

Inhibition recruitment in prefrontal cortex during sleep spindles and gating of hippocampal inputs

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During light slow-wave sleep, the thalamo-cortical network oscillates in waxing-and-waning patterns at about 7 to 14 Hz and lasting for 500 ms to 3 s, called spindles, with the thalamus rhythmically sending strong excitatory volleys to the cortex. Concurrently, the hippocampal activity is characterized by transient and strong excitatory events, Sharp-Waves-Ripples (SPWRs), directly affecting neocortical activity—in particular the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC)—which receives monosynaptic fibers from the ventral hippocampus and subiculum. Both spindles and SPWRs have been shown to be strongly involved in memory consolidation. However, the dynamics of the cortical network during natural sleep spindles and how prefrontal circuits simultaneously process hippocampal and thalamo-cortical activity remain largely undetermined. Using multisite neuronal recordings in rat mPFC, we show that during sleep spindles, oscillatory responses of cortical cells are different for different cell types and cortical layers. Superficial neurons are more phase-locked and tonically recruited during spindle episodes. Moreover, in a given layer, interneurons were always more modulated than pyramidal cells, both in firing rate and phase, suggesting that the dynamics are dominated by inhibition. In the deep layers, where most of the hippocampal fibers make contacts, pyramidal cells respond phasically to SPWRs, but not during spindles. Similar observations were obtained when analyzing γ -oscillation modulation in the mPFC. These results demonstrate that during sleep spindles, the cortex is functionally “deafferented” from its hippocampal inputs, based on processes of cortical origin, and presumably mediated by the strong recruitment of inhibitory interneurons. The interplay between hippocampal and thalamic inputs may underlie a global mechanism involved in the consolidation of recently formed memory traces.

cortical deafferentation | fast spiking neurons | regular spiking neurons | memory reprocessing | Up and Down states

Slow-wave sleep (SWS) is thought to be determinant for memory consolidation (1) but the ongoing brain dynamics in this stage and the interaction between the cortex and subcortical structures are still largely unknown. During SWS, the neocortex is dominated by fluctuations between active and silent phases at approximately 0.1 to 1 Hz, the so-called “slow oscillations” (2). These slow waves modulate nested faster oscillatory events in the thalamus and the hippocampus, which in turn produce strong excitatory volleys directly targeting the neocortical network. In light stages of SWS, the thalamo-cortical network exhibits episodes of waxing-and-waning spindle oscillations, at about 7 to 14 Hz and lasting for 500 ms to 3 s (3), during which neocortical networks receive rhythmic and strong excitatory volleys from the thalamo-cortical cells (3, 4). From a functional point of view, the density of spindle events have been shown to correlate with memory enhancement (5, 6).

In parallel to spindles, the hippocampus produces brief bursts of activity associated with fast oscillations at about 200 Hz in the CA1 subfield (7), the so-called “Sharp-Waves Ripple” complexes (SPWRs). Sleep SPWRs replay activity patterns related to past experience (8) and are involved in the long-term storage of memories (9). The thalamus projects directly to every part of the neocortex, in a distributed, topographically organized fashion

different for each thalamic nucleus, but in rodents the hippocampus efferents preferentially target the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) (10). In fact, the hippocampus and mPFC interact both during wakefulness (11, 12) and during SWS, when mPFC neuronal activity replay activity patterns formed during previous learning experience (13, 14).

GABAergic interneurons represent approximately 20% of the neurons in the neocortex and are very diverse in nature (15). Both pyramidal and local GABAergic neurons are directly targeted by thalamic (16) and, in the mPFC, hippocampal (17, 18) glutamatergic afferents, such that thalamo-cortical as well as hippocampal inputs provoke an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP)/inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP) sequence in neocortical pyramidal neurons (17, 19). Indeed, during spindles under barbiturate anesthesia, intracellular recordings in the neocortical pyramidal cells reveal subthreshold EPSP/IPSP sequences with powerful inhibition (19). Similarly, electrical stimulation in the hippocampus provoke a reliable and large activation of the prefrontal interneurons (18). Consequently, interneurons are thought to play a key role in shaping pyramidal response in the mPFC, possibly controlled by different neuromodulators, such as dopamine (12, 20). Moreover, the interaction in local networks between GABAergic fast-spiking (FS) and regular-spiking (RS) cells, underlying information processing, is thought to be instrumental in the transient formation of cell assemblies (12, 21) associated with γ -oscillations (22).

