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Organization of Neural Population Code in Mouse Visual System

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1 Organization of Neural Population Code in Mouse Visual System

3 Abstract

4 The mammalian visual system consists of several anatomically distinct areas, layers, and cell
5 types. To understand the role of these subpopulations in visual information processing, we ana-
6 lyzed neural signals recorded from excitatory neurons from various anatomical and functional
7 structures. For each of 186 mice, one of six genetically tagged cell-types and one of six visual
8 areas were targeted while the mouse was passively viewing various visual stimuli. We trained
9 linear classifiers to decode one of six visual stimulus categories with distinct spatiotemporal
10 structures from the population neural activity. We found that neurons in both the primary vi-
11 sual cortex and secondary visual areas show varying degrees of stimulus-specific decodability, and
12 neurons in superficial layers tend to be more informative about the stimulus categories. Addi-
13 tional decoding analyses of directional motion were consistent with these findings. We observed
14 synergy in the population code of direction in several visual areas suggesting area-specific orga-
15 nization of information representation across neurons. These differences in decoding capacities
16 shed light on the specialized organization of neural information processing across anatomically
17 distinct subpopulations, and further establish the mouse as a model for understanding visual
18 perception.

19 **Significance Statement** This analysis is one of the first of the Allen Brain Observatorys visual
20 cortex dataset. The mouse has recently emerged as a powerful alternative to primates and car-
21 nivorious species as a model for studying visual perception. Mice offer the benefit of large-scale,
22 high-throughput experiments and sophisticated genetic tools useful to investigating highly specific
23 components of visual perception. Preliminary work in identifying the functional organization of
24 mouse extrastriate areas has focused on single neurons and lacks analysis at the population level.
25 Our population decoding analysis contributes novel evidence about the role of many distinct areas

26 and layers of the mouse visual cortex in visual information processing to further establish the mouse
27 as a viable model for future visual system research.

28 **Introduction**

29 Though the mouse has long been neglected as a model for studying neural visual information
30 processing, it has recently emerged as a powerful alternative to primate and other carnivorous
31 species. Mice offer the benefit of large-scale, high-throughput experiments and sophisticated genetic
32 tools for investigating highly specific components of visual perception (?). However, the use of mice
33 in studying visual perception is currently limited by insufficient knowledge about the functional
34 organization of the mouse visual cortex. Thus, we aim to characterize the population neural code
35 associated with cortical organization of visual information processing.

36 Visual information is thought to be processed in a series of computations as it travels from
37 the retina to the lateral geniculate nucleus and then through a series of visual cortices (?). The
38 early visual system processes complex visual stimuli through the simultaneous encoding of different
39 stimulus attributes, such as direction, orientation, and spatial and temporal frequency by individual
40 neurons, while higher order visual cortices process nonlinear features (?). If we can build a simple
41 population decoder to read out the information made accessible by the neural population (Fig. 1),
42 we can provide insight to which of these features are encoded in specific populations of neurons (?).

43 The global topographic organization of the mouse visual cortex has been well characterized.
44 Recent studies have retinotopically identified at least ten visual areas with organized and complete
45 representations of the entire visual field (???). However, the neural population code — how infor-
46 mation is collectively represented in the neural activity — has remained elusive. While progress has
47 been made in identifying differences between the spatiotemporal information encoded by neurons in
48 different visual areas, prior work has focused on single neurons and lacks analysis at the population
49 level (???). By decoding neural responses in large neural populations of 186 mice spanning six
50 visual areas, we aim to better understand population coding in the mouse visual cortex.

51 Given neural responses from populations of just over one hundred visual cortical neurons, linear
52 classifiers achieve high accuracy in two decoding tasks: one with six stimulus classes with complex
53 spatiotemporal features and one with eight drifting grating directions. We found differential de-

54 coding accuracy between the primary (VISp), lateral (VISl), anterolateral (VISal), anteromedial
55 (VISam), posteromedial (VISpm), and rostrolateral (VISrl) visual areas, which implies differential
56 information representation in these visual areas. We also found differences between populations
57 from different cortical depths, with superficial layer populations containing more information than
58 those from deeper layers. Moreover, we found evidence that directional tuning in individual neurons
59 does not necessarily predict the population decoding accuracy suggesting distributed representa-
60 tion of information. These results reveal novel evidence about the cortical organization of visual
61 information processing.

62 **Materials & Methods**

63 **Dataset**

64 We analyzed data from the Allen Brain Observatory, downloaded on July 3, 2017 using the Al-
65 lenSDK version 0.13.2. In brief, the Allen Brain Observatory recorded *in vivo* two-photon calcium
66 imaging data at 30 Hz over a 400 μm field of view at a resolution of 512×512 pixels. We use data
67 from 186 mice of the 216 mice imaged by the Allen Brain Observatory.

68 Recent studies have identified aberrant cortical activity in GCaMP6-expressing transgenic
69 mouse lines, particularly in Emx1-Cre, a line included in Allen Brain Observatory dataset (?). By
70 screening somatosensory cortex epifluorescence movies prior to imaging and analyzing visual cortex
71 two-photon calcium recordings after imaging, the Allen Brain Observatory detected aberrant activ-
72 ity resembling epileptiform interictal events in ten Emx-IRES-Cre mice and seven Rbp4-Cre_KL100
73 mice. Data recorded from these seventeen aberrant mice were excluded from our analysis. In addi-
74 tion, data from twelve mice were discarded due to the recording of fewer than ten common neurons
75 across three visual stimulus sessions. Lastly, data from one additional mouse was discarded due
76 to a large number of missing values, resulting in a total of 186 mice with viable data. The sizes
77 (Table 1- 4) and Cre lines (Table 5 and 6) of the populations varied among the targeted visual
78 areas and depths.

79 A set of synthetic and natural stimuli, comprised of (1) drifting gratings, (2) static gratings,
80 (3) locally sparse noise, (4) natural images, (5) natural movies, and (6) spontaneous activity (mean
81 luminance gray), were displayed on an ASUS PA248Q LCD monitor at a resolution of 1920×1200

82 pixels (?). Spherical warping was applied to all stimuli to account for the close viewing angle. The
83 monitor was positioned 15 cm from the right eye of awake head-fixed mice, spanning 120° by 95°
84 of visual space without accounting for the spherical warping. The stimuli were distributed into
85 three sessions A, B, and C (or C2) which were presented over three days. The natural movie and
86 spontaneous stimuli were presented in all sessions. Drifting gratings were presented in session A,
87 static gratings and natural images in session B, and locally sparse noise in session C/C2. Session
88 types C and C2 both contained the 4-degree locally sparse noise stimulus (16 × 28 array of 4.65°
89 patches). Session C2 also contained the 8-degree locally sparse noise stimulus (8 × 14 array of 9.3°
90 patches), which was discarded from analysis since it was only shown to a subset of mice.

