A triplet spike-timing–dependent plasticity model generalizes the Bienenstock–Cooper–Munro rule to higher-order spatiotemporal correlations

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Synaptic strength depresses for low and potentiates for high activation of the postsynaptic neuron. This feature is a key property of the Bienenstock–Cooper–Munro (BCM) synaptic learning rule, which has been shown to maximize the selectivity of the postsynaptic neuron, and thereby offers a possible explanation for experience-dependent cortical plasticity such as orientation selectivity. However, the BCM framework is rate-based and a significant amount of recent work has shown that synaptic plasticity also depends on the precise timing of presynaptic and postsynaptic spikes. Here we consider a triplet model of spike-timing–dependent plasticity (STDP) that depends on the order of spike pairs. We demonstrate that the triplet STDP model can be described by plasticity experiments to the classical STDP rule, based on pairs of spikes, has failed to capture. In the case of rate-based patterns, we show a tight correspondence between the triplet STDP rule and the BCM rule. We analytically demonstrate the selectivity property of the triplet STDP rule for orthogonal inputs and perform numerical simulations for nonorthogonal inputs. Moreover, in contrast to BCM, we show that triplet STDP can also induce selectivity for input patterns consisting of higher-order spatiotemporal correlations, which exist in natural stimuli and have been measured in the brain. We show that this sensitivity to higher-order correlations can be used to develop direction and speed selectivity.

Synaptic plasticity depends on the activity of presynaptic and postsynaptic neurons and is believed to provide the basis for learning and memory (1, 2). It has been shown that low-frequency stimulation (1–3 Hz) (3) or stimulation paired with low postsynaptic depolarization (4) induces synaptically long-term depression (LTD), whereas synapses undergo long-term potentiation (LTP) after high-frequency stimulation (100 Hz) (5). Such findings are consistent with the well-known Bienenstock–Cooper–Munro (BCM) learning rule (6). This BCM model has been shown to elicit orientation selectivity and other aspects of experience-dependent cortical plasticity (6, 7). Furthermore, in this model the modification threshold between LTP and LTD varies as a function of the history of postsynaptic activity, a prediction that has been confirmed experimentally (8).

Despite its consistency with experimental data and its functional relevance, the BCM framework is still limited experimentally and functionally. Experimentally, because the learning rule is expressed in terms of firing rates, it cannot predict synaptic modification on the basis of the timing of pre- and postsynaptic spikes (9, 10). This form of plasticity, called spike-timing–dependent plasticity (STDP), uses the timing of spike pairs to induce synaptic modification (11, 12). The presynaptic spike is required to shortly precede the postsynaptic spike to elicit LTP, whereas the reverse timing of pre- and postsynaptic spikes leads to LTD (9, 10). Functionally, the BCM model cannot segregate input patterns that are characterized by their temporal spiking structure. STDP provides a possible solution, but how STDP relates to BCM remains debated (13–15).

Here, we consider a spike-based learning rule, “the triplet STDP model” (15, 16), and show that it overcomes those two important limitations of the BCM rule and thus generalizes the BCM framework. This triplet model uses sets of three spikes (triplets)—instead of pairs of spikes as in the case of classical STDP—to induce potentiation. More precisely, LTP depends on the interval between the pre- and postsynaptic spikes and on the timing of the previous postsynaptic spike (Fig. 1A). Furthermore, this triplet learning rule has been shown to explain a variety of synaptic plasticity data (17, 18) significantly better than pair-based STDP (15) (Fig. 1B). Plasticity induced by multiples of spikes has also been the focus of other studies (19, 20); despite using the same spike combinations some differences have been observed, most likely due to the different (extracellular or intracellular) stimulation protocols used in these studies (21).

Computationally, it has been shown that under some rather crude assumptions—when the input and output neurons have independent Poisson statistics—the triplet STDP model can be mapped to the BCM learning rule (16). In this paper, we take a more biologically plausible approach by incorporating contributions from input–output spiking correlations in inducing synaptic plasticity. Consistent with results from the BCM theory, we demonstrate that in the presence of orthogonal rate-based patterns, the maximally selective fixed points of the weight dynamics induced by the triplet rule are stable. Furthermore, we show that the triplet rule acts as a generalized BCM rule in the sense that postsynaptic neurons become selective not only to rate-based patterns of the inputs, but also to patterns differentiated only by their spiking correlation structure. The mathematical simplicity of the triplet model allowed us to characterize the explicit dependence of the weight dynamics on higher-order input correlations. We believe this study is of great relevance given the ubiquity of higher-order correlations in the brain (22, 23) and their relevance for neural coding (24).

Model and Methods

Neuronal Dynamics. We considered a feedforward network with N input neurons x(t) as Dirac delta spike trains connected to a single output neuron through the weights w(t) and giving rise to the postsynaptic spike train y(t) (SI Text). The input spike trains had average firing rates μ(t).

We assumed that the membrane potential of the postsynaptic neuron u(t) increased with the spike times of each input by the excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) scaled by the corresponding weight

\[ u(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} w_j(t) \int_0^{\infty} r(\tau) \delta(x_j(t) - \tau) d\tau \]  

(1)

The function r(\tau) denoted the EPSP kernel, taken to be a decaying exponential with a membrane time constant of 11 ms. For spatio-temporal

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receptive field development, an inhibitory postsynaptic membrane potential kernel with a membrane time constant of 20 ms was also used. Postsynaptic spikes were generated stochastically from the membrane potential, with a probability density of firing a spike at time $t$ given by the transfer function $g(u(t)) = g(u_0)$. For simplicity, we used linear neurons where the transfer function was approximated by

$$g(u(t)) \approx g(u_0) + g'(u_0)(u(t) - u_0),$$

where the averaged membrane potential was $u_0$. We also used $s = g(u_0)$ to denote the mean postsynaptic firing rate.

**Synaptic Dynamics and Input Selectivity.** Following the approach of ref. 25, we expressed the weight change as a Volterra expansion of both pre- and postsynaptic spike trains and the two learning rules: pair-based STDP

$$W_2 (\tau) = A_2 e^{-\Delta t_{	ext{pre}}}/ \Delta t_{	ext{pre}} > 0, \Delta t_{	ext{post}} > 0,$$

and 0 otherwise, where spike triplets $(\text{pre}, \text{post}, \text{pre})$ affect synaptic potentiation depending on their timing difference $\Delta t_{\text{pre}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}}$ and $\Delta t_{\text{post}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}}$. The parameters used throughout this paper were those of the minimal triplet rule (15), i.e., $A_2 = 1$, $A_2 = 6.5 \times 10^{-3}$, $A_2 = 7.1 \times 10^{-3}$, $\tau = 16.8$ ms, $\tau = 33.7$ ms, $\tau = 114$ ms. Assuming slow learning dynamics (25), we derived Eq. 6 (Results) to describe the weight dynamics (SI Text).

We considered $M$ input patterns, where pattern $i$ had mean firing rate $\rho_i^0$, and pairwise and triplet correlation terms $A_i^0$ and $B_i^0$, respectively. Each input pattern $i$ was associated with a probability $p_i$ of occurrence and gave rise to an average postsynaptic firing rate $v_i^0 = w_i^0 \rho_i^0$. The selectivity of the postsynaptic neuron was $\text{Sel}(w) = 1 - \sum_i p_i w_i^0 \rho_i^0/(\max_i w_i^0 \rho_i^0)$.

To match the triplet rule to the BCM model, we set $A_j \rightarrow A_j \tau_j / \tau_j$, where the expectation of the $p_i^0$ power of the postsynaptic firing rate can be expressed as $p = \sum_i p_i^0 w_i^0 \rho_i^0$. This quantity was approximated by low-pass filtering the $p_i^0$ power of the instantaneous postsynaptic firing rate $s(t) = g(u(t))$ with a time constant of $\tau = 5 \text{s}$. For all of the calculations in this paper we took $p = 2$.

In the case of orthogonal rate-based patterns modeled as independent Poisson inputs, we proved that the maximally selective fixed points of the weight dynamics are stable (SI Text). For the development of selectivity in the case of correlation-based patterns, we calculated the fixed points of maximal selectivity only in the case of a reduced 2D system (SI Text). In this case, two patterns were presented to the feedforward network, each consisting of two groups (or pools) of input neurons.

**Numerical Simulations with Multiple Patterns.** For all numerical simulations we simulated the triplet learning rule given by Eq. 4 that can also be expressed in differential form (SI Text). A lower bound of 0 and an upper bound of 3 were imposed on the weights. The methods for generating correlated spike trains and the correlation strength used in each figure are described in the SI Text. The phase plane diagrams for the 2D systems in Figs. 2D and 3E were plotted using the MATLAB software pplane written by John Polking (Rice University, Houston, TX).

