Synaptic plasticity

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Human memory systems

Psychologists have split up memory in:

Declarative memory

- * Episodic memory (personal what, when, where memories)
 - recollection
 - familiarity
 - hippocampus (patient HM)
- * Semantic memory: General facts about the world (cortex)

Non-declarative memory (cortex, cerebellum,..) Motor skills, sensory processing, ...

Working memory (prefrontal, not discussed here)

Testing animal memory

(Classical) conditioning Pavlov's dog Aplysia gill reflex

Mazes and environments for rodents

- water maze
- place avoidance
- fear
- food location

What is (activity dependent, long term) synaptic plasticity?

Long term, semi-permanent changes in the synaptic efficacy, induced by neural activity.

In contrast to:

- some aspects of development
- short term changes
- excitability changes

Memory systems

Declarative memory

- * Episodic memory
 - recollection
 - familiarity
 - hippocampus (patient HM)
- * Semantic memory: General facts

Non-declarative memory

Motor skills, sensory processing, ...

Synaptic plasticity









Why plasticity

Why should a neuron selectively change it inputs?

- Adapt to environment and other neurons
- Store explicit information (episodic and semantic memory)
- Implicit information (sensory statistics, motor learning
- Note, computation and memory share the substrate in neural networks.



Why modelling plasticity

- extrapolate single neuron plasticity to network level
- so we don't need to specify all connections in a model (smarter networks)

Outline

- Some new and old data
 - neurobiology of LTP
 - relation of LTP to memory
 - long term stability and forgetting

- Recent own work

More reading

Reviews of experimental LTP:

- Kandel and Schwartz book
- Hippocampus book

Theory of Hopfield networks and Backpropagation - Herz, Krogh and Palmer

Neural computation theory

- Dayan & Abbott
- Trappenberg

Basis of classical conditioning?



For Aplysia see Kandel book

Let us assume that the persistence or repetition of a reverberatory activity (or "trace") tends to induce lasting cellular changes that add to its stability.... When an axon of cell A is near enough to excite a cell B and repeatedly or persistently takes part in firing it, some growth process or metabolic change takes place in one or both cells such that A's efficiency, as one of the cells firing B, is increased.

"What fires together, wires together"

Hippocampus

- Essential for declarative memory
- cylindrical structure
- longitudinal axis surrounds thalamus





Diagram: Kit Longden



Schaffer collateral LTP (in vitro)



alternate at 15 sec intervals

tetanic stimulation S1: cooperative S2: input-specific S1+S2: associative





Synaptic plasticity = memory? Criteria

Detectability

changes in behaviour and synaptic efficacy should be correlated **Yes**

•Mimicry

change synaptic efficacies → new 'apparent' memory Rudimentary

 Anterograde alteration prevent synaptic plasticity → anterograde amnesia
Yes (e.g. NMDA block)

Retrograde alteration
 alter synaptic efficacies → retrograde amnesia

Yes (e.g. PKMz), but...

[Martin, Greenwood, Morris '04]

Synaptic plasticity=memory?



[Whitlock,.. and Bear '06]



Induction:

- Requires pre- and post synaptic activity.
- Mechanism: NMDA and Ca influx

Expression

- Early LTP
- Late LTP

Maintainance



Model for LTP induction



NMDA requires pre and post activity, hence ideal for Hebbian Learning

AP5 is a selective blocker



AP5 blocks learning

27



[Morris et al 86]

Ca hypothesis



Pairing high pre- and post synaptic activity => LTP Pairing with low activity => Long term depression



Induction:

- Requires pre- and postsynaptic activity.
- Mechanism: NMDA and Ca influx



"Post-" model for expression



Changes in AMPA receptor phosphorilation





2.0

4.0

6.0

[Whitlock, .. and Bear '06]

Early phase LTP



Stim.: 1 s @ 100Hz Rapid and local change

Associativity



- Can be explained with voltage dependence of NMDA

- Associative learning such as Classical conditioning (Pavlov)

Basis of classical conditioning?



