the kernel does not induce significant nonlinearities. Since c is dependent on the height and width of the kernel and was measured here as 1.17$\pm$0.0036 $\frac{\Delta F/F}{Hz}$, then considering the 0.19 $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ height of the GCaMP6f kernel used here, we estimated the effect of the kernel width on c as 6.1 s^{-1}. The consistent, positive bias observed in estimating information with $\widehat{I_s^F}$ (Figure 2E) would be easy to correct for assuming the c factor, and therefore the kernel, were similar across all measured neurons. This point is considered further in the *Guidelines for application of information metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data* section below. We conclude that ground truth information, as measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_s^F}$), is transformed into different units and is linearly scaled by a factor c dependent on the height and width of the kernel.

The amplitude (height) of the change in fluorescence can vary across indicators. The height of the kernel, given a constant kernel width, should linearly scale c and the error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_s^F}$. To explicitly test this prediction, we simulated an additional 5,000 fluorescence traces with kernels of varying height (0-3 $\Delta F/F$, Figure 2I-K), but maintaining the same shape and width (from the GCaMP6f kernel),

and then measured the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$. As observed above for the GCaMP6f example (Figure 2 E-G), the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$ shows little dependence on ground truth information (Figure 2I-K). As a function of the height of the kernel, however, the percent error (averaged over all ground truth information values) in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$ is fit well with an increasing linear function (intercept = -92.5$\pm$11.7%, intercept p=3.6*10-^{15}, slope 619 $\pm$4.1%/$\frac{\Delta F}{F}$, slope p<<0.01, R^2= 0.81; Figure 2I-J). Over the wide array of available functional fluorescent indicators in use today (Figure 2H), this leads to differences in error due to differences in transient height alone of the indicator used. For the indicators shown in Figure 2J, there is an average height of 0.603$\pm$0.10 SD: the error spans from 25% for the kernel height reported for gCamp6f (0.19 $\Delta F/F$) to 254% for gCamp7f (0.56 $\Delta F/F$). It should be noted that fluorescence ($\Delta F/F$) is always reported here as a fractional change, not as a percentage (% $\Delta F/F$); if a kernel height of 19 % $\Delta F/F$ is used, the units would again change. Thus, as expected, the percent error in estimating information with the SMGM bits per second estimator ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) scales linearly with the height of the kernel.

The width of the kernel can vary widely across fluorescent indicators (Figure 2H), with "faster" indicators boasting shorter rise and fall times. The combined effect of a longer rise and fall time is to smooth and delay the action potential train; in other words, it acts as a causal low-pass filter. The cutoff period of this low pass filter provides a measurement of the effective width of the kernel [see Methods]. The effect of such differences in kernel shape on the error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$ is difficult to measure analytically. We therefore simulated an additional 5,000 fluorescence traces with kernels of different kernel widths (but constant height of the GCaMP6f kernel), resulting in a range of kernel durations (rise times: 1 ms to 1 second, fall times longer than the rise time up to 2 seconds), and then measured the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$. Similarly, as observed above for the GCaMP6f and varying kernel height examples (Figure 2 E-K), the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$ shows little dependence on ground truth information (Figure 2L-N). Interestingly, however, the percent error (averaged over all ground truth information values) in estimating information with $\widehat{I_S^F}$ shows a complex nonlinear response as a function of the width of the kernel (Figure 2L-M). The error increases up to a kernel width of ~2.5 seconds, at which point it saturates at ~250% error. This arises between a complex interaction between changing the average value of the original action potential trace and flattening the average fluorescence map (f_i). Over the wide array of available functional fluorescent indicators in use today, this leads to large differences in error due to differences in width alone of the indicator used. For example, an average error of -10.6$\pm$1.8% and absolute error of 20.0$\pm$1.0% were observed for iGluSnfR the shortest indicator considered here at 0.52 seconds. For gCamp6s, the slowest indicator examined (2.54 seconds), the average was 235$\pm$18.9% and absolute error was 235$\pm$18.9%. To estimate the percent errors for these five indicators considering differences in *both* height and duration, we used these 5 kernels to generate mock fluorescence traces from the 10,000 neurons in Figure 2B-G. The resulting distributions, estimated c values, and mean and absolute errors can be seen in Supplemental Figure 2. In summary, we conclude that information, as measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$), is transformed into different units and is linearly scaled by a factor (c) dependent on the height and width of the kernel, with c linearly dependent on height and nonlinearly dependent on width. The error induced by these transformations changes substantially over the range of kernel values of the different functional indicators widely used today, and therefore are important factors to consider when designing and interpreting functional imaging experiments (see *Guidelines for application of information metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data* for further discussion).

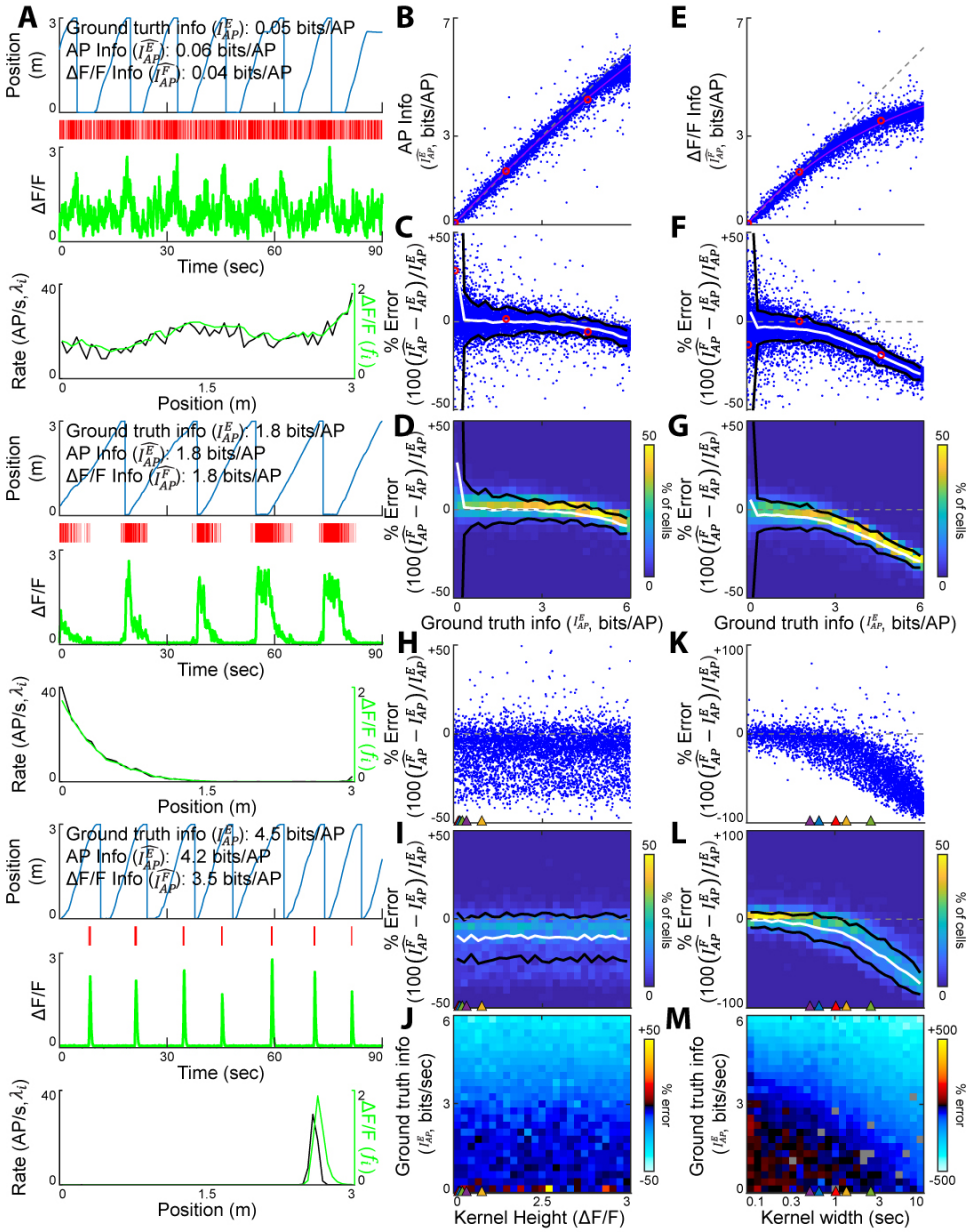


Figure 3. Quantification of the precision of the SMGM bits per action potential metric using action potentials or functional fluorescence recordings. (A) Three representative mock neurons spanning the range of ground truth information values in bits per action potential (I^E_{AP}). From top to bottom for each: mouse track position vs time, action potential raster, fluorescence calcium trace (green), and firing rate map (λ_i, black) and change in fluorescence map (f_i, green). (B-D) The ground truth bits per action potential values are well recovered when measured from action potential traces. (B) Information measured from action potential data using the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I^E_{AP}}$) vs ground truth information (I^E_{AP}). Each dot is a single mock neuron, the gray dashed line is the unity line (perfect measurement). Red circles show the examples in A. (C) Percentage error for the information measurements shown in B. (D) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in C. Black lines are 2 standard deviations, the white line is the mean. (E-G) Effects of applying the SMGM bits per action potential metric to fluorescence traces. (E) Information measured from mock GCaMP6f traces using the

SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$) vs ground truth information (I_{AP}^{E}). (F) Percentage error for the information measurements shown in E. (G) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in F. (H-J) The effect of kernel height on estimating ground truth information (I_{AP}^{E}) using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$). Kernel height for the kernels shown in Figure2H are indicated by colored triangles (H) Percentage error as a function of kernel height (I) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in H with mean (white) and 2 standard deviations (black). (J) The average percentage error as a function of kernel height and ground truth information in bits per action potential (I_{AP}^{E}). (K-M) The effect of kernel width on estimating ground truth information (I_{AP}^{E}) using the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$). Kernel widths for the kernels shown in Figure 2H are indicated by colored triangles. (L) Percentage error as a function of kernel width (M) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in L with mean (white) and 2 standard deviations (black). (N) The average percentage error as a function of kernel width.

<u>*Quantification of the accuracy and precision of the SMGM bits per action potential metric using functional fluorescence recordings*</u>

We then applied the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$) to our mock action potential recording traces to verify that they can recover our ground-truth information values. Figure 3A shows three mock neurons with ground truth information values I_{AP}^{E} =0.05, 1.8 and 4.2 bits/action potential. When the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$) was applied to the action potential traces from these example neurons, the information was well recovered, with $\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$=0.06, 1.8 and 4.2 bits/action potential respectively. The results from these examples also held across the full 10,000 mock neuron library (Figures 3B-D), as a linear fit (y-intercept = 0.087$\pm$0.029, intercept p=2.8e-184 bits per second and slope = 0.93 $\pm$0.0010, slope p<<0.01) explained nearly all the variance (R^2 = 0.99), the average error was -0.071$\pm$0.23 bits per AP (3.2$\pm$5.9% error) and the absolute error was 0.13$\pm$0.21 bits per second (8.1$\pm$9% error). However, the data was even better fit with a saturating exponential (χ_1^2=1.6e3, p<<0.01) converging to 5.8 bits/action potential as it approached the limit due to the finite bin count. There is a substantial positive bias for the lowest firing rates and smallest number of trials (Supplemental Figure 1E-F) which has been previously well characterized (Treves and Panzeri, 1995). Thus, the SMGM bits per-AP metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$) recovers the ground-truth information well using action potential recordings (except at the largest ground truth information values), with the primary error coming from finite recording time and variable animal behavior.

We next discuss the changes needed to apply the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$) to functional fluorescence traces and explore the implications of these changes. Most simply, the mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) and the mean firing rate in a spatial bin (λ_i) are replaced by the mean change in fluorescence ($\bar{f}$) and the mean change in fluorescence in a bin (f_i). Making these substitutions in Equation 5 results in the information as measured by functional fluorescence:

$$\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}} = \frac{1}{\bar{f}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i p_X(x_i) \log_2 \frac{f_i}{\bar{f}} \qquad 8$$

As discussed above, the fluorescence map (f_i) can be approximated as a scaled version of the rate, that is, $f = c\lambda$ and $\bar{f} = c\bar{\lambda}$. Thus, under this approximation, the c factors in Equation 8 cancel, leading to $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ equivalent to $\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$, with the same units of bits/action potential. This, of course, ignores the fact that the kernel smooths the rate map, leading to a bias in the metric that is difficult to quantify analytically.

We then applied the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$) to our 10,000 mock GCaMP6f traces. Figure 3A shows the fluorescence traces generated from three mock neurons with ground truth information of I_{AP}^{E}=0.05, 1.8 and 4.2 bits/action potential. When the fluorescence metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$) was applied to the fluorescence traces in these examples, the information recovered was 0.04, 1.8 and 3.5 bits/action potential, indicating some deviations – especially for the highest information neuron. These results held for the 10,000 mock neuron library (Figure3E-G). At low information values, there was little bias, but at higher information values the information recovered was substantially lower than the ground truth information. The mean resulting error was -0.38$\pm$0.58 bits/action potential (-9.7$\pm$27.8%) and absolute error of 0.39 (12.9$\pm$26.4%). This error was better fit with a saturating exponential than a linear fit (χ_1^2=1.6e3, p<<0.01), with the average error less than 5% up to ground truth information of 1.8 bits/action potential and less than 10% up to 3.0 bits/action potential. At ground truth information values higher than 3 bits/action potential, the average error was -1.06$\pm$0.595 (-22.5$\pm$9.44%) and absolute error was 1.07$\pm$0.589 bits/action potential (22.6$\pm$9.21%). This error persisted even with denser sampling: it remained consistent even at high firing rates and many trials (Supplemental Figure 1E-F). Thus, the indicator induces relatively little error at lower information values (<3 bits/action potential), but the smoothing effect of the kernel induces a nonlinear, negative bias to the estimator, particularly at ground truth information values over 3 bits/action potential.

Although the height of the kernel can vary between different functional fluorescence indicators (Figure 2H), these height variations linearly scale the fluorescence map. Thus, since $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ involves normalization by the mean change in fluorescence ($\bar{f}$), $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ should not depend on kernel height. To explicitly test this prediction, we used the 5,000 fluorescence traces described in the previous section (Quantification of the accuracy and precision of the SMGM bits per second metric using functional fluorescence recordings), with kernels of varying height (0-3 ΔF/F), but maintaining the same shape and width (from the GCaMP6f kernel), and then measured the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ (Figure 3H-J). Unlike for the SMGM bits per second metric, the percent error (averaged over all ground truth information values) in estimating information with $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ shows little or no dependence on the height of the kernel (p=0.43), but a nonlinear dependence on ground truth information as in Figure 3E-G, with no significant difference in the parameters of the saturating exponential fit (χ_2^2=1.67, p=0.43). Thus, as expected, the percent error in estimating information with the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$) does not vary with the height of the kernel.

With little effect of kernel height on $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$, the width of the kernel likely drives biases in the metric. We thus used the 5,000 fluorescence traces generated from a range of different kernel durations (rise times: 1 ms to 1 second, fall times longer than the rise time up to 2 seconds; but constant height of the GCaMP6f kernel) from the previous section (*Quantification of the accuracy and precision of the SMGM bits per second metric using functional fluorescence recordings*), and then measured the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ (Figure 3 K-M). Similarly, as observed above for GCaMP6f and the varying kernel height examples (Figure 3E-J), the percent error in estimating information with $\widehat{I_{S}^{F}}$ shows a nonlinear dependence on ground truth information (Figure 3E-G). The percent error (averaged over all ground truth information values) showed a nonlinear response as a function of the width of the kernel (Figure 3K-L), with a steep increase in error for kernel widths >~1 second. Even for kernel widths <~1 second, the percent error was strongly dependent on the ground truth information value, with steep increases in error for values >~2.5-3 bits/action potential (Figure 3M). Thus, as the kernels gets wider,

there is more negative bias at lower and lower information measured. The resulting errors are thus larger for wider kernel indicators: for example, with a kernel width the same as gCaMP6s (2.54s), the error exceeds -17% even at low (<0.25 bits/action potential) information, with average errors of -0.86$\pm$1.0 bits/action potential (-31$\pm$19% error) and absolute errors of 0.87$\pm$1.0 bits/action potential (32.6$\pm$16% error). In contrast, with a kernel width the same as iGluSnfR (0.52 seconds), the average error exceeded 5% at 3 bits per action potential and 10% at 3.7 bits per action potential with a mean error of -0.57$\pm$1.00 (-8.0$\pm$14%) bits/action potential and absolute error of 0.41$\pm$ 0.56 bits/action potential (11$\pm$11%). To estimate the percent errors for the five indicators shown in Figure 2H, taking into account differences in *both* height and duration, we used the 5 kernels to generate mock fluorescence traces from the 10k neurons in Figure3B-G. The resulting distributions, mean and absolute errors, and error thresholds can be seen in Supplemental Figure 3.

