1	MIN1PIPE: A Miniscope 1-photon-based Calcium Imaging Signal Extraction
2	Pipeline
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19 SUMMARY

20 In vivo calcium imaging using 1-photon based miniscope and microendoscopic lens 21 enables studies of neural activities in freely behaving animals. However, the high and 22 fluctuating background, the inevitable movements and distortions of imaging field, and the extensive spatial overlaps of fluorescent signals emitted from imaged neurons inherent in 23 24 this 1-photon imaging method present major challenges for extracting neuronal signals reliably and automatically from the raw imaging data. Here we develop a unifying 25 26 algorithm called MINiscope 1-photon imaging PIPEline (MIN1PIPE) that contains several 27 standalone modules and can handle a wide range of imaging conditions and qualities with minimal parameter tuning, and automatically and accurately isolate spatially localized 28 29 neural signals. We quantitatively compare MIN1PIPE with other existing partial methods using both synthetic and real datasets obtained from different animal models, and show 30 31 that MIN1PIPE has a superior performance both in terms of efficiency and precision in 32 analyzing noisy miniscope calcium imaging data.

33 INTRODUCTION

In vivo calcium imaging of activities from large populations of neurons in awake and 34 35 behaving animals has become one of the staple technologies in neuroscience (Cai et al., 36 2016; Flusberg et al., 2008; Ghosh et al., 2011). Recent advances in single-photon based miniscope technology have further enabled imaging of neural ensemble activities in freely 37 38 moving animals (Cai et al., 2016; Flusberg et al., 2008; Ghosh et al., 2011), thereby allowing circuits involved in a rich repertoire of animal behaviors to be examined. For 39 40 example, this technology has been successfully used in probing dynamics of neural circuits involved in innate behaviors (Betley et al., 2015; Douglass et al., 2017; Jennings et al., 41 42 2015), decision making (Pinto and Dan, 2015; Poyraz et al., 2016), motor control (Klaus et al., 2017), learning and memory (Grewe et al., 2017; Kamigaki and Dan, 2017; Kitamura 43 et al., 2017; Roberts et al., 2017; Roy et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2016), social memory 44 (Okuyama et al., 2016), hippocampal place coding (Ziv et al., 2013), sleep (Cox et al., 2016; 45 46 Weber and Dan, 2016), bird song (Markowitz et al., 2015), and pathological processes (Berdyyeva et al., 2016). 47

The increasing popularity of the miniscope calcium imaging technology demands the 48 development of a fully automatic and robust signal processing method that can reliably 49 extract neuronal signals from the noisy single photon calcium imaging data. Ideally, the 50 51 processing method 1) should be able to handle a wide range of imaging conditions (e.g. high fluctuating background) and results with minimal parameter tuning, and 2) should 52 53 have minimal assumptions about the quality of the data, such as free of movement or distortion, or sufficiently good signal-to-noise ratio (SNR). Existing imaging processing 54 55 algorithms do not meet these two criteria.

For extraction of neuronal signals, many previous methods work well in situations with 56 high SNR and stable field of views, therefore they are best suited for processing two-photon 57 58 imaging data. These algorithms include linear unsupervised basis learning methods (Mukamel et al., 2009; Reidl et al., 2007; Pachitariu et al., 2013), nonlinear unsupervised 59 methods (Maruyama et al., 2014; Pnevmatikakis et al., 2016), and the supervised learning 60 61 method (Apthorpe et al., 2016). The PCA/ICA (principal component analysis followed by independent component analysis) method (Mukamel et al., 2009) was the first attempt to 62 63 automatize the signal extraction process from miniscope imaging data through manual 64 annotations of ROIs, but this method has difficulties in delineating localized ROIs and in separating overlapping ROIs. Since single-photon based imaging collect lights from a large 65 depth of field, overlapping neurons in different depth is not uncommon. Another method 66 called CNMF (constraint matrix factorization framework) (Pnevmatikakis et al., 2016), 67 which combines nonlinearity in matrix factorization with simultaneous deconvolving spike 68 69 trains from calcium dynamics, returns more spatially localized maps of ROIs compared to other methods and has better performance in identifying overlapping neurons. While 70 71 methods like CNMF achieve plausible results in processing two-photon imaging data, they 72 are ill-suited for processing the single-photon based miniscope imaging because: 1) the data from miniscope imaging are dominated by noisy, uneven and fluctuating background, 73 74 2) such methods depend on sophisticated parameter tuning, especially requiring setting 75 parameters that are unknown *a priori* in practice such as "number of neurons". Thus, a new 76 method that can effectively remove background yet preserve real neural signals is highly 77 desired.

Moreover, both PCA/ICA and CNMF rely on the stable imaging field and will fail if the 78 79 imaging field contains movement, but movements (including distortions) during imaging, 80 are often inevitable. Therefore, correcting movements and distortions is another major 81 problem needs solving before neural activity signals can be reliably extracted. Many 82 methods were developed independently in attempt to solve this problem. For example, 83 several approaches register frames through template matching based on the assumption that the major form of movements is translational displacement (Dubbs et al., 2016; 84 85 Thévenaz et al., 1998). To eliminate such assumptions, methods with block-based displacement field estimation were developed, with image feature matching algorithms 86 87 extended from Lucas-Kanade tracker (Greenberg and Kerr, 2009; Lucas and Kanade, 1981) or Hidden Markov Models (Dombeck et al., 2007; Kaifosh et al., 2013). Some of these 88 movement correction methods have been included as a module in a larger toolbox, using 89 90 such frame-wise rigid registration approaches (Kaifosh et al., 2014; Pachitariu et al., 2017). 91 When applied to handle nonrigid movement registrations, existing methods make specific 92 assumptions about both the form and magnitude of the potential movements that result in 93 suboptimal performance when large deformation occurs during imaging. Furthermore, 94 errors in the movement correction can easily propagate since these methods all register frames based on a single reference frame. Considering that extracting neural activity 95 96 signals is highly dependent on removing movement artifacts, an accurate and robust 97 movement correction module is imperative. A simple unimodal algorithm for either 98 translation/rigid or nonrigid registration is insufficient for this purpose.

Here we develop the MINiscope 1-photon imaging signal extraction PIPEline (MIN1PIPE)that takes the very raw calcium videos as inputs, and automatically removes background

while preserving signals, corrects movements with no assumptions of the types of 101 102 movements, and delivers separated neuronal ROIs as well as deconvolved calcium traces 103 as outputs. The MIN1PIPE contains a neural enhancing module that minimizes the influence of background unevenness and fluctuations, a hierarchical movement correction 104 module that can handle all kinds of deformation with minimal error propagation, and a 105 106 seeds-cleansed neural signal extraction module that identifies the set of real ROIs and their 107 corresponding calcium traces without setting unknown parameters a priori (Fig. 1). 108 Though our MIN1PIPE is primarily developed for single-photon based miniscope imaging, 109 individual modules can also be independently combined with other processing algorithms 110 to improve performance in analyzing two-photon imaging.

111 **RESULTS**

112 Core modules in MIN1PIPE

Neural Enhancing Module: The core of MIN1PIPE relies on turning the imaging data into 113 a stack of background free, baseline corrected frames as the first step. Due to the complex 114 115 spatiotemporal properties of background dynamics, our method applies a frame-wise 116 background estimator that is adaptive to the local properties. A natural idea can be translated from mathematical morphology and computer vision, that the foreground neural 117 118 signals can be approximated by subtracting the estimated background in a denoised image. 119 Therefore, we first remove the grainy noise inherent to the single-photon system (see 120 example of such grainy noise in Supplementary Fig. S2) while preserving the boundary 121 between foreground and background, and this is achieved by applying an *anisotropic* 122 *diffusion* denoising operation (Perona and Malik, 1990) on the raw imaging frames. Next, 123 we use a simple straightforward *morphological opening* operation (Serra and Vincent, 124 1992) as the background estimator, with the size of the structure element similar to that of 125 the neurons in the imaging field. The opening operation removes structures smaller than 126 the desired structure element. Subsequently, the foreground that contains all the neuronal 127 signals with the minimal noise is computed as the difference between the denoised raw and 128 the morphological opened frames (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. S1-S2).

