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An integrate-and-fire spiking neural network model simulating artificially

induced cortical plasticity

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Abstract

We describe an integrate-and-fire (IF) spiking neural network that incorporates spike-timing

dependent plasticity (STDP) and simulates the experimental outcomes of four different

conditioning protocols that produce cortical plasticity. The original conditioning experiments

were performed in freely moving non-human primates with an autonomous head-fixed

bidirectional brain-computer interface. Three protocols involved closed-loop stimulation

triggered from (a) spike activity of single cortical neurons, (b) EMG activity from forearm

muscles, and (c) cycles of spontaneous cortical beta activity. A fourth protocol involved open-

loop delivery of pairs of stimuli at neighboring cortical sites. The IF network that replicates the

experimental results consists of 360 units with simulated membrane potentials produced by

synaptic inputs and triggering a spike when reaching threshold. The 240 cortical units produce

either excitatory or inhibitory post-synaptic potentials in their target units. In addition to the

experimentally observed conditioning effects, the model also allows computation of underlying

network behavior not originally documented. Furthermore, the model makes predictions about

outcomes from protocols not yet investigated, including spike-triggered inhibition, gamma-

triggered stimulation and disynaptic conditioning. The success of the simulations suggests that

a simple voltage-based IF model incorporating STDP can capture the essential mechanisms

mediating targeted plasticity with closed-loop stimulation.

Author summary

Previous experiments have shown that the connections between neurons in the brain can be

modified by several different activity-dependent stimulation methods. Understanding the

underlying mechanisms that mediate these changes is key to designing effective protocols for

producing targeted plasticity in clinical and basic science applications. We describe a simple but

powerful neural network model that replicates a wide range of experimental results. It

provides valuable additional information about the underlying processes and more importantly,

predicts new protocols that have never been tested but could be. The network model is

composed of interconnected "integrate-and-fire" units that, like biological neurons, add the

inputs they receive and fire when the results exceed threshold. The model also includes a well-

documented rule for changing the strength of connections between two units based on the

relative timing of their activity.

The model captures the neural plasticity produced in recent experiments that delivered activity

dependent stimulation or controlled patterns of stimulation. The model explores how such

paradigms would strengthen indirect as well as direct neural connections. It also predicts that a

new experimental protocol using easily recorded neural signals would be very effective in

modifying neural connections. The results represent a major advance in understanding

fundamental neural mechanisms and designing new protocols for inducing targeted neural

plasticity.

Introduction

Computational neural network models provide a powerful tool for understanding mechanisms

of neural computation and for exploring network behavior in ways that physiological recordings

cannot [1-4]. Neural networks consisting of integrate-and-fire (IF) spiking units have proven

useful in studying network dynamics produced by spiking neurons (for reviews see [5-11]). The

IF units typically sum inputs to produce a simulated membrane potential function that triggers

a spike when it reaches a threshold. The inputs can simulate postsynaptic potentials with rise

time and decay; the units can also incorporate biophysical conductances [12]. Spike-timing-

dependent plasticity (STDP) rules [13-16] can be incorporated into IF networks to investigate

consequent changes in synaptic connections on network dynamics. For example, large

networks of biophysically realistic spiking units with STDP have been shown to form functional

interacting groups [17-20] and capture global changes induced by conditioning [21]. We here

used an IF network with STDP to simulate experimental results from recent physiological

conditioning studies performed with a closed-loop brain computer interface (CL-BCI).

The strength of synaptic connections between motor cortical neurons has been experimentally

modified by several different conditioning protocols. In non-human primates (NHP), CL-BCIs

have induced plasticity with spike-triggered stimulation of neighboring cortical sites during free

behavior [22]. After a day of conditioning the output effects on muscles and isometric wrist

responses evoked by microstimulation of the recording site (labeled A) included the output

effects evoked from the stimulation site (B), consistent with a strengthening of connections

from A to B. Changes occurred only for spike-stimulus delays of 50 ms or less, consistent with

the time course of STDP. These changes lasted for up to 10 days post-conditioning. A second

conditioning paradigm triggered cortical stimulation from pulses generated by

electromyographic activity of a forearm muscle [23]. This produced changes in the output

effects evoked by stimulating the cortical site (A) that was associated with the recorded muscle

to now include effects evoked from the stimulated site (B). Again, the results were consistent

with a strengthening of connections from A to B. A third conditioning paradigm used paired

sequential stimulation of sites A and B and found changes in the magnitude of potentials at B

evoked by stimulation at A [24]. These effects were found at some, but not all site pairs, and

were again seen for stimulus intervals of 30 ms or less. A fourth conditioning paradigm

produced cortical plasticity using a CL-BCI to stimulate site A during specific phases of

spontaneous beta oscillations at B [25]. This produced transient changes in the connection

from A to B; the connections increased or decreased, depending on whether stimuli were

delivered during the phase in which neurons at B would tend to be depolarized or

hyperpolarized, respectively. These changes in connectivity were induced by spontaneous

oscillatory episodes with 3 or more cycles and decayed within seconds.

We here investigated whether the neural mechanisms underlying these four conditioning

protocols could be captured by an IF neural network model that incorporates STDP. This

approach differs from a previous neural network model using populations of Poisson firing units

to analytically compute the net effects produced by spike-triggered stimulation [26] (See

Discussion). Our IF model replicated the results of all four conditioning protocols with a single

set of network parameters and enabled derivations beyond the original experimental

observations, providing a more complete picture of conditioned changes and insights into the

effects of relevant network parameters. Furthermore, the model also provided totally novel

predictions about the outcomes of possible conditioning experiments that have not yet been

performed. Thus, there is a productive symbiotic relation between the model and physiological

experiments. Our IF model provides a powerful tool for elucidating the synaptic mechanisms

underlying cortical plasticity and discovering new conditioning paradigms.

Results

Results

The model

The IF model consists of 360 integrate-and-fire units with a "membrane potential" that

integrates synaptic inputs and upon reaching threshold triggers a spike and resets (Fig 1A; see

Methods for more detail). After a conduction delay the spike generates excitatory or inhibitory

post-synaptic potentials in connected target units that are proportional to the size of the

synaptic weights (Fig 1A and B). During conditioning the synaptic weights are modified by a

STDP function that depends on the relative timing of pre- and postsynaptic spikes (Fig 1C).

Fig 1. Integrate and fire model. (A) External input (Ej) and spiking input from connected

units (U1 to Un) are summed into a target unit's potential (Vj). When a unit's potential

reaches threshold it is reset to 0 and the unit sends a spike to all its target units. The spike

evokes an excitatory or inhibitory post synaptic potential proportional to synaptic weight w_{ij}.

(B) PSP Shape is calculated as the difference between two exponential functions (dotted and

dashed lines). (C) The Spike Timing-Dependent Plasticity Curve shows how much weight w_{ij} is

changed given the difference in spike times between the target unit *i* and the source unit *j*.

The network contains 240 cortical units grouped into three "columns", A, B and C (Fig 2A).

Excitatory and inhibitory units within a column are sparsely interconnected, and excitatory units

connect sparsely to units of other columns. Units also receive excitatory external drive

consisting of uncorrelated and correlated spike events (Fig 2A and B). Each column also has an

associated group of 40 motor units with graded thresholds and EMG potentials (Fig 2B). In

addition to spike events the model monitors the "local field potentials" calculated as the sum of

all postsynaptic potentials within a column (Fig 2C).

Fig 2. Network connectivity. (A) Cortical network configuration. Units are grouped into 3

columns A, B, and C. Each column contains 40 excitatory units (e.g. Ae1 … Ae40) and 40 local

inhibitory units (Ai) all sparsely interconnected. Only excitatory units project to other

columns. Columns also receive external input, consisting of correlated and uncorrelated

(C/U) exponentially distributed spikes. (B) Column configuration. Associated with each

cortical column is a pool of motor units that produce muscle potentials (EMG). The dashed

lines designate unmodifiable connections. (C) Example spiking activity of excitatory (e),

inhibitory (i) and motor units (m) associated with each column. LFP is the sum of within-

column post-synaptic potentials in e and i units.

