

2023-12-23

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J.P. Vincent, M.N. Economo. 2023. "Assessing cross-contamination in spike-sorted electrophysiology data." bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.12.21.572882>
<https://hdl.handle.net/2144/48915>

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1 **Assessing cross-contamination in spike-sorted electrophysiology data**

2 *ISI Violations and FDR in Spike Sorting*

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9 **ABSTRACT**

10 Recent advances in extracellular electrophysiology now facilitate the recording of spikes from
11 hundreds or thousands of neurons simultaneously. This has necessitated both the development of
12 new computational methods for spike sorting and better methods to determine spike sorting
13 accuracy. One longstanding method of assessing the false discovery rate (FDR) of spike sorting
14 – the rate at which spikes are misassigned to the wrong cluster – has been the rate of inter-spike-
15 interval (ISI) violations. Despite their near ubiquitous usage in spike sorting, our understanding
16 of how exactly ISI violations relate to FDR, as well as best practices for using ISI violations as a
17 quality metric, remain limited. Here, we describe an analytical solution that can be used to
18 predict FDR from ISI violation rate. We test this model in silico through Monte Carlo
19 simulation, and apply it to publicly available spike-sorted electrophysiology datasets. We find
20 that the relationship between ISI violation rate and FDR is highly nonlinear, with additional
21 dependencies on firing rate, the correlation in activity between neurons, and contaminant neuron
22 count. Predicted median FDRs in public datasets were found to range from 3.1% to 50.0%. We
23 find that stochasticity in the occurrence of ISI violations as well as uncertainty in cluster-specific
24 parameters make it difficult to predict FDR for single clusters with high confidence, but that
25 FDR can be estimated accurately across a population of clusters. Our findings will help the
26 growing community of researchers using extracellular electrophysiology assess spike sorting
27 accuracy in a principled manner.

28 **SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT**

29 High-density silicon probes are widely used to record the activity of large populations of neurons
30 while animals are engaged in complex behavior. In this approach, each electrode records spikes
31 from many neurons, and “spike sorting” algorithms are used to group the spikes originating from
32 each neuron together. This process is error-prone, however, and so the ability to assess spike
33 sorting accuracy is essential for properly interpreting neural activity. The rate of inter-spike-
34 interval (ISI) violations is commonly used to assess spike sorting accuracy, but the relationship
35 between ISI violation rate and sorting accuracy is complex and poorly understood. Here, we
36 describe this relationship in detail and provide guidelines for how to properly use ISI violation
37 rate to assess spike sorting accuracy.

38 INTRODUCTION

39 Extracellular electrophysiology has become an increasingly popular method for studying neuronal
40 activity at the population level. Silicon probes containing dozens or hundreds of densely packed
41 electrode sites can be used to observe neuronal action potentials in many neurons simultaneously.
42 This multiplexed signal acquisition, however, often necessitates the assignment of observed action
43 potentials to individual neurons - “spike sorting” - as a critical first step prior to many analyses
44 (Rey et al., 2015; Todorova et al., 2014). Approaches for spike sorting vary, though all generally
45 involve comparisons of observed action potential waveforms within and across electrodes, and
46 then grouping similar spikes – thought to be produced by the same neuron – together, forming
47 clusters (Gibson et al., 2012; Quiroga & Panzeri, 2013). Ideally, each cluster is composed
48 principally of true positive (TP) spikes from a single neuron making it a “well isolated” cluster.
49 Spikes from this single neuron can be erroneously excluded from the cluster, resulting in false
50 negatives (FNs). The primary focus of this work, however, is false positives (FPs), wherein spikes
51 are misassigned to a cluster whose activity is meant to correspond to a different neuron. Clusters
52 with substantial “contamination” by FPs thus represent the combined activity of multiple neurons.

53 False positives are a persistent problem in spike sorting that results from frequently unavoidable
54 similarities in action potential waveforms, occurrence of spikes at overlapping times,
55 nonstationarity in waveform shape, and recording noise. Contamination can distort the activity of
56 a cluster, potentially leading to incorrect conclusions about how single neurons encode
57 information. For instance, a population of neurons recorded during a task with two cues may
58 contain neurons responsive to just one cue or the other. However, poor sorting may lead to cluster
59 cross-contamination between these two phenotypes, giving the impression that neurons in this
60 region respond to both cues. The prevalence of FPs in a single cluster, recording session, or dataset
61 can be described by the false discovery rate (FDR), a value that ranges between 0 and 1 and reports
62 the proportion of sorted spikes that have been misassigned. While FNs can also be a concern, as
63 they can decrease recorded spike rates and thus reduce statistical power in subsequent analyses
64 (Hill et al., 2011), FNs should not generally alter the overall patterns of activity associated with
65 individual clusters and are thus of less concern than FPs.

66 Algorithmic approaches to spike sorting for high-density silicon probe electrophysiology have
67 seen concentrated development over the last decade, with researchers now selecting from a number
68 of competing options for high-throughput automated spike sorting (Bestel et al., 2012; Buccino et
69 al., 2020; Chaure et al., 2018; Chung et al., 2017; Jun et al., 2017; J. H. Lee et al., 2017; Pachitariu
70 et al., 2016; Saif-ur-Rehman et al., 2021; Toosi et al., 2021), yet concomitant techniques for *post*
71 *hoc* analysis of spike-sorted data (Barnett et al., 2016; Hill et al., 2011; Magland et al., 2020;
72 Neymotin et al., 2011; Pouzat et al., 2002) have been given comparatively less attention. Sorting
73 quality metrics generally fall into two categories: assessment of cluster overlap using
74 dimensionally reduced representations of sorted spike waveforms, e.g. L-ratio (Schmitzer-Torbert
75 et al., 2005), isolation distance (Harris et al., 2001), D-prime (Hill et al., 2011), and silhouette
76 score, or empirical measures known to be related to cluster isolation and sorting difficulty, e.g.
77 signal-to-noise ratio, presence ratio, firing range, and inter-spike interval (ISI) violations. Among
78 all these metrics, ISI violations are unique in that they are tightly linked to the occurrence of FPs.
79 Biophysical limitations prevent neurons from producing consecutive spikes within their absolute
80 refractory period, meaning the presence of action potentials spaced by less than the absolute
81 refractory period, an ISI violation, is always the result of at least one FP.

82 ISI violations are typically reported as a fraction of the total number of spikes assigned to a
83 cluster. The ISI violation rate (ISI_v) – the number of ISI violations divided by the total number of
84 spikes assigned to a cluster – is often interpreted subjectively with only a general understanding
85 that a lower ISI_v is associated with a lower FDR. Often, although not always, it is appreciated that
86 most FP spikes do not produce ISI violations and so $ISI_v \ll FDR$. Previous work has estimated
87 the relationship between ISI_v and FDR (Hill et al., 2011; Llobet et al., 2022) using simplifying
88 assumptions, but the accuracy and limitations of predicting cluster FDR on the basis of ISI
89 violations under realistic experimental conditions have not been assessed.