In summary, we conclude that ground truth information, as measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$), retains the units and insensitivity to height scaling of the electrophysiological metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$), but is nonlinearly biased by the smoothing of the fluorescence map dictated by the width of the kernel. The estimation errors strongly depended on both the width of the kernel and the information value being measured. Since these parameters change substantially over the different functional indicators and different neuron types and behaviors that are commonly used today, they are important factors to consider when designing and interpreting functional imaging experiments (see below for further discussion).

<u>*Deconvolution may not be sufficient to eliminate biases*</u>

The framework presented here for comparing ground truth information with information measured with the SMGM metrics can be extended to test the efficacy of other strategies for extracting mutual information. In particular, a perfect AP inference method would alleviate the problems associated with applying the SMGM metrics to functional fluorescence recordings. To test the utility of such a strategy in measuring information, we applied a popular deconvolution algorithm, FOOPSI (Vogelstein et al., 2010, see Methods), to the same 10,000 mock GCaMP6f time-series traces described above. Importantly, this deconvolution algorithm (and other available algorithms) does not recover traces of relative spike probability or exact spikes times, but instead produces sparse traces with arbitrary units, that have non-zero values estimating the relative 'intensity' of spike production over time (d). This signal can be thought of as a scaled estimate of the number of spikes per time bin, and thus the average intensity map will have some similar properties to the florescence intensity maps – that is, we would expect the intensity maps from deconvolution to approximate the relative firing rate scaled by some factor c, which has arbitrary units.

We then measured information in these deconvolved d-traces using the SMGM metrics ($\widehat{I_S^d}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^d}$), which are identical to ($\widehat{I_S^F}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$), except SMGM is applied to d-traces instead of functional fluorescence traces. When using the SMGM bits per second measure ($\widehat{I_S^d}$, Figure 4A), we found a clear scaling of the ground truth information. The scaling factor was very small (c=0.0346±5.5e-4 A.U.), resulting in low predicted information (mean error -11.0±6.78 AU, mean absolute error 11.0±6.76 AU, mean % error -95.0±11.5 %, mean absolute % error 95.0±6.87%). This error was significantly larger than when we measured information directly from the florescence traces using $\widehat{I_S^F}$ (Figure 2E; 22.0% absolute error, Ranksum p<<0.01; c=1.17).

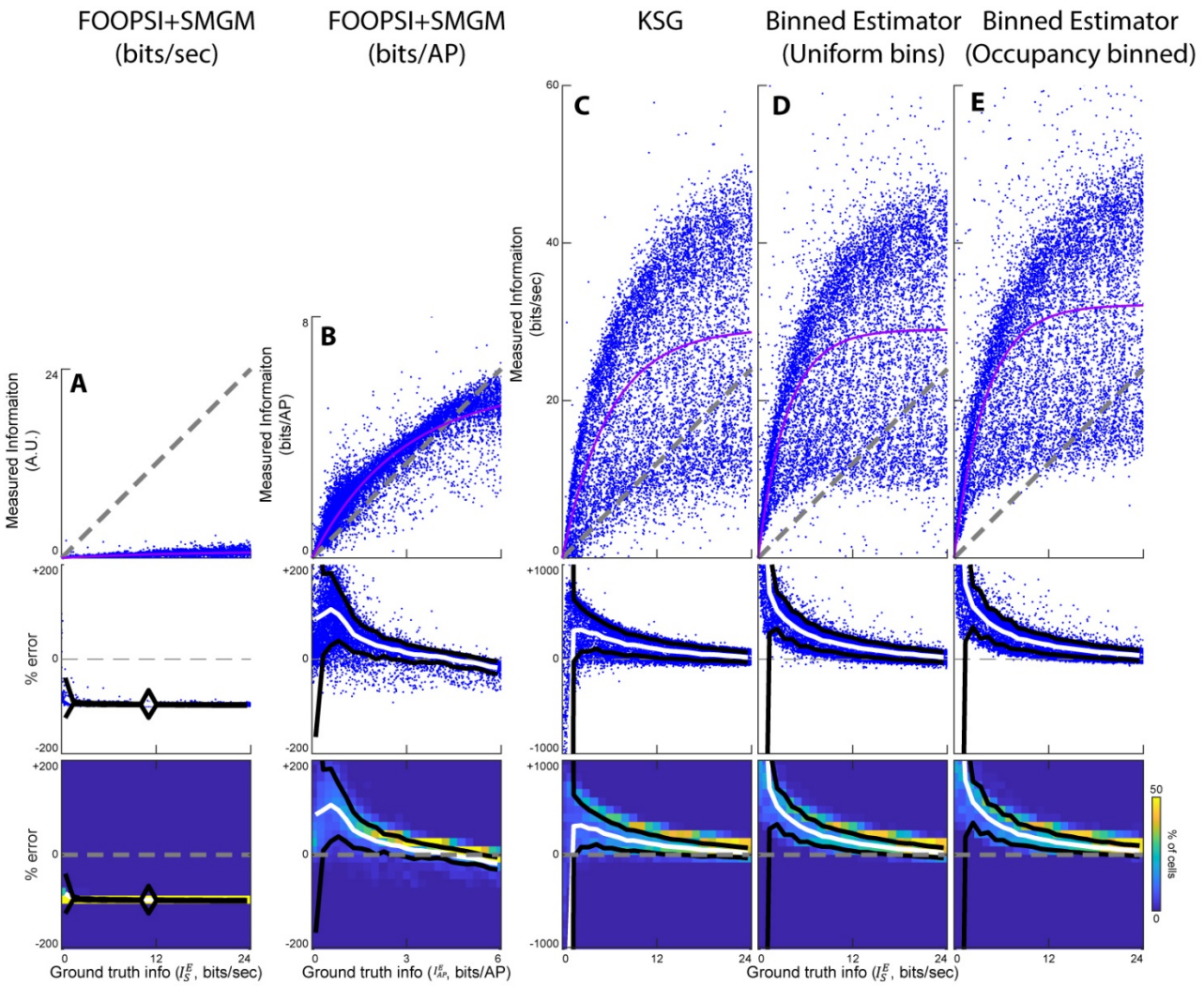
Assuming that the intensity map of the deconvolved d-traces are a scaled version of the true rate maps, we could measure information using the SMGM bits per AP metric $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ without changing units (Figure 4B). Compared to the SMGM bits per AP metric applied to florescence (I_{AP}^{F}), on average there was some reduction in the nonlinearity at higher ground truth information (I_{AP}^{E}) values when using $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$, resulting in linear fits closer to the unitary line ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ slope $= 1.02 \pm 0.0027, \mathrm{R}^2 = 0.76$ versus $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ slope = 0.78±0.0011, R^2=0.93). However, information measured with $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ was still better fit with a saturating exponential (χ_1^2=2.3e3, p~0) converging to a saturation value of 5.51 bits per AP (compared to 5.78 for $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$). This resulted in a positive bias at lower levels of ground truth information. For ground truth information values below 3 bits per AP, the average error for $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ was 0.556±0.50 bits per AP (68.9±104%) compared to -0.060±0.13 bits per AP (2.75±0.36%) for $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$. For ground truth information values above 3 bits per AP, the average error for $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ was -0.127±0.76 bits per AP (-1.0±16.8%) as compared to -1.04±0.59 bits per AP (-0.22±9.4%) for $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$. Overall, there was more error when the SMGM bits per AP metric was applied to deconvolved data compared to when applied directly to fluorescence traces ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$ mean absolute error 0.60±0.47 bits/AP (52.7±89.1%) vs $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$ was 0.13±0.21 bits per second (8.1±9% error), Ranksum p<<0.01). Thus, when comparing the recovery of ground truth information from functional fluorescence traces using either direct application of the SMGM metrics ($\widehat{I_S^F}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$) or the application of the SMGM metrics to deconvolved z-traces ($\widehat{I_S^d}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$), we found better recovery using the direct application approach ($\widehat{I_S^F}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$).

The KSG and Binned Estimators are poor estimators of MI in functional florescence data

In addition to SMGM, the KSG and Binned Estimation metrics have been developed for estimating mutual information between variables. These other two metrics produce information measured in bits per second, so they are only comparable to the SMGM bits per second estimator ($\widehat{I_S^F}$). The KSG metric uses the kth nearest neighbor distances between points in the neural response and behavioral variable space to estimate information (Kraskov et al., 2004). The Binned Estimation metric uses discrete bins to estimate the full multidimensional joint probability distribution ($p_{(X,Y)}$ in Equation 1) to estimate mutual information (Timme and Lapish, 2018). These two metrics estimate information across time samples and therefore are dependent on firing rate like the SMGM bits/sec metric considered above. Further, the Binned Estimator is sensitive to the precise method used for data binning, and thus we have used two commonly applied binning methods: uniform and occupancy based bins.

