Title: Average miniature post-synaptic potential size is inversely proportional to membrane

capacitance across neocortical pyramidal neurons of different sizes

Author Names and Affiliations: Martynas Dervinis[1], Guy Major[1]

[1]: Cardiff University, Cardiff, Wales, CF10 3AT, UK

Corresponding author email address: martynas.dervinis@gmail.com

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Abstract

In chemical synapses of the central nervous system (CNS), information is transmitted via the presynaptic release of a vesicle (or 'quantum') of neurotransmitter, which elicits a postsynaptic electrical response with an amplitude termed the 'quantal size'. Measuring amplitudes of miniature postsynaptic currents (mPSCs) or potentials (mPSPs) at the cell soma is generally thought to offer a technically straightforward way to estimate quantal sizes, as each of these miniature responses (or minis) is generally thought to be elicited by the spontaneous release of a single neurotransmitter vesicle. However, in large highly-branched neurons, a somatically recorded mini is typically massively attenuated compared with at its input site, and a significant fraction are indistinguishable from (or cancelled out by) background noise fluctuations. Here, using a new software package (also) called 'minis', we describe a novel quantal analysis method that estimates the 'electrical size' of the synapse by comparing events detected in somatic recordings from the same neuron of (a) *real* minis and (b) background noise (with minis blocked pharmacologically) with *simulated* minis added by a genetic algorithm. The estimated minis' distributions reveal a striking inverse dependence of mean excitatory mPSP amplitude on total cell membrane capacitance (proportional to cell size, or more exactly, extracellular membrane surface area) suggesting that, in rats at least, the average charge injected by single excitatory synapses (ca. 30 fC) is conserved across neocortical pyramidal neurons of very different sizes (across a more than three-fold range).

Abstract

Abbreviations

ABF – Axon Binary File

aCSF – artificial cerebrospinal fluid

AMPA – α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid

AMPAR – α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptor

ANN – artificial neural network

AP – action potential

CGP55845A – selective competitive antagonist of $GABA_B$ receptors (thus slow K^+ dependent IPSPs)

CPP – (*RS*)-3-(2-carboxypiperazin-4-yl)-propyl-1-phosphonic acid (potent selective competitive

glutamate NMDA receptor antagonist, thus depolarization-dependent, slow component of EPSPs)

EPSC – excitatory postsynaptic current

EPSP – excitatory postsynaptic potential

GA – genetic algorithm

GABA – gamma-aminobutyric acid (inhibitory neurotransmitter)

IC50 – concentration blocking half of the receptors

IPSC – inhibitory post-synaptic current

IPSP – inhibitory post-synaptic potential

MAD – maximum absolute deviation

mEPSC– miniature excitatory post-synaptic current

mEPSP– miniature excitatory post-synaptic potential

mIPSP– miniature inhibitory post-synaptic potential

mPSC – miniature post-synaptic current

mPSP – miniature post-synaptic potential

NBQX – 2,3-dioxo-6-nitro-1,2,3,4-tetrahydrobenzo[*f*]quinoxaline-7-sulfonamide (potent selective

competitive antagonist of AMPA (and kainate) glutamate receptors, thus fast component of EPSPs)

NMDA – N-methyl-D-aspartate

NMDAR - N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor

R_{ser} – series resistance

SAD – sum of absolute deviations

SD – standard deviation

smEPSP – simulated mEPSP

SSD – sum of signed deviations

SSE – sum of squared errors

TTX – tetrodotoxin (potent selective competitive antagonist of Na^+ channels, thus action potentials)

V_m – transmembrane potential

Introduction

Synaptic transmission in the CNS occurs in 'quanta' (Forti et al., 1997; Hardingham et al., 2010; Isaacson and Walmsley, 1995; Jonas et al., 1993; Kraszewski and Grantyn, 1992; Kullmann and Nicoll, 1992; Kuno, 1964; Larkman et al., 1991; Sahara and Takahashi, 2001; Stern et al., 1992; Wall and Usowicz, 1998), usually thought to each correspond (for the most part at least) to the release of a single neurotransmitter vesicle (Heuser et al., 1979). The amplitude of the postsynaptic response to a quantum of transmitter, the quantal size, is a key parameter defining the efficacy of synaptic transmission (Katz, 1969; Vere-Jones, 1966) and, therefore, an important determinant of neural computation. For example, how many synapses, on average, does it take to fire a cell?

Quantal size measurements in the CNS are difficult, due to multi-synaptic contacts (multiple synapses per connection between a particular pair of neurons, and multiple release sites/postsynaptic densities/receptor 'rafts' for some synapses), limited accessibility, significant quantal variance (both within and between synapses of a given connection), temporal non-stationarity of synaptic properties (e.g. receptor desensitisation or internalisation, and depletion of glutamate from presynaptic vesicles), and low signal-to-noise ratios of somatic electrophysiological recordings of quantal events (Bekkers, 1994; Farsi et al., 2021; Korn and Faber, 1991). For these reasons classical quantal analysis as done at the neuromuscular junction often runs into problems in central synapses, where most of the minis do not 'stand out' from the noise. More recent methods such as noise deconvolution, Variance-Mean analysis, and optical quantal analysis have not fared much better (Biró et al., 2005; Clamann et al., 1991; Clements, 2003; Clements and Silver, 2000; Edwards et al., 1976; Enoki et al., 2009; Jack et al., 1981; Liu et al., 2022; Oertner et al., 2002; Peled and Isacoff, 2011; Redman, 1990; Reid and Clements, 1999; Silver, 2003; Yuste et al., 1999), or suffer from potential selection biases (e.g. paired recordings typically require cells close together whose

synapses may be a non-representative sub-population, differing from the overall population of

synapses).

A complementary method of assessing synaptic function is to measure properties of mPSCs.

Miniature PSC amplitude measurements are often taken as quantal size estimates across the

population of active synapses onto a neuron, as the mPSC (under voltage clamp) or mPSP (under

voltage recording) likely corresponds (in most cases) to the response to a spontaneous release of a

single neurotransmitter vesicle (Brown et al., 1979; del Castillo and Katz, 1954; Fatt and Katz, 1952;

Isaacson and Walmsley, 1995; Wall and Usowicz, 1998) and, therefore, if performed accurately, can

be used as the basis for constructing a relatively straight-forward quantal analysis method (of the

population of synapses onto a given neuron). Measurements of mPSC amplitudes are routine in the

literature. However, they are likely overestimates due to small amplitude events being difficult to

detect and largely being missed or lost in the noise.

The use of voltage clamp can be a major reason why mPSCs 'go missing'. Theoretical studies (Jonas

et al., 1993; Major, 1993; Rall and Segev, 1985; Spruston et al., 1993) predicted, and experimental

findings (Williams and Mitchell, 2008) confirmed that somatic voltage clamp fails to space clamp

extended dendrites, and to capture all (or even most of) the current (thus charge) flowing in at

electrically remote synapses (which instead spreads out over the entire cell membrane capacitance).

Amplitude attenuation can also be caused if series resistance (R_{ser}) is not adequately compensated

(Major, 1993; Williams and Mitchell, 2008). These issues can be somewhat sidestepped by switching

to voltage recording, at the cost of (a little) more temporal integration by the membrane (thus

overlap between minis). Although some charge is inevitably going to escape by leaking across the

dendritic membrane no matter the recording method, charge escape through the relatively low

membrane conductance is a much slower process than charging of the neuronal membrane via the

far larger axial cytoplasmic conductance (Jonas et al., 1993; Major, 1993). In fact, it is so slow,

relatively, that just about all the synaptic current would be integrated onto the membrane

capacitance and, thus, most of the synaptic charge is 'captured' by the voltage recording (current

clamp), as the PSP peak amplitude, before then leaking out slowly via membrane ion channels.

However, during voltage *clamp*, most mPSCs go undetected because of the electrophysiology of the

neuron itself. Distal minis leak some charge via the dendritic membrane, but a far more significant

amplitude attenuation, 40-fold or more, is inflicted by charging the membrane capacitance of the

entire dendritic arbour (Larkum et al., 2009; Major et al., 2013; Nevian et al., 2007; Stuart and

Spruston, 1998; Williams and Mitchell, 2008; Williams and Stuart, 2002). Such amplitudes, at the

soma (approximately 80 µV, on average, but as small as 30 µV, in layer 5 pyramidal neurons under

current clamp (Nevian et al. 2007), detected via simultaneous dendritic whole-cell recordings) are

often indistinguishable from noise fluctuations. Recording from thin dendrites close to synaptic input

sites is technically extremely challenging – a tour de force beyond most labs. Therefore, a reliable

yet widely accessible quantal analysis method, based on standard somatic whole-cell patch

recording, would require taking account of the background noise in addition to measuring putative

mPSPs (or mPSCs).

Here we describe such a method, based on recording excitatory mPSPs (mEPSPs) in the presence of

background physiological noise ('noise with minis') then noise alone, from the same cell, after

blocking mEPSPs pharmacologically. To detect mEPSP-like events in these recordings, we used a

newly developed algorithm called 'minis' which is described in our companion article (Dervinis and

Major, 2024). Because of small potentials being 'overshadowed' by larger minis, either by

summating with them on rising phases, or having their amplitudes reduced on decaying phases

(analysed and discussed in detail in our companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024)), events

detected in the 'noise-alone' recording cannot be used to remove the noise component in the 'noise

with minis' recording simply by subtracting their two distributions. Instead, we adopted the

approach of using simulated minis, superimposing them on the 'noise-alone' recording and varying

their parameters until the amplitude and rise time distributions of events *detected* in the 'noise with

simulated minis' voltage trace closely matches those detected in the 'noise with real minis'

recording, with identical detection parameters. Therefore, we augmented our 'minis' software with

a genetic optimisation algorithm (GA) that automatically adjusts amplitudes, rise times and

frequencies (rates) of simulated minis until a statistically indistinguishable match is achieved. This

novel quantal analysis method produced an unbiased 'upper limit' average quantal mEPSP amplitude

for each neuron, which unexpectedly turned out to be inversely proportional to membrane

capacitance. This in turn allowed us to obtain a population 'average quantal charge' estimate for

excitatory neocortical synapses in the rat of approximately 31 pC. This was conserved across

pyramidal neurons of all sizes in (somatosensory) cortical layers 2/3 and 5, across a more than 3-fold

range. 'Minis' thus provides an experimentally straightforward 'quantal analysis' method (in the

broadest sense) for detecting mPSPs (or indeed mPSCs) in somatic recordings, and (in aggregate)

'separating' the smaller of these events from similar-sized background noise fluctuations.

