Face-selective neurons maintain consistent visual responses across months

David B. T. McMahon, Adam P. Jones, Igor V. Bondar, and David A. Leopold

Many biological systems perform in a stable manner over time. The consistent behavior that is evident at the global level of the organism can persist despite continuous change in the system’s component parts. A cup of coffee, for instance, tastes the same today as it did one year ago, despite the fact that the receptors in our taste buds are replaced every two weeks (1). In addition to the continuous replacement of individual cells, the protein constituents of cells likewise undergo nearly continuous turnover (2). What happens in the central nervous system? Because the lifespan of most neurons in the brain approaches that of the organism (3), it is conceivable that the population of face-selective cells that fire today when you see your mother, for instance, is identical to the population that fired under the same circumstances 10 years ago. However, in the absence of direct evidence, there is no reason to assume that this is the case, or more generally that stable network performance implies stable units. And indeed, both theoretical (4) and experimental results from motor cortex (5, 6) demonstrate that a network composed of unstable units may nonetheless exhibit stable performance.

Recent recordings from the mouse hippocampus showed that reliable location signaling is driven largely by neurons that gradually enter and leave the population of functionally active place cells over the course of several days (7). In that study, only 15% of longitudinally monitored neurons were found to retain the same place fields in two sessions that were separated by one month. This finding cuts against the strong assumption that, in the absence of explicit learning pressure, the default is for neurons to remain the same.

Computational studies of neural network models have pointed to a problem known as the “stability–plasticity dilemma” that presumably confronts the human brain routinely in the course of object recognition (8). This issue arises from the opposing processes of storing new patterns in a memory network, which requires plasticity, and recalling previously stored patterns under the appropriate conditions, which requires stability (9–11). For highly social animals such as humans and other primates, face perception poses special challenges that likely affect the balance of stability and change in how faces are represented in the brain. Constraints favoring stability arise from the fact that we need to recognize the same individuals over long time periods. This task poses special challenges because, due to the pliability and expressiveness of the facial musculature, the same individual may present a drastically different appearance from one encounter to the next. The physical mutability of faces is an extreme case of the more general problem of invariant object recognition, which the brain must solve across a broad range of viewing conditions. Constraints favoring plasticity arise from the need to constantly update our repertoire of social knowledge. Consistent with this notion, recordings from human surgical patients reveal that single neurons can be so narrowly tuned that they only respond to the sight (or printed name) of specific individuals (12). Learning to recognize new individuals is likely to be mediated by synaptic changes within at least some components of the face-processing network.

Whereas theoretical and intuitive accounts suggest that the neuronal representation of faces is subject to opposing pressures for stability and flexibility, it remains unclear how this tradeoff is resolved at the level of individual neurons in the primate brain. Results from one early study suggested that the visual response

Significance

The brains of humans and other primates contain specialized regions dedicated to the perception of socially important objects such as faces. It is not known whether face representations remain stable over time, or alternatively whether they are subject to slow change in response to ongoing experience. By using implanted microwires to monitor the activity of single cells longitudinally across several weeks and up to one year, we demonstrate that face-selective neurons maintain the same distinctive selectivity patterns for as long as they were followed. The long-term consistency of these neurons might reflect a division of labor within the face-processing network for aspects of social perception that require stability as opposed to plasticity.

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1To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: mcmahond@mail.nih.gov.
patterns in some face-selective neurons for a familiar set of images is altered when novel faces are introduced (13). However, the same study also reported that the majority of neurons maintained consistent visual responses, and the changes that did occur in a minority of neurons were typically small. The primate brain contains a number of discrete regions specialized for face processing (14–17). This functional organization raises the possibility that different aspects of face perception that make opposing demands for stability and flexibility could be processed in separate neuronal populations. Our ability to test this idea is limited by the fact that virtually all previous physiological studies of face-selective neurons were conducted with acute recording electrodes, which do not permit monitoring the same neuron for more than a few hours. Using chronically implanted microwire bundles, we recently showed that, in many cases, the visual properties of object-selective neurons in the inferotemporal cortex are consistent across four to five days (18). Here we exploited the stability of the chronic microwire technique to ask whether neurons in functionally identified face patches in the temporal lobe show consistent patterns of stimulus selectivity over months-long time scales.

