

# LinCoM: a graph theoretic approach for the production of Linear place fields in Complex Mazes

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## Abstract

Studies on spatial coding and episodic memory typically involve recordings of hippocampal place cell activity while rodents navigate in mazes. Linear place fields serve as reduced representations of the activity of place cells, revealing their spatial preference along the tracks of the maze. Sometimes, the experimental designs include complex mazes with irregular geometries and one or more decision points. Unfortunately, in such complex mazes, the production of linear place fields becomes a non-trivial problem. Here, I present a MATLAB toolbox which implements a graph-theoretic approach for the efficient production of linear place fields in a variety of complex mazes.

*Keywords:* rodent behavior, video-tracking, hippocampus, place cells, spiking activity, eccentricity

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## 1. Introduction

2 The role of hippocampus in navigation and episodic memory is a highly  
3 active research area [1]. The indispensable functional element that under-  
4 lies these cognitive functions is the hippocampal place cell. Place cells fire  
5 preferentially at specific locations (i.e., place fields) while an animal moves  
6 in space, thus providing spatial coding [2]. Place fields were first reported  
7 in an open field area but similar place fields have been recorded on narrow  
8 tracks and mazes [3]. Place fields on tracks exhibit directionality; that is,  
9 they change depending on the direction of movement along the track [4].

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10 Place cells also encode for the intended destination and learned route when  
11 the animal has multiple options in a maze [5, 6].

## 12 **2. Problem and Background**

13 Place cell activity and the video-tracked trajectory of the animal on tracks  
14 and mazes are routinely analyzed in tandem for the production of place  
15 fields. Subsequent analysis, such as measuring place field size or constructing  
16 place cell sequences, relies on the linearization (i.e., transforming the 2D  
17 representation to 1D) of the place fields [7, 8]. While linearization is trivial  
18 for single linear tracks, it is not trivial in mazes; especially in complex mazes  
19 with one or more decision points [9]. A general solution for the production  
20 of linear place fields in complex mazes is still missing from the open science  
21 toolbox.

22 The research community would benefit from an algorithm able to effi-  
23 ciently analyze the animal’s trajectory and the place cell activity in order  
24 to produce linear representations of each cell’s activity along the different  
25 end-to-end paths in a maze (end being a point in a maze where the animal  
26 needs to turn back). Notice that the cells’ activity need to be analyzed sep-  
27 arately for each end-to-end path (see [5, 6] and illustrative example in Fig.  
28 1). Ideally, the algorithm would be applicable to a variety of mazes made up  
29 of interconnected linear tracks. Thus, the problem at hand is, first, to detect  
30 individual end-to-end runs (or traversals) in a maze of arbitrary shape, sec-  
31 ond, to cluster the runs in a path-specific way and, third, to represent the  
32 activity of the recorded place cells along the different paths of the maze, that  
33 is, to produce a linear place field for each path.

34 Here I present a largely autonomous algorithm and its implementation in  
35 MATLAB (LinCoM) for a graph theoretic solution of the problem applicable  
36 to a diverse class of user-defined mazes, as opposed to software that are  
37 designed for specific mazes (e.g., for W maze, see [https://github.com/Eden-  
38 Kramer-Lab/MoG\\_tools](https://github.com/Eden-Kramer-Lab/MoG_tools)). The mazes can have one or more decision points  
39 with each one providing two or more alternative paths for the animal to  
40 follow. However, the mazes cannot have any cycles; that is, all the branches  
41 of the maze must have an end.

## 42 **3. Software Framework**

### 43 *3.1. Software Architecture*

44 The software solves the problem by analyzing three types of input data:  
45 an image of the maze, the video-tracking data, and the spike-times of one  
46 or more cells. The software analyzes the input following the workflow shown  
47 in Fig. 2 and outputs the linear place fields for each cell. The image of the  
48 maze is only used to create the graph representation of the maze. Using  
49 this maze-graph as a reference, the continuous trajectory of the animal (i.e.,  
50 video-tracking data) is transformed into a discrete trajectory, that is, its  
51 trajectory in the maze-graph. Then, the software autonomously detects the  
52 runs in the discrete trajectory and clusters them in path-specific clusters.  
53 Finally, the spike-times are analyzed in conjunction with the clustered runs  
54 in order to produce the linear place fields for each cell.

