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Coherent Theta Oscillations and Reorganization of Spike Timing in the Hippocampal-Prefrontal Network upon Learning

Karim Benchenane,1,7,* Adrien Peyrache,1 Mehdi Khamassi,1,2 Patrick L. Tierney,3,4 Yves Gioanni,3 Francesco P. Battaglia,1,5,6,* and Sidney I. Wiener1,6

1Laboratoire de Physiologie de la Perception et de l’Action, Collège de France, CNRS, 11 place Marcelin Berthelot, 75231 Paris CEDEX 05, France
2Institut des Systèmes Intelligents et de Robotique, Université Pierre et Marie Curie – Paris 6, CNRS FRE 2507, 4 Place Jussieu, 75252 Paris Cedex, France
3INSERM U667, Collège de France, 11 place Marcelin Berthelot, 75231 Paris CEDEX 05, France
4Massachusetts Institute of Technology, McGovern Institute for Brain Research, Cambridge, MA 02139 USA
5SILS Center for Neuroscience, Universiteit van Amsterdam, Science Park 904, 1098XH Amsterdam, The Netherlands
6These authors contributed equally to this work
7Present address: ENMVI team, CNRS UMR 7102, Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Quai Saint-Bernard 75005 Paris, France
*Correspondence: karim.benchenane@snv.jussieu.fr (K.B.), f.p.bataggila@uva.nl (F.P.B.)
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SUMMARY

To study the interplay between hippocampus and medial prefrontal cortex (PFC) and its importance for learning and memory consolidation, we measured the coherence in theta oscillations between these two structures in rats learning new rules on a Y maze. Coherence peaked at the choice point, most strongly after task rule acquisition. Simultaneously, PFC pyramidal neurons reorganized their phase, concentrating at hippocampal theta trough, and synchronous cell assemblies emerged. This synchronous state may result from increased inhibition exerted by interneurons on pyramidal cells, as measured by cross-correlation, and could be modulated by dopamine: we found similar hippocampal-PFC theta coherence increases and neuronal phase shifts following local administration of dopamine in PFC of anesthetized rats. PFC cell assemblies emerging during high coherence were preferentially replayed during subsequent sleep, concurrent with hippocampal sharp waves. Thus, hippocampal/prefrontal coherence could lead to synchronization of reward predicting activity in prefrontal networks, tagging it for subsequent memory consolidation.

INTRODUCTION

Selective communication between brain areas is a key component of the neural processing underlying cognition. This information exchange must adapt to the current situation and brain state, with functional networks continuously forming and disbanding (Fell et al., 2001). This would help filter and select signals to be processed and transmitted to other areas, possibly supported by the emergence of highly synchronized activations of cell groups or cell assemblies representing a highly effective input for afferent structures (Hebb, 1949; Fries, 2005; Fries et al., 2007). The resulting dialog would drive plastic changes in short- and long-range synaptic connections and contribute to create widespread integrated representations of items and experiences, selecting and retaining the information most valuable for adaptive behavior. Such valence and salience information is thought to be transmitted by neuromodulators such as dopamine, which could act as a reward prediction (error) signal (Schultz et al., 1997; Dayan and Balleine, 2002; Doya, 2008).

Brain rhythms are likely to be a fundamental mechanism for modulating, filtering, and redirecting information in the nervous system: neural circuits are naturally predisposed to oscillate in a wide range of frequencies (Buzsáki, 2004). Oscillations are a key mechanism of dynamical coupling between brain areas: task- and state-dependent changes are observed in local field potential (LFP) coherence (Fell et al., 2001; Varela et al., 2001; Womelsdorf et al., 2007) and in cross-correlated unit activity (Tabuchi et al., 2000; Engel et al., 2001). From the functional point of view, synchronizing and desynchronizing activity between two brain areas exert dramatic effects on their ability to engage or effectively block out one another’s input (Womelsdorf et al., 2007). Within individual brain areas, oscillations can synchronize neurons, creating coherent cell assemblies (Harris et al., 2003) and favoring plasticity processes depending on the precise timing of pre- and postsynaptic activity (Markram et al., 1997; Bi and Poo, 1998; Cassenaer and Laurent, 2007). However, little is known about the mechanisms underlying such synchronization-induced modifications of local functional circuitry. Here, we will examine learning-related changes in oscillatory coherence between hippocampus and PFC and associated changes in PFC local circuitry, which will be shown to closely resemble the effects of local application of dopamine.

The hippocampus-neocortex network is a primary conduit for cerebral information flow for learning and memory. Anatomically
located at the top of the cortical hierarchy (Felleman and Van Essen, 1991), the hippocampus (Hpc) was proposed to create “pointer” representations, linking together activity in multiple cortical areas pertaining to the same context and facilitating the formation of permanent cortical episodic memory traces (Eichenbaum, 2000; Shastri, 2002; Moscovich et al., 2005; Frankland and Bontempi, 2005). Effective communication between the hippocampus and the neocortex involves oscillations: for example, transient synchronization at gamma (30–80 Hz) frequencies between the Hpc and the rhinal cortex accompanies successful memory encoding (Fell et al., 2001). Pfc, which receives monosynaptic hippocampal projections (Jay and Witter, 1991; Thierry et al., 2000), has been shown to be functionally connected to the hippocampus: Hpc theta (5–10 Hz) synchronizes medial prefrontal cortex (Pfc) neurons (Siapas et al., 2005) and LFPs (Hyman et al., 2005) depending on task demands (Jones and Wilson, 2005), possibly supporting corticohippocampal maintenance of working memory (Floresco et al., 1997).

This study examines changes in synchronization of Hpc and Pfc LFPs and single and ensemble Pfc neuron activity in rats learning and flexibly switching between rules. If oscillatory coherence plays a role in memory encoding and acquisition, it would be expected to vary with learning, and to be associated with the creation of neural substrates of memories, possibly in the form of functionally linked cell assemblies (Hebb, 1949). If those cell assemblies carry relevant information, then they should be more readily consolidated into long-term memory (Peyrache et al., 2009b).

These hypotheses are examined here. However, the mechanism by which these assemblies would be “tagged” at acquisition is not known, and evidence will be put forward for this in the form of coherence-induced and (possibly dopamine influenced) creation of learning-related, reward-predictive cell assemblies that are tightly synchronized, permitting their stabilization by spike-time dependent plasticity.