Electrical stimulation is simulated by a large excitatory input delivered simultaneously to all

units of a column. During conditioning stimuli can be triggered by other activity or delivered in

open-loop mode. Test stimuli can be delivered to document the magnitude of net excitatory

connections between columns by the size of the evoked local field potentials.

Spike-triggered stimulation

To simulate conditioning with spike-triggered stimulation [22,27], each time the first excitatory

unit (Ae1) in Column A fired, a conditioning stimulus was applied to all units in Column B at a

given delay (Fig 3A). Conditioning effects were observed as increased connection strengths

between Column A and Column B. Fig 3C shows color-coded strengths of all connections after

spike-triggered stimulation with a spike-stimulus delay of 10 ms, showing strengthened

connections from Ae to B units relative to connections between other columns. Connectivity

between Columns A and B was also documented by the average evoked potential (EP) (Fig 3D

insets) in the LFP of Column B produced by a test stimulus to A (Fig 3A).

Fig 3. Spike-triggered stimulation. (A) A Conditioning stimulus (ST) is applied to all units in

Column B at a delay from each trigger spike (T) detected on the first excitatory unit (Ae1) of

Column A. Testing shows stimulus applied to all Column A units to evoke a potential (EP) in

LFP of Column B. (B) Histogram of excitatory A and B unit firings aligned with spikes on Ae1

(T) during conditioning with a 10 ms delayed stimulus. (C) Final connection strengths

(calibrated in uV) between units after conditioning. (D) Average percent increase in the EP as

a function of the delay between trigger spike and stimulation. Insets show average EPs

before and after conditioning for two delays. Grey dashed line shows the EP response in

Column B after tetanic stimulation of Column B.

After conditioning for 500 seconds of simulation time, the conditioning unit (Ae1) showed near

maximum connection strengths to its target units in Column B. Other units in A also show

increased connections to B depending on the percent of correlated bias inputs to A. Networks

with 30% correlated bias inputs show a moderate conditioned response in other Column A→B

connections. Networks with 20% correlated bias inputs show little conditioned response

except for connections from unit Ae1. Fig 3B shows the activity in the entire Ae population

aligned with the triggering Ae1 spike times (T). The sharp peak at 0 ms represents the trigger

spikes and the broad peri-trigger peak reflects the synchrony between Ae units imposed by 30%

external correlated bias. Fig 3B also shows the times of spikes in Column B (red); the large peak

at 10 ms reflects the occurrence of stimulus pulses in B.

Fig 3D shows the size of A→B EPs after spike-triggered conditioning at various spike-stimulus

delays. The peak in the curve reflects the effect of the STDP rule. At long delays, the spike-

triggered conditioning effect approaches the small effect of tetanic stimulation applied to

Column B (dashed line). At "zero" delay the size of the EP is decreased (Fig 3D). In this case the

spike-stimulus delay is shorter than the conduction delay and connections from A to B become

weaker. This decrease in synaptic strength is consistent with the STDP rule and with

experimental results obtained for corticospinal connections [28].

The original experiments of Jackson et al [22] could not document the conditioning effects by

recording short-latency EPs because of stimulus artifacts, so instead measured conditioning

effects indirectly by using cortical microstimulation to evoke EMG responses. To simulate these

experimental observations, the motor unit pools were activated by trains of cortical stimuli

delivered at separate times to each column (Fig 4). This simulation shows that after

conditioning, stimulation of Column A now also evoked responses in the muscle of Column B,

mediated by the strengthened A→B connections and as reported by Jackson et al (their figure

2).

Fig 4. Simulation of output effects on muscles before and after spike-triggered stimulation.

Averages of rectified EMG responses evoked by repetitive stimulation of Column A

(containing conditioning trigger unit), Column B (stimulus column), and Column C (control) for

preconditioning (blue) and post-conditioning (orange) periods (cf. figure 2 in [22]). For this

simulation, inter-column connection probability was doubled to 1/3 and the correlated bias

drive was set to 50%. The test stimulus train was 1 mV, 25 pulses, 500 Hz delivered during

intervals marked by black bars (the response delay is due to the 10 ms corticospinal

conduction time). Ordinate scale is in millivolts.

EMG-triggered stimulation

Cortical conditioning effects could also be produced in NHPs by triggering cortical stimulation

from muscle activity [23]. To simulate these experimental results the trigger pulses were

obtained from threshold crossings of multiunit EMG activity of Muscle A (Fig 5A). The threshold

was chosen such that triggered stimuli were delivered to Column B at a rate comparable to that

used for other conditioning methods (approximately 3000 conditioning stimulations over a 500

second conditioning period). This paradigm strengthened the synaptic connections from A to B,

as shown by the connectivity matrix (Fig 5C) and by the A→B evoked potentials (Fig 5D). The

conditioning effect is explained by the computed histogram of spikes in the Ae units aligned

with the threshold detection (Fig 5B). This shows a peak in firing of A units that generated the

coincident input to the motor units (blue curve) and that preceded the triggered responses in B

(red peak).

Fig 5. EMG-triggered stimulation. (A) A conditioning stimulus is applied to all units in

Column B at a delay after threshold crossing (θ) in EMG of A motor units. (B) Histograms of

Ae and Be unit firing during conditioning aligned with EMG A threshold detection (0 ms). (C)

Connection strengths between pre and post synaptic units after conditioning. (D) The

average percent increase in the EPs evoked in Column B (orange) and C (blue) from

stimulating A as function of delay of EMG-triggered stimulation.

Paired pulse stimulation

Paired pulse conditioning [24,29] was simulated by stimulating Column A followed by

stimulation of Column B at a fixed delay (Fig 6A). The resultant connection strengths are shown

in Fig 6C for a stimulus delay of 10 ms. Conditioning effects were also documented by

delivering test stimuli to Column A and measuring the average EPs in Columns B and C. Fig 6D

plots the change in amplitudes of the A→B EPs and A→C EPs as a function of interstimulus

delay. Consistent with the bidirectional STDP function, there is a decrease in the size of the EPs

for negative conditioning delays (i.e. B stimulated before A), but this is shallower than the peak

for positive delays because of the choice for the weakening parameter, which tended to keep

synaptic weights small. The histograms of unit firings shows the peak in A spikes produced by

the stimulus in A (blue trace) and two peaks in B firing (red trace): the first peak is due to a

synaptically relayed response to the A burst and the second is due to the delayed stimulus of B.

Fig 6. Paired pulse stimulation. (A) Pairs of pulses delivered sequentially to A and B with

fixed delay. (B) Histogram of Ae and Be unit activity during conditioning aligned with times

when first of the paired stimuli occurred (10 ms conditioning delay). (C) Connection strengths

208 after conditioning. (D) Average percent increase in the evoked potential between the

209 conditioned and unconditioned effect as a function of the interstimulus delay. Insets show

210 the shape of the average EP at conditioning delays of −30 ms and 10 ms. Grey trace plots

211 same for EPs in Column C.

212 For the same stimulus amplitude, paired pulse conditioning tends to be stronger than spike-

213 triggered conditioning (see Testable outcomes and Fig 10) and does not require correlated bias

214 inputs, since the conditioning pulses themselves evoke strong correlated activity between A

215 and B. The conditioning effect is seen with far fewer conditioning stimuli than used for spike-

216 triggered conditioning, for the same stimulus intensity. Our 500-second conditioning time

217 yielded only 700 paired pulse conditioning stimuli, compared to over 3000 stimuli when using

218 the spike-triggered conditioning method.

219 In these simulations conditioning effects were obtained by delivering pairs of single pulses.

220 However, in the physiological experiments it was necessary to use a triplet of pulses to obtain

221 effects [24,29]. In the model conditioning with paired triplets of stimuli shows a more potent

222 conditioning effect, which became evident for a range of lower intensities where single stimuli

223 were insufficient (Fig 10).

