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Kaoutsar Nasrallah, Rebecca Piskorowski, Vivien Chevaleyre. Inhibitory Plasticity Permits the Recruitment of CA2 Pyramidal Neurons by CA3. eNeuro, 2015, 2 (4), pp.ENEURO.0049-15.2015. 10.1523/ENEURO.0049-15.2015. inserm-02769407

HAL Id: inserm-02769407 https://inserm.hal.science/inserm-02769407

Submitted on 4 Jun2020

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Inhibitory plasticity permits the recruitment of CA2 pyramidal neurons by CA3

Dis-inhibitory plasticity in area CA2

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DOI: 10.1523/ENEURO.0049-15.2015

Received: 11 May 2015

Revised: 1 July 2015

Accepted: 6 July 2015

Published: 15 July 2015

Funding: Agence Nationale de la Recherche: ANR-12-BSV4-0021-01. Agence Nationale de la Recherche: ANP-13-JSV4-0002. CNRS ATIP programme; Ville de Paris Programme Emergence;

Conflict of Interest: The authors report no conflict of interests

Contributions: KN, RAP, VC designed research, performed experiments, analyzed data; RAP and VC wrote the paper.

Funding sources: We acknowledge the ATIP/Avenir and the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-12-BSV4-0021-01, ANR-13-JSV4-0002) and Ville de Paris program Emergence for financial support.

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Cite as: eNeuro 2015; 10.1523/ENEURO.0049-15.2015

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eN-NWR-0049-15R1

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- 1 1. Title : Inhibitory plasticity permits the recruitment of CA2 pyramidal neurons by CA3
- 2 2. Abbreviated title : Dis-inhibitory plasticity in area CA2
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 7 VC wrote the paper
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- 9 6. Number of Figures : 6
- 10 7. Number of tables : 0
- 11 8. Number of Multimedia : 0
- 12 9. Number or words for Abstract : 149
- 13 10. Number or words for significance statement: 120
- 14 11. Number or words for Introduction : 521
- 15 12. Number or words for Discussion : 1678
- 16 13. Acknowledgements :
- 17 14. Conflict of Interest : A : The authors report no conflict of interests
- 18 15. Funding sources: We acknowledge the ATIP/Avenir and the Agence Nationale de la Recherche
- 19 (ANR-12-BSV4-0021-01, ANR-13-JSV4-0002) and Ville de Paris program Emergence for financial
- 20 support.
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26 ABSTRACT

Area CA2 is emerging as an important region for hippocampal memory formation. However, 27 how CA2 pyramidal neurons (PNs) are engaged by intra-hippocampal inputs remains unclear. 28 Excitatory transmission between CA3 and CA2 is strongly inhibited and is not plastic. We 29 show in mice that different patterns of activity can in fact increase the excitatory drive 30 31 between CA3 and CA2. We provide evidence that this effect is mediated by a long-term 32 depression at inhibitory synapses (iLTD), as it is evoked by the same protocols and shares the 33 same pharmacology. In addition, we show that the net excitatory drive of distal inputs is also 34 increased following iLTD induction. The dis-inhibitory increase in excitatory drive is sufficient to allow CA3 inputs to evoke action potential firing in CA2 PNs. Thus, these data 35 reveal that the output of CA2 PNs can be gated by the unique activity-dependent plasticity of 36 inhibitory neurons in area CA2. 37

38

39 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Long overlooked, recent work has demonstrated that area CA2 of the hippocampus is a 40 41 critical region for social memory and aggression. How area CA2 integrates in the hippocampal circuit is not understood. While CA2 pyramidal neurons (PNs) receive 42 excitatory input from CA3 PNs, these inputs cannot drive action potentials in CA2 PNs 43 because of a large feed-forward inhibition. Furthermore, CA2 PNs do not express long-term 44 45 potentiation, so it is unclear if CA2 PNs can be engaged by CA3. We demonstrate that a 46 unique activity-dependent plasticity of CA2 interneurons can increase the 47 excitatory/inhibitory balance between CA3 and CA2 PNs and allow the recruitment of CA2 PNs. Therefore, our results reveal a mechanism by witch CA2 PNs can be engaged by CA3. 48

49

50 INTRODUCTION

Recent findings have revealed that hippocampal area CA2 plays an important role in learning 51 and memory. Area CA2 has been shown to be necessary for social memory formation (Hitti 52 53 and Siegelbaum, 2014; Stevenson and Caldwell, 2014) and may act to detect discrepancies between stored memories and current sensory information (Wintzer et al., 2014). It has 54 55 recently been found that the receptive fields of CA2 pyramidal neuron (PN) place cells change rapidly with time, indicating that this region is playing a role in hippocampal learning 56 57 that may be separate from spatial orientation (Mankin et al., 2015). Neurons in area CA2 58 seem poised to modulate hippocampal activity, given the striking number of receptors that are enriched or uniquely expressed in this area (Jones and McHugh, 2011). A clearer 59 understanding of the connectivity in area CA2 has recently evolved (Chevaleyre and 60 Siegelbaum, 2010; Cui et al., 2012; Rowland et al., 2013; Kohara et al., 2014); however, a 61 62 better understanding of the plasticity of these connections is critical for understanding how 63 this region contributes to hippocampal learning.

Axons from CA3 PNs, i.e. the Schaffer collaterals (SC), connect both CA2 and CA1 64 PNs. However, unlike the well-described SC-CA1 synapses, the SC-CA2 connection does not 65 66 display activity-dependent long term potentiation (LTP) (Zhao et al., 2007; Chevaleyre and 67 Siegelbaum, 2010) due to the unique expression of calcium buffering proteins (Simons et al., 68 2009) and of the regulator of G-protein signaling RGS14 (Lee et al., 2010). Furthermore, there is a higher density of interneurons in area CA2 as compared to CA1 (Benes et al., 1998; 69 Andrioli et al., 2007; Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013; Botcher et al., 2014). While 70 71 inhibition is known to control the strength and plasticity of excitatory transmission in the 72 hippocampus (Chevaleyre and Piskorowski, 2014), the control exerted by inhibition in area CA2 is extensive. When inhibitory transmission is intact, electrical (Chevaleyre and 73