Materials and Methods

Animals and electrophysiology

All experimental procedures were carried out in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific

Procedures) Act 1986. The full description is provided in our companion article (Dervinis and Major,

2024). Coronal somatosensory neocortical slices obtained from 19- to 27-day old Wistar rats

(RRID:RGD_13508588; n = 11) were used to obtain whole-cell voltage recordings (n = 14) of mEPSPs

in the background of physiological (and other) noise ('noise with minis' condition), by superfusing

artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) containing blockers of action potentials (APs) and inhibitory

postsynaptic potentials (IPSPs). Excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) blockers were then added

('noise-alone' condition, with all glutamatergic, GABAergic and AP-dependent synaptic potentials

blocked, i.e. the vast majority of fast synaptic inputs in the neocortex), and background noise traces

were recorded from each cell, while maintaining stability of the whole-cell recording (as judged by

numerous criteria, below).

Passive membrane time constant, total membrane capacitance, input resistance, and bridge balance

(R_{ser} compensation) error were estimated by injecting current pulses as described in (G. Major et al.,

1993).

Methodology

The goal of the study was to design an experimentally straightforward quantal analysis method

based on standard somatic recordings of minis, as opposed to far more challenging recordings from

sub-micron diameter input dendrites closer to (a few of) the synapses. Due to their low signal-to-

noise ratio, *simulated* minis were used to infer the signal (mEPSP) component and to eliminate (in

aggregate) the noise component in these recordings.

The experimental design of this study was similar to the one described in the preceding companion

article (Dervinis and Major, 2024). As described in the previous section, whole-cell recordings were

obtained where first mEPSPs were recorded in the background of physiological and other noise

followed by blocking EPSPs pharmacologically to record 'pure' noise in the absence of minis.

Simulated mEPSPs (smEPSPs) were then randomly added to the noise traces (Figure 1) and the

'minis' algorithm was applied to this 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace. The resulting

distribution of detected events (in terms of their amplitudes and 10-90% rise times) was compared

to the equivalent distribution based on the 'noise with real minis' recording, detected with the same

parameters (such as amplitude detection threshold, baseline duration and maximum rise time gap

till each peak). The discrepancy between the two distributions was used to inform the GA, which

would then adjust the distribution of smEPSPs and generate new 'noise with simulated minis'

voltage traces and compare them again to the equivalent distribution detected with the same

parameters from the 'noise with real minis' recording. This procedure was repeated multiple times

(of the order of tens to hundreds of generations with 260 examples per generation; 10 examples per

each parameter optimised by the GA) until the two distributions were closely matched, within the

bounds of chance statistical errors (details below). At the end of this process the minis distribution

used for simulating the closely matched recording was deemed to be the inference of the true minis

distribution underlying the 'noise with real minis' recording (or at least compatible with it).

Detection of miniature postsynaptic potentials

Detection of real and simulated mEPSPs was carried out using our 'minis' software. The detailed

description of this detection algorithm is provided in the companion article (Dervinis and Major,

2024). We used the same detection algorithm parameters as described in that article except for the

amplitude range, which was set to 0.02-10 mV.

Selection of recordings for fitting distributions of detected real minis-like events

Prior to carrying out any estimation of the distribution of minis, segments of 'noise with real minis'

and 'noise-alone' recordings were carefully selected. Segments containing unusual amount of noise

or V_m glitches were rejected. Parts of recording showing instability or drift of recording parameters

(or excessive movement of the recording pipette relative to the soma) were also rejected, to ensure

that only good quality data were used. Data analysis performed at this preprocessing/selection stage

were built into our 'minis' software.

As part of the preprocessing stage, 'minis' produced seven graphs showing the evolution of various

recording parameters across the entire duration of a single recording. An example (from the longest

recording obtained) is provided in Figure 2, showing these graphs as individual panels. Figure 2A

shows the evolution of V_m from the very beginning of the recording obtained in the regular aCSF

with APs present (in this case) to the very end of the recording, where APs, mIPSPs and mEPSPs were

all blocked for some time ('noise-alone'). The data is shown after removing V_m segments containing

responses to regularly injected current pulses and has a total duration of 8520 s. Throughout the

entirety of this recording the baseline V_m varied between −70 and −67 mV and, thus remained

relatively stable.

There are three time markers that extend across all figure panels marking the time when the aSCF

containing TTX, gabazine, and CGP55845A was infused to block APs and IPSPs (the first marker), the

time when APs were observed to cease (the second marker), and the time when the aCSF containing

NBQX and CPP was infused to block remaining EPSPs (the third marker). The recording segment

between the second and the third markers constituted the 'noise with minis' recording, while the

segment following the third marker *after* mEPSPs were eventually blocked constituted the 'noise-

alone' recording. The darker yellow shaded regions that also extend across all panels of Figure 2

mark files (epochs) that were selected for subsequent minis distribution fitting.

The remaining panels of Figure 2 were used to guide data selection. The standard deviation (SD) of

the V_m (Figure 2B) was useful in determining the transitions between different pharmacological

conditions. Stable prolonged decreases in SD reliably indicated when APs or minis were effectively

blocked. Sudden brief increases in SD flagged problematic recording segments containing higher

levels of noise or V_m glitches. Gradual increases in SD suggested gradual deterioration of recording

quality.

Similar information was also provided by the evolution of the biggest 10% of amplitudes of all

detected minis-like events in a single sweep (Figure 2C). Prolonged drop in the amplitudes marked

transitions between recording conditions, while sudden jumps were indicative of V_m instabilities.

Finally, effective decay time constants of biggest 10% of detected events (Figure 2D) could be used

as an indicator for the presence/absence of minis. Blocking minis resulted in time constants

becoming large and fluctuating unstably, indicating that only noise fluctuations were being detected

that did not possess the typical decay dynamics common to EPSPs.

Further insights into the recording quality over time were provided by V_m responses to brief current

pulses. Passive membrane time constant measurements over time (Figure 2E) were expected to

remain stable. Deviations from this could signal a change in passive membrane properties due to

degradation in the recording quality. Total membrane capacitance (Figure 2F) was also expected to

be stable over time. Change in the capacitance could indicate membrane tearing, patch-resealing or

pipette movement or clogging, loss of membrane or part of the cell or some substantial uncontrolled

destabilisation of the recording. Finally, change in input resistance (detected from a change in the

bridge balance error; Figure 2G) was not permitted to exceed the balance error estimated offline at

the beginning of the recorded data by more than two-fold. Violation of this rule of thumb indicated a

deterioration in the recording quality potentially resulting from debris accumulating in the recording

pipette, movement of the pipette tip or the recorded cell body, partial formation of a membrane

'tube' (similar to what would happen in the process of producing an outside-out patch by slowly

retracting the pipette), or other reasons.

We obtained the seven longitudinal recording state/quality indicators described above for all our

recordings. Multi-panelled graphs showing these indicators for each individual recording separately

are provided in Supplementary Figures 1-13.

Simulations

Simulating distributions of miniature excitatory postsynaptic potentials with a range of amplitudes

and rise times

All simulations were carried out using our 'minis' software, developed in Matlab (Mathworks;

RRID:SCR_001622), and performed on the Cardiff School of Biosciences' Biocomputing Hub

HPC/Cloud infrastructure. Simulation of minis-like events was based on an analytical solution to the

passive cable equation for a transient current (Rall, 1977) using 100 lumped terms with a double

exponential synaptic current with τ_1= 0.15-3 ms (optimised in each instance/iteration) and τ_2 = 2 ms

(G. Major et al., 1993). The detailed description of how arbitrary shape PSPs were obtained is

provided in our companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024).

A pool of simulated events was generated combining four bivariate (two-dimensional: amplitude

and 10-90% rise time) normal distributions. Six parameters described each distribution: amplitude

mean μ_X and standard deviation σ_X, 10-90% rise time mean μ_Y and standard deviation σ_Y, a

correlation (or rotation) factor ρ, and a (relative frequency or number) scale factor n:

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$$f(x,y) = \frac{n}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}\left(\left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)^2 - 2\rho\left(\frac{x-\mu_X}{\sigma_X}\right)\left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right) + \left(\frac{y-\mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}\right)^2\right)}.$$

All distribution parameters were controlled by the GA.

Fitting distributions of detected real mini-like events

The Matlab ga() function was used to control 24 parameters describing Four (rotated) bivariate

normal distributions (6 parameters per distribution). Additional controlled parameters were the

synaptic rise time constant τ_1 which ranged between 0.15 and 3 ms and the passive membrane time

constant τ_m. The range for the latter constant was taken to be between 0.9 times and 1.1 times the

initial estimate based on the averaged waveform of all minis-like events detected in the 'noise with

real minis' recording. Thus, there were 26 parameters in total, controlled by the GA.

The GA would start by generating multiple distributions of simulated minis or smEPSPs (i.e.