224 **Cycle-triggered stimulation**

225 To simulate cycle-triggered conditioning [25], episodes of oscillatory beta activity were

226 generated by modulating the bias input to Column B (episodes of 6 oscillations at 20 Hz

227 occurred four times during each 10 second simulation time block). The local field potentials

228 from Column B were filtered with a 15-25 Hz band pass and when this filtered LFP exceeded a

given level, the next zero crossing was either taken as a 0° phase (when rising through zero) or

180° phase (falling through zero) to define the phase of the cycle trigger. During conditioning a

stimulus was applied on all units in Column A whenever the cycle trigger for the specified phase

occurred in B (Fig 7A). To measure conditioning effects, we applied test pulses on Column A

before and after the oscillatory episodes, as in the original experiments. These test pulses

could cause a certain amount of tetanic conditioning, but this was lower than the changes

caused by the cycle-triggered conditioning.

Fig 7. Cycle-triggered stimulation. (A) A stimulus is applied to Column A at a particular phase

of local field potential oscillations in Column B. (B) Post conditioning histogram of Ae and Be

units aligned with stimulus trigger at 0 ms. (C) Connection strengths after conditioning with

cycle-triggered stimulation at 0° phase. (D) Increase of the evoked responses as a function of

stimulation phase. Legend identifies traces for stimulated and recorded columns. Dashed

line shows A→B EP increase for tetanic stimulation on Column A with a rate approximately

matching that for cycle triggered stimulation.

As shown in Fig 7C, cycle-triggered conditioning at 0° phase shift increased connections from

Column A→B and to a lesser extent the connections from Column A→C. In addition, the B→A

connections were reduced. Cycle-triggered conditioning at 180° phase shift decreased

connections from Column A→B and increased connections from Column B→A (not shown).

Fig 7B shows histograms of unit firings relative to the trigger for stimuli delivered at 0° phase

shift. The Ae units fired in response to the stimuli (peak at zero in blue curve). The Be units

show the broad oscillatory increase and response to the stimuli (red).

Conditioning was also performed with stimuli delivered at other phases. Fig 7D shows how

evoked responses vary with conditioning phase for A→B, A→C, and B→A connections.

Maximum evoked responses for A→B occurred at about −30°, which matches the phase

difference between the bias input modulation and the resulting modulation in the filtered LFP

of Column B. Maximum B→A EP responses occurred at about 150° phase shift. The least

amount of response occurred with phase shifts between 90° (peak) and 270° (trough) for A→B,

and −90° to 90° for B→A.

Control for tetanic stimulation

An important control for conditioning effects is the effect of a comparable amount of open-loop

stimulation not triggered by preceding activity. To reduce the effects of such tetanic

stimulation, the amount of external bias drive and the area difference between the weakening

and strengthening sides of the STDP curve were chosen such that tetanic stimulation, at rates

similar to rates for conditioning protocols, did not cause large conditioning effects. The results

of tetanic stimulation are shown in Fig 8, for Poisson-distributed stimulation delivered to

Column B during the conditioning period. The connection matrices for tetanic stimulation show

slight increases over the "no-conditioning" network in the connectivity from Column B to A and

B to C (Fig 8A). The changes in connectivity between columns as measured by EP amplitudes

are illustrated in Fig 8B and plotted in Fig 8C as a function of stimulus frequency. Tetanic

stimulation of B has the greatest effect on connections from B for frequencies between 8 and

16 Hz. The EP increases for other connections are small or slightly negative (Fig 8B and C).

Most of the conditioning protocols modified the A→B connections with triggered stimulation of

Column B. In these cases the conditioned A→B effects were clearly larger than the tetanic

effect which had the opposite effect of decreasing A→B EPs. For cycle triggered stimulation

where Column A was stimulated, the conditioned effect was larger than the effect of tetanic

stimulation of A alone (Fig 7D).

Fig 8. Tetanic stimulation. (A) Effect on connection strengths of tetanic stimulation of

Column B at 5 and 9 Hz (intensity of 2.0 mA), compared to no stimulation. (B) Examples of

averaged EPs before and after tetanic stimulation of B at 9 Hz. (C) Mean (over 10 randomized

networks) of averaged EP changes produced by tetanic stimulation of B at different

frequencies. Legend identifies traces for test-stimulated → EP-recorded columns.

Testable outcomes

Importantly, our IF model can simulate variables and procedures that were not documented in

the original physiological experiments. Notably, the strength of synaptic connections in the

model was documented by computing stimulus-evoked potentials (Fig 4D-7D and 8C), a test

that could in principle be performed experimentally, but is technically difficult. Another

comprehensive measure of conditioning effects on synaptic strength is the sum of all the

synaptic weights connecting one column to another. There is no feasible physiological or

anatomical experiment to measure these weights directly *in vivo*, but they can be readily

calculated from the model. Significantly, Fig 9A shows that the computed weight changes

closely track the changes in the EPs. Moreover, the weights can be tracked with high temporal

resolution, during and after the conditioning to document the induction and decay of the

conditioned weight changes. Fig 9B shows the time course of the weight changes in the A→B

connections during and after a period of spike-triggered stimulation with STDP. The stimulation

is applied during the first 4 seconds of each 10-second time block. The plot of the average time

course over 50 blocks shows how the weights tend to increase during the stimulation and then

decay towards their preconditioned state after stimulation is turned off.

Fig 9. Network weight measurements. (A) Comparison between EP increase and mean A→B

weight increase for conditioning with spike-triggered stimulation as function of spike-stimulus

delay. (B) Average evolution of A→B weights during and after 4 seconds of spike-triggered

stimulation at 10 ms conditioning delay.

Another testable property that the model can predict is the relative efficacy of conditioning as a

function of stimulus intensity and number, as shown for the spike-triggered and paired pulse

paradigms in Fig 10. The curve for spike-triggered stimulus pairs rises faster than the curve for

spike-triggered single stimuli; this is partly due to the pairs acting as a higher intensity stimulus,

but that does not entirely explain the higher asymptote achieved. The curve for paired single-

pulse stimulation initially rises more slowly than that for spike-triggered single stimuli, but then

surpasses it at 2 mV, our standard conditioning stimulation intensity. The curve for paired

triplet stimuli (which had to be used experimentally) rises much faster than that for paired

single-pulse stimulation, revealing a stimulus range over which the triplets are more effective

than single pulses. The curves asymptote at high stimulus intensities, when most of the units in

the stimulated column respond.

Fig 10. Effect of conditioning stimulus amplitudes and trains. Stimulating with pulse trains

(33 ms interstimulus interval) instead of single pulses increases the efficacy of conditioning

for spike-triggered stimulation (Spike Trig 2 vs 1) and for paired pulse conditioning (Paired

Pulse 3 vs 1) at all stimulus amplitudes. *n* is the total number of stimuli delivered during each

simulation. Running the Paired Pulse 1 conditioning longer (n = 3500 compared to n = 700)

does not provide the same increase in efficacy as Paired Pulse 3 (n = 714) until efficacy

approaches an upper limit at stimulus amplitudes ≥ 2.5 mV.

Testable predictions for novel protocols

Our IF model can also be used to predict outcomes of experiments not yet performed. For

example, it is possible to trigger a pulse of *inhibition* of Column B from action potentials of a cell

in Column A, which could be achieved by optogenetic spike-triggered inhibition (Fig 11A). The

inhibitory effect was modeled as a negative deflection (-2 mV) to the slow decaying part of the

membrane potential. The results of this simulation show that the connections from A to B

would be reduced (Fig 11D). The trigger-aligned histograms in Fig 11B document the pairing of

increases in Ae units with subsequent decreases in B units. The time-course of conditioned

reduction in connections as a function of spike-pulse delay roughly resembles the inverse of the

increase with spike-triggered stimulation.

