

1 **Dynamic correlations help prefrontal ensembles transmit**  
2 **information about social behavior**

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5 Nicholas A. Frost<sup>1,3,4,5</sup>, Anna Haggart<sup>1,3,4,5</sup>, and Vikaas S. Sohal<sup>2,3,4,5\*</sup>

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7 <sup>1</sup>Department of Neurology, <sup>2</sup>Department of Psychiatry, <sup>3</sup>Center for Integrative Neuroscience,

8 <sup>4</sup>Weill Institute for Neurosciences, <sup>5</sup>Kavli Institute for Fundamental Neuroscience

9 University of California, San Francisco

10 \*Correspondence to: [vikaas.sohal@ucsf.edu](mailto:vikaas.sohal@ucsf.edu)

11

12 **ABSTRACT**

13

14 How neurons encode behavior is a fundamental question. Neuronal ensembles increase or  
15 decrease activity during specific behaviors. However, it is unclear whether ensembles encode  
16 information solely via changes in activity levels, or whether changes in correlations between  
17 neurons carry additional information. We used microendoscopic GCaMP imaging to measure  
18 prefrontal activity while mice were either alone or engaged in social interaction. Using neural  
19 network classifiers to measure how well prefrontal neurons transmit information about social  
20 behavior to downstream neurons, we find that surrogate datasets which preserve dynamic  
21 correlations outperform those which preserve ensemble activity but not correlations. Notably,  
22 this ability of correlations to enhance the information transmitted by neuronal ensembles is lost  
23 in mice lacking the autism-associated gene Shank3. These results show that dynamically  
24 modulated correlations create patterns of coactive neurons which are behaviorally-specific and  
25 enhance the information transmitted by neuronal ensembles. Furthermore, this process may be  
26 disrupted in pathological states.

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28

29 **INTRODUCTION**

30

31 During behavior, the activity of neurons is organized with precise temporal relationships (1–3).  
32 For example, during certain behaviors, subsets of neurons may exhibit correlated activity in  
33 which they become active at the same time or within short windows of time. However, it is  
34 unknown whether this sort of temporal organization is simply a byproduct of the interconnected  
35 nature of neuronal networks (4), or contributes in a meaningful way to information encoding (5).  
36 Groups of co-active neurons represent an attractive computational unit for information  
37 processing because they should optimize temporal summation in downstream targets. Thus,  
38 increases in correlations might further augment post-synaptic responses when pre-synaptic  
39 activity increases, or enhance post-synaptic responses even when the total level of pre-synaptic  
40 activity remains constant.

41

42 However, it is unclear whether behaviorally-driven changes in correlations actually encode  
43 additional behavioral information, beyond what is transmitted by changes in neuronal activity  
44 levels. In particular, with the advent of new technologies for simultaneously recording from large  
45 numbers of neurons in behaving animals, many studies have now shown that cortical ensembles  
46 encode behavioral information via increases or decreases in the activity of their constituent  
47 neurons. While correlations have been shown to contribute additional information for small  
48 groups (3-8 neurons) of cortical neurons (6), only a few studies have examined how correlations  
49 contribute to encoding within larger cortical ensembles. One study found that the identity of a  
50 conditioned stimulus was encoded in mean activity levels, but not in moment-to-moment  
51 patterns of co-activity (7). Another study found that in hippocampal region CA1, disrupting  
52 correlations impairs the decoding of position, head direction and speed, but did not directly  
53 examine whether correlations themselves are dynamically modulated to encode these behavioral  
54 variables (8). In particular, while multiple studies have shown that behavior can modulate  
55 correlations (3, 9) the functional significance of this has remained unclear, because changes in  
56 correlations might simply reflect variation in activity levels (10) rather than contributing  
57 additional information.

58

59 To address these questions, we studied the mouse medial prefrontal cortex during simple social  
60 behaviors. The role of the medial prefrontal cortex in rodent social behavior is well-established  
61 (11–14). Many prefrontal neurons are recruited by social interaction (2, 13, 14) as well as social  
62 stimuli such as odors (15). These studies show that the activity levels of neuronal ensembles  
63 encode social behavior but have not examined whether changes in correlations between  
64 prefrontal neurons transmit additional information. Using microendoscopic GCaMP imaging in  
65 freely-moving mice, we identified prefrontal ensembles associated with social behavior. We used  
66 a neural network classifier to quantify how well these would transmit information about social  
67 behavior to downstream neurons. By examining the operation of this neural network and using  
68 surrogate datasets which preserve activity levels but either preserve or disrupt correlations, we  
69 find that changes in correlations enhance the information transmitted by neuronal ensembles.  
70 Notably, this was not the case in a mouse model of autism, demonstrating that this form of  
71 information transmission may be disrupted in pathological states.

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73

## 74 RESULTS

75

### 76 **Social interaction recruits prefrontal ensembles**

77 We implanted microendoscopes (nVoke; Inscopix) into the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) of  
78 adult wildtype C57/B6 mice (WT) to image calcium transients using GCaMP6f expressed under  
79 control of the human synapsin promoter. We imaged freely moving mice during an assay which  
80 sequentially introduced 2 novel juvenile mice to the home cage of the subject mouse, first during  
81 an initial (novel) epoch and then again during a subsequent (familiar) epoch. These four epochs  
82 of social interaction were interleaved with epochs during which the subject mouse was alone in  
83 its home cage ('home cage' epochs). The first 5 minutes of each interaction epoch was scored by  
84 a blinded observer, and each wild-type mouse spent approximately 10 minutes interacting with  
85 the juvenile mice (393 +/- 25 s during the novel epochs and 235 +/- 18 s during the familiar  
86 epochs,  $p = 0.00017$ , paired t test,  $n = 10$  WT mice).

87

88 We processed data using a modified PCA/ICA approach (16, 17) to identify neurons which were  
89 active during the imaging session. To minimize the influence of the surrounding neuropil on  
90 neuronal signals, we calculated the mean signal within each ROI, then subtracted the mean signal  
91 calculated from a circular annulus surrounding each ROI (Supplementary Figure 1). Casual  
92 inspection of calcium traces revealed that some neurons were more active during epochs of  
93 social interaction (compared to periods of home cage exploration), whereas others exhibited the  
94 opposite pattern (**Figure 1A**). Correspondingly, aligning calcium traces to the onset of social  
95 interaction revealed many neurons that either increased or decreased activity at the onset of  
96 interaction (**Figure 1B**). Fluorescence traces were converted to binary event rasters (see Methods  
97 for details of event detection), in which most neurons were "active" in less than 5% of frames  
98 (**Figure 1C**). As a population, imaged neurons were more active during social interaction (Figure  
99 1C,  $n = 663$  neurons from 10 mice, percent time active in home cage: 1.8% +/- 0.1, percent time  
100 active during social interaction: 2.1 +/- 0.1%,  $p = 0.00002$ , paired t-test). There was a bimodal  
101 distribution of cells that were significantly more (>90<sup>th</sup> percentile, social: 152/663 neurons, home  
102 cage: 80/663 neurons;  $p < 0.00001$ , Chi-Squared Test) or less active (<10<sup>th</sup> percentile, social:  
103 128/663 neurons, home cage: 119/663 neurons;  $p = 0.5$ ) during either social interaction or  
104 matched periods when mice were alone in their home cage, as compared to circularly shuffled  
105 datasets (**Figure 1D**). These correspond to neuronal ensembles which are specifically recruited  
106 or inhibited during social interaction, respectively.

107

### 108 **Using a neural network classifier to assess how well ensembles transmit information**

109 Next, we sought to determine how well these prefrontal ensembles would transmit information  
110 about social behavior to downstream neurons, i.e., measure how well downstream neurons could  
111 decode whether a mouse was engaged in social behavior based on input from prefrontal neurons.  
112 For this we used a simple neural network classifier that received input from the recorded  
113 neurons. Our rationale for using this kind of neural network classifier was threefold. First, a  
114 simple neural network measures information that is immediately and readily available to  
115 downstream neurons. Second, for a neural network with only one hidden layer, it is  
116 straightforward to examine the weights to determine how the network performs the  
117 classification. This can provide insight into exactly how the neural network is able to decode  
118 behavior from the input activity. Third, examining how various parameters of the neural network

119 affect its performance can provide additional clues about how information is represented within  
120 the input population.

121  
122 **Figure 2A** shows the design of the neural network classifier. The network consisted of a hidden  
123 layer containing 1000 units. We chose this number because it is both an order of magnitude  
124 larger than the number of input neurons and an order of magnitude smaller than the number of  
125 frames available for training (the latter helps ensure that there will be enough data to train the  
126 output weights). We simulated a different neural network for each mouse. Each hidden layer unit  
127 received input from a random subset of the prefrontal neurons from one mouse. I.e., each frame  
128 represents one timepoint and if neuron  $i$  is active in a frame then it provided an input of 1 to all  
129 the hidden units to which it is connected; otherwise it provides an input of 0. For each  
130 simulation, there was a fixed connection probability between each input neuron and each hidden  
131 layer unit. We tried different values for this connection probability in order to measure how  
132 classifier performance depends on the number of neurons that provide input to each hidden layer  
133 unit. Each hidden layer unit had an output weight which specifies how strongly that unit excites  
134 or inhibits a single output unit which classifies activity as belonging to periods in which a mouse  
135 was actively engaged in social interaction or alone in its home cage. E.g., output unit activity  $< 0$   
136 corresponds to the social condition, while output unit activity  $> 0$  corresponds to the home cage  
137 condition. These output weights were adjusted during training (see Methods for details of the  
138 training rule) while the pattern of input connectivity was fixed. This models the situation in  
139 which prefrontal neurons transmit information to a downstream population of neurons (the  
140 hidden layer) that decode behavior via their output weights. We initially trained networks on  
141 50% of the data (frames) and used the held-out data for testing. We trained and tested using  
142 intervals during which the mouse was actively engaged in social interaction or equivalent  
143 intervals when the mouse was alone in its home cage.

144

### 145 **Classifier performance is optimal for intermediate connection probabilities**

146 Classifier performance was strongly dependent on the probability that each input neuron was  
147 connected to each hidden unit. For the 8/10 datasets that could be classified above chance,  
148 classifier performance (measured on the 50% of data which was held-out during training) was  
149 near chance levels when the connection probability was  $< 0.1$ , but increased to a peak of 69 +/-  
150 3% (**Figure 2B**) for a connection probability of 0.3. Accuracy decreased dramatically when the  
151 connection probability increased to 0.5 indicating that connection probabilities  $\sim 0.2 - 0.4$  are  
152 optimal.

153

154 We also validated classifier performance by training and testing on surrogate datasets that were  
155 generated by ‘swap shuffling’ our original datasets. We created ‘swap shuffled’ surrogate  
156 datasets by randomly swapping blocks of activity between neurons (each block of activity = a set  
157 of consecutive frames during which the neuron was active). To understand this, think of the  
158 entire raster as a collection of blocks of activity. Each block occurs at a specific time, has a  
159 specific duration, and is associated with a particular neuron. Swap shuffling is equivalent to just  
160 shuffling the neurons associated with each block of activity (the start time and duration of each  
161 block do not change). For example, if neuron  $i$  originally became active at time  $t1$  for  $n1$  frames  
162 and neuron  $j$  was active at time  $t2$  for  $n2$  frames, then in the surrogate dataset neuron  $i$  might  
163 become active at  $t2$  (but not at  $t1$ ) while neuron  $j$  might become active at  $t1$  (but not  $t2$ ). Swap  
164 shuffling preserves the number of neurons active at each point in time (because the timing of

165 blocks of activity does not change). It also preserves the number of blocks of activity for each  
166 neuron, and this tends to preserve the overall level of activity of each neuron. Activity levels are  
167 not perfectly preserved, because blocks of activity can have different durations. Nevertheless, in  
168 practice, blocks of activity tend to have similar durations and the similarity between the mean  
169 activity level in each neuron before and after swap shuffling of entire datasets was  $0.97 \pm 0.01$ .  
170 As expected, we found that neural network classifiers trained and tested on swap shuffled  
171 datasets performed near chance levels (Figure 2B).