129 Movement Correction Module: After the neural signals are enhanced, we next correct for movements in the imaging videos. The problem of movement correction can essentially be 130 131 broken down to image stack registration. However, without setting specific constraints on 132 the form or magnitude of the movements, even the most efficient registration algorithms 133 require a running time on the order of seconds to minutes per frame (Vercauteren et al., 2009). Considering that the general imaging datasets contain tens of thousands of frames, 134 the time required for applying these sophisticated image registration methods to every 135 136 frame is inconceivable. Here we develop a hierarchical video registration framework for 137 the correction of all types of movement, without sacrificing the precision or the speed of 138 corrections. Our framework first decomposes the imaging video into two sections: the 139 stable sections whose movements can be approximated by small translational displacement, 140 and the *non-stable sections* that contain large general deformation. This step uses the KLT tracker that estimates the displacement of potential corner-like features between two 141 142 neighboring frames (Shi and Tomasi, 1994). Next, we employ three levels of different 143 strategies to align images. At the first level, we correct the small translational displacement 144 within each stable section using the fast Lucas-Kanade tracker, which can be performed efficiently in parallel on multiple sections (Lucas et al., 1981). We then incorporate a 145 diffeomorphic Log-Demons image registration method which can handle large 146

deformations while preserving the local geometrical properties (Vercauteren et al., 2009). 147 148 At the second level, we align all the stable sections. The overall information of each section is extracted to form a sectional image. The current sectional image is then aligned to a 149 reference sectional image, which is generated as a linear summation of all previously 150 registered sectional images that is the closest to the current image. The summation weights 151 152 are determined by least square regression between the current and previous sectional 153 images. The estimated displacement field is then applied to each frame within the current 154 section. This will be iterated until all stable sections are aligned. At the third level, we use 155 a similar process to register the individual frames within each non-stable section, which can be parallelized to boost performance efficiency (Fig. 1b). This hierarchical approach 156 significantly reduces the total registration time due to the balanced assignment of different 157 methods. Importantly, the common registration error does not propagate with this approach. 158

Seeds-Cleansed Neural Signal Extraction Module: Once movements are corrected and 159 160 images are aligned, the main task turns to the neural signal extraction. MIN1PIPE extracts 161 neural signals automatically in two main steps, 1) the seeds cleansing step to reliably detect 162 the set of real ROIs, and 2) an altered spatiotemporal CNMF to separate ROIs and 163 corresponding calcium traces (Pnevmatikakis et al., 2016). Previous methods contain either no explicit seeds initialization step or only a coarse initialization that compromises between 164 165 precision and recall. In contrast, our seeds cleansing step forces the algorithm to find the 166 set of real ROIs. This is achieved by first generating an over-complete set of seeds 167 containing all potential centers of real ROIs at the cost of including false positives. This over-complete set is then coarsely cleansed by applying a two-component Gaussian 168 Mixture Model (GMM) on the peak-valley difference of corresponding traces of the seeds, 169

where the traces of real neurons usually have larger fluctuations compared to the non-170 171 neuron false positive seeds. The GMM removes most background false positives without 172 losing real neurons (Supplementary Fig. S3). To further remove the remaining false positives, such as the ones with abnormal background fluctuations or hemodynamics, we 173 174 have trained an Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) with LSTM module offline as the 175 classifier for calcium spikes (Supplementary Fig. S4) (LeCun et al., 2015; Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997). Those seeds whose traces contain RNN-identified calcium spikes, 176 177 regardless of their temporal locations, are classified as true positives whereas the rest are deemed as false positives. After such cleansing processes, there is still a low possibility of 178 179 identifying multiple seeds within a single ROI. Therefore, we merge potentially redundant seeds by computing the temporal similarity of seeds within their neighborhoods, and 180 preserving the ones with maximum intensity. With the cleansed set of seeds as the initial 181 position of ROIs, we next perform the iterative spatial and temporal optimizations, as 182 183 proposed in CNMF, to update the spatial footprints of individual ROIs, and the temporal 184 traces with deconvolved spike trains. Notably, unlike previous CNMF, where the spatial 185 footprints are sequentially updated and subtracted from the preceding residuals, we extract 186 spatial footprints from the original data that does not depend on preceding iterations. Therefore, the information loss/duplication is reduced and the optimization procedures can 187 188 be parallelized in our method.

We show example results obtained using the MIN1PIPE methodology including a rawframe, the fully processed ROIs and the example traces from ROIs (Fig. 1c).

191 Quantitative validation of the MIN1PIPE performance

The neural signal extraction and movement correction are two independent problems that 192 can be tested separately. For the signal extraction, we test the performance on synthetic 193 194 datasets with various signal levels, while for the movement correction, we can directly test it on real data. To measure the performance of the signal extraction, we use a scoring metric 195 196 that evaluates the spatial and temporal similarity between the ground truth and the 197 identified ROIs (see Online Methods), and calculate true positive, false positive and false negative. To measure the performance of the movement correction, we use a metric based 198 199 on the average displacement of feature points between neighboring frames.

200 We synthesized 16 imaging videos with signal levels (SL, defined as the ratio of the 201 amplitude between the signals and the background) ranging from 0.05 to 0.8. Each video 202 contains 3000 frames with 100 neurons of various shapes and calcium dynamics, and 203 background fluctuations extracted from real datasets (details in Supplementary Notes S1-204 S2). The properties of synthetic videos resemble those of real data, whose SL falls between 205 the range of 0.2 and 0.8. The condition at 0.05 SL is an extreme (Supplementary Fig. S5 and Video S1-S3). We compare MIN1PIPE with PCA/ICA and CNMF. We used 206 207 commercially available Mosaic software (Inscopix Inc.) which implements PCA/ICA 208 method (Mukamel et al., 2009), and processed the data following the standard workflow 209 in the software manual. In particular, we chose the number of principal components (PC) 210 and independent components (IC) based on the suggested rate (e.g. 20% more ICs and 50% 211 more PCs than the estimated number of ROIs). For CNMF, we used the default 212 initialization strategy in (Pnevmatikakis et al., 2016).