Fig 11. Spike-triggered inhibition. (A) Spikes in one unit in Column A (Ae1) trigger an

inhibitory effect on all units in Column B. (B) Perispike histogram of Ae and Be units. (C) Post-

conditioning connectivity matrix for 10 ms delay. (D) The standard network parameters yield

a relatively mild EP decrease (orange curve). A more active network with 45% correlated bias

drive, a weakening value of 0.5, and a −3mV stimulus produces a more robust post-stimulus

inhibition (brown).

A second untested conditioning paradigm involves triggering stimuli from threshold crossings of

gamma range LFPs. On the rationale that gamma LFP reflects multiunit activity, these

threshold crossings should detect coincident spiking activity that should also produce plasticity.

Fig 12 shows the effects of stimuli in B triggered from band-passed mid-gamma LFP in Column A

(in 50-80 Hz range). The histogram of Ae unit spikes aligned with the falling gamma threshold

crossings (Fig 12B) shows a robust pre-stimulus peak in Ae units (and in LFP A) that generates

the threshold crossing. The increase in A→B connections is shown in both the connection

matrix (Fig 12C) and in the size of EPs (Fig 12D). Similar effects were found for triggers from

high (80-100 Hz) and low range (30-50 Hz) gamma (Fig 12D). Triggering from the rising slope of

the gamma activity is associated with a later peak in Ae activity (Fig 12B), consistent with a later

latency and a smaller conditioning effect (Fig 12D) than triggering from the falling slope.

Fig 12. Gamma-triggered stimulation. (A) Stimuli were triggered from threshold crossings of

LFP filtered in the gamma frequency ranges shown. (B) Histograms of Ae units (blue) and Be

units (red) relative to triggers from falling and rising mid-range gamma filtered LFP in A. Grey

curve shows simultaneous LFP in A. (C) Connection strength matrix for falling LFP filtered in

mid gamma range (50-80 Hz). (D) changes in EPs for rising and falling threshold crossings for

different gamma frequency ranges. Circled points used for histograms in (B).

Relative efficacy of conditioning paradigms

To compare the relative efficacy of different conditioning paradigms, the resulting change of

the A→B connections was tested by the change in the EP in B evoked by stimulating A. The

results, plotted for different amplitudes of the conditioning stimuli, are shown in Fig 13. The

simulations were run with 30% correlated bias drive to the columns. As a control for

stimulation alone, the solid gray curve shows the effects of tetanic stimulation of Column B

with exponentially distributed stimulation intervals, at the same average rate as the spike-

triggered stimulation (blue curve). Above 1.5 mV the other four paradigms all produce stronger

effects than spike-triggered stimulation, probably because the stimuli involve larger numbers of

Ae spikes. In particular, triggering from EMG and gamma produce larger effects than spike-

triggered stimuli above 1 mA because they are selective for coincident Ae spikes (as shown in

the histograms in Fig 5B and 12B).

Fig 13. Relative efficacy of conditioning paradigms. Curves show increase in A→B EP as

function of stimulus intensity using standard network parameters. Tetanic stimulation was

randomly spaced with rates approximating that for spike-triggered stimulation. Paired pulse

interval was 10 ms, same as the spike-trigger delay, while rising EMG and falling gamma

trigger delay was 0 ms.

Tetanic stimulation of Column B (grey solid curve) is the control for spike-, gamma- and EMG-

triggered stimulation of B. Tetanic stimulation of Column A (grey dashed curve) is the control

for cycle-triggered stimulation of A (here performed at a phase of 0° in beta cycles). Both

tetanic curves are relevant to paired pulse conditioning.

The conditioning effects asymptote at stimulus intensities above 2.5 mV, due to maximal

activation of units in the stimulated column. The asymptote for spike-triggered stimulation

(blue curve) is lower than those of the other conditioning paradigms, but this was a function of

the synchrony input driving the Ae units and could be increased by increasing the amount of

synchronous relative to asynchronous input drive.

Strengthening disynaptic pathways

The preceding conditioning paradigms focused on changes induced in monosynaptic

connections. The degree to which polysynaptic pathways can be modified would be of basic

interest and clinical relevance for inducing targeted plasticity to treat lesions. Disynaptic

conditioning was investigated for *paired stimulation* of A and B in the absence of direct

connections between A and B (Fig 14). The conditioning paradigm is identical to that shown in

Fig 6A for paired stimulation of intact networks, but now the most direct pathway between A

and B is disynaptic, via Column C (Fig 14A). The weight matrix shows clear increases in A→C

and C→B connections after conditioning (Fig 14C). This increase in the disynaptic path was a

function of the intensity of the two stimuli, as shown by the increases in A→B EP size plotted

for different combinations of intensity in Fig 14B. To produce conditioned changes with pairs of

single pulses the stimulation intensity of A had to be at least 3 mV, higher than the typical 2 mV

used in other simulations. This was likely necessary so that some tetanic conditioning from

A→C would occur (as in Fig 13 Tetanic Col A). However, tetanic stimulation of A alone did not

produce a sizeable disynaptic EP (Fig 14B, B stim = 0). The A→B EPs increase appreciably for

conditioning with interstimulus delays above 8 ms (Fig 14D), about twice the minimal delay of 4

ms for direct connections (Fig 6D).

Fig 14. Disynaptic paired pulse stimulation. (A) Circuit connections between columns with

standard A↔B connections removed. (B) Size of A→B EP as a function of stimulus intensity

for the two pulses (for delay of 12 ms). (C) Post-conditioning connection matrix (for A and B

stimulus intensities of 3 mA and delay of 12 ms). (D) Size of conditioned A→B EPs as function

of paired pulse delays (A and B stimulus intensities of 3 mA).

Although larger than standard stimuli were necessary to produce disynaptic conditioning with

paired single pulses (Fig 14B), paired triplet stimulation with standard intensities of 2 mV did

produce clear disynaptic effects (Fig 16).

Cycle-triggered stimulation could also be used to strengthen disynaptic connections (Fig 15).

The conditioning paradigm is identical to normal cycle-triggered stimulation shown in Fig 7A,

but now connections between Column A and Column B have been removed (Fig 15A).

Therefore, any EP in Column B caused by a stimulus in Column A must be mediated

disynaptically, through Column C. Oscillatory drive was applied only to column B (Fig 15B). The

weight matrix again shows that conditioning produced clear increases in A→C and C→B

connections (Fig 15C). The stimulation intensity had to be increased to 3.5 mV, more than the

typical 2.0 mV used in other simulations. This was probably necessary so that some tetanic

conditioning from A→C would occur (as in Fig 13, Tetanic Col A). However, tetanic stimulation

of A alone did not produce a sizeable disynaptic A→B EP (Fig 15D, green line).

Fig 15. Disynaptic cycle-triggered stimulation. (A) Circuit connections between Columns A

and B are removed. A stimulus (CT) on Column A is triggered on phases of an oscillatory

episode in LFP B. (B) The oscillatory episode in Column B (starting at 0.5 sec) is produced by

modulating the probability of external bias spikes to B with a sine wave (7 cycles at 20 Hz). (C)

Post conditioning connection matrix shows absence of A↔B connections, and the

strengthened A→C and C→B connections that mediate the A→B EP. (D) Conditioned EP sizes

for conditioning with different stimulation phases (φ). In contrast to cycle-triggered

stimulation with full networks, the B→A EP was slightly depressed and unmodulated with

phase. Inset shows A→B EP before (blue) and after (red) conditioning.

Disynaptic A→B connections could not be strengthened with spike- or gamma-triggered A→B

stimulation, nor with stimulation of B triggered from EMG of Muscle A, even with larger than

standard stimulus intensities. These paradigms did strengthen A→C connections, but they did

not produce the necessary increase in C→B connections.

The above tests involved disynaptic conditioning with A↔B connections deleted. A related

question is whether comparable disynaptic conditioning occurs in intact networks as well.