For Aplysia see Kandel book

Early phase LTP



Stim.: 1 s @ 100Hz Rapid and local change

But gone after few hours

Late LTP requires protein synthesis



[Fonseca et al 06]

36
Late phase LTP





Induction:

- Requires pre- and post synaptic activity.
- Mechanism: NMDA and Ca influx

Expression: - Early LTP (1 hr): - partly pre-synaptic changes - AMPAR phosphorylation - AMPAR insertion -Late phase LTP -requires protein synthesis

> Postsynaptic membrane

Receptors for re-uptake of transmitter

Glia

What determines if LTP lasts?

Reward and punishment





[Seidenbecher '95]

Longevity: In vivo physiology



[Abraham '00]

• Strong extracellular stimulation, leads to long lasting strengthening of synapse [Bliss and Lomo '73]

What determines if LTP lasts?



Environment



[Abraham '00]

[Abraham '02, Li & Rowan '00] (Dopamine mediated) Does a novel environment 'reset' hippocampal learning?



Induction

Expression

Maintainance



LTP maintenance as an active process



ZIP disrupts one month old memory

[Pastalkova et al '06]

[movie demo]

Hypotheses for maintaince / long term stability

Slots for AMPA receptors

GluR2 trafficking





[Yao & Sacktor '08]

[Turrigiano '02]

PKMC mRNA

Learning models

Why modelling plasticity

Why modeling plasticity: 2 cross-fertilizing approaches

- 1) Artificial neural networks, engineering approach
 - make a network do something
 - now somewhat superseded by more formal

machine learning

- 2) Insight in biology
 - extrapolate single neuron plasticity to network level
 - how can organisms adapt?

Models of plasticity and memory

Supervised learning

- tell network exactly what desired output is
- train network by changing the weights

Reinforcement learning

- Only give reward/punishment

Unsupervised learning

 Let the network discover things (statistics) about the input, e.g. Create representations that are useful for further processing (V1)

Animals/humans can do all three presumably

Supervised: Perceptron

Categorize inputs into two classes



Perceptron learning rule [Rosenblatt 1952]

- If it can be learned, the rule converges
- Not all classification problems can be learned

Linear separability



Separable Perceptron can classify



Non-separable Perceptron can't classify Need multiple layers

Multi-layer perceptron

Network to approximate any function with arbitrary number of inputs and outputs



Back propagation

$$E = \sum_{pattern} (out_{actual} - out_{desired})^2$$

$$E(in, out | w_1, w_2, ...)$$
$$\Delta w_i = -\epsilon \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$$

Back propagation

General approach:

- Come up with cost function, (objective function) Examples: #errors, sparseness, invariances
- Take the derivative wrt synaptic weights.
- You have created a learning rule

Hopfield network

- Model for CA3
- Recurrent network
- Auto-associator (i.e. Pattern completion)





Hopfield network



Unsupervised plasticity

- Vanilla model: $\Delta w_i = \epsilon x_i y$
- Covariance rule: $\Delta w_i = \epsilon (x_i \langle x_i \rangle) \cdot (y \langle y \rangle)$

- Assumptions made:
- w can change sign
- w is unbounded
- dw independent of w
- linear
- dw independent of other synapses
- changes are gradual and small



Unsupervised learning

$$\Delta w_{i} = \langle \epsilon x_{i} y \rangle$$

$$\Delta w_{i} = \epsilon \langle x_{i} \sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j} \rangle (slow, linear)$$

$$\Delta w_{i} = \epsilon \sum_{j} \langle x_{i} x_{j} \rangle w_{j}$$

$$\Delta w_{i} = \epsilon Q_{ij} w_{j}$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{w}(t)}{\partial t} = Q. \vec{w}(t)$$
PCA
$$\vec{w}(t) = \sum_{i} c_{i} \vec{w}_{i} e^{\lambda_{i} t}$$
Diverges