172

### 173 **Prefrontal neurons that drive classifier performance exhibit dramatic behaviorally-driven** 174 **changes in their correlations**

175 Next, we examined connections in trained networks to reveal factors which enable them to  
176 successfully classify social vs. home cage behavior (we analyzed networks with a connection  
177 probability = 0.3 since this maximized performance of the population). Each hidden layer unit  
178 has an output weight which measures how strongly it excites or inhibits the output unit that  
179 represents the ‘decision’ (social vs. home cage). Hidden units with output weights  $\sim 0$  don’t  
180 contribute to this decision. By contrast, hidden units with strong negative or positive weights  
181 promote the social or home cage decision, respectively (**Figure 3A**). Therefore, we hypothesized  
182 that there might be important differences in the pattern of input to hidden units, depending on  
183 whether those hidden units have large positive or negative output weights.

184

185 We arranged hidden layer units based on their output weights, i.e., the unit with the most  
186 negative weight was unit 1 and the unit with the most positive weight was unit 1000. Then we  
187 defined the 25 hidden layer units with the most negative weights as ‘social units’ and the 25 with  
188 the most positive weights as ‘home cage units’ (**Figure 3B**). For comparison we also defined the  
189 25 hidden layer units with the weights closest to zero as ‘neutral units.’ For each pair of hidden  
190 units, we computed the similarity between their inputs (i.e., the correlation between their input  
191 vectors; **Figure 3C**). We then plotted the average input similarity of each hidden unit to either  
192 the social or home cage units (**Figure 3D**) or the neutral units (**Figure 3E**). Social and home  
193 cage units tended to receive input from the same prefrontal neurons as other hidden layer units  
194 with the same preference, i.e., which also had negative or positive output weights. By contrast  
195 neutral units did not exhibit any such relationship.

196

197 The preceding suggests that distinct ensembles of prefrontal neurons provide input to either  
198 social or home cage units. We hypothesized that there might be important features of activity in  
199 these ensembles that support the classification of social vs. home cage behavior. For example,  
200 one possibility is that prefrontal neurons which provide input to social units might tend to  
201 increase activity during social behavior, whereas prefrontal neurons which provide input to home  
202 cage units do the opposite. Surprisingly, this was not the case. In fact, both ensembles of  
203 prefrontal neurons significantly increased their activity when mice were engaged in social  
204 interaction (**Figure 3F**; social ensemble: mean activity level  $1.4 \pm 0.3\%$  in home cage vs.  $1.8$   
205  $\pm 0.3\%$  during social interaction,  $p < 0.05$ , sign-rank test; home cage ensemble: mean activity  
206 level  $1.5 \pm 0.3\%$  in home cage vs.  $1.9 \pm 0.3\%$  during social interaction,  $p < 0.001$ , sign-rank  
207 test). Next, we examined pairwise correlations between the activity of prefrontal neurons within  
208 each ensemble. Strikingly, mean correlations within the social ensemble increased during social  
209 interaction (**Figure 3G**; (mean correlation coefficient between neurons in the social ensemble:  
210  $0.009 \pm 0.002$  in home cage vs.  $0.012 \pm 0.002$  during social interaction,  $p < 0.05$ ). By

211 contrast, there was a non-significant decrease in correlations within the home cage ensemble  
212 (Figure 3G; home cage ensemble mean correlation coefficient 0.011 +/- 0.02 in home cage vs.  
213 0.005 +/- 0.003 during social interaction,  $p=0.99$ , sign-rank).

214

215 Thus, the ensemble of prefrontal neurons which provide input to the social units actually form an  
216 assembly that collectively becomes more co-active during social behavior. In contrast, prefrontal  
217 neurons in the ensemble which provides input to the home cage units increase their activity, but  
218 not their co-activity, during social behavior. This suggests that changes in correlations associated  
219 with behavior may contribute to the encoding of social behavior.

220

### 221 **Correlations enhance classifier performance**

222 How can we quantitatively assess the contribution of these correlations, which are behaviorally-  
223 modulated, to classifier performance? Ideally we would first train a neural network on the  
224 original data. Then we would test this network's ability to classify data which maintained  
225 behaviorally-driven changes in activity levels, but either removed or preserved the correlations.  
226 Indeed, we have already developed methods for shuffling that achieve these goals. First, to  
227 shuffle the data in a manner that maintains behaviorally-driven changes in activity levels, but  
228 disrupts correlations, we can swap shuffle activity, but do so within each behavioral condition  
229 rather than across the entire testing dataset. In other words, we first divide up the raster into  
230 separate subrasters for each 5 minute behavior epoch (when the mouse was either engaged in  
231 social interaction or alone in its home cage). Then we performed swap shuffling (as described  
232 above) separately on each sub raster, before recombining these swap shuffled subrasters to create  
233 the swap shuffled surrogate dataset for testing. Because swap shuffling tends to preserve activity  
234 levels, and because we swap shuffled activity within a behavioral condition, neurons that  
235 increase or decrease activity during periods of social interaction in the original dataset also tend  
236 to do so in the swap shuffled surrogate dataset.

237

238 To create surrogate datasets which preserve patterns of correlations as well as behaviorally-  
239 driven changes in activity, we used a method that we published previously: SHuffling Activity to  
240 Preserve Correlations, or SHARC (18). SHARC also re-assigns blocks of activity between  
241 neurons, but rather than doing so randomly, it instead follows an algorithm that achieves a target  
242 correlation matrix (in this case, the original correlation matrix) (**Figure 4B-C**). The full details of  
243 SHARC are presented in the Methods. Briefly: on each iteration, we randomly select one block  
244 of activity to be assigned to a new neuron. Instead of choosing the new neuron randomly, we  
245 first compute the difference between the target correlation matrix and the correlation matrix of  
246 the partially reconstructed surrogate dataset. Then we assign the block of activity to the neuron  
247 which will optimally reduce this difference. Finally, to maintain the mean activity level of each  
248 neuron, there is also an absolute limit on how many blocks of activity can be re-assigned to each  
249 neuron. We SHARC-shuffled each social or home cage sub raster separately, then combined them  
250 to create a SHARC-shuffled surrogate dataset that preserves behaviorally-specific levels of  
251 activity and patterns of correlations.

252

253 We verified that both swap and SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets preserved levels of activity  
254 observed during both social interaction and periods when mice were alone in their home cages.  
255 Specifically, we computed the correlation between vectors in which each element represents the  
256 activity level of one neuron during one behavioral condition, and quantified the correlation

257 between each real and surrogate dataset. For swap shuffled surrogate datasets, the similarity of  
258 activity levels (compared to real data) was  $0.89 \pm 0.02$  in the home cage and  $0.82 \pm 0.04$   
259 during social interaction. For SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets, the similarity of activity levels  
260 (compared to real data) was  $0.88 \pm 0.03$  in the home cage and  $0.86 \pm 0.03$  during social  
261 interaction ( $n = 10$  mice/datasets). We also computed the similarity of the pattern of correlations  
262 between each surrogate dataset and the corresponding real dataset. In this case, only SHARC  
263 shuffled surrogate datasets preserved patterns of correlations. For swap shuffled surrogate  
264 datasets, the similarity of correlations to the real data was  $0.01 \pm 0.01$  in the home cage, and  
265  $0.03 \pm 0.01$  during social interaction. For SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets, the similarity  
266 was  $0.50 \pm 0.05$  in home cage and  $0.55 \pm 0.03$  during social interaction.

267  
268 We then trained classifiers on each dataset and tested each classifier using either swap or  
269 SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets generated from the same dataset using for training (**Figure**  
270 **4C**). Classifiers performed better than chance when tested with either surrogate dataset  
271 indicating that changes in activity levels encode behavioral information. However, performance  
272 was significantly higher for SHARC shuffled surrogates datasets than for swap shuffled ones  
273 (**Figure 4D**; classifier accuracy for SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets =  $68 \pm 4\%$ , classifier  
274 accuracy for swap shuffled surrogate datasets =  $61 \pm 4\%$ ,  $p < 0.05$ , sign-rank test). This  
275 demonstrates that behaviorally-modulated patterns of correlations transmit additional  
276 information, beyond what is readily decodable from activity levels alone.

277

### 278 **Combinations of coactive neurons occur in a behaviorally-specific manner**

279 The fact that neural networks perform classification better for connection probabilities  $\sim 0.2 - 0.4$   
280 than for connection probabilities  $< 0.1$  indicates that the representations of social vs. home cage  
281 behavior are not linearly separable. (If the representations were linearly separable, then it should  
282 be possible to find a linear combination of single neuron activities which separate these  
283 behavioral conditions, i.e., a set of output weights associated with hidden units which each  
284 receive input from just one prefrontal neuron; this would correspond to a network that had a low  
285 connection probability and high classification accuracy). Together with the fact that classifier  
286 performance was higher for SHARC shuffled datasets than swap shuffled ones, this indicates that  
287 multineuron patterns of coactivity, rather than just levels of activity within neuronal ensembles,  
288 transmit information about social behavior. Therefore as a proof-of-concept, we directly  
289 examined whether 3-neuron patterns of coactivity occur in a behaviorally-specific manner.

290

291 First, we quantified how often each possible 3-neuron combination occurred in real datasets.  
292 Then we calculated how often each of these combinations in datasets that had been swap-  
293 shuffled (across the entirety of the dataset). For each real dataset we constructed 1000 swap-  
294 shuffled datasets, and identified ‘enriched combinations,’ which occurred more often in real  
295 datasets than in 95% of swap shuffled surrogate datasets. Enriched combinations are those which  
296 occur more often in real datasets than expected based on the chance overlap of activity between  
297 marginally independent neurons. Finally, we quantified how many of these enriched  
298 combinations were behaviorally-specific, i.e., occurred exclusively during social or home cage  
299 epochs. Combinations could appear to be behaviorally-specific simply because they only  
300 occurred at a single timepoint. Therefore we also restricted our analysis to enriched combinations  
301 which occurred during multiple distinct bouts of social interaction and/or matched sets of  
302 intervals during home cage epochs. Many of these repetitively-occurring enriched combinations



303 were behaviorally-specific: 43.5% occurred during social interaction, 26.5% during home cage  
304 epochs, and 30% during both conditions.