### 55 *3.2. Software Functionality*

56 The software prompts the user to provide all the necessary inputs from  
57 the beginning of the process. The software accepts a variety of image and  
58 video formats for acquiring an image of the maze. The animal's trajectory  
59 is expected as a  $T \times 2$  matrix with the  $(x, y)$  coordinates of the animal for  
60 each one of the  $T$  time-points. The user also needs to provide an  $N \times 1$  cell  
61 array containing the spike-times for each one of the  $N$  place cells.

62 The software makes use of interactive features of MATLAB plots to collect  
63 some additional user input for the creation of the graph representing the  
64 maze. Typical mazes without cycles or open fields, such as T-maze and  
65 radial maze, are all supported (see schematics in Supplementary Fig. S1).  
66 The software autonomously analyzes the data and outputs a  $K \times N$  cell  
67 array containing the  $K$  place fields of the detected paths for each one of the  
68  $N$  place cells.

## 69 **4. Implementation**

### 70 *4.1. Creation of a spatially embedded graph*

71 The software prompts the user to draw a preliminary graph on top of  
72 the image of the maze using interconnected line segments (see example in  
73 Supplementary Fig. S2). The line segments are then subdivided into in-  
74 terconnected spatial bins, thus forming a spatially embedded graph  $G$  (see

75 Fig. 3). The degree of edge subdivision dictates the spatial resolution of the  
76 resulting linear place fields and it is set by the user.

77 The spatially embedded graph  $G = \{V, E, P\}$  is defined by an ordered  
78 set of  $N$  nodes  $V = \{v_i : i = 1 \dots N\}$ , a set of edges,  $E$ , and an ordered set  
79 of the nodes' positions in the 2-dimensional space  $P = \{p_i : i = 1 \dots N\}$ .  
80 Note that  $G$  is considered to be acyclic and undirected (i.e., a tree in graph  
81 theoretic terms), thus the edges have no directionality and there is only one  
82 path connecting each pair of nodes. An adjacency matrix  $A$  is computed from  
83  $E$ , where the binary value  $A_{ij}$  indicates whether nodes  $i$  and  $j$  are connected.  
84 The ordering of the nodes in  $V$  is such that for each node  $j > 2$  there is exactly  
85 one node  $i < j$  for which  $A_{ij} = 1$ . Given this limitation, the distance matrix  
86  $D$  is calculated by the dynamic programming algorithm in Supplementary  
87 Algorithm S1. The value  $D_{ij}$  indicates the graph-theoretic distance between  
88 nodes  $i$  and  $j$ . The ordered set of eccentricity values  $U = \{u_i : i = 1 \dots N\}$   
89 is calculated directly from  $D$  as the maximum values of its rows, that is, the  
90 maximum distance of each node from the rest of the graph. The set  $Q$  of all  
91 end-nodes in the graph is also automatically defined.

92 Graph  $G$  is supplemented by the user-defined commitment map  $C$ . The  
93 software prompts the user to select interactively a commitment subgraph for  
94 each end-node in the maze. During the run detection stage, whenever the  
95 trajectory enters a commitment subgraph, the animal is considered to have  
96 committed to the corresponding end (see Fig. 4 for an example).

#### 97 *4.2. Discretization of trajectory*

98 In this stage, the continuous trajectory  $\{X, Y\}$  is transformed into the  
99 discrete trajectory  $Z$  which is a sequence of graph nodes  $z_1, z_2, \dots$ . For each  
100 time-point, the  $(x, y)$  position of the animal is projected to the nearest node  
101 in the graph. The connectivity of the graph is considered during this process  
102 such that the projection at time  $t_i$  will need to be close, in graph-theoretic  
103 terms, to the projection at time  $t_{i-1}$  (see Supplementary Algorithm S3).

#### 104 *4.3. Run detection*

105 The algorithm detects individual runs in the maze by using the trajectory  
106 eccentricity as a heuristic. It takes advantage of the fact that every time the  
107 animal reaches an end in the maze and turns back, the eccentricity of the  
108 discrete trajectory  $Z$  has a local maximum.