90 Here, we developed a comprehensive model explaining the relationship between ISI_v and FDR
91 following spike sorting with respect to cluster contamination, neuronal firing rate, the temporal
92 relationships between neurons, and the number of neurons contributing FPs. We benchmark the
93 accuracy of this model *in silico* through Monte Carlo simulation and explore limitations in the
94 accuracy of FDR estimation imposed by *in vivo* recording conditions. Finally, we apply this model
95 to publicly available spike-sorted electrophysiology data to provide an estimate of FDRs based on
96 ISI violations in the literature to provide researchers intuition about the expected range of FDR
97 associated with silicon probe electrophysiology.

98 MATERIALS AND METHODS

99 *Monte-Carlo simulation of neural spike trains*

100 Stochastic neural spike trains were simulated using Elephant (Electrophysiology Analysis Toolkit)
101 (Yegenoglu et al., 2018). Specifically, neurons were modeled as either homogeneous or
102 inhomogeneous Poisson processes (van Vreeswijk, 2010) using either the
103 `StationaryPoissonProcess` or the `NonStationaryPoissonProcess` functions of the
104 `spike_train_generation` module. Custom Python scripts were used for subsequent simulation and
105 analysis. A refractory period of 2.5 ms was assumed for all simulations as well as all calculations
106 in *Table 1*. Almost all datasets examined were recorded from mouse cortical neurons, however for
107 data collected from different cell types or animal models, this parameter would need to be adjusted
108 accordingly. For generation of inhomogeneous spike trains, peristimulus time histograms (PSTHs)
109 derived from several of the publicly available electrophysiology datasets examined in *Table 1* were
110 used. Simulated recording durations varied depending on the desired level of certainty in ISI_v and
111 need to emulate realistic recording conditions. These times included ~28 hours (**Fig. 3A-B**), ~17
112 hours (**Fig. 3C**), 12 hours (**Fig. 3D**), 30 min (**Fig. 2B**), and 10 min (**Fig. 2A**; **Fig. 2C**; **Fig. 4B-C**)

113 *Monte Carlo simulation of cluster populations*

114 In some simulations, all parameters were varied simultaneously to produce populations of clusters
115 with a wide range of physiologically feasible parametric combinations (**Fig. 3D**; **Fig. 4B-C**). For
116 each cluster, FDR was sampled from bounded Cauchy distributions, as these were found to most
117 accurately replicate ISI_v distributions found in electrophysiological data when simulated. Different
118 population median and mean FDRs were obtained by adjusting the location and scale of the
119 Cauchy distribution. R_t was randomly selected from bounded uniform distributions: [4, 20] (**Fig.**
120 **3D**), [1, 10] (**Fig. 4B**), and [4, 16] (**Fig. 4C**). Possible values of N were randomly chosen from
121 among the following values: [1, 2, 5, ∞]. This was found to be the most balanced way to sample
122 N , as the effect of contaminant neuron count on ISI violation occurrence increases logarithmically.
123 Lastly TP-FP covariance was varied by randomly selecting peristimulus time histograms (PSTHs)
124 from electrophysiology datasets (**Table 1**) to serve as \hat{R}_{TP} and \hat{R}_{FP} . These PSTHs were then scaled
125 appropriately and combined to reach the desired R_t and FDR. TP-FP covariance using this method
126 varied from -49.2 to 113.7 Hz^2 .

127 Calculation of peristimulus time histograms (PSTHs)

128 PSTHs of cluster responses for *in vivo* electrophysiology data were calculated using bin sizes of
129 50 ms. Predicted median and mean FDR were found to be largely unaffected by bin size selection
130 in trial-averaged PSTHs. For continuously recorded data, the greatest length of time that could be
131 extracted around each cue without overlapping was used to generate trial-averaged PSTHs.

132 Estimation of FDR in publicly available electrophysiology datasets

133 When predicting FDR using recorded data, only limited information is available about each sorted
134 cluster. \vec{R}_t and ISI_v can be computed directly. τ and \hat{R}_{FP} can be estimated, the former through
135 prior knowledge of electrophysiological properties of neurons in the organism and brain region
136 being recorded from, and the latter through examination of other sorted clusters present in the
137 recording session. Estimating N is not straightforward.

138 To account for uncertainty in these parameters, two approaches can be taken. Appropriate
139 values can be estimated, and simply plugged directly into the equation, or a range of probable
140 values can be input and their results averaged. In this work, for calculation of the values in Table
141 1, a mixture of both methods was used. An N of both 1 and ∞ were assumed: in the former case, a
142 given sorted cluster was compared to every other cluster in the recording session, while in the
143 latter, it was compared to a single global \hat{R}_{FP} averaged across the session. Clusters for deriving
144 \hat{R}_{FP} could conceivably be restricted to those on the same or nearby electrode sites, although this
145 was not the approach used here due to uncertainty about each dataset's probe geometry. A single
146 τ of 2.5 ms was used for every dataset, all of which were composed of recordings from mouse
147 brains. This refractory period was modified by the censor period, when necessary. Censor periods
148 were determined through visual inspection of aggregated per-cluster ISI histograms across the
149 entire dataset. The final FDR is the mean of the (N = 1) cases averaged with the (N = ∞) case.
150 Empirically, we found this equivalent to assuming a single N of approximately 2-3. Our results
151 indicate that FDR estimates are not highly sensitive to the particular choice of N (**Fig. 2C**).

152 In some datasets, spontaneous activity was recorded, and no cue or event was present to
153 calculate PSTHs around. In such cases, FDR was initially predicted using cluster firing rates
154 calculated across the entire session. However, these predictions were found to be sensitive to bin
155 size used when calculating firing rates, therefore the predicted FDR assuming homogeneous firing
156 is given instead (**Table 1; Eq. 9**).

157 Due to stochasticity associated with ISI_v estimates, observed ISI_v values sometimes exceed
158 theoretical bounds given by the chosen parameters, producing imaginary predicted FDRs. In such
159 cases the predicted FDR is capped at its theoretical maximum for a given (assumed) number of
160 contaminating neurons. (**Eq. 1**). This maximum is derived from the fact that given a certain N, if
161 predicted FDR exceeds FDR_{max} , a lower FDR could be attained by simply selecting a different
162 neuron within the sorted cluster to be the intended or "true" neuron. When FDR is being calculated
163 by averaging the (N = 1) and (N = ∞) cases, FDR_{max} is the average of these two cases' maximums:
164 0.75.