Intact networks conditioned with paired triplets using standard 2 mv stimuli (Fig 16A) showed a

clear disynaptic bump in the A→B EP (Fig 16B, arrow). Lesioned networks without A↔B

connections that were conditioned with paired triplets (Fig 16C) showed a disynaptic A→C→B

EP (Fig 16D) whose timing coincided with the delayed bump produced in the intact network.

However, their amplitudes differed. To measure the size of the disynaptic EP produced in the

intact network we computed the A→C→B EP evoked with the A↔B connections removed for

testing. The disynaptic EP produced by conditioning the lesioned networks was about 1.6 times

larger than the recovered disynaptic component of the EP in the intact networks, with the

identical conditioning protocol.

Fig 16. Paired triplet stimulation with standard 2 mV stimuli. (A) Intact network. (B) A→B

EP after conditioning intact network with 10 ms delay between paired triplets (red) and

before conditioning (blue). Arrow points to disynaptic component of EP. (C) Lesioned

network trained without A↔B connections but other connections identical with intact

network in (A). (D) A→B EP after conditioning lesioned network. (E) Sizes of intercolumn EPs

in 10 conditioned intact and lesioned networks, with different starting weights. X→Y EP refer

to monosynaptic A→C and C→B connections (orange and black points) and disynaptic

A→C→B EPs (blue points); for the conditioned intact network the disynaptic A→C→B EPs

were obtained after removing A↔B connections. Dotted triangles connect corresponding

EPs from two starting conditions.

To investigate the reason for this difference we examined the sizes of disynaptic A→C→B EPs

and the monosynaptic A→B and C→B EPs for the two networks. To elucidate the effects of

initial weight choices on these values, this comparison was done for 10 intact networks (each

starting with different initial synaptic weights) and 10 lesioned networks that had identical

initial weights except with A↔B connections deleted before conditioning (with paired triplets).

Fig 16E plots the relative sizes of these EPs produced in the 10 networks. The disynaptic

A→C→B EPs in the intact and lesioned networks (blue points) are proportional, with a linear

slope of 1.57. The monosynaptic A→C and C→B connections (orange and black points) were

also proportional, with slopes of 0.81 and 1.61, respectively. The two dotted triangles connect

three corresponding EPs for two initial conditions (the ones that produced the largest and

smallest EPs). The plots illustrate the variation in absolute sizes that can emerge from different

starting points and also show that the sizes of the 3 EPs covary. These plots show that the

larger disynaptic EP in the lesioned network can be attributed to a larger increase in the C→B

connections.

Discussion

Our IF model captures the experimental outcomes from four different conditioning paradigms

experimentally investigated in motor cortex of awake NHPs. A powerful feature of the model is

to explore estimates of many variables that were not measured in the original experiments,

such as changes in the connection matrices, sizes of evoked potentials (which measure the

synaptic strength of inter-column connections), and peristimulus histograms of neural activity.

Furthermore, the model predicts the outcomes of novel experiments not yet performed.

In comparison, a previous neural network model used populations of Poisson firing units and

STDP to analytically compute the population effects produced by spike-triggered stimulation

[26]. That model replicated the experimental results on net changes in connectivity and

showed that the amount of conditioning was dependent on the correlations between units.

Their model predicted that conditioning efficacy would be greater when cross-correlation peaks

were wider, as they typically are during sleep compared to waking. In contrast, our IF model is

based on simulating the synaptic connections between excitatory and inhibitory spiking

neurons that integrate synaptic inputs to firing threshold. Our IF network provides cellular

resolution of conditioning effects and their dependence on network parameters and simulates

many different conditioning protocols.

A similar approach was used to model conditioning with spike-triggered stimulation in

somatosensory cortex of NHPs [21]. That study examined the effect of spike-triggered and

random microstimulation on firing rates and mutual information in S1. A large network of

biophysical units with STDP reproduced many of the global physiological findings. In contrast,

our smaller network of much simpler IF units was sufficient to replicate relatively detailed

spatiotemporal measures of conditioning effects.

Other modelling studies have combined IF networks with STDP to investigate related issues.

Adding a STDP rule to large populations of conductance-based units [12] led to the emergence

of interconnected groups under steady-state conditions [17]. Our model had fewer units with

predetermined connections between groups, and reached an equilibrium steady state under

STDP before conditioning procedures were introduced. Another large-scale cortical network

model showed that realistic synaptic plasticity rules coupled with homeostatic mechanisms led

to the formation of neuronal assemblies that reflect previously experienced stimuli [19].

Bono and Clopath investigated STDP and dendritic spike mechanisms in producing plasticity in

biophysically realistic neural models [18]. Another study showed that STDP rules had to be

augmented with mechanism for heterosynaptic competition to generate networks capable of

producing sequences of neural activity [30]. On the behavioral level, a model of orbitofrontal

networks of IF units with STDP learned the rules of goal-directed actions [20]. These studies

investigated various functional issues, in contrast to our focus on mechanisms of synaptic

plasticity.

Differences between the IF model and physiological mechanisms

It seems remarkable that our simple voltage-based IF model could replicate the results of many

different physiological conditioning experiments. This robust performance raises the question

of where the model has limitations that would require further refinement. There are several

differences between the performance of our model and the original physiological conditioning

experiments. First, in the cortical spike-triggered stimulation experiments, not all site pairs

developed strengthened connections [22,27]. This may simply be due to a lack of sufficient

synaptic connections between those sites to strengthen. However, this explanation would not

apply to the original paired stimulation experiments [24], in which many pairs of sites did seem

to have sufficient synaptic connections to mediate EPs, but these did not show conditioned

changes. Second, with paired stimulation *in vivo* a minimum of three pulses was required to

produce conditioned changes [24,29]. In contrast, our IF model exhibited reliable conditioning

even with pairs of single pulses, although triplet stimulation was substantially more potent than

pairs of single stimuli over a range of intensities. The need for triplet instead of single pulses *in

vivo* and the lack of conditioning effects for certain cortical sites remain to be better

understood before these physiological observations can inform a change in the model.

It seems possible that more sophisticated models, such as a network of biophysically more

realistic units would help address some of these limitations. For example, the conductance-

based units of Izhikevich capture biophysical properties that can replicate the complex firing

properties of many types of cortical neurons in response to prolonged current injection [12,21].

It will be interesting to use the conductance-based units with STDP to simulate the different

conditioning paradigms investigated here. This will require decisions about the number and

connectivity of specific types of units in such a model as well as their biophysical parameters.

The fact that our simple voltage-based IF network replicates the overall experimental

observations may be related to two factors. It may represent an effective and sufficient

average of the different types of biophysical neurons involved in the *in vivo* experiments.

Second, the different response properties of biophysical units that can be demonstrated with

prolonged intracellular or synaptic drive may be less critical for the phasic events that underly

these conditioning protocols.

Our model used a STDP rule that required pre- and post-synaptic spikes to generate a change in

synaptic connections. Physiological synapses could also be strengthened when the

postsynaptic cell is merely depolarized after arrival of the presynaptic spike [15]. This would

represent a plasticity paradigm that does not require post-synaptic spikes. This mechanism

would contribute to conditioning with cycle-triggered stimulation, for example. Intracellular

recordings *in vivo* indicate that many cortical neurons show periodic membrane depolarization

during beta oscillations that do not reach threshold for spiking [31,32]. Phase-locked

stimulation would modify the strength of synaptic connections to these depolarized neurons as

well as to spiking neurons. This may explain the slight difference in the phase for maximum

conditioning effects. Our simulations did not track the depolarization level of each unit, so the

results of this STDP mechanism remain to be investigated in a future study.