)PS

56

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 u_1, w_1

Constraints and competition

<u>Constraints</u> Keep each weight within bounds



Normalization

Make sure that $\sum_{i} w_{i}$ is constant

This leads to competition

- Divisive normalization (weak competition)
- Subtractive normalization (strong competition)

Constraints and competition

The outcome of the learning is strongly determined by the constraints [Miller & Mackay] (Alternatives: BCM, Oja's rule)

Practical tip:

Use subtractive normalization

Own Work

Computational modelling of synaptic plasticity

Ultimate goal:

Quantitative, accurate models in health and disease

Most models are oversimplified

Plasticity is complicated and depends on, for instance:

- pre and post activity,
- reward, modulation, history, other synapses, homoeostasis..
- synaptic weight itself



60

Plasticity due to random patterns: random walk 61

Random, independent sequence of LTP and LTD



weight

index

Synaptic weights divergence



• Diffusion of weights, hence unlimited (Sejnowski '77)

Dealing with synaptic weights diveraence 63

Some possible solutions:

- Hard bounds
- BCM (*)
- Normalization/homoeostasis (*)

The outcome of the rules depends strongly on the chosen solution...

 $\sum_{i} w_{i} = 1$

 $\sum_{i} w_i^2 = 1$

• Which is consistent with biology ?

(*) Competitive

LTP/LTD is weight dependent



Simple model



Long term depression



Simple description

Relative change:

$$\frac{\Delta W^{-}}{W} = -c_1; \quad \frac{\Delta W^{+}}{W} = \frac{c_2}{W}$$

Absolute change:

$$\Delta W^{-} = -c_1 W; \quad \Delta W^{+} = c_2$$

Weight dependent random walk



weight

index

Weight dependent learning rules



- Weight dependent plasticity prevents run away
- Leads to realistic weights distributions

Table of contents

68

- Spines and weight dependent plasticity
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- Weight dependence increases information capacity
- Requirements for homeostatic plasticity

Biophysics of LTP saturation? LTP spine MPA-R dendrite

Simple model for weight dependence: biophysical saturation

Spine morphology is very plastic



a

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Synapse growth



Synapse growth: effect on Calcium


Synapse growth: effect on Calcium



Synapse growth: effect on Calcium



Ca only invariant if:

 $\rho_{N\!M\!D\!A}\!\propto r^{(3/2)}$

Spine [Ca] after uncaging



Modelling plasticity



[e.g. Shouval et al '02]

Ca-volume scenarios





Biophysical implementation



Weight dependent plasticity curves



- see also [Kalantzis & Shouval '09]
- Might help to explain experimental variability

Meta-stability of large synapses



Under-compensation freezes large weights



Note, contrasts with most softbound rules.

Large spines are more stable





[from Trachtenberg '02 Supp Info]

Relation to disease?



[Fiala et al. '02]





- Spine volume dynamics has strong effect on plasticity dynamics
- Can explain a number of plasticity phenomena
- Leads to meta-stable states

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Spike Timing Dependent Plasticity: Experimental data



Modelling STDP



Modelling STDP

Poisson trains



Modelling STDP



- Require hard bounds on weights
- Competitive

[Song & Abbott '01]

But STDP is weight dependent ('soft bounds') 91



Weight dependence leads to observed weight distribution

92



[MvR, Bi, Turrigiano '00]

Weight vs correlation



[MvR Turrigiano '01]

[Perin & Markram'11]

Ongoing background activity leads to weight fluctuations





Fokker-Planck approach



 $\frac{\partial P(w,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{-\partial}{\partial w} [A(w)P(w,t)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w^2} [DP(w,t)]$

 $A(w) = -p_d c_d w + p_p c_p$

Weight dependence leads to volatile memories



- Spontaneous activity leads to memory decay
- Decay is exponential
- Decay is much faster for weight dependent STDP