**Results**

We localized face-selective regions in the temporal lobe of two macaque monkeys using a standard functional MRI (fMRI) block design in which alternating epochs of face and nonface stimuli were presented while the monkeys fixated (Fig. 1 A and B). In agreement with earlier studies (14, 19), face-selective clusters of voxels were detected in the superior temporal sulcus (STS) at ~6 mm and 16 mm anterior to the interaural canal, corresponding to the “middle fundus” (MF) and “anterior fundus” (AF) patches, respectively [following the nomenclature of Tsao et al. (19)]. Based on this functional mapping, chronic microwire electrodes were implanted in the anterior STS face patch. Again in keeping with previous reports (20–24), single neurons in the AF face patch showed strong preference for face stimuli when tested with a library of images contrasting face and nonface stimuli ($P < 0.01$ in both monkeys, two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey–Kramer test; Fig. 1 C and D).

After the initial implantation procedure, the electrodes were advanced in small steps every few days. We previously showed that the microwires used in this study were capable of isolating spikes from single neurons from one day to the next (18). As in our initial report, spikes isolated on the same wire across days often showed stable waveform shapes and firing statistics (Fig. 24). The strategy of the current study was specifically to exploit the stability of the microwire recordings (25, 26) to ask whether the functional properties of face-selective cells are consistent over long time scales. Accordingly, after briefly verifying that the basic visual properties of the targeted neurons conformed to expectations regarding face selectivity in recordings collected on a single day (Fig. 1 C and D), we commenced a series of longitudinal recording sessions in which fixed stimulus sets were presented repeatedly over multiple days. In each longitudinal experiment, the stimuli used were at first novel to the monkeys on the first day of recording, and gradually became more familiar over repeated exposures to the same images over the course of the subsequent days. This design allowed us to test how neural responses changed as novel stimuli became familiar to the animal, and then to further track any changes in the responses to the same stimuli over weeks and months.

Recordings from 144 neurons in the STS were obtained (85 from monkey 1, 59 from monkey 2). During these longitudinal experiments, the monkeys were rewarded for maintaining fixation while images from a library of face and nonface stimuli (from 54 to 206 images) were presented for 300 ms in random order on a computer screen. The monkeys were tested with these fixed stimulus sets for approximately one-hour sessions over the course of at least 13 days (mean, 37 days; max, 68 days). Because the aim of these recordings was to obtain dense longitudinal sampling of the neurons’ selectivity patterns, the monkeys were tested daily whenever possible. In monkey 1, the electrode was typically advanced between finishing one longitudinal experiment and starting the next experiment. In monkey 2, the electrode was only advanced the day following surgery and then allowed to remain in place. This permitted occasional sparse sampling of single unit responses over much longer intervals using two stimulus sets (93 days and 383 days). The aim of these intermittent sessions was to probe the upper limit of the time scales over which face-selective neurons show consistent visual responses.

Representative examples of face-selective visual responses from three neurons are shown in Fig. 2 B–E. Neurons showed various patterns of selectivity that included broad excitatory tuning with the greatest responses to monkey faces (Fig. 2 B and C), more narrowly tuned cells that also responded to nonface stimuli (Fig. 2D), and suppressive responses that were greatest for monkey faces (Fig. 2E). As the longitudinal trends shown in Fig. 2 illustrate, neurons in AF routinely gave very similar responses to the same stimuli from one day to the next and showed little if any change in their distinctive firing patterns for as long as we continued to follow them. More examples of individual neurons are shown in Fig. S1. Consistent functional properties were likewise maintained in neurons that were probed intermittently over much longer time periods, an extreme instance of which is shown in Fig. 3. The recordings from this cell were conducted at irregular intervals as opportunity permitted (i.e., when the monkey was not involved with other physiological or functional imaging experiments) and spanned more than one year (383 days). During this period, three other neurons were followed for at least 165 days and also maintained the same selectivity patterns throughout.

![Fig. 1.](image-url) Face-selective activity detected at the recording sites. (A and B) Location of face-selective voxels corresponding to face patches MF and AF within the STS in monkey 1 (A) and monkey 2 (B). Arrows indicate the position of the electrode track and tip within the anterior (AF) patch. (C and D) Face-selective responses from the population of neurons recorded on a single day in monkey 1 (C) and monkey 2 (D). Category selectivity was assessed using a library of images consisting of faces, objects, and body parts that differed from the stimulus sets used in daily longitudinal recordings. Firing rate histograms show the average evoked responses of 7 and 42 cells, respectively (error bars, SEM).
These instances of very long-lasting stable neurons indicate that the upper limit on the duration of consistent visual responses extends far beyond the range that could feasibly be sampled in daily screening sessions.