RESULTS

Hpc-Pfc Theta Coherence

We recorded a total of 1475 Pfc neurons (see Figure S1 available online) in 60 experimental sessions in four rats as they successively learned two contingent rules on a Y maze: go to the arm on the right and then go to the lit arm (selected at random at each trial; Figures S2A and S2B). LFPs were recorded in the pyramidal layer of ventral/intermediate hippocampal CA1, while multielectrode single-unit spike activity and LFPs were recorded in medial Pfc (Figure S1A–S1D). Strong 5–10 Hz theta band LFP activity was detectible in both Hpc and Pfc (Jones and Wilson, 2005; Hyman et al., 2005; Figures 1A and 1B). Strong Hpc-Pfc spectral coherence was observed in the theta frequency range (Figures 1A and 1B). Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence fluctuated, with no simple relation with either theta power in the two structures or with rat motion (Figures 1A and S2). On a trial-by-trial basis, coherence at the decision point did not correlate with running speed (r = 0.04, p > 0.05), which correlates with Hpc theta amplitude (Ekstrom et al., 2001) or with acceleration (r = 0.01, p > 0.05; see Figure S2). The phase lag between Hpc and Pfc theta rhythm was 40 ± 4 ms, similar to previous reports (Jones and Wilson, 2005) and compatible with Pfc response latencies to stimulation of the Hpc (Dégenétais et al., 2003). Thus, while the mechanism underlying this coherence is not known, it would nonetheless dramatically augment prefrontal receptivity to hippocampal signals.

To control for potential contamination of LFP coherence measures by volume conduction artifacts (Sirotas et al., 2008), we compared LFP-LFP coherence with LFP-spike coherence in the same structures (Womelsdorf et al., 2007) (Figures 1B, 1C, S1E and S1F). Of the 1373 Pfc neurons with average firing rates exceeding 0.01 Hz, 541 (39%) were significantly modulated by Hpc theta (p < 0.05, Rayleigh test). Coherence of Pfc spikes to Hpc LFP is most marked in the theta range (Figures 1B and 1C). Moreover, the time courses of coherence of prefrontal LFP and spike trains with hippocampal LFP show peak correlations in the theta frequency range, both for single prefrontal units (Figures 1B and 1C) and when all theta-modulated cells in a session are considered (Figures S1E and S1F). In the latter case, the correlation reached significance in the theta range only (Figure S1F). Thus, local Pfc circuits are likely to be involved in the expression of coherence with Hpc theta both at the LFP and spike train levels.

Hpc-Pfc-θ-Coherence Increases at the Maze Choice Point, Particularly upon Learning

Coherence peaked when the rat was at the fork of the Y maze (Figures 2A and 2B). Strikingly, the increase of coherence at the choice point was significantly greater after acquisition of a new rule (Figures 2C–2E; Right, n = 123; Left, n = 148, two-way ANOVA, factors: before/after learning (L) and position on maze (P); Right, main effects: L: p < 0.01, P: p < 10^-5, interaction p < 0.02; Light, main effects: L: p < 10^-4, P: p < 10^-5, interaction p < 0.01). This effect was observed for LFPs recorded in both superficial and deep layers of Pfc (Figure S2C). Similarly, Hpc-Pfc-θ-coherence at the choice point was higher at a learning stage when the rat reliably complied with the rewarded rule (compared with trials prior to criterion performance; Figure 2F, t test, p < 0.05), as assessed by high values of the “certainty” measure developed by Smith et al. (2004). This was not merely due to the higher incidence of rewards after rule acquisition, since, when considering only trials prior to this, coherence was not significantly different between rewarded and unrewarded trials (Figure 2G; n = 271, t test, p > 0.05). These results, taken together, suggest that Hpc-Pfc-θ-coherence is a predictor of the rat’s performance level: indeed, we show that trials with high coherence had, on average, a high level of performance, whereas in trials with low decision point coherence, rats operated at only slightly better than chance level (Figure 2H).

Increased Correlations between Pfc Cell Pairs during High Hpc-Pfc-θ Coherence

Because coherence was elevated upon learning and functional connectivity in the Pfc network increases with learning (Baeg et al., 2007), we tested for changes in activity correlations in simultaneously recorded prefrontal neurons during high Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence episodes. During high coherence periods the distribution of correlation coefficients between all
simultaneously recorded neurons pairs shifted relative to low coherence periods (Figure 3A, Kolmogorov-Smirnov-test, p < 0.05 each day). During high coherence, cell pairs with elevated correlation values appeared (Figure S3A). This reveals a profound modification in the dynamics of the prefrontal neuronal network when Hpc-Pfc-coherence is high.

Preferential Participation of Hpc Theta Modulated Pfc Neurons in Cell Assemblies Formed upon Learning

The increase in significant correlations in cell pairs during high (versus low) Hpc-Pfc-coherence periods was restricted to those Pfc neurons modulated by Hpc theta (Figure 3B; n = 32, two-way ANOVA with factors theta modulation and high/low coherence: effect of interaction p < 0.05 and post hoc t test, p < 0.01). In contrast, pairs of neurons with one or both not modulated by Hpc theta showed no significant change in coactivation during high coherence periods (Figure 3B). In the five sessions with new rule acquisition (and at least 20 simultaneously recorded neurons), only after rule acquisition, but not before, were pairs of theta-modulated neurons more likely to be significantly correlated than pairs of neurons without theta modulation (Figures 3C and S3; n = 5 two-way ANOVA with factors high/low coherence and before/after learning and post-hoc t test, p < 0.05). Thus, rule acquisition corresponded to increased coactivation within subpopulations of Hpc modulated Pfc neurons. The increased activity correlations held at two time scales, whether firing rates were binned at 30 ms or by theta cycle (approximately 125 ms) time windows (Figure S3). This
Figure 2. Coherence Increases at the Choice Point upon Learning

(A) Instantaneous Hpc-Pfc theta coherence (color coded) for one trial (overhead view). Each color point represents the average value over a 100 ms sample. Note that high coherence values appeared as the rat started to veer toward the chosen arm. Gray background traces correspond to the rat’s trajectories for the rest of the session. Scale bar: min = 0, max = 0.9.

(B) “Coherence map.” Average Hpc-Pfc theta coherence recorded at each point on the maze. Data is averaged over all sessions. Scale bar: min = 0, max = 0.6.

(C) Hpc-Pfc theta coherence increases upon learning. Top, mean coherence for positions along the maze before (black) and after rule acquisition (red) for one session. Coherence increases at the decision point after rule acquisition. Bottom, color raster plot of Hpc-Pfc theta coherence as a function of position on the maze for each trial before and after learning (horizontal dashed bar, at right black dots indicate error trials) in the same session. Gray bar above (C), (D), and (E): significant effect of learning, p < 0.05 (two-way ANOVA followed by post hoc t tests).

(D and E) Mean Hpc-Pfc theta coherence in all the sessions in which rats learned (D) the Right rule (n = 123 trials before and after rule acquisition, over 9 sessions, 4 rats), and (E) the Light rule (n = 148 trials before and after rule acquisition, over 12 sessions, 4 rats).

(F) Increase in Hpc-Pfc theta coherence at the choice point compared to baseline (defined by averaging coherence during the first three and last five bins for the histograms of Figure 2D) in trials with high versus low certainty (Smith et al., 2004) values (high: n = 196, low: n = 346, t test, p < 0.05).

(G) Comparison of Hpc-Pfc theta coherence at the choice point in rewarded versus unrewarded trials before rule acquisition (rewarded: n = 131, unrewarded: n = 140, t test, p > 0.05).