305  
306 The selective occurrence of enriched combinations either during social interaction or when a  
307 mouse is alone in its home cage may reflect changes in single neuron activity (i.e., neurons that  
308 form a social combination are only active during the social condition), and/or changes in  
309 correlations (i.e., neurons are active in both conditions but only *co-active* during social  
310 behavior). To test the hypothesis that changes in correlations underlie the behavioral specificity  
311 of significant combinations, we examined the 3-neuron combinations that were specifically  
312 enriched during either periods of home cage exploration or social interaction (**Figure 5**). We  
313 defined specific enrichment as those combinations which occurred more often in real data than in  
314 95% of swap-shuffled surrogate datasets for one behavioral context, and less in real data than in  
315 50% of swap-shuffled surrogate datasets for the other behavioral context. Based on these criteria,  
316 12,408 3-neuron combinations were specifically enriched during social interaction, and 9,572  
317 were specifically enriched during home cage exploration. There were 55,696 instances in which  
318 a social and nonsocial 3-neuron combination overlapped in 2 out of 3 neurons. In 97.0% of these  
319 cases, the neuron which was part of a social 3-neuron combination (triplet) but left out of the  
320 overlapping home cage triplet was part of a different 3-neuron combination that was enriched  
321 during homecage exploration (Figure 5, top right). Conversely, the neuron which was part of a  
322 nonsocial triplet but left out of the overlapping social 3-neuron combination was part of a  
323 different socially-enriched 3-neuron combination in 99.1% of cases (Figure 5, bottom right).  
324 Overall, an average of 71 enriched homecage combinations contained the neuron missing from  
325 the social triplet, and 85 enriched social combinations contained the neuron missing from  
326 homecage triplets. Thus, the specificity of a combination of co-active neurons for social vs.  
327 nonsocial behavior does not occur simply because some neurons were only active during one  
328 condition, but rather reflects the dynamic reorganization of patterns formed by neurons which are  
329 active in both conditions, i.e., changes in correlations. This – the behaviorally-specific  
330 occurrence of multineuron patterns of coactivity – represents the substrate through which  
331 correlations can add to the behavioral information transmitted by neuronal ensembles.

### 332 333 **Socially-enriched combinations are deficient in Shank3 KO mice**

334 We were curious whether there might be conditions under which these phenomena – the  
335 occurrence of multineuron combinations of coactivity during social behavior, and the ability of  
336 correlations to enhance the transmission of information about social behavior – might be  
337 impaired. To explore this, we performed microendoscopic GCaMP imaging in mice lacking the  
338 autism-associated gene *Shank3* (19–21). These mice have been extensively studied as models of  
339 Phelan-McDermid syndrome, which often includes autism as a clinical feature. *Shank3*<sup>-/-</sup> (KO)  
340 mice are known to have social deficits, and indeed, we found that compared to wild-type (WT)  
341 littermates, they spend significantly less time interacting with novel juvenile mice (**Figure 6A**).

342  
343 We compared patterns of prefrontal activity in *Shank3* KO mice and their WT littermates. As in  
344 WT mice, in *Shank3* KO mice, many prefrontal neurons either increase or decrease activity  
345 during social interaction. However, compared to WT mice, the fraction of neurons whose activity  
346 increases during social interaction was significantly higher, whereas the fraction whose activity  
347 decreases was significantly lower (**Figure 6B-C**; 22% of 260 WT neurons vs. 39% of 290 KO  
348 neurons increased activity above the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of shuffled data during social interaction, chi

349 squared = 17.7,  $p < 0.0001$ ; 25% of WT vs. 15% of KO neurons decreased activity below the  
350 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of shuffled data during social interaction, chi squared = 8.2,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Thus,  
351 Shank3 KO mice recruit abnormal neuronal ensembles during social behavior. We hypothesized  
352 that this might reflect a network-level disorganization that affects the normal patterning of  
353 activity during social behavior.

354  
355 Indeed, we found that in KO mice a significantly smaller fraction of the 3-neuron combinations  
356 observed during social interaction were strongly enriched, i.e., occur more often in actual data  
357 than in 99.9% of swap-shuffled surrogate datasets (**Figure 6D**). This suggests that even though  
358 more neurons (i.e., larger ensembles), were recruited during social behavior in KO mice, these  
359 may have been less well-organized, such that the occurrence of socially-enriched patterns of  
360 activity is obscured by ‘noise,’ i.e., patterns formed by the chance overlap of activity between  
361 neurons that fire in a largely independent fashion. Notably, this deficiency was specific for social  
362 interaction. The fraction of 3-neuron combinations that were strongly enriched during home cage  
363 exploration (in comparison to swap-shuffled surrogate datasets) was similar in WT and KO mice  
364 (Figure 6D).

365  
366 **Correlations do not enhance the transmission of information about social behavior in**  
367 **Shank3 KO mice**

368 The preceding shows that even though social behavior robustly recruits neuronal ensembles in  
369 Shank3 KO mice, the organization of these ensembles into multineuron combinations is  
370 disorganized. This suggests that the ability of patterns of co-activity to encode information about  
371 social behavior may be impaired in these mice. To test this, we directly examined whether  
372 correlations contribute to the transmission of information about social behavior in Shank3 KO  
373 mice. As before, we generated swap and SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets, then tested the  
374 ability of classifiers trained on the original datasets (from Shank3 KO mice) to classify activity  
375 associated with behavior during social interaction vs. in home cage. While we still observed  
376 above chance classification accuracy using a classifier with a connection probability of 0.3, there  
377 was no longer an increase in performance when correlations were preserved in SHARC shuffled  
378 surrogate datasets as compared to swap shuffled ones (**Figure 6E**; classifier accuracy: 62 +/- 4%  
379 for SHARC vs 63 +/- 2% for swap shuffled surrogate datasets,  $p = 0.47$ , sign-rank test). Thus, in  
380 Shank3 KO mice, multineuron patterns of coactivity during social behavior are disturbed, and  
381 correlations no longer add to the information about social behavior transmitted by prefrontal  
382 ensembles.

383

## 384 DISCUSSION

385

386 During complex behaviors, the brain can use many strategies to represent information about the  
387 external environment and internal state of the organism. The term ‘ensemble’ is often used to  
388 refer to a group of neurons whose activity is similarly modulated (either increased or decreased)  
389 during specific behaviors (1, 22–26). It is generally accepted that ensembles transmit behavioral  
390 information via changes in the activity levels of their constituent neurons. On the other hand,  
391 many studies have also shown that correlations between neurons can change during specific  
392 behaviors (3, 9) or behavioral states (27–29). Importantly, correlations reflect changes in  
393 coactivity which exceed those expected to occur simply because of changes in the activity levels  
394 of the individual neurons (10). I.e., when an ensemble becomes more active, its correlations  
395 could go up, down, or remain unchanged. By optimizing synaptic interactions such as temporal  
396 summation, changes in correlated activity could potentially enhance the behavioral information  
397 transmitted by changes in ensemble activity, or transmit entirely different types of information,  
398 e.g., about internal states. Correlations have been studied extensively for the isolated retina  
399 responding to visual stimuli (30). However, how correlations in recurrently connected cortical  
400 circuits such as the mPFC encode behavior has been more difficult to discern.

401

402 Here, we addressed this question using microendoscopic GCaMP imaging to measure activity  
403 from many (~80-100) prefrontal neurons during social behavior in mice. We used multiple  
404 approaches to disentangle the respective contributions of activity and correlations to the  
405 encoding of behavior. First, we used a simple neural network, in which prefrontal neurons  
406 provide input, there is one hidden layer, and a single output unit classifies social vs. nonsocial  
407 behavior, to quantify how well prefrontal ensembles would transmit information about social  
408 behavior to downstream neurons. We extended a method we previously published, (18), to non-  
409 randomly shuffle datasets in order to preserve both behaviorally-modulated correlations and  
410 ensemble activity. This enabled us to compare the amount of information about social behavior  
411 transmitted by either SHARC-shuffled surrogate datasets or randomly-shuffled surrogates which  
412 preserved ensemble activity but not correlations. In this way, we found that correlations enhance  
413 the amount of information that prefrontal ensembles transmit about social behavior. Indeed,  
414 when we examined connections within neural network classifiers, we found that prefrontal  
415 neurons which serve to detect social behavior increase their correlations during social behavior  
416 (whereas neurons which detect nonsocial behavior do not).

417

418 Correlations measure neuronal coactivity that occurs more often than expected based on the  
419 chance overlap of activity between neurons. Thus, in accordance with our finding that behavior  
420 modulates correlations, we found that multineuron patterns of coactivity which occur more often  
421 than expected by chance are behaviorally-specific. We then directly examined these  
422 behaviorally-specific and statistically-enriched combinations of coactive neurons. We found that  
423 they tend to be composed of neurons which are active in both conditions but only coactive in  
424 one, rather than neurons which are only active in one condition.

425

426 Interestingly, these statistically-enriched patterns of coactivity were specifically deficient during  
427 social behavior in mice lacking the autism-associated gene Shank3. Accordingly, in Shank3 KO  
428 mice, surrogate datasets which preserve behaviorally-modulated correlations failed to transmit  
429 more information about social behavior compared to randomly shuffled datasets which only

430 preserved ensemble activity. This shows that the ability of correlations to enhance the  
431 transmission of information about social behavior is not automatic, and can in fact be disrupted  
432 in pathological states.

433

### 434 **What is the meaningful size of ensembles in the cortex?**

435 Complex behavior is possible because the brain reliably encodes features pertaining to the  
436 external environment as well as the internal state of the organism. These features may be  
437 encoded by the modulation of activity in neuronal ensembles (1, 22–26). How many neurons are  
438 needed to reliably encode an aspect of behavior? This is an important question because the  
439 capacity, robustness against noise, generalization ability, etc., of a network depend on how many  
440 neurons encode specific pieces of information.

441

442 We explored this question, not by measuring actual connections, but rather by asking what  
443 connection probability would optimize the ability of a downstream network to classify behavior  
444 based on input from prefrontal ensembles. Peak classifier performance occurred for connection  
445 probabilities ~0.2 - 0.3. Performance was markedly lower when the connection probability was  
446 0.5. This is surprising because a connection probability of 0.5 would maximize the entropy of  
447 each connection; correspondingly, the number of distinct input combinations to a hidden unit is  
448 maximized when it receives connections input from half the input neurons. Thus, from the  
449 standpoint of encoding social behavior, combining activity from 20-30% of the input neurons  
450 must achieve some synergy that becomes degraded by including activity from additional  
451 neurons. This suggests that whatever mechanism normally generates behaviorally-meaningful  
452 patterns of coactivity in prefrontal neurons, the size of these patterns is limited to about 20-30%  
453 of the network. This may reflect nonrandom network connectivity (31, 32) which produces  
454 correlated activity / coactivity within defined neuronal subgroups (33, 34).

455

### 456 **Combinatorial codes vs. sequential patterns of activity**

457 Like many recent studies, we measured population-level activity in the mouse neocortex using  
458 genetically encoded calcium indicators. These indicators transduce neuronal spiking on  
459 timescales ~100 msec. Thus correlated activity / ‘coactivity’ imply that neurons jointly increase  
460 their activity within windows ~100 msec, and do not necessarily imply synchronous spiking on  
461 faster timescales (milliseconds or even tens of milliseconds). At the same time, correlated activity  
462 / coactivity on these timescales should be differentiated from sequential activity of neurons  
463 observed during the performance of sequential behaviors (i.e. spatial navigation or overtrained  
464 tasks) in which the activity of specific neurons corresponds to moving through a specific location  
465 or performing a specific portion of a complex task. As discussed above, in the neocortex  
466 correlations and coactivity likely reflect recurrent neural network connectivity (33). By contrast,  
467 sequential patterns of neuronal activation can occur simply as a byproduct of the arrangement of  
468 spatial locations along a trajectory, the stereotyped order in which cues are encountered during a  
469 task, etc.