**Results**

**Triplet STDP Induces Selectivity with Rate-Based Patterns.** Orientation-selective neurons in the primary visual cortex respond with higher firing rates when a bar is presented in a particular orientation and with lower rates when the bar is presented in a different orientation (26). This orientation selectivity is learned during receptive field development, and normal patterns of sensory experience are important for receptive field maturation (27). Bienenstock et al. (6) proposed a model for how orientation selectivity, or more generally pattern selectivity, is learned by a neural network: the BCM learning rule. In the BCM framework, a randomly chosen input pattern $i$ (of $M$ possible patterns) with rates $\rho_i^0$ is presented with probability $p_i$ to a feedforward network with $N$ inputs. The postsynaptic neuron responds with a firing rate $\nu^0 = w_i^0 \rho_i^0$, where $w$ is the weight vector. The weight change induced by the BCM rule is proportional to the input firing rate

$$w = \phi (\nu, \nu) \rho$$

![Fig. 1.](image1) The triplet STDP rule. (A) Synaptic depression is induced as in classical pair-based STDP using spike pairs separated by $\Delta t_{\text{pre}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} < 0$. Synaptic potentiation is induced using triplets of spikes consisting of two postsynaptic spikes and one presynaptic spike on the basis of the timing interval between them $\Delta t_{\text{pre}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}} > 0$ and $\Delta t_{\text{post}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}} > 0$. (B) Synaptic change as a function of the time between pre- and postsynaptic spikes in a protocol where 60 pairs were presented at different frequencies $\nu = 0.1, 20$, and 50 Hz. Depression predominated at low frequency, whereas potentiation was more prevalent at high frequencies. The data points are experiments and are from ref. 17 and the lines were generated with the triplet STDP rule with the parameters taken from ref. 15.

**Fig. 1.** The triplet STDP rule. (A) Synaptic depression is induced as in classical pair-based STDP using spike pairs separated by $\Delta t_{\text{pre}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} < 0$. Synaptic potentiation is induced using triplets of spikes consisting of two postsynaptic spikes and one presynaptic spike on the basis of the timing interval between them $\Delta t_{\text{pre}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}} > 0$ and $\Delta t_{\text{post}} = \Delta t_{\text{post}} - \Delta t_{\text{pre}} > 0$. (B) Synaptic change as a function of the time between pre- and postsynaptic spikes in a protocol where 60 pairs were presented at different frequencies $\nu = 0.1, 20$, and 50 Hz. Depression predominated at low frequency, whereas potentiation was more prevalent at high frequencies. The data points are experiments and are from ref. 17 and the lines were generated with the triplet STDP rule with the parameters taken from ref. 15.

![Fig. 2.](image2) Triplet STDP induces selectivity with rate-based patterns. (A) Evolution of the weights (Right) for 10 rate-based patterns (uniformly spaced Gaussian profiles across the 100 inputs) determining the inputs’ firing rates (Left) presented to a feedforward network. The selected pattern corresponds to a Gaussian profile with $\text{max}(\min) = 555$ and $\sigma = 15 \text{ Hz}$. (B) Mean (±SEM) selectivity (for 10 trials) as a function of the Gaussians’ 3D and for Gaussian profiles with different ratios of background to peak firing rates $\text{max}(\min) = 0/55, 5/55, 10/55$ (solid lines, the triplet STDP rule; dashed lines, the BCM rule). The Gaussian profiles below illustrate the amount of overlap for two neighboring Gaussians. Numerical simulations implementing the differential form of the triplet STDP were performed in A and B. (C) Weight change $\Delta w$ as a function of postsynaptic activity for three different input firing rates, which determine the threshold $\theta$ for weight modification. Symbols denote numerics and lines analytics. (D) 2D phase plane analysis for the analytically derived weight equation with orthogonal rate-based patterns. Nullclines in green and purple intersect at the equilibria shown in red. (E) An example trajectory for the two weights attracted to one of the stable nodes in D. (a.u., arbitrary units).
Fig. 3. Triplet STDP induces selectivity with correlation-based patterns. (A) Ten correlation-based patterns that have the same firing rates, but different correlation strength. (B) Evolution of the weights illustrates selectivity in the case of 10 correlation-based patterns. The firing rate of each of the 100 inputs was set to 10 Hz: 90 inputs had no correlations and 10 neighboring inputs (one of 1–10, 11–20, …, 91–100 for each pattern) had strong spatial correlations (90% identical spikes). (C) Same as B except for the 10 correlated inputs in each pattern, for which exponentially decaying correlations with a time constant of 5 ms were used. Numerical simulations implementing the differential form of the triplet STDP were performed in B and C. (D) The average weight change $\Delta w$ (for 100 weights) was computed for different initial conditions $w_i$ after 100 s. The symbols denote numerical results obtained by simulating the differential form of the triplet rule, and the lines indicate a semianalytic solution by numerically solving Eq. 6 given an initial condition $w_0$ for 100 s. The average weight change was plotted as a function of the postsynaptic firing rate given by $v = \nu \rho$, where $\rho$ was the input firing rate. Here we simulated two networks where the inputs had the same firing rate (10 Hz) and exponentially decaying correlations with a timescale of 10 ms. The correlation peak for the curve in black (SI Text) was half of the correlation peak for the curve in red ($\nu = 9.08$, $\rho = 9.09$); see inset. (E) 2D (two groups of inputs) phase-plane analysis for correlation-based patterns. Nullclines in green and purple intersect at the unstable fixed points shown in red. Imposing a lower bound at 0 resulted in stable maximally selective fixed points on the axes shown in black. (F) An example trajectory for the two weights attracted to one of the black equilibria in E. (G) Percentage of cases (over 100 trials) where all of the synapses from 1 of 10 input patterns (each consisting of 10 inputs) potentiate (Eq. 6). Same scenario as C, but for different correlation time constants $\nu$. Correlations were symmetric and exponentially distributed (Inset).

and scales with a nonlinear function $\phi$, which depends not only on the postsynaptic firing rate $v$, but also on the average (over all patterns) of a nonlinear function of the postsynaptic rate $v = \sum j \nu_j / N$: The nonlinear function $\phi$ must be negative when the postsynaptic firing rate is below a given threshold $\theta$—which itself depends on $\nu$—and positive when it is above it (Fig. 2C).

Interestingly, a linear transfer function, the average weight change of the triplet rule can be written precisely as the BCM term plus some perturbation terms due to the input correlations (SI Text)

$$\bar{w}_j = \phi(v) \rho_j + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Delta A \bar{w}_k + w^T \Delta B w$$

where $\phi(v) = \sum \omega_j \nu_j / N$ is the BCM term (Fig. 2C) with $\omega_j$ and $\nu_j$ being the overall rate under the pair-based and triplet STDP rules, respectively. $\Delta A$ and $\Delta B$ describe the contributions from the input statistics (SI Text). To get depression at low postsynaptic firing rate and potentiation for higher firing rate, pairs of spikes must have an overall depressive effect ($\Delta F < 0$) and triplets of spikes must induce potentiation ($|\Delta F| > 0$), as is the case for the minimal triplet STDP model considered here (15).

There are two differences between the original BCM rule in Eq. 5 and the triplet model in Eq. 6. First, in the triplet model, the function $\phi$ depends only on the temporally averaged postsynaptic activity $v$, whereas in the BCM model, $\phi$ also depends on the postsynaptic activity averaged over all patterns, $F$. However, if we redefine the amplitude parameter for pair-based depression $A_2$: as $A_2 \equiv \sigma / |\theta|$, where $\sigma_0$ is a constant denoting the target rate of the postsynaptic neuron (15), then both $\phi$ and $\Delta F$ in Eq. 6 will depend on $F$.

The second difference is the presence of the two additional terms ($\Delta A$ and $\Delta B$) in Eq. 6. If the inputs are Poisson neurons, we can rewrite Eq. 6 as

$$\bar{w} = \phi(v, F) (I + \Lambda) \rho.$$

where $I$ denotes the identity matrix and $\Lambda$ is a diagonal matrix (SI Text). If we now assume that the patterns are orthogonal, we can show that the condition $\nu = 0$ in Eq. 7 gives rise to $2^N$ fixed points. Moreover, the $N$ maximally selective fixed points, $w^{(n)} = (0, \ldots, 0, w^{(n)}_0, 0, \ldots, 0)$, are stable fixed points (Fig. 2D and E shows an illustration in two dimensions), which is consistent with results of the BCM theory.