(H) Relation between decision point coherence and performance. Ordinate is the percentage of correct responses for all trials whose coherence at the decision point exceeds the abscissa value.

See also Figure S2.
indicates that, during high coherence periods, theta modulated cell pairs tend to fire together within the same theta cycle, as well as at a shorter time scale.

**Pfc Cell Assemblies Are Formed during High Coherence Periods**

The network reorganization during high Hpc-Pfc-\(\theta\)-coherence suggested by the results in Figure 3 may reflect not just coactive pairs of neurons, but rather synchronization of activity in subgroups of neurons, or cell assemblies, as proposed by Hebb (1949). Neuronal groups that coactivate reliably and hence act as cell assemblies can be extracted by principal component analysis (PCA) applied to the matrix of binned simultaneously recorded spike trains (Chapin and Nicolelis, 1999; Cassenaer and Laurent, 2007; Peyrache et al., 2009a, 2009b), and the time course of their activation can be calculated from the principal component (PC) scores of the instantaneous population vectors (see Experimental Procedures; Peyrache et al., 2009a, 2009b).

Since pairwise correlations increased during high Hpc-Pfc-\(\theta\) coherence periods, PCA was applied to 30 ms bins of spike trains of units simultaneously recorded then, and the strongest components were retained (see Experimental Procedures). The signs of the coefficients of each PC distinguished two neuronal populations: cells with high weights and same sign coefficients which fire together, and cells with high weights but opposite signs which are anti-correlated (Figure S4A). Thus, the projection of the recorded coactivation onto the PC at each time bin describes the temporal evolution of the activation of the neuronal assembly (Peyrache et al., 2009a; Figure S4A and S4B).

Figure 4A shows examples of time courses of PC activations (see Experimental Procedures), showing high, transient peaks occurring over a very low background. These peaks correspond to the coordinated activation of those cells with elevated, positive weights in the PC (displayed in the upper rasters), and occurred during periods of high Hpc-Pfc-\(\theta\)-coherence. The transient nature of PC activation time courses (Peyrache et al., 2009a) was observed throughout the recordings as shown by the elevated tail (relative to power law decay) of the histogram of activation values over time. (Figure S4C and S4D). We therefore termed these strong bouts of coactivation (Figures 4A, S4A, and S4B) coherence-related cell assemblies (CRCA).

Here, we considered the cells with the five largest coefficients in the PC as taking part in the CRCA, defined as the times in which the PC activation measure exceeded a threshold value of 3 (Figures S4C and S4D). Results did not change when different values of the threshold were considered (Figure S4E).

CRCA frequency increased in elevated Hpc-Pfc-\(\theta\)-coherence periods relative to low coherence periods (paired t test \(p < 10^{-200}\); Figure 4B). Similarly to coherence (Figures 2A and 2B), their spatial distribution presented a distinctive peak at the decision point (Figure 4C).

(C) Same analysis as (B) in sessions with rule acquisition, divided into trials before and after rule acquisition, for theta-modulated cell pairs only. Same color code as in (A); \(n = 5\) sessions, two-way ANOVA, post hoc t test, \(p < 0.05\). See also Figure S3.
Figure 4. Identification of Theta Coherence-Related Cell Assemblies (CRCA)

(A) Above, raster displays of simultaneously recorded neurons ordered from top to bottom according to their contributions to the cell assembly (PC weights) in two recording sessions. Below, temporal evolution of instantaneous subnetwork coactivation computed as in Peyrache et al. (2009b) (black trace) is superimposed on the concurrent LFP Hpc-Pfc coherence spectrograms. Note that peaks in PC score correspond to synchronization of neurons with high PC weights (neurons 19–23 on the left, neurons 21–27 on the right; red stars above). These peaks occur during periods of high LFP theta coherence.

(B) Mean activation rate of CRCA during high versus low coherence periods (n = 92, paired t test, p < 10^{-20}).

(C) Spatial distribution of the peaks in the subnetwork coactivation corresponding to the CRCAs computed for 35 sessions. Note the concentration at the maze choice point.

(D) Phase of CRCA relative to hippocampal theta (left) or prefrontal theta (right) during high or low coherence periods. Modulation is highly significant for high coherence periods for Hpc theta phase (n = 92 from 35 sessions, upper left, κ = 0.26, Rayleigh Z test, p < 10^{-26}, θ_{p<0.05} = 0.71) and Pfc theta phase (n = 92 from 35 sessions, upper right, κ = 0.33, Rayleigh Z test, p < 10^{-31}, θ_{p<0.05} = 0.34), but not for low coherence periods (n = 92, Rayleigh Z test, p > 0.05). (See Figures S4 and S5 for control analyses.)
During High Coherence Periods Pfc Cell Assemblies Are Phase-Locked to the Trough of Hippocampal Theta

We analyzed the phase locking of Pfc CRCA activity to the hippocampal theta rhythm. For each recording session, at least one of the PCs identified a Pfc cell assembly significantly modulated by Hpc theta (i.e., with a significant Rayleigh Z test, p < 0.05). Notably, during high coherence periods, the phases of occurrence of these Pfc CRCA were concentrated at the trough of theta recorded in both Hpc CA1 stratum pyramidale and in Pfc (n = 92, Rayleigh Z test, p < 10⁻²⁰), that is, the theta phase at which hippocampal CA1 cell assemblies are principally active (Harris et al., 2003). On the other hand, during low coherence periods, the theta phase of CRCA occurrence was uniformly distributed (Figure 4D). The same result was obtained when PCA extracted assemblies from spike trains grouped by theta cycle (~125 ms time bins; Figure S5A). This rules out the possibility that these observations could be an artifact due to PCA merely capturing subsets of neurons with similar theta modulation. Moreover, this increased phase locking in high coherence periods was not observed in the general neuronal population. Rather, it was limited to those cell assemblies more strongly active during high coherence periods, because no such effects were observed in PCs with low signal strengths, likely corresponding to ‘noise’ (Peyrache et al., 2009a, 2009b; p > 0.05, n = 70) or for PCs computed from low coherence periods (p > 0.05, n = 72; Figure S5B). Thus, high Hpc-Pfc-θ-coherence signaled a state in which Hpc and Pfc assemblies are aligned at the same theta phase, possibly favoring interaction.

Local Circuit Dynamical Changes Possibly Underlying Assembly Formation

To investigate the neurophysiological processes leading to the formation of CRCA, we analyzed the behavior of the cells with the five largest weight coefficients in the PC (positive and negative), that is, the ones most likely to participate in synchronous firing events. These neurons were then subdivided according to their putative cell type on the basis of action potential duration (Barthó et al., 2004; Figure S6A).