165
$$FDR_{max} = \frac{N}{N + 1} \quad (1)$$

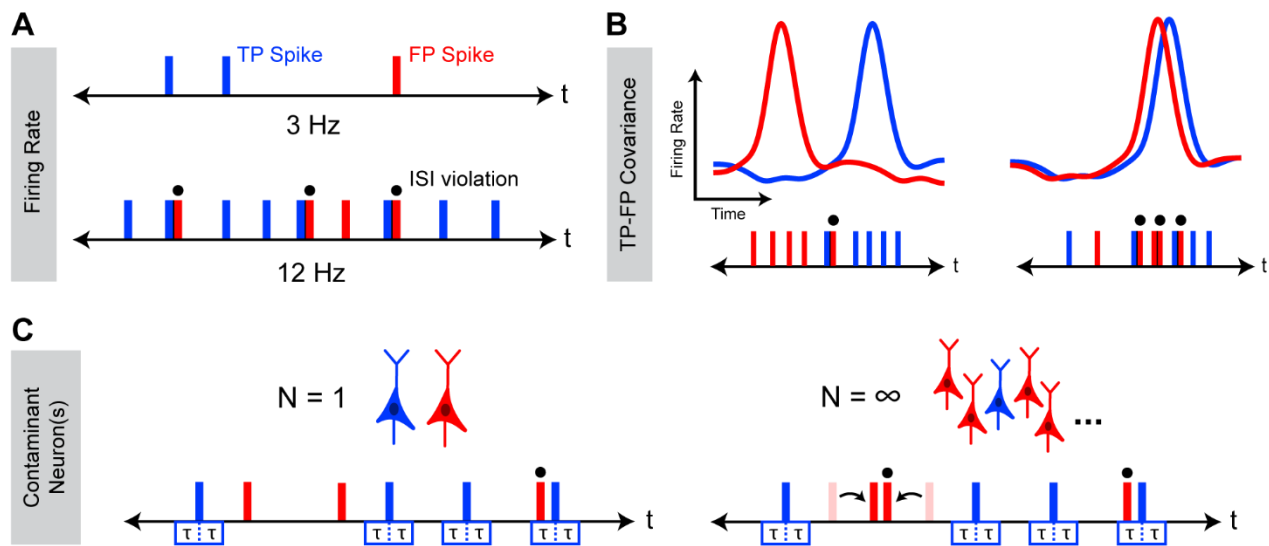
166 For selecting datasets to examine, only papers published in the last 10 years with publicly
167 available spike-sorted electrophysiology data were considered. No limits or minimums were
168 placed on cluster count, and no sorting methods were specifically included or excluded.

169 **RESULTS**

170

171 ***The relationship between ISI_v and FDR is complex***

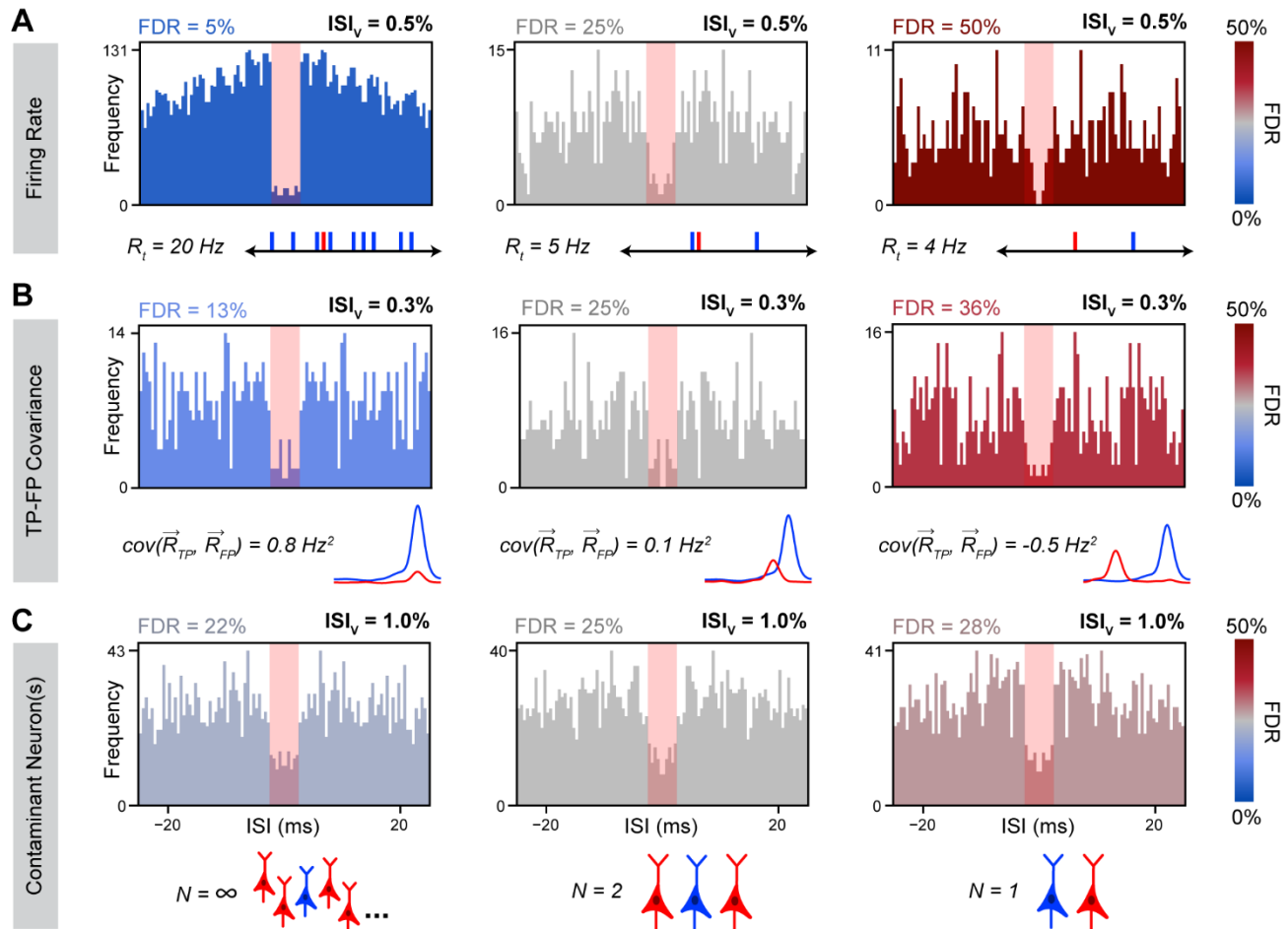
172 We sought to understand how the occurrence of ISI violations depends on underlying cluster FDR
 173 and how other underlying characteristics of neuronal activity might affect this relationship. To this
 174 end, we focused on three variables likely to have a meaningful effect on the occurrence of ISI
 175 violations: neuronal firing rate (**Fig. 1A**), temporal correlation of activity amongst the recorded
 176 population of neurons (**Fig. 1B**), and the number of contaminant neurons (**Fig. 1C**).



177 **Figure 1 - Factors affecting the relationship between ISI_v and FDR.** Schematic representation of occurrence of ISI
 178 violations for a cluster with varying firing rates (**A**) TP-FP covariance (**B**), and numbers of contaminant neuron(s)
 179 (**C**). In all cases, underlying FDR between the two cases is the same, while observed ISI_v varies as a consequence of
 180 changes in these characteristics of neuronal activity. Blue corresponds to true positive (TP) spikes, and red corresponds
 181 to false positive (FP) spikes. Overhead dots indicate observed ISI violations. τ represents the neuronal refractory
 182 period.