We applied the KSG, Binned Estimator (Uniform bins), and Binned Estimator (Occupancy binned) (see methods) to the same 10,000 mock GCaMP6f time-series traces and behavioral data used to assess the SMGM approach. These methods all behaved similarly when applied to our simulations (Figure 4C-E), so they will be discussed together here. The information values measured by these techniques correlated with ground truth information in bits per second (I_S^E). Interestingly, however, unlike the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$, Figure 2), the KSG and Binned Estimator results were better fit with a saturating exponential than with a linear fit (χ_1^2=1.70e4, 3.12e4, and 3.14e4 respectively, p~0). The KSG and Binned Estimator methods overestimated the information at lower ground truth (I_S^E) values and saturated quickly at higher values. For ground truth information (I_S^E) values below 10 bits per second, the mean absolute errors were 10.3±7.82 bits per second (465±4,390%), 13.9±8.33 bits per second (539±2,324%), and

15.3±9.33 bits per second (600±2,721%) for the KSG, Binned Estimator (Uniform bins), and Binned Estimator (Occupancy binned) respectively. This is in comparison to the 0.35±0.59 $\frac{bits\ {}^{\Delta F}/_{F}}{AP}$ (14±103%) mean absolute error found using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) for ground truth information values less than 10 bits per second. For ground truth information (I_S^E) values greater than 10 bits per second, the mean absolute errors were 13.2±8.66 bits per second (85.0±64.4%), 14.3±9.46 bits per second (93.3±72.0%) and 15.8±10.93 bits per second (103±80.2%) for the KSG, Binned Estimator (Uniform bins), and Binned Estimator (Occupancy binned) respectively. This is in comparison to the 0.97±1.15 bits per second (5.85±6.73%) mean absolute errors found using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) for ground truth information values greater than 10 bits per second. Over the full range of ground truth values, mean absolute errors of 11.9±8.42 bits per second (254.8%), 14.1±8.94 bits per second (292.5%) and 15.6±10.2 bits per second (325.5%) were found for the KSG, Binned Estimator (Uniform bins), and Binned Estimator (Occupancy binned) respectively – an order magnitude larger than the 2.4±2.97 AU (22±27% error) error seen using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$). Therefore, when comparing the recovery of ground truth information from functional fluorescence traces using either the SMGM metric $\widehat{I_S^F}$ or the KSG and Binned Estimator metrics, we found better recovery using the SMGM approach ($\widehat{I_S^F}$).



F

Method	Units	Source	Mean error	Mean abs error	Mean % error	Mean abs % err	C	p exponential	saturation level	90% saturation point
SMGM bits/sec	bits $\Delta F/F$/AP	Skaggs et al, 1993	2.0	2.4	19.0	22.0	1.17	0.095	91	155.2
SMGM bits/AP	bits/AP	Skaggs et al, 1993	-0.38	0.4	-9.7	12.9	0.78	<<0.01	5.78	11.5
foopsi+SMGM bits/sec	AU	Vogelstein et al, 2010	-11.0	11.0	-95.0	95.5	0.0346	3.24E-08	0.84	31.93
Foopsi+SMGM bits/ap	bits/AP	Vogelstein et al, 2010	0.3	0.6	46.3	52.7	1.02	<<0.01	5.51	6.6
KSG	bits/sec	Kraskov et al, 2004	9.9	11.9	37.9	254.8	1.64	<<0.01	29.2	13.9
Binned MI (uniform bins)	bits/sec	Timm and Lapish, 2018	12.8	14.1	285.7	292.5	1.77	<<0.01	29	8.47
Binned MI (occupancy bins)	bits/sec	Timm and Lapish, 2018	15.0	15.6	322.5	325.5	1.94	<<0.01	32.2	9.26

Figure 4. Alternative techniques for measuring mutual information from functional fluorescence traces. (A-E) (Top) Information measured from mock GCaMP6f traces vs ground truth information. The gray line is the unity line, the pink line is the best fit saturating exponential. (Middle) Percentage error for the information measurements shown on top. (Bottom) Heat map of percentage error measurements shown in middle. (A) FOOPSI deconvolved traces using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^d}$). (B) FOOPSI deconvolved traces using the SMGM bits per AP metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^d}$). (C) The KSG measure applied to GCaMP6f traces. (D) The Binned Estimator applied to GCaMP6f traces using uniform bins. (E) The Binned Estimator applied to GCaMP6f traces using equal occupancy bins. (F) Table of summary

statistics for each measure. P exponential is the p-value from the chi^2 test used to determine if a saturating exponential fit is better than a linear fit for the measured vs ground truth information plots.

<u>*Guidelines for application of information metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data*</u>

Taken together, the above results suggest that across the information metrics applied directly to functional fluorescence traces, the SMGM metrics provide the most reliable and interpretable information measurements. We thus suggest the following guidelines for use and interpretation of the SMGM metrics as applied to fluorescence mutual information metrics ($\widehat{I_S^F}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$) defined in Equations 7 and 8.

The SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) is likely attractive to imaging researchers because the units suggest that precise knowledge of action potential numbers and times are not required for its use. However, there are several challenges when applying the SMGM bits per second metric to functional fluorescence imaging data. First, the substitution of the change in fluorescence map (f) for the action potential firing rate map (λ) introduces a change in units, from bits per second to $\frac{\Delta F}{F}\frac{bits}{AP}$, which is difficult to interpret and relate back to bits per second. Second, the transformation of action potential firing rate to change in fluorescence can be approximated by a c scaling factor ($f = c\lambda$), which is measured in $\frac{\Delta F/F}{Hz}$, a quantity that is unknown *a priori*. If c is not consistent between the neurons of a population of interest, then the information values will be scaled differently and cannot be directly compared (Figure 2). Since c is dependent on the width and height of the indicator response to a single action potential (the kernel), it can vary from neuron to neuron based on difference in indicator expression level, intracellular calcium buffering, and many other factors (Aponte et al., 2008; Greenberg et al., 2018; Helmchen and Tank, 2015; Park and Dunlap, 1998). More research will be needed to measure these parameters (e.g. Chen et al., 2012, 2013a), and thus c, across neurons. Some results suggest that there may be non-trivial amounts of variability within a populations of neurons (Éltes et al., 2019; Greenberg et al., 2018). With the impact of c on the SMGM bits per second metric, and the possible variability of c across a population of neurons, how can researchers properly extract useful measurements of information using $\widehat{I_S^F}$? First, we note that *if* experimental measurements reveal small and acceptable variations in c across the neurons of interest, then the information values derived from $\widehat{I_S^F}$ can be normalized by this factor to recover information values in units of SMGM bits per second (independent of $\Delta F/F$) that can be compared across neurons. Under the assumption of a consistent kernel, approximations for c for common indicators can be found in Supplemental Figure 2. Further, given small variations in c across the neurons of interest, the ratio of $\widehat{I_S^F}$ between neurons in the population provides a meaningful metric for comparisons. For example, such ratios could be used to divide a population of neurons accurately into groups based on their information values (e.g. three quantiles of information) or compare the information values between different functional subtypes of neurons (e.g. between place and non-place cells). However, the metric can still be useful even if experimental measurements reveal large and unacceptable variations in c across the neurons of interest, or if experimental measurements of c do not exist. In such cases, since it is reasonable to assume that c is consistent in the same neuron over time, comparisons across the same neuron can provide meaningful insights by using a ratio of $\widehat{I_S^F}$ measured (from the same neuron) across different conditions. For example, quantifying the neuron by neuron ratio of $\widehat{I_S^F}$ between different behavioral states or conditions of an animal or task, such as between goal-directed vs non-goal-directed running down a linear track, would allow researchers to make conclusions such the following: "The population of neurons in region Z carries X+/-

Y times more information during goal-directed than non-goal-directed running." Therefore, we conclude that with careful consideration of the (known or unknown) variability of the fluorescence response kernel (c), $\widehat{I_S^F}$ can be used to extract useful measurements of information, either direct measurements of information across a population of neurons (with known and similar c), ratios of information between different neurons of a population (with known and similar c) or differences across different conditions within the same neuron (with c unknown or different across neurons).