470

### 471 **Relevance to disease states**

472 Interestingly, in *Shank3* KO mice, which exhibit social deficits, the mPFC successfully recruits  
473 specific neuronal ensembles during social interaction. However the organization of these  
474 ensembles into statistically-enriched patterns of coactivity is disrupted, and correlations fail to  
475 enhance the transmission of information by these ensembles. Thus, the computational units by

476 which information is processed in the mPFC appears to be inefficient, i.e., social behavioral  
477 recruits an abnormally large number of neurons at the expense of the precise temporal patterning  
478 of this activity. This central finding is similar to other findings in rodent models of autism at both  
479 the single neuron and network levels (15, 19, 35). In particular, we found an increase in the  
480 recruitment of prefrontal neurons during social interaction. This mirrors a recent study which  
481 found hyperdynamic response to whisker stimulation in the same mice (19), possibly reflecting  
482 GABAergic circuit dysfunction and/or homeostatic compensations (36). Here, we show how  
483 such exaggerated responses and enlarged neural ensembles may disrupt information transmission  
484 by degrading the ratio between signal (statistically meaningful patterns of coactivity) and noise  
485 (the random overlap of activity between neurons).  
486

## 487 MATERIALS AND METHODS

488

489 Behavior: C57/B6 mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratories. We utilized adult mice of  
490 either sex housed and bred in the UCSF animal facility. Adult mice were habituated to the room  
491 and observer for 3 days prior to test day. All videos were subsequently scored by a blinded  
492 observer. For imaging experiments, 5 WT and 4 KO littermates were generated through crosses  
493 between Shank3 heterozygous parents and injected with AAV5.Syn.GCaMP6f.WPRE.SV40. We  
494 included an additional 5 WT mice which were injected with  
495 AAV5.Syn.GCaMP6m.WPRE.SV40 (37). Viruses were obtained from Penn Viral Core.  
496 Injections and 500 um GRIN lens (Inscopix) implantations were carried out in 8-12 week old  
497 mice to express GCaMP6f in prefrontal cortical neurons under control of the human Synapsin  
498 promoter. Mice were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane and mounted in a stereotactic frame.  
499 Craniotomies were made according to stereotaxic coordinates relative to Bregma. Coordinates  
500 for injection into mPFC were (in mm relative to Bregma): +1.7 anterior–posterior (AP), –0.3  
501 mediolateral (ML) and –2.75 dorsoventral (DV), and GRIN lenses were implanted at the same  
502 AP and ML coordinates, to a depth of 2.25. We subsequently attached baseplates for attaching  
503 the microendoscope, ~4 weeks later depending on GCaMP expression. Mice were habituated  
504 for three days with the scope attached, prior to test day. On test day, mice were habituated with  
505 the scope turned on, then imaged in alternating home cage and social epochs. During social  
506 epochs, one of 2 novel sex-matched juvenile mouse was introduced to the test mouse's  
507 homecage, in sequential order so that there were two 'novel' epochs, followed by two 'familiar'  
508 epochs interleaved with 'home cage' epochs during which the juvenile mice were removed and  
509 the test mouse was free to explore its home cage. The first and last home cage epoch were 10  
510 minutes in length; the others were 5 minutes in length. Each social epoch lasted 10 minutes but  
511 only the first 5 minutes were recorded and scored. During each behavioral epoch, observer was  
512 not in the room. Interaction epochs were defined from the moment test mouse first sniffed the  
513 juvenile conspecific or object, until the test mouse turned away. Videos were recorded using  
514 Anymaze, and scored by a blinded observer. For the bulk of analysis we pooled data across 10  
515 WT mice. Shank3 KO mice were compared only to recordings from WT littermates.

516

517 Image acquisition and segmentation: Images were acquired using an Inscopix nVoke  
518 microendoscope attached to a laptop computer and synced to a separate video acquisition  
519 computer running Anymaze. Frame rate was 20 Hz and the laser power was 0.2 mW. Acquisition  
520 was performed using 2x2 pixel binning, then subsequently downsampled again by 2.

521

522 We segmented neuronal signals using a modified PCA/ICA approach(16, 17), modified so that  
523 each segment was expressed as a binary ROI consisting of pixels representing a single neuron.  
524 To deconvolve neuronal signals from background neuropil signals, we subtracted the mean  
525 signal from each identified segment from the mean value in pixels surrounding the edge of the  
526 segment (we excluded pixels that belonged to another ROI). Signals were subsequently lowpass  
527 filtered to remove high frequency noise using the Matlab command: `designfilt('lowpassfir',`  
528 `'PassbandFrequency', 0.5, 'StopbandFrequency', .65, 'PassbandRipple', 1, 'StopbandAttenuation',`  
529 `25)`. All signal traces shown represent normalized versions of the  $dF/F_0$  trace, where  $F_0$  is  
530 *estimated by the median* value in the surround region. Threshold based event detection was  
531 performed on the traces by detecting increases in  $dF/F_0$  exceeding  $3\sigma$  over one second, then only  
532 keeping those events which exceeded a  $15\sigma$  increase over two seconds, and a total area under the

533 curve of  $250\sigma$ . As there were occasional downward deflections due to surround subtraction, we  
534 instituted a final parameter requiring that the peak cross an absolute value of  $dF/F_0 = 0.0125$ .  $\sigma$  is  
535 the standard deviation of  $dF/F_0$ , calculated over the least active 50% of the movie. In some cases  
536 these parameters were adjusted slightly to optimize event detection to  $> 95\%$  sensitivity and  
537 specificity, based on visual inspection, for each movie. After identifying these events in the  
538 GCaMP signal from a cell, the cell was considered “active” during the entire period from the  
539 beginning of an event until the GCaMP signal decreased 30% from the peak of the event, up to a  
540 maximum of 2 seconds. The peak of the event was defined as the local maximum of the entire  
541 event, from the beginning of the event until  $dF/F_0$  returned to the pre-event baseline value.  
542 Calcium traces from segmented neurons were visually inspected and a small number of segments  
543 were removed if they did not appear to represent a single, unduplicated neuron. We restricted  
544 further analysis to those mice with 25 or more active neurons. We then created 2-dimensional  
545 event rasters consisting of detected events for each neuron over the course of the experiment.  
546

547 Detection of behaviorally modulated neurons: To determine the response of individual neurons  
548 to behavioral context, we averaged the activity of each neuron during frames corresponding to  
549 periods of social interaction, or to a temporally matched set of frames during the preceding home  
550 cage epoch. We then created a ‘null distribution’ for each neuron that represents the percent of  
551 time active expected in each condition based on chance, by circularly shuffling the data 10,000  
552 times. We then compared the activity of each neuron during either social interaction or home  
553 cage exploration to this null distribution. Neurons were considered positively modulated if they  
554 exceeded the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of that observed in circularly-shuffled datasets, and negatively  
555 modulated if the percent of frames that a neuron was active during a given context was below the  
556 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of observations from circularly-shuffled data.  
557

558 SHARC: SHARC (SHuffling Activity to Rearrange Correlations) is an iterative method for  
559 generating surrogate datasets. SHARC nonrandomly shuffles blocks of activity within a raster to  
560 generate a new (surrogate) raster in which the pairwise correlations between neurons match a  
561 target correlation matrix (*17*). Here we apply this previously-published method, with  
562 modifications to also preserve the activity level in each neuron (Figure 4B).  
563

564 To begin, note that each raster is equivalent to a collection of blocks of activity. Each block of  
565 activity is defined by the time at which it begins, its duration, and the neuron which is active. On  
566 each iteration one block of activity is randomly chosen and assigned to a new neuron as follows.  
567 Suppose block  $i$  has been chosen to be re-assigned. First, we find all the blocks of activity that  
568 overlap with block  $i$ . Next, we selected the subset of these blocks for which new cell identities  
569 had already been assigned. Call this set  $X$ . Let  $r_j$  represent the number of timepoints over which  
570 block  $j \in X$  overlaps with block  $i$ , and let  $n_j$  represent the identity of the cell assigned to block  $j \in$   
571  $X$ .  $L_i$  and  $L_j$  are the lengths of blocks  $i$  and  $j$ , respectively. Then we constructed a vector,

572 
$$\vec{P}_i = \sum_{j \in X} \frac{r_j}{\sqrt{L_i L_j}} (\vec{C}_{n_j} - \vec{C}'_{n_j})$$

573 where  $\vec{C}_{n_j}$  represents row  $j$  of the target correlation matrix, i.e. the target correlations between  
574 neuron  $n_j$  and the other neurons, and  $\vec{C}'_{n_j}$  contains the current values of the correlations between  
575 neuron  $n_j$  and the other neurons based on the blocks of activity that have already been re-  
576 assigned. This step can be thought of as “guessing” which cell *should* be assigned to a particular

577 block of activity by first figuring out what other cells are active at the same time, then choosing  
578 cells which are strongly correlated with these known active cells. Note that we assign values of  
579  $\vec{P}_i$  (i.e., construct “guesses” about which cell should be active), using the *difference* between the  
580 current correlation matrix ( $\vec{C}'_{n_j}$ ) and the target correlation matrix ( $\vec{C}_{n_j}$ ), in order to identify cell  
581 pairs for which the current correlation deviates from the target value, and force the new  
582 correlation matrix to progressively approximately the target correlation matrix.  
583 We set elements of  $\vec{P}_i$  to zero if the corresponding neuron had already been assigned to a block  
584 of activity that overlaps with block  $i$ , i.e. element  $n_j$  of  $\vec{P}_i$  was set to zero  $\forall j \in X$ . Finally, we  
585 assigned block  $i$  to the neuron corresponding to the maximum value of  $\vec{P}_i$ . This can be thought of  
586 as choosing the cell that represents the “consensus” based on tallying up all of the “guesses”  
587 about which cells “should” be assigned to the block of activity being considered.  
588

589 When all the elements of  $\vec{P}_i$  were zero, e.g. because there no overlapping blocks of activity have  
590 had new cell identities assigned yet, then we chose a cell in order to match the originally  
591 observed level of activity. Specifically, after every iteration, we kept a log of the net number of  
592 blocks of activity that each neuron had donated or received. We used this vector to create a  
593 weighted probability whereby events from neurons which had received a net positive number of  
594 blocks were more likely to be chosen to be reassigned. To further ensure that the total number of  
595 active events for each neuron in the surrogate dataset was similar to the real dataset, if the  
596 difference between the number of blocks gained – lost in the reassignment process exceeded +10  
597 for a particular neuron, then that neurons was no longer eligible to receive additional blocks of  
598 activity.  
599

600 We extended this approach to generate surrogate datasets by shuffling data within shorter time  
601 windows (i.e., individual behavioral epochs). Here a discrete set of frames is chosen,  
602 corresponding to a sub raster of the original raster. By repeating the process described above for  
603 each sub rasters, then recombining the shuffled sub rasters, we generate a complete shuffled  
604 dataset.  
605

606 Classifier: We designed and trained a neural network to classify behavior (periods when a mouse  
607 was alone in its home cage vs. engaged in social interaction). This network contained 1000 units  
608 in a hidden layer, each of which received input from specific prefrontal neurons (from the real  
609 dataset). Thus, in each frame the activity of each hidden layer unit was just the summed activity  
610 of the connected prefrontal neurons. Each hidden layer unit had an output weight that  
611 represented the strength of its connection to a single output unit. On each frame the activity of  
612 the output unit was computed as:  
613

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\sum w_i x_i}}$$

614  
615  
616 where  $w_i$  is the output weight from hidden unit  $i$  and  $x_i$  is the activity of hidden unit  $i$ .  
617

618 When we performed training and testing using the same dataset, we divided the dataset into  
619 alternating blocks of 500 frames for training vs. testing (in other cases we used the real dataset  
620 for training, then tested using a surrogate dataset). We restricted training or testing to frames in



621 which mice were scored as actively engaged in social interaction (or matched frames during  
622 periods when the mouse was alone in its home cage). We also limited training / testing to frames  
623 with at least 3 active neurons.