The results of ROI detection (Fig. 2a) and the calcium traces from one example ROI obtained by different methods (Fig. 2b) at 0.2 and 0.8 SL are compared. The contours of

215 the identified ROIs using different methods are drawn and superimposed onto the max 216 projection of the ground truth. For both SLs, MIN1PIPE can identify the nearly complete 217 set of ROIs (93% and 100% for 0.2 and 0.8 SL respectively) with minimal false positives (1% and 0% respectively), whereas the other two methods detect partial subsets of ROIs 218 219 (PCA/ICA: 0% at 0.2 SL and ~65% true positives at 0.8 SL; CNMF: ~32% at 0.2 SL and 220 \sim 95% true positives at 0.8 SL). In addition, the extracted spatial footprints are less realistic 221 with the PCA/ICA or previous CNMF methods. The example calcium traces indicate that 222 MIN1PIPE has a near-optimal performance in extracting individual ROIs even at low SLs 223 when compared to the ground truth traces (Fig. 2b). In contrast, PCA/ICA completely fails 224 to identify ROIs when SL is low, while CNMF fails to separate neurons from overlapping 225 ROIs. Fig. 2c summarizes the performance accuracy of these three methods at all SLs. The plots of the true positive, false positive and false negative indicate that MIN1PIPE has a 226 227 significantly superior performance in all conditions, and outperforms the other two 228 methods in the extreme conditions. Fig. 2d summarizes the spatiotemporal similarities between the extracted results and the ground truth. The clusters of point clouds confirm 229 again that MIN1PIPE outperforms the other two methods in best resembling both the 230 231 spatial and temporal properties of the ground truth signals. The results for all signal levels are shown in Supplementary Fig. S6. 232

To validate the performance of the movement correction in MIN1PIPE, we applied the module on video sections with large deformation movements of the imaging field. Specifically, we chose a video obtained through two-photon imaging of the ferret's posterior parietal cortex as an example due to its particularly frequent and large deformations (Supplementary Video S4 as a demo section of the full video). Fig. 2e shows

an example of 3 consecutive frames (with each frame pseudo-colored as pink, green or 238 239 blue) with large nonlinear deformations between frames superimposed together. The two 240 rigid-transform-based methods (LK and KLT Affine) by themselves fail to fully remove 241 the large deformations, whereas MIN1PIPE (combining the Log-Demons transformation) 242 succeeds in correcting these movements. We further quantified the extent of correction by 243 calculating the average displacement of feature points between two neighboring frames before and after the movement correction (Fig. 2f). Before correction, the score of average 244 245 displacement shows frequent burst of large deformation periods, whereas after correction, the score of displacement shows a nearly flat line. Notably, the frames with large 246 deformations are all well aligned (Fig. 2f lower panels; Supplementary Video S4). 247

248 Application of MIN1PIPE on real miniscope imaging datasets

We next compare the performance of MIN1PIPE with PCA/ICA and CNMF methods on 249 250 real datasets. We first applied the three methods to the miniscope calcium imaging data 251 obtained using prism probe from layer 2 and 3 of the barrel cortex in freely moving mice. 252 GCaMP6f was expressed in layer 2/3 neurons using AAV, and signals were imaged 253 continuously over 5min when the mouse freely explored its environment. Following the general pipeline of MIN1PIPE (Online Methods), our method removed the strong uneven 254 255 background structure, and automatically identified 210 putative ROI components without 256 the need for additional manual selection (Fig. 3a, Supplementary Video S5). In comparison, 257 PCA/ICA identified 79 ROIs whereas CNMF identified 71 ROIs. Note that with the same 258 computer configuration and dataset (~28 GB), the CNMF ran into memory issues and could 259 not process the full-scale video, thus we cropped a center patch as the input video to the 260 CNMF (Fig 3b-d middle panels). The contours of the ROIs identified by the different

methods are drawn and superimposed onto the max projection of the neural enhanced data 261 262 (Fig. 3b). This reveals that MIN1PIPE can identify potentially all ROIs, whereas PCA/ICA 263 and CNMF miss a significant subset of ROIs. Meanwhile, both the PCA/ICA and CNMF have some problems in separating overlapping ROIs and/or estimating the correct shape of 264 the ROIs, as revealed by the max projections of the extracted signals (Fig. 3c). The 265 266 projection of MIN1PIPE extracted signals closely resembles those of the neural enhanced data (Fig. 3c, top). In comparison, the projection obtained using PCA/ICA has low SNR 267 268 with high background signals (Fig. 3c, bottom), whereas the projection derived from 269 CNMF shows unrealistic ROI shapes larger than the true shape of neurons, indicating that 270 the CNMF is sensitive to the contamination of the background dynamics (Fig. 3c, middle). To further check the shape of individual ROIs, we choose to visualize one example ROI 271 embedded in the full imaging field using different methods (Fig. 3d). MIN1PIPE delineates 272 273 a well localized ROI footprint, whereas CNMF returns a less localized ROI difficult to 274 relate to the underlying neuron. PCA/ICA, on the other hand, fails to provide a localized footprint as remnants of other ROI components can also be seen. To examine the temporal 275 traces extracted by the different methods, we selected 10 ROI components that were 276 277 identified by all three methods within the cropped image field and plotted their corresponding calcium traces (Fig 3e, individual panels marked with 1-10). Again, the 278 279 spatial footprints of the 10 ROIs obtained through CNMF and PCA/ICA are less localized 280 as described above. In terms of calcium dynamics, both MIN1PIPE and CNMF give 281 denoised traces, whereas the traces obtained using PCA/ICA are noisy and show unrealistic 282 negative fluctuations. Furthermore, the traces extracted using CNMF include false positive 283 calcium events that likely reflect background noises (arrows in Fig. 3e). Supplementary

Video S6 shows the comparison of raw and processed results using three different methodsof the entire imaging video.

286 To further illustrate the general applicability of MIN1PIPE in processing miniscope 287 imaging data obtained over different brain areas and/or different animal models, we applied it to process calcium imaging results from Area X in zebra finch and compared the results 288 289 with those obtained using the other two methods. Briefly, MIN1PIPE detected 55 ROI components, whereas CNMF detected 15 and PCA/ICA detected 35 ROIs after manual 290 291 selection (Fig. 4a-b, Supplementary Video S7). Again, CNMF could only process a 292 cropped portion of the imaging video due to the computer memory issues. All of the ROIs 293 detected by CNMF and PCA/ICA are included in the set extracted by MIN1PIPE. In 294 addition to false negatives, CNMF also identifies a cluster of false positive ROIs that are apparent upon visual inspections (Fig. 4b-c, e). The PCA/ICA again gives rise to 295 296 nonlocalized ROI footprints that contain other potential components (Fig. 4d). It was 297 known that Area X neurons show strong song selective activities when the bird is singing (Goldberg and Fee, 2010; Kojima and Doupe, 2007; Woolley et al., 2014; Yazaki-298 Sugivama and Mooney, 2004), which can be used as partial ground truth to validate 299 300 MIN1PIPE. We plot the calcium traces of the ROIs identified by MIN1PIPE, and the 301 majority of the ROIs contain calcium events that are roughly phase-locked to the singing 302 onsets (Fig. 4f). Notably, a subset of the neurons shows precise singing-related activities 303 with minimal events unrelated to singing (Fig. 4g upper panel). Furthermore, we sorted 304 neurons according to their timing of peak calcium activities during each song production 305 event (Fig. 4g lower panel), and this analysis also reveals a subset of Area X neurons whose activation patterns are closely related to the onset of the singing, consistent with previousfindings.

We also did studies (Supplementary Fig. S7-S8) showing the effectiveness of the two modules (neural enhancing and seeds-cleansed signal extraction) when combined separately with previous methods to improve the performance. Finally, we compare our method with the CNMF-E method (Zhou et al., 2016) (Supplementary Fig. S9).