Weight dependence leads to quick forgetting



Weight dependence leads to quick forgetting

Langevin equation, dominated by drift

$$w(t + dt) = w(t) + A(w)dt + N(0, c)\sqrt{dt}$$

$$A(w) = \alpha [w_0 - w(t)]$$

 $\langle w(0)w(t + dt) \rangle - \langle w(0)w(t) \rangle = \alpha [\langle w(0) \rangle w_0 - \langle w(0)w(t) \rangle] dt$

$$C(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} [\langle w(0)w(t) \rangle - \langle w(0) \rangle^2]$$

= exp(-\tau_ma_v_{pre}v_{post}t)

Fluctuation-dissipation theorem



Calculating the nSTDP autocorrelation

From statistical mechanics find the potential that goes with the equilibrium distribution:

$$U(w) = \frac{\sigma}{A_{-}} (\epsilon w - \frac{1}{2W_{tot}} w^2) (0 < w < w_m)$$

Approximate with a quartic:

$$U_{a}(w) = \frac{\sigma}{2w_{m}^{2}A_{-}W_{tot}}w^{2}(4w^{2}-6ww_{m}+w_{m}^{2}-4\varepsilon wW_{tot}+6\varepsilon w_{m}W_{tot})$$

Now we can calculate the Kramers escape rate from one well to the other

$$\tau_{\uparrow} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{V_{\text{approx}}''(0) |V_{\text{approx}}''(w_{\rho})|}} \exp\left(\frac{V_{\text{approx}}(w_{\rho}) - V_{\text{approx}}(0)}{\sigma}\right)$$

From this we find the autocorrelation time

$$\tau_{nSTDP} = \frac{T_{CA}T_{AC}}{T_{CA} + T_{AC}}$$





Weight dependence leads to quick forgetting

Langevin equation, dominated by drift

$$w(t + dt) = w(t) + A(w)dt + N(0, c)\sqrt{dt}$$

$$A(w) = \alpha [w_0 - w(t)]$$

$$\langle w(0)w(t + \mathrm{d}t) \rangle - \langle w(0)w(t) \rangle = \alpha [\langle w(0) \rangle w_0 - \langle w(0)w(t) \rangle] \mathrm{d}t$$

$$C(t) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} [\langle w(0)w(t) \rangle - \langle w(0) \rangle^2]$$

= exp(-\tau_prev_{post}t)



A vs autocorrelation timescale for nSTDP



How weight dependence leads to quick forgetting



Experimental data: erasure by spontaneous activity

103



Are memories in *networks* are unstable?

Stability of receptive fields in networks

104



V1-like network

- Integrate and fire
- Variable lateral inhibition
- Sometimes plastic recurrent connections



nSTDP: Spontaneous symmetry breaking [Song &Abbott '01, Delorme '01]





Weight dependent plasticity requires inhibition for selectivity

Broad tuning underlies receptive field



Stability of receptive fields

Receptive fields



Population vectors


Inhibition rescues network stability



Allows for regulation of retention time

[Billings & MvR 2009]

Experimental evidence for effect of inhibition on stability 110

 Reduced inhibition in auditory plasticity



Experimental evidence for effect of inhibition on stability 111

LETTER

doi:10.1038/nature12485

A disinhibitory microcircuit initiates critical-period plasticity in the visual cortex

Sandra J. Kuhlman¹^{+*}, Nicholas D. Olivas^{2*}, Elaine Tring¹, Taruna Ikrar², Xiangmin Xu^{2,3} & Joshua T. Trachtenberg¹

Stability of plasticity

Stability is regulated on many different levels:

- receptor stability
- weight dependence of the learning rule (here)
- synaptic tagging (Barret and MvR 2008)
- network interactions (here)
- systems level consolidation

Table of contents

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Weight dependent learning and information storage



- Binary patterns x
- Ongoing learning, interrupted by recognition test

Measuring memory storage capacity

Separate learned from novel patterns ('lures') Response in test phase:



Ongoing learning: new memories overwrite old ones

116



Typically, exponential decay

Trade-off: memory strength vs decay

117



What is better:

• High initial SNR, or slow decay? [Fusi and Abbott '07]

Weight dependence is always better



Using Shannon information to resolve trade-off

How much **information** about the pattern is gained by inspecting the output?