624  
625 We trained the output weights by performing 500 passes through the training data (each pass  
626 visited all of the training frames in a random order). On each training timestep, we calculated  $y$ ,  
627 the activity of the output unit, and then adjusted each output weight based on:

$$628 \quad \Delta w_i = \varepsilon y(1 - y)(y - z)x_i$$

629  
630  
631 where  $z$  is the correct classification of the frame (0 for social behavior, 1 for home cage) and  $\varepsilon$ ,  
632 the learning rate, was set to 0.05.

633  
634 Following training, we examined the pattern of input connections and output weights. The  
635 distribution of output weights was roughly gaussian and centered near 0. We identified the  
636 selection of prefrontal neurons most likely to be connected to hidden layer units with large  
637 positive or negative weights. Hidden layer units with large negative or positive output weights  
638 bias classification towards the social or home cage condition, respectively. Therefore, we refer to  
639 the 25 hidden units with the most negative or positive weights as ‘social’ or ‘home cage’ units  
640 respectively. We calculated the number of input connections between each prefrontal neuron and  
641 the 25 home cage units or 25 social units. We then defined ‘home cage’ or ‘social’ ensembles as  
642 the 20% of prefrontal neurons with the most input connections to home cage or social units,  
643 respectively. As described in the main text, we then analyzed properties of these two ensembles.

644  
645 Quantification of multineuron combinations: Estimating chance overlap between activity of  
646 largely independent neurons requires accounting for two factors. First, neurons with higher  
647 activity are more likely to overlap by chance with other neurons. Second, overall network  
648 activity is dynamic over time, creating a tendency for otherwise independent neurons to be  
649 recruited at similar times. Thus, it is necessary to identify combinations which occur more often  
650 than expected based on 1) the activity levels of the constituent neurons, and 2) the fact that  
651 activity in a network is not constant over time. We can do this by quantifying the occurrence of  
652 combinations in datasets which have been shuffled to preserve 1) the overall level of activity in  
653 each neuron, and 2) the total level of activity in the network at each point in time.

654  
655 3 neuron combinations were quantified by identifying each combination present in frames in  
656 which 2 or more neurons were active. The number of frames each combination was active in  
657 *real data* was stored in a  $n$ -dimensional matrix. Surrogate datasets were then generated from  
658 event rasters by *swapping* the identity of neurons associated with detected events (periods of  
659 activity). As the timing of events themselves is unchanged, and only the identity of the  
660 participating neurons are exchanged, this preserves both the number of events per frame and the  
661 number of events that each neuron participates in. Therefore, the total number of combinations in  
662 each frame and over the course of the experiment (i.e., the sum of occurrences across all  
663 combinations) is also preserved. The total number of combination occurrences in which a given  
664 neuron participates would also tend to be preserved in these swap-shuffled surrogate datasets.

665

666 We then quantified how often each combination occurred in real vs. swap-shuffled data. By  
667 comparing how often each combination occurred in real data vs. in 1,000 swap-shuffled  
668 surrogate dataset, we were able to quantify how ‘enriched’ each combination was, compared to  
669 the level of occurrence expected by chance based on the activity levels of its constituent neurons  
670 (and the overall temporal pattern of network activity). We expressed enrichment as a percentile,  
671 calculated relative to swap-shuffled surrogate data, e.g., the 100<sup>th</sup> percentile indicates that a  
672 particular combination occurred more often in real data than in all 1,000 surrogate datasets.  
673 Further analysis was restricted to ‘enriched combinations’, i.e., combinations that occurred more  
674 often in real datasets than in 95% of surrogate datasets.

675

676 Statistical analysis: Neurons and significant combinations from all animals and groups were  
677 pooled and counted as single units. Proportions were compared using chi-squared test. Activity  
678 levels were compared using paired *t*-tests (2-sided), unless otherwise noted. Where applicable,  
679 error bars denote standard error.

680

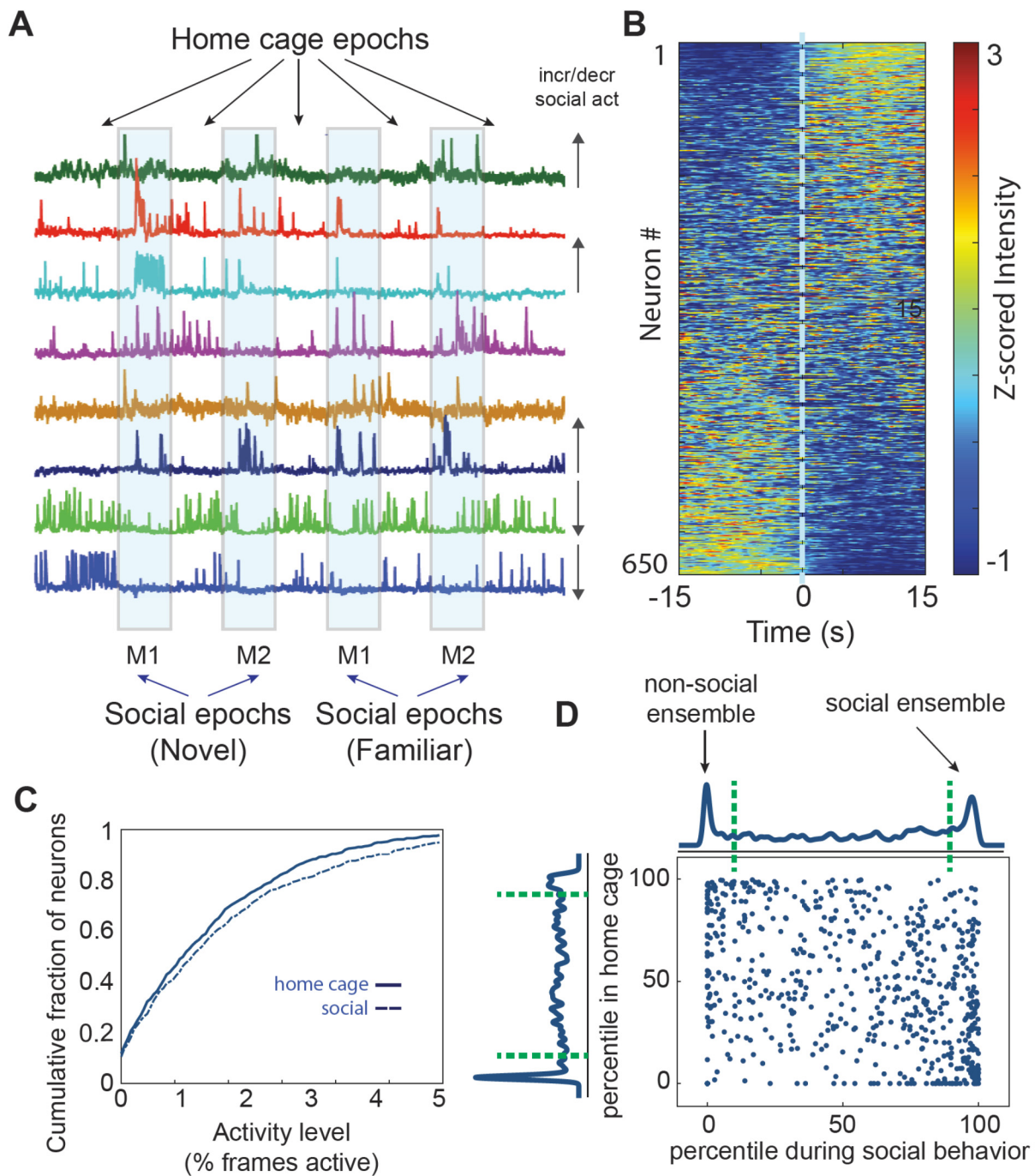
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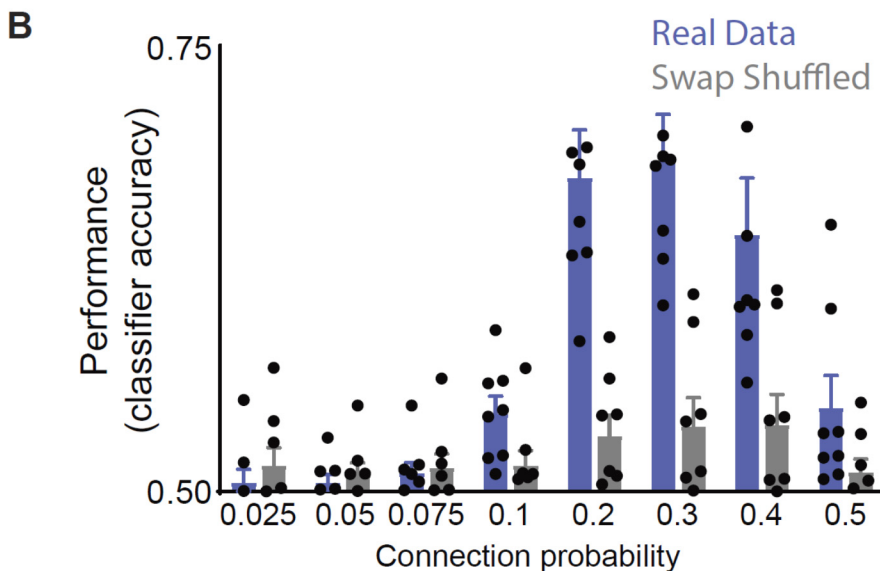
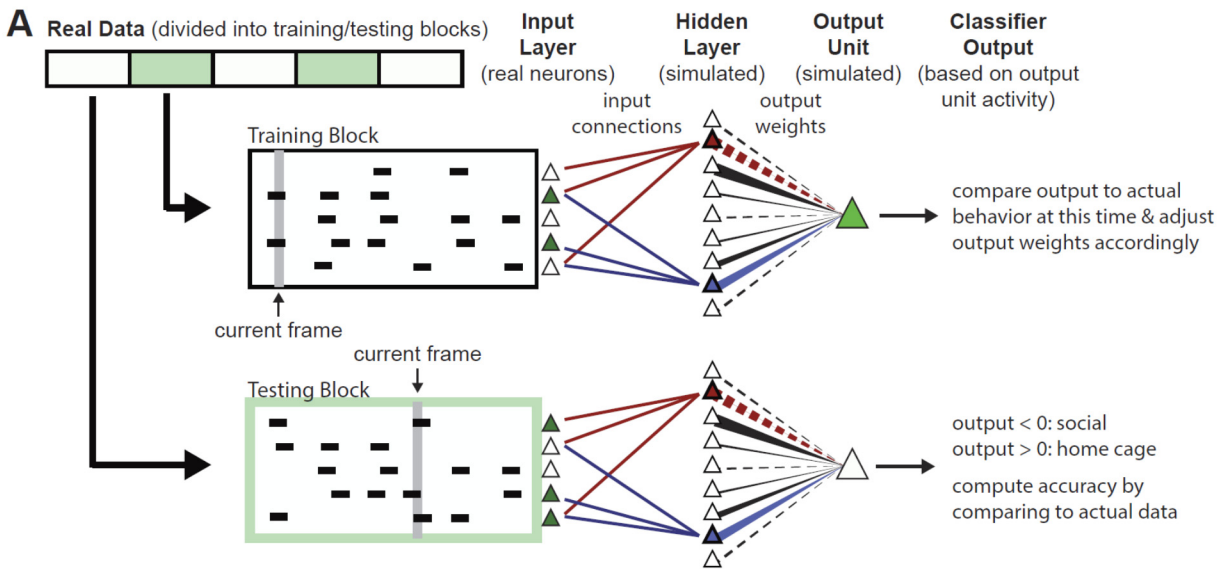


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**Figure 1. Social interaction modulates activity levels within prefrontal ensembles.**

**A.** Mice were imaged across 9 consecutive behavioral epochs (each lasting 5 min) during which they were either alone in their homecage or interacted with one of two novel sex-matched juvenile mice introduced to the homecage ('M1' or 'M2'). Each novel mouse was subsequently re-introduced to the home cage during a familiar epoch. GCaMP traces during show examples of neurons that appear to increase or decrease activity during social epochs (see arrows at the right of each trace).