312 **DISCUSSION**

313 The key advances that set MIN1PIPE apart from the previous imaging processing methods are the following. First, MIN1PIPE solves the full range of problems for signal extraction 314 315 in single-photon miniscope imaging with one pipeline. Specifically, we have developed 316 innovative and robust modules to solve different problems including: the neural enhancing 317 module that uses a novel algorithm to remove the ultra-high and fluctuating background characteristic of single photon imaging, the novel hierarchical movement correction 318 module that is capable of efficiently registering any types of deformations of the imaging 319 320 field, and the seeds-cleansed neural signal extraction module that utilizes GMM and 321 pretrained RNN to enable automatic identification and extraction of ROIs and calcium traces. Second, MIN1PIPE eliminates the need for heuristically setting many parameters 322 that are not only unknown *a priori*, but also influence the performance of the downstream 323 324 processing steps, such as setting the number of neurons, a central parameter required by all previous neural signal extraction methods. The importance of this should not be neglected, 325 326 because pre-setting unknown parameters can become problematic in practice. For example, 327 overestimating the number of neurons may result in false positives in identified ROIs 328 before the calcium trace extraction step, and also result in the unnecessary consumption of

computing time. These false positives can only be removed with laborious manual selection 329 without a robust seeds-cleansing step. On the other hand, underestimating the number of 330 neurons will likely lead to false negatives that can never be identified by the downstream 331 steps. Therefore, tweaking this parameter is inevitable in practice using previous methods. 332 While we do not claim that MIN1PIPE completely eliminates the need for manually 333 334 pruning identified ROIs, our method does only involve minimal manual interference. Third, 335 MIN1PIPE contains a minimal set of parameters that are easy to interpret and error-tolerant 336 (Online Methods). These include a set of simplified and fixed parameters applicable to 337 various conditions of the popular miniscope platforms (e.g. Inscopix nVista, UCLA opensource miniscope) in our brick algorithm. In addition, all modules use definitive criteria 338 339 independent of various imaging datasets, which ensures the robustness that the previous combination of setting the number of neurons and the serial initialization procedure could 340 341 not provide.

342 In summary, MIN1PIPE provides a generally applicable high-performance toolbox with the modular framework to handle and process miniscope imaging data. Interesting future 343 works may integrate more advanced methods to further improve the precision, such as 344 345 stricter choices of the kernel of anisotropic diffusion (Chen et al., 2011; Tsiotsios and Petrou, 2013), considering spectral invariants to handle very large deformations during 346 347 non-rigid registration (Lombaert et al., 2014), and using more biologically valid calcium 348 dynamics deconvolution methods (Speiser et al., 2017). Additionally, a more robust RNN classifier for seeds cleansing can be trained with more available datasets. 349

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354 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- 355 J.L. and F.W. conceived and designed the project; J.L. designed and implemented all
- 356 modules of MIN1PIPE; C.L. designed the RNN classifier; J.L. generated the synthetic data;
- 357 J.L., F.W., J.S.-A., R.M., Z.Z. and F.F. designed and/or conducted in vivo imaging
- experiments; J.L. and C.L. analyzed the data; J.L., C.L., F.W. wrote the manuscript.

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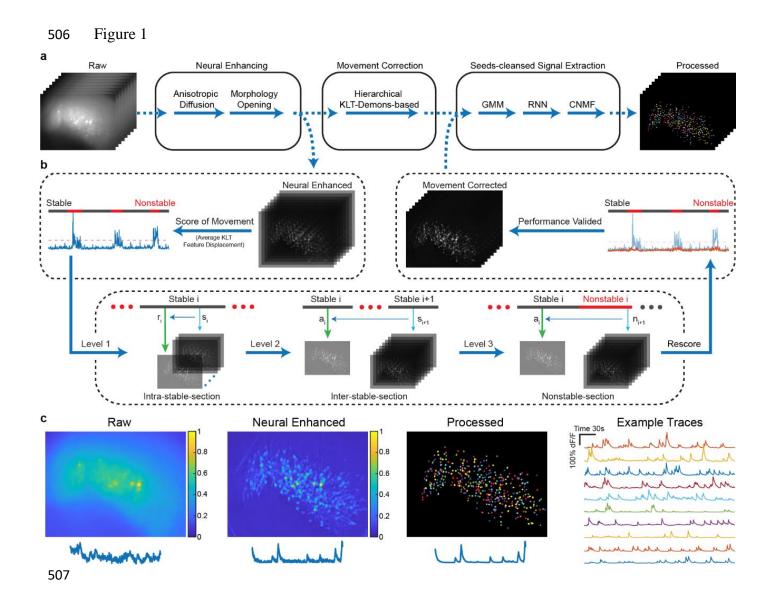


Fig. 1. The general pipeline and demonstrations of MIN1PIPE. a. The overall structure of 508 509 MIN1PIPE. MIN1PIPE takes the very raw miniscope imaging data freshly collected from the imaging system as inputs, and returns fully processed ROI components with spatial 510 footprints and temporal calcium traces as outputs. The data are processed in series by neural 511 enhancing, hierarchical movement correction, and seeds-cleansed signal extraction 512 modules. Each module is composed of specific brick functions. b. A zoom-in of the 513 514 hierarchical movement correction module. The module is KLT-Log Demons based. It first scores all the neural enhanced frames and divides them into stable and nonstable sections, 515

then register frames at three different levels. The movement corrected frames are then fed into the seeds-cleansed neural signal extraction module. c. The max projecting demonstrations of MIN1PIPE. The raw imaging video contains large, dominant background fluctuation, the neural enhanced video contains mainly neural signals, and the fully processed video contains only extracted and denoised neural signals as independent ROI components. Example traces are randomly selected from the processed video. See also Fig. S1-S4.



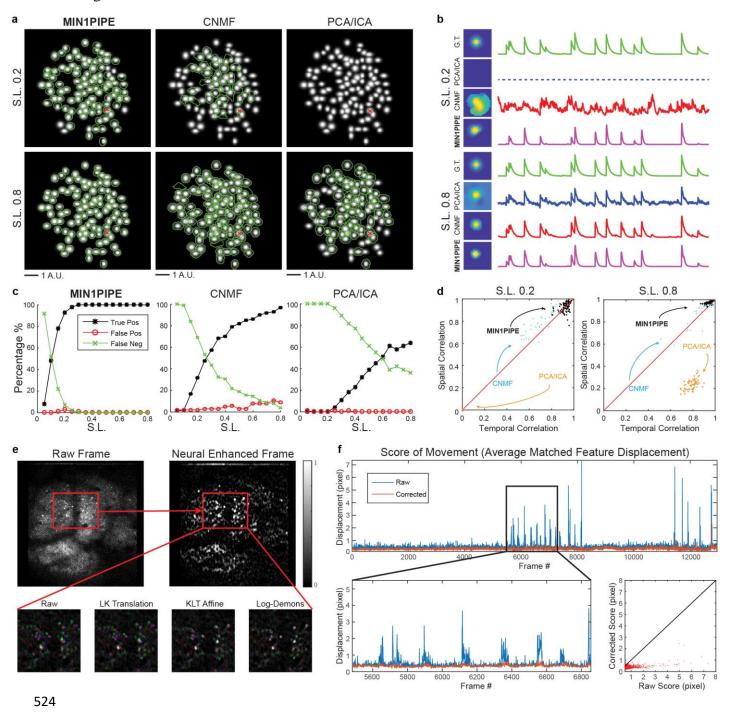


Fig. 2. Quantification of MIN1PIPE. **a-d.** The quantitative performance comparison between MIN1PIPE and the other methods on simulated datasets. **a.** The identified ROI contours of the three methods at two representative signal levels. S.L.: signal level (the

ratio of the amplitude between the signals and the background). A.U.: arbitrary unit. **b.** The 528 trace of an example ROI component identified by the three methods and the ground truth. 529 530 G.T.: ground truth. c. The identification precision and accuracy of the three methods. d. The spatiotemporal identification accuracy with the three methods at two representative 531 signal levels. The similarity of the spatial footprints and temporal traces between the results 532 533 of the three methods and the ground truth of each ROI is plotted as a dot in the figure. These quantifications confirm that MIN1PIPE not only outperforms the other two methods 534 535 in all aspects, but also verify that MIN1PIPE can provide satisfactory neural signal 536 extraction results of miniscope imaging data. e-f. The quantification of the movement correction module. e. The demonstration of various image registration methods in a 537 consecutive three frames from two-photon imaging data. The deformation registration 538 algorithm we use in the module (Log-Demons) successfully corrects all the nonrigid 539 540 deformations within the frames that cannot be corrected by the methods that assume 541 translation or rigid transformation. The black and white color indicate overlapping of the same structure between the frames, whereas other colors indicate nonaligned structures. **f**. 542 The score of movement before and after the correction. In general, the hierarchical 543 544 correction steps register large deformations while preserves the stable frames. See also Fig. S5-S9. 545