Parameter choices

The performance of our IF model depends of course on the choice of parameters. One choice

involves the strength of baseline *synaptic connections*. To capture the small unitary synaptic

potentials between cortical neurons [33,34] the plasticity parameters chosen for our model

tend to produce a steady-state network with small connections when no activity-dependent

conditioning protocol is in effect. This limits the effects produced by tetanic stimulation alone

and makes conditioned increases in weights relatively robust. However, it also limits

conditioned decreases in weights, since the starting size for most weights is already small. A

possible future direction would be to develop a method to encourage a steady state of

moderate weights so that both strengthening and weakening effects can manifest more

equitably. This might also allow for more effects to emerge from inhibitory units, which play

very little role in the network simulations shown here. We found that IF networks that were

run without inhibitory units showed conditioning responses similar to networks that had many

inhibitory connections.

A second choice in our model was using the same *STDP function* for inhibitory and excitatory

units. The STDP function for inhibitory neurons has been found to vary, depending on the

specific types of source and target neurons [13,15,35,36]. We decided to use the same STDP

function for both, which has empirical support [37], and to leave the consequences for different

functions for inhibitory units, such as symmetric functions, to be explored in another study.

Moreover, our STDP rule is based on pairs of pre- and post-synaptic spikes; models with "multi-

spike" STDP interactions can produce different network dynamics [38].

A third choice in our model involved the relative amount of *external correlated input* bias. High

amounts of correlated input can cause sufficient synchrony to strengthen connections from

that column even in the absence of conditioning. As the percent of correlated biases increases,

the weakening portion of the STDP curve may be increased to prevent this effect from

interfering with the manifestation of conditioning effects. For example, in our networks, the

weakening value of 0.55 showed a spontaneous conditioning effect with 50% correlated/50%

uncorrelated bias inputs, but did not show this effect with our chosen 30% correlated biases.

In general, our choice of network parameters was guided by achieving realistic physiological

performance. Notably, the same set of parameters was used to simulate all four conditioning

paradigms. Network performance was generally stable for modest deviations from the chosen

parameters. The consequences of larger variations in different parameters would be

interesting to explore but are beyond the scope of this report.

Modeled connectivity and activity

An informative use of the model is to simulate activity and network connectivity that were not

measured in the original experiments but that elucidate associated mechanisms. For example,

calculating the EPs provides an easy and experimentally feasible measure of net connectivity

between sites and can reveal its dependence on conditioning parameters like stimulus

amplitude and delay, synchrony, etc. The changes to connection weights themselves can be

computed in the model (but not experimentally); these weights closely tracked the EP measure

(Fig 9A). The weights further revealed a better time-resolved prediction of the induction and

decay of these synaptic connections (Fig 9B).

A particularly useful insight from the model is the activity of relevant units around the stimulus

trigger events. Their stimulus-aligned histograms reveal why EMG-triggered and gamma-

triggered stimulation are such effective conditioning paradigms: they both select for coincident

unit activity, as shown by the preceding peak in activity of A units (Fig 5B and 12B). This peak

preceding the stimulus-evoked post-synaptic activity in B is responsible for the strengthening of

the A→B connections.

    Testable predictions

A possible therapeutic application of closed-loop conditioning is to strengthen polysynaptic

pathways as well as strengthen direct connections. Such targeted plasticity could restore

functional pathways lost to injury or stroke [39]. The model was used to examine conditioning

of *disynaptic* links by performing A-B paired-pulse conditioning in a network without direct A-B

connections and looking for development of A→C→B connections. This did occur, as shown by

development of relevant disynaptic evoked potentials after conditioning and by the

connectivity matrix (Fig 14). Similarly, cycle-triggered stimulation could also strengthen

disynaptic connections (Fig 15); however, this paradigm would be significantly more challenging

to apply *in vivo* than paired stimulation. Both paradigms involved sufficient stimulation of A to

strengthen A→C connections. The other 3 paradigms involved only stimulation of B and did not

strengthen disynaptic A→C→B links. Another significant prediction of the model is that

disynaptic effects are conditioned more robustly between sites that lack direct connections as

compared to sites that also have direct connections. These simulations provide useful

predictions of effective targeted plasticity paradigms and parameters to strengthen

polysynaptic pathways.

The model also predicts several conditioning paradigms that improve on methods used to date.

Instead of spike-triggered single stimuli, the use of spike-triggered *bursts of stimuli* is more

effective, increasing with the number of stimuli (Fig 10). Second, *gamma-triggered stimulation*

is more effective than spike-triggered stimulation because it detects coincident spikes that

produce the gamma threshold crossing. Importantly, gamma-triggered stimulation is

experimentally much easier to perform *in vivo* because it does not require long-term isolation

of single action potentials. An important caveat here is that the model assumes that gamma is

generated in a large number of A units that are synchronized and also connected to the B units.

The efficacy of gamma-triggered conditioning would decrease if fewer units generating the

gamma LFP in A sent connections to the stimulated units. Preliminary tests of this paradigm by

R. Yun (unpublished) indicate that conditioning effects are less robust *in vivo* in NHP motor

cortex than in the model. This indicates that the connectivity of our network, designed to

separate the recorded, stimulated and control groups may be too simple to accurately predict

experimental outcomes for more complex biological networks in which these functional groups

are intermingled with many other connectivities.

Concluding comments

The simple IF spiking network described here has proven remarkably effective in capturing

experimental results previously obtained in NHPs with four different conditioning paradigms,

including three with closed-loop activity-dependent stimulation. In addition to replicating the

observed phenomena, the model also allows computation of underlying network behavior and

correlated changes not originally documented. The model also makes significant predictions

about protocols not yet investigated, including triggering bursts instead of single stimuli and

gamma-triggered stimulation. The success of these simulations suggests that a simple voltage-

based IF model incorporating STDP is sufficient to capture the essential mechanisms that

produce targeted plasticity. Further detailed comparisons with physiological experiments will

likely inform development of models with more realistic connectivity and biophysical

properties.

Methods

Integrate-and-fire network model

The cortical network model is comprised of 240 integrate-and-fire units. Each unit maintains a

potential $V_i(t)$ which represents the sum of the synaptic inputs from units with connections to

unit i (Fig 1A). $V_i(t)$ is calculated at discrete time steps of 0.1 ms. When $V_i(t)$ exceeds a

threshold θ, the unit "fires" and its spike function $U_i(t)$ is set to 1 for that time step (Eq 3). Each

time a unit fires, its potential is reset to zero on the next time step and an output spike is

initiated from that source unit to all its target units.

The responses of the modeled units to spiking inputs represent the post-synaptic potentials

(PSPs) of physiological neurons (Fig 1B). The form of the PSP is calculated as the difference

between two exponential decay functions as follows.

$$PSP(t) = w\left(e^{-(t-t_{spike})/\tau_s} - e^{-(t-t_{spike})/\tau_f}\right), \text{ if } t \geq t_{spike}; 0 \text{ otherwise}$$

642   **(1)**

The time constants τ_s (slower decay) and τ_f were chosen to give reasonably shaped PSPs, rising

rapidly from zero to a maximum, and then decaying more slowly back towards zero (Fig 1B).

The parameter w is the connection *weight* -- this parameter is modified by the plasticity

calculations. A related parameter, the connection *strength* is measured by the PSP maximum,

which represents the synaptic efficacy in voltage change, relatable to distance to threshold.

The relation between the weight and strength depends on τ_s and τ_f (Fig 1B). The calculation of

$V_i(t)$ is greatly simplified by using the same value of τ_s and τ_f for all connections. This allows $V_i(t)$

to be represented by two leaky integrators $V^s_i(t)$ and $V^f_i(t)$ that decay with these constants (Eq

4, 5); they both receive the same spiking input and reset with the same spike time function

$U_i(t)$. Here the Euler method is used to estimate the exponential decay functions. We let $A_i(t)$

be the sum of all incoming spike activity to unit i at time t (Eq 6), and then calculate the unit

potential $V_i(t)$ and spike time function $U_i(t)$ as follows.