- 806 **B.** Mean z-scored GCaMP traces for all neurons recorded from wild-type mice (663 neurons  
807 from 10 mice) aligned to the onset of social interaction during the first bout of interaction  
808 within each social epoch.
- 809 **C.** Cumulative plot showing the distribution of activity levels for individual neurons during  
810 homecage epochs or periods of social interaction (percent time active in homecage: 1.8% +/-  
811 0.1, percent time active during social interaction: 2.1 +/- 0.1%,  $p = 0.00002$ , paired t-test;  $n =$   
812 663 neurons from 10 WT mice).
- 813 **D.** Scatter-plot showing the activity of each neuron during each behavioral condition, expressed  
814 as a percentile relative to a null distribution generated by circularly shuffling that neuron's  
815 activity. Activity levels during social interaction or while the mouse was alone in its home  
816 cage are plotted on the x and y axis, respectively. Kernel density plots along the axes indicate  
817 the fraction of neurons whose activity was at a given percentile of the null distribution.  
818 Neurons with activity  $> 90^{\text{th}}$  percentile of shuffled datasets (green dotted line) were  
819 considered to be positively modulated, whereas neurons with activity  $< 10^{\text{th}}$  percentile (green  
820 dotted line) were considered to be negatively modulated during each behavior ( $>90^{\text{th}}$   
821 percentile, social: 152/663 neurons, home cage: 80/663 neurons;  $p < 0.00001$ , chi-squared  
822 test;  $<10^{\text{th}}$  percentile, social: 128/663 neurons, home cage: 119/663 neurons;  $p = 0.5$ , chi-  
823 squared test).



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**Figure 2. Classifying behavior from prefrontal ensembles using a simple neural network.**

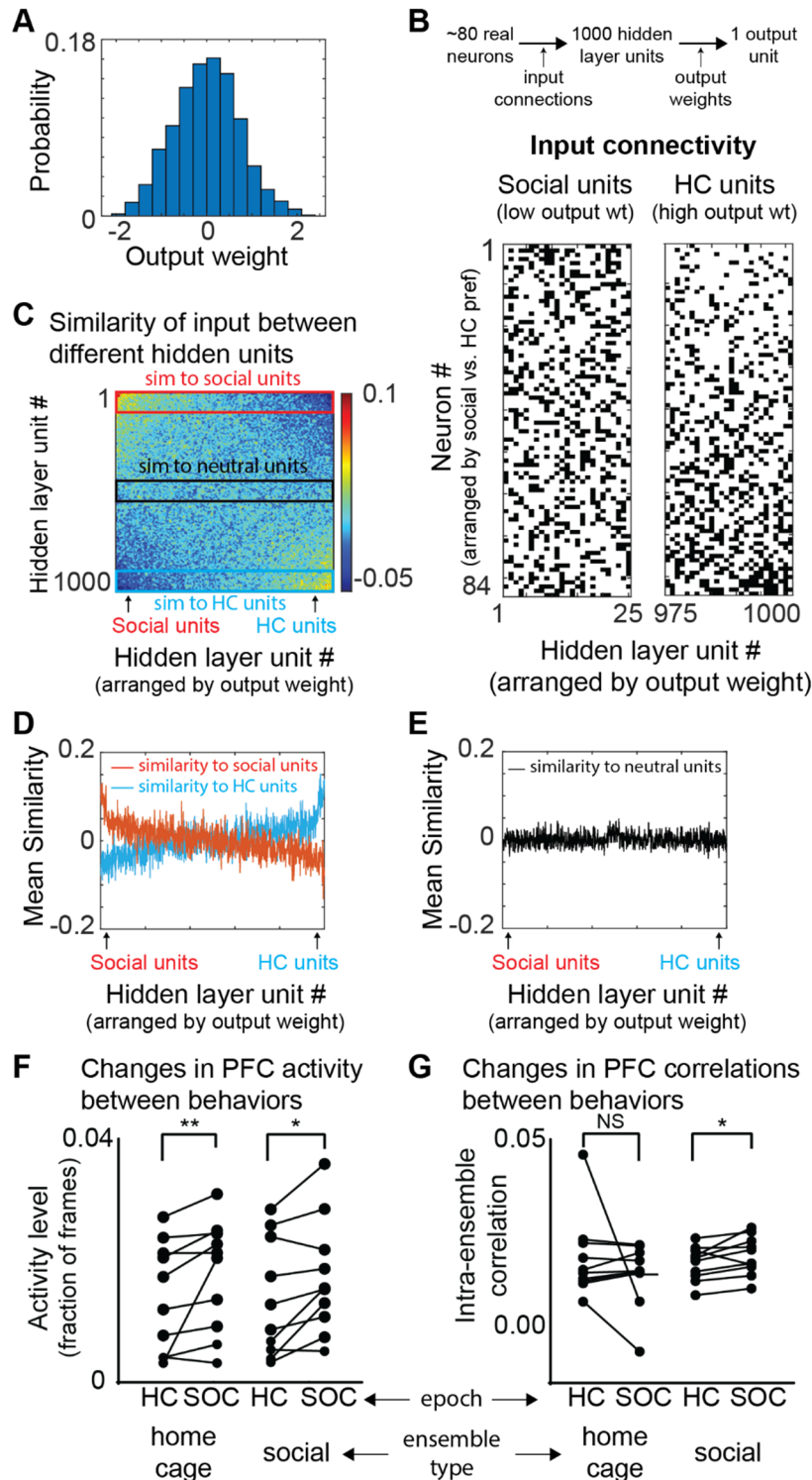
**A.** We constructed a neural network consisting of a single hidden layer (containing 1000 units) which were connected to a single output unit. The thickness of lines between each hidden layer unit and the output unit reflects the magnitude of the output weight. Positive and negative weights are indicated by solid and dashed lines, respectively. Each hidden layer unit received input from a random subset of prefrontal neurons from one real dataset. For clarity, we have only shown input connections to two hidden layer units (which are differentiated by their blue and red colors) – output weights from other hidden units are shown in black. The



833 output weight from each hidden layer neuron was iteratively updated during training. We  
834 trained the classifier to distinguish periods marked as home cage exploration or social  
835 interaction by dividing a dataset into 500-frame blocks, and then using alternating blocks for  
836 training or testing.

837 **B.** The classifier performed poorly (near chance) when the input connection probability  
838 (governing the number of prefrontal neurons that provided input to each hidden layer unit)  
839 was <10%. Classification accuracy was above chance in 8/10 mice and increased to a peak of  
840 69 +/- 3% in these mice, before decreasing again for connection probabilities >30%. The  
841 classifier performed near chance levels when we trained and tested using data that had been  
842 randomly swap-shuffled.

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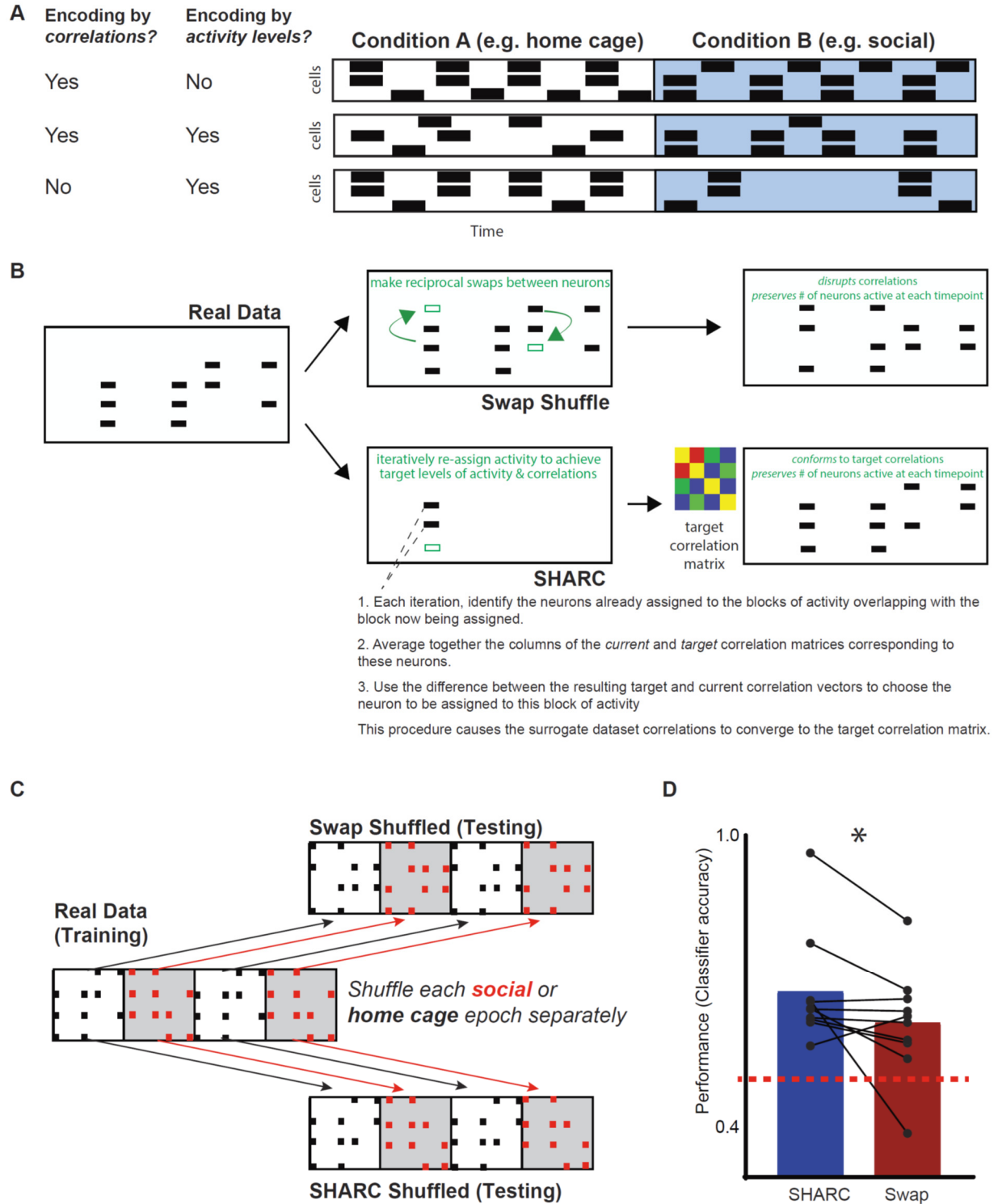


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**Figure 3. Classifier weights reveals an ensemble that increases correlations during social behavior and detects social behavior.**

**A.** Example histogram depicting the distribution of output weights assigned to connections between hidden layer units and the output unit over the course of training.