546 Figure 3

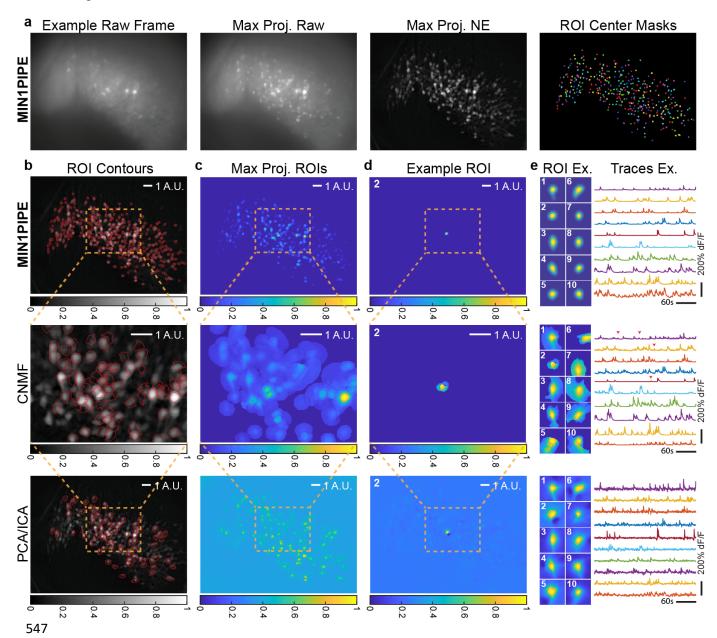


Fig. 3. Comparing different methods using miniscope imaging data from the mouse barrel cortex. a. Demo of MIN1PIPE in processing imaging data from the barrel cortex. We show an example raw frame, the max projection of raw video, the max projection of the neural enhanced video, and the colored ROI masks. b. The identified ROI contours superimposed on the max projection of neural enhanced video. MIN1PIPE returns a set of ROIs with

553 well-shaped, localized spatial footprints. CNMF and PCA/ICA identify only a small subset of true positives (71 and 79 respectively), and either the footprints are not localized, or the 554 run into memory issues. The projection map is shown in grayscale colormap. c. The max 555 projections of all identified ROI footprints. This further demonstrates the general properties 556 of the extracted neural components. d. The spatial footprint of an example ROI. MIN1PIPE 557 558 extracted the most localized component that is close to the real shape shown in the neural 559 enhanced projection, whereas CNMF detected the noise-sensitive result and PCA/ICA 560 detected the unrealistic component as a mix of several other components. e. The temporal 561 traces of ten examples randomly selected from the ROIs that are detected by all three methods. A similar conclusion can be drawn in spatial footprints, whereas MIN1PIPE 562 shows the best performance in temporal trace extraction (some potential false positive 563 events indicated by red arrows). 564

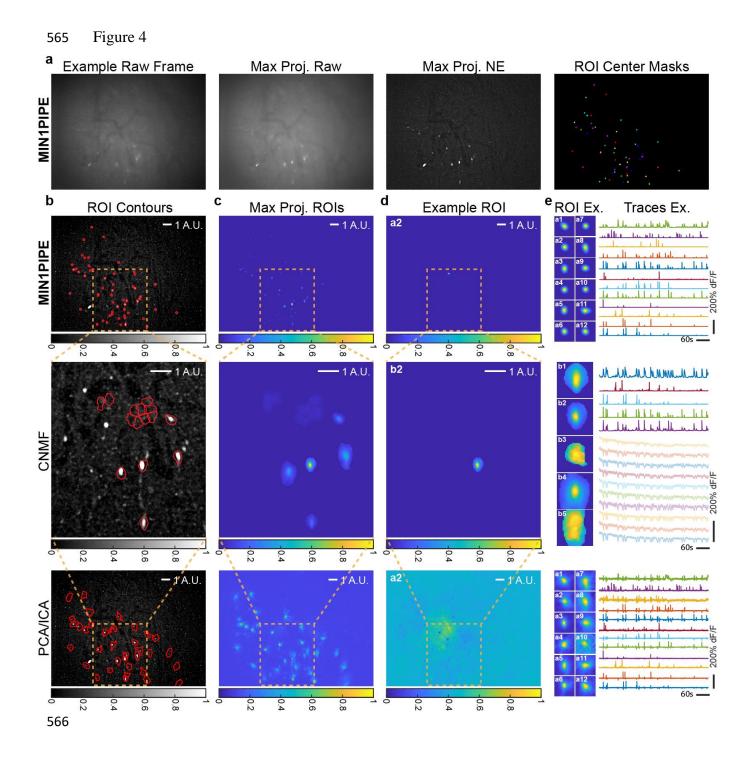
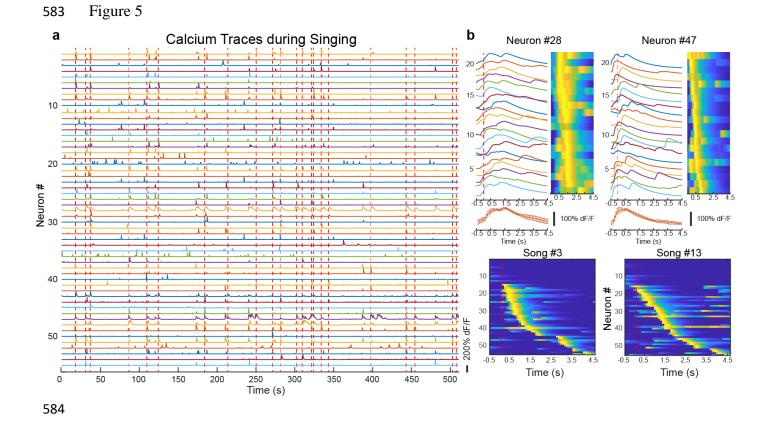


Fig. 4. Comparing different methods using miniscope imaging data from the Area X in
zebra finch. a. Demo of MIN1PIPE in processing data from Area X in the zebra finch brain.
We show an example of the raw frame, the max projection of raw video, the max projection
of the neural enhanced video, and the colored ROI masks. b. The identified ROI contours

571 superimposed on the max projection of neural enhanced video. MIN1PIPE returns a set of ROIs with well-shaped, localized spatial footprints. CNMF and PCA/ICA identify only a 572 small subset of true positives (15 and 35 respectively), and either the footprints are not 573 localized, or the processes run into memory issues. The projection map is shown in 574 grayscale colormap. c. The max projections of all the identified ROI footprints. d. The 575 576 spatial footprint of an example ROI. MIN1PIPE extracted the most localized component 577 that is close to the real shape shown in the neural enhanced projection, whereas PCA/ICA 578 extracted the unrealistic component as a mix of several other components. CNMF on the 579 other hand, did not detect this ROI. e. The temporal traces of twelve examples selected from the ROIs detected by both MIN1PIPE and PCA/ICA. A similar conclusion can be 580 drawn in spatial footprints, whereas MIN1PIPE shows the best performance of temporal 581 trace extraction. Faded traces in CNMF indicate the traces of the false positives. 582



585 Fig. 5. Analysis of neural correlation in Area X of zebra finch to singing behavior. a. The traces of all automatically detected ROIs with MIN1PIPE superimposed with complete 586 587 singing onsets in red dashed lines. Note that incomplete song events are not labeled and 588 taken into analysis. **b.** Upper panel: two example neurons with precise song selectivity. The traces represent the neuronal activity of the first 20 complete song singing events with 589 a window of 0.5 second before and 4.5 seconds after the song onset. The heatmap is another 590 way of visualizing the analysis. The error bar graphs at the bottom show the trial average 591 traces of the two neurons. Lower panel: population activity pattern of two example song 592 593 singing events. The neurons are sorted to the latency of the peak. Red dashed lines indicate the onset of songs. 594

595 ONLINE METHODS

596 **NEURAL ENHANCING** The neural enhancing module contains two steps of framewise 597 operations. We denote $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times T}$ (*P* is number of pixels per frame, and *T* is number of 598 frames) as the raw video after converting each two dimensional frame into a vector, and 599 $\mathbf{I} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times J}$ (*M* and *J* are the height and width of a frame respectively) as a frame before 600 vectorization.