655
$$V_i(t) = V^s_i(t) - V^f_i(t)$$
656   **(2)**

657
$$U_i(t) = 1, \text{ if } V_i(t) > \theta; 0 \text{ otherwise}$$
658   **(3)**

659
$$V^s_i(t + h) = (1 - h/\tau_s)\, V^s_i(t) + A_i(t), \text{ if } U_i(t) = 0; 0 \text{ if } U_i(t) = 1$$
660   **(4)**

661
$$V^f_i(t + h) = (1 - h/\tau_f)\, V^f_i(t) + A_i(t), \text{ if } U_i(t) = 0; 0 \text{ if } U_i(t) = 1$$
(5)

Each connection linking source unit j to target unit i at time t is defined by a weight $w_{ij}(t)$. Non-

existent connections assume a weight of 0. Axonal plus dendritic conduction times are

modeled as a global delay parameter d for all connections. To provide additional background

activity each unit also receives external input $E_i(t)$ the sum of all external spiking activity arriving

at unit i at time t (Eq 7). $A_i(t)$ is defined as follows:

668
$$A_i(t) = E_i(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{n} (U_j(t - d) \cdot w_{ij}(t))$$
669   **(6)**

670   where n equals the total number of units. The units are subdivided into three populations

671   called "columns", representing recorded, stimulated and control sites (see below). To provide

672 background spontaneous activity, each column receives excitatory external inputs $E_i(t)$ that are

673 a combination of correlated inputs $E^c_i(t)$ and uncorrelated inputs $E^u_i(t)$.

674
$$E_i(t) = E^c_i(t) + E^u_i(t)$$
(7)

These inputs produce PSPs with the same waveform as other connections in the network,

varying only in amplitude. For each column, the correlated events occur with a given

probability at each time step; every unit in the column receives the correlated input at a

random time within a Gaussian distribution with a standard deviation of 3 ms. Uncorrelated

events occur with a separate independent probability at every time step for each unit. The

delivery probabilities of correlated and uncorrelated events can be modulated in time to

simulate different dynamics of background activity (e.g. oscillations). For our networks $E^c_i(t)$

and $E^u_i(t)$ assume a fixed connection weight at times of external spike delivery and are 0

otherwise.

Plasticity rule

When spike-timing dependent plasticity is active, connection weights are modified based on

the relative firing times of the target and source units. The STDP Curve (Fig 1C) shows how

much weight w_{ij} changes as a function of the difference in spike times between target unit i and

source unit j. The curve has two components: a strengthening portion for positive differences

Δt between time of postsynaptic spike and arrival of presynaptic spike that will strengthen the

weight, and a weakening portion for negative time differences that will weaken the weight.

Each half of the STDP function was approximated with exponential decay functions similar to

the PSP function except with longer time constants (a_s, a_f, b_s, b_f) and with amplitudes controlled

by the training factor r and a weakening factor c.

695
$$STDP(\Delta t) = \begin{cases} r\left(e^{-\Delta t/a_s} - e^{-\Delta t/a_f}\right), & \Delta t \geq 0 \\ -cr\left(e^{\Delta t/b_s} - e^{\Delta t/b_f}\right), & \Delta t < 0 \end{cases}$$

696   (8)

The weakening side of the STDP curve has a lower amplitude but decays more slowly than the

strengthening side, and has larger overall area [13]. The same STDP function was used for

excitatory and inhibitory synaptic connections, for which there is empirical support [37]. For

further discussion of this and alternate STDP functions for inhibitory synapses, see Discussion.

Choosing the right amount of weakening vs strengthening is important to the evolution of the

network connections. If the weakening factor is too small, the greater area of the

strengthening side of the STDP curve will eventually cause all weights to grow to a maximum

limit. If the weakening factor is too high, the greater area of the weakening side will push all

weights strongly toward zero. We chose a weakening factor of $c = 0.55$, so that the network

sustained low weight values in the absence of any conditioning stimuli but showed noticeable

increases in some weights when conditioning was applied.

For a single weight w_{ij} and time difference between spikes of unit i and arriving spikes of unit j,

the change in w_{ij} is equal to the value taken from the STDP function in Fig 1C. To facilitate

computation of weight changes, strengthening and weakening potentials are maintained for

each unit similar to the way unit potential $V_i(t)$ sums PSPs (except with no threshold crossing

reset). $S_j(t)$ sums the strengthening side of the STDP curve for each source unit j using time

constants a_s and a_f with input activity $U_j(t - d)$. $T_i(t)$ sums the weakening side for each target

unit *i* using time constants b_s and b_f with input activity $U_i(t)$. Thus, when a spike occurs, weight

changes can be calculated with respect to previous spikes by taking signed and scaled values of

$S_j(t)$ and $T_i(t)$ (Eq 15).

717
718

$$S_j(t) = S_j^s(t) - S_j^f(t)$$

(9)

719
720

$$S_j^s(t + h) = (1 - h/a_s)\, S_j^s(t) + U_j(t - d)$$

(10)

721
722

$$S_j^f(t + h) = (1 - h/a_f)\, S_j^f(t) + U_j(t - d)$$

(11)

724
725

$$T_i(t) = T_i^s(t) - T_i^f(t)$$

(12)

726
727

$$T_i^s(t + h) = (1 - h/b_s)T_i^s(t) + U_i(t)$$

(13)

728
729

$$T_i^f(t + h) = (1 - h/b_f)\, T_i^f(t) + U_i(t)$$

(14)

730   The change to w_{ij} at a given time step is:

731
732

$$\varDelta w_{ij}(t) = r\, \text{sgn}(w_{ij}(t))(S_j(t)\, U_i(t) - c\, T_i(t)\, U_j(t - d))$$

(15)

733
734

$$w_{ij}(t + h) = F(w_{ij}(t) + \varDelta w_{ij}(t))$$

(16)

735   The function *F(w)* clips excitatory weights to the range $w_{min} \leq w \leq w_{max}$, and inhibitory weights

736   to the range $-w_{max} \leq w \leq -w_{min}$. The standard parameter values used in simulations are shown in

737   Table 1.

739   **Table 1. Standard parameter values.**

Number of excitatory units in each column	40
Number of inhibitory units in each column	40
Unit firing threshold	5 mV
Conduction delay between cortical units	3 ms
Conduction delay to motor outputs	10 ms
External input PSP size	350 µV
Unit potential time constants τ_s, τ_f	3.2 ms, 0.8 ms
External input rate	1800 spikes per second
External input correlated/uncorrelated rate	0.3
External input correlated event standard deviation	3 ms
Training factor *r*	100
Weakening factor *c*	0.55
STDP strengthening curve time constants a_s, a_f	15.4 ms, 2 ms
STDP weakening curve time constants b_s, b_f	33.3 ms, 2 ms
Conditioning stimulus size	2 mV
Maximum connection strength	500 µV
Minimum weight w_{min}	1
Probability of excitatory cortical connections	1/6
Probability of inhibitory connections	1/3
Probability of corticomotoneuronal connections	1/3
Number of motoneurons in each column	40
Motoneuron thresholds	5 to 6 mV
Motor unit potential size	0.5 to 1.5 mV

Network topology

Cortical units were grouped into three columns: A, B, and C, as shown in Fig 2A. Each column

has 40 excitatory units (e) that project only positive weights, and 40 inhibitory units (i) that

project only negative weights. Excitatory units connect sparsely to all other units in the

network and inhibitory units connect less sparsely to all cortical units within the same column.

The probability of each possible connection is listed in Table 1. Unit self-connections are not

allowed. Each column also has a simulated local field potential (LFP) which is the sum of all

post-synaptic potentials occurring within a column.

To provide background spontaneous activity each column receives an external excitatory bias

input generated separately for each column. Some bias inputs provide correlated spikes to

each unit in a column, and others provide independent uncorrelated spikes to all units (C and U

in Fig 2A), for a combined mean bias rate of 1800 spikes/sec to each unit. The ratio of the

number of correlated to uncorrelated spikes each unit receives can be modified to control the

degree of synchronization within a column. The mean bias rate can also be modulated over

time, for example to generate oscillatory activity or simulate behavioral activation.