91 The static and drifting gratings stimuli were presented in a variety of orientations, spatial
92 frequencies, and temporal frequencies. The static gratings stimulus was comprised of gratings
93 presented at 6 orientations (separated by 30°), 5 spatial frequencies (0.02, 0.04, 0.08, 0.16, or 0.32
94 cycles/degree) and 4 phases (0, 0.25, 0.5, or 0.75). Each static grating condition was presented
95 50 times in a random order, with a duration of 0.25 seconds per condition. The drifting gratings
96 stimulus was comprised of 40 grating conditions. Each grating condition was a combination of one
97 of 8 directions (separated by 45°) and one of 5 temporal frequencies (1, 2, 4, 8, or 15 Hz) at a
98 spatial frequency of 0.04 cycles/degree. Each drifting grating condition was presented 15 times
99 each in a random order, with a duration two seconds per condition followed by one second of mean
100 luminance gray.

101 A full description of the Allen Brain Observatory's data collection methodology is also available
102 in their Visual Coding Overview and Visual Stimuli technical whitepapers (?).

103 **Pre-processing**

104 The neural signal was quantified as fluorescence fluctuation $\Delta F/F$, calculated for each frame as
105 $\Delta F/F = \frac{F - F_0}{F_0}$, where the baseline F_0 is the mean fluorescence of the preceding 1 second. For each
106 of 186 neural populations, three hours of $\Delta F/F$ traces were separated into stimulus epochs.

107 To form samples for the stimulus classification, each epoch was divided into 10s intervals, of
108 which the final interval was discarded if it was less than 10s. Neural populations used in the
109 stimulus classification were composed of neurons common across the three imaging sessions A, B,
110 and C (or C2) for each mouse (Tables 1 and 2). For each 10s interval, the mean fluorescence

111 fluctuation per neuron was calculated and labeled with the corresponding stimulus class.

112 To form samples for the direction classification, the drifting gratings epoch was divided into
113 3 s intervals, of which the third second (during which a blank sweep of mean luminance gray was
114 presented) was discarded. Neural populations used in the direction classification were composed of
115 all neurons imaged during session A, and thus were larger than populations used in the stimulus
116 classification (Table 3 and 4). For each 2 s interval, the mean fluorescence fluctuation per neuron
117 was calculated and labeled with the corresponding grating direction.

118 In both the stimulus and the direction decoding, mean $\Delta F/F$ for each neuron were z-scored
119 and combined to form the neural feature vectors in \mathbb{R}^n for classification, where n is the number of
120 neurons in the population.

121 Neural decoding

122 We used linear classifiers to decode the stimulus classes based on the neural feature vectors. The
123 classifiers were implemented on a MacBook Pro laptop running macOS in the Python programming
124 language using the scikit-learn machine learning library version 0.19.0 (?). Linear support vector
125 machine (SVM) and multinomial logistic regression (MLR) were trained and tested with a nested
126 cross-validation scheme. We principally split the data into training and test sets to form a 5-fold
127 cross-validated prediction.

128 All results are based on data from both SVM and MLR classification, for which similar results
129 were obtained (Fig. 8). However, we show only show SVM classification results in Figures 2–7 for
130 simplicity.

131 Due to the different duration of stimulus presentations, the stimulus classes had unbalanced
132 numbers of samples. To build balanced training sets, we subsampled (without replacement) an
133 equal number of responses from each class. The size of these subsamples was equal to 80% of the
134 smallest class (spontaneous activity; 20 minutes out of total 177 or 156 minutes of recording used in
135 samples, depending on if the mouse was shown C or C2). The test sets consisted of the remaining
136 samples, and were kept unbalanced.

137 The direction classes used in the direction decoding were evenly distributed throughout the
138 stimulus presentation. The direction samples were randomly split into training (80%) and test
139 (20%) sets for all classification. The training set was assumed to be balanced due to the even

140 distribution of classes throughout data collection.

141 Both classifiers were regularized using Additive ℓ_2 -regularizer of the form $\frac{1}{2C}\|\theta\|^2$. The regular-
142 ization constant was optimized through a nested cross-validation within the first training set where
143 the best $C = \{10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1, 10, 10^2, 10^3, \infty\}$ that yielded the highest accuracy was chosen.

144 **Subsampled population**

145 To investigate the scaling of decoding performance as a function of population size, we made random
146 subsamples (without replacement) of different sizes $n = \{2^0, 2^1, 2^2, \dots\}$ up to the number of neurons
147 available for each mouse. We repeated the procedure 10 times to form 10 resampled subpopulations.
148 We report accuracy values averaged over the ten resampled datasets. The statistics of population
149 sizes by group or decoding task can be found in Table 1–4.

150 To investigate the information carried by the joint population activity, we trained “correlation-
151 blind” decoders with the same procedure but on a shuffled dataset where the joint structure was
152 approximately independent. To generate the shuffled data, we randomly permuted the trials cor-
153 responding to the same target for each neuron.

154 **Accuracy curve fitting**

To extrapolate the accuracy as a function of population size, we used the following generalized
logistic function:

$$\text{accuracy}(n) = \frac{1 - c}{(1 + e^{-an})^b} + c, \quad (1)$$

155 with 3 parameters $\{a, b, c\}$ with constraints $a \geq 0, c \geq 0$ and $b \in [0, 1]$. Note that the c parameter
156 allows a minimum accuracy expected from chance level performance for small population size. We
157 fit the curve on the average accuracies obtained by subsampling using nonlinear least squares (?).

158 **Statistical tests**

159 To compare accuracy between cortical areas and imaging depths, we performed Tukey’s test at a
160 0.05 significance level (?). Tukey’s test compares the mean accuracies of every pair with adjustment
161 for multiple comparison. Ten imaging depths (175 μm , 265 μm , 275 μm , 300 μm , 325 μm , 335 μm ,

162 350 μm , 365 μm , 375 μm , 435 μm) were sorted into four groups: 175 μm , 265-300 μm , 325-350 μm ,
163 and 365-435 μm . We compared the six visual cortical areas (VISp, VISpm, VISl, VISal, VISam,
164 and VISrl), four imaging depth groups, and six stimulus classes.

165 **Orientation and Direction Selectivity**

The neural activity recorded during the Session A drifting gratings stimulus was used to calculate the orientation selectivity index (OSI) and direction selectivity index (DSI) for each neuron. We obtained OSI and DSI using the Allen SDK Drifting Gratings module,

$$\text{OSI} = \frac{R_{\text{pref}} - R_{\text{orth}}}{R_{\text{pref}} + R_{\text{orth}}} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{DSI} = \frac{R_{\text{pref}} - R_{\text{null}}}{R_{\text{pref}} + R_{\text{null}}} \quad (3)$$

166 where R_{pref} is the mean response to the preferred orientation at the preferred temporal frequency,
167 R_{orth} is the mean response to the orthogonal directions, and R_{null} is the mean response to the oppo-
168 site direction (??). The response was defined as the mean $\Delta F/F$ during the grating presentation.
169 Each condition was presented 15 times, and responses to all presentations were averaged together.
170 The preferred direction and temporal frequency condition was defined as that grating condition
171 that evoked the largest mean response.