183 To determine how these variables affect the relationship between ISI_v and FDR, we used
 184 Monte-Carlo simulations of neural spiking to examine how the relationship between ISI_v and FDR
 185 might change as a consequence of varying each parameter in isolation. Total cluster firing rate was
 186 found to have a dramatic effect on ISI violation production, since overall firing rate played a large
 187 role in determining the likelihood that any given FP spike would produce an ISI violation.
 188 Critically, clusters with lower firing rates and clusters with higher firing rates could both present
 189 with the same ISI_v , even when they had markedly different underlying FDRs (5% - 50%) (**Fig.**
 190 **2A**). These results indicated a nonlinear relationship between ISI violation production and firing
 191 rate not accounted for by simply dividing the number of ISI violations by total firing rate (ISI_v).
 192 The temporal overlap between TPs and FPs was also found to strongly modulate ISI violation
 193 production, although not as strongly as cluster firing rate (**Fig. 2B**). Variable TP-FP covariance
 194 (0.8 to -0.5 Hz^2) altered the probability of any given FP leading to an ISI violation, resulting in
 195 three clusters with substantially different FDRs (13% - 36%) presenting with the same ISI_v and
 196 firing rate. Lastly, number of contaminant neurons was also found to modulate ISI violation
 197 production, although not as meaningfully as other variables (**Fig. 2C**). Greater numbers of
 198 contaminant neurons increased the odds of ISI violations between pairs of FPs, meaning the same

199 observed ISI violation rate was associated with a slightly lower FDR in cases of multiple
 200 contaminant neurons vs. just one contaminant neuron. The dependence of this phenomenon on FP-
 201 to-FP violations means its effects only became meaningful at high FDRs (>0.25) and total firing
 202 rates (>10 Hz).



203 **Figure 2 - Simulated ISI distributions with variable underlying neuronal characteristics.** Representative ISI
 204 histograms with all factors kept constant except total cluster firing rate (A), TP-FP covariance (B) and contaminant
 205 neuron count (C). Simulated firing rates were as indicated (A), 2 Hz (B), and 10 Hz (C). Homogeneous firing assumed
 206 for the top and bottom rows. Blue corresponds to true positive (TP) spikes, and red corresponds to false positive (FP)
 207 spikes. FP firing rate traces (B) are schematics only.

208 *Analytical model of the relationship between ISI_v and FDR*

209 We next sought to derive an analytical model describing the dependence of underlying FDR on
 210 observed ISI_v that incorporates each of these variables. To that end, we first considered a simplified
 211 case in which two neurons are each firing homogeneously, or at a constant rate, and spikes from
 212 both neurons are being assigned to the same cluster. Each TP spike produces a double sided
 213 “violation window” in time. If an FP spike occurs within that window, an ISI violation is observed
 214 (Eq. 2; Fig. 1C).

$$215 \quad R_v = R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau R_{TP}) \quad (2)$$

216 Here, we represent the number of ISI violations observed per second as R_v , the neuronal
 217 absolute refractory period as τ , and the observed firing rates of the two neurons contributing TPs
 218 and FPs as R_{TP} (TP rate) and R_{FP} (FP rate). Note that R_{TP} and R_{FP} represent only the rates at which
 219 TPs and FPs are assigned to a sorted cluster, not necessarily the total firing rates of the neurons
 220 producing the TP and FP spikes. These may be one and the same, e.g., for a neuron contributing
 221 TPs with no false negatives. This equation can be solved using the quadratic formula (**Eq. 3**)
 222 producing an expression for FDR as a function of ISI_v , τ , and R_t – the total observed firing rate of
 223 the cluster – using a few simple relationships (**Eq. 4-6**). The larger root is ignored, i.e. the term
 224 under the square root is subtracted and not added, because the neuron with the most spikes in the
 225 cluster is *de facto* considered the TP-contributing neuron (see **Materials and Methods**).

$$226 \quad FDR = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{2ISI_v}{\tau R_t}} \right) \quad (3)$$

$$227 \quad R_t = R_{TP} + R_{FP} \quad (4)$$

$$228 \quad ISI_v = \frac{R_v}{R_t} \quad (5)$$

$$229 \quad FDR = \frac{R_{FP}}{R_t} \quad (6)$$

230 Some spike sorting algorithms make use of a censor period, whereby spikes detected within a
 231 certain minimum distance, τ_c , of another spike are ignored. In such cases, the size of the violation
 232 window produced by each true positive spike is shortened by this censor period producing a new
 233 effective refractory period: $\tau_e = \tau - \tau_c$. Implementation of τ_e produces (**Eq. 7**), which is equivalent
 234 to a rearranged form of the equation derived in (Hill et al., 2011).

$$235 \quad R_v = R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau_e R_{TP}) \quad (7)$$

236 At the other extreme, consider a situation where the spikes comprising a cluster are generated
 237 by an infinite number of neurons. In this case, FPs are capable of producing ISI violations with
 238 other FPs, necessitating the addition of a second term wherein FP spikes now produce double-
 239 sided violation windows as well. This term is scaled by a factor of one half to prevent double
 240 counting of FPs producing ISI violations with one another. Implementation of this term produces
 241 (**Eq. 8**), which is equivalent to a rearranged form of the equation derived in (Llobet et al., 2022).
 242 This equation can be solved for FDR using the quadratic formula as previously.

$$243 \quad R_v = R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau_e R_{TP}) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau_e R_{FP}) \quad (8)$$

244 For an unspecified number of contaminant neurons N , an additional scaling factor of $(N - 1)/N$
 245 can be added to the FP-FP ISI violations term (**Eq. 9**). This factor can be interpreted as the fraction
 246 of all FPs available for any given contaminant neuron's spikes to produce ISI violations with, e.g.,
 247 $1/2$ for $N = 1$, $2/3$ for $N = 2$. This equation, like previous iterations, can be rearranged to solve for
 248 FDR with an additional dependence added on N .

$$R_v = R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau_e R_{TP}) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{N-1}{N} \cdot R_{FP} \cdot (2\tau_e R_{FP}) \quad (9)$$

In the more biologically relevant case of inhomogeneous firing, or neural spiking rates that vary over time, R_{TP} , R_{FP} , R_t , and R_v can all be considered not as constants but as functions of time (i.e. vector quantities). While this spiking nonstationarity must be taken into account, a time-varying estimate of FDR would be a needless level of granularity and also highly inaccurate given the stochastic nature of neuronal spiking and ISI violations, so of primary interest is a time-averaged estimate of the relationship between violation rate (\bar{R}_v) and underlying variables. In this case, the rate of violations depends not on the product of the average values of R_{TP} and R_{FP} , but on the expected value of their element-wise product, $\mathbb{E}[\vec{R}_{TP}\vec{R}_{FP}]$:

$$\bar{R}_v = 2\tau_e \cdot \mathbb{E}[\vec{R}_{TP}\vec{R}_{FP}] + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{N-1}{N} \cdot 2\tau_e \cdot \mathbb{E}[\vec{R}_{FP}\vec{R}_{FP}] \quad (10)$$

For two vectors representing firing rate over time \vec{R}_{TP} and \vec{R}_{FP} of length n elements, this expected value can be calculated as follows:

$$\mathbb{E}[\vec{R}_{TP}\vec{R}_{FP}] = \frac{\vec{R}_{TP} \cdot \vec{R}_{FP}}{n} \quad (11)$$

Equation 10 can then be solved for $|\vec{R}_{FP}|$, the vector magnitude of \vec{R}_{FP} , using the quadratic formula (**Eq. 12**). Unit vector \hat{R}_{FP} can subsequently be scaled by $|\vec{R}_{FP}|$, averaged, and finally divided by the mean total firing rate of the cluster to obtain a time-averaged estimate of FDR (**Eq. 13**).