In eight longitudinal recording sessions (five in monkey 1, three in monkey 2), the average lifespan of an isolated spike was 29 days (interquartile range, 9–37 days). In total, 59 neurons were held for at least 20 days (19 neurons in monkey 1, 40 neurons in monkey 2). To assess the day-to-day consistency of visual responses, we divided the trials into two subsets and computed a split-halves correlation coefficient for each day. This value (r within) was based on the averaged responses to all stimuli presented on odd versus even trials (Fig. 4A). An identical procedure was used to compute two additional correlation coefficients based on split-halves drawn from two consecutive days (r across) or after shuffling the identity of stimuli (r shuffle). On average, selectivity patterns assessed across days were only marginally (albeit significantly) less correlated with each other (mean, 0.64 and 0.59, respectively; Fig. 4B), whereas both correlations were significantly greater than the stimulus-shuffled control (mean r = 0.006; P << 0.01, two-sampled t test; Fig. 4B, Inset). Equivalent results were obtained when r across was computed based on the first and last days of recording, both in the cases of the four example cells (Fig. 4C, thick red lines) and in the population (Fig. S3). This pattern of results indicates that the subjective impression of consistent visual responses conveyed by the example neurons shown in Figs. 2 and 3 is representative of the population of longitudinally monitored neurons in AF.

Because our conclusion that face-selective cells are consistent across days rests in large part on the fact that we observed similar patterns of stimulus selectivity, we asked whether the columnar organization of the inferotemporal cortex might provide an alternative explanation for our findings (27–29). Specifically, we considered the possibility that if face patches showed the same tendency for neurons in close proximity to have closely matching patterns of face selectivity, then two different nearby neurons encountered on successive days might mistakenly be considered the same neuron. To assess the likelihood of this error, we first quantified the within-cell consistency of visual responses by computing a correlation coefficient between responses to all stimuli on odd versus even trials (Fig. 4C; median r, 0.94; interquartile range, 0.74–0.98; n = 144). We then repeated the same calculation for all pair-wise combinations (also for odd vs. even trials) of different neurons that were screened with the same stimulus set (median r = 0.10; interquartile range, −0.09–0.37; n = 1,561 pairs). The correlations between different neurons, although weak, were significantly greater than zero (P << 0.01, one-sampled t test), confirming that the AF face patch does indeed follow the trend that nearby neurons have similar selectivity patterns. However, the split-halves correlations were much weaker between different neurons than within the same neurons (P << 0.01, two-sampled t test). Based on these results, a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis showed that two different neurons would only be incorrectly identified as the same 7% of the time (d-prime, 0.75; Fig. 4C, Inset). We conclude that the consistent patterns of visual responses that we observed in face-selective cells cannot be explained by the columnar structure of face patch AF.

**Discussion**

Biological systems require the capacity for both stability and flexibility. Whether consistency or change predominates is likely
We speculate that the discrepancy between our current findings and earlier studies pointing to more labile selectivity patterns might be due to the functional heterogeneity of the inferotemporal cortex (34, 35). A recent study showed that the prevalence of identity tuning was greater in the anterior-most face patch (AM), compared with the more posterior face patches (AL, ML, and MF, meaning anterior lateral, middle lateral, and middle fundus, respectively) in which viewpoint tuning prevailed (22). This division of labor among face patches lends credence to the idea that some face patches might maintain consistent visual responses whereas others are more subject to change. For instance, it is reasonable to suspect that regions dedicated to remembering new acquaintances might be more susceptible to plasticity than regions dedicated to the spatial aspects of face perception. If this idea is correct, the opposing constraints of maintaining stable representations of known faces and acquiring new social knowledge without disrupting previously acquired response patterns could be resolved by the anatomical segregation of different aspects of face processing.