The SMGM fluorescence bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$) results in the same units as the action potential based metric $\widehat{I_{AP}^E}$, and therefore may provide imaging researchers with information values that are relatively easy to interpret. However, this similarity in units is somewhat misleading since the number and timing of action potentials are not directly measured with functional fluorescence traces and the asymmetric and relatively slow dynamics of fluorescence indicators leads to shifting and smoothing of the action potential rate map (λ). This issue can have the effect of inducing a significant negative bias in information measurements, especially at high information values and with functional indicators with wider kernels (Figure 3). This is the most important factor to consider when determining how researchers can properly extract useful measurements of information using $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$. The shifting and smoothing of the action potential rate map by fluorescence effectively leads to crosstalk between adjacent spatial bins. Therefore, it is critical to consider the size of the spatial bins in relation to the spatial shift and smoothing induced by the indicator (effectively the kernel plotted in space, rather than time, using the animal's average running velocity to transform from time to space). It is reasonable then to counteract the spatial shift and smoothing effect by using larger bin sizes, but this only works up to a point since larger bins limit the maximum amount of information possible to measure and may negatively bias the information values near this upper limit, even for action potential based recordings (Figure 3B-D). In practice, using gCaMP6f and the rodent spatial behavior and spatial bin sizes (5cm) used here, our analysis suggests that $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$ provides reasonable measurements of information for neurons with values up to 3 bits per action potential (Figure 3E-G) since this is the point where the absolute error exceeds 10% (comparable to the mean absolute error when measuring information from action potential data (8.4%)). Equivalent thresholds for other common indicators are shown in Supplemental Figure 3. The error is exacerbated by slower indicators and thus more accurate measurements of information will result from using the fastest, narrowest kernel indicators available, assuming signal to noise and detection efficiency are comparable across the different width indicators. We conclude that with careful consideration of the size of the spatial bins in relation to the spatial shift and smoothing induced by the indicator, $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$ can be used to extract useful measurements of information, most accurately for neurons with < 3 bits/action potential under recording conditions similar to those considered here. Previous research quantifying information in bits per action potential using $\widehat{I_{AP}^E}$ have found that the majority of neurons carry information in this range (< 3 bits/action potential) (Bourboulou et al., 2019; Knierim et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2006; Markus et al., 1995; Poucet and Sargolini, 2013), with a few exceptions (Ji and Wilson, 2007). Although these levels are dependent on the number of bins and bin dwell time, $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$ should be widely applicable to quantifying information throughout the brain during behavior.

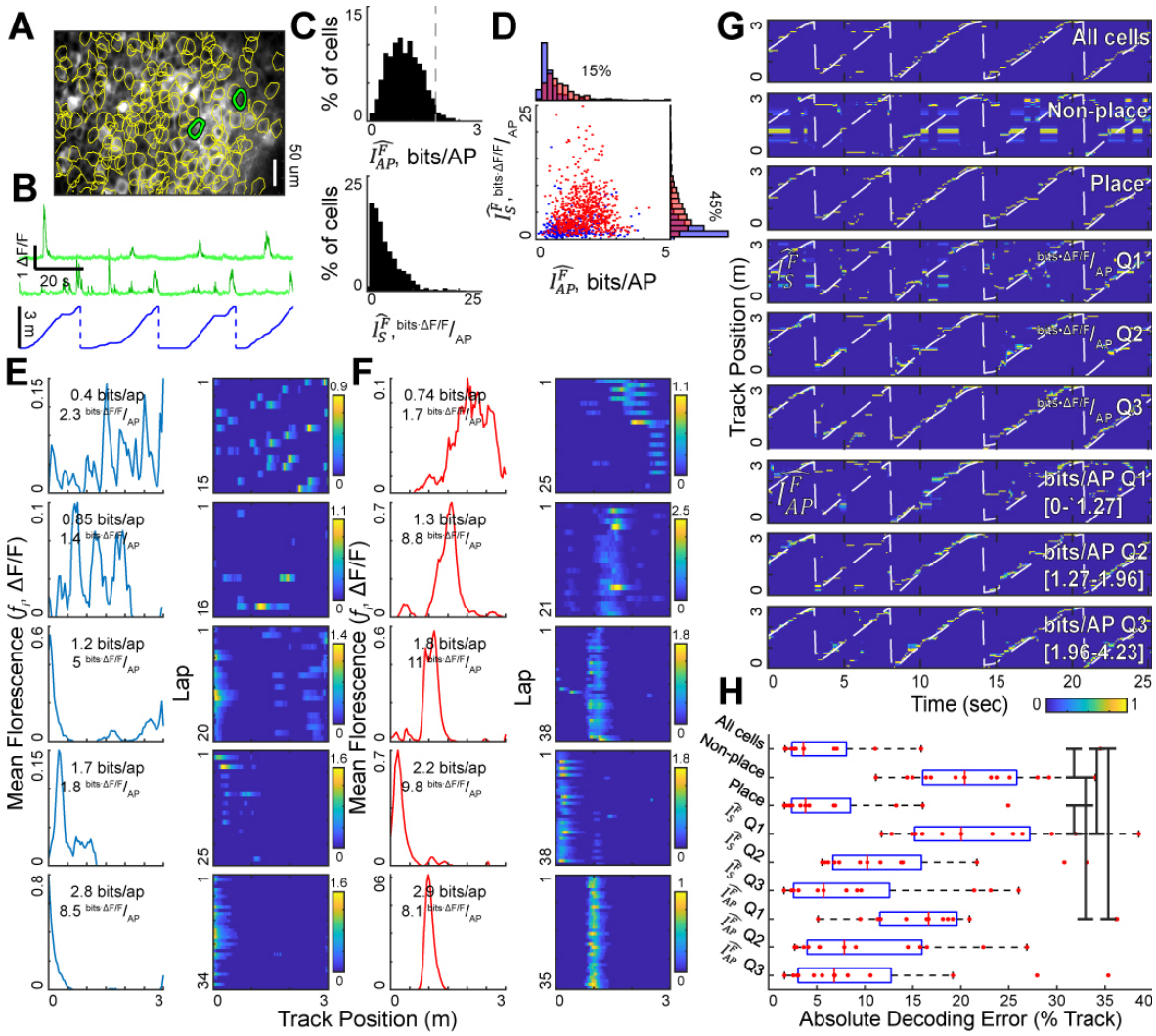


Figure 5. Application of SMGM information metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data from hippocampus during spatial behavior. A.) Example field of hippocampal pyramidal neurons expressing GCaMP6f and imaged during linear track navigation. Active cell ROIs shown in yellow; traces for green cells shown in B. B.) Fluorescence DF/F traces (green) from two neurons in the field shown in A and the track position during the recording (blue). C.). Distribution of information values using the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$,(top) and the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$, bottom). The gray line indicates the recommended cutoff for reliability using GCaMP6f. D.) Plot of $\widehat{I_S^F}$ vs $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$ for each neuron. Place cells indicated in red and nonplace cells in blue. E.) Example non-place cells spanning the information ranges shown in C. Spatial fluorescence map (f_i) shown on left, and average change in fluorescence per track traversal on right. F.) Same as E, but for place cells. G.) Bayesian decoding of mouse's track position using different subpopulations of neurons for one example session. From top to bottom: All active neurons, all nonplace cells, and place cells, the first through third quantiles of the SMGM bits per second formulation ($\widehat{I_S^F}$), and the first through third quantiles of the SMGM bits per action potential formation ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$). The white dashed line indicates the ground truth position of the animal, the color map indicates the decoded position probability (peak-normalized posterior distribution). H.) Decoding accuracy (absolute position decoding error in units of % of track) pooled over all sessions for

each neuron group indicated in G. Black bars indicate significant differences by Holm-Bonferroni corrected rank sum tests (α=0.05).

Example: application of information metrics to functional fluorescence imaging data from hippocampus during spatial behavior

In this section we demonstrate use of the above guidelines for proper application and interpretation of the SMGM fluorescence mutual information metrics ($\widehat{I_S^F}$ and $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$) defined in Equations 7 and 8. We applied these metrics to functional fluorescence recordings (gCaMP6f) from pyramidal neurons in CA1 of the hippocampus acquired during mouse spatial behavior.