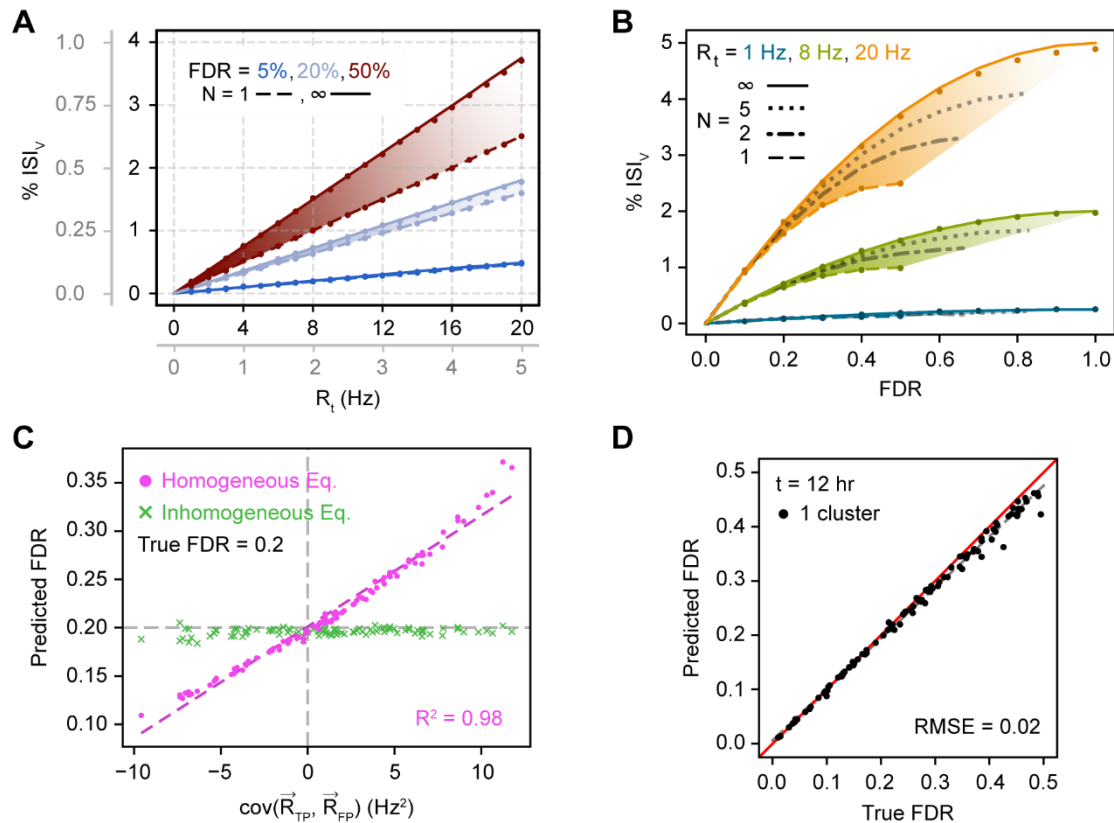
$$|\vec{R}_{FP}| = \frac{N}{N+1} \cdot \left(D \cdot |\vec{R}_t| - \sqrt{D^2 \cdot |\vec{R}_t|^2 - \left(\frac{N+1}{N}\right) \left(\frac{\bar{R}_t \cdot ISI_v \cdot n}{\tau_e}\right)} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$FDR = \frac{1}{\bar{R}_t} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (|\vec{R}_{FP}| \cdot \hat{R}_{FP}) \quad (13)$$

Here, D corresponds to the dot product of the unit vectors representing total cluster spike rate and cluster FP spike rate, $D = \hat{R}_t \cdot \hat{R}_{FP}$. This can be thought of more generally as representing the degree to which the time-varying total cluster spike rate temporally overlaps with the time-varying FP spike rate. This final equation depends upon a number of parameters specific to each cluster to obtain a single FDR estimate: (1) the effective refractory period τ_e , (2) the temporal distributions of activity in the cluster of interest (\vec{R}_t) and (3) of other clusters contributing FP spikes (\hat{R}_{FP}), (4) the observed ISI violation fraction ISI_v , (5) the number of contaminant neurons N . For information on how one can estimate these parameters from experimental data, see **Materials and Methods**.

276 **Prediction of FDR in silico**

277 To both assess our model's predictive power as well as more generally illustrate relationships
 278 between model variables, we next simulated neural spike trains while varying all relevant
 279 parameters across a range of biologically relevant values and then attempted to predict FDR from
 280 the observed ISI_v . In this case, parameters like N and \hat{R}_{FP} that may normally have associated
 281 uncertainty are known exactly. Simulating long periods of time (up to 28 hours of recording time)
 282 also enables highly accurate estimates of ISI_v .



283 **Figure 3 - Relationship between single cluster FDR and observed ISI_v .** (A) Dependence of ISI_v on total firing rate
 284 given varying FDRs and contaminant neuron counts. Lines correspond to analytical predictions; dots correspond to
 285 simulation results. Plotted data applies to both primary and gray axes. (B) Dependence of ISI_v on FDR given varying
 286 firing rates and contaminant neuron counts. Conventions as in (A). (C) Prediction of FDR from observed ISI_v with
 287 temporally inhomogeneous firing rates using either the homogeneous model (Eq. 9) or the inhomogeneous model (Eq.
 288 10). (D) Prediction of FDR from observed ISI_v across a range of physiologically relevant underlying neuronal
 289 characteristics (see Materials and Methods) for 100 total simulated clusters. Red line is the unity line, or perfect
 290 concurrence between predicted and true FDR; dashed gray line is the line of best fit. RMSE calculated with respect to
 291 the unity line.

292 For both homogeneous and inhomogeneous firing we found that analytical FDR predictions
 293 closely approximated the true underlying FDRs (Fig. 3). For homogeneous firing specifically,
 294 observed ISI_v was found to strongly depend on FDR and total cluster firing rate, as expected (Fig.
 295 3A). A linear dependence was observed of ISI_v on firing rate at fixed FDR and contaminant neuron
 296 counts, despite ISI_v often being assumed to already have normalized for cluster firing rate.
 297 Furthermore, FDR was found to scale quadratically with increasing ISI_v at a fixed firing rate and
 298 contaminant neuron count (Fig. 3B). ISI_v values of 0.1-1% represent typical thresholds in

299 literature for considering a cluster well isolated (Boucher et al., 2023; Chandrasekaran et al., 2017;
300 Jadhav et al., 2009; Roy & Wang, 2012; Wright et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023). Yet, our results
301 indicate that FDRs associated with these ISI_v values vary considerably with the firing rate of the
302 cluster in question (**Fig. 3A-B**). As an illustration, an ISI_v of 0.5% reflected a desirable 5% FDR
303 for a cluster firing at 20 Hz, or a much higher 50% FDR for one firing at 3 Hz. In general,
304 contaminant neuron count was of limited consequence unless the cluster in question had both a
305 high firing rate and high FDR, making FP-FP violations frequent enough to meaningfully affect
306 overall ISI violation incidence.