Although targeting both pyramidal cells and interneurons, thalamic and hippocampal inputs to the mPFC are differently distributed: the ventral CA1 area of the hippocampus targets primarily the deep layers (10) and the mediodorsal nucleus of the thalamus, which is the primary thalamic afferent of the mPFC, mostly projects to Layer III (23). Here, we investigate how the mPFC process these different inputs during SWS by analyzing the response and integration of the different cell types and layers, as well as the γ -oscillation profiles during those perturbations.

Results

Different Recruitment and Phase Modulation Across Layers During Spindling. During spindling episodes, mPFC local field potentials (LFP) exhibited large amplitude oscillations identifiable as low-voltage sleep spindles, based on several physiological criteria (Fig. 1A and *SI Materials and Methods*). When the LFPs were recorded simultaneously in superficial and deep layer FS (in three rats), a phase inversion was observed between layers (Fig. S1). Herein, if not stated otherwise, spindle phases will refer to deep prefrontal LFPs. FS and RS cells were discriminated on the basis of the shape of their action potential (*SI Materials and Methods* and Fig. S2). Their responses were different depending

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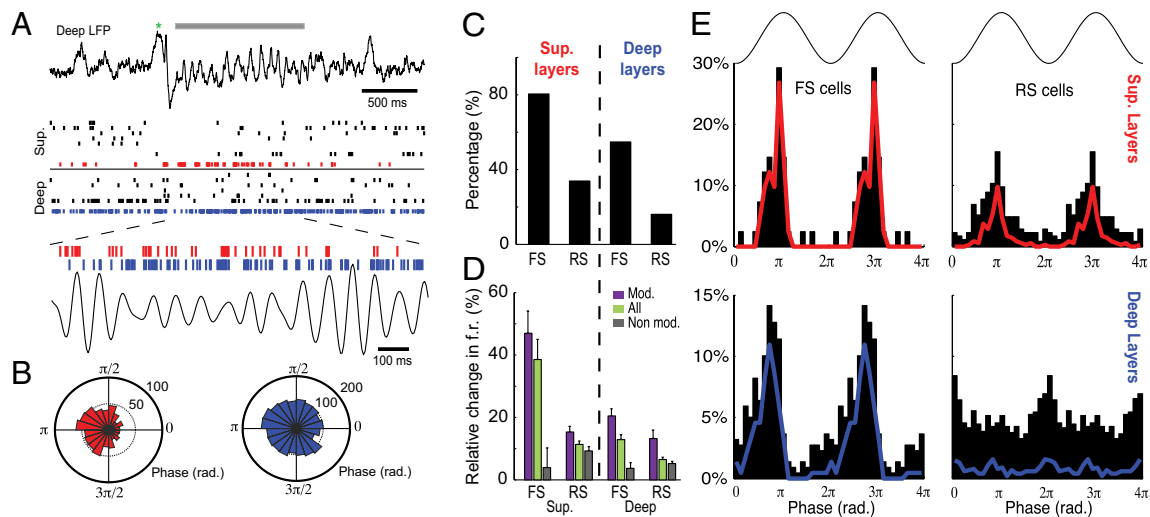


Fig. 1. Interneuron and superficial pyramidal cell recruitment during spindles. (A and B) Example of neuronal recruitment by spindles by layers. (A) Deep LFP trace (Upper) shows a transient bout of waxing-and-waning oscillations at about 15 Hz, the spindle oscillations, denoted by the horizontal gray bar; below: raster of discriminated units spiking activity in the superficial layers (II/III) and deep layers (V/VI). Firing from two FS cells, one in each layer, is depicted here in color and RS cell spikes are displayed in black. Note the δ -wave preceding the spindles (green asterisk). (Lower) An enlarged picture of the spindle oscillation: filtered deep LFP trace (10–15 Hz) is shown together with the spiking activity of the same FS cells as above. (B) Phase histogram of the example FS cells from A relative to spindle oscillations (same color code). (C) Percentage of significantly phase modulated cells. (D) Average relative change in firing rate during spindle oscillations compared with nonspindle SWS for significantly phase-locked cells (Mod., purple) or not (Non mod., gray) and for all of the cells (All, green) changed to green. Error bars display SEM. (E) Distributions of preferred firing phase of cells. Black bars indicate preferred phase for all cells; distributions for significantly phase-modulated cells only are shown in color lines.

on the layer from which they were recorded. In the example shown in Fig. 1A, two FS cells were recorded from the two layers, respectively: although the deep-layer cell showed a slight increase in firing rate during the spindling episode, the superficial-layer cell is transiently and strongly activated. Moreover, histograms of action potential phase relative to band-pass filtered LFP in the spindle band (10–15 Hz) revealed a strong phase modulation of the superficial FS cell ($P < 10^{-10}$, $\kappa = 6.2$, Rayleigh test) and a weaker but still significant modulation for the deep FS cell ($P < 10^{-10}$, $\kappa = 2.6$, Rayleigh test).