CA1 neurons expressing gCaMP6f (viral transfection, CaMKII promoter) were imaged with two-photon microscopy though a chronic imaging window during mouse navigation along a familiar 1D virtual linear track, as described previously (Figure 5A-B, Dombeck et al., 2010; Radvansky and Dombeck, 2018; Sheffield et al., 2017). 8 fields of view from 4 mice were recorded in 8 total sessions (recording duration 8.8+/-1.3 minutes, number of traversals/session: 29+/-2.5, 3.6+/-0.3 laps/min, 3 m long track). From these 8 sessions, 1,500 neurons were identified from our segmentation algorithm (see Methods), and analysis was restricted to the 964 neurons that displayed at least one calcium transient on at least 1/3 of the traversals during the session. Among these 964 neurons, 304 (31.5%) had significant place fields and were thus identified as place cells (see Methods), while the remaining 660 (68.5%) did not pass a place field test and were thus identified as non-place cells.

By applying Equation 7 (using 5 cm sized spatial bins), we found a continuum of spatial information values measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) across the 964 CA1 neurons, with an average value of $\widehat{I_S^F}$=4.31±0.12 $\frac{\text{bits}\ \Delta F/F}{\text{Hz}}$ (Figure 5C). The units for $\widehat{I_S^F}$ make direct use and interpretation of these values difficult, however, because these recordings were all from pyramidal neurons in a single area, here for illustrative purposes, we will presume that variations in c (discussed above) across the 964 neurons of interest are small and acceptable, with the absolute value of c unknown. This allows for comparisons of information ratios across different subsets of the population. For example, place cells had 2.8±0.20 times more information than non-place cells using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$=5.3±0.14 for place vs. 1.9±0.087 $\frac{\text{bits}\ \Delta F/F}{\text{Hz}}$ for non-place, Rank sum p=1.7e-63, Figure 5D-F), although there was substantial overlap in information between the populations (see distributions in Figure 5D and individual examples in Figure 5E,F). This also allows for accurate division of the 964 neurons into 3 quantiles based on information values, which we use below for spatial location decoding.

By applying Equation 8 (using 5 cm sized spatial bins), we found a continuum of spatial information values measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$) across the 964 CA1 neurons, with an average value of $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$=1.65±0.023 bits/action potential (Figure 5C). The units for $\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$ allow for direct use and interpretation of these values, and notably, because most (97%) of the neurons had values less than 3 bits/action potential, a mean absolute error of <10% can be assumed across the distribution of SMGM bits per action potential values. When applied to the place and non-place cell populations, we found that place cells had higher information than nonplace cells using the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$=1.8±0.026 and 1.35±0.042 bits/action potential, Rank sum p=4.6e-21, Figure 5D-F).

As a demonstration of the usefulness of using information metrics to analyze large functional fluorescence population recordings, we explored the accuracy of decoding the animal's track position using different subsets of neurons. We divided the 964 neurons into 9 groups: All neurons, place cells, non-place cells, three quantiles based on the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric, and three quantiles based on the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric. We then used a Bayesian decoder of the animals' position (see Methods) separately for each of the 9 neuron groups in each of the 8 sessions (Figure 5G,H). An individual session decoding example can be seen in Figure 5G. We quantified decoding accuracy using the absolute position decoding error (% of track), and pooled this measure across sessions for each neuron group (Figure 5H). The means and standard errors for each group are: All neurons (7.33 +/-2.5 %), place cells (6.97 +/-1.9 %), non-place cells (20.9 +/-1.8 %), SMGM bits per second Q1 (21.9 +/-1.5 %), SMGM bits per second Q2 (13.2 +/-2.4 %), SMGM bits per second Q3 (8.97 +/-2.4 %), SMGM bits per action potential Q1 (17.6 +/-2.7%), SMGM bits per action potential Q2 (17.8 +/-3.1 %), SMGM bits per action potential Q3 (10.4 +/-3.0 %). Interestingly, even the lowest quantile information groups still could be used to determine animal track location to within ~1/5 of the track. This supports the idea that the hippocampal code for space is carried by a large population of active neurons (Meshulam et al., 2016), and not just by a select subpopulation with the highest information or most well-defined tuning curves. As could be expected, place cells encoded the position of the animal better than nonplace cells and better than the lowest quantile information groups (Holm-Bonferroni corrected Rank sum, α=0.05) and neurons in the higher quantiles provided more accurate decoding. Thus, the fluorescence information metrics provide a means to compare the relative contribution of hippocampal neurons with different information values to decoding animal position.

Discussion

Here, we performed an in-depth simulation study to examine the application of the SMGM bits per second and SMGM bits per action potential metrics of mutual information to functional fluorescence recordings. Since these metrics were designed for action potential recordings and since functional fluorescence recordings violate some of the assumptions that these metrics are based on, it was unclear if and how the metrics could be used for functional fluorescence recordings. We created a library of ten thousand mock neurons whose action potential output carried ground-truth amounts of information about the animal's spatial location, and by using real behavioral recording data from mice navigating in virtual linear tracks, we simulated the spatial firing patterns of the mock neurons. We then simulated fluorescent calcium responses for each neuron in each session by convolving the action potential trains with calcium kernels for different indicators, primarily GCamp6f (though see Supplemental Figures 2 and 3 for results from other indicators), and then added noise.

We then derived fluorescence versions of the SMGM bits per second ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) and SMGM bits per action potential metrics ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$) (Equations 7 and 8) and applied them to the fluorescence traces in order to quantify the performance of the metrics for estimating information. We found that ground truth information, as measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$), was transformed into different units and was linearly scaled by a factor (c) dependent on the height and width of the kernel, with c linearly dependent on height and nonlinearly dependent on width. The error induced by these transformations changed substantially over the range of kernel values of the different functional indicators widely used today, and therefore are important factors to consider when designing and interpreting functional imaging experiments. We then found that ground truth information, as measured by the fluorescence SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^F}$), retains the units and insensitivity to height scaling of the

electrophysiological metric ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{E}}$), but is nonlinearly biased by the smoothing of the fluorescence map dictated by the width of the kernel. The estimation errors strongly depended on both the width of the kernel and the information value being measured. Since these parameters change substantially over the different functional indicators and different neuron types and behaviors that are commonly used today, they are important factors to consider when designing and interpreting functional imaging experiments.

Using our mock fluorescence traces, we also asked if an AP estimation method could relieve the biases in the SMGM metrics. Applying the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_{S}^{d}}$) to AP estimation traces from a deconvolution algorithm (FOOPSI) resulted in a very low c value for recovered versus ground truth information. When the SMGM bits per AP measure was applied ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{d}}$), the resulting measurements of information were still nonlinear (compared to $\widehat{I_{S}^{F}}$), with a positive bias at lower values of ground truth information. Overall, applying FOOPSI to fluorescence traces led to a poorer recovery of ground truth information using SMGM compared to direct application of SMGM to the florescence traces ($\widehat{I_{AP}^{F}}$). This finding is consistent with recent research that has questioned the accuracy of deconvolution methods (Evans et al., 2019). We also tested other metrics to measure mutual information directly from the fluorescence time traces (KSG, Binned Estimator (uniform bins), and Binned Estimator (occupancy binned)) and found these alternatives produced highly variable, saturating measurements of recovered versus ground truth information. This was in contrast to the SMGM bits per second measure ($\widehat{I_{S}^{F}}$) which produced a linearly scaled bias with lower error.

Materials and Methods

Construction of action potential trains with known ground truth information

To construct mock neurons with ground truth information, we adapted the differential form of the action potential information, in bits per action potential (Equation 6). To create a rate map, we first selected an average firing rate and target ground truth information. The mean rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) was always between 0.1 and 30 Hz, the information in bits per action potential (I_{AP}^{E}) between 0 and 6 bits per AP, and the information in bits per second (I_{S}^{E}) between 0 and 24. To more evenly sample each of these, we first randomly selected the bits per second (I_{S}^{E}) or bits per action potential (I_{AP}^{E}) to target. If the information target was in bits per action potential, both the information (I_{AP}^{E}) and mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$) were chosen uniformly. Because the information in bits per second $I_{S}^{E} = \bar{\lambda} I_{AP}^{E}$, the bits per second information was not uniformly sampled in this case. If the target was to be in bits per second, both the bits per action potential (I_{AP}^{E}) and SMGM bits per second (I_{S}^{E}) measures were first chosen uniformly. Because the rate $\bar{\lambda} = I_{S}^{E} / I_{AP}^{E}$, this was not chosen uniformly. This procedure was repeated to maintain the bounds on $\bar{\lambda}$, resulting in a non-uniform sampling of information. The final distribution (Figure 1C) was spread acceptably for further analysis.