307 For clusters that fired inhomogeneously in time, errors in FDR predicted with the homogeneous
308 equation (**Eq. 9**) scaled linearly with the temporal covariance of TPs and FPs (**Fig. 3C**). Positive
309 covariance increased the ISI violation rate at the same FDR, resulting in overestimation of FDR,
310 while negative covariance conversely decreased ISI violations, resulting in underestimation of
311 FDR. When TP and FP spike rates do not covary in time, the relationship between ISI_v and FDR
312 mimics the homogeneous case even if the generation of TPs and FPs individually may not
313 necessarily be homogeneous. Only under these conditions did the homogeneous and
314 inhomogeneous predictions agree. When inhomogeneous firing was appropriately taken into
315 account (**Eq. 10**), predicted FDR closely approximated true FDR regardless of the covariances in
316 neuronal firing.

317 When FDR was predicted from ISI_v using **Eq. 10**, predicted FDR maintained high agreement
318 with true FDR across the entire space of parameters investigated (**Fig. 3D**; RMSE = 0.02).

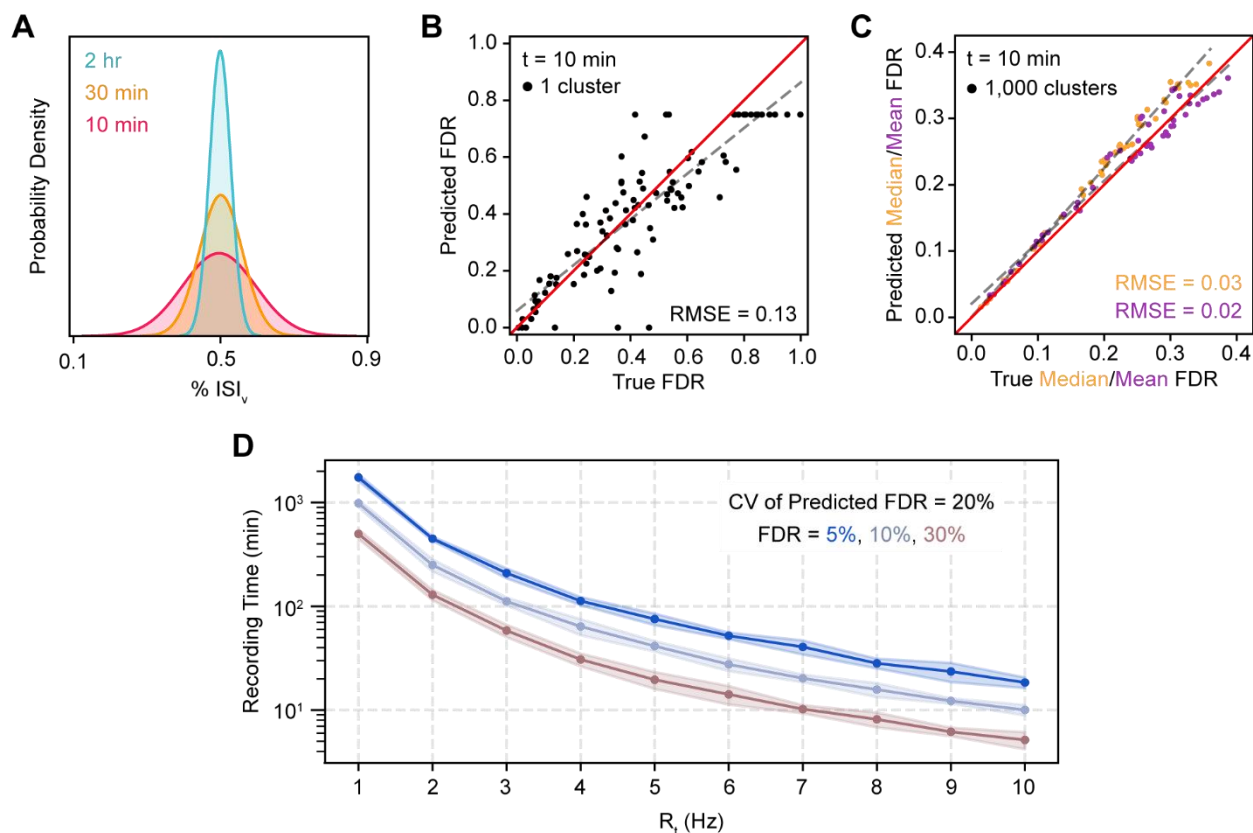
319 *Prediction of FDR under realistic conditions*

320 Our model performed well when ISI_v and other parameters were known exactly, although
321 benchmarking simulations indicated that predictions of FDR are sensitive to small changes in ISI_v
322 (**Fig. 3**), particularly at lower firing rates (**Fig. 3B**). We next wanted to determine whether FDR
323 could be accurately predicted from recordings of finite duration with noisy ISI_v estimates and when
324 exact values of N and \hat{R}_{FP} are unknown. Simulating spiking for finite durations, we found that
325 observed ISI_v values were normally distributed around their true values (**Fig. 4A**), with increasing
326 recording time decreasing the variance of this distribution, as expected.

327 To assess the effect of noisy ISI_v estimates on FDR predictions, we again simulated spiking
328 while simultaneously varying all previously described parameters, but this time recording duration
329 was restricted to 10 minutes (**Fig. 4B-C**). In this case, we found that FDR predictions for individual
330 clusters were substantially less accurate (RMSE = 0.13), although they did not deviate
331 systematically from true FDRs (**Fig. 4B**). Even with this highly restricted recording time, FDR
332 population statistics could be estimated across a set of clusters with high fidelity so long as a
333 sufficient number of clusters were sampled (**Fig. 4C**). For example, median FDR and mean FDR
334 could be predicted with RMSEs of 0.03 and 0.02 respectively across 1,000 clusters. Predicted
335 median FDRs were slightly overestimated at high true median FDR (>0.25).

336 We next sought to determine the duration of neural recordings necessary to obtain accurate
337 estimates of ISI_v , and thus, FDR, in single clusters. To accomplish this, we simulated clusters with
338 various firing rates and FDRs, and determined the recording time sufficient to produce a coefficient
339 of variation (CV) of the predicted FDR of 20% (**Fig. 4D**; e.g. $50\% \pm 10\%$ or $5\% \pm 1\%$).
340 Surprisingly, we found that clusters with firing rates of 1-2 Hz required observations across
341 hundreds of minutes to produce accurate estimates of single cluster FDR, an infeasible recording

342 time in many common experimental paradigms. For clusters with firing rates greater than 5 Hz,
 343 FDRs between 5-30% could be estimated accurately using tens of minutes of spiking data.