Interneurons play a specific and crucial role in the generation and maintenance of theta and other brain rhythms (Buzsáki, 2002; Klausberger et al., 2003). Furthermore, prefrontal interneurons are directly innervated by hippocampal afferents (Tieney et al., 2004). Thus, we analyzed the theta phase locking behaviors of 234 Pfc theta modulated interneurons and pyramidal cells with high absolute PC weights in the CRCA. Among neurons forming the cell assemblies, 189 putative pyramidal neurons (81%) and 34 (15%) interneurons were identified (Figures 5A–5D). The preferred phases of putative interneurons were concentrated at the peak of theta in periods of both high and low coherence (Figure 5B; n = 34, p < 0.005), and showed no coherence-dependent changes in Hpc theta modulation strength kappa (Figure 5D; n = 34, paired t test, p > 0.05).

In contrast, in putative pyramidal cells, as LFP Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence increased, the strength of theta modulation also augmented (Figure 5D; n = 189, t test, p < 0.05). Moreover, putative pyramidal neurons active in cell assemblies selectively changed their phase preference in a particular fashion: those neurons phase-locked with the Hpc-θ peak (at π) during low coherence shifted their phase preference to 2π to match the phase of the CRCA during high coherence. Indeed, preferred phases of pyramidal neurons and CRCA (Figure 4D) are not significantly different during high coherence periods, (n = 189, n = 92, circular ANOVA, p > 0.05). On the other hand, those Pfc neurons whose preferred phase was already at the trough of Hpc θ (2π) during low coherence maintained this preferred phase within high-coherence CRCA events (Figure 5A, n = 189, n = 34, circular ANOVA, p < 0.05).

Interestingly, during high coherence, the preferred phases of pyramidal neurons converged on the preferred phase of the CRCA, in contrast with the interneurons (Figure 5C). Note that this is not due to possibly improved reliability of phase measurements resulting from an increase in hippocampal theta power during high coherence periods. Indeed, there is no significant difference in theta power during high and low coherence (n = 21, t test, p > 0.05; Figure 7E). Furthermore, Hpc theta power tended to be higher in low coherence periods beyond the fork of the maze, corresponding to when the rat ran faster.

Interneuron-Principal Neuron Inhibitory Efficacy Is Enhanced during High Coherence Periods

Behavior can strongly modulate inhibition in the Pfc (Constantinidis and Goldman-Rakic, 2002; Fujisawa et al., 2008) and, in turn, inhibition can exert a powerful influence on the firing phase of principal neurons relative to neuro-oscillatory activity (Chapman and Lacaille, 1999; Mann and Paulsen, 2007). Since putative principal and interneurons were differentially modulated by theta in high and low coherence periods, we hypothesized that periods of high and low Hpc-Pfc theta coherence would correspond to physiological states characterized by different inhibitory efficacies. Thus, we computed cross-correlograms between interneurons and pyramidal cells with high weights in PCs characterizing the CRCA, with a method derived from Constantinidis and Goldman-Rakic (2002).

Putative interneurons effectively inhibited putative pyramidal cells during high coherence periods, but not during low coherence periods (Figure 5E for a single interneuron-pyramidal pair and Figure 5F for all interneurons analyzed, see Experimental Procedures): during high coherence periods, putative pyramidal cell firing was interrupted for 5–10 ms after putative interneuron spikes, (n = 26, paired t test between high and low coherence in the [0, 5 ms] time window, p < 0.01). No deviation from baseline was apparent during low coherence periods. This could have contributed to the principal neurons shifting their preferred phase to the trough of Hpc theta (in phase opposition to interneurons) and hence helped to synchronize the pyramidal neurons to fire in CRCA. After rule acquisition this inhibition was selective for the decision point relative to other zones in the maze: putative interneurons significantly inhibited putative pyramidal cells in the first 5 ms after interneuronal discharge (p < 0.05). Such inhibition was not significant elsewhere on the maze, or anywhere on the maze before rule acquisition (Figure 5G; see Figure S6B for a cell-by-cell breakdown).

Dynamic Modification of the Preferred Phase of Pfc Neurons Forming the CRCA

As shown above, a subset of pyramidal neurons composing the CRCA changed their phase preference to match the phase of the
Figure 5. Pfc Interneurons and the Formation of Cell Assemblies

(A and B) Preferred Hpc theta phases of neurons with major contributions to cell assemblies (cells with the five highest and lowest weights in each session) during high (ordinate) or low (abscissa) coherence periods, considered separately as putative pyramidal cells (A, n = 189) and putative interneurons (B, n = 34). (A) Preferred phase plots of Pfc pyramidal neurons during high (ordinate) or low coherence periods (abscissa). The two-dimensional color histogram and its projections show that preferred phases did not deviate from a uniform distribution during low coherence periods (top, n = 189, * = 0.13, Rayleigh Z test, p > 0.05).
CRCA during high coherence. In a representative example in Figure 6A, neuron 3 fired at the trough of Hpc theta continuously; on the other hand, neurons 2 and 4 fired at the peak of theta before the period of high coherence. During the high coherence period, the firing phase of these two neurons shifted to the trough of theta. Neurons 1 and 5, previously silent, activated synchronously with the others in the CRCA. After the high coherence ended, the phase of neuron 4 returned to its previous value at the peak of theta. Hence, the neurons' phase shifts in Figure 5A can be seen as a dynamical process since this occurs progressively during the high coherence period. In this way phase realignment can effectively lead to synchronously activated cell assemblies.

In the same analysis of all pyramidal neurons the CRCA, the phases of the spikes progressively shifted to the trough of theta leading up to activation of the CRCA (Figure 6B). Phase locking of these neurons was increased at the time of the CRCA as shown by the increased value of the concentration parameter k, as computed by fit with a Von Mises distribution. However average firing rate did not change. This effect is directly related to CRCA since no modification of phase is seen when the reference is chosen at random times during high coherence periods (Figure S7).

**Local Pfc Dopamine Application Also Increases Hpc-Pfc-θ Coherence and Reorganizes Neuronal θ Phase Preferences**

Since the shifts in spike phases relative to theta and the consequent enhanced synchronization occurred at the decision point after rule acquisition, just as the rat reached an elevated level of certainty about the outcome of the current trial, we hypothesized that these local functional circuitry changes may be triggered by a reward prediction signal. Theoretical and experimental arguments (Schultz et al., 1997; Doya, 2008) suggest that this signal may be carried by a neuromodulator such as dopamine (DA). To test whether DA may induce similar effects on prefrontal neural activity, we recorded prefrontal single units and hippocampal LFPs in anesthetized rats (Figures 7C and S8), following locally iontophoretic application of DA in 1 min pulses. Figure 7A shows examples of spectrograms and a coherogram for Hpc and Pfc local field potentials, showing that, while theta power in the two structures remained constant, coherence increased after DA application (comparison of coherence readouts in 1 s time windows in the 3 min before and after DA application, t test, n = 358, p < 0.05; Figure 7B). This was also significantly different over all DA applications (n = 20, t test, p < 0.05; Figure 7F). Pyramidal cells and interneurons were classified based on spike width or marker labeling (Tierney et al., 2004). Interestingly, as observed during behavior for high Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence periods, pyramidal cells changed their theta phase locking, shifting from a preferred phase similar to those of interneurons before DA injection, to a phase opposite to interneuronal firing (circular ANOVA, p < 0.05; Figure 7D). Phase concentration for putative pyramidal cells increased as well (n = 6, t test, p < 0.05; Figure 7F). Similar to behavioral data for high Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence, interneuron firing did not change theta phase (n = 9, t test, p > 0.05, Figure 7D–7F). The average phase change for putative pyramidal cells was significantly larger than that observed for interneurons (t test, p < 0.01; Figure 7F). Thus, a number of measures show a striking parallel between the effect of local Pfc DA, high coherence and phase shifts in the behaving animal (Figures 7E and 7F). Theta LFP coherence increased while power did not, pyramidal cells shifted and enhanced phase preference, while interneurons kept average firing preferences unchanged.

