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

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Abstract

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

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

1. Introduction

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

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

12 2. Problem and Background

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

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

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

42 **3. Software Framework**

43 *3.1. Software Architecture*

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

55 *3.2. Software Functionality*

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

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

69 **4. Implementation**

70 *4.1. Creation of a spatially embedded graph*

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

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

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

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

4.2. Discretization of trajectory

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

4.3. Run detection

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

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

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

4.4. *Clustering the detected runs*

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

4.5. *Production of the linear place fields*

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

5. **Illustrative Example**

This illustrative example demonstrates the major functions of the software by using a ground truth dataset. This dataset represents a hypothetical

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

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

158 6. Conclusions

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

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Algorithm 1 Run Detection

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 1: Code metadata