172 Since $\Delta F/F$ can be negative, OSI and DSI values can be greater than 1 or even be negative.
173 We excluded values below 0 (663 OSI values and 648 DSI values out of 26186 cells) or above 2 (1871
174 OSI values and 1561 DSI values) following the Allen Institute guidelines. The full computation
175 methodology for these indices can be found in the Allen Brain Observatory's Visual Stimuli technical
176 whitepaper (?). To compare across visual areas, the OSI and DSI of all neurons in each area were
177 averaged together (Fig. 4D,E). To compare across depths, the OSI and DSI of all neurons in each
178 depth were averaged together (Fig. 7D,E).

179 **Code Accessibility**

180 The code described in the paper is freely available online at <https://github.com/catnip/lab/aboDecoding>.
181 The code is available as Extended Data.

182 Results

183 Spatiotemporal structure of stimuli are differentially encoded among visual areas

184 To investigate differences in information processing between six mouse visual areas, statistical
185 classifiers were fit to discriminate visual categories based on the population activity within each
186 area. Neural activity was monitored through a fluorescent calcium sensor (GCaMP6f) selectively
187 expressed in transgenic mice (?). Recorded calcium signals were processed and discretized in
188 time to yield feature vectors corresponding to neural activity of the population (see Methods).
189 Mice were shown six types of stimuli which differed in their spatiotemporal structures, ranging
190 from simple spatial structures (such as orientation gratings and sparse pixels) to complex natural
191 scenes (Fig. 1A,B) The stimuli included static images as well as movies with complex long range
192 correlations. A faithful recovery of these visual categories from neural activity reflects the potential
193 information the neural population encodes about the stimuli.

194 Since the population size was variable across experiments, we compare the rate at which the
195 classification accuracy improves as a function of population size (Fig. 2A). Classification accuracies
196 from small randomly subsampled populations were near chance level, and gradually increased with
197 the population size for all sessions analyzed (Fig. 2A; black dots). We fit a 3-parameter sigmoid
198 function to extrapolate up to 128 neurons for each session (Fig. 2A; see Methods). The averages
199 within each of the six visual areas show similar increasing trends with accuracy approaching 90%
200 for the population size of 128. Five areas (VISal, VISam, VISl, VISp, VISpm) significantly outper-
201 formed VISrl (Fig. 2B,C). We used a one-sided t-test with a null hypothesis that secondary areas'
202 decoding performance is less than that of the primary visual cortex. For both the stimulus category
203 decoding and direction decoding, we failed to reject the null hypothesis at the 0.05 significance level.

204 We examined the accuracy of decoding specific stimulus categories to further investigate en-
205 coding differences across visual areas. On average, natural movie and spontaneous categories were
206 more difficult to decode (Fig. 3B,C). Though similar in overall decoding accuracy, the five high-
207 performing visual areas (VISal, VISam, VISl, VISp, VISpm) show differential pattern in per cate-
208 gory accuracy (Fig. 3). We used a one-sided t-test (p-values adjusted for multiple tests) to compare
209 the decoding accuracy of the natural movie stimulus and all other stimulus categories within each
210 visual area. The natural movie category is significantly harder ($p < 0.001$) to decode than other

211 stimuli in populations from the anatomically adjacent VISp, VISl, and VISal (Fig. 3A).

212 **Area dependent decoding of drifting gratings direction**

213 Local visual orientation information is prevalently encoded in the primary visual cortex (??). Layer
214 2/3 neurons in the mouse visual cortex are also sensitive to orientation gratings and their directional
215 motion (?). However, mouse primary visual cortex seems to also serve the role of higher order visual
216 function (?). We investigated if the ability to decode vastly different stimulus categories is related
217 to their capacity to represent orientation and direction. Using the average neural activity in 2-
218 second windows corresponding to the duration of drifting grating presentation, we trained linear
219 classifiers to decode the direction of drifting gratings.

220 Except for a few VISrl populations, direction decoding was again an increasing function of
221 population size (Fig. 4A). VISrl showed the worst decoding performance at the 128 neuron level, and
222 VISam/VISpm showed intermediate performance, while VISp, VISl and VISal showed comparable
223 population level encoding (Fig. 4B,C).

224 Surprisingly, the population decoding accuracy showed discrepancies from what is expected from
225 individual neuron's directional tuning sensitivity. Higher orientation and direction selectivity index
226 (Fig. 4D,E) indicates the stronger representation of these basic visual features, which is highest in
227 VISl followed by VISrl. However, the joint activity decoding showed VISl being on par with VISp
228 and VISal, while the VISrl population was much less informative. This suggests that excitatory
229 neurons in VISp and VISal are more synergistic (a tendency for the population to contain more
230 information than individual neurons (??)) and that there is relatively more redundancy in the VISl
231 population.

232 This synergistic population code is corroborated by the general trend of inferior performance
233 of the correlation-blind decoder. The correlation-blind decoder was trained on the trial-shuffled
234 neural data, hence removing the noise correlation. In Fig. 5, for all areas except VISrl there is a
235 significant drop in performance which indicates the joint activity of the population carries extra
236 information.

237 **Superficial layers are more informative about the spatiotemporal signatures of**
238 **visual stimuli**

239 In rats, neurons in the superficial layers of V1 are known to have better orientation selectivity and
240 less spontaneous activity (?), suggesting a laminar organization of visual information processing.
241 To investigate if similar laminar differences exist in mice, we analyzed the decoding accuracy of
242 stimulus classes as a function of recording depth (Fig. 6). There were 6 different Cre lines with
243 specific targets (see Table 6 for full distribution). Since there was little difference across Cre lines,
244 we present the results grouped by depth.

245 The 325–350 μm depth group (dominated by Nr5a1 Cre line; see Table 6) consistently showed
246 the worst decoding performance across both the stimulus category and direction decoding tasks
247 (Fig. 7). Meanwhile, the most superficial group (imaging depth of 175 μm corresponding to either
248 Cux2 or Emx1 Cre lines, putative layer 2/3) significantly outperformed the deeper populations
249 (Fig. 6), with high decoding performance across all stimulus categories (Fig. 9). However, this
250 superficial layer did not show distinctly superior direction decoding (Fig. 7B). This suggests that
251 the spatiotemporal structure of each visual category extra to the overall orientation information
252 is better represented in the superficial layers. Although there may be worsening of signal-to-noise
253 ratio as the imaging depth increases, both decoding schemes do not show monotonic degradation
254 of performance as a function of depth (Figs. 6 and 7).

255 The orientation selectivity index (OSI) and DSI showed contrary trends (Fig. 7D,E). Deeper
256 layers had relatively larger OSI but smaller DSI, suggesting the temporal component of the drifting
257 gratings may be better represented in the superficial layers. Despite larger DSI, the 325–350 μm
258 group performed worse than the 365–435 μm group, again an unexpected observation likely due to
259 the spatial organization of the code.