**Enhanced Replay of CRCAs during Hippocampal Sharp Wave/Ripples**

The memory consolidation theory holds that hippocampal traces are transmitted to cortical areas to build and reinforce long lasting traces. This would occur during sharp wave/ripple (SPWR) activity in slow-wave sleep (Girardeau et al., 2009; Peyrache et al., 2009b). A potential role for the high level of synchronization embodied by CRCAs is to favor synaptic plasticity so that cell assembly activation patterns can be successfully stored and reinstated. If this is the case, then the same cell assemblies would be expected to be more likely to activate spontaneously during the following slow-wave sleep. To test this, in data from slow wave sleep periods preceding whereas they shifted to adopt a preferred phase (κpref = 6.2 rad) relative to Hpc theta during high coherence periods (left, n = 189, κ = 0.39, Rayleigh Z test, p < 0.0007). Note that Pfc pyramidal neurons with preferred phases at the trough of Hpc θ before the period of high coherence. During the high coherence period, the firing phase of these two neurons shifted to the trough of theta. Neurons 1 and 5, previously silent, activated synchronously with the others in the CRCA. After the high coherence ended, the phase of neuron 4 returned to its previous value at the peak of theta. Hence, the neurons’ phase shifts in Figure 5A can be seen as a dynamical process since this occurs progressively during the high coherence period. In this way phase realignment can effectively lead to synchronously activated cell assemblies.

In the same analysis of all pyramidal neurons the CRCA, the phases of the spikes progressively shifted to the trough of theta leading up to activation of the CRCA (Figure 6B). Phase locking of these neurons was increased at the time of the CRCA as shown by the increased value of the concentration parameter k, as computed by fit with a Von Mises distribution. However average firing rate did not change. This effect is directly related to CRCA since no modification of phase is seen when the reference is chosen at random times during high coherence periods (Figure S7).

**Local Pfc Dopamine Application Also Increases Hpc-Pfc-θ Coherence and Reorganizes Neuronal θ Phase Preferences**

Since the shifts in spike phases relative to theta and the consequent enhanced synchronization occurred at the decision point after rule acquisition, just as the rat reached an elevated level of certainty about the outcome of the current trial, we hypothesized that these local functional circuitry changes may be triggered by a reward prediction signal. Theoretical and experimental arguments (Schultz et al., 1997; Doya, 2008) suggest that this signal may be carried by a neuromodulator such as dopamine (DA). To test whether DA may induce similar effects on prefrontal neural activity, we recorded prefrontal single units and hippocampal LFPs in anesthetized rats (Figures 7C and S8), following locally iontophoretic application of DA in 1 min pulses. Figure 7A shows examples of spectrograms and a coherogram for Hpc and Pfc local field potentials, showing that, while theta power in the two structures remained constant, coherence increased after DA application (comparison of coherence readouts in 1 s time windows in the 3 min before and after DA application, t test, n = 358, p < 0.05; Figure 7B). This was also significantly different over all DA applications (n = 20, t test, p < 0.05; Figure 7F). Pyramidal cells and interneurons were classified based on spike width or marker labeling (Tierney et al., 2004). Interestingly, as observed during behavior for high Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence periods, pyramidal cells changed their theta phase locking, shifting from a preferred phase similar to those of interneurons before DA injection, to a phase opposite to interneuronal firing (circular ANOVA, p < 0.05; Figure 7D). Phase concentration for putative pyramidal cells increased as well (n = 6, t test, p < 0.05; Figure 7F). Similar to behavioral data for high Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence, interneuron firing did not change theta phase (n = 9, t test, p > 0.05, Figure 7D–7F). The average phase change for putative pyramidal cells was significantly larger than that observed for interneurons (t test, p < 0.01; Figure 7F). Thus, a number of measures show a striking parallel between the effect of local Pfc DA, high coherence and phase shifts in the behaving animal (Figures 7E and 7F). Theta LFP coherence increased while power did not, pyramidal cells shifted and enhanced phase preference, while interneurons kept average firing preferences unchanged.

**Enhanced Replay of CRCAs during Hippocampal Sharp Wave/Ripples**

The memory consolidation theory holds that hippocampal traces are transmitted to cortical areas to build and reinforce long lasting traces. This would occur during sharp wave/ripple (SPWR) activity in slow-wave sleep (Girardeau et al., 2009; Peyrache et al., 2009b). A potential role for the high level of synchronization embodied by CRCAs is to favor synaptic plasticity so that cell assembly activation patterns can be successfully stored and reinstated. If this is the case, then the same cell assemblies would be expected to be more likely to activate spontaneously during the following slow-wave sleep. To test this, in data from slow wave sleep periods preceding whereas they shifted to adopt a preferred phase (κpref = 6.2 rad) relative to Hpc theta during high coherence periods (left, n = 189, κ = 0.39, Rayleigh Z test, p < 0.0007). Note that Pfc pyramidal neurons with preferred phases at the trough of Hpc θ before the period of high coherence periods maintained this preferred phase within CRCA, while those neurons firing at the Hpc θ peak during low coherence periods shifted to match the phase of the CRCA during high coherence. Red traces show best fits. White enclosure corresponds to top 10% values of the density distribution. (B) As in A but for Pfc putative interneurons. The preferred phases are concentrated at the peak of theta during both low (n = 34, κ = 0.83, Rayleigh Z test, p < 0.005, κpref = 1.76) and high coherence periods (n = 34, κ = 0.90, Rayleigh Z test, p < 0.002, κpref = 1.89); preferred phases of interneurons are not significantly different between high and low coherence periods (n = 34, circular ANOVA, p > 0.05).

(C) Superimposed contour plots from A and B for interneurons (shades of blue) and pyramidal neurons (shades of red and yellow). Shaded zones are the top 10% values of the density distribution.

(D) Strength κ of Hpc theta modulation of all Pfc putative pyramidal (n = 189) cells or interneurons (n = 34) with high PC weights during high and low coherence periods (t test, p < 0.05).

(E) Cross-correlograms of a putative interneuron (reference) and a putative pyramidal cell (both with high contributions to the cell assembly but with opposite signs) during high and low coherence periods. Note that the inhibition is clearly apparent in high, but not low potential.