'individuals'; we used 260 individuals per 'generation' with 10 individuals per parameter optimised

by the GA; see a single run structure in Figure3A). Events would be drawn pseudo-randomly from a

distribution and then simulated events of the chosen shapes (in terms of amplitude and 10-90% rise

time) would be added to the 'noise-alone' recording at times that were also chosen pseudo-

randomly (Figure 1). For generating the initial set of individuals ('population'), the GA chose

parameters pseudo-randomly within prescribed ranges. For each of the four bivariate normal

distributions the parameter ranges were as follows: μ_X (-0.1-1 mV), σ_X (0.01-1 mV), μ_Y (-1-10 ms), σ_Y

(0.25-10 ms), ρ (-1 to 1), and n (0-10,000 for the first distribution and −10,000 to 10,000 for the

remaining three distributions; negative counts were used for 'sculpting' the base distribution). Any

negative count bins within the resulting final distribution were zeroed out. Any events with negative

rise times or amplitudes below the simulation threshold (varying non-negative value) were excluded.

Next, the GA assessed the 'fitness' of each individual in the generation by using the cost function

(explained in the next subsection). The top 5% of the most fit individuals survived to the next

generation without change, while individual 'crossover' ('recombination'), genetic migration, and

other GA parameters were set to default values of the Matlab ga() function. A new evolved

generation of individuals was then created, which then served as the basis for yet another

generation and so on. This process (a single run in Figure 3A) was repeated until an 'individual' was

created with the lowest cost (highest fitness value) possible, or there was no improvement in the

fitness for 100 consecutive generations, or the number of generations reached 1000 (Figure 3A).

In cases where the GA terminated without converging on the highest fitness value, the distribution

fitting procedure was reinitiated using the most fit individual as a seed (Runs 2 and 3 in Figure 3B).

The population genetic diversity was reset by setting the GA-controlled parameter ranges to ±25% of

the original ranges relative to the seed parameter values, to explore the space around the current

best seed values. The re-running of distribution fitting was repeated until the GA converged to an

'apparently fittest possible individual' (or the 'best fit possible/achievable'; defined in the next

subsection), or otherwise an 'acceptable' level of fitness was reached (also defined in the next

subsection), or there was no improvement in fitness compared to the previous run for two

consecutive runs while an 'acceptable' fit was not yet attained (Figures 3B and C). In the latter case,

the entire distribution fitting procedure was reinitiated starting with a high simulated amplitude

lower limit (e.g., 200 μV), with the limit being gradually lowered until the 'best possible' or

'acceptable' fit was attained (Figure 3D). This 'backwards' ('downwards') fitting procedure was

required for several recordings having a large mean amplitude which, when we started with a low

simulated amplitude lower limit, failed to converge to an acceptable fit.

If the most fit individual was within acceptable levels of fitness values, the lower threshold on

smEPSP amplitude was increased by 10 μV (Figures 3B and C) (or lowered during the 'backwards' i.e.

'downwards' fitting procedure if no 'acceptable' fit was obtained; Figure 3D) and the entire fitting

step was re-run. This was repeated until the GA stopped converging (or started converging during

the 'backwards'/'downwards' fitting procedure) on a solution with acceptable fitness values.

The reason for attempting to push up the lower limit of the amplitudes of the smEPSPs is that it

became obvious that GA-generated solutions were not unique. Given an acceptable fit, matching the

histograms of events detected from the 'noise with real minis' recording can generally be achieved

by using distributions with a larger number of smaller amplitude smEPSPs, which get 'lost' in the

noise or summate with other smEPSPs, although the distribution of bigger smEPSPs is more tightly

constrained. (Indeed, one can also often (but not always) achieve acceptable fits with *fewer* small

amplitude smEPSPs (Supplementary Figure 14)). There is a large number of such distributions with

ever-decreasing amplitudes of smEPSPs (in theory, all the way down to events resulting from brief

single AMPA receptor (AMPAR) or NMDA receptor (NMDAR) channel sub-conductance state

openings, injecting undetectably small amounts of charge – rare as these may be at ambient low

background glutamate concentrations (Trussell and Fischbach, 1989) and resting membrane

potential (Ascher and Nowak, 1988)). Therefore, the GA with the thresholding procedure described

above has no guaranteed way of arriving at the *true* distribution of minis, only at a distribution giving

an approximate *upper bound* on the *mean* (or median) mini amplitude – unless further biological

constraints or assumptions are imposed (e.g. about background/extra-synaptic AMPAR or NMDAR

channel activation or minimum numbers of glutamatergic ionotropic receptor channels per

synapse). However, this should not be confused with the inability to 'capture' all (or most of) the

postsynaptic charge, as is the case with the voltage clamp method of recording, applied to big,

electrically distributed (non-isopotential) cells. This is rather an empirical observation of the fact that

our method currently has a (poorly constrained) resolution limit on the lower end of the amplitude

distribution of estimated minis, which may be further addressed (constrained) in future iterations.

Cost function

The goal of the minis distribution fitting procedure was to match 'noise with simulated minis' and

'noise with real minis' recordings as closely as possible, in terms of the distribution of amplitudes

and 10-90% rise times of detected mini-like events in the two types of V_m recording traces

('simulated' vs. 'real' distributions), in the process 'cancelling out' any systematic errors in

amplitudes or shapes introduced by the detection algorithm or the summation or superposition of

events. This was achieved by minimising the cost function using the GA. The cost function was

composed of four types of components: *shape constraints* on the *simulated* minis distribution, *sums*

of *absolute* deviations (SADs) between 'simulated' and 'real' distributions, *sums* of *signed* deviations

(SSDs) between 'simulated' and 'real' distributions, and *maximal absolute* deviations (MADs)

between 'simulated' and 'real' distributions (Figures 4A and B). We avoided using the sum of

squared errors (SSE) because it is sensitive to outliers (giving them undue weight).

We calculated the typical ranges of SADs and MADs for each of the 14 recordings by taking the

individual 'noise with real minis' recording and dividing it into smaller files (range was 15-606 files),

each the duration of a single recording sweep (20 s, typically). Each file in this set was subjected to

the minis detection procedure resulting in a set of 'real' (detected mini-like events) distributions.

These were then subtracted from each other, in all pairwise combinations, and the corresponding

SAD (sum of absolute deviations) and MAD (maximum absolute deviation) scores were calculated for

each of the possible n*(n-1)/2 file pairings (range 105 to 183315, corresponding to 15 to 606

available files, respectively). Six SAD- and six MAD-based scores were calculated based on:

distributions of amplitudes of (1) *all* detected events, (2) the largest 50%, (3) the largest 10% and (4)

the largest 2% of detected events, (5) distribution of all 10-90% rise times, and (6) a joint amplitude

and 10-90% rise time distribution. Three different SSD (sum of signed deviations)-based scores were

calculated based on the amplitudes of (1) the largest 50%, (2) the largest 10%, and (3) the largest 2%

of detected events. These latter scores constrained high-amplitude (but low count) tails of

'simulated' distributions to have sufficient counts to avoid negative distribution deviations

('simulated' – 'real').

To ensure good fits to *all* portions of the histograms, and to prevent 'dilution' or 'swamping' effects

on the high amplitude (but low event frequency) tail by the low amplitude, high frequency 'hump',

the smallest 'global' percentile (same for every measure) was estimated, that guaranteed to include

half of all single-sweep file pairings (real vs. real data) with *all* their 15 respective SAD, MAD, and SSD

score values falling below this percentile threshold *simultaneously* ('15-score combined 50th centile';

Figure 5 and Tables 1 and 2). This centile estimate was used to determine cut-off values for all these

15 different scores, to construct the optimisation cost function. The 'global' centile value from single

sweep file comparisons was then used with SAD and MAD scores from longer files during the GA-

controlled fitting procedure (typically 5 recording sweep-long files to match the size of the 'noise-

alone' recording files, 100 s typically).

The cost function was constructed of 6 types of SAD scores and 6 types of MAD scores estimated

using the '15-score combined 50th centile' procedure and 3 types of SSD scores. These 15 scores

were used to evaluate how close the 'simulated' distribution was to the single selected 'real'

distribution that was deemed to be of the best quality by a human observer (Figures 4A and B).

Typically, it was a file close to the *end* of the 'noise with minis' recording epoch, therefore, being the

most similar file, in terms of recording quality parameters, to the 'noise-alone' recording epoch

(which was generally the *first* good-quality epoch safely *after* pharmacological blockade of

neurotransmission was deemed complete). An additional corresponding 15 'envelope deviation'

scores (same as SADs, MADs, and SSDs but comparing to the envelope or lower and upper range

limits of superimposed all available data distributions within that pharmacological epoch) were

calculated assessing how much each 'real' or 'simulated' distribution deviated from the full set

consisting of all the remaining 'real' distributions and the single 'simulated' distribution (Figures 4C

and D). The 'simulated' distribution was expected to have lower deviation scores than the worst

performing (most discrepant from the others) 'real' distribution (so the simulated distribution would

not be picked as the 'worst outlier' by a double-blind observer).

'Simulated' distributions were further penalised if their underlying source 'simulated minis'

distribution was non-unimodal, had a 10-90% rise time mean larger than 5 ms, or it violated a 10-

90% rise time skewness constraint that the mean 10-90% rise time of simulated minis should exceed

the median at least by a quarter of the standard deviation, as seen for the real minis (with noise)

distributions (range of 0.25 to 0.39 standard deviations). Finally, 'simulated' distributions were also

penalised if their underlying 'simulated minis' amplitude distribution had a sharp cliff at its lower

end. Hence, together with the four shape constraints there were 34 fitness components in total (15

+ 15 + 4 = 34).