Siegelbaum, 2010) or selective optogenetic (Kohara et al., 2014) stimulation of the SC inputs 74 results in a very small depolarizing post-synaptic potential (PSP) comprised of both excitatory 75 and inhibitory potentials (EPSPs, IPSPs). The depolarizing EPSP is abruptly truncated by a 76 large hyperpolarizing component due to inhibitory currents from feed-forward inhibition. This 77 78 very large feed-forward inhibition completely prevents CA3 excitatory inputs from evoking 79 action potentials (APs) in CA2 PNs (Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum, 2010). Following pharmacological block of inhibition, the amplitude of the PSP becomes ~5 fold larger and is 80 sufficient to drive action potentials in CA2 PNs (Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum, 2010; 81 Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). 82

83 Inhibitory transmission from Parvalbumin expressing (PV+) interneurons in area CA2 undergoes a long-term depression (iLTD) mediated by Delta opioid receptor (DOR) 84 activation (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). However, it is unknown whether the synapses 85 that undergo iLTD are playing any role in controlling the net strength of SC-CA2 86 87 transmission. We show that the balance between excitation and inhibition between CA3 and 88 CA2 is persistently altered following the induction of DOR-mediated iLTD. Furthermore, 89 induction of iLTD by SC stimulation also permits a net increase in the excitation/inhibition ratio at distal CA2 inputs. Finally, this dis-inhibitory mechanism is sufficient to allow SC 90 inputs to drive AP firing in CA2 PNs, thereby engaging CA2 in the tri-synaptic circuit. 91

92

93 MATERIALS AND METHODS

94 Slice preparation. All animal procedures were performed in accordance with the Author 95 University animal care committee's regulations. 400 µM transverse hippocampal slices were 96 prepared from 6- to 9-week-old C57BL6 male mice. Animals were euthanized under

97 anesthesia with isofluorane. Hippocampi were removed and placed upright into an agar mold and cut with a vibratome (Leica VT1200S, Germany) in ice-cold extracellular solution 98 containing (in mM): 10 NaCl, 195 sucrose, 2.5 KCl, 15 glucose, 26 NaHCO₃, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 99 1 CaCl₂ and 2 MgCl₂). A cut was made between CA3 and CA2 with a scalpel in some of the 100 101 slices before being transferred to 30°C ACSF (in mM: 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 10 glucose, 26 102 NaHCO₃, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 2 Na Pyruvate, 2 CaCl₂ and 1 MgCl₂) for 30 min and kept at room temperature for at least 1.5 hr before recording. All experiments were performed at 33°C. 103 Cutting and recording solutions were both saturated with 95% O2 and 5% CO2 (pH 7.4). 104

Electrophysiological recordings and analysis. Field recordings of PSPs were performed in 105 106 current clamp mode with a recording patch pipette $(3-5 \text{ M}\Omega)$ containing 1M of NaCl and positioned in the middle of SR or stratum pyramidale (SP) in CA1 or CA2. Whole-cell 107 recordings were obtained from CA2 PNs in current clamp mode held at -73 mV with a patch 108 pipette (3-5 MΩ) containing (in mM): 135 KMethylSulfate, 5 KCl, 0.1 EGTA-Na, 10 109 110 HEPES, 2 NaCl, 5 ATP, 0.4 GTP, 10 phosphocreatine and 5 µM biocytin (pH 7.2; 280–290 111 mOsm). Inhibitory currents were recorded with pipette solution containing 135 112 CsMethylSulfate instead of KMethylSulfate. The liquid junction potential was ~1.2 mV and 113 membrane potentials were corrected for this junction potential. Some recordings were 114 performed with the perforated patch technique. For these experiments, 75 μ g/ml gramicidin 115 was added to the intracellular solution along with an additional 4 mM calcium to ensure 116 recordings were acquired in perforated configuration only. Series resistance (typically 12–18 117 M Ω for whole cell recordings and 65.5 ± 2 M Ω for perforated patch recordings) was 118 monitored throughout each experiment; cells with more than 15% change in series resistance were excluded from analysis. Synaptic potentials were evoked by monopolar stimulation with 119 a patch pipette filled with ACSF and positioned in the middle of CA1 SR or SLM. When 120

121 evoking PSPs in both SR and SLM in the same experiment, we tested the independence of the inputs prior to the experiment. Using the same stimulation intensity used for the experiment, 122 we compared the PSP amplitude evoked by SR stimulation with the PSP amplitude evoked by 123 SR stimulation 100 ms after SLM stimulation. We also performed the reverse measurement, 124 125 comparing the PSP amplitude evoked by SLM stimulation to a PSP evoked with SLM 126 stimulation following SR stimulation by 100 ms. The stimulation of the SR and SLM inputs were considered independent if a preceding evoked PSP in the separate pathway had no effect 127 on the amplitude of the second evoked PSP. When axons of CA2 pyramidal neurons were 128 directly recruited by the stimulation pipette, as observed with a back-propagating AP in the 129 130 recorded CA2 neuron, the stimulating pipette was moved until the direct activation of the axon disappeared. 131

132

A HFS (100 pulses at 100Hz repeated twice), a 10Hz stimulation (100 pulses at 10Hz 133 repeated twice) or DPDPE ([D-Pen^{2,5}]Enkephalin) was applied following 15 - 20 min of 134 135 stable baseline. Before beginning whole cell experiments, we identified the CA2 PNs by 136 somatic location and size. Furthermore, the cell type was confirmed by several electrophysiological properties (input resistance, membrane capacitance, resting membrane 137 potential, sag amplitude, action potential amplitude and duration). For several experiments, 138 particularly when Cs⁺ was in the pipette solution, the slices were fixed following the 139 140 recording with 4% paraformaldehyde and the neurons were identified by biocytin-streptavidin 141 labeling and immunohistochemistry to label the CA2-specific protein RGS-14.

The amplitudes of the PSPs were normalized to the baseline amplitude. The magnitude of plasticity was estimated by comparing averaged responses at 30-40 min for whole cell and at 50-60 min for extracellular recordings after the induction protocol with baseline-averaged responses 0–10 min before the induction protocol. All drugs were bath-applied following dilution into the external solution from concentrated stock solutions. We used Axograph X
software for data acquisition and Origin Pro for data analysis. Student's t-test was performed
for statistical comparisons and results are reported as mean ± SEM.