(F) Cross-correlograms between simultaneously recorded interneuron and pyramidal cell pairs (n = 26) with high absolute PC weights show significantly greater inhibition during high coherence periods (paired t test in the [0, 5 ms] time window, p < 0.01, paired t test before [-5, 0 ms] and after [0, 5 ms], p < 0.0001). Gray scale shows normalized firing rate as z-scores.

(G) Top, four zones in the Y maze. Bottom, average cross-correlograms between simultaneously recorded interneuron and pyramidal cell pairs with high absolute PC weights in the four zones, before and after rule acquisition, showing significantly greater inhibition at the decision point after rule acquisition (paired t test before [-5, 0 ms] and after [0, 5 ms], p < 0.0001). Gray scale shows normalized firing rates as z scores. See also Figure S6.

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and following training sessions, we computed the reactivation strength (Peyrache et al., 2009b) for the PCs corresponding to CRCAs and event-triggered averages for the resulting time series, centered on SWPR. During sleep after the task, but not before, there was a significant increase in reactivation strength peaking 30–60 ms after SWPRs (t test, n = 92, p < 0.01; Figure 8). This was not the case for cell assemblies derived for low-coherence periods.

DISCUSSION

The principal findings here are (1) Hpc-Pfc theta coherence increases as the rat must determine the probability of future reward at the choice point in the maze, in particular after rule acquisition, when reward can be reliably predicted, (2) during elevated Hpc-Pfc theta coherence and upon new learning Hpc theta-modulated Pfc cells shift phase preference and assemblies form, and (3) local circuit properties reorganize in a manner which could underlie the formation of synchronized cell assemblies. Furthermore we observed similar coherence increases and spike phase shifts following DA application, suggesting a role for this neuromodulator, which is implicated in signaling reward expectation (Schultz et al., 1997). Activity synchronization may then lead to synaptic plasticity and the consolidation of assembly-related memory traces, as suggested by the enhanced replay of high-coherence related assemblies during post-training sleep.

Hpc-Pfc-θ Coherence Increases Further and Cell Assemblies Form at the Decision Point after Rule Acquisition

Theta band coherence between Hpc and Pfc has been shown previously (Siapas et al., 2005; Hyman et al., 2005) and linked with working memory (Jones and Wilson, 2005). The present data demonstrate that Hpc-Pfc-θ coherence augments at a critical part of the maze, where the rat has to commit to a potentially costly decision, based on a prediction of which arm is most likely to be rewarded. A reliable prediction is possible only when the rat has acquired the current task rule: indeed, coherence is maximally elevated only after the animal has reached criterion performance levels.

The increases in LFP coherence at the choice point and upon learning are accompanied by profound modifications of the dynamics of Pfc neural assemblies and local circuit dynamics. First, during high coherence, preferred firing phases shift, leading to Pfc cell assembly formation and firing in tight synchrony. These assemblies fire preferentially at the trough of Hpc theta and would hence be temporally aligned with hippocampal assemblies (Harris et al., 2003). This would enhance the impact of hippocampal inputs relative to those coming from other areas, influencing the formation of cell assemblies related to rule learning. After rule acquisition, this could also

Figure 6. Formation of Cell Assemblies during High Theta Coherence Periods

(A) Top, a typical coherence spectrogram between Hpc and PfcLFPs. Bottom, raster display of neurons with highest positive weights in the CRCA. The phase of each spike with respect to Hpc theta is color coded as indicated below. Note that spikes’ phases converge on the preferred phase of the assembly, so that the neurons discharge synchronously after several theta cycles at high coherence.

(B) Top, Distribution of spiking phases for neurons taking part in CRCA relative to CRCA activation (time zero). For each day with CRCA, histograms of spiking phase of all neurons forming the cell assemblies were computed according to their time relative to CRCA activation (100 ms bins). Histograms were normalized for each day and then averaged. Note the existence of two principal preferred phases: one remaining constant at the trough of theta (2π), the other beginning at the peak of theta and progressively shifting to its trough. Bottom, evolution of Kappa (blue) for the phase distributions in each 100 ms time bin. Gray trace shows the total number of spikes for each 100 ms time bin, demonstrating no overall modification of firing rate at the time of CRCA activation. Note the sharp upturn of Kappa several theta cycles (500 ms) prior to the CRCA activation. See also Figure S7.
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have the effect of reinforcing this recently established network by increasing the probability that, within an assembly, the pre- and the postsynaptic spikes of two connected cells fall within a time interval suitable for triggering spike-timing dependent plasticity (STDP) (Markram et al., 1997; Bi and Poo, 1998; Buzsáki, 2004; Cassenaer and Laurent, 2007). Thus, this would facilitate consequent memory trace storage during sleep when these experience-related cell assemblies appearing during high Hpc-Pfc-theta-coherence are specifically replayed in transient bursts in concert with hippocampal sharp waves (Figure 8; also see Peyrache et al., 2009b).

Progressive Change of Phase of Pyramidal Neurons Leading up to Synchronization in Cell Assemblies

Pfc principal neurons’ phase relative to Hpc theta changes progressively during high coherence to form synchronously firing cell assemblies. Experience-related modification of preferred phase relative to theta has been previously observed in hippocampus during REM sleep (Poe et al., 2000), as well as during active behavior (Hyman et al., 2005) and negative phase shifts (phase precession) toward the trough of Hpc theta were seen in some Pfc cells (Jones and Wilson, 2005). Here, the Pfc neurons taking part in CRCA displayed a phase advance instead of precession (Figure 6). However, it is important to note that this pertains only to transient synchronization of small subsets of cells, which would not necessarily be detected by the population-wide, time-averaged analyses usually applied to study phase precession. In any case, both mechanisms would have the same effect, i.e., convergence of the firing phases toward the trough of Hpc theta.

Increased Local Inhibition during High Hpc-Pfc Theta Coherence

During high coherence, putative Pfc interneurons exercise more effective inhibitory control of principal cells. The importance of interneurons for generating and maintaining hippocampal theta oscillations is well documented (Buzsáki, 2002). Some interneurons, e.g., in the Hpc (Chapman and Lacaille, 1999), intrinsically oscillate at the theta rhythm, and interneurons are likely to support theta oscillations in the Pfc as well (Blatow et al., 2003). Pfc interneurons receive direct connections from the Hpc (Tiemney et al., 2004) and thus it is not surprising that we observed that Pfc interneurons consistently remain phase locked to Hpc theta while putative pyramidal cells only follow theta during high Hpc-Pfc LFP coherence. Furthermore, interneurons can modify their activity in relation to external stimuli or to behavioral changes (Constantinidis and Goldman-Rakic, 2002; Monier et al., 2003; Fujisawa et al., 2008), and such changes may lead to the appearance and dissolution of cell assemblies (Geisler et al., 2007). Since interneuronal activity remains in phase with the peak of Hpc theta, an increase in inhibitory efficacy would constrain the pyramidal cells to fire primarily at a later phase (i.e., the trough) of the cycle, hence enforcing synchrony (Chapman and Lacaille, 1999). Therefore, the Pfc interneurons modulated by Hpc theta could act as a “latent theta oscillator,” which is selectively enabled to control principal cell dynamics when behaviorally relevant information is processed, leading to the formation of cell assemblies.