Always correct ~ 1 bit Chance level ~ 0 bits

[Barrett and MvR' 08]

Using Shannon information to resolve trade-off

Use small learning rates to prevent saturation of Information



$$I_S^{SB} = \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} S(t)$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} \int_0^{\infty} S(t) dt$$

Small learning rates, soft-bound

Mean decay of a potentiated synapse



Small learning rates, soft-bound

Fokker-Planck equation:

 $\frac{\partial P(w,t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial [A(w)P(w,t)]}{\partial w} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 [B(w)P(w,t)]}{\partial w^2}$ Right after potentiation

$$P(w,0) = P_{\infty}(w + v(0)) \approx P_{\infty}(w) + v(0)P'_{\infty}(w).$$

Transport equation:

$$\frac{\partial P(w,t)}{\partial t} = -[A'(w)v(t)]\frac{\partial P(w,t)}{\partial w}.$$
 Weight decays as:

$$v(t) = a \exp(-\frac{1}{2}bt).$$



Synaptic weight

Information

$$I_S^{SB} = \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} \int_0^\infty S(t) dt$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} .1$$
$$\approx 0.1148 \text{ bits.}$$

Small learning rates, hard-bound



Small learning rates, hard-bound

$$P(w,t) = P_{\infty}(w) + a \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} G(w,t;w_0 = 1+4k) - G(w,t;w_0 = -1+4k)$$

$$G(w,t;w_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi Bt}} \exp\left[-(w - w_0)^2/(2Bt)\right]$$

$$\frac{\partial \langle w \rangle(t)}{\partial t} = \int_{-1}^{+1} w \frac{\partial P(w,t)}{\partial t} dw$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} B[P(-1,t) - P(1,t)]$$

$$= -a^3 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda_k a^2 t} \qquad I_S^h$$

$$\lambda_k = \frac{1}{8} [\pi (2k+1)]^2$$



$$I_{S}^{HB} = \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} \int_{0}^{\infty} S(t) dt$$
$$= \frac{1}{4\pi \ln 2} \sum_{k,l=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_{k} \lambda_{l} (\lambda_{k} + \lambda_{l})}$$
$$\approx 0.096827 \text{ bits}$$

Weight dependent learning gives superior Information capacity 125



[MvR et al. '12]

Universality at low learning rates



Weight dependence is always better



High learning rates



Table of contents

- Spines and weight dependent plasticity
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Homeostatic regulation



Homeostatic regulation



Homeostatic regulation



Neural homeostasis in reaction to activity change:

- Synaptic scaling
- Intrinsic excitability

Homeostasis of intrinsic excitability



Rat, hippocampal culture. Manipulation of external K [O'Leary et al 2009]

Homeostasis is slow

Mechanism: K permeabilty

Homeostasis of intrinsic excitability: other pathways

[Grubb & Burrone 2010

Homeostatic regulating of excitability

Theoretical challenge

- Fast restoration of operating point
- Stable

"Integral controller" Threshold

$$\tau_{r} \frac{dr(t)}{dt} = -r(t) + g(I - T)$$

$$\tau_{Ca} \frac{dCa(t)}{dt} = -Ca(t) + r(t)$$

$$\tau_{T} \frac{dT(t)}{dt} = Ca(t) - const$$

Perfect integrator

Robust perfect adaptation in bacterial chemotaxis through integral feedback control

Tau-Mu Yi*[†], Yun Huang^{†‡}, Melvin I. Simon^{*§}, and John Doyle[‡]

Homeostatic regulation Single neurons

Homeostatic regulation Single neurons

Typically a slow feedback will be stable (but slow..)