260 **Discussion**

261 The focus of this study was investigating how stimulus classes and drifting grating directions can
262 be inferred from neural population responses in mouse visual areas. In primates, it has been well
263 established that visual processing occurs through a hierarchical structure, in which the primary
264 visual cortex provides input to secondary visual areas (???). The rat visual cortex has also been

265 characterized as having a hierarchical organization (?). Results from this analysis corroborate
266 recent studies which have suggested that this simple hierarchy may also be present in the mouse
267 visual cortex (??). In both decoding tasks, the overall decoding performance of populations from
268 secondary visual areas was equal to or worse than the primary visual cortex (VISp), suggesting
269 that secondary areas do not encode any more information than is encoded by the primary visual
270 cortex. This is supported by findings that the mouse primary visual cortex has a more diverse set
271 of stimulus preferences than secondary areas VISal and VISpm (?).

272 Differences in stimulus-specific decoding performance between populations from different visual
273 areas suggest areal differences in visual information representation. On average, the spontaneous
274 stimulus and the natural movie stimulus are significantly harder to decode than other stimuli,
275 but this trend is not seen in all areas (Fig 3). Anatomically adjacent visual areas display simi-
276 larities in their stimulus-specific decoding performance. The adjacent anteromedial (VISam) and
277 posteromedial (VISpm) areas showed no difference in performance for specific stimuli. In contrast,
278 in populations from the adjacent primary (VISp), anterolateral (VISal), and lateral (VISl) visual
279 areas, it was significantly harder to decode the natural movie stimulus than other stimuli. These
280 anatomical trends in stimulus-specific decoding may be attributed to specialized input pathways
281 from the primary visual cortex (?).

282 The existence of these information processing streams is further supported by the similar di-
283 rection decoding performance of anatomically adjacent areas. The same groups emerge in the
284 direction decoding as in the stimulus-specific analysis. The adjacent primary (VISp), anterolat-
285 eral (VISal) and lateral (VISl) visual areas performed similarly, as did the adjacent anteromedial
286 (VISam) and posteromedial (VISpm) areas. The poor performance of the latter group of visual
287 areas (VISam and VISpm) as well as the rostrolateral (VISrl) visual area suggests a lack of direction
288 sensitive information encoding in the population. We speculate that the relative poor performance
289 of VISrl compared to VISam in the population decoding to be in the distribution of well tuned
290 neurons—VISam had lower single neuron DSI on average, but more heterogeneous distribution.

291 ? presented drifting grating stimuli (using the same set of directions but differing sets of
292 temporal and spatial frequencies as the Allen Brain Observatory) to 28 mice and found, based on
293 the mean DSI of each area and the proportion of neurons with a DSI greater than 0.5, that layer
294 2/3 (130-180 μm below the dura surface) populations in the anterolateral (VISal), rostrolateral

295 (VISrl), and anteromedial (VISam) visual areas were significantly more direction selective than the
296 primary visual cortex (VISp). The results of our population direction decoding analysis (Figs. 4
297 and 5) of 186 mice are inconsistent with the single neuron findings of ? (note that there were
298 differences in the methods for estimating DSI; see Methods). The direction decoding accuracy
299 of VISam and VISrl populations are significantly lower than that of VISp, suggesting that these
300 populations are less direction selective than those in VISp. Trial shuffled decoding analysis (Fig. 5)
301 showed that synergistic spatial correlations within trial could contribute to such discrepancies (??).
302 Furthermore, the similar decoding accuracy of VISal and VISp populations suggests that VISal is
303 not significantly different from VISp in its direction selectivity.

304 Across all visual areas, individual neurons encode enough attributes of a stimulus in their
305 responses that the majority of small populations outperformed chance level accuracy in the stimulus
306 decoding (chance equal to 16.67 %) as well as in the direction decoding (chance equal to 12.5
307 %). However, in the direction decoding, individual neurons from VISrl populations and those
308 from the 325–350 μm depth group performed at chance level, suggesting a lower proportion of
309 direction sensitive encoding in these neurons relative to other areas and depths. Neurons in VISam
310 have previously been characterized as extremely robust and selective (?). However, our direction
311 decoding analysis shows that decoding accuracy for small VISam populations of 1-4 neurons remains
312 at or close to chance level, suggesting that these neurons are not especially selective. Even with
313 larger VISam populations, direction decoding accuracy remained low relative to other areas.

314 Despite some discrepancies with recent characterizations of mouse visual areas, this study pro-
315 vides novel evidence of the functional and anatomical organization of the mouse visual cortex.
316 The results corroborate broad trends in visual information processing, supporting the existence of
317 information processing streams and a hierarchical organization in the mouse visual cortex.

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323 **Legends**

324 Figure 1 Overview of the population decoding analysis. The neural code of either one of six visual categor

325 Figure 2 Population decoding performance by visual area for six stimulus classes. (A) Stimulus decoding a

326 Figure 3 Stimulus-specific population decoding. (A) Visual area averaged stimulus-specific decoding accur

327 Figure 4 Population decoding of directions for the drifting grating epoch. (A) Direction decoding accuracy

328 Figure 5 Neural population is synergistically encoding directional information. Accuracy of correlation bli

329 Figure 6 Population decoding performance by recording depth for six stimulus classes. (same conventions

330 Figure 7 Population decoding performance by imaging depth for eight drifting grating directions. (same co

331 Figure 8 Comparison of results of linear support vector machine (SVM) and multinomial logistic regressio

332 Figure 9 Stimulus-specific decoding performance by imaging depth group. The highest performing depth (

333 Table 1 Mean population size with standard deviation by visual area for the stimulus classification. Popul

334 Table 2 Mean population size with standard deviation by imaging depth group for the stimulus classificati

335 Table 3 Mean population size with standard deviation by visual area for the direction classification. Popul

336 Table 4 Mean population size with standard deviation by imaging depth group for the direction classificat

337 Table 5 Cre line populations in each visual area.

338 Table 6 Cre line populations in each depth group.

339 Extended Data 1 Computer code (Python Jupyter notebook) that implements preprocessing,

340 decoding analysis, and statistical tests as described in the methods section and generate figures

341 included in the results section.

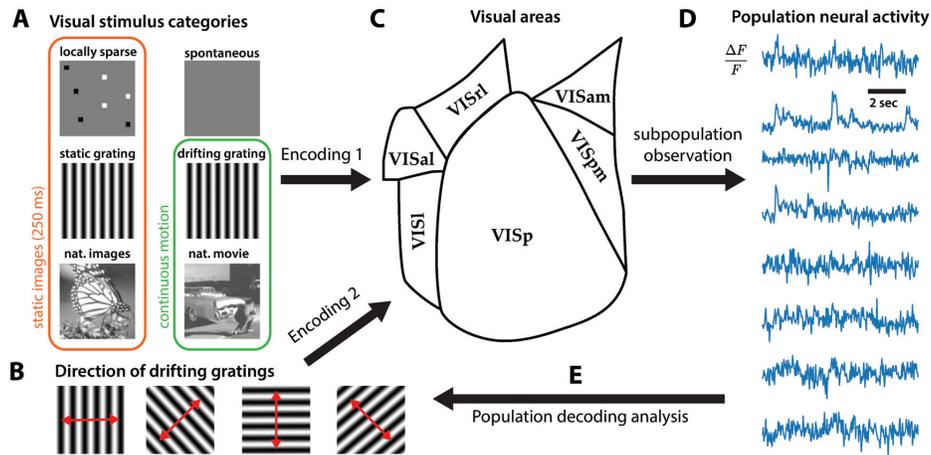


Figure 1: Overview of the population decoding analysis. The neural code of either one of six visual categories (**A**) or one out of eight directions of drifting grating stimulus (**B**) by the excitatory neurons in the mouse visual system (**C**) were analyzed. A specific subpopulation (visual area, cell-type, depth) were targeted and observed while the mice viewed the visual stimuli. From the normalized fluorescence signals from the subpopulation (**D**), we decoded the identity of the stimulus class (**E**). Successful decoding provides evidence for an instantaneous representation of the spatiotemporal signatures of stimuli within the population activity.