The general problem of deriving selectivity analytically has not yet been solved; however, numerical simulations suggest that the triplet rule successfully drives selectivity even when the rate-based inputs are nonorthogonal. We designed an experiment to examine the level of selectivity as 10 Gaussian input patterns were presented to the network with varying amounts of overlap (Fig. 2A). The Gaussian profiles were uniformly spaced across the input neurons, and we varied the ratio of the background firing rate ($r_{max}$) to the peak firing rate ($r_{max}$) of each Gaussian (Fig. 2B, Inset) and the SD ($\sigma$). The Gaussian profiles were closest to orthogonal for small $\sigma$ and $r_{max}/r_{max} = 0$, whereas their amount of overlap increased as either $\sigma$ or $r_{min}/r_{max}$ increased. We computed the amount of selectivity of the postsynaptic neuron at the end of a simulation when the weights reached a steady state (Fig. 2A) as a function of the Gaussian SD ($\sigma$). We observed that for the case of nearly orthogonal Gaussian profiles ($r_{min}/r_{max} = 0.55$ and small $\sigma$, Fig. 2B, red lines), the achieved selectivity was close to the maximally attainable selectivity of 0.9 for 10 orthogonal patterns (6). The selectivity dropped as $\sigma$ or $r_{min}/r_{max}$ increased (Fig. 2B).

We compared the performance of the triplet to the BCM rule using the same Gaussian input profiles, while keeping the weights nonnegative during the entire simulation (Fig. 2B, dashed lines). As expected, we obtained similar results to those of the triplet rule.

Triplet STDP Induces Selectivity with Correlation-Based Patterns. In addition to mapping the triplet to the BCM rule for rate-based patterns, the triplet rule further generalizes the BCM model: In Eq. 6, $\Delta A$ and $\Delta B$ depend on the second- and third-order input correlations, respectively (SI Text); therefore, we expected triplet STDP to be sensitive to spatiotemporal correlations in the inputs.

To examine our hypothesis, we presented 10 “correlation-based” patterns to the feedforward network with 100 inputs. The correlation-based patterns were determined by different pairwise and third-order correlations (Fig. 3A), but had the same input firing rates. Therefore, the response of the postsynaptic neuron to each pattern was the same, which prevented us from using the same measure of selectivity as for rate-based patterns. Instead, selectivity was defined in terms of the selective potentiation of a group of correlated inputs. Fig. 3B shows a simulation with purely spatial correlations that had no temporal structure (the input correlations were due to identical spikes in the neurons). The weights from one pattern potentiated (inputs 41–50), whereas the other weights depressed. When we presented spatiotemporal correlations with an exponentially decaying
correlation function, selectivity was also achieved: A set of 10 weights (81–90) characteristic of one pattern potentiated, whereas the other weights depressed (Fig. 3C).

In the case of correlation-based patterns, the sliding threshold depends both on the input firing rates and correlations. Although the additional terms $\Delta A$ and $\Delta B$ in Eq. 6 prevent us from deriving an explicit expression for the modification threshold, we illustrated the dependence of the threshold on the correlation strength in Fig. 3D. Here we computed the average weight change for 100 weights as a function of the postsynaptic firing rate for two different input correlations: In both cases the firing rate of the 100 inputs was the same (10 Hz), and the correlation function was a decaying exponential with a timescale of 10 ms (Fig. 3D, Inset); however, the two functions differed in the correlation peak (black peak was one-half of the red peak). The network with the higher correlation peak had a lower modification threshold, resulting in a larger potentiation region.

Due to the increased complexity of the system when the inputs are correlated, we derived the fixed points of maximal selectivity ($w^*$, 0) and (0, $w^*$) in a small network of two groups of input neurons and analyzed their stability (SI Text). A lower bound had to be introduced to prevent the weights from becoming negative (in agreement with Dale’s law). For the 2D network, we found that the two unstable fixed points were always stable. Fig. 3E shows the 2D phase plane, where the two unstable fixed points (red symbols) drive the weight trajectories toward the axes where the stable maximally selective fixed points are located (black symbols). Example weight trajectories are shown in Fig. 3F for one choice of initial condition.

We extended the simulation in Fig. 3C to examine how the temporal correlation structure of the inputs influences the selective potentiation of synaptic weights corresponding to different patterns. We studied a particular example of a symmetric spatiotemporal correlation: an exponential function decaying in time, which was the same for all pairs and the same for all triplets of inputs (SI Text). Therefore, while preserving the correlation structure, we examined the role of correlation timescales on the selective potentiation of synaptic weights (Fig. 3G, Inset). Increasing the correlation timescale had a similar effect as “diluting” the correlation strength. The triplet STDP rule failed to consistently potentiate the weights of one input pattern, and often two or three patterns were simultaneously selected (Fig. 3G). Therefore, correlations over broad timescales fail to evoke selective potentiation of correlation-based input patterns and could be used to understand the implications of different correlation structures in different brain regions.

**Triplet STDP, but Not Pair-Based STDP, Can Induce Selectivity Driven by Third-Order Correlations.** Despite the advantage of triplet STDP over classical pair-based STDP to capture a large variety of experimental plasticity data (for instance, frequency dependence) (17), we asked whether triplet STDP can do computations that pair-based STDP cannot. Previous studies have shown that for correlation-based patterns pair-based STDP selects the correlated groups of inputs in the case of static patterns (where the correlations are always presented to the same group of inputs), but have not addressed the case of dynamic patterns (28). We hypothesized that triplet STDP will be able to select patterns determined by the inputs’ third-order correlations, whereas pair-based STDP will not be able to distinguish any higher-than-pairwise correlations.

For this task, we designed a selectivity scenario consisting of two correlation-based patterns presented to a feedforward network of six input neurons. The inputs in the two patterns consisted of the same firing rates and the same pairwise correlations, but differed in the presence or absence of third-order correlations in half of the inputs (Fig. 4A). Pattern 1 consisted of third-order correlations in inputs 1–3 (denoted as group 1) and no third-order correlations in inputs 4–6 (denoted as group 2). Pattern 2 consisted of third-order correlations in inputs 4–6 of group 2 and no third-order correlations in inputs 1–3 of group 1. Next, we presented each pattern to the network (third-order correlations only in inputs 1–3), almost all simulations resulted in the potentiation of these inputs under the triplet STDP rule. As the probability of presenting pattern 1 decreased to 0.5, the probability that pattern 1 wins also decreased. However, pair-based STDP was not sensitive to the third-order input correlations and it treated both patterns equally, selecting each pattern randomly with equal probability of 1/2 regardless of how frequently pattern 1 was presented.

This result demonstrates that the triplet STDP rule can distinguish between inputs solely on the basis of the higher-order correlation structure, which pair-based STDP ignores. As a result, triplet STDP will be computationally more powerful in systems where such higher-order correlations have been characterized (22–24) and where firing rates and pairwise correlations are of similar magnitude.

These studies demonstrate that because pair-based STDP uses only pairs of spikes to induce synaptic plasticity, it is sensitive only up to pairwise correlations. Thus, we suspected that the triplet STDP rule, which evokes plasticity using triplets of spikes, will be sensitive only up to third-order correlations. To confirm this, we repeated the simulation scenario above for a network of groups of five neurons (Fig. 4B). In each case, the two input groups had the same lower-order correlations, but differed in the presence or absence of higher-order correlations in each group. We studied correlations with highest order of five. The triplet presented each pattern to the network with a 100% chance of presentation. A random sequence of patterns was noted in every 100th input (Fig. 4B). The probability of winning each pattern is shown in Fig. 4C. The probability of pattern 1 winning, as computed for 200 simulations runs: triplet STDP (red symbols) and pair STDP (black symbols). When only pattern 1 was presented to the network (third-order correlations only in inputs 1–3), almost all simulations resulted in the potentiation of these inputs under the triplet STDP rule. As the probability of presenting pattern 1 decreased to 0.5, the probability that pattern 1 wins also decreased. However, pair-based STDP was not sensitive to the third-order input correlations and it treated both patterns equally, selecting each pattern randomly with equal probability of 1/2 regardless of how frequently pattern 1 was presented.

**Fig. 4. Triplet STDP, and not pair-based STDP, can distinguish between patterns determined by third-order correlations.** (A) Two patterns were randomly presented to a feedforward network: The inputs in the two patterns had the same firing rates and the same pairwise correlations. The patterns differed only by the presence or absence of third-order correlations in half of the inputs (illustrated with the red triplets of spikes and the colored background). The probability of presenting pattern 1 was varied, e.g. of 10 pattern presentations, pattern 1 was presented with probability 0.8. (B) The evolution of the weights under the triplet STDP rule demonstrating an enhancement of five neurons sensitive to third-order correlations. In each case, the two input groups had the same lower-order correlations, but differed in the presence or absence of higher-order correlations in each group. We studied correlations with highest order of five. The triplet...
After learning with different training presentation times (5, 7, 10, 12, 17, 20, 22, and 25 ms), the weights were frozen during a testing phase. The pattern of the synapses that resulted in the highest firing rate at the training presentation time was presented again to the network at different tested presentation times (5, 7, 10, 12, 17, 20, 22, and 25 ms) while the firing rate was measured. The best tested presentation time for which the firing rate (averaged over 100 s) was the highest was plotted against the training presentation time (mean ± SEM over 10 trials).