109 First, the discrete trajectory  $Z$  is reduced in time, resulting in  $\hat{Z}$ , such that  
110 there are no consecutive appearances of the same node (i.e.,  $\hat{z}_i \neq \hat{z}_{i-1}$ ). This

111 reduction removes redundant information and simplifies the detection of local  
112 maxima. The resulting  $\hat{Z}$  is then expressed in terms of eccentricity producing  
113 the trajectory eccentricity  $S$ . Then, the algorithm finds the local maxima  
114 in  $S$  and saves them in an ordered set  $M$ , which also stores information  
115 about the corresponding node  $v$  and the corresponding index in  $\hat{Z}$ . Then the  
116 commitment map  $C : V \rightarrow Q \cup \{\square\}$ , where  $\square$  is a null character, is applied to  
117  $M$  so that the nodes that are in a commitment subgraph are mapped to their  
118 respective end  $q$ , while the rest are mapped to  $\square$  and removed from the set  
119  $M$ . Then the algorithm finds all the consecutive pairs of the same end in  $M$   
120 and, if they are close enough, it removes the one that is less eccentric. Two  
121 local maxima are considered to be close enough based on a leeway parameter  
122  $L$  that allows for a negligible back-stepping of the animal while traveling  
123 from one end to another. Finally, the algorithm removes redundant entries  
124 in  $M$  and detects individual runs as subsequences of  $\hat{Z}$  for every consecutive  
125 pair of different ends remaining in  $M$  (see Algorithm 1 and its graphical  
126 representation in Supplementary Fig. S3).

#### 127 *4.4. Clustering the detected runs*

128 At this stage the algorithm clusters the individual runs in path-specific  
129 clusters: one cluster for each unique traverse from one end to another. The  
130 user is able to label these clusters with meaningful names relevant to the  
131 experimental design (e.g., left-forward, right-backward).

#### 132 *4.5. Production of the linear place fields*

133 At the final stage, the software brings together the clusters of detected  
134 runs and the spike-times provided by the user. It computes the linear place  
135 fields for each cluster and for each place cell. This computation involves the  
136 calculation of the time spent (occupation time) and the number of spikes  
137 recorded in each spatial bin. The cluster-specific firing rate for each spatial  
138 bin is calculated in spikes per second and the linear place field of each cluster  
139 is formed by the ordered concatenation of these firing rates (ordered from  
140 beginning to end of the corresponding path).

## 141 **5. Illustrative Example**

142 This illustrative example demonstrates the major functions of the soft-  
143 ware by using a ground truth dataset. This dataset represents a hypothetical

144 scenario where the animal moves in a Y maze (see Fig. 5A). The hypothet-  
145 ical animal executes three times the following sequence of runs: *A* to *C*, *C*  
146 to *A*, *A* to *D*, and *D* to *A*. The ground truth data also include spike-times  
147 for a single cell with place fields similar to the ones shown in Fig. 1.

148 Figure 5A and B provide a visualization of the three input elements:  
149 image of the maze, continuous trajectory, and spike-times. After drawing  
150 a preliminary graph and setting the size of the spatial bins, the software  
151 produced the graph shown in Fig. 5C. Notice that the visualization of the  
152 graph includes the node numbers at the three ends. Those numbers appear  
153 again in the presentation of the detected runs shown in Fig. 5D. Finally  
154 the software produced and presented the linear place fields. Two of them,  
155 labeled *AC* and *AD*, are shown in 5E. Notice that the place fields look as  
156 expected, since the ground truth dataset was designed to follow the example  
157 in Fig. 1.

## 158 6. Conclusions

159 LinCoM addresses a problem which increasing number of researchers face  
160 in the field of spatial coding in mazes. It provides a general solution for  
161 the efficient production of linear place fields in complex mazes with irregular  
162 shapes or decision points, thus enabling further quantitative analysis of the  
163 place fields and the construction of place cell sequences. Despite the gen-  
164 erality of the solution, as it is, the graph-theoretic approach presented here  
165 is applicable only to mazes without cycles. The software can potentially be  
166 expanded to support mazes with cycles (e.g., 8-figure maze) by using directed  
167 graphs as an alternative representation of the maze.

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172 7000, Fax 508-647-7001, info@mathworks.com, www.mathworks.com.