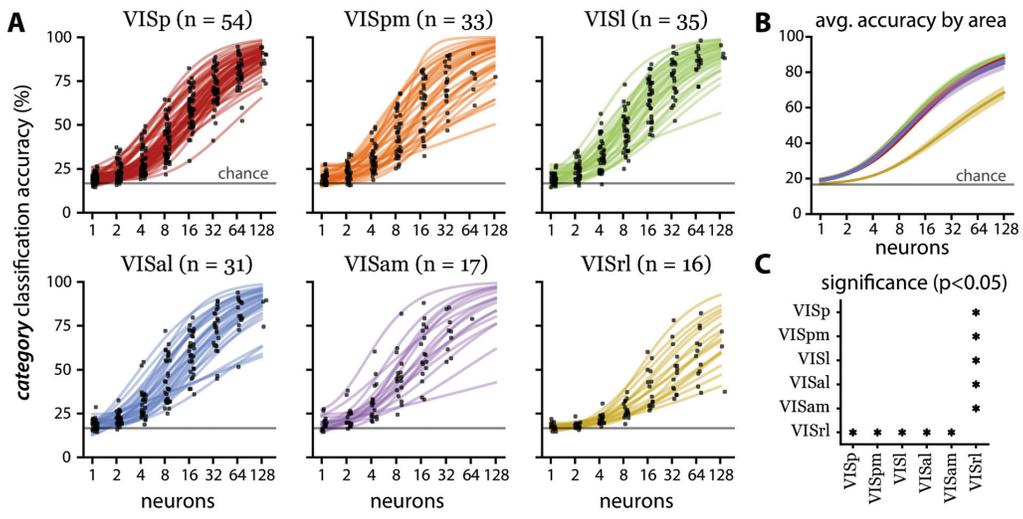


Figure 2: Population decoding performance by visual area for six stimulus classes. (A) Stimulus decoding accuracy for individual randomly subsampled populations consisting of 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128 neurons (black dots, jittered for visual clarity) and curve fits (solid lines). The number of populations per area is listed in the titles (*n*). In all visual areas, the majority of small populations (1-4 neurons) outperformed chance level (gray line at 16.67 % accuracy). However, small population performance in VISrl was more concentrated near chance level than all other areas. Individual populations of 128 neurons achieved near-perfect accuracy in all visual areas except VISrl. (B) Population averaged accuracy by visual area (solid lines) with standard error (shaded regions). The line colors correspond to the visual area indicated by the line colors in A. (C) Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) pairwise comparisons of decoding accuracy at 128 neurons between the six visual areas using Tukey's test. VISrl underperforms all other visual areas.

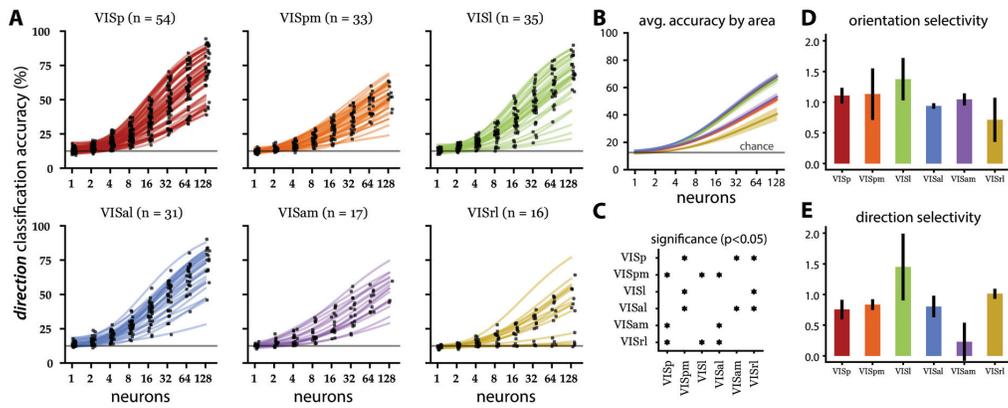


Figure 4: Population decoding of directions for the drifting grating epoch. **(A)** Direction decoding accuracy (same conventions as Fig. 2). Note that in VISrl, small populations (1-2 neurons) performed closer to chance level (gray line at 12.5 % accuracy) than the same sized populations in other areas. **(B)** Population averaged accuracy by visual area (solid lines) with standard error (shaded regions). The line colors correspond to the visual area indicated by the line colors in **A**. **(C)** Statistical significance map (same convention as Fig. 2C). Three high-performing, areas (VISp, VISal, VISl) showing similar performance are anatomically adjacent. Similarly, two of three low-performing areas (VISpm and VISam) showing similar performance are anatomically adjacent. **(D,E)** Mean orientation **(D)** and direction **(E)** selectivity index (with SEM) per area (see Methods).

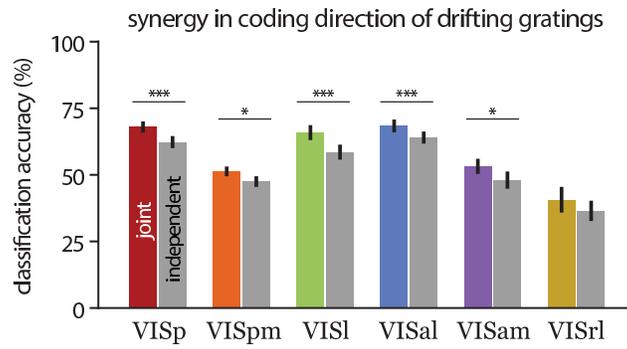


Figure 5: Neural population is synergistically encoding directional information. Accuracy of correlation blind decoder (gray bars; independent decoder) is compared to the joint decoder (same value as in Fig. 4B) for the population size of 128 neurons. Statistical significance indicated by paired t-test.