149

150 RESULTS

151 Inhibition in area CA2 has been shown to play a very prominent role in controlling the size of the depolarizing component of the compound EPSP-IPSP following stimulation of the SC 152 (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). Furthermore, inhibition has been shown to be highly 153 154 plastic, undergoing an iLTD mediated by DORs (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). We 155 asked whether this plasticity of inhibitory transmission might be sufficient to modulate the 156 level of excitatory drive at SC-CA2 synapses. To address this question, we first recorded 157 extracellular post-synaptic potentials (fPSPs) in CA2 stratum radiatum (SR) in response to electrical stimulation of SC fibers. These fPSPs are a compound readout of both the local 158 excitatory and inhibitory post-synaptic potentials. After a stable baseline, we applied either a 159 high frequency stimulation (HFS) protocol (100 pulses at 100 Hz repeated twice) or a 10 Hz 160 161 protocol (100 pulses at 10 Hz repeated twice). These two protocols efficiently induce iLTD of inhibitory inputs in area CA2 (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). We found that both the 162 HFS and 10 Hz protocol evoked a lasting increase in the amplitude of the compound fPSP 163 (Figure 1A; with 100Hz: $160.5 \pm 4.2\%$ of fPSP amplitude, p < 0.00001 n = 10; with 10 Hz: 164 Figure 1B; $144.8 \pm 9.9\%$ of fPSP amplitude, p = 0.0034 n = 8). We also observed a significant 165 166 but smaller increase in the compound fPSP when measuring the slope $(136.2 \pm 6.4\%)$ of fPSP slope, p = 0.0009 n = 8). We expected a smaller change in the fPSP when measuring the 167 slope, as most of the inhibition evoked by the stimulation is recruited by the SC. The extra 168 synaptic delay of this feed-forward inhibition onto CA2 PNs (compared to the direct SC 169

transmission) will result in a larger control of the peak rather than of the slope of the fPSP.

171 Therefore, the amplitude of the PSP was used for the analysis of the subsequent experiments.

To address whether a change in excitability of CA3 PNs was responsible for the increase in 172 fEPSP in CA2, we measured the amplitude of the fiber volley (a measure of the number of 173 axons firing an action potential). As shown in figure 1A and B, we did not detect any 174 significant increase in the fiber volley amplitude after HFS (112.0 \pm 5.3%, p = 0.06) or after 175 10 Hz stimulation (105.8 \pm 4.1, p = 0.19). In addition, we also applied HFS in slices that had a 176 177 detached CA3. In this condition, we found a similar increase of the compound fPSP amplitude (Figure 1A, $158.9 \pm 6.2\%$ of fPSP amplitude, n = 4, p = 0.0027 p = 0.84 with uncut slices). 178 179 These data indicate that the long-term increase in the amplitude of the compound fPSP in area 180 CA2 is not due to recurrent activation of CA3 neurons.

We also tested the effect of HFS and 10 Hz stimulation in whole cell current clamp recordings 181 of CA2 PNs to ascertain that the increased amplitude of the fPSP was a result of an increased 182 excitatory/inhibitory ratio onto CA2 PNs. We found that both the HFS and 10 Hz protocols 183 184 triggered a large increase in the PSP recorded in this condition (Figure 1 C,D, $223.4 \pm 14.1\%$ after HFS, n = 9; 195.5 \pm 26.3% after 10 Hz, n = 6). The larger increase in PSP amplitude 185 observed in whole cell as compared to extracellular recording is not surprising as DORs have 186 187 been reported to be expressed in interneurons that target PN soma and proximal dendrites 188 (Erbs et al., 2012). A potential iLTD at somatic inputs will likely have a minor contribution in 189 regulating the size of fPSP amplitude recorded in the dendritic area, but will have a large impact on PSP amplitude measured by whole-cell recordings. Consistent with this idea, we 190 found that fPSPs monitored in the somatic region show a larger increase after HFS compared 191 192 to fPSP monitored simultaneously in the dendritic area (fPSP in soma: 222.3 ± 28.4 % vs

193 fPSP in dendrite: 164.3 ± 7.1 %, n = 5, p =0.047). Thus, our data show different patterns of 194 activity can increase the excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2.

Inhibitory transmission is mandatory for the HFS-induced long-term increase of the SCCA2 PSP.

We hypothesize that the increase in the amplitude of the PSP we measured is the consequence of the previously described DOR-mediated iLTD at inhibitory synapses (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). That is, this increase in amplitude is due to a dis-inhibitory mechanism, and not a result of a potentiation of excitatory transmission. If this prediction is true, then the lasting increase in the compound PSP amplitude can only occur if inhibitory transmission is left intact.

203 To test this hypothesis, we recorded extracellular compound fPSPs in areas CA1 and CA2 in 204 response to HFS of SC inputs either in presence or in the absence of GABA_A and GABA_B 205 receptor antagonists (1µM SR 95531 and 2µM CGP 55845). In area CA1, the HFS induced a 206 small increase in the fPSP amplitude when inhibition was intact (Figure 2A; $128.2 \pm 4.1\%$ of 207 fPSP amplitude, p = 0.0020, n = 5). As expected, this increase was significantly enhanced 208 when the recordings were performed in the continuous presence of GABA receptor antagonists (Figure 2A; $167.9 \pm 13.4\%$, p = 0.0017 and p = 0.0447 with intact inhibition, n = 209 8). In area CA2, a robust and lasting increase of the fPSP was induced with inhibition intact 210 (Figure 2B; $160.5 \pm 4.2\%$ of PSP basal amplitude, p < 0.00001 n = 10). Furthermore, unlike 211 what was observed in area CA1, the HFS did not evoke any lasting change in the fPSP 212 213 amplitude when inhibitory transmission was blocked (Figure 2B; 104.9± 2.3% of EPSP amplitude, p = 0.09 n = 10 and p < 0.0001 with intact inhibition). 214

We also performed the same experiment using whole-cell current clamp recordings of CA2 PNs. Consistent with the extracellular recordings, the HFS induced an increase in the amplitude of the depolarizing response when inhibition was intact (Figure 2C; 207.4 \pm 12.6% of PSP amplitude, p < 0.00001, n = 10), but not in presence of GABA receptor antagonists (Figure 2C; 103.1 \pm 5.7% of EPSP amplitude, p = 0.6997 and p = 0.000006 with intact inhibition, n = 7). Altogether, these results show that in area CA2, intact inhibitory transmission is a requirement for the long-term increase of the compound PSP amplitude.