If all SAD, MAD, SSD, deviation scores, and shape constraints for comparing the 'simulated'

distribution to the 'real' distributions were satisfied (≤ 15-score 50th centile SAD and MAD cutoff

values and ≥0 SSD values) at the end of the fitting procedure, the fit was deemed to be the 'best

possible' (a 'very good match', by all criteria). Alternatively, the fit could also be deemed 'acceptable'

if all amplitude SAD, MAD, and SSD scores, as well as the distribution unimodality constraint were

satisfied (excluding 10-90% rise time scores, all 'envelope deviation' scores, and the distribution

skewness and 'cliff' constraints). The 'best' and 'acceptable' fits comprised the set of 'good enough'

fits in terms of their GA-optimised 'fitness' which, however, did not guarantee a statistically

acceptable fitness.

Final test for distribution acceptance or rejection

The notion of a 'good enough' fit is somewhat arbitrary, so far. Once the fitting procedure was

completed, we set out to check whether the final fit was objectively acceptable using statistical

tests. We divided the full available length of the 'noise with real minis' recording condition (epoch)

into smaller files of the same length as the selected 'noise-alone' recording file and constructed a *set*

of (independent) 'real' ('noise with real minis') distributions (histograms) by running the 'minis'

detection algorithm on all these files (which we term the 'real distribution set'). We then compared

these individual 'real' distributions to each other, pairwise, by subtracting their marginal ('1-D')

amplitude and 10-90% rise time distributions from each other, taking the absolute value of the

differences, and summing over all bins (bin sizes of 10 μV and 0.5 ms; bin counts were normalised by

the average bin count over all 'real' distributions to increase the weight of distribution tails). So we

ended up with amplitude (Figure 6A) and 10-90% rise time (Figure 6B) sets of SAD scores for each

distribution (individual file) within the 'distribution set' (the 'real-real SAD score sets'; there is an

amplitude and a rise time 'real-real SAD score set' for each distribution within the 'distribution set'

corresponding to individual lines in Figures 6A and B). The number of SAD scores in each 'real-real

SAD score set' corresponded to the number of possible comparisons between the distribution (file)

of interest and the rest of the distributions (files) = n - 1 (given n different files). Finally, we selected

the 'worst' ('most discrepant') and the 'best' ('least discrepant' compared to the others) 'real'

reference distributions (files; the top and the bottom rows of SAD score matrices in Figures 6A and

B, respectively), in terms of their median SAD scores (median over all SADs in the 'real-real SAD

score set' for that distribution). Therefore, we were left with only two sets: The 'worst real-real SAD

set' and 'the best real-real SAD set'.

We also compared the 'good enough so far' ('work-in-progress') 'noise with simulated minis'

distribution to all the non-reference 'real' ('noise with *real* minis') distributions. The comparison

yielded another set of SAD scores: the 'simulated-real SAD score set' (Figures 6C and D). The median

of this was then compared to the medians of the 'worst real-real SAD score set' and the 'best real-

real SAD score set' using the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank paired samples test. If the

median score of the 'simulated-real SAD score set' was significantly larger than the median score of

the '*worst* real-real SAD score set', (i.e. if the distributions actually were identical, that discrepancy

or more would only have occurred purely by chance less than 5% of the time; Bonferroni-corrected

for a requirement to simultaneously satisfy both amplitude and 10-90% rise time tests), the

'simulated' distribution was deemed to be an inadequate fit and, was therefore rejected and the

fitting procedure continued. (By contrast, if the median score of the 'simulated-real SAD score set'

was significantly *smaller* than the median score of the '*best* real-real SAD score set', the 'simulated'

distribution was deemed likely to be an "excellent" fit; however, 'passing' this test was not strictly

required and was used only for guidance). The 'work-in-progress' 'good enough' fit was ultimately

accepted if the median of the 'simulated-real SAD score set' was *not* significantly larger than the

median of the 'worst (most discrepant) real-real SAD score set'. Intuitively, this corresponds

(roughly) to a double-blind observer not being able to pick out that (simulated minis with real noise)

distribution (histogram) from the (real minis with real noise) data distributions (histograms): it was

not (obviously) the 'most discrepant' histogram.

Statistical analyses

Parametric inferential statistics tests were used for incidence rates of minis (frequencies minis/s),

mean amplitudes, and total cell membrane capacitances, as quantile-quantile ('Q-Q') plots indicated

that these measures were normally distributed. Sums of absolute distribution bin deviations (SADs)

were often not normally distributed as assessed by Q-Q plots, and therefore were tested using the

corresponding non-parametric paired samples Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Data accessibility

All data analysed in this study are publicly available (Dervinis, 2024a, 2024b). The available data

include 'noise with minis' and 'noise-alone' whole-cell patch membrane potential recordings that

were used in computer simulations and minis' distribution fitting, as well as GA distribution fitting

results. All electrophysiological recordings were stored in Axon Binary File (ABF) format.

Code accessibility

All analyses were carried out in Matlab and the analysis code is publicly available on GitHub

(Dervinis, 2024c). The code is complete with instructions on how to reproduce figures reported in

this study.

Software accessibility

The present study reported the use of a novel quantal analysis method that is part of 'minis'

software available on GitHub (Dervinis, 2024d).

Results

Estimating quantal size by direct subtraction of noise component

We have analysed 'noise with minis' recordings and 'noise-alone' recordings with the 'minis'

detection algorithm. Detected mEPSP-like events had an amplitude and 10-90% rise time

distributions that resembled log-normal or gamma distributions (Figure 7), left skewed with a long

tail on the right. In the amplitude domain, the lower end of the distribution contains a mixture of

real minis and noise fluctuations that were misidentified as real events (but also missing small minis

cancelled out by noise, summating with larger minis, or failing to be detected due to being on a

decay phase of a big preceding mini – the 'overshadowing' effect).

We initially tested whether the noise component (in 'noise with minis' recordings) could be reliably

estimated based on the corresponding 'noise-alone' recording (where synaptic activity has been

pharmacologically blocked), simply by directly subtracting the detected 'noise-alone' events

distribution from the 'noise with minis' distribution, to yield an estimate of the pure minis'

component. Figure 7A shows both 'noise with minis' and 'noise-alone' detected event amplitude

distributions superimposed. After subtracting the 'noise-alone' distribution from the 'noise with

minis' distribution there appear negative low amplitude bins in the resulting distribution (indicated

by an arrowhead in Figure 7A). These missing low amplitude events are caused by a greater number

of small false positive mini-like detections in the noise-alone traces, and larger minis overshadowing

smaller minis and small amplitude noise fluctuations in the 'noise with minis' recording (we have

discussed this phenomenon in more detail in our companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024)).

Therefore, the direct subtraction approach can only provide a relatively crude 'first order', high-end

upper limit on the mean of the mini amplitude distribution. Nevertheless, this over-estimate is more

reliable than a highly subjective approach of simply estimating the mean amplitude based on events

detected using a high amplitude threshold, or worse still, detected manually, by what could, perhaps

uncharitably, be termed a "beauty contest" method (rather arduous, slow, subjective, and prone to

human error/bias).

Estimating quantal size by simulating excitatory postsynaptic potential source distributions

An alternative and more reliable way of estimating the quantal size in our recordings is to estimate the minis component directly using simulations. This relies on the 'minis' optimisation algorithm (GA) being able to closely match a 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace (Figure 3) with the 'noise with real minis' recordings in terms of amplitude and 10-90% rise time distributions of minis-like events detected within these traces. We were able to successfully do that for all our recordings (see Figure 8 and Supplementary Figures 15-27). In the example shown in Figure 8, the overall amplitude SAD of the 'simulated' distribution was not significantly larger than the worst-performing 'real' distribution (unidirectional 'underfit' test: Is 'simulated' median SAD significantly > worst-performing 'real' median SAD? Wilcoxon signed-rank paired samples test statistic W (n = 16) = 105, p = 0.058 (Bonferroni-corrected due to comparing once on amplitudes and once on rise times); a high W statistic indicates a high absolute distance between the two medians, irrespective of its sign/direction, while $p < 0.025$ would indicate fit rejection, due to a fit SAD score being larger than the worst SAD score than would be expected by chance alone, at that significance level; downward arrow indicates 'simulated' median SAD < 'real' median SAD relationship in Figure 8) and was not outperforming the best 'real' distribution ('simulated' median SAD < best-performing 'real' median SAD Wilcoxon signed-rank paired samples unidirectional 'overfit' test W(16) = 135, p = 1; upward arrow indicates 'simulated' median SAD > 'real' median SAD relationship in Figure 8). Similarly, the 'simulated' 10-90% rise time distribution was also neither an underfit ('simulated' median SAD > worst-performing 'real' median SAD unidirectional 'underfit' test W(16) = 0, p = 1) nor an overfit ('simulated' median SAD < best-performing 'real' median SAD unidirectional 'overfit' test W(16) = 117, p = 1).

All simulations produced 'good enough' matches showing amplitude and 10-90% rise time distributions of detected minis-like events being within the range of (and thus indistinguishable from) amplitude and 10-90% rise time count values measured in sets of 'real event' distributions

(Supplementary Figures 15-27). None of the fits performed significantly worse than the worst-

performing 'real' distribution, qualifying them as 'good enough' (accepted) fits. All resulting minis

source distributions are displayed in Figure 9 and Supplementary Figures 28-40. An example in

Figure 9 shows that the 'real minis' source distribution likely has a log-normal or gamma-like shape

in both amplitude and rise time domains.