**Spatiotemporal Receptive Field Development.** Due to its sensitivity to higher-order correlations, we expected that the triplet rule would succeed in driving the development of spatiotemporal receptive field properties encountered in visual cortex, such as orientation selectivity. In the same feedforward framework we presented eight different patterns consisting of four bars at different orientations, each moving in one of two directions, as shown in Fig. 5A. The input neurons in the network were organized in a 9 × 9 grid mapping to a single postsynaptic neuron. Each input spike produced both an EPSP and an IPSP. The maximum IPSP was necessary for obtaining direction selectivity (Fig. 5D). We expect that for a learning rule to be sensitive to higher than third-order correlations, the rule would need to incorporate more than three spikes, or the neural model would have to be nonlinear.

**Discussion**

The BCM theory is attractive because it generates selectivity in a variety of scenarios and has been supported experimentally (6–8). Synaptic plasticity, however, has been shown to depend on the precise spike timing (9, 10) classically modeled by pair-based STDP (11, 12). In this paper, we show that a different spike-based rule, triplet STDP, known to accurately capture plasticity experiments (15), exhibits the computational properties of the BCM rule and is additionally sensitive to higher-order spatiotemporal input correlations.

We mapped the triplet STDP to the BCM learning rule for rate-based patterns, determined by the input firing rates. Consistent with the BCM theory, we showed that for nonoverlapping (orthogonal) patterns, the maximally selective fixed points of the weight dynamics under triplet STDP are always stable. For overlapping Gaussian patterns, numerical simulations demonstrated that the selectivity achieved with the triplet rule is similar to the selectivity achieved with the BCM rule. We showed that the triplet rule can generate selectivity in the case of correlation-based dynamic patterns, determined solely by the higher-order input correlations. However, because the rule uses triplets of spikes to induce plasticity, it is sensitive to higher-order correlations of maximum order three. This sensitivity led to the development of direction selectivity and speed selectivity. We observed that increasing the input correlation timescale dilutes the correlation strength, which prevents the cooperation of inputs necessary for the emergence of selectivity. Therefore, our results make experimental predictions about the types of correlation structure that lead to selectivity.

Higher-order correlations have not only been measured in the brain, but also shown to play an important role in visual coding and representing experimental data (22–24, 34). Higher-order correlations are ubiquitous in sensory stimuli, such as natural stimuli and speech signals (35, 36). These correlations have been previously used in learning rules to extract the independent components or features in natural images resulting in simple cell receptive fields as shown in V1 (35, 37). One such rule is the BCM rule, shown to perform projection pursuit that relies on higher-order correlations to find the most interesting input component or those that minimizes the Gaussianity of the output distribution (38, 39) and is closely related to independent component analysis (ICA). Because of its mapping to the BCM rule, we can interpret...
the triplet rule as a method for performing such ICA-like computations. In addition to spatial ICA (where the independent components are obtained from the input statistics at each fixed time step), the triplet rule can also perform temporal ICA-like computations, which additionally rely on the temporal structure of the inputs (40).

Several other models have addressed the issue of spiking-based implementations of the BCM learning framework (13, 14). Izhikevich and Desai (14), for instance, proposed that by implementing a nearest-neighbour-based triplet STDP with nearest-neighbor spike interactions, the rule can be mapped to the BCM rule. However, their model failed to capture the frequency dependence of ref. 17 if pairs of spikes are presented at different frequencies (21) and considered the rather crude approximation that input and outputs are independent. Although the model of Senn et al. (13) captured the frequency dependence of the pairing protocol, it could not reproduce the triplet and quadruplet experiments of ref. 18 (see ref. 15) and the correspondence to the BCM rule is only approximate (the sliding threshold depends on the weights and not on the postsynaptic firing rate as in the BCM framework). Toyoizumi et al. (41) derived an alternate spike-based learning rule designed to mimic the information transmission between an ensemble of inputs and the output of a postsynaptic neuron. Although such plasticity rules derived from the infomax principle can generalize the BCM theory to spiking neurons and can be reduced under some assumptions to the triplet STDP rule (42), the dynamics of these rules are rather complicated to be studied analytically in contrast to the triplet STDP model. The same problem arises with biophysical models (43, 44) or with more elaborate phenomenological models (45), which have primarily been formulated numerically. Therefore, the triplet STDP model is a good trade-off. It can reproduce a large set of electrophysiological data and yet has a relatively simple formulation so that we can study it analytically and generalize its functional properties to networks of different size and input statistics. Additionally, the triplet STDP model extends the BCM theory to correlation-based patterns with higher-order correlations, which were not considered by models above and is powerful enough to capture relevant aspects of the spatiotemporal statistics of natural scene environments.

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Supporting Information

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SI Text

Derivation of the Correlation Functions. We considered a feedforward network as in Fig. S1A. Let \( s(t) = [s_1(t), \ldots, s_N(t)]^T \) denote the vector of \( N \) inputs where \( s_j(t) = \sum_{\tau} \delta(t-\tau) \) is the Dirac delta spike train of neuron \( j \) at time \( t \), where \( \tau \) are the spike times. The input spike trains have instantaneous firing rates \( \rho_j^{\text{stim}}(t) = [\rho_1^{\text{stim}}(t), \ldots, \rho_N^{\text{stim}}(t)]^T = \langle x_j(t) \rangle \). (Here the expectation is taken over the input statistics.) The pairwise input correlation matrix (second moment) between inputs \( k \) and \( j \) is defined as

\[
C_{kj}(s) = \mathbb{E}[x_k(t)x_j(t-s)]dt.
\]

[S1]

For formally, the correlation matrix should be written as \( C_{kj}(t; s) \). For notational convenience, here we omit the dependence on \( t \). The diagonal elements of this pairwise input correlation matrix have an atomic (or point) discontinuity at \( s = 0 \) because \( \langle x_k^2(t) \rangle = \langle x_k(t) \rangle^2 \delta(0) \). (Note that in discrete time with bin size \( \delta t \), we trivially have \( x_k^2(t) = x_k(t) \delta t \).) Thus, \( x_k(t) \in \{0, \delta t \} \) for the \( k \)th spike train at time \( t \). Separating this correlation matrix from the pairwise correlation matrix without atomic discontinuities, \( C_{kj}^0 \) (where the “\( 0 \)” superscript denotes the absence of such discontinuities), gives

\[
C_{kj}(s) = C_{kj}^0(s) + \delta_k \delta(s) \rho_k
\]

[S2]

where \( \delta_k \) is the Kronecker delta function \( \delta_k = 0 \) if \( k \neq j \) and \( \delta_k = 1 \) if \( k = j \), and the mean firing rate averaged over the duration of the trial \( T \) is \( \rho_k = (1/T) \int_0^T \rho_j^{\text{stim}}(t) dt \). The third-order correlation input statistic is given by

\[
U_{k,j,n}(s_1, s_2) = \mathbb{E}[x_k(t)x_j(t-s_1)x_n(t-s_2)]dt.
\]

[S3]

For this third-order tensor, \( U_j \) denotes a matrix whose \( (k, n) \) element is \( U_{kj,n} \). This third-order correlation function has atomic discontinuities at \( s_1 = 0, s_2 = 0 \), and \( s_1 = s_2 \), and we can write

\[
U_{k,j,n}(s_1, s_2) = U_{kj,n}^0(s_1, s_2) + \delta_k \delta_j \delta_n \delta(s_1) \delta(s_2) \delta(s_1-s_2) \rho_j
\]

\[
+ \delta_k \delta_j \delta_n C_{kj}(s_2-s_1) + \delta_k \delta_n \delta(s_2) C_{kj}(s_1)
\]

\[
+ \delta_j \delta_n \delta(s_2) C_{jn}(s_1)
\]

[S4]

where \( U_{kj,n}^0(s_1, s_2) \) is the third-order correlation without atomic discontinuities and is equal to \( \rho_j \rho_n \rho_k \) if the inputs have independent Poisson statistics.