Learning Related Changes in Hpc-Pfc Coherence, Inhibitory Efficacy and Theta Phase Locking in Pfc Resemble Effects of Dopamine Application

At the choice point and after learning, Hpc-Pfc coherence and inhibitory efficacy increase, Pfc neurons become synchronized to the Hpc theta trough and cell assemblies appear. The possible physiological mechanisms of the variations in synaptic efficacy enabling these events remain unknown, although neuromodulatory systems are presumed to play a role. Signals related to changes in reward anticipation (which would be expected as the rat chooses a goal arm) are broadcast in the brain via neuromodulatory signals such as DA (Schulz et al., 1997).

In our behavioral task, the choice point is likely to trigger reward expectation-dependent processes, possibly conveyed by DA. In a similar, multiple T-maze task, the ventral striatum displays a transient representation of expected reward (van der Meer and Redish, 2009) at the choice point. Accordingly, DA efflux in the Pfc has been shown to increase during the acquisition of a rule (van der Meulen et al., 2007). The increase in Hpc-Pfc theta coherence at the choice point would have the impact of heightening Pfc receptivity to Hpc signals as the rat evaluates the possible outcome of the two alternative choices. Indeed, the hippocampus (Johnson and Redish, 2007) generates representations of the two possible choice arms at the maze fork. We speculate that the Pfc, in concert with the striatum, participates in “parsing” these anticipated representations in terms of the predicted outcome of each choice. Reward expectation signals in the Pfc would be instrumental for this.

At the cellular level, activation of the D2 receptor can modulate the inhibitory effect of GABA-ergic interneurons on NMDA excitation of pyramidal cells (Tseng and O’Donnell, 2004). Moreover, DA in Pfc increases the reliability of interneurons’ spike timing in response to Hpc stimulation (Tiemney et al., 2008), and in vitro it increases IPSP amplitude and reduces spatiotemporal spread of stimulation-evoked activity (Bandyopadhyay and Hablitz, 2007). Finally, coapplication of dopamine and NMDA in slices was shown to induce neuronal synchronization nested within peaks in theta and gamma oscillations, a phenomenon that required activation of the dopamine D1 receptor (Greesh and Plenz, 2008). The modification of the inhibitory synapses, and the consequent enforcement of precise spike timing over principal cells could thus explain both the increase in coherence and the formation of the cell assemblies observed in our experiments. Alternatively, the effect of DA could be due to a postsynaptic action on the slow potassic conductances of pyramidal neurons, which is known to affect the reliability of their response to an oscillatory input (Schreiber et al., 2004).

DA has powerful effects on synaptic plasticity as well: D1 agonists enhance LTP on Hpc-Pfc synapses (Gurden et al., 2000). In the hippocampus, dopamine affects STDP as well, by increasing induction sensitivity and expanding the temporal window for potentiation between pre- and postsynaptic spikes to at least 45 ms (Zhang et al., 2009). This enlarged window is compatible with the levels of temporal precision of our theta-synchronized assemblies in Pfc.

In anesthetized animals, we show that Pfc dopamine applications trigger the same pattern of changes observed in the maze when a reward prediction was required for making a choice. LFP
Figure 7. Local DA Injection Increases Coherence and Shifts Pfc Spike Phase Relative to Hpc Theta

(A) Following DA injection in Pfc of an anesthetized rat, Hpc (top) and Pfc (middle) spectrograms show little change in theta power while there is more coherence between Hpc and Pfc LFPs (bottom).

(B) Top, raster display of a Pfc pyramidal neuron before and after application of DA in Pfc. The phase of each spike with respect to Hpc theta is color coded (black: spikes in absence of theta). Bottom, mean phase (black curve) for these spikes and mean of coherence from (A) in the theta band (red curve). Note that spike phase changes after dopamine injection and then returns to the pre-injection value in concert with the coherence changes. Error bars: SEM computed over 1 min blocks of coherence readouts, each in a 1 s window.
coherence between Hpc and Pfc theta increased, while theta power in the two structures is virtually unchanged. Pfc pyramidal cells shifted their theta phase preference to the Pfc theta trough under DA, while interneurons’ preferred phase remained constant (Figure 7). While these data alone do not represent direct evidence, this striking parallel between anesthetized and behaving preparations is consistent with a role for phasic DA release in Pfc cell assembly formation at the decision point with learning. Taken together, these data suggest a possible mechanism linking together mechanisms at the network and cellular levels for reward signals to construct and “tag” activity configurations for long-term encoding: DA would increase assembly synchronization, making learning related assemblies to emerge, and then, because of the tight synchronization to be stabilized via STDP. Such mechanisms also may be applicable to understand DA mechanisms for learning in striatum. DA is not the only neuromodulator that might be involved in these processes. For example, in vitro acetylcholine both increases intrinsic theta oscillations in interneuronal networks (Blatow et al., 2003) and, through the nicotinic receptor, increases GABAergic inhibition of pyramidal cells (Couey et al., 2007).

These findings, taken together, point to a possible mechanism wherein coherence would help determine which information is stored in long-term memory. Thus, the Hpc/neocortical axis, deeply implicated in memory consolidation (Marr, 1970; Buzsáki, 1989; McClelland et al., 1995), may also be responsible during encoding, for the selection of the relevant information to be retained, possibly under neuromodulatory control.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Subjects, Surgical and Behavioral Protocols**

Four Long-Evans male rats were pretrained to seek food reward on a Y maze under a regime of mild food deprivation. All experiments were in accord with institutional (CNRS Comité Opérationnel pour l’Ethique dans les Sciences de la Vie), international (NIH guidelines) and legal regulations (Certificat no. 7186, Ministère de l’Agriculture et de la Pêche) regarding the use and care of animals. Then they were implanted, under anesthesia, with a micro-drive containing six tetrodes above the right mPfc (AP 3.5–5 mm, ML 0.5–2 mm). A second micro-drive containing three tetrodes was placed above the right mid-ventral (AP –5.0 mm ML 5.0 mm). These latter tetrodes were used for LFP recordings. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for more details.

**Behavioral Protocols**

Rats were trained in a rule-learning task involving attentional set shifts on a Y maze. Such extradimensional set shift tasks require an intact medial prefrontal cortex (Pfc) in rats (Birrell and Brown, 2000; Delatour and Gisquet-Verrier, 2000). This parallels the involvement of the human prefrontal cortex in the Wisconsin card-sorting task, which inspired the present experimental design. As explained in detail in Supplemental Experimental Procedures, at each trial, the rat had to choose one of two arms, the rewarded arm being either spatially guided to the left or the right or cue-guided to the illuminated or the dark arm. As soon as the rat acquired a rule, the reward contingency rule was changed, without any further signal, to a rule in the other stimulus dimension (i.e., from...
spatially-guided to cue-guided, and vice versa). Because we were interested in the neural correlates of the early phases of task learning, rats were not exposed to the task until the first electrophysiological recording session. Each day, sleep sessions of 20–30 min were recorded before and after the maze task.