Incidence rates (frequencies of minis per second) estimated based on simulated minis source

distributions ranged roughly between 10 and 100 minis/s (a mean of 27.3 ± 2.4 minis/s and a range

of 6.8 to 58.1 minis/s; Figure 10). This estimate is an order of magnitude higher than the one based

on the literature (3.6 minis/s; (Dervinis and Major, 2024)) and significantly higher than the one based

on the direct subtraction method (15.9 ± 0.9 minis/s; $t(13) = 3.51$, $p = 0.004$) and also higher than

the estimate based on amplitudes higher than a (deliberately chosen) unrealistically high detection

threshold of 0.8 mV (14.3 ± 0.9 minis/s; $t(13) = 3.69$, $p = 0.003$). It is precisely within the range

predicted in our companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024). However, this range is possibly still

somewhat of an underestimate, as mini source distributions were often generated using a lower

limit on simulated amplitudes to constrain the distribution non-uniqueness, as discussed in the

Methods subsection on the distribution fitting (also see Supplementary Figure 14).

Mean amplitudes of minis derived using simulations ranged between 53 and 182.9 μV (overall mean

of 114.1 ± 5.5 μV, layer 2/3 mean of 133.1 ± 9.9 μV, and layer 5 mean of 95.1 ± 11.2 μV; Figure 11A).

When compared to capacitance estimates (or 1/capacitance), there was a strong (very tight)

correlation between each cell's mean mEPSP amplitude and the inverse of its capacitance (which is

proportional to cell size, assuming capacitance per unit area is more or less a biological constant for

each cell class/type of membrane/density of channels with charged gates moving within the

membrane (Gentet et al., 2000); $r = 0.96$, $p = 7.1 \times 10^{-8}$, $R^2 = 0.92$). That is, the larger the cell, the

smaller the amplitude of its somatically detected minis and vice-versa. This relationship is predicted

by the theory of capacitors (C = Q/V, where C stands for capacitance, Q stands for charge, and V

stands for voltage across the cell's membrane), and it is a direct demonstration of an attenuating

effect of cell's capacitance on the amplitude of somatically detected minis. If a direct line was drawn

through the data and the origin of the axes in Figure 11A, the slope of this line would provide a

quantal size estimate for excitatory synapses in the CNS in terms of 'injected' charge (Q = ΔV/

Δ(1/C)) which is approximately equal to 31.3 fC, for these data. The fact that the least square fitted

line to the data (y = 30.6x + 2.76), with a negligibly small intercept term (2.76), roughly coincided

with the line through the origin fitted to the data (y = 31.3x) indicated that no obvious 'proactive'

mechanism *varying with cell size* was in place to compensate for the attenuation of the average

minis' amplitude due to the size of the cell.

Another notable observation was that the mean amplitude estimates derived either by noise

subtraction or by minis source distribution simulation were highly correlated (r = 0.84, p = 1.49×10^{-4},

R^2 = 0.71 Figure 11B). The equation of the line (y = 1.37x – 65.9) fitted to this data provides a

possible "shortcut" method to approximate the mean amplitude of fitted minis' source distribution

by inserting the mean estimated using 'naïve' noise subtraction directly into this equation.

Generic miniature excitatory postsynaptic potential distribution in neocortex

To construct a generic mEPSP distribution, we normalised amplitudes of simulated minis' source

distributions shown in Figure 9 and Supplementary Figures 28-40 by dividing them by their

respective means, taking the total average, and then scaling the amplitudes to the overall mean

(114.1 ± 5.5 μV). The resulting combined (amplitude and 10-90% rise time) distribution is shown in

Figures 12A and B. The corresponding marginal amplitude and 10-90% rise time distributions are

shown in Figures 12C and D, respectively. Both marginal distributions have left-skewed log-normal-

like or gamma-like distributions. This may be useful in neural network simulations, or to potentially

speed up (and constrain) fitting of simulated minis on noise to real minis with noise, using the GA

(e.g., limit the source distribution to one 2-D 'rotated' log-normal or gamma distribution).

Discussion

We report two major scientific advances. First, a novel quantal analysis method based on sequential

somatic recording, from a given neuron, of a) mEPSPs (after blockade of action potential-mediated

neurotransmission, and all inhibitory neurotransmission, including mIPSPs) on a background of other

physiological noise, and b) subsequent recordings from the same cell of noise alone, after additional

pharmacological blockade of mEPSPs (all glutamatergic ionotropic excitatory neurotransmission).

The latter type of recording provides a means to estimate the properties of the noise component

which can then be used to take into account noise fluctuations in the combined minis and noise

recording. However, this was done not by a direct subtraction of the histogram of amplitudes

(and/or rise times) detected from the noise-alone recordings, but rather by the simulation of the

underlying minis component and repeatedly superimposing (at random) the waveforms of simulated

minis onto the noise trace, varying source distribution parameters until the histograms detected

from the 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace closely matched those detected from the 'noise

with real minis' recording. The key tool for achieving this match was a genetic algorithm that

optimised the parameters of the 2-dimensional simulated minis distribution in terms of amplitudes

and 10-90% rise times (and rate, i.e. minis per second), simultaneously, to best fit the experimental

data distributions.

The second major advance was the application of our novel quantal analysis method, that

successfully measured the mean 'electric charge injected' size of excitatory synapses of cortical

pyramidal cells, which was shown to be approximately 31.3 fC, across the entire sample of

neocortical pyramidal neurons recorded. This number was inferred from the slope of the line which

tightly fitted mean mEPSP amplitude vs. 1/total cell capacitance, in accordance with the theory of

capacitors. The fact that this line had an intercept at the origin of the axes indicated that there was

no biological compensation (other than *number* of synapses) for the amplitude attenuation of minis

due to cell size (i.e., total capacitance). Indeed, cell capacitance played a major role affecting the

voltage amplitude of mEPSPs, resulting in a large proportion of mEPSPs being otherwise

indistinguishable from noise (as independently found in numerous other studies, e.g. (Major et al.,

2013; Nevian et al., 2007), summarised in (Major et al., 2013)). The number of these 'missed' minis

was so high that the estimated minis' incidence rate (frequency) was in the order of 10-100 minis/s:

an order of magnitude higher than typically reported in the synaptic physiology literature (with the

notable exception of (Nevian et al., 2007), which predicted this result, by simultaneous dual somatic

and basal dendritic whole-cell patch recordings of mEPSPs, with dendritic detection, and

simultaneous somatic measurement). Finally, both the amplitude and 10-90% rise time distributions

of minis had a left-skewed log-normal- or gamma-like shape.

These findings have some major implications. First, the method, as used for estimating the mEPSP

distributions in cortical layers 2/3 and 5 of cells of various size, and then using these distributions to

arrive at the electrical size of excitatory synapses, serves as a proof of principle that it can be

successfully used to estimate PSP distributions of various types in the CNS. The next logical step of

this method is to extend its application to the estimation of amplitude and rise time distributions of

mIPSPs generated by different types of inhibitory synapses and, as a result, their 'electrical sizes'.

Moreover, the ability to obtain relatively accurate 'quantal' size estimates unobscured by

physiological noise is important for constraining synaptic parameters in physiologically realistic

simulations of neural activity. For example, now we should be able to better estimate how many

active synapses are needed to generate an NMDA spike within a single dendritic segment (Major et

al., 2013). The importance of these number estimates is not restricted to the domain of

physiologically realistic simulations but also extends to more abstract computations that use NMDA

spike-like mechanisms as coincidence detectors in the latest cortically inspired/constrained models

of artificial intelligence (Hawkins et al., 2019). Accurate estimates of synaptic transmission

parameters thus have very wide-reaching ramifications.

These findings also draw attention to some possible methodological issues in the field of synaptic

physiology. As discussed in our companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024), the reported incidence

rates ('frequencies') for mEPSCs are generally well below 10 minis/s. Even if one doubts the

incidence rates we arrived with simulations, in the range of 10-100 minis/s, the rates given by 'naïve'

direct subtraction of the distribution of events detected in the 'noise-alone' recording from the

distribution based on the 'noise with minis' recording are still within 5.9 to 26.7 minis/s, which we

know to be an underestimate. Therefore, reported mini incidence rates below 10 minis/s are almost

certainly underestimates. This may have multiple causes, including lower slice temperatures in the

majority of studies (we used physiological, ca. 37 °C), and a significant temperature dependence of

synaptic release, as well as differences in slice health and slicing angle (which can affect branch and

local circuit 'amputations'). Another big cause could be the (inappropriate) use of voltage clamp,

especially if the R_{ser} is not compensated fully, as this would shrink and low-pass filter mPSCs,

obscuring the smaller ones. As discussed earlier, these estimates could be improved by switching to

voltage *recording* instead of using voltage clamp (Major, 1993; Rall and Segev, 1985; Spruston et al.,

1993; Williams and Mitchell, 2008), but at the price of somewhat slower decay times of minis

(Major, 1993), thus more temporal overlap/integration and consequent difficulties detecting peaks.

But more importantly, a strong association between cell capacitance (i.e. surface area) and the

extent to which somatically recorded minis' amplitudes are attenuated, indicates that special care

must be taken to account for the effect of background noise fluctuations on the amplitude

measurements - as we have done here. This association is yet more evidence supporting

experimental observations of massive mini amplitude attenuation as the PSP spreads from its

dendritic source location to the soma, and beyond (Larkum et al., 2009; Major et al., 2013; Nevian et

al., 2007; Stuart and Spruston, 1998; Williams and Mitchell, 2008; Williams and Stuart, 2002),

especially in cells with large dendritic (or axonal) arbours, hence large surface areas and overall

membrane capacitance. The apparent conservation of average synaptic charge may correspond to

the observation that dendritic spines and post-synaptic densities (the specialised regions opposite

release sites, containing high densities of synaptic receptors, with a substantial fraction tethered to

the cytoskeleton) are not grossly different in size between different classes of pyramidal neurons in

the neocortex, although differences exist between cortical layers, cortical areas, and, particularly,

species (Yuste, 2010).