Let \( u(t) \) denote the membrane potential of the postsynaptic neuron,

\[
u(t) = \frac{N}{\sum_{k=1}^N w_k} \mathbb{E}[x_k(t-r)]
\]

where \( x(t) \) denotes the excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) kernel taken to be a decaying exponential, \( 1/\tau_e e^{-r/\tau_e} \Theta(r) \), and \( \Theta(r) \) is the Heaviside step function such that \( \Theta(r) = 1 \) when \( r \geq 0 \) and \( \Theta(r) = 0 \) otherwise. Postsynaptic spikes were generated stochastically from the membrane potential \( (v(t)) = g(u(t)) \). (Here the expectation was taken over the postsynaptic spike train statistics.) For additional simplicity, this function was approximated by the first-order expansion about \( u_0 \) in the rest of the calculations

\[
g(u(t)) \approx g(u_0) + g'(u_0)(u(t) - u_0), \quad \text{where the expected membrane potential averaged over the trial duration was}
\]

\[
u_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T u(t) dt = \sum_{k=1}^N w_k \rho_k.
\]

[S7]

We also denoted the mean postsynaptic firing rate with \( \nu = g(u_0) \). We derive the pre-post correlation \( K_j \) (between one presynaptic and the postsynaptic train),

\[
K_j(s) = \mathbb{E}[(y(t)x_j(t-s))]dt
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g(u(t)x_j(t-s))dt
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T [g(u_0)\rho_j(s-t)+g'(u_0)(u(t)x_j(t-s))]dt
\]

\[
- g'(u_0)\rho_j^2(t-s)dt - u_0 \rho_j
\]

\[
= (g(u_0) - g'(u_0)\rho_j) + g'(u_0) \sum_k w_k C_{kj}(s)
\]

\[
= g'(u_0) \sum_k w_k C_{kj}(s) + \alpha(u) \rho_j
\]

[S8]

where \( \alpha(u) = g(u) - g'(u)u \) and \( C_{kj}(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-(s-t)}C_k(s-t)dt \). Note that \( \alpha(u) \) vanishes when \( g(u) \) is strictly linear \( g(u) = au \) and is independent of the weights if \( g(u) \) is an affine function (i.e., a linear function plus a translation). When the transfer function is linear \( g(u) = u \), then \( \alpha(u_0) = 0 \) and \( K_j(s) = \sum_k C_{kj}(s)w_k \). We have expressed this term in Fig. S1B and D (red curve). Fig. S1B shows the pre-post correlation for independent Poisson inputs (no correlations) which only has an exponential causal component \( (\Delta t > 0) \), corresponding to the EPSP. The presence of input correlations in Fig. S1D contributes both a larger exponential causal component and a nonzero acausal component \( (\Delta t < 0) \) - here we have assumed exponentially-decaying input correlations symmetric about 0.

For the post–prepost correlation tensor \( Q_j \), we ignore the case when the two postsynaptic spikes overlap \( (s_2 = 0) \) because it is accounted for in the contribution from the pair rule. Then

\[
Q_j(s_1, s_2) = \frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E}[(y(t-s_2)x_j(t-s_1)y(t))]dt
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E}[(x(t-s_2)x_j(t-s_1)g(u(t)))]dt
\]

\[
= g'(u_0)\rho_j - (g'(u_0))^2u_0^2\rho_j + 2g'(u_0)(g(u_0)g(u_0))u_0\rho_j
\]

\[
+ g'(u_0)g(g(u_0) - g'(u_0)u_0)
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T [(x_j(t-s_1)u(t)) + (x_j(t-s_1)x_j(t-s_1))]dt
\]

\[
+ (g'(u_0))^2 \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T u(t)(u(t-s_2)x_j(t-s_1))dt.
\]

[S9]

Using the expression for \( \alpha(u) \) above, we get

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The transfer function is linear and we postulated that synaptic plasticity depends on second- and third-order correlations (because they correspond to non-Hebbian dynamics), we assume that the postsynaptic spike train is a valid (1, 2). Consistent with the approach of ref. 1, we expressed the learning rate such that the results in the previous section are still valid (1, 2). Setting the parameter $\alpha(u_0)$ to zero, the pre-post correlation $Q_j$ is simply a function of the (convolved) third-order input correlation tensor: $Q_j(s_1, s_2) = \sum_k \sum_n w_k w_n U_k^{\text{syn}}(s_1, s_2, s_3).$ This post-pre-post correlation is illustrated in Fig. S1C (Right) for independent Poisson inputs; due to the absence of correlations, the only nonzero component is for triplets in which the presynaptic spike occurs before the two postsynaptic spikes ($\Delta t_1 > \Delta t_2 > 0$). For correlated inputs with symmetric exponentially-decaying correlations, the component corresponding to pre-post-post triplet has a larger amplitude (Fig. S1E, Right), but here post-pre-post triplets ($\Delta t_2 > \Delta t_1 > 0$) also contribute to the correlation function.

**Weight Dynamics.** The triplet spike-timing-dependent plasticity (STDP) model can be written in the following differential form. Let $\tau_s$ be a low-pass filtered version of the $j$th presynaptic spike train $x_j$ with time constant $\tau_s$, given by

$$\dot{x}_j = -\frac{x_j}{\tau_s} + x_j, \quad j = 1, \ldots, N.$$  \[\text{[S12]}\]

Similarly, let $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ be two different low-pass filtered versions of the postsynaptic spike train $y$ with time constants $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$, respectively:

$$\dot{y}_1 = -\frac{y_1}{\tau_1} + y, \quad \dot{y}_2 = -\frac{y_2}{\tau_2} + y.$$  \[\text{[S13]}\][\text{[S14]}]

The minimal triplet STDP model can be written as

$$\dot{w}_j = -A_2 \dot{x}_j y + A_2 \dot{y}_1 \dot{y}_2.$$  \[\text{[S15]}\]

In the previous section we assumed that the weights $w_i$ were fixed. Here, we allowed the weights to be dynamic, but with a small learning rate such that the results in the previous section are still valid (1, 2). Consistent with the approach of ref. 1, we expressed the weight change as a Volterra expansion of both the pre- and postsynaptic spike trains. Setting the first order terms to zero (because they correspond to non-Hebbian dynamics), we assumed that synaptic plasticity depends on second- and third-order terms only, i.e., pairs of spikes (1 pre and 1 post) and triplets of spikes (1 pre and 2 post)

$$w_j = y(t) \int_0^\infty W_2(s)x_j(t-s)ds + x_j(t) \int_0^\infty W_2(-s)y(t-s)ds + y(t) \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2)x_j(t-s_2)x_j(t-s_1)ds_1ds_2$$

where $W_2$ is pair-based STDP and $W_3$ is triplet STDP (equations and parameters listed in the main text). [Note that in ref. 3, the wrong number of pairs is assumed in the STDP experiments (60 instead of 75) and therefore the fitted amplitude parameters were overestimated by approximately 10%. For the sake of consistency with ref. 3 we kept the same parameters.] Assuming slow learning relative to the neuronal dynamics, and replacing the weights by their expectation averaged over a time period $T$, we have

$$\dot{w}_j = \int_0^\infty W_2(s)K_j(s)ds + \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2)Q(s_1, s_2)ds_1ds_2.$$  \[\text{[S16]}\]

Under the assumption of a linear approximation of the transfer function given in Eq. S6, and by inserting Eqs. S8 and S11 into Eq. S16, we find

$$\dot{w} = g'(u_0)(A + D)w + g'(u_0)\sum_j \sum_k w_k w_n U_k^{\text{syn}}(s_1, s_2) + \alpha^2(u_0)\rho_j.$$  \[\text{[S17]}\]

where $e_j$ is a vector of zeros with a 1 at the $j$th component and

$$A_{jk} = \int_0^\infty W_2(s)C_{jk}(s)ds,$$  \[\text{[S18]}\]

$$D_{jk} = \alpha(u_0)\int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2)\left[C_{jk}(s_1) + C_{jk}(s_1 - s_2)\right]ds_1ds_2,$$  \[\text{[S19]}\]

and

$$B_{kj} = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2, s_3)U_k^{\text{syn}}(s_1, s_2, s_3)ds_1ds_2.$$  \[\text{[S20]}\]

with $W_2 = \int_0^\infty W_2(s)ds$ and $W_3 = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2)ds_1ds_2$. Note that $g'(u_0)$ and $\alpha(u_0)$ depend on the weights $w$ (through $u_0$), and therefore we cannot analyze Eq. S17 in the same way as if we assume a strictly linear transfer function. In that case, with a linear transfer function, $g(u) = u$, we have $g'(u_0) = 1$, $\alpha(u_0) = 0$, and hence $\kappa(u_0) = 0$. Then we get:

$$\dot{w} = Aw + \sum_j \sum_k (w^T B_j) e_j.$$  \[\text{[S22]}\]

We can also write this equation so that it resembles the Bienenstock–Cooper–Munro (BCM) equation for weight evolution (see also Eq. 6 in the main text),

$$\dot{w} = \phi(\nu)\rho + \Delta Aw + \sum_j \sum_k (w^T \Delta B_j) e_j.$$  \[\text{[S23]}\]

where $\phi(\nu) = W^{2+} + W^{3-}$ corresponds to the BCM term. The new covariance terms $\Delta A$ and $\Delta B$ are defined analogously to $A$ and $B$ given the input covariances,

$$\Delta A_{jk} = \int_0^\infty W_2(s)\Delta C_{jk}(s)ds,$$  \[\text{[S24]}\]

where $\Delta C_{jk}(s) = C_{jk}(s) - \rho_{jk}\rho_j$ is the input pairwise covariance matrix, and

$$\Delta B_{kj} = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty W_3(s_1, s_2, s_3)\Delta U_k^{\text{syn}}(s_1, s_2, s_3)ds_1ds_2,$$
where $ΔU_{bij}(s_1, s_2) = U_{bij}(s_1, s_2) - η_b ρ_b θ_n$ is the input triplet covariance tensor.