What time-constants to have stable homeostasis?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} r_1(t) \\ r_2(t) \\ r_3(t) \end{pmatrix} &= M \begin{pmatrix} r_1(t) \\ r_2(t) \\ r_3(t) \end{pmatrix} + \mathbf{b} \\ M &= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\tau_1} & 0 & -\frac{1}{\tau_1} \\ \frac{1}{\tau_2} & -\frac{1}{\tau_2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\tau_3} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau_1} u(t) \\ 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\tau_3} r_{goal} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Re(Eigenvalues) <0 & Im(Eigenvalues)=0 \rightarrow Stable Re(Eigenvalues) <0 \rightarrow Stable, damped oscillations

Homeostatic regulation Single neurons

Typically a slow feedback will be stable (but slow..)

Homeostasis in Networks

Critical amount of recurrence

Rate based dynamics

(No homeostasis) N neurons with fast synapses:

$$\tau_1 \frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{r}_1(t) = (W - I)\mathbf{r}_1(t) + \mathbf{u}(t)$$

Decompose into eigen-modes of W (assume W'=W)

$$\frac{\tau_1}{1-w_i}\frac{d\mathbf{e}_i\exp(\lambda t)}{dt} = -\mathbf{e}_i\exp(\lambda t) + \frac{1}{1-w_i}\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{e}_i\exp(\lambda t)$$
Analysis of homestatic network

3N dimensional system

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \mathbf{r}_3 \end{pmatrix} = M \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \mathbf{r}_2 \\ \mathbf{r}_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau_1} \mathbf{u}(t) \\ 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\tau_3} r_{goal} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau_1}(W - I) & 0 & -\frac{1}{\tau_1}I \\ \frac{1}{\tau_2}I & -\frac{1}{\tau_2}I & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\tau_3}I & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvectors are of the form:

22 333

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{e}_n \\ \alpha_n \mathbf{e}_n \\ \beta_n \mathbf{e}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Stability of N 3rd order characteristic polynomials

 $(1 - w_i + \tau_1 \lambda)(1 + \tau_2 \lambda)\tau_3 \lambda + 1 = 0$

Observation:

mode with largest e.v. w, de-stabilizes first.

Hence,

network stable iff mode with largest eigenvalue is sta



Numerical examples

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_1 \frac{dr_1(t)}{dt} &= -r_1(t) + g(I - r_3(t)) \\ \tau_2 \frac{dr_2(t)}{dt} &= -r_2(t) + r_1(t) \\ \tau_3 \frac{dr_3(t)}{dt} &= r_2(t) - const \end{aligned}$$

Assume tau1=1ms, tau2=50 ms, examine tau3

Netw. time-constRecurrenceStable Oscil.Stable1 ms01ms220ms100 ms0.993.2s52s10 s0.9999500s28hrs

Homeostatic speed vs network recurrence



148

Spiking network simulation



•Currently researching balanced models

Homeostatic regulation: How many filters?



Counter-intuitively, adding filters tends to de-stabilize.

Homeostatic regulation: Adding filters is often bad..



151

Analysis

N x K dimensional system

$$\tau_1 \frac{dr_1(t)}{dt} = -[1-w]r_1(t) + u(t) - r_K(t)$$

$$\tau_k \frac{dr_k(t)}{dt} = -r_k(t) + r_{k-1}(t) \qquad k = 2...K - 1$$

$$\tau_K \frac{dr_K(t)}{dt} = -r_{goal} + r_{K-1}(t)$$

For each eigenvalue w:

$$1 + \lambda \tau_K (1 - w + \lambda \tau_1) \prod_{k=2}^{K-1} (1 + \lambda \tau_k) = 0$$