It is also worth noting that understanding the link between cell capacitance and somatically

recorded average mini amplitudes, as well as knowing actual shapes of mini distributions in terms of

their amplitudes and rise times, allows us to generate artificial data where the 'ground truth' is

known. Such labelled data could perhaps be used to train artificial neural networks (ANNs) which

could then be used to develop 'next generation' quantal analysis methods allowing detection of

minis directly in mixed 'noise with minis' recordings. We are not the first to suggest the application

of ANNs to this issue (see (Pircher et al., 2022) and (Wang et al., 2024)). However, we are not aware

of attempts to use realistic mini distributions for this purpose.

Even though the novel 'quantal analysis' method we present here is an important advance, it

nevertheless has limitations. One of them is the need for (relatively) long duration recordings using

different pharmacological agents at various stages. However, the somatic recording set up is not as

complicated and high-skill as an alternative multisite 2-photon targeted dendritic recording set up

would be (Nevian et al., 2007), a heroic technique which has not to our knowledge been fully

reproduced in other labs. Experiments themselves could be further streamlined, as we did in some

cases, by pre-blocking action potentials before obtaining the whole-cell recordings and using high

solution perfusion rates. This is particularly useful for smaller cells which are more prone to osmotic

overloading or shrinkage and resulting recording instability after a few tens of minutes (the pipette

solution cannot exactly reproduce the cytoplasm, as it contains no proteins or other

macromolecules, and is missing many common metabolites). Moreover, the distribution fitting

procedure involving the GA can be lengthy and computationally intensive. However, the 'minis'

software is parallelised at the PSP detection level, as well as at the GA optimisation level, making it

particularly suitable to be executed on multi-core computing clusters. Although our 'minis' software

combined with two-stage recordings offers unprecedented control for the background physiological

noise, provided recording stability is very good throughout, we understand that many researchers

may not be persuaded to adopt it themselves. The possibility of misleading fits if the recording noise

became substantially worse between 'noise with minis' and 'noise-alone' recording phases needs to

be vigilantly excluded. Nevertheless, our 'minis' software should still be useful for detecting mini-like

events without recording independent noise, or fitting simulated to real distributions, if there is

some other credible cut-off or separation method that can be used to distinguish between small or

partially cancelled minis and mini-like noise. We anticipate, indeed, that, realistically, this scenario is

likely to be its most popular use.

Some researchers may be critical of a method that does not simply rely on a direct measurement of

minis but rather on an approximation via indirect means, using simulations. This is a valid criticism

that could (perhaps) be addressed in the future by using a method of repeatedly subjecting a voltage

recording to the minis detection procedure with an increasingly lower threshold while subtracting

detected events from the voltage recording, or perhaps compensating for the 'exponential-like'

decay phases of recent, temporally integrated, detected mini-like events. Some combination of

these approaches could potentially recover most of the smaller minis that are 'overshadowed' by

the larger ones (the so called 'negative bins' problem illustrated in Figure 7A), providing the

waveforms were reasonably stereotyped in shape (not the case under voltage clamp, in neurons

with large or extended or highly-branched dendritic arbours (Major, 1993; Jonas et al., 1993).

Furthermore, other researchers may question the ability to pharmacologically isolate the

background physiological noise. Our 'noise with minis' recordings may contain random openings of

individual AMPAR or NMDAR channels (possibly extra-synaptic), although background glutamate

levels are likely too low to significantly open AMPAR channels (Trussell and Fischbach, 1989), and

NMDAR channels would mostly be closed by Mg^{2+} block at resting membrane potential (Ascher and

Nowak, 1988); it is also possible (in principle), but unlikely in practice, that our 'noise-alone'

recordings may have failed to fully eliminate all AMPAR and NMDAR channel openings in the

presence of quantal release of neurotransmitter (we used high AMPAR and NMDAR blocker doses,

well above IC50s' (Lehmann et al., 1987; Randle et al., 1992) and rapid slice perfusion, to achieve

quick wash-in times, and checked for stationarity of the blockade by comparing multiple measures

from consecutive traces: see Supplementary Figures 1-13). Background/physiological/electrical noise

itself may also be drifting between two such (hypothetical) conditions, with the presence or absence

of mEPSP pharmacological blockers. Occasionally, we rejected recordings (or epochs) with suspicious

or obvious instabilities. These factors are unlikely to have affected the results significantly, due to

the small amplitudes of any remaining membrane potential variations from these potential (but

unlikely) causes in the fitted cells. Two largely independent analyses of the same data by the two

authors separately yielded similar results and conclusions (albeit with somewhat different data

selection, sweep lengths, and tests of goodness of fits: the 'first pass', not presented here, relied

more on 'double-blind' visual inspection of multiple real minis with noise data distributions from the

same cell superimposed on the simulated minis with noise fit distribution: if the latter 'stood out

obviously from the crowd', it was rejected).

Finally, researchers may be reluctant to switch from the more commonly used voltage clamp

recording method to unclamped voltage recording and, thus, would question whether our method

captures postsynaptic currents in their full totality without distortions. We accept that there are

experimental settings where the use of the voltage clamp may be preferred, like recording from

small electrically compact granule cells in the cerebellum. 'minis' is not limited only to applications

involving postsynaptic potentials and can equally well be used in detecting and analysing

postsynaptic *currents* (indeed we have done so for several of the cells reported here, unpublished

observations). However, as we argued throughout this article, the benefits of unclamped voltage

recording in large cells are striking. Unlike voltage clamp, voltage recording offers a near-full capture

of postsynaptic charge in these cells (when estimated from the PSP peak amplitude). Current leak

through the membrane is relatively low, to first order, during the fast EPSP rising phase (i.e. during

rapid axial charge redistribution; Major et al. 1993a), and recording of 'noise with minis' and 'noise-

alone' combined with optimised simulations offers an unprecedented ability to estimate the actual

minis population distribution and the upper limit on their average amplitudes. When care is taken to

block other synaptic currents (as we did), then (in these neurons, at least) any

boosting/sculpting/shunting impact of other active membrane channels can be ignored, reasonably

safely, to first order, at the resting V_m, as somatic (and dendritic) pulse responses scale relatively

linearly within ca. 10 mV transients in this V_m range (Nevian et al., 2007). Voltage *recording* is also

more resilient to small changes in R_{ser} and the compensation thereof, which under voltage *clamp*

could substantially affect noise. Under voltage clamp, the noise recorded during the minis epoch

may be different than during the noise-alone epoch, if (say) R_{ser} were to creep up a little. In part, this

is because the clamp currents are directly proportional to compensated series conductance (Guy

Major et al., 1993), so under voltage clamp, small changes in R_{ser} could differentially affect minis

(with 'their' noise) and noise recorded later, following any non-stationarities.

Despite some of the limitations discussed above, the method and its application to neocortical

excitatory connections presented in this article provide a useful advance in the field of synaptic

physiology. Logical next steps could include the application of this novel quantal analysis method to

establish the properties of other types of excitatory synapse, and various types of inhibitory synapse,

in both neocortex and hippocampus, and in other species, and to investigate whether average

synaptic 'size' (injected charge) is more widely conserved within different cell classes.

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Figures

Figure 1: Constructing 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace.

(A) Segment of 'noise-alone' voltage recording (from cortical layer 2/3 pyramidal neuron p131a).

(B) Simulated mEPSPs that were randomly added to the noise-alone trace in (A) to produce the 'real

noise with simulated mEPSPs' voltage trace in (C).

Figure 2: Recording quality measures used during the data preprocessing stage to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' recording sweeps for further data analysis for recording p103a (layer 5

'burster' with tuft and thick trunk).

(A) Baseline V_m across the entire recording session. Stimulation pulses were excluded from the

display. The total recording duration (excluding pulse periods) was 8520 s. The first red vertical line

marks the time when pharmacological blockade of APs was initiated. The second red vertical line

marks the time when no more APs were observed in the recording. The third red vertical line marks

the time when pharmacological blockade of mEPSPs was initiated. Bright yellow periods mark 'noise

with minis' and 'noise-alone' recording segments selected as the main comparison files for the

distribution fitting. Light yellow marks all the remaining good quality 'noise with minis' recording

sweeps that were also included in the distribution fitting procedure for estimating target SAD, MAD,

and 'deviation' scores, as well as statistical evaluation of fits (see Methods).

(B) V_m standard deviation measured over consecutive 15 ms windows over the same recording

session.

(C) Evolution of mean and median amplitudes of the biggest top 10% of detected events (including

minis and noise events), averaged over single sweeps (duration of each was 4 s).

(D) Effective decay time constants (time to drop to 1/e of starting value 'safely' (8 ms) after the peak

and upwardly convex part) of the same biggest 10% of detected events as in panel (C) averaged over

consecutive 20-second-long (5-sweep-long) segments across the same session. Once minis were

blocked pharmacologically, effective time constant of detected events, (now pure noise) increased,

and its scatter, so this is another useful indication of when the block is complete.

(E) Evolution of passive membrane time constant over the entire recording session. Measurements

were averaged over consecutive 20-second-long (5-sweep-long) segments. Measurements based on

exponential decay curve fit and on 'effective time constant' (time for V_m to drop to 1/e of a value

just after change in current (after pipette capacitance artefact and fast charge redistribution

components: starting at 4 ms after the end of the pulse).

987 (F) Evolution of total cell membrane capacitance across the recording session. Measurements were

988 averaged over consecutive 20-second-long (5-sweep-long) segments. Measurements based on

989 exponential decay curve fit and on effective time constant (time taken for V_m drop to 1/e of an initial

990 value of the slowest impulse response component).

991 (G) Evolution of whole-cell pipette series resistance change (bridge balance error) across the

992 recording session, calculated from any jumps at starts or ends of charging curves. Measurements

993 were averaged over consecutive 4-second-long (5-sweep-long) segments.

Figure 3: Schematic illustration of 'minis' genetic algorithm execution steps leading to the discovery

of a minis source distribution underlying a distribution of minis-like events detected in a 'noise with

minis' recording.