601 To first remove the spatial noise embedded in each frame introduced by the Denoising photoelectric process of the sensor, we apply denoising operation on each frame I using 602 anisotropic diffusion [36]. For a given diffusion time τ , the evolution follows the equation 603 $\frac{\partial \mathbf{I}}{\partial \tau} = \operatorname{div}(\mathbf{C} \nabla \mathbf{I}) \triangleq \nabla \mathbf{C} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{C} \Delta \mathbf{I} \text{ where } \mathbf{C} \text{ is the diffusive coefficient matrix depending}$ 604 on pixels and τ . By choosing concrete form of C and τ , we can control the smoothing 605 level along or perpendicular to the boundaries between neurons and the background. Due 606 to the simple structures in the cleaned imaging field, we choose the classical Perona-Malik 607 filter $\mathbf{C} = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\nabla \mathbf{I}\|^2}{\kappa^2}\right)$, where κ controls the threshold of high-contrast. The diffusivity is 608 selected to preferentially smooth high-contrast regions, and κ and τ are chosen to allow high 609 tolerance. We use $\kappa = 0.5$ and $\tau = 0.5$ with a step size $\delta t = 0.05$ as the default parameters 610 611 in anisotropic diffusion. The output image I^s contains reduced spatial noise while preserves the boundary information of ROIs. 612

613 **Background Removal** Based on the observation that neuronal ROIs are small in size 614 compared to background structures, the gray-scale morphological opening operator with a 615 binary structuring element matrix Φ can well estimate the background B from the frame 616 I adaptively. The opening operator is the combination of erosion \ominus and dilation \oplus : B = 617 $(I \ominus \Phi) \oplus \Phi$ (Van Den Boomgaard and Van Balen, 1992), where the morphological erosion 618 returns minimum value $(I \ominus \Phi)(x, y) = \min_{(s,t)\in\Phi} \{I(x + s, y + t)\}$ and dilation returns 619 maximum value $(\mathbf{I} \oplus \Phi)(x, y) = \max_{(s,t)\in\Phi} \{\mathbf{I}(x+s, y+t)\}$ within the same structuring 620 window at each point. In practice, the choice of the structuring element should be comparable 621 to the overall size of the neurons in the imaging field. We choose the structuring element 622 to be of disk shape with a default size of 9 (pixels). The foreground is then computed as: 623 $\mathbf{I}^{f} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B}$. After the dynamic background removal, \mathbf{I}^{f} contains only neuronal information 624 with minimal background noise corruption.

MOVEMENT CORRECTION The movement correction module performs a hierarchical registration framework over the frames of the imaging video. The neural enhanced video is first scored with a measuring metric on the relative displacement between two neighboring frames. The video is then segmented into stable or nonstable sections based on the score, followed by three levels of registration: the intra-stable-section, inter-stable-section and nonstable-section registration.

631 **Scoring Metric** We track features containing corner information of every two neighboring 632 frames using the KLT tracker, and then calculate the average displacement of these features. 633 The KLT tracker first selects good features to track, where the feature points contains enough 634 information on both directions within the neighborhood p. The problem can be formulated 635 as $\nabla p = 0$ over the neighborhood. A good feature point is selected if the smaller eigenvalue 636 $\sigma_{min} \geq \sigma_0$ and the *condition number* $\kappa = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_{min}} \leq \kappa_{max}$. Then the algorithm tracks the 637 feature points based on Newton-Raphson minimization on the normal equation:

$$\mathbf{A}s = b$$

638 where

$$\mathbf{A} = \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}} \nabla \mathbf{J}_t^{\mathbf{f}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \nabla \mathbf{J}_t^{\mathbf{f}}(\boldsymbol{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\omega}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_{\mathbf{I}_t^{\mathbf{f}}}) \quad and \quad \boldsymbol{b} = \Sigma_{\boldsymbol{x}} \nabla \mathbf{J}_t^{\mathbf{f}}(\boldsymbol{x}) [\mathbf{I}_t^{\mathbf{f}}(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mathbf{J}_t^{\mathbf{f}}(\boldsymbol{x})]^\top \boldsymbol{\omega}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_{\mathbf{I}_t^{\mathbf{f}}})$$

 J_t^{f} and I_t^{f} are the moving and fixed frame of the tth registration pair after neural enhancing 639 respectively (in this case, $J_t^{f} = I_{t+1}^{f}$), and $\omega(x)$ is the window of the neighborhood. For the 640 641 scoring, we choose 31 pixels as the default window size of the neighborhood. To segment the frames into stable/nonstable sections, we compute the minimum value between the 3 642 times of median absolute deviation (MAD) above median and upper limit threshold (0.5 643 pixel as default) to be the threshold of segmentation. Any frame whose score is above 644 the threshold is considered as one belonging to some stable section. The frames that are 645 646 connected together are labeled as stable sections while the remaining connected components 647 are nonstable ones.

Intra-stable-section Registration Displacements with small magnitude or consistent 648 649 directions can be approximated as translational displacement. Therefore, after the segmentation, movements within the stable sections can be considered translational. Within each 650 651 stable section, an efficient displacement matching method with subpixel resolution is used to register the neighboring frames. Here we use a similar Lucas-Kanade tracker to track 652 the center of the moving frames with a sufficiently large window (80% of the frame size) 653 654 between two neighboring frames. However, when frame number within a section grows, the registration error may cumulate for later frames. Therefore, in practice we update the fixed 655 frame as reference every second and all moving frames within that period are aligned to the 656 657 fixed frame. This is acceptable due to the slow calcium dynamics so that the imaging field remains essentially similar within a second. 658

Inter-stable-section Registration The imaging field is stable within each stable section after the intra-section registration. However, the imaging fields of different stable sections are not necessarily similar. Therefore, we need to align different stable sections without specific assumptions of the movement type. We first extract the overall information of each stable section by averaging the frames with significant neuronal activation, we then sort

these sectional images I_i^{sec} according to their similarity. To register the *i*th sectional image based on the sorted similarity, a reference image is generated by calculating the weights \hat{x} using the least square regression between the registered frames and the current sectional image:

$$\mathbf{A}^{\texttt{ref}} x = \boldsymbol{b}^{\texttt{cur}}$$

668 where

$$\mathbf{A^{ref}} = (\mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{I}_1^{\texttt{sec}}), \cdots, \mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{I}_{i-1}^{\texttt{sec}})) \quad and \quad \boldsymbol{b^{\texttt{cur}}} = \mathsf{vec}(\mathbf{I}_i^{\texttt{sec}})$$