344 **Figure 4 - Prediction of FDR for single clusters and populations.** (A) Probability density functions of observed %
 345 ISI_v for an example 8 Hz, 15% FDR cluster recorded for varying time lengths. (B) Prediction of FDR in single clusters
 346 recorded for 10 minutes. All parameters varied simultaneously across a range of physiologically relevant underlying
 347 neuronal characteristics (see *Materials and Methods*). Ceiling effect of predicted FDR at 0.75 due to theoretical limit
 348 of FDR when predicting with unknown N (see *Materials and Methods*). Red line is the unity line, or perfect
 349 concurrence between predicted and true FDR; dashed gray line is the line of best fit. RMSE calculated with respect to
 350 the unity line. (C) Prediction of median and mean FDR in 1,000 cluster populations. Cluster FDRs are Cauchy-
 351 distributed around the population mean. Parameters varied simultaneously and conventions as in (B). (D) Minimum
 352 recording time required for predictions of FDR in a single cluster to have a CV of 20%.

353 We used our model to estimate the FDRs of clusters contained within 12 publicly available
 354 datasets that included spike-sorted electrophysiology recordings (**Table 1**). Given limitations
 355 associated with single cluster FDR predictions (**Fig. 4B**), estimated median and mean FDR were
 356 reported across all clusters present in each dataset. An average median FDR of 12.9% ± 13.5%
 357 (s.d.) was observed along with an average mean FDR of 24.1% ± 9.2% (s.d.). No obvious
 358 correlations between cluster count, spike sorting methodology, or recording technology and dataset
 359 FDR were observed. Median estimated FDRs were consistently lower than mean estimated FDRs.
 360 This implies that cluster FDR distributions in recorded electrophysiology datasets tend to be right-
 361 skewed, composed of a large proportion of clusters possessing FDRs closer to 0 as well as a
 362 broadly distributed complement of more contaminated clusters, some of which potentially
 363 reaching FDRs well above 0.5.

364 **Table 1 - Median and mean FDR of publicly available spike-sorted electrophysiology datasets.**

Authors	Median FDR (\pm s.e.)	Mean FDR (\pm s.e.)	# Clusters	τ_c (ms)	Probe	Sorter
Xu et al. <i>Nature</i> (2022)	3.1% (0.5)	14.3% (0.4)	3,046	0	H2/H3 <i>Cam. Neuro.</i>	Kilosort
Economo et al. <i>Nature</i> (2018)	3.1% (0.6)	12.5% (0.5)	1,988	0.25	H2 <i>Cam. Neuro.</i>	JRClust
Steinmetz et al. <i>Nature</i> (2019)*	4.0% (0.2)	25.1% (0.2)	33,997	0	Neuropixels 1.0	Kilosort
Gao et al. <i>Nature</i> (2018)	4.4% (0.7)	18.7% (0.6)	1,923	0.5	H2/A4 <i>Cam. Neuro.</i>	UltraMegaSort2000
Li et al. <i>Nature</i> (2016)	4.5% (0.8)	19.7% (0.7)	1,543	0.85	A4 <i>NeuroNexus</i>	UltraMegaSort2000
Inagaki et al. <i>Cell</i> (2022)	6.2% (0.3)	17.7% (0.3)	7,968	0.25	HH-2/Neuropixels 2.0 <i>Janelia/N.A.</i>	JRClust/Kilosort
Guo et al. <i>Nature</i> (2017)	6.5% (0.7)	18.8% (0.6)	1,936	0.85	A4/A2 <i>NeuroNexus</i>	UltraMegaSort2000
Finkelstein et al. <i>Nat. Neuro.</i> (2021)*	10.5% (0.5)	20.1% (0.4)	3,385	0.25	H2 <i>Cam. Neuro.</i>	JRClust
Sylwestrak et al. <i>Cell</i> (2022)	12.8% (0.4)	29.1% (0.3)	10,548	0.25	Neuropixels 2.0	Kilosort
Stringer et al. <i>Science</i> (2019) [†]	21.9% (0.5)	33.1% (0.4)	6,446	0	Neuropixels 1.0	Kilosort
Chinta & Pluta <i>Nat. Comm.</i> (2023)	28.2% (1.3)	36.2% (1.0)	991	0	NeuroNexus	Kilosort
Juavinett et al. <i>eLife</i> (2019)* [†]	50.0% (0.8)	44.3% (0.7)	2,018	0	Neuropixels 1.0	Kilosort

365 * Clusters labeled “multi” or “MUA” excluded

366 [†] Calculated using homogeneous equation (Eq. 9)

367 Importantly, no attempts were made to curate clusters included in analysis from each dataset;
 368 all available sessions and clusters were assessed, with the exception of clusters labeled “multi” or
 369 “MUA” in datasets with cluster quality annotations. It’s possible that some datasets were pre-
 370 curated, with clusters discarded according to some exclusion criteria prior to being uploaded, while

371 others were shared un-curated. Depending on the nature of the scientific question being addressed,
372 better cluster isolation is undoubtedly a larger priority for some datasets than others. For these
373 reasons and due to uncertainty in assessing censor period in each dataset, we emphasize that these
374 findings should serve generally as an overall survey of the range of expected contamination levels
375 in datasets produced using widely used methods rather than as a commentary on individual datasets
376 or spike sorting methodologies.

377 **DISCUSSION**

378 Inter-spike interval violations are the most commonly employed metric of accuracy in spike
379 sorting, serving as an indication of the false discovery rate (FDR) – the rate at which spikes are
380 erroneously assigned to the wrong cluster. Here, we used Monte Carlo simulations to demonstrate
381 that the inter-spike interval violation rate (ISI_v) is related to FDR through a complex relationship
382 that depends on many factors, including (1) the neuronal firing rate, (2) the temporal correlation
383 in activity between neurons contributing to a cluster, and (3) the number of neurons contributing
384 spikes to a cluster - in that order of descending importance. We derived an analytical model that
385 can be used to predict FDR from ISI_v that incorporates these factors and determine the accuracy
386 with which FDR can be inferred during finite-length recordings at the level of single clusters and
387 datasets. Finally, we used this model to assess the FDR of clusters contained in publicly available
388 spike-sorted electrophysiology datasets to provide bounds on the accuracy that can be reasonably
389 expected by experimenters. Our study makes four central contributions.

390 First, we derive an analytical model that can be used to estimate FDR from ISI_v accurately across
391 a broad parameter space.

392 Second, we explicitly demonstrate that FDR is not linearly related to ISI_v , but depends critically
393 on the total cluster spike rate. While this dependence can be inferred from previous work (Hill et
394 al., 2011; Llobet et al., 2022), our results underscores the inappropriateness of using ISI_v as an
395 inclusion criterion for single clusters – which is still a common practice in many studies using
396 spike sorted data. Across a common range of firing rates (~2 to 12 Hz), clusters with the same ISI_v
397 can be associated with both low (~5%) and very high (~50%) FDRs (**Figs. 2A, 3A**).