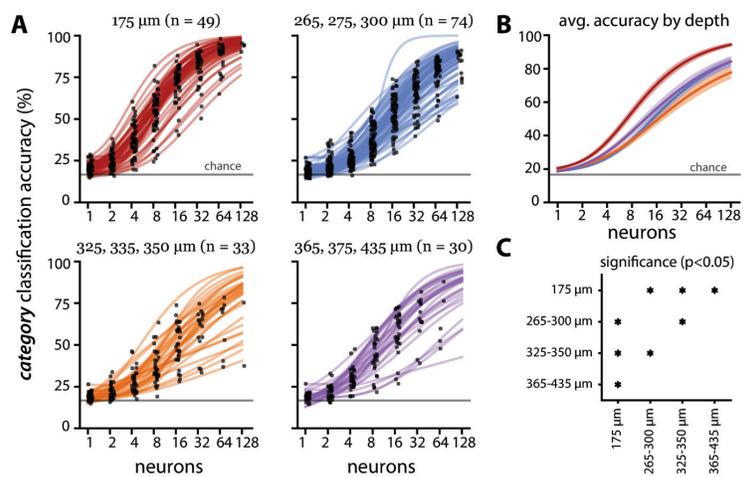


Figure 6: Population decoding performance by recording depth for six stimulus classes. (same conventions as Fig. 2). On average, small populations (1-2 neurons) performed better than chance level performance (gray line at 16.67% accuracy). The 325–350 μm group significantly underperforms two shallower groups (175 μm and 265–300 μm).

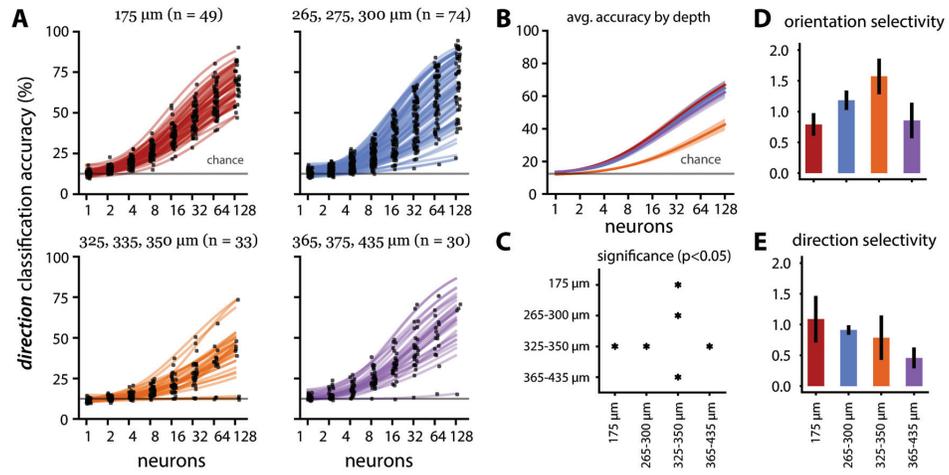


Figure 7: Population decoding performance by imaging depth for eight drifting grating directions. (same conventions as Fig. 4). On average, small populations (1-2 neurons) in the three high performing depth groups (175 μm , 265–300 μm , and 365–435 μm) outperformed chance level (gray line at 12.5% accuracy), while small populations in the low-performing 325–350 μm group performed at chance level.

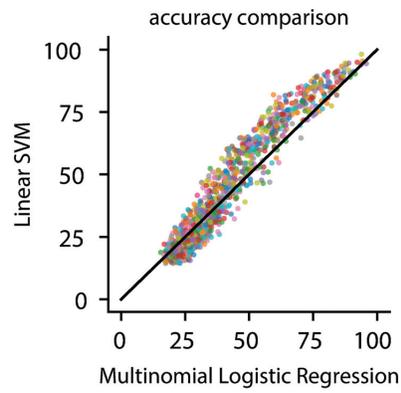


Figure 8: Comparison of results of linear support vector machine (SVM) and multinomial logistic regression (MLR) classification. SVM and MLR classification accuracy for subsampled populations of 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, and 128 neurons are represented by a single point. Similar results were achieved by both classifiers.

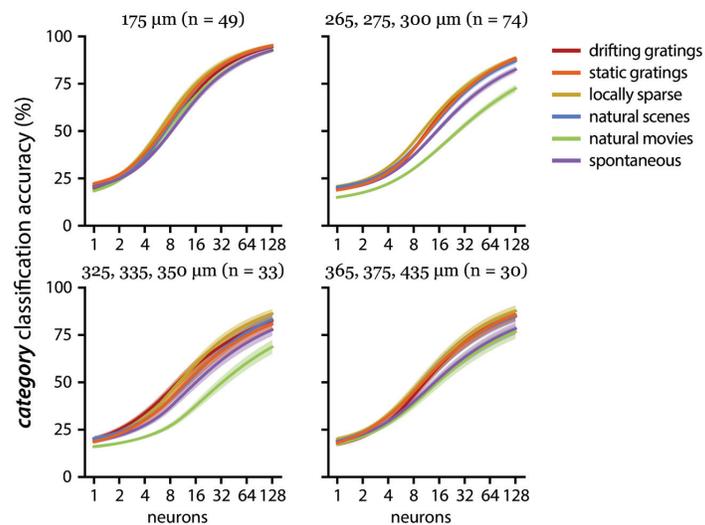


Figure 9: Stimulus-specific decoding performance by imaging depth group. The highest performing depth ($175\ \mu\text{m}$) and a lower performing group ($365\text{--}435\ \mu\text{m}$) show uniform accuracy in decoding all six stimuli. In the $265\text{--}300\ \mu\text{m}$ and $325\text{--}350\ \mu\text{m}$ groups, natural movies are significantly harder to decode than other stimuli.

Table 1: Mean population size with standard deviation by visual area for the stimulus classification. Populations are composed of neurons common across the three imaging sessions A, B, and C.

Area	VISal	VISam	VISl	VISp	VISpm	VISrl
Mean Pop. Size	65.16	38.12	69.71	82.91	42.42	92.00
Std. Deviation	40.89	18.53	43.45	48.96	27.08	37.64

Table 2: Mean population size with standard deviation by imaging depth group for the stimulus classification. Populations are composed of neurons common across the three imaging sessions A, B, and C.

Imaging Depth (μm)	175	265-300	325-350	365-435
Mean Pop. Size	70.82	84.96	46.82	38.50
Std. Deviation	33.74	50.14	34.20	22.62

Table 3: Mean population size with standard deviation by visual area for the direction classification. Population sizes are larger for the direction classification than the stimulus classification because the population includes all neurons imaged in Session A.

Area	VISal	VISam	VISl	VISp	VISpm	VISrl
Mean Pop. Size	139.13	89.12	143.97	169.87	99.87	178.13
Std. Deviation	79.40	56.77	85.16	84.83	62.29	68.83

Table 4: Mean population size with standard deviation by imaging depth group for the direction classification. Population sizes are larger for the direction classification than the stimulus classification because the population includes all neurons imaged in Session A.