(A) The structure of a single GA run.

(B) The structure of the initial step of the 'forward' ('upward') fitting procedure where the lower

threshold of the simulated minis amplitude is gradually raised.

(C) The structure of intermediate and final steps of the 'forward' ('upward') fitting procedure.

(D) The structure of the 'backwards' ('downwards') fitting procedure where the lower threshold of

the simulated minis amplitude is gradually lowered.

Figure 4: Non-shape components of the genetic algorithm's cost function.

(A) A schematic illustration of how amplitude SADs, MADs, and SSDs were calculated. Red arrows

mark detected minis-like event count discrepancies between 'simulated' and 'real' 'noise with minis'

distribution bins.

(B) A schematic illustration of how 10-90% rise time SADs, MADs, and SSDs were calculated.

(C) A schematic illustration of how amplitude 'envelope deviation' scores corresponding to SADs,

MADs, and SSDs were calculated. Red arrows mark detected minis-like event count discrepancies

1014   between the 'noise with simulated minis' distribution and the envelope of all superimposed 'noise

1015   with real minis' distribution bins.

1016   (D) A schematic illustration of how 10-90% rise time 'envelope deviation' scores corresponding to

1017   SADs, MADs, and SSDs were calculated.

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Figure 5: Amplitude and rise time scattergram (density plot) of sum of absolute deviation (SAD)

scores between histograms from all possible pairs of 'noise with minis' single sweep files (4 s) from a

layer 5 pyramidal neuron (p103a).

The line marking 'combined 50th centile' cutoff is based on 15 different SAD, SSD, and MAD scores as

explained in Tables 1 and 2 (it extends to the remaining 13 dimensions not shown here). '15-score

combined 50th centile' sets a lower (more exacting) threshold for accepting ('steering') distribution

fits than the mean or the median would. This is justified because distribution fits need to satisfy all

15 SAD, SSD, and MAD scores *simultaneously* (e.g. to ensure that one of the tails of the distribution

is not badly fit, as well as the remaining parts of the distribution).

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Figure 6: A schematic illustration of simulated minis distribution acceptance tests.

(A) A matrix showing amplitude SADs for all 'noise with real minis' recording file comparisons. The

last matrix column shows the median SAD score for all comparisons in individual matrix rows. The

matrix cell with thick red borders indicates the 'worst'-performing distribution, while the cell with

thick green borders indicates the 'best'-performing distribution.

(B) A matrix showing 10-90% rise time SADs for all 'noise with real minis' recording file comparisons.

(C) Two sets of SADs for comparisons of the 'noise with simulated minis' amplitude distribution and

all non-reference 'noise with real minis' amplitude distributions. The top vector contains

comparisons with the same 'real' distributions/files as the top matrix row in (A) as indicated by the

thick red arrow (the reference 'worst' distribution was excluded from the comparison). The thin red

arrow points in the downward direction consistent with the 'simulated' median (right) being lower

than the 'real' 'worst'-performing distribution's median (left). The bottom vector contains

comparisons with the same 'real' distributions/files as the bottom matrix row in (A) as indicated by

the thick green arrow (the reference 'best' distribution was excluded from the comparison). The thin

green arrow points in the upward direction consistent with the 'simulated' median (right) being

higher than the 'real' 'best'-performing distribution's median (left). Results of the amplitude

acceptance Wilcoxon signed-rank paired samples test for the simulated minis distribution are shown

in the middle between the two SAD vectors. The top line tests whether the median of the SAD vector

top set in (C) is larger than the median in the red-bordered cell of the matrix in (A) ($W_{underfit}$; the

number of files/distributions minus the reference distribution is indicated within brackets). The

downward arrow indicates that the median of the SAD vector in (C) is smaller than the red-bordered

median in (A). The bottom line tests whether the median of the SAD vector bottom set is smaller

than the median in the green-bordered cell of the matrix in (A) ($W_{overfit}$). The upward arrow indicates

that the median of the SAD vector in (C) is larger than the green-bordered median in (A).

(D) A set of SADs and acceptance tests as in (C) but for the 10-90% rise time distribution of simulated

minis.

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Figure 7: Amplitude and rise time distributions of detected mini-like events in 'noise with minis' and

'noise-alone' recordings.

(A) Amplitude distributions in a "thick" tufted neocortical layer 5 pyramidal neuron (p108b). Red

arrowhead indicates negative bins after subtracting 'noise-alone' distribution from 'noise with minis'

distribution.

(B) 10-90% rise time distributions from the same neuron.

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Figure 8: Distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace

reasonably closely matching 'noise with real minis' recordings from the same cell, p106b (neocortical

layer 5).

Parameters of simulated minis were controlled by the Genetic Algorithm. Up arrows indicate

'simulated' SAD > 'real' SAD; down arrows 'simulated' SAD < 'real'. The underfit test involves a

comparison with the 'worst-performing' 'real' SAD (most discrepant from the others), whereas the

overfit ('excellent fit') test involves a comparison with the 'best-performing' 'real' SAD (least

discrepant from the others). With the underfit test (top), a fit SAD worse (bigger) than the 'real' SAD

(up arrow), and $p < 0.05$ would mean the fit is rejected (not the case here: both amplitude and rise

time fits (A and B) were accepted). (See Methods and Figure 6 for more details).

(A) Amplitude and (B) 10-90% rise time distributions (blue) of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace, compared with 'envelopes' or bands (shaded) of all available

'real' data distributions from the neuron (taking the most extreme low and high values at each point

across all the available data files recorded with both APs and IPSPs blocked).

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Figure 9: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that was used to

produce a close match between the distributions of detected mini-like events in a 'noise with

simulated minis' voltage trace (with a 60 μV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

real minis' recording, for a neocortical layer 2/3 cell (p131c).

(A) and (B) Joint amplitude and 10-90% rise time distribution of simulated minis, viewed from

different angles.

(C) and (D) Corresponding 'marginal' (one-dimensional) amplitude and 10-90% rise time

distributions, projected onto the axis indicated.

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Figure 10: Estimated mEPSP incidence rates ('frequencies') using various methods (grey lines are

individual cells).

'Thresholded' method: an 'unreasonably high' 80 µV detection threshold was applied to all 14 'noise

with real minis' recordings so only larger events were included.

'Subtracted' method: the distribution of mini-like events in the 'noise-alone' recording was

subtracted from the distribution of mini-like events in the 'noise with real minis' recording and the

incidence rate estimate was based on the positive bins of the resulting distribution.

'Fitted' method: the simulated minis distribution was used to estimate a lower bound on the mEPSP

incidence rate (*lowest* acceptable rate statistically consistent with the real experimental data).

Black markers and black vertical lines correspond to means and 95% confidence intervals. Red

dotted lines mark the range of incidence rates typically reported in the literature; discussed in the

companion article (Dervinis and Major, 2024).

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Figure 11: Relationship between each cell's inverse total membrane capacitance and its estimated

mean mEPSP amplitude using simulations and fitting of minis distributions.

(A) Correlation between mean mini amplitudes from different neurons, as derived using the

simulated minis distribution fitting method and the inverse of each cell's total capacitance. The blue

line is the least square fit to the data while the (nearly indistinguishable) black line is the fit to the

data that passes through the origin.

(B) Correlation between the mean mEPSP amplitude of each neuron estimated from 'fitting' versus

'subtracting' (the corresponding noise histogram, as in Figure 7).

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Figure 12: Generic 'averaged' mEPSP distribution from rat (somatosensory) neocortical pyramidal

neurons.

Distributions resulting from all 14 recordings were averaged. All mini amplitudes were first

normalised by the means of their respective source distributions, then multiplied by the average of

the average amplitudes (114.1 ± 5.5 μV) across all the neurons analysed.

(A) A joint amplitude and 10-90% rise time distribution of simulated minis.

(B) The same distribution but viewed from a different angle.

(C) 'Marginal' (1-dimensional) amplitude distribution projected from the above distribution onto the

amplitude axis.

(D) 'Marginal' 10-90% rise time distribution.

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Tables

Amp SAD ≤56th centile?	Top 50% amp SAD ≤56th centile?	Top 10% amp SAD ≤56th centile?	Top 2% amp SAD ≤56th centile?	Top 50% amp SSD ≤0?	Top 10% amp SSD ≤0?	Top 2% amp SSD ≤0?	RT SAD ≤56th centile?	Joint SAD ≤56th centile?	Amp MAD ≤56th centile?	Top 50% amp MAD ≤56th centile?	Top 10% amp MAD ≤56th centile?	Top 2% amp MAD ≤56th centile?	RT MAD ≤56th centile?	Joint MAD ≤56th centile?
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
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Table 1: Failed hypothetical attempt to use 56th centile as a basis for the combined '15-score 50th centile'.

The table shows a representative portion of a much bigger table illustrating a hypothetical scenario where the 15 SAD, SSD, and MAD scores are arranged in columns and rows corresponding to different two-file comparisons (many other comparisons are above and below those portrayed for the sake of the argument). SAD, SSD, and MAD scores are calculated by subtracting one file distribution from another (see the text for a detailed explanation). In this example, only *one* file comparison pair (green; 1/6 = 16.7%; row shaded in grey) satisfies the condition of having *all* its actual between-file SAD, SSD, and MAD values equal or below their respective 56th centile (across all comparison pairs - a unique value applying all the way down each column) – i.e. *simultaneously* in *all* columns. Therefore, the 56th percentile of each SAD, SSD, and MAD score would be too small to serve as the basis for the composite, joint or combined '15-score 50th centile': we need *half* the rows to be green, i.e. to pass the test.