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**Algorithm 1** Run Detection

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**Require:** discrete trajectory  $Z$ , node eccentricity  $U$ , leeway parameter  $L$ , commitment map  $C$

- 1:  $\hat{Z} \leftarrow \text{reduce}(Z)$ , such that  $\hat{z}_i \neq \hat{z}_{i-1}$
- 2:  $S \leftarrow U(\hat{Z})$ , produce the trajectory eccentricity
- 3:  $M \leftarrow \text{localMax}(S)$ , ordered set of nodes with local maxima in  $S$
- 4:  $M \leftarrow C(M)$ , map to the committed ends
- 5: **for all** consecutive pairs of the same entry in  $M$ ,  $M_i = M_{i+1}$  **do**
- 6:   let  $j$  and  $k$  (where  $j < k$ ) be the indices in  $S$  at which  $M_i$  and  $M_{i+1}$  occur, respectively.
- 7:   **if**  $S_j \neq S_k \wedge \min(\{S_j, S_k\}) - \min(\{S_j, S_{j+1}, \dots, S_k\}) < L$  **then**
- 8:     remove the entry,  $M_i$  or  $M_{i+1}$ , with the lowest eccentricity
- 9:   **end if**
- 10: **end for**
- 11: **for all** consecutive triplets of same entry in  $M$ ,  $M_i = M_{i+1} = M_{i+2}$  **do**
- 12:   remove entry  $M_{i+1}$  from  $M$
- 13: **end for**
- 14: **for all** consecutive pairs of different entries in  $M$ ,  $M_i \neq M_{i+1}$  **do**
- 15:   save the subsequence of  $\hat{Z}$  beginning from  $M_i$  and finishing at  $M_{i+1}$  as a detected run
- 16: **end for**

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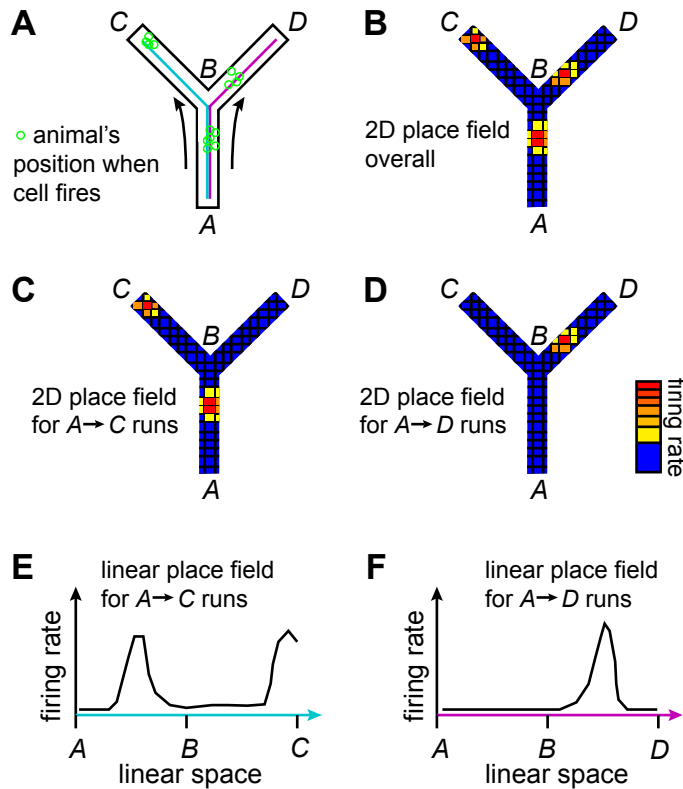


Figure 1: **Illustration of the problem and the difference between 2D and 1D (linear) place fields.** (A) A rodent moves in a Y maze with one decision point (point B) while a single place cell in hippocampus is being recorded. Starting from point A, the animal has the option to follow either the blue path,  $A \rightarrow C$ , or the purple path,  $A \rightarrow D$ . (B) Overall spiking activity of the cell represented in a 2D firing rate map after multiple  $A \rightarrow C$  and  $A \rightarrow D$  runs. (C-D) Path specific 2D representations of the activity during  $A \rightarrow C$  and  $A \rightarrow D$  runs. Notice that the cell fires somewhere between A and B only when the destination is C (indicative of the behavioral goal of the animal [5]). (E-F) After separating the activity between the two paths, linear representations of the cell's activity are more suitable for subsequent analysis (e.g., construction of place cell sequences [8]).