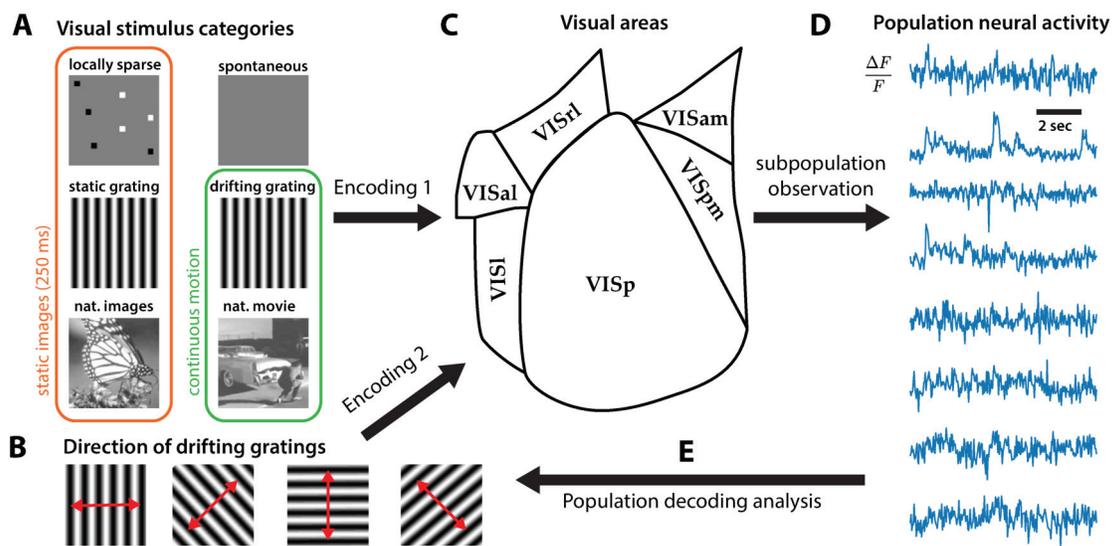
Imaging Depth (μm)	175	265-300	325-350	365-435
Mean Pop. Size	153.49	178.15	93.27	80.13
Std. Deviation	56.76	88.79	66.22	52.75

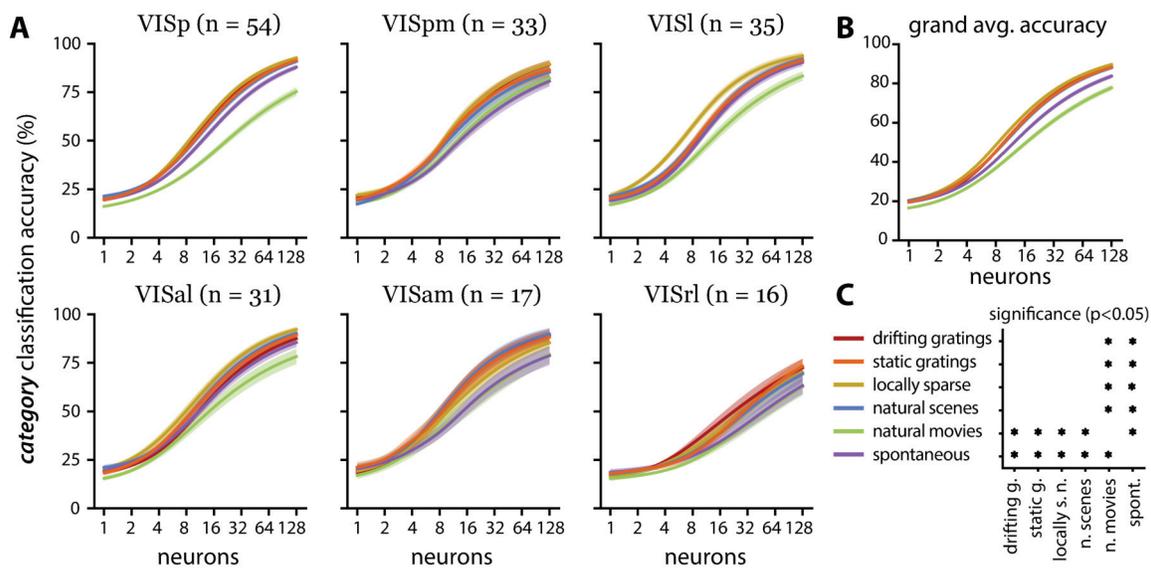
Table 5: Cre line populations in each visual area.

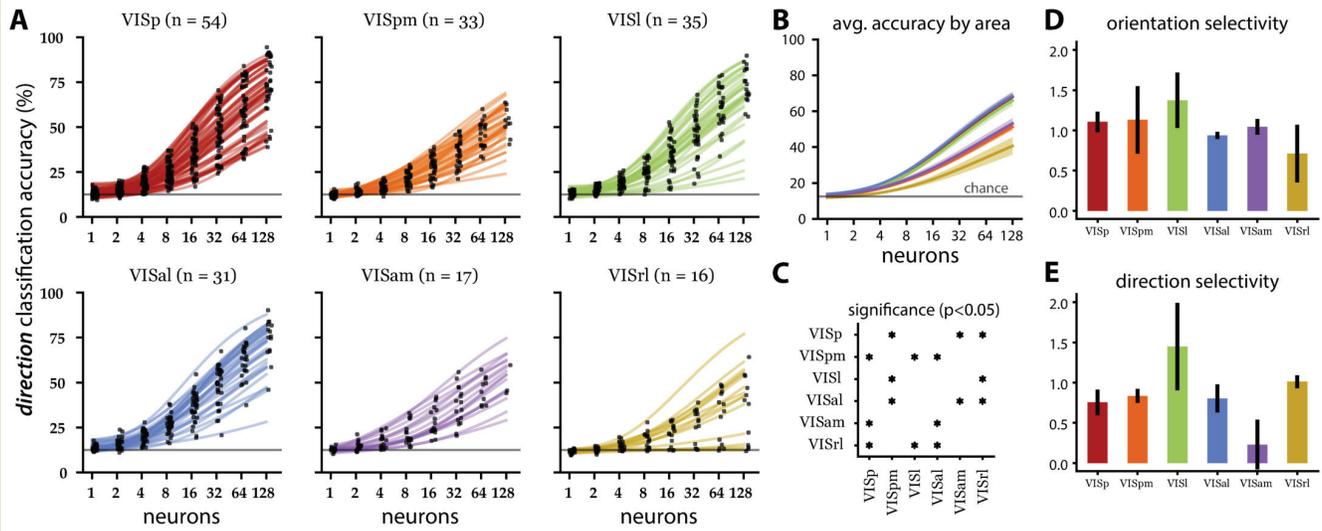
Area	VISal	VISam	VISl	VISp	VISpm	VISrl
Cux2-CreERT2	11	5	13	16	13	3
Emx1-IRES-Cre	7	2	6	7	4	6
Nr5a1-Cre	4	1	5	9	6	4
Rbp4-Cre_KL100	3	4	5	5	5	1
Rorb-IRES2-Cre	6	5	6	8	5	2
Scnn1a-Tg3-Cre	0	2	0	9	0	0

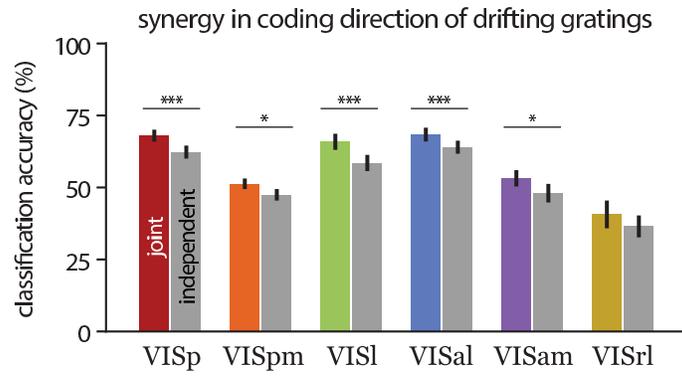
Table 6: Cre line populations in each depth group.