$M$ patterns were presented to the network, pattern $i$ with probability $p_i$, with a mean firing rate of $ρ_i^{(i)}$ and pairwise and triplet correlations terms $A_i^{(i)}$ and $B_i^{(i)}$, respectively. To match the triplet rule to the BCM model, we set $A_i^2 → A_i^2 E/ρ_0^2$, where the expectation of the $ρ_i^{(i)}$ power of the postsynaptic firing rate can be expressed as $E = \sum_{i=1}^M p_i (υ_i^{(i)})^2$. This quantity was approximated by low-pass filtering the $ρ_i^{(i)}$ power of the instantaneous postsynaptic firing rate $υ_i(t) = g_i(u(t))$ with a time constant which has to be larger than $M$ times the frequency of pattern presentation, i.e. $r = E$ where $τ_r = -r + υ_ρ$ with a time constant of $τ_r = 5$s. For all the calculations in this paper we took $p = 2$. Using the minimal triplet model of ref. 3 where $A_i^2 ≠ 0$, $A_i^{(i)}$ contains only depression effects from the pair STDP rule ($A_i^2 ≠ 0$) such that the weight equation becomes

$$\dot{w} = \sum_{i=1}^M p_i \left( w (υ_i^{(i)}, E) ρ_i^{(i)} + ΔA_i^{(i)} E w + \sum_{j=1}^N \left( w^T ΔB_i^{(i)} w \right) c_j \right).$$  

[825]

Here, $w^{(i)} = w^T ρ_i^{(i)}$ denotes the average postsynaptic firing rate elicited by pattern $i$.

**Selectivity with $N$ Orthogonal Rate-Based Input Patterns.** In the case of $M = N$ orthogonal Poisson inputs we show that the maximally selective fixed points of the weight dynamics driven by the triplet learning rule are stable. Because we consider patterns with positive components (rates), the Poisson rate of the $j$th component of pattern $i$ is given by $ρ_j^{(i)} = δ_{ij} [ρ_i^{(i)}]$ (i.e., pattern $i$ has all zero components but the $i^{th}$ component).

Because of the Poisson assumption, we have $ΔC_p(s) = δ_{s0} δ(s) p_s$ and hence $ΔC_i^2(s) = δ_{s0} ρ_s E(0) = 0$ for $s ≠ 0$. Because we use the minimal triplet model (for which $A_i^2 = 0$, $W_{22}(s) = 0$ for $s ≥ 0$). As a consequence, $ΔA$ vanishes because it is obtained by integrating the product $W_{22}(s) ΔC_i^2(s)$. (Eq. 824). By using Eqs. 824 and 811, $ΔB_i^{(i)}$ can be written as

$$ΔB_i^{(i)} = \left( b_1 δ_{s0} ρ_i^{(i)} + b_2 δ_{s0} ρ_i^{(i)} + b_3 δ_{s0} ρ_i^{(i)} \right) ρ_i^{(i)},$$  

[826]

where

$$b_1 = \int_0^∞ \int_0^∞ W_3(s_1, s_2) (ε(s_1) + ε(s_2 - s_1)) ds_1 ds_2,$$  

[827]

$$b_2 = \int_0^∞ \int_0^∞ W_3(s_1, s_2) \int_0^∞ ε(r) ε(r - s_2) dr ds_1 ds_2,$$  

[828]

and

$$b_3 = \int_0^∞ \int_0^∞ W_3(s_1, s_2) ε(s_1) ε(s_2 - s_1) ds_1 ds_2.$$  

[829]

In the presence of $M = N$ Poisson patterns, we can write the expected weight dynamics as

$$\dot{w} = \sum_{i=1}^M p_i \left( w (υ_i^{(i)}, E) 1 + A_i^{(i)} \right) ρ_i^{(i)},$$  

[830]

where

$$\phi(υ_i^{(i)}, E) = W_2 \frac{E}{ρ_0} + W_3 \left( υ_i^{(i)} \right)^2.$$  

[831]

$1$ is the $N × N$ identity matrix, and $A_i^{(i)}$ is a diagonal matrix where the $j^{th}$ diagonal element is

$$A_{ij}^{(i)} = \left( b_1 ρ_i^{(i)} + b_2 ρ_i^{(i)} + b_3 ρ_i^{(i)} \right) ρ_i^{(i)}.$$  

[832]

with $w_i^{(i)} = \sum_j w_{ij} ρ_j^{(i)}$. Recall that $E = \sum_i p_i υ_i^{(i)}$ with $υ_i^{(i)} = w^T ρ_i^{(i)}$.

Because of the orthogonality assumption, the condition $w_i^{(i)} = 0$ implies that $φ(υ_i^{(i)}, E) + A_i^{(i)} = 0$, for all $i = 1, . . . , N$ and therefore

$$w_i^2 F(ρ_i^{(i)}) - G(ρ_i^{(i)}) w_i = 0, \ \forall i = 1, . . . , N,$$  

[833]

where

$$G = -\frac{W_2^2}{ρ_0^2} > 0 \text{ and } F(ρ_i^{(i)}) = W_3 \left( ρ_i^{(i)} \right)^2 + (b_1 + b_2) ρ_i^{(i)} + b_3.$$  

[834]

Each fixed point of Eq. 830 must satisfy the $N$ conditions from Eq. 833. Each condition has two solutions: either $w_i = 0$, or $w_i^* = G(ρ_i^{(i)}/F(ρ_i^{(i)}))$. As a consequence, there are $2^N$ fixed points, which is consistent with the BCM theory.

It remains to be shown that the maximally selective fixed points are stable. The $n^{th}$ fixed point is given by

$$w_n^{(n)} = (0, . . . , 0, w_n^*, 0, . . . , 0)^T,$$

where

$$w_n^* = \frac{F(ρ_n^{(n)})}{G(ρ_n^{(n)})} \text{ takes the } n^{th} \text{ position.}$$

To demonstrate that this fixed point is stable, we have to show that the eigenvalues of the Jacobian of Eq. 830 are negative when evaluated at $w_n^{(n)}$. We find that this Jacobian matrix is given by

$$J_n(υ_i^{(i)}) = -δ_{s0} p_i G(ρ_i^{(i)}) ε_i(υ_i^{(i)}) χ_n^{(i)},$$  

[835]

where $ε_i(υ_i^{(i)}) = ρ_i w_{ij} (ρ_i^{(i)})^2$. Because this matrix is diagonal with all diagonal elements being negative, we conclude that all of the maximally selective fixed points are stable.

At this fixed point, the sliding threshold takes the value

$$θ = w_n^{(n)} ρ_n^{(n)} = θ_0(E) \left( 1 + \left( ρ_n^{(n)} \right)^{-2} + \left( ρ_n^{(n)} \right)^{-2} \right)^{-1},$$  

[836]

where $θ_0(E) = A_i^2 r - E/A_i^2 r + τ_r τ_ρ^2$. The sliding threshold of the BCM term only when the correlation terms can be neglected (i.e., $ΔA = 0$ and $ΔB = 0$). The new timescales are

$$τ_1 = W_3/(b_1 + b_2) \text{ and } τ_2 = \sqrt{W_3/b_3}.$$  

[837]

One can calculate these values and obtain

$$\frac{b_1 + b_2}{W_3} = \frac{1}{τ_1} + \frac{τ_2}{(τ_m + τ_1)(τ_m + τ_2)} + \frac{1}{2(τ_m + τ_2)},$$  

[838]

and

$$G_{ij} = W_3 (ρ_i^{(i)} - ρ_j^{(j)})(ρ_i^{(i)} - ρ_j^{(j)}),$$  

[839]
where $\mathbf{W}_3 = A_3^T \tau_+, \tau_-$. Note that in the limit where $\tau_m = \tau_+ = \tau_- \text{ and } \tau_+ \gg \tau_m$, we have $\tau_1 \approx 2\tau_m$ and $\tau_2 \approx \sqrt{\tau_m \tau_+}$.

Selectivity in a 2D System with Correlation-Based Input Patterns. We consider a 2D system where two patterns are presented to the feedforward network, each consisting of two pools of inputs: let $j = 1, \ldots, N/2$ denote the inputs from the first pool and $j = N/2 + 1, \ldots, N$ denote the inputs from the second pool. Let $\tilde{w}_j$ denote the weights in the network and $A_3^{(i)}$ and $\tilde{B}_k^{(i)}$ the convolved pairwise and third-order correlations of the inputs in each pool for pattern $i$, respectively, with the pair-based and the triplet STDP rules (Eqs. S18 and S20). We further imposed a lower bound on the weights, $w \geq w_{\min} = 0$, which in the case of orthogonal rate-based patterns was automatically satisfied.