The rate maps were constructed by spline interpolating across 5 control points with two anchored at each end of the track, and taking the exponential for each point, and then normalizing by the numerically calculated integral (Figure 1A, D). To create a map matching the target information, we began with a random spline. The ‘y’ (relative rate) initial position of each node was chosen from a standard normal distribution and the initial ‘x’ (track position) of the 3 center nodes was chosen uniformly. The nodes were then systematically moved using the MATLAB built in optimizer ‘fmincon’ with constraints preventing the crossing of the center nodes and keeping them on the track, and the ‘OptimalityTolerance’ option set to 0 (Figure 1A).

We then randomly selected behavioral traces (see Methods "Behavior" section) and concatenated sessions until a total time randomly chosen between 3 and 60 minutes was reached (Figure 1E, F; Figure 2A, Figure 3A). The track positions were normalized and used to build a conditional intensity function (CIF) from the rate function above. The CIF was normalized to match an expected mean rate over the entire session, and the MATLAB built-in 'poissrnd' function was used to generate action potential times, sampled at 1 kHz. Finally, the action potential times were binned according to the counts within mock imaging frames sampled at 30 Hz.

Simulated $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ traces

To construct the $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ traces (Figure1E,J,K; Figure2A; Figure3A), we first created a single action potential response kernel from the peak-normalized sum of two exponentials:

$$g(t) = \frac{e^{-a\,t} - e^{-b\,t}}{\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{a}{b-a}} - \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{b}{b-a}}} \qquad 9$$

Where t is the time since the action potential and a and b are chosen to minimize $\left(1 - g(\tau_{rise})\right)^2 + \left(0.5 - g\left(\tau_{rise} + \tau_{fall}\right)\right)^2$ where τ_{rise} is the rise time in seconds and τ_{fall} is the half-fall time in seconds. Deviations in τ_{rise} and τ_{fall} from baseline were also measured. The kernel g(t) was then multiplied by the indicator height.

The GCaMP6f, GCaMP6s, and jRGECO1a heights, rise and fall times were measured as responses to single action potentials *in vivo* (Chen et al., 2013; Dana et al., 2019)*:* other kernels (Figure 2H, Supplemental Figures 2 and 3) were approximated from other experiments presented in the references (seen in Table 1).

Table 1. Properties of indicator kernels used

Kernel	*Height* $\Delta F/F$	*Rise (s)*	*Fall (s)*	*Source*
gCaMP6f	0.190	0.042	0.142	(Chen et al., 2013)
jRGECO1a	0.164	0.041	0.207	(Kalko et al., 2011)
gCaMP7f	0.560	0.063	0.276	(Dana et al., 2019)
gCaMP6s	0.230	0.179	0.550	(Chen et al., 2013)
iGluSnfR-A184S	0.300	0.022	0.106	(Marvin et al., 2018)

To define the width of the kernel (Figure2L-N, Figure3K-M), we considered the kernel as a low pass filtered version of the action potentials. If we normalize the filter to mean 1, it has the Fourier transform $\left(\frac{1}{a+2\pi f j} - \frac{1}{b+2\pi f j}\right)\left(\frac{ab}{b-a}\right)$. The kernel width was defined as the -3 dB (50%) cutoff period of this filter:

$f^{-1} = \frac{\sqrt{-a^2-b^2+\sqrt{a^4+14a^2b^2+b^4}}}{2\pi\sqrt{2}}$. For the simulations with different width kernels, a kernel width was chosen between 0.01 and 10 seconds, a rise time between 0.001 and 1 second, and a fall time between the rise time and 2 seconds. Then, a and b were chosen to minimize the squared error between these three targets using the built in MATLAB optimizer 'fminsearch'.

White noise with a standard deviation of 0.15 $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ was then added to the mock fluorescence traces.

Deconvolution

Deconvolution was performed using the previously described FOOPSI algorithm (Vogelstein et al., 2010). λ was set at 0.02154, which maximized the correlation between the deconvolved trace and the true spike train in a random sample of 500 simulated traces: all other parameters were optimized for each trace.

KSG estimator

The previously described second KSG estimator (Kraskov et al., 2004) was used using the 5th nearest neighbor distance.

Binned estimators

The binned mutual information estimators were used (Timme and Lapish, 2018). The activity trace was divided into 10 bins, either evenly across the span of the activity (uniform binned) or variably so the bins contained the same number of samples (occupancy binned). Position was similarly divided into 60 bins.

Bayesian decoding

The Bayesian decoder used here (Figure 5 G,H) was adapted from a previously described method (Zhang et al., 1998). Decoding was performed on the likelihood that a significant transient occurred in a time frame, trained on the first 80% of the session and tested on the last 20%. The session was divided into Δt=0.1 second bins. The conditional likelihood that an animal is in position x_i given the number of active frames during a time window (n) is $p(x_i|n) = p_X(x_i)\left(\prod_{j=1}^{M} f_{i,j}^{n_j}\right) e^{-\Delta t \sum_{j=1}^{M} f_{i,j}}$, Where $p_X(x_i)$ is the (marginal) probability that the animal is in the ith spatial bin during a time sample, $f_{i,j}$ is the average rate of significant frames by the jth neuron in the ith spatial bin, n_j is the number of significant frames observed during the time window in neuron j, and M is the total number of neurons. The decoded position was selected as the one with maximum conditional likelihood.

Animals

10 to 12 week old male C57BL/6 mice (20-30g) were individually housed under a reverse 12 hr. light / dark cycle, all experiments were conducted during the dark phase. All experiments were approved by the Northwestern University Animal Care and Use committee.

Behavior

We used a previously described virtual reality set-up and task (Heys et al., 2014; Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015); some of the behavior sessions used here has previously appeared in these studies. Briefly, water scheduled, head fixed mice were trained to run on a cylindrical treadmill down a 3m virtual track to receive a water (4 µl) reward at the end of the track, and were subsequently teleported to the beginning of the track after a 1.5 s delay. Behavioral sessions were included if the animal ran at

least 20 laps containing a continuous 40 cm run for which the velocity was over 7 cm/sec during a 5-30 minute session.

Mouse surgery and virus injected

We performed population calcium imaging of CA1 neurons as described previously(Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015). Briefly, 30 nL of AAV1-SynFCaMP6f (University of Pennsylvania Vector Core, 1.5*10^13 GC/ml) was injected through a small craniotomy over the right hippocampus (1.8 mm lateral, 2.3 mm caudal of Bregma; 1.25 mm below the surface of the brain) under Isoflurane (1-2%) anesthesia. 7 days later, a hippocampal window and head plate was implanted as described previously (Dombeck et al., 2010).

Two-photon imaging

Imaging was performed as previously described(Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015). Scanimage 4 was used for microscope control and acquisition (Pologruto et al., 2003). Time series movies (1024 or 512x256 pixels) were acquired at 50 Hz. A Digidata1440A (Molecular Devices) with Clampex 10.3 synchronized position on the linear track, reward timing, and the timing of image frames.

Image processing, ROI selection and calcium transient analysis

Images were processed as previously described (Sheffield et al., 2017; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015), with minor modifications. Briefly, rigid motion correction was performed using cross correlation as in (Dombeck et al., 2010; Miri et al., 2011; Sheffield and Dombeck, 2015), but here using a Fast-Fourier transform approximation on the full video. ROIs were defined as previously described (Mukamel et al., 2009) (mu=0.6, 150 principal/independent components, s.d. threshold = 2.5, s.d. smoothing width=1, area limits = 100-1200 pixels). $\frac{\Delta F}{F}$ traces were generated by normalizing around the 8th percentile of a 3 second sliding window. Significant transients from both experimental and mock fluorescence traces were selected by comparing the ratio of amplitudes and durations of positive to negative going transients with a false positive rate <0.01% (Dombeck et al., 2010). Mock traces used the histograms generated from the mock gCaMP6f traces (Figure 2-3) or from the specific matching indicator traces (Supplemental Figures 2,3): experimental data histograms were built separately. All subsequent analyses were run using these significant transients.

Behavior analysis

The mean virtual track velocity was defined as the total virtual track distance covered during the session divided by the total duration of the session; slow and stop periods were included in this metric. All other analyses were restricted to long running periods, where the animal exceeded a virtual track velocity of 4 cm/s and ran continuously for at least 40 cm.

Defining place fields

Place fields were defined by first creating the spatial fluorescence intensity map (f_i) with the 300 cm track divided into 60, 5 cm bins. This map was smoothed via a 3 bin boxcar. Transients identified during run periods were shuffled in order and to random intervals to create 1000 bootstrapped intensity maps. Candidate fields were defined as regions of the original fluorescence map with values greater than 99% of the bootstrapped maps. Fields were then retained if they were between 20 and 120 cm wide: significant place cells retained at least one field that satisfied these criteria.