222 If the increase in the PSP after HFS indeed results from a decrease in inhibition, then it is possible to make the following prediction: pharmacological block of inhibition should 223 224 increase the amplitude of the PSP, and part of this increase should be occluded by a previous HFS. In order to test this, we performed current clamp recordings of CA2 PNs and applied 225 GABA receptor blockers following a HFS of SC inputs, or in control experiments with no 226 tetanus. We found that when the GABA receptor blockers were applied without the HFS, the 227 amplitude of the PSP amplitude was strongly increased (Figure 3A; $472.8 \pm 85.5\%$ of the PSP 228 229 amplitude, p = 0.0026, n = 6), confirming that GABAergic transmission exerts a strong negative control on the PSP amplitude in CA2 PNs (Piskorowski and Chevalevre, 2013). 230 When the GABA receptor blockers were applied after the HFS, the increase in the PSP 231 amplitude was smaller than the effect of the blockers applied without the HFS. (Figure 3A; 232 $185.8 \pm 7.8\%$ of increase of the PSP amplitude, p< 0.00001 and p = 0.0074 compared to 233 234 blockers without HFS, n = 6). However, the final PSP amplitude after the HFS and GABA blocker application was identical to the amplitude of the PSP after GABA blocker application 235 alone (Figure 3A, p = 0.7, n = 6). Altogether, these results indicate that the HFS-induced 236 increase of the PSP amplitude is mediated by a decrease in GABAergic transmission. 237

238	It was previously reported that the SC-CA2 synapse does not express LTP when inhibition is
239	pharmacologically blocked, but also when inhibition is kept intact (Zhao et al., 2007). One
240	potential explanation for the apparent discrepancy with our results could be the difference of
241	chloride used in our internal solution and that of the previous study. The intracellular [Cl ⁻] of
242	our pipette solution is 7 mM, making an E_{Cl} of -77 mV. The previous study used 16 mM
243	(Zhao et al., 2007), with an E_{Cl} of -55 mV, which is more depolarized than the resting
244	membrane potential of the cell. With the higher [Cl ⁻] in the intracellular solution, a decrease
245	in GABAergic transmission would likely not increase the compound PSP amplitude. To test
246	whether the difference in E_{Cl} could explain the discrepancy between our results and those of
247	Zhao et al., we performed whole-cell current clamp recordings of CA2 PNs with an internal
248	solution containing 16 mM Cl ⁻ . We found that a HFS did not evoke an increase in the
249	amplitude of the PSP in CA2 PNs when using high concentration of chloride in the pipette
250	even with intact GABAergic transmission (Figure 3B; $111.0 \pm 16.9\%$ of PSP basal amplitude,
251	p = 0.4103 and $p = 0.006$ with control slices $n = 5$). Finally, in order to directly monitor the
252	compound EPSP/IPSP in pyramidal neurons without affecting intracellular [CI], we
253	performed perforated patch recordings with gramicidin in the pipette. In these conditions, we
254	found that HFS evoked a large increase in the amplitude of the PSP that was not different than
255	the one observed with whole cell recordings (Figure 3C; 200.8 \pm 19.9% of baseline, n = 5, p =
256	0.008 with baseline, $p = 0.7$ compared to whole cell experiments). Altogether, these data
257	strongly indicate that the dis-inhibitory increase in PSP amplitude can occur during
258	physiological conditions.

The long-term increase in the CA2 compound PSP amplitude requires the activation of 259 delta-opioid receptors 260

Our results show that the potentiation of the PSP amplitude in area CA2 induced by a HFS results from a decrease in inhibition, rather than a direct potentiation of excitatory inputs. If iLTD in area CA2 indeed mediates the increase in the compound PSP, both iLTD and the increase in PSP amplitude should share similar pharmacology. Because the induction of iLTD in area CA2 requires the activation of DORs (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013), we tested whether HFS-mediated increase in PSP amplitude is also dependent on activation of these receptors.

First we performed extracellular and whole cell current clamp recordings of CA2 PNs in 268 response to SC stimulation and applied a HFS in the presence of a DOR competitive 269 270 antagonist, ICI 74864. We found that the HFS did not significantly change the CA2 PN PSP amplitude if DORs were not activated during the tetanus (Figure 4A; ICI 74864: 119.6 \pm 271 12.9% of the PSP amplitude, n = 7, p = 0.135 vs. interleaved control: $215.5 \pm 20.6\%$ of the 272 PSP amplitude, p = 0.005, n = 5). Similarly, using extracellular recordings, we found no 273 274 lasting change in the amplitude of the fPSPs following HFS in the presence of DOR 275 antagonists ICI 74864 or Naltrindol (Figure 4B; $108.7\pm4.6\%$ of the fPSP basal amplitude, p = 276 0.0822 and p = 0.0006 with absence of DOR antagonist, n = 8). For these experiments, we used two structurally distinct DOR antagonists (ICI 74864 and Naltrindol). Because the 277 increase in PSP amplitude was blocked with both antagonists, data were pooled together. 278

Together, these data show that DOR activation is needed for induction of the lasting increase in CA2 PN PSP amplitude. We then asked whether activation of DORs would be sufficient to mediate this plasticity. To address this question, we performed extracellular recordings in the SR of area CA2 and applied the specific DOR agonist DPDPE for 15 minutes. We found that the application of DPDPE induced a long-term increase of the fPSP amplitude (Figure 4C, $162.2 \pm 17.7\%$ of baseline, p = 0.02, n = 5). To make sure that this long-term potentiation is due to a DOR-dependent decrease in inhibition and not to a potential direct increase in SC-CA2 excitatory transmission, we performed the same experiment in the presence of GABA receptor blockers. We found that when inhibitory transmission was blocked, DOR activation did not induce any lasting increase in the PSP amplitude at SC-CA2 synapses (Figure 4C; 99.8 \pm 4.2% of baseline, p = 0.71 n = 6). Altogether, these data show that DOR activation is necessary and sufficient to trigger a lasting increase in the amplitude of the PSP between SC and CA2 PNs.