The results of the current study suggest that the AF face patch might be well suited for the aspects of face processing that demand temporal consistency. Because longitudinal studies of individual neurons across days are uncommon in the literature, it remains unclear how the long-term consistency of face selectivity found in AF compares with the functional properties of neurons in other brain areas. Development of perceptual systems in the brain is generally understood to involve a plastic phase that tunes the sensitivities of a naive network to match the statistics of sensory experience, followed by a stable phase in which functional properties are held fixed by local abatement of plasticity at synapses or through the global influence of attractor dynamics (36, 37). Some evidence from longitudinal recordings from primary visual and somatosensory cortices supports this idea (26, 38). Results from the motor cortex are more variable, with some groups reporting consistent relations between behavior and the preferred directions of single-neurons (39–41) and others finding some degree of change across days (5, 42) or even within the course of a single session (6). Because activity outside of the primary sensory and motor cortical areas is less tightly coupled to action in the periphery, we might expect to see more change over time in higher level association areas. Neurons in the prefrontal cortex show a high degree of adaptability in acquiring new functional properties in response to learning pressures (43–45), but they also maintain broadly consistent response patterns during tasks involving well-established rules (46). A remarkable early longitudinal study in the rodent hippocampus showed one instance of a place cell that maintained a consistent place field over 152 days (47). Recent work confirmed that some hippocampal neurons do maintain stable place fields over the course of one month (7). However, the same study also showed that the majority of place cells in area CA1 are more transient and gain or lose their location selectivity over the course of a few days. Whereas the population of place-selective cells appears to undergo continuous turnover in CA1, the neighboring hippocampal area CA3 contains neurons that show more consistent place fields across days (48). It thus appears that different subregions within the same brain structure can employ distinct strategies to resolve the opposing pressures favoring stability versus plasticity. The current finding that neurons commonly give similar responses upon seeing the same faces months apart raises the possibility that some neurons might respond the same way to the same individual faces over most of the animal’s lifespan.
Methods

Subjects. Two rhesus macaque monkeys (laboratory designations SI and TO, both females, and 5.0 kg and 5.6 kg, respectively) were used in the experiments. All procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee and complied with the regulations of the National Institute of Mental Health and National Institutes of Health. The subjects were maintained in colony rooms that housed 16 (monkey 1) and 24 (monkey 2) rhesus macaques in total. Over the course of the experiments, the colony membership changed little or not at all. The monkeys likewise encountered mostly the same humans (primarily scientists and members of the animal care staff) from day to day.

Functional Imaging. Functional scans were collected on a 4.7 Tesla vertical scanner (Bruker BioSpin) using T2*-weighted echo planar imaging (EPI) acquisition sequences using a two-channel surface coil that was centered over the anterior temporal lobes. Voxel resolution was 1.5 mm isotropic, with 20 coronal slices providing coverage from +2 to +32 mm anterior to the interaural canal. Higher resolution (0.5 mm isotropic) anatomical scans were collected using modified-drive equilibrium Fourier transform (MDEFT) scans in separate sessions and registered to the EPI. Functional imaging was based on detection of mono-crystalline iron oxide nanocompound (MION) (49) signal in m1 and blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) signal in m2. Functional mapping was achieved through presentation of 24-second blocks consisting of baseline fixation, faces, and nonface objects. Twelve blocks were presented during each such scan. The images used in the longitudinal experiments corresponding to 10–12 such scans. The functional data were run through a standard preprocessing sequence, including magnetic field distortion correction using the PLACE (phase labeling for additional coordinate encoding) algorithm (50), motion correction implemented in AFNI (analysis of functional neuroimages) (51), and high-pass filtering with a cutoff of 0.01 Hz. The effects of the implant on stimulus- and category-related activity were monitored via an infrared camera and computed into analog voltage signals corresponding to x and y coordinates by the software EyeLink (SR Research).

Experimental Design. Two stimulus sets of 54 (monkey 1) or 96 (monkey 2) unique face, object, and body part images were used for the initial assessment of category selectivity. For longitudinal recording sessions, eight stimulus sets comprising 54–206 unique images were used for the duration of each longitudinal dataset. On the first day of each longitudinal recording experiment, a new stimulus set was introduced that was at first wholly novel to the animal and then gradually became highly familiar through repeated exposure over subsequent days. The images used in the longitudinal experiments were a varied set that typically included pictures of human faces, monkey recording procedures will be described in detail in a forthcoming publication. Briefly, microwire electrodes were implanted in both animals together with a custom-made sealed plastic recording chamber and MRI-compatible microdrive in a surgical procedure while anesthesia was maintained under isoflurane. An MRI-compatible head post was also implanted in either the same surgery or in an earlier procedure. The implant was embedded in acrylic cap and anchored to the skull by ceramic bone screws. Daily recording sessions began two to four weeks after the initial surgery. The electrode was advanced in small steps (300–700 microns) every few days until visually responsive spiking activity was encountered on multiple channels, and then allowed to settle for a period of several weeks. Physiological recordings were carried out in a radio frequency-shielded room. Data were collected using either a Multichannel Acquisition Processor (Plexon Inc.) with 32-channel capacity or a R5A Bioamp Processor (Tucker-Davis Technologies) with 128-channel capacity. Broadband electrophysiological responses (0.5 Hz–5 kHz) were collected, from which individual spikes were extracted and analyzed. All aspects of the task related to stimulus presentation, eye position monitoring, and reward delivery were controlled by custom software courtesy of David Sheinberg (Brown University, Providence, RI) running on a QNX computer. The monitor (either a ViewSonic 18” CRT display or a Eizo 17” LCD Monitor) was placed 91 cm in front of the monkey. Visual stimuli were presented by a graphics slave computer running the psychophysics toolbox (52) in Matlab. Eye position was monitored via an infrared camera and computed into analog voltage signals corresponding to x and y coordinates by the software EyeLink (SR Research).