To simulate experiments that involved recording muscle activity, the network includes pools of

motor units driven by the cortical columns (Fig 2B). Associated with each column is a pool of 40

motoneurons that receive inputs from a third of the excitatory units of that column, as well as

from uncorrelated external drive to simulate all additional inputs. Consistent with the size

principle [40], the pool included a range of small to large motoneurons, with increasing

thresholds from 5 to 6 mV and increasing muscle unit potentials from 0.5 to 1.5 mV. Multiunit

electromyographic (EMG) activity was simulated by summing all the muscle unit potentials in

the same manner as for unit PSPs and then filtering the result with a 100 to 2500 Hz bandpass

filter.

Fig 2C shows the simulated spiking activity of all units under steady-state conditions. Also

plotted are the corresponding LFPs for each column. The coordinated bursts of activity are

produced by 30% correlated external bias drive.

Conditioning stimulation

The effect of electrical stimulation on a stimulated unit is modeled by a large and immediate

deflection of its potential towards threshold, computed by adding a large stimulus pulse to the

unit's $V^s_i(t)$, proportional to stimulus intensity. The standard conditioning stimulus produces a

step in $V_i(t)$ of amplitude 2ma. The standard testing stimulus for evoking EPs produces a step in

$V_i(t)$ of amplitude 3ma. Normally a conditioning stimulus is applied to all units in a column

simultaneously, causing many of them to fire. This burst of spikes will evoke a measurable

response in the LFP of other columns, called the Evoked Potential (EP). The EP is a measure of

the net synaptic strengths from the stimulated column to the recorded column. The size of

each EP is calculated as the difference between the amplitude of the LFP peak after the

stimulus compared to pre-stimulation baseline LFP. The average change in the EP amplitude

produced by conditioning is quantified as the percent increase of the average EP amplitude

after conditioning compared to before conditioning (Eq 17).

781
$$EP\ Increase\ \% \ = \frac{100\ (Post\ Conditioned\ Average\ EP\ - Preconditioned\ Average\ EP)}{Preconditioned\ Average\ EP}$$

(17)

Implementation

The network has many modifiable parameters that can affect the outcome of a simulation

(Table 1). Temporal parameters are generally scaled in milliseconds. The network runs in time

steps of 0.1 ms to strike a balance between accuracy and computation time. Connection

strengths, stimulation amplitudes, and PSP-related parameters are scaled in microvolts to

relate such values to physiological variables. Connection strengths are initially small values (20

to 60 percent of maximum) taken randomly from a uniform distribution.

Most networks were run in 10-second time blocks for 2000 seconds of simulated time, divided

into four periods of 500 seconds each (Table 2). During the preconditioning period STDP is on

and the network settles into an unconditioned steady state. During the two testing stages

before and after conditioning the STDP calculations are turned off, allowing graphs and tests to

be compiled while the network runs with static weights. The conditioning paradigm is run

during the conditioning period with STDP on.

Table 2. Sequential training periods.

Period	Preconditioning	Precondition Testing	Conditioning	Post Condition Testing
Plasticity	On	Off	On	Off
Conditioning	Off	Off	On	Off

Tetanic stimulation

To control for the effects of stimulation alone, tetanic stimulation was performed with a 10 Hz

Poisson spike train with an imposed 10 ms refractory period. This can have a strengthening

effect on connections from the stimulated column to the other two columns, and a weakening

effect in the reciprocal directions. These effects were minimized by selecting a weakening

factor large enough to yield preconditioned networks with small weights that would readily

show the effects of strengthening conditioning methods (Fig 8A). There is substantial variation

in the sizes of conditioned EPs (Fig 8B) due to differences in initial conditions, the randomness

of the external input, and the magnitude of the training factor parameter. However, averaging

over a set of simulations using 10 different initial conditions yield a reliable measure of the

effects of tetanic stimulation (Fig 8C). These tetanic effects can support or oppose other

conditioning methods. For example, any paradigm to strengthen A→B connections that

employs stimulation on Column B must overcome the tendency for tetanic stimulation on B to

weaken those connections. On the other hand, paradigms that stimulate Column A (like cycle-

triggered stimulation) should be evaluated relative to simple tetanic stimulation of Column A.

Source code

The Matlab source code for the IF network model is available on the website

https://depts.washington.edu/fetzweb/ifnetwork.html. This includes documentation and

instructions on running the model as well as further explanation of effects of network

parameters.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

(A) Spike Triggered Stimulation

Conditioning

Col A — Ae1 — T — delay →

Col B — e / i — ST

Testing

Ae/Ai — LFP B — EP

(B) Spike Timing: T → Ae, Be

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae
Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

(D) A→B Evoked Potentials

Spike Triggered Conditioning — Tetanic Stimulation

Post conditioning EP
Preconditioning EP

EP Increase (%) vs Conditioning Delay (ms)

Figure 3

Figure 4

(A) EMG Triggered Stimulation

Conditioning

Testing

Col A — EMG A, θ, T, delay
Col B — ●Be ○Bi, ST

●Ae ○Ai
LFP B — EP

(B) Spike Timing: ST → Ae, Be

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae
Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

(D) Evoked Potentials

A→B, A→C

EP Increase (%)
Conditioning Delay (ms)

Figure 5

(A) Paired Pulse Stimulation

Conditioning

Col A | ●Ae ○Ai | T
Col B | ●Be ○Bi | delay → PP

Testing

●Ae ○Ai
LFP B | EP

(B) Spike Timing: T → Ae, Be

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae

Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

500 / 0 / -500

(D) Evoked Potentials

A→B (Post conditioning EP)
A→C
Preconditioning EP

Figure 6

(A) Cycle Triggered Stimulation

Conditioning

Col A: ●Ae ○Ai   CT

Col B: LFP B   φ

Testing

Col A: ●Ae ○Ai

Col B: LFP B   EP

(B) Spike Timing: CT → Ae, Be

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae

Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

(D) Evoked Potentials

A→B   A→C
B→A   Tetanic A→B

EP Increase (%) vs Conditioning Phase

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10

Figure 11

(A) Gamma Triggered Stimulation

Conditioning

Col A: *f*LFP A — T — delay

Col B: ● Be, ○ Bi — ST

Testing

● Ae, ○ Ai

LFP B — EP

(B) Spike Timing: T → Ae, Be, LFP A

Falling *f* LFP A

Rising *f* LFP A

Hz, mV

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae

Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

(D) A→B Evoked Potentials

- 30-50 Hz Falling
- 30-50 Hz Rising
- 50-80 Hz Falling
- 50-80 Hz Rising
- 80-100 Hz Falling
- 80-100 Hz Rising

EP Increase (%)

Conditioning Delay (ms)

Figure 12

Figure 13

(A) Disynaptic Paired Pulse Stimulation

(B) Size of A→B EP vs Stimulation Intensity

(C) Connection Strengths

(D) A→B Evoked Potentials

Figure 14

(A) Disynaptic Cycle Triggered Stimulation

CT

Column A — Ae
Column B — Be
Column C — Ce

(B) Spikes During LFP B Oscillation

Cm
Ci
Ce
LFPC
Bm
Bi
Be
LFPB
Am
Ai
Ae
LFPA

Time (Sec)

(C) Connection Strengths

Pre-synaptic Units: Ci, Ce, Bi, Be, Ai, Ae

Post-synaptic Units: Ae, Ai, Be, Bi, Ce, Ci

500
0
-500

(D) Evoked Potentials

A→B   B→A   Tetanic A   No Conditioning

EP Size (uV)

Conditioning Phase

Figure 15

(A) Intact Network Conditioning

(B) Evoked Potential Testing

(C) Lesioned Network Conditioning

(D) Evoked Potential Testing

(E) Intact vs Lesioned Network for 10 Random Initial Conditions

Figure