- 850 **B.** Matrix of input connections for hidden units which detect the social (left) or home cage  
851 condition (right). The hidden layer units (x-axis) have been arranged in order of increasing  
852 output weights to identify ‘social units’ (25 most negative output weights) and ‘home cage  
853 units’ (25 largest positive output weights). Prefrontal neurons (y-axis) have been arranged in  
854 order of their preference for social interaction vs. home cage, i.e. the difference between their  
855 activity levels in the two conditions.
- 856 **C.** Correlation matrix showing the input similarity, i.e., the pairwise correlation between binary  
857 vectors representing the input connections to each pair of hidden layer units. Hidden layer  
858 units are arranged in order of increasing output weight. Red and blue rectangles indicate  
859 correlations with social or home cage units, respectively. A gaussian filter with a standard  
860 deviation of 3 was applied to the 1000x1000 matrix to improve visualization.
- 861 **D.** For each hidden layer unit, we plotted its average input similarity to either the 25 social units  
862 (red) or the 25 home cage units (blue). Hidden layer units (x-axis) are again arranged by  
863 output weight. Social units had similar patterns of input compared to each other but not to  
864 home cage units and vice-versa.
- 865 **E.** The average input similarity of each hidden layer unit to 25 hidden layer units with near-zero  
866 output weights (‘neutral units’; black rectangle in C).
- 867 **F.** We defined social and home-cage (HC) ensembles as the 20% of prefrontal neurons most  
868 likely to provide input to the social or home cage units, respectively. The mean activity of  
869 both home cage and social ensembles increased during social interaction compared to the  
870 home cage condition (social ensemble: mean activity level 1.4 +/- 0.3% in home cage vs. 1.8  
871 +/- 0.3% during social interaction,  $p < 0.05$ , sign-rank test; home cage ensemble: mean  
872 activity level 1.5 +/- 0.30% in home cage vs. 1.9 +/- 0.3% during interaction,  $p < 0.001$ , sign-  
873 rank test).
- 874 **G.** Correlations between neurons in the same ensemble increased during social interaction for  
875 the social ensemble but for the home cage ensemble (mean correlation coefficient between  
876 neurons in the social ensemble: 0.009 +/- 0.002 in home cage vs. 0.012 +/- 0.002 during  
877 social interaction,  $p < 0.05$ ; home cage ensemble mean correlation coefficient 0.011 +/- 0.02  
878 in home cage vs. 0.005 +/- 0.003 during social interaction,  $p=0.99$ , sign-rank).

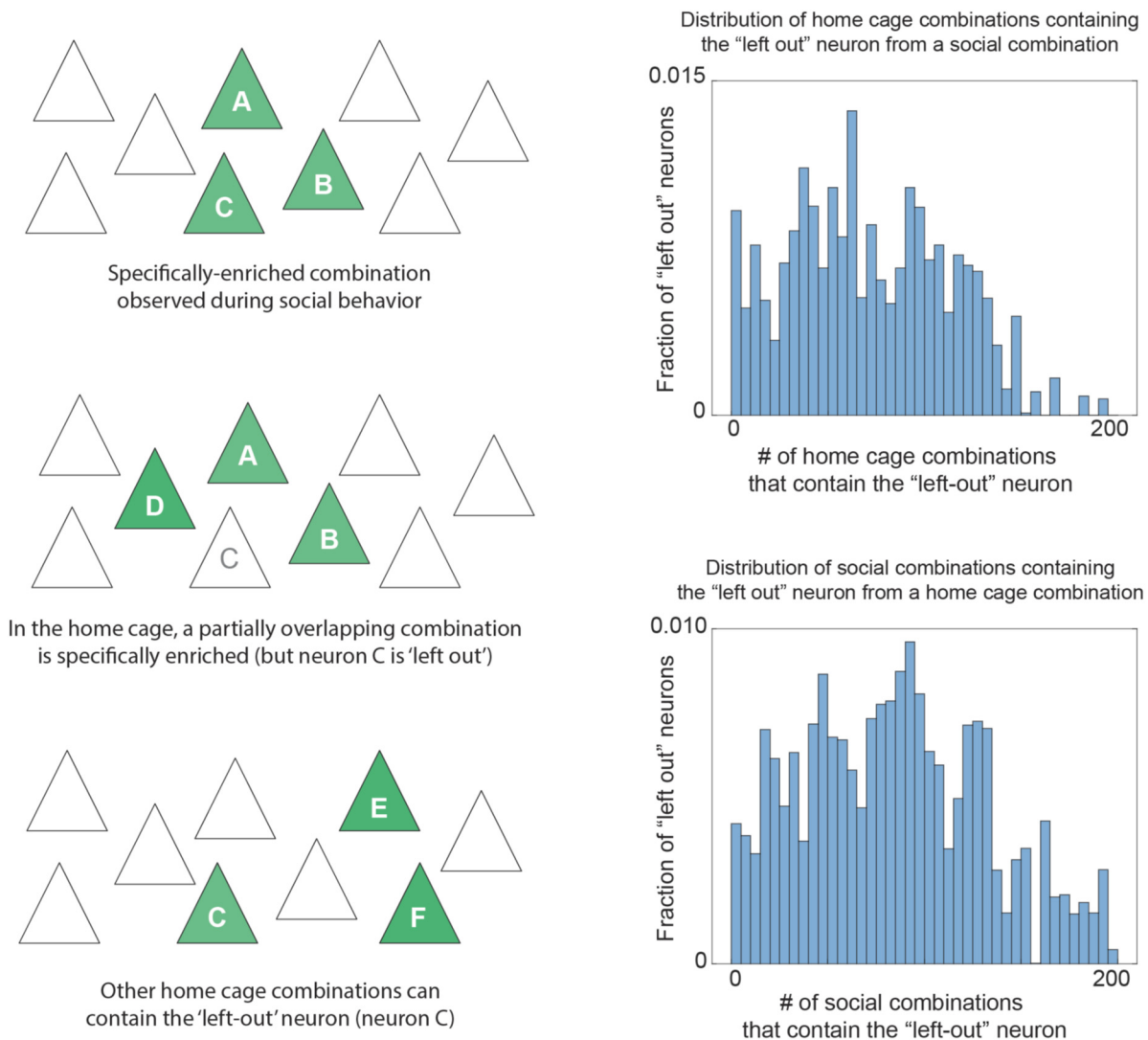


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**Figure 4. Correlations transmit additional information that is not efficiently conveyed by changes in activity levels alone.**

**A.** Cartoon illustrating that information about behavior may be encoded through changes in activity levels, correlations between neurons, or both. When behavior modulates activity levels, correlations in two behavioral conditions may differ or be the same, and vice-versa.

- 885 **B.** To disentangle the roles of activity levels and correlations in transmitting information we  
886 used two different methods to create shuffled (surrogate) datasets which preserve changes in  
887 activity levels, but either do or do not preserve patterns of correlations. We made random,  
888 reciprocal swaps of activity between neurons to generate surrogate datasets which maintained  
889 network activity in each frame as well as the number of blocks of activity for each neuron.  
890 However, these datasets destroyed the correlation structure. In a second set of surrogate  
891 datasets we used SHARC to iteratively generate surrogates in which the correlation structure  
892 was also maintained.
- 893 **C.** To maintain dynamic changes in activity levels and correlations that are associated with the  
894 two behavioral conditions we swap-shuffled or performed SHARC separately for each  
895 behavioral epoch, then concatenated the 9 resulting surrogate subrasters to create each  
896 surrogate dataset.
- 897 **D.** We trained a classifier (with a connection probability = 0.3) on each real dataset, then tested  
898 that classifier on swap or SHARC-shuffled surrogate datasets generated from that real  
899 dataset. Accuracy was significantly higher for the SHARC-shuffled surrogates, which  
900 maintain the behaviorally-modulated correlations found in the original dataset (accuracy for  
901 SHARC shuffled surrogate datasets = 68 +/- 4%, classifier accuracy for swap shuffled  
902 surrogate datasets = 61 +/- 4%,  $p < 0.05$ , sign-rank test,  $n = 10$  mice).
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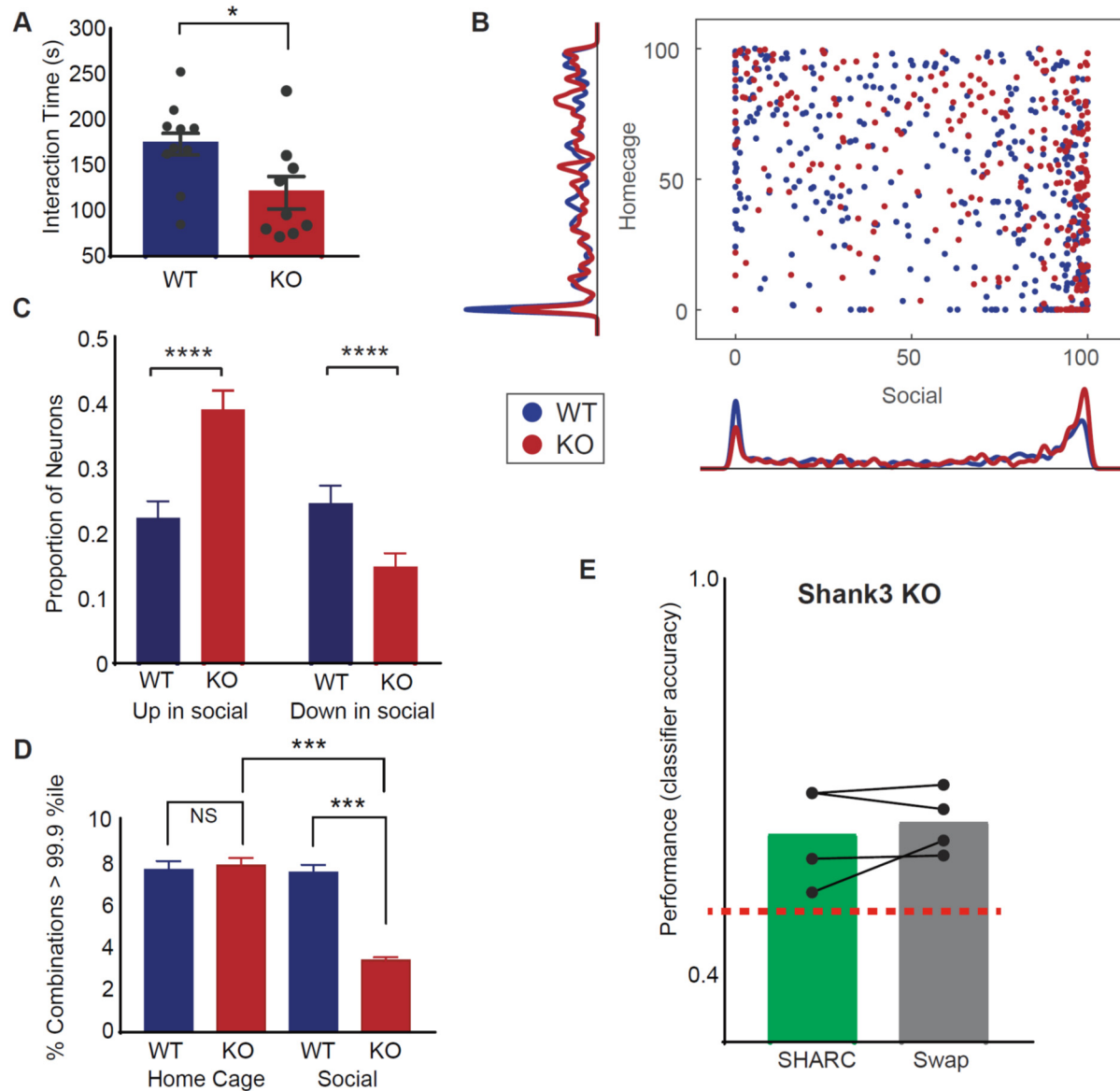
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905 **Figure 5. Behaviorally-specific patterns of coactivity are formed by neurons that are active**  
 906 **in both conditions, but coactive with different partners in each condition.**