Electrophysiological Procedures

Signals from all electrodes were fed into a unity-gain headstage pre-amplifier (HS-54; Neuralynx, Bozeman, MT) and then, through a tether cable, to programmable amplifiers set at 2000x (Lynx-8, Neuralynx, Bozeman, MT). Signals for single unit recordings were band-pass filtered between 600 and 6000 Hz, signals for LFP recordings were filtered between 0.1 and 475 Hz (Pfc) and 1 and 475 Hz (Hpc). Data were digitized and stored on hard disk by the Power 1401 (CED, Cambridge, UK) acquisition system, controlled by Spike2 software (also by CED). Single unit data were sampled at 25 kHz, and 1.3 ms samples were time stamped and stored for all the channels in a tetrode whenever any of the 4 channels exceeded a pre-set threshold. Local field potentials were sampled and stored at 2 kHz.

Data Preprocessing

From spike waveforms, the energy (or squared averaged amplitude) and the first three principal components of the energy-normalized waveforms were computed for the four tetrode channels, generating a 12-dimensional vector describing each spike. Those vectors were input to the KlustaKwik (Harris et al., 2000) clustering program. The resulting classification was manually refined using the Klusters interface (Hazen et al., 2006).

Recording Sessions

Fifty-eight recording sessions were analyzed (rat12, 12 days; rat15, 19 days; rat18, 14 days; rat 19 13 days). A total of 1/475 of putative single units were identified. All four rats learned the right and light rule. Because not all animals learned the remaining two rules and insufficient data were available, these were excluded from the analyses.

Identification of Putative Pyramidal Cells and Interneurons

Distribution of spike widths for all Pfc neurons recorded. According to previous studies (Bartho et al., 2004), putative interneurons and pyramidal cells in Pfc can be distinguished according to spike width. As previously described by Bartho and colleagues, the distribution of the spike width was bimodal. Those vectors were input to the KlustaKwik (Harris et al., 2000) clustering program. The resulting classification was manually refined using the Klusters interface (Hazen et al., 2006).

Coherence Analyses

Coherence and spectrograms were analyzed with multi-taper Fourier analysis (Mitra and Pesaran, 1999), making use of the Chronux toolbox (http://www.chronux.org), and with custom-written, MATLAB-based programs (Math-Works, Natick, MA). Coherence analyses concerned periods starting when the rat returned to the extremity of the start arm until it reached the reward site. The threshold for coherence to be considered as “high” was determined with the theoretical bound provided by the Chronux toolbox. A coherence of about 0.7 reached the statistical criterion (p < 0.05) and was then used as the threshold in the whole data set. Furthermore, since “low coherence” epochs were usually longer than “high coherence” ones, all analyses which aimed at comparing results between the two (correlation coefficient distributions, principal cells inhibition, etc.) were systematically controlled: statistics were carried out on randomly selected epochs from low coherence periods whose size (e.g., number of bins) were the same as the duration of high coherence epochs. Thus, the presented results were all independent from possible size effects.

Theta Modulation Analyses

The spike phase distribution relative to the theta oscillation is hypothesized to follow a Von Mises distribution (κ, concentration factor, a measure of phase dispersion; and \( \phi_{\text{modal}} \), preferred phase) (Fisher, 1993). Since the phase of theta depends on the recording site in Hpc, only recordings from electrodes in sessions where ripple oscillations were observed in the sleep periods before and after the task were included (ensuring recording in the CA1 pyramidal layer).

Principal Component Analysis

The method was based on that of (Peyrache et al., 2009a, 2009b) (Figure 5S). (1) Spike trains from ensembles of simultaneously recorded Pfc cells were obtained from high coherence periods. (2) The spike trains were binned in 30 ms time windows (corresponding to the time window for Hpc cell assemblies [Harris et al., 2003]) or by theta cycle periods and then z transformed, so that each binned spike train had a zero mean and unit variance. (3) The correlation matrix of the z transformed binned spike trains was computed (an \( N_{\text{cell}} \times N_{\text{cell}} \) matrix). (4) The principal components of the matrix were computed: the matrix is diagonalized, and the eigenvectors are sorted according to their associated eigenvalues. The eigenvectors corresponding to the three largest eigenvalues were termed “signal” components, while the others were considered “nonsignal,” or noise. (5) Spike trains from ensembles of simultaneously recorded Pfc cells were obtained from the whole session. (6) The spike trains were binned in 30 ms time windows and then z transformed, leading to population vector of activity at any given time. (7) From each principal component, the dot product of the population vector with the projector of a principal component and then with the transposed population vector at any given time is computed, yielding the time course for the activation of that component referred as to “subnetworkcoactivation measure.” Values that exceeded a threshold were taken to signify CRCA occurrence. For most analyses, we chose a threshold of 3, however different values of the threshold yielded similar results (Figure 5SE).

Inhibitory Efficacy

Our method is derived from Constantinidis and colleagues (Constantinidis and Goldman-Rakic, 2002). For each interneuron within the CRCA, those putative pyramidal cells under its inhibitory influence were identified on the basis of (1) the number of spikes in the 5 ms after the interneuron’s spike as compared to the 10 ms period before, and (2) no modification of firing rate during high versus low coherence periods. Interneurons with small numbers of co-occurring pyramidal cells’ spikes were excluded. All cross-correlograms were then normalized and averaged. The procedure was repeated for high and low coherence periods.

Pfc Recordings following Local Dopamine Infusions

Male Sprague-Dawley rats were placed in a stereotaxic apparatus under chloral hydrate anesthesia, maintained by intraperitoneal infusion of chloral hydrate with a peristaltic pump set at 60 mg/kg/hr turned on 1 hr after induction. Glass pipettes (20–30 MΩ) recorded extracellular unit activity in the PL/OM areas of the PFC (AP, +2.8–4 mm; ML, 0.4–1 mm; DV, 2.5–4 mm). DA was infused by iontophoresis through glass pipettes, initially with a current of 10 nA, which was increased in increments of 10–20 nA until an effect was observed.

Action potential duration was measured on the 2nd phase of the spike and the criteria for identification as an interneuron was that the action potential be inferior to 0.6 ms, as in Tierney et al. (2004). Coherence, preferred phase change, and theta modulation strength were compared between the five minutes before and after dopamine injection, but only when spontaneous theta activity was detected before the dopamine injection. Data from coherence and theta power were then averaged over all dopamine injections. All spikes before and after dopamine injection were pooled for the calculation of the preferred phase. Because DA has been shown to decrease neuronal firing rate in Pfc, spike analysis was performed when firing rate under dopamine injection remained at level over one half of that of the pre-DA injection period.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes eight figures and Supplemental Experimental Procedures and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2010.05.013.

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