iLTD evoked by SC input stimulation also alters the excitatory/inhibitory balance at distal inputs of CA2 PNs

294 CA2 PNs are strongly activated by distal inputs in *stratum lacunosum molecualare* (SLM). 295 Thus, we wondered whether stimulation of proximal SC-inputs, via a dis-inhibitory mechanism, could also influence distal inputs in SLM. We used two stimulating electrodes to 296 evoke PSPs in SC and SLM inputs, as diagramed in figure 5A, and checked for the 297 independence of the two pathways before starting experiments (see methods). We found that 298 299 tetanic stimulation in SR not only led to a large increase in the PSP amplitude of SC inputs, but also increased the amplitude of PSPs from SLM inputs (Figure 5B; $125.9 \pm 5.9\%$ of 300 baseline, p = 0.0017 with baseline, n = 10). In contrast to SC inputs, SLM inputs have been 301 302 described to express a LTP that is independent of inhibitory transmission (Chevaleyre and 303 Siegelbaum, 2010). Thus, we wondered whether our observed increase in SLM PSP is a result 304 of a direct LTP at these inputs or from a dis-inhibitory mechanism similar to what we have found at SC-CA2 inputs. We repeated the experiment in the presence of GABA receptor 305 306 blockers and found that the tetanic stimulation in SR did not result in any increase of SLM-307 evoked PSPs (Figure 5C; $94.6 \pm 7.9\%$ of baseline, p = 0.52 with baseline, n = 8), consistent 308 with a dis-inhibitory mechanism. We then tested if this dis-inhibitory mechanism at the SLM

pathway also depends on DOR activation by applying the SR tetanus in the presence of Naltrindol. We found that the increase in the PSP amplitude of SLM input was completely blocked under these conditions (Figure 5C; $103.9 \pm 3.4\%$ of baseline, p = 0.31 with baseline, n = 6).

We postulate that this increase in the strength of SLM inputs is a result of the same DORdependent dis-inhibition that increases the strength of SC inputs. To test this hypothesis, we directly monitored IPSCs evoked by stimulation in SR and SLM. We found that a tetanus in SR evokes a lasting and significant iLTD in both SC and SLM inputs onto CA2 PNs (Figure 5D; 77.7 \pm 4.8% of baseline, p = 0.005 for SR IPSCs and 87.0 \pm 2.5% of baseline, p = 0.003, for SLM IPSCs, n = 6).

319 The dis-inhibition at SC-CA2 allows SC inputs to drive firing in CA2 PNs

The large feed-forward inhibition recruited by SC stimulation completely prevents action potential firing in CA2 PNs. However, when inhibition is pharmacologically blocked, SC inputs are able to drive action potential firing in CA2 PNs (Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum, 2010). Therefore, we asked whether the decrease in inhibition following iLTD, and the consequent increase in compound PSP amplitude would sufficiently increase the net excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2 PNs to allow SC to drive firing in CA2 PNs.

To test this hypothesis, we monitored the magnitude of the population spike (PS) in the somatic layer of area CA2 before and after HFS. We found that before HFS, there was no PS or a PS of very small amplitude measurable only at the highest intensity stimulation (30 V). This observation confirms that the stimulation of CA3 SC axons was not capable of driving the firing of PNs in the CA2 region. Interestingly, a large PS was revealed in CA2 after HFS (Figure 6A, B, C; with 20V stimulation: PS amplitude increases from 0.035 \pm 0.024 mV to $0.37 \pm 0.11 \text{mV}$ after HFS, p = 0.01, n = 5; with 30V stimulation: PS amplitude increases from $0.09 \pm 0.04 \text{ mV}$ to $0.59 \pm 0.14 \text{ mV}$ after HFS, p = 0.006, n = 5). This result shows that the plasticity induced by the HFS is sufficient to allow CA3 inputs to evoke firing of cells in CA2.

To determine if the pyramidal cells in area CA2 experience an increased firing probability 336 337 following HFS of SC, we performed whole-cell current clamp recordings of CA2 PNs and measured the probability of AP firing in response to a series of 5 pulses at 100 Hz at different 338 stimulus intensities before and after HFS. Before HFS, no APs were evoked in CA2 PNs. 339 340 However, after HFS, CA2 PNs were able to generate APs in response to SC stimulation. Both 341 the number of APs per train and the proportion of cell firing at least one AP during the train were significantly increased after HFS (Figure 6D, E, F; with 30 V stimulation: from 0 to 1.15 342 \pm 0.3 AP per train after HFS, p = 0.012, n = 6 and from 0 to 80% of cell firing APs after 343 HFS). To ensure that this increase in firing results from the DOR-mediated plasticity at 344 inhibitory synapses evoked by HFS, we performed the same experiment in presence of the 345 346 DOR antagonist ICI 174864 (2 µM). When HFS was applied in presence of the drug, no 347 significant change in action potential firing was evoked by HFS (Figure 6G, H, I; with 30V stimulation: from 0 to 0.15 ± 0.15 AP per train after HFS, p = 0.37, n = 5 and from 0 to 20% 348 of cell firing APs after HFS). These results show that the DOR-dependent dis-inhibitory 349 350 increase in PSP is sufficient to allow CA3 inputs to drive AP firing in CA2 PNs.

351 DISCUSSION

In this study, we have shown that the net excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2 can be persistently increased in an activity dependent manner, even though the CA3-CA2 excitatory transmission does not express a direct LTP. Our results show that the increase in the excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2 is dependent on inhibition and results from a DOR- mediated iLTD at inhibitory synapses. Furthermore, we show that this dis-inhibition also increases the excitatory drive between SLM inputs and CA2. Finally, this plasticity sufficiently increases the net excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2 to allow SC inputs to drive action potential firing in CA2 PNs.

Activity induces a long-term increase of CA3-CA2 transmission via a dis-inhibitory mechanism.