398 Third, we find that estimates of FDR at the single cluster level are noisy due to the stochasticity of
399 ISI violations as well as uncertainty in cluster-specific parameters (**Fig. 4B**) – but estimates at the
400 population level are highly robust (**Fig. 4C**). As a point of reference, our results suggest that ISI_v
401 can be estimated accurately enough to predict single-cluster FDRs within 20% of their true values
402 in one-hour recordings only when firing rates are greater than ~5 Hz. Even for clusters that meet
403 these requirements, however, experimental uncertainty in parameters like FP-TP covariance and
404 contaminant neuron counts make single cluster FDRs difficult to predict with high confidence.
405 Alternatively, population-level statistics of FDR, obtained by averaging across all the clusters in a
406 dataset, can be accurately predicted with recording durations as low as 10 minutes.

407 Finally, we predict FDR on the basis of ISI violations in publicly available datasets for the first
408 time. FDR population statistics covered a wide range (median: 3.1 – 50.0%; mean: 12.5 - 44.3%)
409 and could be estimated with low standard error (s.e. median: 0.2-1.3%; s.e. mean: 0.2-1.0%).
410 Datasets with low FDR were not associated with any obvious external features of data collection,
411 spike sorting methodology, or recording technology and the variance in FDRs across datasets is
412 likely a function of the variable importance of low FDR for the scientific goals of individual
413 studies.

414 ***Monte Carlo simulations for validating prediction of FDR***

415 Given the absence of high cluster count spike-sorted extracellular neural recordings with
416 associated per-neuron ground truth patch clamp data, Monte Carlo simulation presents itself as an
417 attractive tool for studying the theoretical mechanisms by which a given level of contamination in
418 a sorted cluster translates into observed ISI violations. The fundamental assumption of all
419 simulations in this work is that neural spiking resembles a collection of independent Poisson
420 processes, a common assumption that has been validated across a number of organisms, brain
421 regions, and behavioral contexts (Abbott & Dayan, 2005; Roxin et al., 2008; Shinomoto & Tsubo,
422 2001; Tolhurst et al., 1981; Werner & Mountcastle, 1965). Some work has, however, pointed to
423 the possibility of non-Poisson firing in certain brain regions (Maimon & Assad, 2009; Swindale et
424 al., 2023); care should be taken in application of this work to data obtained from these areas.
425 Beyond the foundation of independent Poisson firing, only aspects of neuronal firing and spike
426 sorting thought to potentially be relevant to ISI violation production were modeled, namely
427 varying firing rate amplitudes, temporally inhomogeneous firing, and differing contaminant
428 neuron counts. If an additional aspect not accounted for in this description plays a significant role
429 in determining the relationship between ISI_v and FDR, then *in silico* validation may not reflect true
430 congruence between analytical prediction and reality.

431 ***Best practices for using ISI violations in spike sorting***

432 When attempting to determine the success of spike-sorting operations *post-hoc*, ISI violation
433 fraction is frequently used as a per-cluster inclusion criterion. However, unless a cluster is recorded
434 for a long enough time period given its firing rate and true FDR and difficult-to-estimate cluster-
435 specific parameters are known, it can be difficult to predict FDR using ISI violations at the single
436 cluster level with high confidence. Use of ISI violation fractions in this way can easily result in
437 situations where highly contaminated clusters are erroneously kept while less contaminated
438 clusters are discarded. We posit that the most straightforward and robust use case for ISI_v is as a
439 tool for predicting population-level statistics of FDR when coupled with a sound theoretical
440 understanding of how cluster contamination translates into ISI violations (**Eq. 10, 12, 13**).
441 Investigators can obtain an accurate estimate of median and mean cluster FDR across a session or
442 dataset and then decide whether they are satisfied with these levels of cross-contamination, or if
443 additional effort to improve cluster isolation is needed.

444 When curating spike-sorted data, it is critical that both algorithmic and manual sorters do not
445 specifically remove individual spikes that generate ISI violations. Typically, only a small fraction
446 of contaminant spikes produce ISI violations; targeted removal of spikes producing ISI violations
447 can reduce ISI_v substantially without meaningfully reducing the FDR, thus producing clusters that
448 seem well isolated based on their ISI_v , even when they are not. In effect, this practice does not
449 accomplish anything except eliminating the predictive power of ISI_v for underlying FDR.

450 ***Current state of spike sorting predicted using ISI violations***

451 This work estimates an average median FDR of ~13% and an average mean FDR of ~24% in
452 publicly available electrophysiology datasets. The lower median FDR compared to mean FDR
453 across virtually all datasets examined indicates right-skewed FDR distributions. This likely arises
454 as a consequence of FDR having a theoretical floor of 0, with most datasets having many cluster
455 FDRs close to this floor. It may also be a consequence of most spike sorting datasets being
456 composed of two distinct types of clusters: relatively easier to sort clusters whose FDRs typically
457 fall close to 0 and relatively harder to sort clusters whose FDRs are likely to fall more broadly over
458 the theoretical range of FDR (0-1).

459 In the absence of any clear rationale for variance in FDR as predicted using ISI_v among publicly
460 available spike-sorted datasets (**Table 1**), degree and execution of manual curation presents itself
461 as a promising explanatory candidate. While modern spike-sorting algorithms serve as an excellent
462 basis for sorting vast quantities of electrophysiology data, many investigators still manually merge,
463 split, and discard algorithmically obtained output clusters to further improve cluster isolation.
464 Time, effort, and skill applied to manual curation are difficult to quantify and therefore unlikely to
465 be reported in literature, although such differences are likely to have a material effect on the final
466 quality of cluster isolation. The median and mean FDRs of the datasets examined here as well as
467 the tendency toward right-skewed FDR distributions support the idea that all datasets are
468 composed of both well and poorly isolated clusters.

469 *Necessity of high-quality spike sorting*

470 It has been posited that well-sorted clusters are not a necessity for many types of neural data
471 analyses, particularly those concerned with studying population dynamics (Christie et al., 2014;
472 Trautmann et al., 2019). In some applications, however, well-isolated clusters remain a critical
473 precondition for answering relevant neuroscientific questions. Characterizing the responsivity of
474 specific cell types that have been identified on the basis of genetic expression, projection target,
475 waveform shape, or activity *in vivo* represents an expansive line of inquiry wherein high-quality
476 cluster isolation is key (Deubner et al., 2019; Ding et al., 2022; Estebanez et al., 2017; E. K. Lee
477 et al., 2021; Takatoh et al., 2022). Ultimately, the level of cluster isolation necessary for a given
478 study is highly dependent upon the biological questions of interest. The work herein aims to clarify
479 the relationship between ISI violations and cluster contamination, as well as provide a tool by
480 which overall spike sorting quality can be quickly assessed with a direct, interpretable, and
481 accurate metric, thereby streamlining assessments of sorting performance and increasing
482 confidence that desired cluster isolation levels have been reached.

483 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

484 We thank Munib Hasnain, Maria Moya, Yujin Han, Jackie Birnbaum, and Will Cunningham for
485 their helpful comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by 1R01NS121409.

486 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

487 J.P.V.: Designed and performed research, analyzed data, wrote and edited the manuscript

488 M.N.E.: Designed research, wrote and edited the manuscript

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