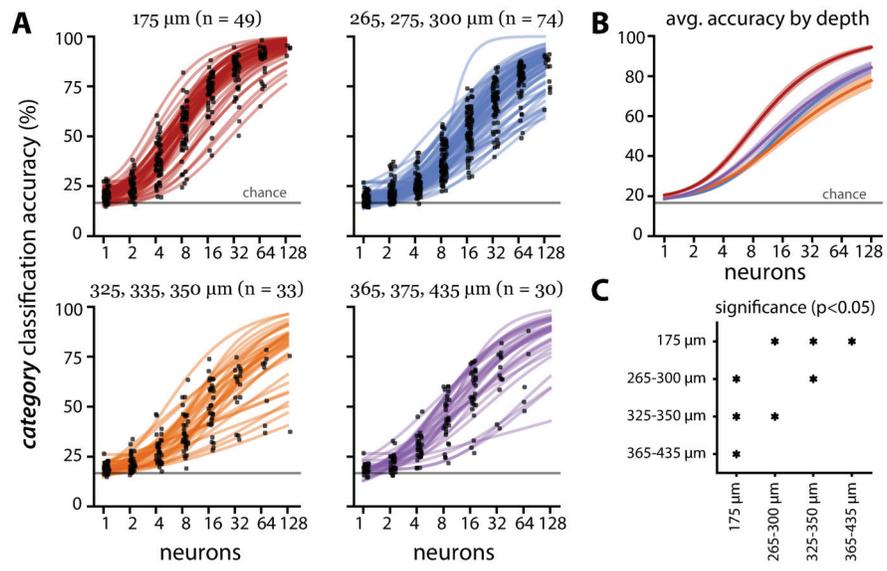
Imaging Depth (μm)	175	265-300	325-350	365-435
Cux2-CreERT2	34	27	0	0
Emx1-IRES-Cre	15	10	0	7
Nr5a1-Cre	0	3	26	0
Rbp4-Cre_KL100	0	0	0	23
Rorb-IRES2-Cre	0	32	0	0
Scnn1a-Tg3-Cre	0	2	7	0

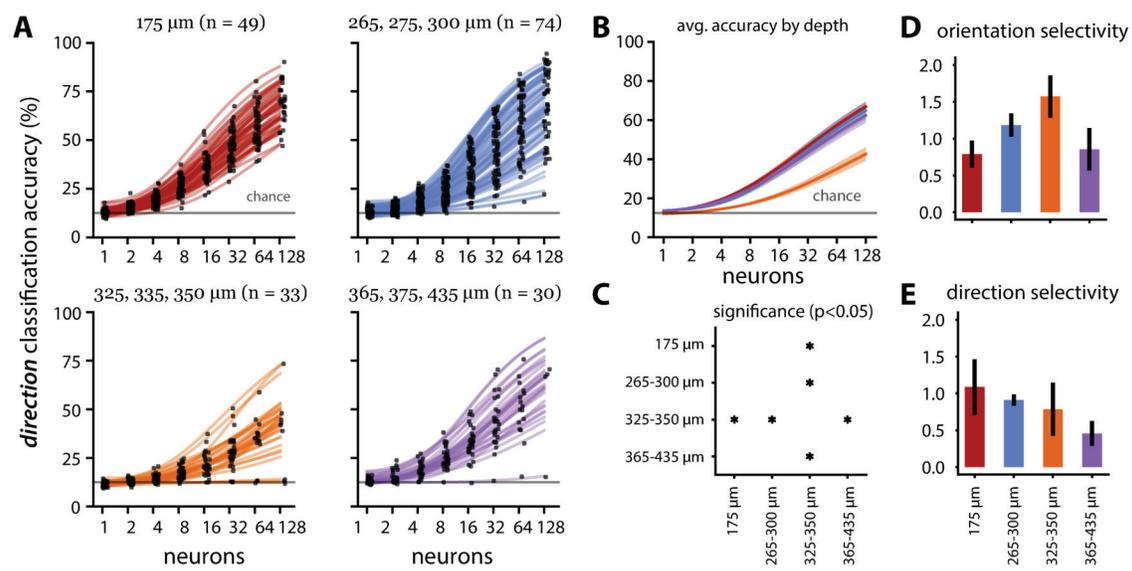


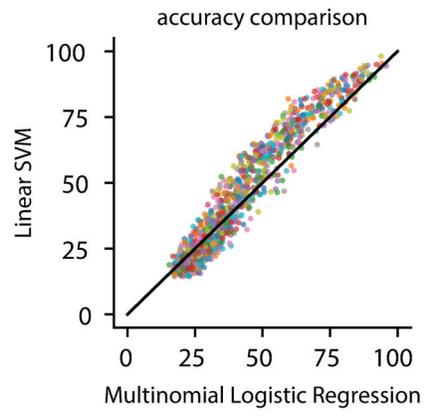












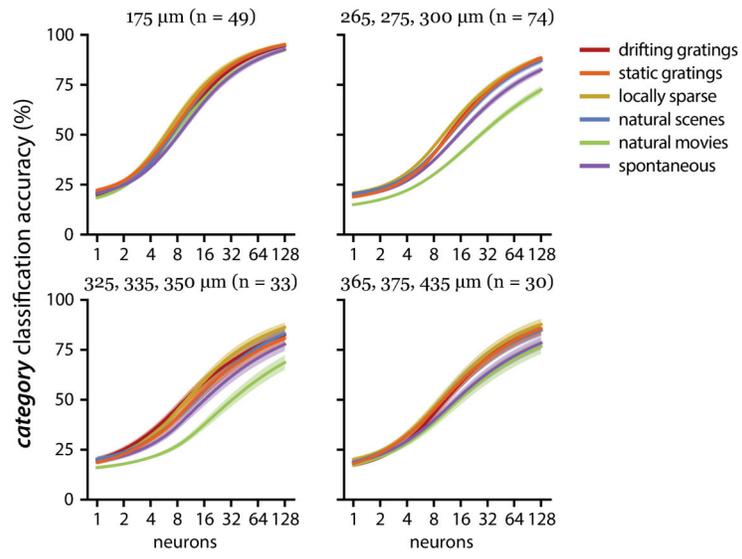


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Cre line populations in each visual area.

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Rorb-IRES2-Cre	6	5	6	8	5	2
Scnn1a-Tg3-Cre	0	2	0	9	0	0

Table 6

Cre line populations in each depth group.

Imaging Depth (μm)	175	265-300	325-350	365-435
Cux2-CreERT2	34	27	0	0
Emx1-IRES-Cre	15	10	0	7
Nr5a1-Cre	0	3	26	0
Rbp4-Cre_KL100	0	0	0	23
Rorb-IRES2-Cre	0	32	0	0
Scnn1a-Tg3-Cre	0	2	7	0