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Supplemental Information

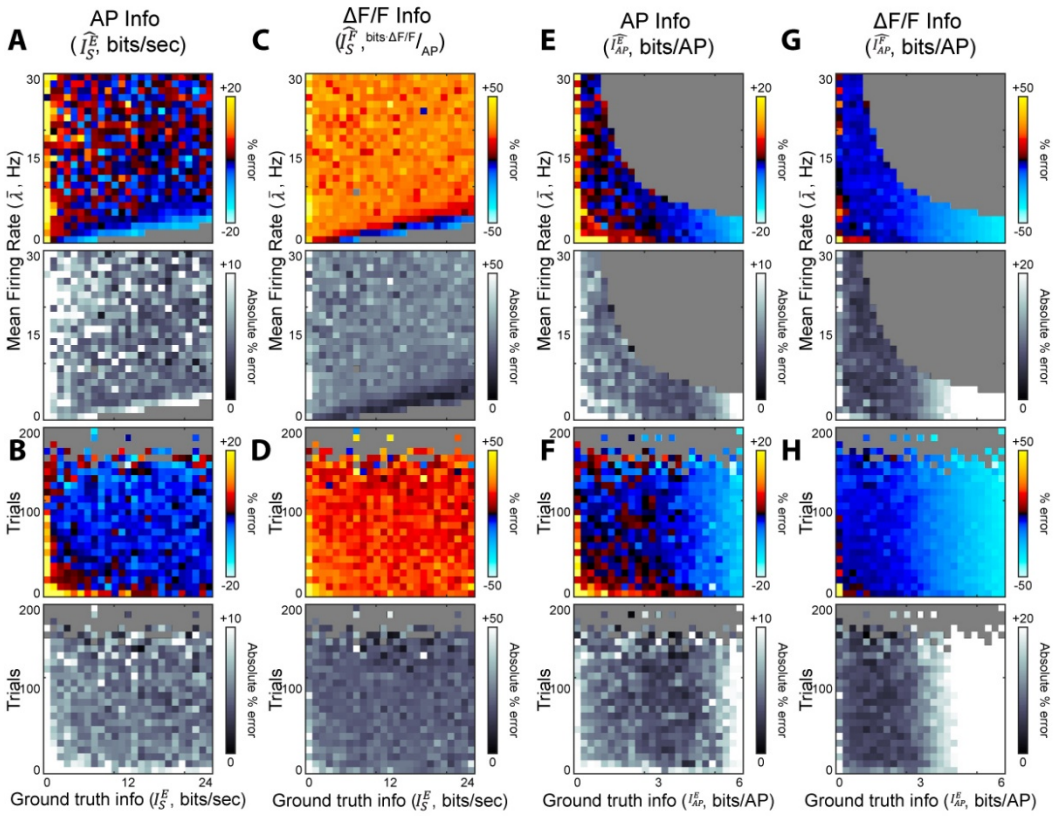
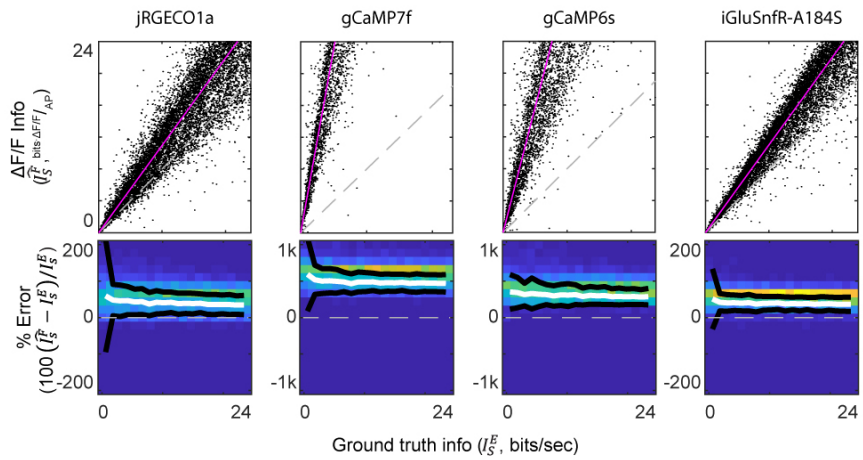
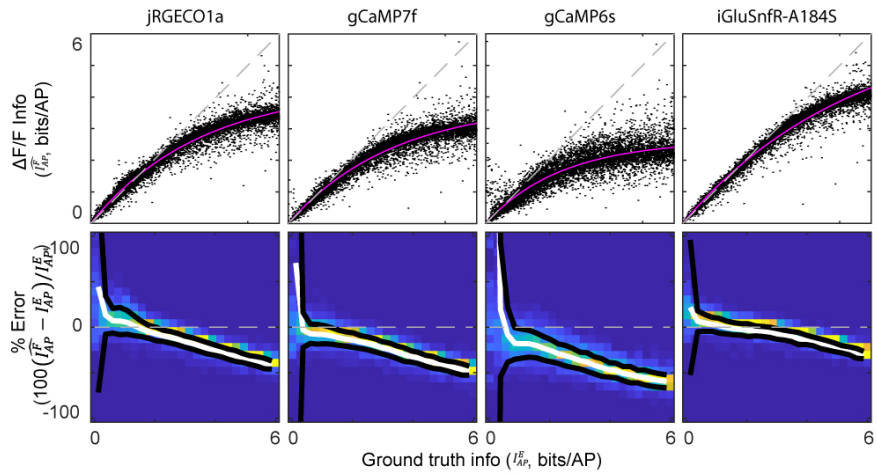


Figure S 1. Effect of recording density on information metrics. A. The mean error (top) and absolute error (bottom) between the ground truth information (I_S^E) and measured information in SMGM bits per second from mock action potentials ($\widehat{I_S^E}$) as a function of the mean firing rate ($\bar{\lambda}$). B. As A, but as a function of number of laps. C-D. As A-B, but for measurements from mock fluorescence traces. E-F. As A-B, but for the SMGM bits per action potential metric. G-H.) As C-D, but for the SMGM bits per action potential metric.



Indicator	Error (AU)	Absolute Error (AU)	% Error	Absolute % Error	$c\ (\frac{\Delta F/F}{Hz})$
jRGECO1a	4.58±4.4	4.8±4.2	40.7±43.9	42.7±42.0	1.37
gCaMP7f	57.6± 36.0	57.6±36.0	488±170	488±170	5.75
gCaMP6s	35.7±25.1	35.7±25.1	305.9±146	306.09±146	3.93
iGluSnfR-A184S	4.54± 3.6	4.63±3.5	39.1±25.8	39.82±24.6	1.37

Figure S 2. Effects of applying the SMGM bits per second metric to fluorescence traces from different common functional indicators. Top: Information measured from mock traces using the SMGM bits per second metric ($\widehat{I_S^F}$) vs ground truth information (I_S^E). Each dot is a single mock neuron, the gray dashed line is the unity line (perfect measurement), the pink line is the line of best fit. Middle: Percentage error density plots. The white line is the mean, the black are ± one standard deviation. Bottom: Summary statistics and estimates for the scaling factor c.



Indicator	Error (bits/AP)	Absolute Error (bits/AP)	% Error	Absolute % Error	5% cutoff (bits/AP)	10% Cutoff (bits/AP)
jRGECO1a	-0.56± 0.76	0.61±0.73	-10.4±25.5	18.5±20.4	1.68	2.40
gCaMP7f	-0.79± 0.87	0.80±0.86	-20.4±47.8	23.6±46.2	0.48	1.44
gCaMP6s	-1.2± 1.1	1.2±1.1	-25.3±194.9	43.7±191.6	0.48	0.72
iGluSnfR-A184S	-0.32± 0.53	0.36±0.5	-5.7±17.9	11.2±15.2	2.6	3.4

Figure S 3. Effects of applying the SMGM bits per action potential metric to fluorescence traces from different common functional indicators. Top: Information measured from mock traces using the SMGM bits per action potential metric ($\widehat{I^F_{AP}}$) vs ground truth information (I^E_{AP}). Each dot is a single mock neuron, the gray dashed line is the unity line (perfect measurement), the pink line is the exponential fit. Middle: Percentage error density plots. The white line is the mean, the black are ± one standard deviation. Bottom: Summary statistics and percent error cutoffs.

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