Physiological Recordings. Two chronic electrodes consisting of bundles of 32 or 64 microwires were implanted in the A/17 field of the left hemisphere of both monkeys. The apparatus, surgical implantation, and electrophysiological

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**Fig. 4.** Correlation-based assessment of visual response consistency. (A) Correlation coefficients derived from split-halves analysis (odd vs. even trials) comparing visual responses recorded within a single day (black), between two days (red), and after shuffling the stimulus order (blue). Each point is based on 206 stimuli presented over 68 days (top three, same cells as in Fig. 2) or 96 stimuli shown over 385 days (bottom plot, same cell as in Fig. 3). The position of the thick horizontal red line indicates the across correlation between the first and last days of recording. (B) Population summary of 144 neurons (85 from monkey 1, 59 from monkey 2, circles) showing correlations computed between odd and even trials recorded on the same day (r_within, x axis) and on different days (r_across, y axis). (Inset) Distribution of r_shuffle values for the same 144 neurons. (C) Population summary comparing split-halves correlations computed for trials drawn from the same neurons versus different neurons. Black, odd versus even trials from the same neuron (144 cells); green, odd versus even trials from all pair-wise combinations of different neurons for which responses to the same stimuli were available (1,561 pairs, eight stimulus sets). (Inset) ROC curve plotting proportion of false alarms (x axis) against hits (y axis).
faces and whole bodies, other animals, and nonface objects, but were not designed for the purpose of assessing face selectivity. In all cases, the animals depicted on the screen were unknown to the subjects. The monkeys initiated each trial of the task by fixing within a 3-degree window around a 0.3-degree white fixation spot, and were rewarded with a drop of fruit juice or water for maintaining fixation throughout four full stimulus presentation cycles. Visual stimuli were presented one at a time in random order behind the fixation spot at a duty cycle of 300 ms on and 300 ms off. The stimuli fell within a 3.5-degree square. Typically 16–25 trials per stimulus were collected in each recording session (range, 12–100). Data analysis procedures were as described in SI Methods.

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Spikes from single units were sorted using the OfflineSorter software package (Plexon Inc.) by projecting waveforms into principal component space and identifying isolated clusters. Spikes were detected either online (in recordings using the Plexon acquisition system) or offline (in recordings using the Tucker-Davis acquisition system) by setting a trigger threshold to capture a snippet of the spike-band–filtered voltage trace. Waveforms detected on the same channel on different days were tentatively classified as belonging to the same neuron if the waveform and spiking statistics matched between consecutive days, following the approach described in detail previously (1). Visual responses were displayed by aligning neuronal activity on stimulus onset, averaging across trials, and convolving the mean firing rate histogram with a 10-ms Gaussian kernel. Face selectivity was assessed by computing a two-way ANOVA with category (face or nonface stimuli) and neuron as factors. Activity at the recording site was considered face selective if there was, first, a significant main effect of category and, second, a significant difference between face and nonface stimuli as determined by a Tukey–Kramer post hoc test. Consistency of stimulus selectivity was assessed by splitting datasets into two halves (odd vs. even runs) and computing correlation coefficients between the conditions of interest (within-day vs. across days, same neuron vs. different neurons, etc.) as described in the main text.

Fig. S1. Visual responses recorded from three longitudinally recorded neurons from monkey 1 (A and B) and monkey 2 (C). Neurons were followed for 23, 21, and 93 days, as indicated by the dates next to the raster plots. The corresponding spike waveforms and clusters in principal components space are shown in D–F.
Fig. S2. Stability of spike waveforms over the duration of longitudinal recordings. Each panel shows the voltage traces (Left) of isolated spikes and corresponding clusters in principal component space (Right; PC1 and PC2 on x and y axes, respectively) for the four example neurons shown in the main text. The first day (Upper) and last day (Lower) of recording are shown in each panel.

Fig. S3. Longitudinal consistency of stimulus selectivity patterns for population of recorded neurons (triangles, monkey 1; circles, monkey 2). The method of analysis is identical to Fig. 4C, except that only the first and last days of recording are considered, rather than recordings on all sequential days.