The reference image is then reshaped into two dimensional matrix $\mathbf{R}_{i}^{\text{sec}}$ from $b^{\text{ref}} = \mathbf{A}^{\text{ref}} \hat{x}$. Once we have the moving and fixed sectional images, we apply rigid preregistration to the moving image using similar KLT tracker. To finally correct for the nonrigid deformation, we apply the diffeomorphic Log-Demons to the preregistered image $\hat{\mathbf{I}}_{i}^{\text{sec}}$ based on the reference $\mathbf{R}_{i}^{\text{sec}}$. In general, the diffeomorphic Log-Demons is a non-parametric registration method, which aims at finding the displacement of all pixels by minimizing the global energy:

$$E(c,s) = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} Sim(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{M} \circ c) + \frac{1}{\sigma_x^2} dist(s,c)^2 + \frac{1}{\sigma_T^2} Reg(s)$$

675 It consists of the similarity, correspondence and regularization items, where F and M are fixed and moving image respectively, and σ_i , σ_x and σ_T account for similarity, spatial 676 uncertainty on the correspondence and regularization level. In specific, Log-Demons 677 represents everything in log domain. It spells out two regularizing terms, fluid and diffusion, 678 and uses a Lie group structure to impose diffeomorphism. In our implementation, we choose 679 $\sigma_i = \sigma_x = 1$, and $\sigma_{fluid} = \sigma_{diffusion} = 3$. Because all the frames within the same stable 680 section share the same imaging field, the deformation field of the current stable section is 681 then applied to warp all the frames. After registering all the stable sections iteratively, all 682 683 the stable frames are efficiently aligned.

Nonstable-section Registration At the third level, only nonstable sections remain to be aligned. We use a similar approach as in the inter-section registration, where we first preregister the current frame to the reference image, and then apply Log-Demons to finely align the frame. Similarly, the reference image is computed based on some of the registered frames. For the *i*th nonstable section, this set of frames includes the last frame of the *i*th stable section, the first frame of the i + 1th stable section, and the frames that have already been registered in the *i*th nonstable section.

691 SEEDS-CLEANSED SIGNAL EXTRACTION We generate and cleanse the potential
692 seeds of ROIs in this section, and create the initial spatial regions and the time series of
693 ROIs for later refinement of the spatiotemporal signals.

694 **Over-complete Seeds Initialization** To generate the initial set containing centers of all 695 potential ROIs, we construct a *randomized max pooling* process to create an over-complete set of seeds. This process first randomly selects a portion of frames $\mathbf{I}^{s}_{\alpha} = {\{\mathbf{I}^{s}_{t}\}_{t \in \alpha}, \alpha \subseteq \mathbf{I}^{s}_{t \in \alpha}, \alpha \subseteq \mathbf{I}^{s}_{t \in \alpha}, \alpha \in \mathbf{I}^{s}_{t \in \alpha}$ 696 $\{1, \ldots, T\}$, where α is a randomized subset of frame number. We then compute the max-697 projection map across selected frames $I^{max} = \max(I^s_{\alpha})$, and further detect all the local max 698 points on this map as S. We repeat the above procedures multiple times, and collect the 699 union of each map S as the final over-complete set of neural seeds S_{seeds} . Our randomized 700 701 max pooling can improve the true positives compared with max-pooling over the entire video, 702 because a real seed can be buried in the uneven florescence of an ROI over a long period but 703 can most likely be discovered in a small temporal vicinity. To exclude false positive seeds 704 from the set, we propose the following two-stage algorithm for seeds refinement.

705 Seeds Refinement with GMM The temporal properties of ROIs and non-ROIs can be 706 very different. In one aspect, the ROIs often have prominent peak-valley difference d, while 707 non-ROIs tend to be less spiky. We assume $\{d_s | s \in S_{seeds}\}$ are generated from a mixture of two Gaussians $d_s \sim \sum_{i=1}^2 \omega_i \mathcal{N}(d|\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$, where $\mu_i, \sigma_i^2, \omega_i$ indicate the mean, variance, mixture proportion of the *i*th Gaussian component. Therefore, we can cluster the seeds based on their probabilities of belonging to each component, and only consider those having higher probabilities to the Gaussian with a larger mean as positive seeds.

Seeds Refinement with LSTM To select true ROI seeds from the over-complete set, 712 we need to classify the seeds based on their patterns of neuronal calcium dynamics. We 713 714 propose to employ Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) (LeCun et al., 2015) for calcium 715 signal sequence classification. We offline trained the RNNs with a separate training dataset, composed of both positive and negative sequence chunks of length $T_0 = 100$, obtained 716 with 10Hz frame rate. The training data for the RNN module were selected from a separate 717 718 real dataset. The labels were manually selected by experienced neuroscientists with a conservative standard: the positive trials were the ones with most obvious calcium dynamics 719 720 that were aligned to the peak of the spike, whereas the negative trials were randomly selected from the rest of the data. The training dataset contained 1000 positive and 1000 negative 721 labels, and both the validation and the test set contained 600 balanced trials. Specifically, 722 consider training data $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{D}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{D}_N\}$, where $\mathbf{D}_n \triangleq (\boldsymbol{y}_n, l_n)$, with input sequence \boldsymbol{y}_n 723 and output label $l_n \in \{0, 1\}$. Our goal is to learn model parameters θ to best characterize 724 the mapping from \boldsymbol{y}_n to l_n with likelihood $p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{D}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})$. In our setting for 725 sequence classification, the input is a sequence, $\boldsymbol{y} = \{y_1, \dots, y_{T_0}\}$, where y_t is the input 726 data at time t. There is a corresponding hidden state vector $h_t \in \mathbb{R}^K$ at each time t, obtained 727 by recursively applying the transition function $h_t = g(h_{t-1}, y_t; W, U)$. W is encoding 728 weights, and U is recurrent weights. The ouput c for our classification is defined as the 729 corresponding decoding function $p(c|\mathbf{h}_{T_0}; \mathbf{V}) = \sigma(\mathbf{V}\mathbf{h}_{T_0})$, where $\sigma(\cdot)$ denotes the logistic 730 sigmoid function, and V is decoding weights. 731

The transition function $g(\cdot)$ can be implemented with a *gated* activation function, such as LSTM (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) or a Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) (Cho et al., 734 2014). Both LSTM and GRU have been proposed to address the issue of learning long-term 735 sequential dependencies. Each LSTM unit has a cell containing a state c_t at time t. This cell 736 can be viewed as a memory unit. Reading or writing the memory unit is controlled through 737 sigmoid gates: input gate i_t , forget gate f_t , and output gate o_t . The hidden units h_t are 738 updated as follows:

$$i_{t} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{i}\boldsymbol{y}_{t} + \mathbf{U}_{i}\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{b}_{i}), \qquad \tilde{c}_{t} = \tanh(\mathbf{W}_{c}\boldsymbol{y}_{t} + \mathbf{U}_{c}\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{b}_{c}),$$

$$f_{t} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{f}\boldsymbol{y}_{t} + \mathbf{U}_{f}\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{b}_{f}), \qquad c_{t} = f_{t} \odot c_{t-1} + i_{t} \odot \tilde{c}_{t}, \qquad (1)$$

$$o_{t} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{o}\boldsymbol{y}_{t} + \mathbf{U}_{o}\boldsymbol{h}_{t-1} + \boldsymbol{b}_{o}), \qquad \boldsymbol{h}_{t} = o_{t} \odot \tanh(c_{t}),$$

where \odot represents the element-wise matrix multiplication operator. Note that the training of 739 RNNs is completed off-line, only the efficient testing stage is performed for seeds refinement. 740 In the testing stage, given an input \tilde{y} (with missing label \tilde{l}), the estimate for the output is 741 $p(\tilde{l}|\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$, where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \max \log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$. In our practical application, the testing sequence 742 $\bar{y} \in \mathbb{R}^T$ is often of length $T > T_0$. We first convert it into a bag of subsequences $\{\tilde{y}_i\}_{i=1}^{T-T_0+1}$, 743 with a sliding window of width T_0 and moving step size 1. The well trained LSTMs are then 744 used to label the subsequences. We consider \bar{y} as positive if at least one subsequence in its 745 bag is classified as "calcium spike" (l = 1), otherwise negative. Intuitively, this means that 746 747 we only care about the patterns of neural spikes, regardless of their temporal positions.