There are several examples of dis-inhibitory plasticity in the hippocampus. For instance, a 362 pairing protocol induces a shift in GABA reversal potential, thereby increasing synaptic 363 strength at CA3-CA1 synapses (Ormond and Woodin, 2009). Similarly, a pairing protocol 364 between distal and proximal inputs strongly facilitates CA3-CA1 synapses, an effect 365 366 dependent on a decrease in feed-forward inhibition recruited by SC synapses (Basu et al., 2013). In both cases, the decrease in inhibition facilitates a plasticity that can occur 367 independently of a change in inhibition. In our study, the increase in excitatory/inhibitory 368 369 balance between CA3 and CA2 is entirely dependent on a dis-inhibition mechanism. Indeed, 370 SC-CA2 excitatory synapses do not express LTP after HFS or other induction protocols (Zhao et al., 2007; Simons et al., 2009; Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum, 2010; Lee et al., 2010). 371 However, we found that HFS or 10Hz stimulation could trigger a lasting increase in the net 372 373 excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2. Several experiments indicate that this increase is 374 dependent on GABAergic transmission and results from a dis-inhibitory mechanism. First, the 375 lasting increase in PSP amplitude was absent when inhibitory transmission was pharmacologically blocked. Second, increasing the reversal potential for Cl⁻ in the recorded 376 377 cell also prevented induction of this plasticity. Third, the increase in the amplitude of the PSP 378 after application of GABA receptor blockers was partially occluded by previous HFS. Fourth, 379 the activity-dependent increase in PSP shares the same pharmacology as the iLTD, i.e., a

strict dependence on DOR activation. And finally, application of a DOR agonist, which induces a lasting decrease in inhibition but does not alter isolated excitatory transmission, was sufficient to evoke the lasting increase in PSP amplitude.

383 Our results are in agreement with several studies showing a lack of plasticity at SC-CA2 synapses when inhibition was blocked. Nonetheless, they seem to differ from a previous study 384 385 where no plasticity was evoked at SC synapses with inhibitory transmission left intact (Zhao et al., 2007). We believe that the recording conditions likely account for this apparent 386 discrepancy. While the previous study used a high concentration of Cl⁻ in the recording 387 solution (16 mM), we used 7 mM of Cl⁻. In accordance with this idea, we found no increase in 388 389 PSP amplitude with 16 mM Cl⁻ in the recording pipette. The precise physiological concentration of intracellular Cl⁻ in CA2 PNs is unknown. However, the fact that we observe 390 an increase in PSP amplitude when intracellular Cl is not perturbed (using gramicidin 391 perforated patch recordings) and when both intracellular ionic composition and resting 392 393 membrane potential are not affected (using extracellular recordings), strongly indicates that 394 the dis-inhibitory-mediated increase in PSP amplitude can occur in an intact system. 395 Furthermore, we are confident that the fPSP we record in CA2 is not contaminated by PSP in CA1 because we do not observe LTP in CA2 in presence of GABA blockers, while a large 396 potentiation is observed with simultaneous fPSP recordings in CA1. 397

398 The dis-inhibitory increase in CA3-CA2 transmission is dependent on DOR

Our results strongly indicate that the DOR-mediated iLTD recently described (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013) is involved in the dis-inhibitory increase in PSP between CA3 and CA2. First, the dis-inhibitory potentiation was abolished in presence of two different selective antagonists of DORs (ICI 74864 and Naltrindol). Second, direct activation of DORs with the selective agonist DPDPE was sufficient to trigger a lasting increase in the PSP amplitude. Therefore, these data show that DORs are necessary and sufficient to increase the PSP amplitude between CA3 and CA2.

Opioids have long been known to increase excitability in the hippocampus and to facilitate the induction of plasticity at excitatory synapses. For instance, activation of mu opioid receptors (MORs) and DORs is required for LTP induction at the perforant path – granual cell synapse in the dentate gyrus (Bramham and Sarvey, 1996) and activation of MORs facilitates LTD induction at the SC-CA1 PN synapse (Wagner et al., 2001). In both cases, the observed increase in excitatory drive is believed to result from a transient decrease in inhibition during the induction protocol, hence facilitating the induction of the plasticity at excitatory inputs.

Our results differ in several ways from the previously reported action of opioids. First, in contrast to the transient effect of DORs on GABAergic transmission in CA1, activation of DORs was shown to induce a lasting depression of inhibition in area CA2 (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). In addition, in contrast to the well-described facilitatory action of opioids on plasticity at excitatory synapses, our results show that DOR activation is mandatory for the change in excitatory/inhibitory balance between CA3 and CA2.

419 Our results show that stimulation in SR increases synaptic strength of both proximal and distal inputs. The increase in the strength of excitatory transmission was dependent on 420 GABAergic transmission. There are several reports of hetero-synaptic plasticity between 421 422 proximal and distal inputs onto hippocampal PNs. For example, the potentiation of SC inputs onto CA1 PNs following theta-burst stimulation of distal dendritic inputs (Han and 423 424 Heinemann, 2013), and potentiation of SC inputs and depression of distal dendritic inputs following low frequency stimulation of distal inputs (Wöhrl et al., 2007). To our knowledge, 425 there is no report of a lasting increase in synaptic strength at distal dendritic input that is 426 induced by stimulation in the proximal dendritic region. The simplest explanation for our 427

results is that stimulation in SR evokes iLTD, and both SC and SLM stimulation recruit the 428 depressed inhibitory inputs. In agreement with this idea are the findings that PV+ basket cells 429 in area CA2 have dendrites that traverse SR and SLM (Mercer et al., 2012; Tukker et al., 430 2013). Furthermore, it was recently shown that synaptic transmission from PV+ interneurons 431 432 in area CA2 is depressed during DOR-mediated iLTD (Piskorowski and Chevaleyre, 2013). 433 Together, our results highlight a new mechanism by which activity in SR can enhance the net excitatory drive of synapses in SLM. This interplay is likely to have important consequences 434 on information transfer by extrahippocampal (SLM) and intrahippocampal (SC) inputs onto 435 CA2 PNs. 436