Although the deep-layer LFP was taken as reference, a larger fraction of superficial cells were phase-modulated than deep-layer cells, both for FS (80% vs. 55%, $P < 10^{-10}$, binomial test) and RS (34% vs. 16%, $P < 10^{-10}$) neurons (Fig. 1C). However, a cell can increase its firing rate during spindles without any phase-locking. Fig. 1D shows that although all cell types showed an increase of their relative firing rate, that is the difference between rates within and outside spindles divided by rates outside spindles (the latter being restricted to SWS epochs, see *SI Materials and Methods*), this was consistently higher for those cell types that were phase-modulated ($P < 0.01$ for all cell types, two-sample t test). Moreover, the same difference across layers and cell types were observed as with phase-modulation: in a given layer, FS cells tend to consistently be more recruited ($P < 10^{-10}$, two-way ANOVA), and superficial layers exhibited a stronger activation ($P < 10^{-10}$). However, the interaction between cell types and layers was also significant ($P < 10^{-5}$), showing that the difference between cell types was more marked in the superficial layers than in the deep layers ($P < 10^{-10}$ and $P < 0.001$, post hoc t test, respectively). Moreover, both FS and RS increased their firing rate more in the superficial than in the deep layers ($P < 10^{-7}$ and $P < 0.001$, post hoc t test, respectively).

Example neurons from Fig. 1B tend to fire at the peak of the LFP. This feature was indeed present at the population level: FS cells in both layers fire preferentially at the peak of the oscillation (Fig. 1E). Superficial RS cells showed the same preferred phase. Conversely, the small percentage of significantly modulated deep-layer RS cells (16%) did not show any particular preferred phase. Nevertheless, as a population, deep RS cells

tended to fire at the peak of the spindle oscillations ($P < 0.001$, Rayleigh test). Similar results, but in antiphase, were obtained when superficial LFPs were taken as reference (Fig. S3).

Grouping of Thalamic and Hippocampal Activity Bursts by the Slow Oscillations. During SWS, hippocampal activity is concentrated in SPWR events, the occurrence of which is modulated by neocortical inputs (24). Similarly, during light SWS, neocortical DOWN to UP state transitions favor the recruitment of thalamic activity into spindles (3). Cortical δ -waves, large and isolated deflection of the LFP, are the hallmark of global or local DOWN states and are referred to as K-complex when followed by spindles (as indicated with a green asterisk in Figs. 1A and 2A). As suggested by the example shown in Fig. 2A, δ -waves were preceded by an increased probability of SPWR occurrence (or conversely, some SPWRs tended to take place at the end of UP states), and the stronger the deflection, the higher the propensity of SPWR occurrence (Fig. 2B, Upper, black arrow). However, δ -waves were also followed by an increased occurrence rate of SPWRs, albeit smaller than the rate right before DOWN states (white arrow). Similarly, there was a tendency for δ -waves to be followed by spindles (Fig. 2B, Lower), also in an amplitude-dependent manner. This temporal ordering was reflected in the asymmetric SPWR-triggered spindle density over timescales spanning at least four order-of-magnitude, from subsecond to minutes (Fig. 2C) (cf. 25, 26). Hippocampal burst amplitude can modulate differently PFC response, especially in the spindle band (27). Indeed, the strongest SPWRs, as measured by the amplitude of ripple oscillations (*SI Materials and Methods*), were followed by higher spindle peak occurrence rate than the smallest ones (Fig. S4A). However, the relationship between SPWRs and δ -waves did not show such dependence (Fig. S4B).

Neuronal Sensitivity to Hippocampal Sharp-Waves Depends on Cortical State. SPWR-associated activity directly impinges upon prefrontal neuronal activity (14, 27). However, it is not known whether cells in different cortical layers respond differentially to SPWRs, or whether this response is state-dependent. Qualitative examination of cross-correlogram of neuronal activity for the two

preferentially in antiphase with all other cells, in particular deep FS, and would thus fire when the local inhibition is the lowest. These results are in agreement with several other previous findings. First, the higher modulation of superficial cells by spindles is consistent with the denser projection from the main projecting thalamic input, namely the medio-dorsal nucleus, to the superficial layers of the mPFC (23). Second, spindle synchronization requires the intact thalamo-cortical system (32), with a prominent synchronizing role of cortico-cortical projections in the superficial layers (33). Third, in intracellular recordings during spindle oscillations, the weak modulation in control conditions was changed to powerful bursts by using Cl-filled pipettes, revealing strong inhibition (19).