Under the assumption that the weights in each pool evolve together,

$$\tilde{w}_j = w_1, j = 1, \ldots, N/2,$$

$$\tilde{w}_j = w_2, j = N/2 + 1, \ldots, N.$$

Summing the weights in each pool of inputs for pattern $i = 1, 2$ gives

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \tilde{w}_j = \frac{N}{2} \tilde{w}_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N/2} A_{11}^{(i)} \tilde{w}_k \rho_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \tilde{w}_m \tilde{w}_n \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{mn} \right),$$

$$\sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \tilde{w}_j = \frac{N}{2} \tilde{w}_2 = \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \left( \sum_{k=N/2+1}^{N} A_{21}^{(i)} \tilde{w}_k \rho_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \tilde{w}_m \tilde{w}_n \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{mn} \right).$$

The contributions from the pairwise correlations are given by

$$A_{11}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \sum_{k=1}^{N/2} A_{jk}^{(i)} - \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \sum_{k=N/2+1}^{N} A_{jk}^{(i)},$$

$$A_{21}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N/2} A_{jk}^{(i)} - \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{k=N/2+1}^{N} A_{jk}^{(i)}$$

for pattern $i = 1, 2$, where the average postsynaptic rate over all of the patterns is

$$\tau = \rho_1 \left( \rho_1^{(1)} w_1 + \rho_2^{(1)} w_2 \right)^2 + \rho_2 \left( \rho_1^{(2)} w_1 + \rho_2^{(2)} w_2 \right)^2$$

with

$$\rho_1^{(1)} = \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \tilde{\rho}_j \right)^2, \quad \rho_2^{(1)} = \left( \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \tilde{\rho}_j \right)^2.$$

The terms involving the third-order correlations are

$$B_{11}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \sum_{k=1}^{N/2} \sum_{l=1}^{N/2} \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{ml},$$

$$B_{12}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N/2} \sum_{k=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{N/2} \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{ml},$$

$$B_{21}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N/2} \sum_{l=1}^{N/2} \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{ml},$$

$$B_{22}^{(i)} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{j=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{k=N/2+1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{N/2} \left( \tilde{B}_k^{(i)} \right)_{ml}.$$
bound on the weights, we require that the following two conditions be satisfied for stability (where the system is denoted by $\dot{w} = F(w)$):

$$\frac{\partial F_i(w)}{\partial w_1} |_{w=w^*} < 0, \quad [S49]$$

$$F_2(w^*) < 0. \quad [S50]$$

The first condition becomes

$$3(p_1A_{11}^{(1)} + p_2A_{11}^{(2)}) \left( \frac{p_1}{\rho_0^2} \right)^2 w_i^* + 2\left( \frac{p_1}{\rho_0^2} \right) w_i^* < 0. \quad [S51]$$

If we use the expression for $w_i^*$ from Eq. S48, then the condition reduces to

$$p_1 \left( B_i^{(1)} \right)_{11} + p_2 \left( B_i^{(2)} \right)_{11} > 0, \quad [S52]$$

which is always true because the correlation terms convolved with the triplet rule in $B_i^{(k)}$ are always positive.

The second condition becomes

$$\left( p_1A_{21}^{(1)} + p_2A_{21}^{(2)} \right) \left( \frac{p_1}{\rho_0^2} \right)^2 w_1 + \left( p_1 \left( B_1^{(1)} \right)_{11} + p_2 \left( B_1^{(2)} \right)_{11} \right) < 0. \quad [S53]$$

If we use the expression for $w_i^*$ from Eq. S48, the condition reduces to

$$\frac{p_1A_{21}^{(1)} + p_2A_{21}^{(2)}}{p_1A_{11}^{(1)} + p_2A_{11}^{(2)}} > \frac{p_1 \left( B_1^{(1)} \right)_{11} + p_2 \left( B_1^{(2)} \right)_{11}}{p_1 \left( B_1^{(1)} \right)_{11} + p_2 \left( B_1^{(2)} \right)_{11}} \quad [S54]$$

Similarly, the fixed point on the $w_2$ axis is stable if the following condition holds:

$$\frac{p_1A_{12}^{(1)} + p_2A_{12}^{(2)}}{p_1A_{22}^{(1)} + p_2A_{22}^{(2)}} > \frac{p_1 \left( B_1^{(1)} \right)_{22} + p_2 \left( B_1^{(2)} \right)_{22}}{p_1 \left( B_1^{(1)} \right)_{22} + p_2 \left( B_1^{(2)} \right)_{22}} \quad [S55]$$

Numerical evaluations of these two conditions for a large variety of firing rates and pairwise and third-order correlations have demonstrated that the conditions always hold. Therefore, in the case of a 2D network, the system always results in selectivity. As we show in the main text, this is not always the case for a general $N$-dimensional system, where selectivity depends on the input correlation structure.

**Numerical Simulations with Multiple Patterns.** For the simulations with rate-based patterns in Fig. 2, the inputs within each pattern were given independent Poisson spike trains lacking correlations. For each of 10 patterns uniformly spaced and centered at inputs 5, 15, ..., 95, a Gaussian rate profile was used with a background firing rate of $r_{\min}$ and a peak firing rate of $r_{\max}$, and we explored three ratios in Fig. 2B: $r_{\min}/r_{\max} = 0/55, 5/55, 10/55)$. The SD of the Gaussian was also varied in Fig. 2, $\sigma = [5.0, 7.5, 10.0, 12.5, 15.0]$, but the Gaussian profile was normalized such that it generated the same postsynaptic firing rate for each value of $\sigma$ and $r_{\min}/r_{\max}$. The postsynaptic neuron was linear $g(u) = 10u$ and the target postsynaptic firing rate was set to $\rho_0 = 8.5$ Hz.

For the simulations with correlation-based patterns in Fig. 3, each of the 100 inputs had the same firing rate of 10 Hz. In each pattern, 90 inputs were given independent Poisson spikes, and 10 inputs had uniform correlations between any pair and triplet of inputs. For the spatial correlations in Fig. 3B, each pair and triplet of inputs shared 90% identical spikes. For the spatio-temporal correlations in Fig. 3C, half of the 90% shared spikes for each pair and triplet of inputs were shifted by an exponential random distribution with a mean of 5 ms resulting in symmetric, exponentially-decaying correlations with a timescale of 5 ms. For simplicity, we assumed uniform correlations for all input pairs and triplets. The postsynaptic neuron was linear $g(u) = 10u$ and the target postsynaptic firing rate was set to $\rho_0 = 10.5$ Hz.

For the simulations in Fig. 4 A–C, there were two patterns consisting of three inputs each, with the same firing rates and pairwise correlations, but with different third-order conditions. The postsynaptic neuron was linear $g(u) = 50u$ and the target postsynaptic firing rate was 20 Hz. For Fig. 4D, a network of two groups of five neurons each was simulated so that the two input groups had the same lower-order correlations (for example, same firing rates, pairwise and third-order correlations), but differed in the presence or absence of higher-order correlations in each group (corresponding example, fourth- and fifth-order correlations). The correlated spike trains in Fig. 3 and 4 were generated using the mixture method described in ref. 4 (see next section).

In Figs. 2–5, a new randomly-chosen pattern was presented to the network every 200 ms. Pre- and postsynaptic spikes were simulated stochastically given the respective firing rates. The initial weights were set to 1 and hard bounds were set between 0 and 3 (in Fig. 4 because of the small number of inputs the bounds were five times larger.) Postsynaptic activity was low-pass filtered with a time constant of 5 seconds. $A_1$ and $A_3$ were reduced by a factor of 10 compared to the parameters in ref. 3 to give smooth evolution of the weights, but this did not affect the results.

**Simulations of Correlated Spike Trains.** Correlated spike trains in Figs. 3 and 4 in the main text were simulated by using the mixture method following Brette (3). The general method is illustrated in Fig. S2, where $N$ target spike trains (gray) are generated from $M$ source trains (blue), with specific adjusted to fit our simulations. Fig. S2A illustrates the method for generating correlated spike trains with pairwise correlations only, and Fig. S2B shows the method for generating correlated spike trains with pairwise and third-order correlations. Both methods were used in Fig. 4B and C for simulating 6 spike trains with $N = 3$ for each method (in Fig. 4D we used 10 spike trains with $N = 5$) and $M = N$ in Fig. S2A and $M = N + 1$ in Fig. S2B, whereas the method in Fig. S2B was used in Fig. 3 with $M = N = 100$. The source trains were independent Poisson processes with rate $R$. Spikes from source train $m$ were copied into target train $m$ with probability $p_1$. Furthermore, to generate instantaneous correlations among the target spike trains, spikes from the common source spike trains were copied into the target trains. In Fig. S2B, spikes were copied from the single common source train, generating correlations of higher order in the target trains. In Fig. S2A, each pair of target trains received spikes from a single common course train (probability of copying $p_2$), different for each pair of target trains, thus generating only pairwise correlations among the target trains, but no higher-order correlations. In both cases, the firing rate of the $k$th target train is given by (3)
\[ \rho_k = (p_1 + p_2) R. \]  

The pairwise covariance matrix without the atomic discontinuities \( \Delta C \) can be defined analogously to the corresponding correlation matrix in Eq. S2:

\[ \Delta C_{ij}(s) = \Delta C_{kj}(s) + \delta_{ij}\delta(s) \rho_j. \]

Then the instantaneous pairwise covariance is (see ref. 3 for details)

\[ \Delta C_{ij}(s) = \gamma_{ij}\delta(s). \]

This covariance had the same magnitude for any pair of inputs \( k, j \): For Fig. S2A, \( \gamma_{kk} = p_1^2 R \) and for Fig. S2B, \( \gamma_{kk} = p_2^2 R \).