437

438 Physiological and pathological consequences of the dis-inhibitory action of DOR in CA2

When inhibition is intact, SC EPSPs are very small and fail to induce AP in CA2 PNs. Our 439 results show that following the induction of DOR-mediated iLTD, stimulation of SC inputs 440 can evoke APs in CA2 PNs. This was observed both in whole-cell and extracellular 441 442 recordings, indicating that it can occur when the resting potential of CA2 PNs is not affected. 443 This result is consistent with a previous study using voltage sensitive dyes to study information propagation through the hippocampus that reported that dentate gyrus stimulation 444 resulted in either a fast propagation of activity between CA3 and CA1, or a slower 445 446 propagation successively recruiting CA3, CA2 and CA1 PNs (Sekino et al., 1997). 447 Interestingly, blockade of GABA receptors allowed recruitment of CA2 from slices in which activation of this region was initially not detected. Our results provide a mechanism for the 448 449 result observed in this previous study and show that the dis-inhibitory-dependent recruitment 450 of CA2 can be evoked in an activity-dependent manner. While HFS (100 Hz) might not be 451 very physiological, the activity-dependent increase in PSP amplitude can also be evoked with

452 a 10 Hz stimulation, a frequency that falls within the range of theta oscillations. Furthermore, it was previously shown that the depression of inhibitory transmission underlying the increase 453 in PSP can be evoked with 100 and 10 Hz, but also with a theta burst stimulation protocol. 454 Therefore, we think it is likely that physiological patterns of activity will be efficient to 455 456 trigger the increase in excitatory drive between CA3 and CA2, thus allowing CA2 to be 457 recruited by CA3. We propose that inhibition in area CA2 is acting as a gate to control information flow between CA3 and CA2, and DOR activation can be considered as one of the 458 459 keys to open this gate.

460 While our results suggest that an activity-dependent decrease in inhibition could be 461 relevant for information transfer by allowing SC inputs to activate CA2 PNs, it is likely that a more global decrease in inhibition in CA2 is detrimental for the hippocampus. For instance, a 462 decrease in the density of PV+ interneurons has been reported to occur uniquely in area CA2 463 during schizophrenia (Knable et al., 2004). Similarly, the density of PV+ cells is considerably 464 465 reduced in CA2 during epilepsy (Andrioli et al., 2007) and physiological recordings in the 466 hippocampi of human epileptic patients revealed an important decrease (Wittner et al., 2009) 467 or a complete loss of inhibition onto CA2 PNs (Williamson and Spencer, 1994). Our results 468 provide a potential explanation for why a persistent decrease in the inhibitory gate in CA2 could alter the tri-synaptic circuit during schizophrenia (Benes, 1999), and why CA2 might be 469 470 the locus of epileptiform activity generation both in rodents (Knowles et al., 1987) and in 471 humans (Wittner et al., 2009).

In summary, our results show that while there is no LTP at the SC-CA2 PN synapse, the excitatory/inhibitory balance can be persistently shifted toward excitation in an activitydependent manner through a dis-inhibition mechanism. Interestingly, this dis-inhibition results in an increase in net excitatory drive at both SC inputs as well as distal dendritic inputs. Furthermore, our results reveal that the decrease in inhibitory transmission sufficiently
increases the excitatory drive from SC inputs to allow recruitment of CA2 by CA3 PNs. Thus,
our data add complexity to the hippocampal circuitry and reveal how CA2 PNs can be
engaged by intra-hippocampal inputs following activity.

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570 FIGURE LEGENDS

571 Figure 1: HFS and 10 Hz stimulations induce a long-term increase of SC-CA2 PSP 572 amplitude.

Time course of the average normalized PSP amplitude obtained by extracellular recording (A, 573 B) in CA2 SR or whole-cell current clamp recording (C, D) of CA2 PNs, in response to SC 574 stimulation. Both a HFS protocol (two sets of 100 pulses at 100 Hz; A: p < 0.00001, n = 10; 575 C: p = 0.00018, n = 9) and a 10 Hz protocol (two sets of 100 pulses at 10 Hz; B: p = 0.0009, n 576 = 8; D: p = 0.01596, n = 6) induce a long-term increase in the SC PSP amplitude in CA2. The 577 578 fiber volley (FV, a measure of the number of axons firing an action potential) was not 579 significantly increased after HFS (A; p = 0.06) or 10Hz stimulation (B; p = 0.19). Panel A also shows that making a cut between CA3 and CA2 does not affect the magnitude of the 580 potentiation evoked by HFS (p = 0.59 with uncut slices, n = 5). Upper right-hand corner in all 581 582 panels: averaged PSP traces of a representative experiment corresponding to time points 583 before (a) and 60 minutes (b) (A, B) or 40 minutes (C, D) after the stimulation protocol. Error

584 bars show SEM in all panels.

585

586 Figure 2: The HFS-induced long-term potentiation of the PSP in CA2 is dependent on

587 GABAergic transmission.

588 (A) Time course of average normalized fPSP amplitude recorded in CA1 SR in response to 589 SC stimulation, showing that the HFS-induced increase in PSP amplitude in control conditions (open circles, p = 0.0020, n = 5) was facilitated in continuous presence of the 590 GABA A and B receptor antagonists, 1μ M SR 95531 and 2μ M CGP 55845 (filled circles, p = 591 0.0017, n = 8). (B, C) In CA2, HFS does not trigger long-lasting increase in the SC PSP 592 593 amplitude in continuous presence of GABA receptor antagonists (filled circles, B: extracellular recordings, p = 0.09, n = 10; C: whole cell recording, p = 0.6997, n = 10), but 594 evokes a large and lasting increase in the PSP amplitude in control experiments (open circles, 595 B: extracellular recordings, p < 0.00001, n = 10; C: whole cell recording, p < 0.00001, n =596 10). In all panels, averaged PSP traces corresponding to the time points before (a) and after 597 598 (b) HFS are shown on the right. Error bars show SEM in all panels.

599

Figure 3: HFS induces a long-term increase of the PSP amplitude in CA2 via a disinhibition mechanism.