A recent study reported that a class of superficial FS cells, namely the dendritic targeting cells, fire in antiphase with local pyramidal neurons (34). No such cells were found in our dataset but this might be explained by the lack of very superficial-layer recordings where these cells were found.

Modulation of γ -Burst Occurrence by Spindle Oscillations. In many ways, UP states are similar to waking desynchronized states, in particular because neocortical neurons display similar patterns of correlation and conductances (35), and γ -oscillations in the LFPs (36). γ -Oscillations are associated to the activation of neocortical cell assemblies (22, 37) and are probably caused by strong interactions between FS and RS cells or between FS cells only (38, 39). Here we show that mPFC γ -activity (30–140 Hz) was remarkably modulated by spindle oscillations (Fig. 5A).

Interestingly, the hippocampal θ -rhythm (5–10 Hz) of active behavior modulates γ -bursts in a similar way: local γ -bursts in CA1 (40, 41) as well as neocortical γ -bursts (30, 42) are phase-locked to the θ -oscillation. The modulation of local fast events by remote slower oscillations is thus a common mode of inter-structure communication mechanisms, both between the thalamus and neocortex, and between the hippocampus and neocortex (43, 44).

Interaction Between Thalamic and Hippocampal Inputs at Multiple Timescales. During SWS, the hippocampal influence on mPFC is mostly mediated by SPWRs, whose occurrence is in turn modulated by the slow oscillation and its nested rhythms: δ - and spindle oscillations (24–26, 29). We provided further data on how these different comodulated events may interact.

SPWR influence on mPFC activity depended on the neocortical state and in particular its oscillatory drive from the thalamus: mPFC sensitivity to hippocampal SPWRs was greater when the mPFC was not involved in thalamo-cortical coupling (Figs. 3 and 5). In particular, deep-layer RS cells relayed hippocampal inputs preferentially during nonspindle states, when they are released from thalamic drive. In this state, SPWRs were concomitant with short (<100 ms) fast γ -bursts (>70 Hz) in the deep layers and the amplitude of the response was correlated to SPWR strength (Fig. 5E–G and Fig. S4), pointing at activation of the deep layers: fast- γ is strongly related to spiking activity (Fig. S7), possibly because of the low-frequency component of action potentials leaking in the LFP (45). In general, outside spindling episodes SPWRs tended to appear toward the end of UP states, as shown by (i) the low spiking (Fig. S5 and ref. 29), (ii) low γ -activity (Fig. 5 and Fig. S6) preceding these SPWRs, and (iii) the negative time-lag shift of the maximum peak in the correlation between δ -waves and SPWRs (Fig. 2B, black arrow). At the end of UP states, global activity decreases leading to enhanced cell input resistance (46, 47). This process may favor enhanced responsiveness of mPFC cells to hippocampal inputs. However, the SPWRs– δ -wave correlation shows another, but smaller, peak for positive time-lag (Fig. 2B, white arrow). This finding indicates that both UP-DOWN and DOWN-UP transitions could be associated to SPWR occurrence. Whether the hippocampus passively reacts to its inputs or plays an active role in neocortical-state transitions, through mechanisms similar to what shown *in vitro* (47), remains to be determined (24–26, 29).

Note that δ -wave strength was only correlated with the occurrence rate of SPWRs preceding them, suggesting that hippocampal input may be important for complete termination of activity during DOWN states. The second peak, at the putative DOWN-UP transition, was of comparable strength for all δ -waves. Although the present dataset focused on an output structure of the hippocampus, the mPFC, it would be interesting to study how the δ -wave strength in the up-stream areas (i.e., the entorhinal cortex) would affect SPWR occurrence.

SPWRs and spindles are highly comodulated events (25, 26). The PFC's response is positively correlated with the strength of the SPWR, as measured by hippocampal population activity (27). Strong SPWR events were clearly associated to increased occurrence rate of spindle peaks (Fig. S4A). Such a relationship was absent between SPWR and δ -waves (Fig. S4B). One possibility would be that SPWRs can themselves recruit thalamo-cortical cells into a spindling episodes in a strength-dependent fashion, in a way similar to the neocortical synaptic barrage associated to UP state onset (3).

Furthermore, we show that the timescales of the interaction between the SPWRs and spindle events spanned several orders of magnitude (Fig. 2C). SPWRs were phase-locked to spindles (26), but at larger timescales SPWRs preceded spindle occurrence (25), possibly because of common modulation by the slow oscillation (3, 24, 26, 29), in particular its DOWN phase (Fig. 2B), and possibly to lower frequency components in the SWS dynamics.