Seeds Merging Once the set of seeds is cleansed, there is still a low possibility of identi-748 fying multiple seeds within a single ROI. Therefore, we merge all these redundant seeds 749 by computing the temporal similarity of seeds within their neighborhood, and preserving 750 751 the one with maximum intensity. Specifically, we compute the similarity based on phaselocking information (Hahn et al., 2006). For a sequence, we extract the instantaneous phase 752 dynamics using Hilbert transform, and only consider the subsequences containing prominent 753 peaks, because all the pixels within the same ROI are highly correlated only during the 754 755 calcium spiking periods, but not necessarily during baseline period. After seeds merging, 756 we obtain K seeds, as the number of ROIs in our MIN1PIPE.

757 **Spatial and Temporal Initialization** The time series of the *k*th seed is used as initial 758 guess of temporal signal \hat{s}_k . The spatial map of the corresponding ROI, \hat{r}_k , is estimated by 759 pooling neighbor pixels with temporal similarity above a threshold. Because of our seeds 760 generating and cleansing approach, the spatiotemporal initialization in our method can be 761 readily parallelized. Then we fine-tune the corresponding spatial and temporal guess, by 762 applying semi-NMF:

$$\min \|oldsymbol{z}_k - \hat{oldsymbol{r}}_k \hat{oldsymbol{s}}_k^+\|$$

where $z_k \subset \mathbf{I}^s$ is a region containing the *k*th ROI. The spatial map and the temporal signal are updated respectively:

$$oldsymbol{r}_k \leftarrow oldsymbol{z}_k oldsymbol{s}_k^{ op} oldsymbol{s}_k)^{-1}, \qquad oldsymbol{s}_k \leftarrow oldsymbol{s}_k \sqrt{rac{(oldsymbol{r}_k oldsymbol{z}_k)^+ + oldsymbol{s}_k (oldsymbol{r}_k^{ op} oldsymbol{r}_k)^-}{(oldsymbol{r}_k oldsymbol{z}_k)^- + oldsymbol{s}_k (oldsymbol{r}_k^{ op} oldsymbol{r}_k)^+}}$$

where $\mathbf{M}^+ \triangleq \frac{|\mathbf{M}|+\mathbf{M}}{2}$ and $\mathbf{M}^- \triangleq \frac{|\mathbf{M}|-\mathbf{M}}{2}$ for any matrix \mathbf{M} (Ding et al., 2010). In total, we now have K ROIs $\mathbf{S}^0 = [\mathbf{s}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{s}_K]$, and temporal signals $\mathbf{R}^0 = [\mathbf{r}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{r}_K]$. Similarly, the background parameters $\mathbf{b}^0, \mathbf{f}^0$ are also estimated by the same semi-NMF procedure, using $(\mathbf{I}^{\mathbf{s}} - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbf{r}_k \mathbf{s}_k^{\mathsf{T}})$. $\mathbf{S}^0, \mathbf{R}^0, \mathbf{b}^0, \mathbf{f}^0$ are then used as initializations of the spatiotemporal signal refinement.

770 **Spatiotemporal Signal Refinement** We perform the iterative spatial and temporal op-771 timizations to update the spatial footprints of individual ROIs, and the temporal traces 772 with deconvolved spike trains, as proposed in CNMF. Specifically, for the neural enhanced 773 video $\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}$, the method decomposes $\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}$ into a spatial dictionary $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}} \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times K}$ representing 774 individual ROIs, and corresponding temporal dynamics matrix $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{f}} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times K}$, in addition to

775 the background \mathbf{B}^{f} and the background dynamics \mathbf{E} :

$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathtt{f}} = \mathbf{R}^{\mathtt{f}} {\mathbf{S}^{\mathtt{f}}}^{ op} + \mathbf{B}^{\mathtt{f}} + \mathbf{E}$$

Similarly, with the rank-1 assumption on \mathbf{B}^{f} , CNMF decomposes the background $\mathbf{B}^{f} = \mathbf{b}^{f} \mathbf{f}^{f^{\top}}$, where $\mathbf{b}^{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{P}$ and $\mathbf{f}^{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{T}$. Meanwhile, \mathbf{S}^{f} is also correlated with underlying action potential events: $\mathbf{A}^{f} = \mathbf{S}^{f^{\top}} \mathbf{G}^{f}$, where $\mathbf{A}^{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times T}$, and $\mathbf{G}^{f} \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times T}$ is the coefficient matrix of the low-order autoregression. The variables \mathbf{R}^{f} , \mathbf{S}^{f} , \mathbf{b}^{f} , \mathbf{f}^{f} are therefore estimated via iteratively alternating between the following two steps [26].

781 Estimating Spatial Variables Given the estimates of temporal variables $S^{f(\ell-1)}$ and 782 $f^{f(\ell-1)}$ from the last iteration, the spatial parameters can be updated by solving the problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{f}}} \| \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}} \|_{1}, \ s.t. \ \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}}, \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{f}} \ge 0$$
$$\| \mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :) - \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :) \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{f}^{(\ell-1)\top}} - \boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{f}}(i) \boldsymbol{f}^{\mathbf{f}^{(\ell-1)\top}} \| \le \sigma_{i} \sqrt{T}$$

where $\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :)$ is the *i*th row of the matrix $\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}$, $\boldsymbol{b}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :)$ is the *i*th element of the vector. $\epsilon_i \sqrt{T}$ is the empirically selected noise residual constraint of the corresponding pixel. This is essentially a basis pursuit denoising problem, and it is solved by the least angular regression (Efron et al., 2004) in implementation.

787 Estimating Temporal Variables Given the estimates of spatial variables \mathbf{R}^{f} , b^{f} and 788 temporal parameters $\mathbf{S}^{f(\ell-1)}$, $f^{f(\ell-1)}$ from the last iteration, the temporal parameters can be 789 updated by solving the problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{f}}, \mathbf{f}^{\mathbf{f}}} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{G}^{\mathbf{f}} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{f}}, \ s.t. \ \mathbf{G}^{\mathbf{f}} \mathbf{s}_{k}^{\mathbf{f}} \geq 0, k = 1, \cdots, K$$
$$\|\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :) - \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{f}}(i, :) \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{f}^{(\ell-1)}} - \mathbf{b}^{\mathbf{f}}(i) \mathbf{f}^{\mathbf{f}^{(\ell-1)^{\mathsf{T}}}}\| \leq \sigma_{i} \sqrt{T}$$

790 Unlike in CNMF, where the spatial footprints are serially updated and subtracted from 791 the preceding residuals, we extract spatial footprints from the original data that does not 792 depend on preceding iterations. Therefore, the information loss/duplication is reduced and 793 the optimization procedures can be parallelized in our method.

- 794 **Data availability** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the
- 795 corresponding authors upon request.
- 796 Code availability The codes will be freely available upon publication, and the beta version
- 797 is available for reviewers upon request.