(A) Two representative examples of normalized PSP time course from CA2 PN whole-cell recordings illustrating how a HFS partially occludes the effect of GABAA and GABAB receptor blocker application on PSP amplitude. Top right: PSP traces corresponding to the time points before (a), after HFS (b) and after application of GABA receptor blockers (c), with or without HFS. Bottom right: summary histograms showing the percentage of increase in the PSP amplitude induced by HFS applied alone (1), GABA receptor blocker application 608 after HFS (2), HFS plus GABA blockers (1+2) and GABA blockers applied without previous HFS (3). (B) Normalized CA2 PN SC PSPs recorded with either 7 mM (open circles) or 16 609 mM (closed circles) Cl- in the pipette solution. A HFS (arrow at time 0) fails to induce a long-610 lasting increase PSP amplitude when high concentration of chloride is used in the pipette 611 612 solution (filled circled, p = 0.4103, n = 5) but evokes normal long-term potentiation in control experiments (open circles, p = 0.0047, n = 5). (C) Summary graph of experiments performed 613 using the gramicidin-perforated patch-recording configuration. HFS triggers an increase in 614 PSP amplitude (p = 0.008, n = 5) similar to the one observed using whole-cell recording 615 configuration. 616

617

Figure 4: The increase in SC PSP amplitude in CA2 PNs is dependent on DORactivation.

(A) A HFS does not trigger a long-term increase of the PSP amplitude recorded in CA2 PNs 620 in the presence of 2 μ M of the DOR competitive antagonist, ICI 174864 (filled circles, n = 7, 621 622 p = 0.135) but induces a normal long-term increase in the PSP magnitude in interleaved control experiments (open circles, p = 0.005, n = 5). (B) Time course of normalized fPSP 623 amplitude recorded in CA2 SR showing how the application of a DOR antagonist (ICI 624 174864 or Naltrindol 0.1μ M) during HFS (filled circles, p = 0.0822 and p = 0.0006 with 625 626 absence of ICI 74864, n = 8) prevented the induction of a lasting increase of the fPSP amplitude observed in absence of drug application (open circle). Averaged PSP traces 627 corresponding to the time points before (a) and after (b) HFS performed in control conditions 628 (top) or in the presence of ICI 174864 (bottom) are shown on the right. (C) Application of 0.5 629 630 μ M of a DOR-selective agonist (DPDPE) is sufficient to induce a long lasting increase in the 631 fPSP amplitude recorded in SR of CA2 in the absence (open circles, p = 0.02, n = 5) but not 632 in the presence (filled circles, p = 0.55679, n = 6) of GABAA and GABAB receptor blockers.

Right, example fPSP traces corresponding to the time points before (a) and after (b)
application of DPDPE in absence (top) or in continuous presence (bottom) of the GABAA
and GABAB receptor blockers. Error bars show SEM in all panels.

636

Figure 5: Stimulation in SR induces a heterosynaptic iLTD and increases distal excitatory drive onto CA2 PN.

(A) Cartoon illustrating the arrangement of the stimulating recording electrodes in SR and 639 SLM. (B) Average PSP amplitudes of SR (open circles) and SLM (closed circles) inputs 640 following HFS stimulation in SR. Note that both SR and SLM inputs are potentiated 641 642 following the HFS (p = 0.00035 for SR inputs, p = 0.0017 for SLM inputs, n = 10), but only SR inputs show a rapid post-tetanic increase in amplitude. Top, averaged PSP traces 643 corresponding to the time points before (a) and after (b) HFS. (C) The increase in distally 644 evoked PSP following stimulation in SR was blocked by GABAA and GABAB receptor 645 646 blockers (open circles, p = 0.52, n = 8) and by the DOR antagonist naltrindol (grey circles, p 647 = 0.31, n = 6). (D) Average amplitude of IPSCs evoked by stimulation in SR and SLM 648 following HFS in SR. Note that both inputs express an inhibitory LTD following HFS in SR (p = 0.006 for SR inputs, p = 0.003 for SLM inputs, n = 6).649

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651 Figure 6: HFS in SR allows CA3 inputs to evoke action potential firing in CA2 PNs.

(A) Traces of extracellular recordings in the CA2 pyramidal layer in response to a 20V stimulation of SC inputs, before (grey traces) and after a HFS (black traces), illustrating how HFS induces an increase in the population spike (PS) amplitude (negative peak). (B) Average PS amplitude as a function of stimulation intensity before (open circle) and after (filled circle) HFS (with 20V stimulation: p = 0.01, n = 5; with 30V stimulation: p = 0.006, n = 5). (C)

657	Time course of average normalized PS amplitude recorded in CA2 pyramidal layer in
658	response to a 20V stimulation of SC inputs, showing a long lasting increase in PS amplitude
659	after HFS (p=0.01, n=5). (D) Traces of whole-cell current clamp recordings in a CA2
660	pyramidal cell in response to a train of stimulations (5 pulses at 100Hz) of SC inputs,
661	illustrating how APs can be evoked in CA2 neurons after (black traces) but not before HFS
662	(grey traces). (E) Average number of APs per train at different stimulation intensities,
663	showing how a 5 pulse train at 100Hz of the SC inputs does not trigger APs in CA2 PNs
664	before HFS (open circles) but induces APs after HFS (filled circles, with 30 V stimulation:
665	from 0 to 1.15 ± 0.3 AP per train after HFS, $p = 0.012$, $n = 6$). (F) A HFS increases the
666	percentage of CA2 PNs firing at least one AP during the train (with 30V stimulation: from 0%
667	to 80% of cell firing APs). (G) Traces of whole-cell current clamp recordings in a CA2 PN in
668	response to a stimulation train (5 pulses at 100Hz) of SC inputs in the presence of the DOR
669	antagonist ICI 174864 (2 μ M), illustrating how application of ICI 174864 prevents the
670	induction of APs in CA2 PNs after HFS (black traces). (H) Average number of APs per train
671	at different stimulation intensities in the presence of the DOR antagonist before (open circles,
672	with 0 to 30V stimulations: 0 AP per train) and after HFS (filled circles, with 30 V
673	stimulation: 0.15 ± 0.15 AP per train after HFS, $p = 0.37$, $n = 5$). (I) In presence of ICI
674	174864 HFS does not induce a large increase of the percentage of CA2 PNs firing at least one
675	AP during the train (with10V stimulation: 0% of cell firing APs before and after HFS; with
676	20V and 30V stimulation: from 0% to 20% of cell firing APs). Error bars show SEM in all
677	panels.