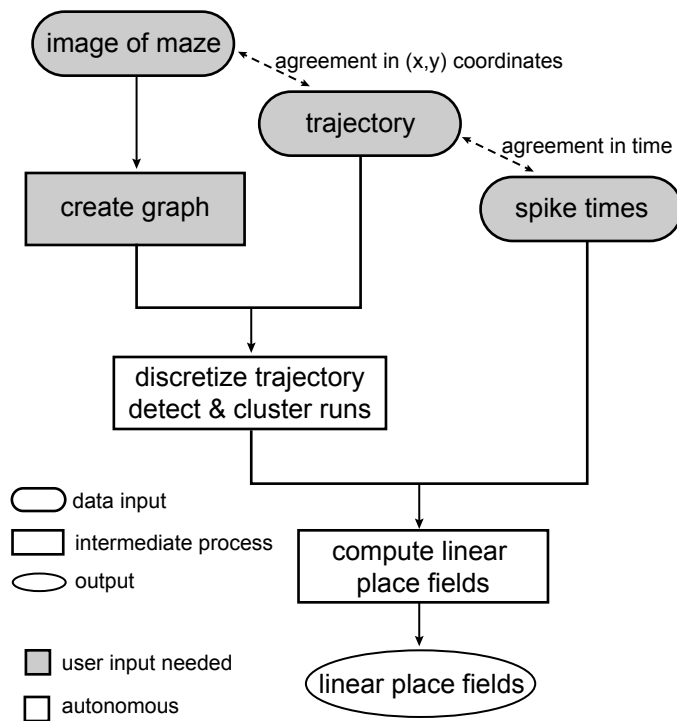


Figure 2: **Framework of the software.** The framework shows that user involvement is needed only in the initial stages of the whole process while the rest is autonomous. Spatial and temporal relationships between the input elements are indicated with dashed lines. The image of the maze and the trajectory of the animal should refer to the same  $(x, y)$  plane. Ideally, the image should be taken from the same video that produced the video-tracked trajectory. In addition, the spike-times and the trajectory must be in temporal agreement (i.e., based on the same clock during data collection).

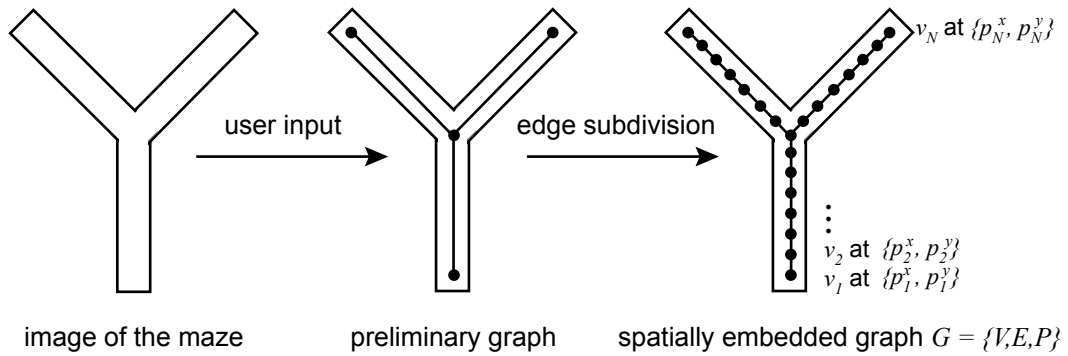


Figure 3: **Creation of the spatially embedded graph representing the maze.** After a preliminary graph is drawn by the user, the software asks the user for the desired size of the spatial bins and finally creates a spatially embedded graph that represents the maze.

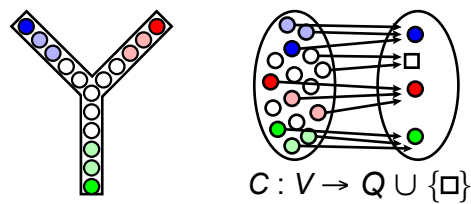


Figure 4: **Example of a user-defined commitment map  $C$ .** All nodes in the maze,  $v_i$ , are mapped either to an end-node,  $q_i$ , or to a null character.