The expression for the third-order covariance is more complicated [it can be related to \( U_{jkm} \) by \( \Delta V_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) = U_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) - \rho_j \Delta C_{km}(s_2 - s_1) - \rho_k \Delta C_{km}(s_2 - s_1) - \rho_k \rho_j \rho_{km} \).

\[ \Delta V_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \left( (x_k(t) - \rho_j) (x_j(t - s_1) - \rho_j) (x_m(t - s_2) - \rho_m) \right) \delta(s) \]  

After separating the atomic discontinuities

\[ \Delta V_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) = \Delta V_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) + \delta_{ij}\delta(s_1)\delta(s_2 - s_1) \rho_j + \delta_{ij}\delta(s_2)\Delta C_{km}(s_2 - s_1) + \delta_{km}\delta(s_2 - s_1) \Delta C_{km}(s_1). \]

we can specify the instantaneous third-order covariance by (see ref. 3 for details)

\[ \Delta V_{jkm}(s) = \lambda_{jkm}\delta(s_1)\delta(s_2). \]

This covariance had the same magnitude for any triplet of inputs \( k, j, m \): For Fig. S2A, \( \lambda_{jkm} = 0 \) and for Fig. S2B, \( \lambda_{jkm} = p_2^2 R \).

In Fig. 3, we used the method in Fig. S2B with \( N = 100, R = 9.09 \text{ Hz}, \) and \( p_1 = 0.1 \) and \( p_2 = 1.0. \) In Fig. 4 B and C, we used both methods in Fig. S2 with \( N = 3, R = 5 \text{ Hz}, \) and \( p_1 = p_2 = 1.0. \)

To show that in Fig. 4C of the main text these methods do indeed generate the same pairwise correlations [but different third-order correlations], we computed the mean \( \pm \) SEM of the peak correlation coefficients for 200 simulations run in each case (Fig. S3).

In Fig. 4D, we extended the methods described in Fig. S2 to generate correlations of higher than third order and considered \( N = 5 \) neurons per group. To illustrate the procedure, we describe how we generated correlated spikes to distinguish between correlations of fifth order. First we generated a single common source train (with rate \( R \)) from which spikes were copied into the target trains of the inputs in group 1 with probability \( p \). This process generated the following statistics for the inputs in group 1: rates \( p R \), pairwise correlations \( p^2 R \), third-order correlations \( p^3 R \), fourth-order correlations \( p^4 R \), and fifth-order correlations \( p^5 R \). Then we generated \( \gamma_{ij} = 5 \) source trains (with rates \( R \), each copying spikes with probability \( p \) into the 4-tuples of target trains \((1, 2, 3, 4), (1, 2, 3, 5), (2, 3, 4, 5), (1, 2, 4, 5), (1, 3, 4, 5)\) in group 2. This process generated fourth-order correlations \( p^4 R \) in group 2 (but no fifth-order correlations because no target trains received spikes from the same source train). Thus, the fifth-order correlations were different for groups 1 (\( p^5 R \)) and 2 (0), but the fourth-order correlations were the same (\( p^4 R \)). However, the lower-order correlations also differed. The third-order correlations in group 1 \( (p^3 R) \) were lower than the third-order correlations in group 2 \( (2p^3 R) \). Therefore, we generated \( \gamma_{ij} = 10 \) more source trains for the inputs in group 1, which copied spikes into the triplets of target trains \((1, 2, 3), (1, 2, 4), (1, 2, 5), (1, 3, 4), (1, 3, 5), (1, 4, 5), (2, 3, 4), (2, 3, 5), (2, 4, 5), (3, 4, 5)\) in group 1. Even now the third-order correlations in both groups were matched to \( 2p^3 R \). However, the pairwise correlations in group 1 then became \( 4p^2 R \), whereas in group 2 they were \( 3p^2 R \). To match these pairwise correlations, we generated \( \gamma_{ij} = 10 \) source trains in group 2, copying spikes into the pairs of target trains \((1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 5), (2, 3), (2, 4), (2, 5), (3, 4), (3, 5), (4, 5)\) in group 2. Now the pairwise correlations in both groups 1 and 2 were matched to \( 4p^2 R \). However, the firing rates for the target trains in group 1 were \( 7p R \), whereas for the target trains in group 2 they were \( 8p R \).

Finally, we generated \( \gamma_{ij} = 5 \) more source trains in group 1 that copied spikes independently into each of the 5 target trains, giving firing rates in each group equal to \( 8p R \). Because the target firing rate was \( 10 \text{ Hz} \), all source trains had rates \( 10/(8 \pi) \text{ Hz} \). For simplicity, we used a copying probability of \( p = 1.0 \), meaning that all of the spikes from the source trains were copied into the target trains. In this example, there were a total of 16 source trains generated for the 5 target trains in group 1 and 15 source trains for the 5 target trains in group 2. Analogous procedures were used for the cases with correlations of \( k = 2, 3, \) or \( 4 \)th order. For the case of \( k = 1 \) we studied the difference in first-order correlations, i.e., firing rates, and thus we considered rates of \( 10 \text{ Hz} \) in group 1 and \( 7 \text{ Hz} \) in group 2.

For generating spatiotemporal correlations, the mixture method described by Brette (3) was used. The instantaneous correlated spike trains (generated as above) were shifted by independent and identically distributed random numbers from an appropriate distribution function. We used an exponential distribution with a time constant \( \tau_c \), \( f(t) = (1/\tau_c)e^{-t/\tau_c} \).}

\[ \Delta C_{ij}(s) = \gamma_{ij}\int_0^\infty f(t) f(t-s) \delta(s) \delta(t) \]  

and the third-order covariance

\[ \Delta V_{jkm}(s_1, s_2) = \lambda_{jkm}\int_0^\infty f(t) f(t-s_1) f(t-s_2) \delta(s_1)\delta(s_2) \]

\[ = \lambda_{jkm} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} e^{-s_1/s_2} & s_1 \geq 0, s_2 \geq 0 \\ e^{-(s_1+s_2)/s_2} & s_1 < 0, s_2 > s_1 \\ e^{-(s_1+2s_2)/s_2} & s_1 > s_2, s_2 < 0. \end{array} \right. \]

Fig. S1. Weight dynamics depend on pairwise and triplet input correlations. (A) The modeling framework consists of a feedforward network of \(N\) input spiking neurons connected through the weight vector \(w = [w_1, ..., w_N]^T\) to a single postsynaptic neuron. (B and C) The weight dynamics in the case of independent Poisson inputs. (B) The pairwise contribution to the weight dynamics consists of the integral of the pair-based learning window \(W_2\) (blue line) and the prepost correlation vector \(K_j\) (red analytics, black numerics). (C) The triplet contribution to the weight dynamics is obtained by multiplying the triplet learning window \(W_3\) (Left) with the prepost–post correlation vector \(Q_j\) (Right). The spike triplets illustrate the particular spike ordering in that region of \(Q_j\). (D and E) Same as in B and C, but with exponentially decaying correlated inputs.

Fig. S2. Generating correlated spike trains. \(N\) correlated (target) spike trains (gray) were generated by copying spikes from \(M\) independent Poisson (source) trains (blue) with rates \(R\). The copying probability from source train \(k\) into target train \(i\) was \(p_{ik}\). (A) \(N\) target spike trains were generated with nonzero pairwise and zero third-order correlations. Correlations arise by copying spikes from a different common source train for each pair of target trains with probability \(p_{2}\). We show only arrows from the right neighboring source train to each target spike train for clarity. (B) \(N\) target spike trains are generated with nonzero pairwise and third-order correlations. Correlations arise by copying spikes from a single common source train to all target spike trains with probability \(p_{2}\).

Fig. S3. Correlation strength. The peak correlation strengths (mean for 200 simulation runs) for the two groups of neurons in Fig. 4C are shown. (Left) Correlation peak for pairwise correlations was very similar for the two groups. Because each group consisted of three inputs, the average of the correlation was computed between any of the three input pairs. (Right) Correlation peak for third-order correlations was nonzero for the three inputs in group 1 and zero for the three inputs in group 2.