907 **Left:** We identified combinations of 3 neurons that are specifically enriched during one  
 908 behavioral condition (occurring more often during social interaction than in 95% of surrogate  
 909 datasets, and occurring less often during home cage exploration than in 50% of surrogate  
 910 datasets, or vice-versa). We then identified overlapping combinations occurring during the  
 911 opposite behavioral condition in which a single neuron was 'left out.' In other words, we  
 912 identified combinations from the two conditions that overlapped in exactly two neurons.

913 **Right, top:** Histogram showing the number of distinct 3 neuron home cage combinations that  
 914 contain the neuron which participates in a social combination but is 'left out' during home cage  
 915 behavior. **Right, bottom:** Histogram showing the number of distinct 3 neuron social  
 916 combinations that contain the neuron which participates in a home cage combination but is 'left

917 out' during social interaction. In the vast majority of cases, neurons that are 'left out' in one  
918 condition are still active during that condition and participate in other combinations.  
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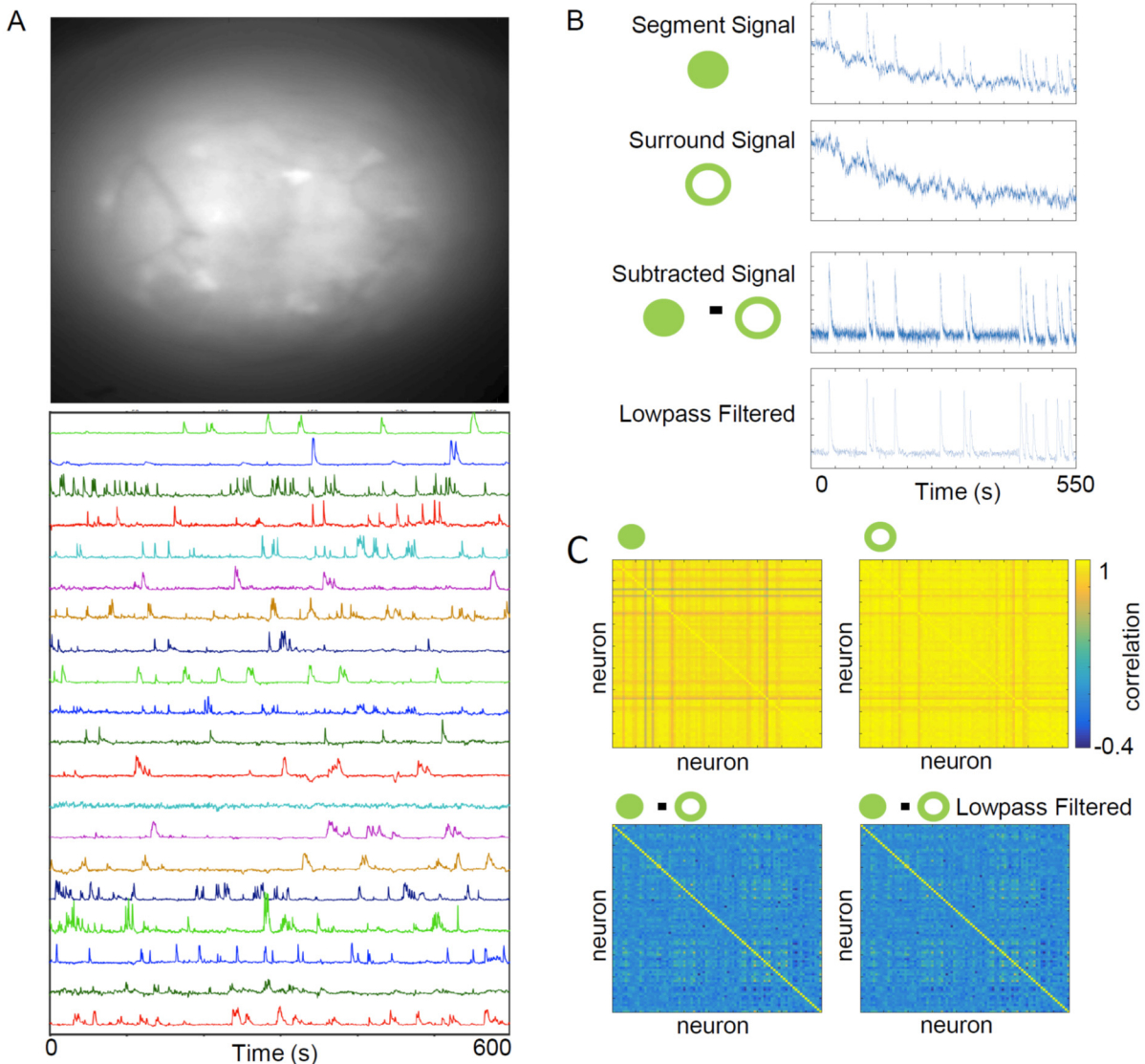
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**Figure 6. Shank3 KO mice have disorganized ensembles for which correlations fail to enhance the transmission of information about social behavior.**

**A.** The mean time that *Shank3* KO mice or wild-type (WT) littermates spend interacting with a novel juvenile mouse of the same sex during a 5 min assay. Data has been pooled from 8 unimplanted WT mice as well as the 5 implanted WT mice used for microendoscopic imaging, and 5 unimplanted KO mice in addition to the 4 implanted mice used for imaging. For implanted mice we used the average of interaction time for the 2 novel mice. Pooled data showed decreased interaction in KO mice (173 +/- 12 s vs. 120 +/- 18 s for WT and KO respectively,  $p < 0.05$ , t-test). The un-implanted cohort alone shows a similar significant decrease in interaction time for KO mice (165 +/- 15 s vs 110 +/- 16 s for WT and KO respectively,  $p < 0.05$ ). In the implanted cohort there was a similar trend toward decreased



- 933 interaction for KO mice (186 +/- 20 s vs 133 +/- 37 s, for WT and KO respectively,  $p =$   
934 0.21).
- 935 **B.** (Similar to Fig. 1D). Scatter-plot showing the activity of each neuron during each behavioral  
936 condition, expressed as a percentile relative to a null distribution generated by circularly  
937 shuffling that neuron's activity. Activity levels during social interaction or while the mouse  
938 was alone in its home cage are plotted on the x and y axis, respectively. Kernel density plots  
939 along the axes indicate the fraction of neurons whose activity was at a given percentile of the  
940 null distribution. Neurons with activity > 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of shuffled datasets (green dotted  
941 line) were considered to be positively modulated, whereas neurons with activity < 10<sup>th</sup>  
942 percentile (green dotted line) were considered to be negatively modulated during each  
943 behavior. Data is plotted for Shank3 KO mice (red) and WT littermates (blue) (mean  
944 percentile of activity during social interaction, WT: 50 +/- 2 percentile; KO: 64 +/- 2  
945 percentile;  $p < 0.0001$  by 2-sample *t*-test; mean percentile of activity during home cage, WT:  
946 47 +/- 2 percentile; KO: 51 +/- 2 percentile;  $p = 0.1$ , *t*-test).
- 947 **C.** Bar graph showing the fraction of neurons whose activity was positively or negatively  
948 modulated (>90<sup>th</sup> percentile or <10<sup>th</sup> percentile) during social interaction. The proportion of  
949 neurons which increased activity during social interaction was significantly greater in KO  
950 mice (22% in WT vs. 39% in KO, chi-squared = 17.7,  $p < 0.0001$ ), whereas the  
951 downregulated ensemble was significantly smaller in KO mice (25% in WT vs. 15% in KO,  
952 chi-squared test, 8.2,  $p < 0.005$ ). Error bars denote the binomial S.E.M. algebraically derived  
953 from total number of neurons and the proportion that were modulated in the specified  
954 direction.
- 955 **D.** The proportion of 3 neuron combinations occurring during home cage exploration that are  
956 enriched > the 99.9<sup>th</sup> percentile compared to swap-shuffled datasets was similar across WT  
957 (Blue; 7.6%) and KO (Red; 7.8%) mice. By contrast, the proportion of 3 neuron  
958 combinations occurring during social interaction that are enriched > 99.9<sup>th</sup> percentile  
959 compared to swap-shuffled datasets was 7.5% in WT compared to only 3.4% in KO mice  
960 (total number of home cage combinations: 4,187 in 5 WT mice, and 5,878 in 4 KO mice;  
961 total number of social combinations: 5,487 in 5 WT mice, 16,326 in 4 KO mice). The top  
962 two plots show histograms of enrichment for the home cage (upper) or social conditions  
963 (middle); the lower panel is a bar graph showing the fraction of these combinations that were  
964 specifically enriched above the 99.9<sup>th</sup> percentile (chi-squared = 165,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Error bars  
965 denote the S.E.M. algebraically derived from the binomial distribution, the number of 3  
966 neuron combinations in each condition, and the proportion of those combinations that were  
967 enriched.
- 968 **E.** Performance of classifier trained on real datasets and tested on surrogate datasets.  
969 Performance was not better (and was non-significantly worse) when correlation structure was  
970 maintained using SHARC (classifier accuracy: 62 +/- 4% for SHARC vs 63 +/- 2% for swap  
971 shuffled surrogate datasets,  $p = 0.47$ , sign-rank test).
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### Supplementary Figure 1. Spatial Decorrelation of Neuronal Signals.

976 **A.** Example image (top) and individual neuron GCaMP traces (bottom) from prefrontal cortex  
977 imaged with implanted endoscope.

978 **B.** The average GCaMP signal from a region of interest (ROI), corresponding to one neuron, was  
979 corrected by subtracting the average GCaMP signal from the surrounding pixels, in order to  
980 spatially deconvolve signals from each ROI vs. the surrounding neuropil. Examples traces from a  
981 single neuron are shown.

982 **C.** The pairwise correlation matrix between signals from different neurons is shown (calculated  
983 from 550 seconds of activity from a single wildtype mouse), for the original GCaMP signals (top  
984 left), the surround signals (top right), the surround-subtracted signals (bottom left), and the  
985 surround-subtracted signals after lowpass filtering (bottom right).