Cortical Deafferentation During Spindles. Thalamo-cortical cells have roughly two modes of activity, phasic or bursting, and the latter is thought to be responsible for the disruption of relay property of thalamo-cortical cells (3). However, the present study proposes an alternative view. The monosynaptic hippocampo-prefrontal projection offers a unique chance to study the response of a cortical area to an endogenous stimulation independent of the thalamic relay. The present results demonstrate that the cortex is generally unresponsive during spindles, suggesting that thalamic inputs in burst mode recruit massive intracortical inhibition, which itself produces a local deafferentation of the cortical area concerned, regardless of the input source.

Implications for Memory Formation. The communication between the mPFC and the hippocampus are likely to be crucial for memory formation and consolidation (48). Based on our data, some hypotheses may be drawn about the functional implications of neural dynamics in these areas. Excitatory input from thalamo-cortical cells is thought to massively depolarize neocortical cell dendrites during spindles (19). This finding was suggested to play a role in plasticity mechanisms by enabling calcium entry in dendrites and mobilizing molecular mechanisms for stable changes in synaptic weights (19, 31). On the other hand, to consolidate a given memory trace networks must avoid interference from their spontaneous activity dynamics. Perisomatic inhibition (of which we show the possible effects), would then be the key factor in permitting dendritic depolarization yet in keeping pyramidal cell activity under tight control. However, this theory does not explain which memory trace would be consolidated through this process. During wakefulness, mPFC neuronal activity self-organizes in cell assemblies that are reactivated during sleep (13), preferentially at times of hippocampal SPWRs (14). SPWRs tend to precede spindles over multiple time scales (Fig. 2C), and cell-assembly replay likely occurs at the same times (14). Thus, a likely sequence of events would see replay first (coincident with SPWRs), and then a state favoring consolidation of the recently modified synapses, during spindles.

This theory would explain why during slow oscillations, which temporally organize the chain of events described above, replay is indeed enhanced (6, 14). Thus, although at a subsecond timescale spindles do not correspond to peaks in replay (14) or hippocampal/PFC communication (shown here), a positive correlation is found at a longer (minutes) timescale between spin-

dling activity and replay (6). Similarly, spindling EEG power is increased with learning (5), possibly as a result of a general increase in slow oscillation activity (49).

This hypothetical gating effect of thalamo-cortical inputs between hippocampal-triggered vs. intrinsically cortical consolidation processes would be mediated by the prefrontal cortex circuitry, as we show here, with distinctive roles for FS and RS cells in different layers. The functional importance of this structure will have to be investigated in future work.

Materials and Methods

Four Long-Evans (pigmented) male rats (R. Janvier) weighing 250 to 300 g at arrival, were handled daily. All experiments were carried out in accordance with institutional (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique Comité Opérationnel pour l'Éthique dans les Sciences de la Vie) and international (National Institutes of Health) standards and legal regulations (Certificate no. 7186, French Ministère de l'Agriculture et de la Pêche) regarding the use and care of animals. After habituation to the experimental environment, rats were anesthetized with intramuscular xylazine (Rompun, 0.1 mL) and intraperitoneal pentobar-bital (35 mg per kilogram of body weight). A drive containing seven tetrodes (six recording plus one reference) was implanted through the skull above the right mPFC (anterior-posterior, 3.55 mm; medial-lateral, 0.51.5 mm). Each tetrode was contained in a 30-gauge hypodermic tube, with the tubes arranged in two parallel, adjacent rows.

Tetrodes were twisted bundles of polyimide-coated nichrome wire (13 mm in diameter; Kanthal); the drive allowed independent adjustment of tetrode depth. After dura retraction, two rows of cannulae were implanted parallel to the sagittal sinus so that they targeted the superficial and deep layers of the medial bank of the cortex. A separate microdrive containing three tetrodes was targeted to the ventral hippocampus (anterior-posterior, 5.0 mm; medial-lateral, 5.0 mm). Each tetrode was electrically connected in a single-electrode configuration (all channels shorted together) and used for LFP recordings. A screw implanted on the occipital bone above the cerebellum served as the LFP reference. The hippocampal tetrodes were lowered to the CA1 pyramidal layer; the depth was adjusted with the help of LFP signs (flat sharp waves, strong ripple oscillations). After surgery, rats recovered for at least 2 wk and the tetrodes were lowered to reach the pre-limbic area (main drive) and the CA1 pyramidal layer (hippocampal microdrive). Between sessions, tetrodes were gradually lowered to probe different dorso-ventral levels in the pre-limbic area.

See *SI Materials and Methods* for further details.

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