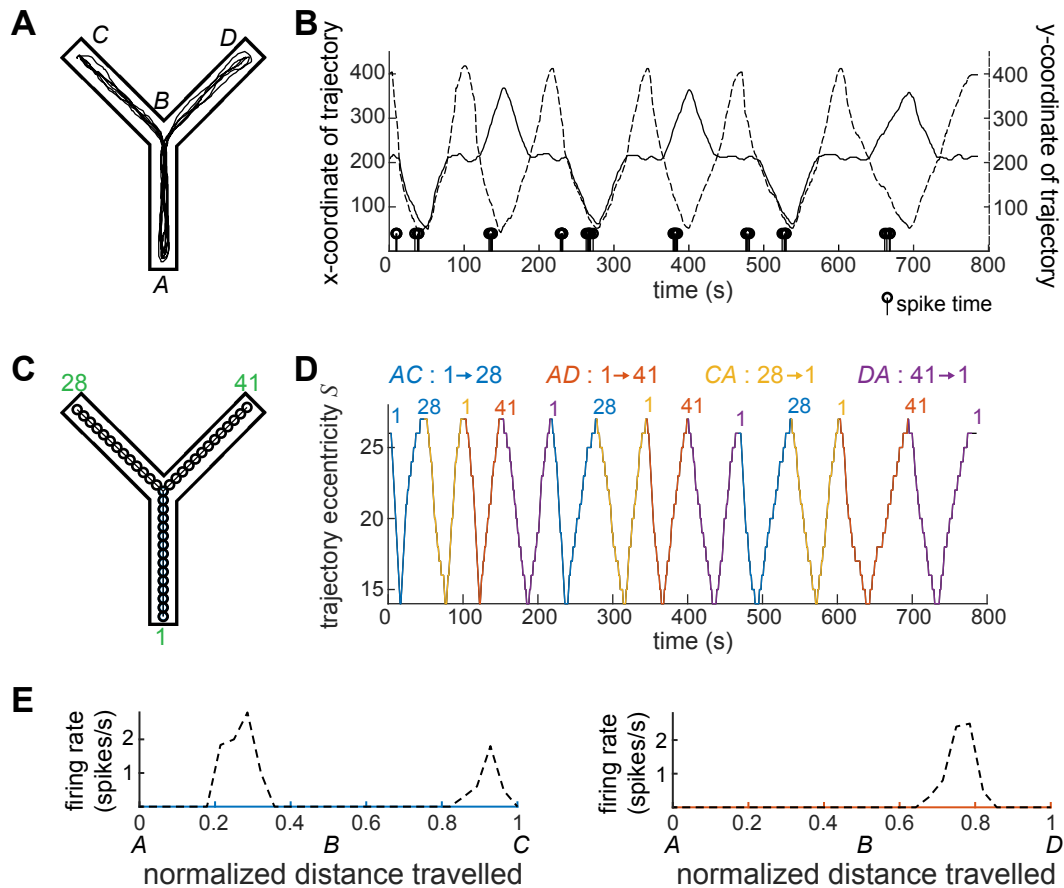


Figure 5: **Illustrative example using ground truth data.** It demonstrates the most important stages of the process and how the software presents the intermediate and final results. The software: (A-B) accepts a set of raw data; (C) creates and presents the graph; (D) detects, clusters, and presents the runs in time; and finally, (E) produces and presents the place fields for each individual path.

<b>Nr.</b>	<b>Code metadata description</b>	<b>Please fill in this column</b>
C1	Current code version	v1.2
C2	Permanent link to code/repository used of this code version	<a href="https://github.com/cpapasavvas/LinCoM">github.com/cpapasavvas/LinCoM</a>
C3	Legal Code License	MIT
C4	Code versioning system used	git
C5	Software code languages, tools, and services used	MATLAB 2017b
C6	Compilation requirements, operating environments & dependencies	Signal Processing Toolbox, Image Processing Toolbox, Statistics and Machine Learning Toolbox
C7	If available Link to developer documentation/manual	<a href="https://github.com/cpapasavvas/LinCoM/blob/master/README">github.com/cpapasavvas/LinCoM/blob/master/README</a>
C8	Support email for questions	<a href="mailto:christoforos.papasavvas@ncl.ac.uk">christoforos.papasavvas@ncl.ac.uk</a>

Table 1: Code metadata