Amp SAD ≤90th centile?	Top 50% amp SAD ≤90th centile?	Top 10% amp SAD ≤90th centile?	Top 2% amp SAD ≤90th centile?	Top 50% amp SSD ≤0?	Top 10% amp SSD ≤0?	Top 2% amp SSD ≤0?	RT SAD ≤90th centile?	Joint SAD ≤90th centile?	Amp MAD ≤90th centile?	Top 50% amp MAD ≤90th centile?	Top 10% amp MAD ≤90th centile?	Top 2% amp MAD ≤90th centile?	RT MAD ≤90th centile?	Joint MAD ≤90th centile?
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Table 2: Using 90th SAD centile as a basis for the combined '15-score 50th centile'.

The table shows another example where the 15 SAD, SSD, and MAD scores are arranged in columns and rows correspond to different two-file comparisons. SAD, SSD, and MAD scores are calculated by subtracting one file distribution from another (see the text for a detailed explanation). Now *three* of the six file pairings (*half* of them: green; rows shaded in grey) satisfy the condition of having *all* their between-file SAD, SSD, and MAD scores equal or below their respective 90th centiles (across all comparison pairs - a unique number applying all the way down each column). Therefore, the 90th percentile works as the basis for the combined '15-score 50th centile'. Higher than 90 leads to more than half and lower than 90 leads to fewer than half of possible file pairs 'passing' all 15 tests simultaneously.

 Supplementary Figures

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Supplementary Figure 1: Cell p106b (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1147   (A) Baseline V_m across entire recording (excluding stimulation pulse periods); duration 4960 s. Red

1148   lines and shaded yellow regions and Panels B-G as for Figure 2.

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Supplementary Figure 2: Cell p108a (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

Panels A-G as for Figure 1 except for data being averaged over 100-second-long windows (5

recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G. The figure shows only part of the recording following

the blockade of APs with only a single red vertical time marker visible indicating the time when

pharmacological EPSP blockers were infused. The total duration of the recording shown in the figure

was 5140 s. Some episodes with transient recording instabilities (noise glitches) were removed from

the 'noise with minis' epoch (white gaps).

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Supplementary Figure 3: Cell p108b (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1162   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1163   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 2400 s.

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Supplementary Figure 4: Cell p108c (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1168   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1169   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 2000 s.

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Supplementary Figure 5: Cell p120b (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

1173   with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1174   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1175   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 4000 s. Some transient 'glitchy'

1176   extra noisy periods (due to transient recording instability) were manually excluded from the 'noise

1177   with minis' and 'noise-alone' epochs (white gaps).

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1179

Supplementary Figure 6: Cell p122a (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1182   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1183   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 4200 s.

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Supplementary Figure 7: Cell p124b (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1188   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1189   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 2400 s.

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Supplementary Figure 8: Cell p125a (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

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1194   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1195   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 3800 s. Some transiently extra

1196   noisy data due to temporary recording instability were excluded from the 'noise-alone' epoch.

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Supplementary Figure 9: Cell p127c (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

1200   with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1201   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1202   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 3200 s.

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1205 **Supplementary Figure 10:** Cell p128c (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

1206 with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1207   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1208   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 3800 s.

1209

Supplementary Figure 11: Cell p129a (layer 5). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise with

minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1212   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1213   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 4000 s.

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Supplementary Figure 12: Cell p131a (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1218   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1219   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 2400 s. Fit epoch is fragmented

1220   due to noisy segments, with transient recording instability, being excluded.

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Supplementary Figure 13: Cell p131c (layer 2/3). Recording quality measures used to select 'noise

with minis' and 'noise-alone' sweeps.

1225   Panels A-G as for Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure 2. Data were averaged over 100-second-long

1226   windows (5 recording sweeps of 20 s each) in panels D-G; duration 2200 s.

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Supplementary figure 14: Non-uniqueness of simulated minis distributions.

(A) Two amplitude distributions of simulated minis events generated by the GA using a lower limit

on simulated amplitudes of 10 μV (red histogram; termed as without simulation threshold) or 60 μV

simulation threshold (blue histogram).

(B) Distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise with simulated minis' voltage traces

corresponding to the two minis source distributions in (A). Event histograms are shown

superimposed on the full range of 'real' ('noise with real minis') distributions. The two distributions

clearly fall within the range of 'real' distributions albeit being generated by two very different source

distributions. Recordings obtained from cell p131c (layer 2/3).

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Supplementary figure 15: Distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise with simulated minis'

voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings and passed statistical good fit

tests, i.e. did not 'fail' the poor fit (underfit) unidirectional tests (it could not be 'picked out' either

objectively or 'double-blind' from the 'noise with real minis' distributions found with the same

detection parameters).

Parameters of simulated minis were controlled by the GA; 'noise-alone' recording obtained from

cell p103a (layer 5). Downward arrows indicate 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD. Upward arrows indicate

'simulated' SAD > 'real' SAD. The 'underfit' (poor fit) unidirectional test (top) involves a comparison

with the 'worst-performing' (highest between-file) 'real' SAD file (most discrepant from the others;

the null hypothesis is 'simulated' SAD does not exceed 'real' SAD). The 'overfit' unidirectional test

(bottom) involves a comparison with the 'best-performing' (lowest between-file) 'real' SAD (least

discrepant from the others; the null hypothesis is 'simulated' SAD is not smaller than 'real' SAD), but

'failure' of this test (p <0.05 Bonferroni-corrected, difference not by chance) does not indicate a fit

rejection.

(A) Amplitude and (B) 10-90% rise time distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise with

simulated minis' voltage trace (blue curve).

1257

1258 **Supplementary Figure 16:** Cell p108a (layer 5), distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1259 with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1260 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1261 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

1262

1263

1264 **Supplementary Figure 17:** Cell p108b (layer 5), distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1265 with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1266 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1267 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1269

1270 **Supplementary Figure 18:** Cell p108c (layer 5), distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1271 with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1272 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1273 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1275

1276 **Supplementary Figure 19:** Cell p120b (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1277 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1278 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1279 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

1280

1281

1282 **Supplementary Figure 20:** Cell p122a (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1283 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1284 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1285 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1287

1288 **Supplementary Figure 21:** Cell p124b (layer 5), distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1289 with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1290 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1291 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1293

1294 **Supplementary Figure 22:** Cell p125a (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1295 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1296 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1297 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

1298

A — Fit Amp: $W(4)_{underfit}=0$, $p=1 \downarrow$

$W(4)_{overfit}=17$, $p=0.92 \uparrow$

— Fitted 'simulated' distribution
— Range of 'real' distributions
— 3xRange of 'real' distributions

B — Fit RT: $W(4)_{underfit}=11$, $p=0.5 \uparrow$

$W(4)_{overfit}=21$, $p=1 \uparrow$

1299

1300 **Supplementary Figure 23:** Cell p127c (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1301 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1302 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1303 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1306   **Supplementary Figure 24:** Cell p128c (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1307   'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1308   Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1309   'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

1310

Supplementary Figure 25: Cell p129a (layer 5), distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

1317

1318　**Supplementary Figure 26:** Cell p131a (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1319　'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1320　Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1321　'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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1323

1324 **Supplementary Figure 27:** Cell p131c (layer 2/3), distributions of mini-like events detected in a

1325 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace that closely matched 'noise with real minis' recordings.

1326 Parameters of simulated minis controlled by GA. Down arrow: 'simulated' SAD < 'real' SAD (up:

1327 'simulated' > 'real'; Suppl. Fig. 15).

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Supplementary Figure 28: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace (40 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

real minis' recording for cell p103a (layer 5).

(A) and (B) Joint amplitude and 10-90% rise time distribution of simulated minis (two views).

(C) 'Marginal' amplitude and (D) 10-90% rise time distributions (all 2-D bins projected onto that axis).

1336

1337 **Supplementary Figure 29:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1338 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1339 with simulated minis' voltage trace (40 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1340 real minis' recording for cell p106b (layer 5).

1341 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1342

1343

1344 **Supplementary Figure 30:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1345 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1346 with simulated minis' voltage trace (10 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1347 real minis' recording for cell p108a (layer 5).

1348 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1349

1350

1351 **Supplementary Figure 31:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1352 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1353 with simulated minis' voltage trace (10 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1354 real minis' recording for cell p108b (layer 5).

1355 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1356

1357

Supplementary Figure 32: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace (10 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

real minis' recording for cell p108c (layer 5).

Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1363

1365   **Supplementary Figure 33:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1366   was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1367   with simulated minis' voltage trace (60 μV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1368   real minis' recording for cell p120b (layer 2/3).

1369   Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1370

Supplementary Figure 34: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise with simulated minis' voltage trace (30 μV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with real minis' recording for cell p122a (layer 2/3). Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1378

1379 **Supplementary Figure 35:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1380 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1381 with simulated minis' voltage trace (40 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1382 real minis' recording for cell p124b (layer 5).

1383 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

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1385

1386 **Supplementary Figure 36:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1387 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1388 with simulated minis' voltage trace (30 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1389 real minis' recording for cell p125a (layer 2/3).

1390 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

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1393 **Supplementary Figure 37:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1394 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1395 with simulated minis' voltage trace (100 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1396 real minis' recording for cell p127c (layer 2/3).

1397 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

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Supplementary Figure 38: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace (30 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

real minis' recording for cell p128c (layer 2/3).

Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

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1407 **Supplementary Figure 39:** An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

1408 was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

1409 with simulated minis' voltage trace (50 μV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

1410 real minis' recording for cell p129a (layer 5).

1411 Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.

1412

Supplementary Figure 40: An example of a distribution of randomly selected simulated minis that

was used to produce a close match between distributions of mini-like events detected in a 'noise

with simulated minis' voltage trace (60 µV lower limit on simulated amplitudes) and a 'noise with

real minis' recording for cell p131a (layer 2/3).

Panels as for Supplementary Figure 28.