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Complementary Theta Resonance Filtering by Two Spatially Segregated Mechanisms in CA1 Hippocampal Pyramidal Neurons

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Synaptic input to a neuron may undergo various filtering steps, both locally and during transmission to the soma. Using simultaneous whole-cell recordings from soma and apical dendrites from rat CA1 hippocampal pyramidal cells, and biophysically detailed modeling, we found two complementary resonance (bandpass) filters of subthreshold voltage signals. Both filters favor signals in the theta (3–12 Hz) frequency range, but have opposite location, direction, and voltage dependencies: (1) dendritic H-resonance, caused by h/HCN-channels, filters signals propagating from soma to dendrite when the membrane potential is close to rest; and (2) somatic M-resonance, caused by M/Kv7/KCNQ and persistent Na⁺ (NaP) channels, filters signals propagating from dendrite to soma when the membrane potential approaches spike threshold. Hippocampal pyramidal cells participate in theta network oscillations during behavior, and we suggest that that these dual, polarized theta resonance mechanisms may convey voltage-dependent tuning of theta-mediated neural coding in the entorhinal/hippocampal system during locomotion, spatial navigation, memory, and sleep.

Introduction

Cortical neurons process synaptic inputs spanning a wide range of frequencies, arising from irregular spike trains as well as cortical rhythms (Buzsáki and Draguhn, 2004; Buzsáki, 2006). For example, during spatial navigation, exploration, learning, and rapid eye movement (REM) sleep, the hippocampal and entorhinal cortex (EC) networks oscillate at theta frequency, 3–12 Hz (Buzsáki, 2002). Such theta oscillations occur in all mammals examined, including humans, and are probably essential for neural coding (O'Keefe and Recce, 1993; Kahana et al., 1999; Kahana et al., 2001; Buzsáki, 2002; Cantero et al., 2003; Mehta et al., 2002).

Network activity, including oscillations, arises from interplay between synaptic network properties and intrinsic conductances of the participating neurons. Neurons express a variety of voltagedependent conductances that can produce resonance and intrin-

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sic oscillations, thus enhancing responses to input of certain frequencies (Hutcheon and Yarom, 2000). In electrical terms, these neurons respond like bandpass filters. To understand the functional relevance of these properties, it is essential to determine the frequency dependence of the dendrosomatic integration and transmission. To date, however, few studies have directly explored the frequency dependence of dendrite-to-soma transmission (Ulrich, 2002; Cook et al., 2007; Narayanan and Johnston, 2007).

In this study, we explored these properties in CA1 pyramidal neurons of the rat by using simultaneous somatic and dendritic recordings in conjunction with biophysically detailed computational modeling. We identified two separate, segregated theta resonator mechanisms within these cells: (1) a perisomatic M-resonance mechanism operating only at depolarized potentials, generated by an M-type slow potassium current (mediated by M-channels, also called Kv7, or KCNQ) and strengthened by a persistent Na⁺ current (I_{NaP}), and (2) a distal dendritic H-resonance mechanism, dominating at hyperpolarized levels and generated by h-current (HCN channels) (Hu et al., 2002). We show that these two resonator mechanisms are not only spatially segregated, they are also virtually mirror images of each other, performing complementary, direction- and voltage-dependent forms of theta bandpass filtering of inputs. When M-resonance filtering is engaged at depolarized potentials, this bandpass filter affects only dendrite-to-soma transmission. Conversely, when hyperpolarized potentials activate H-resonance filtering, soma-todendrite transmission is selectively affected.

The complementary mechanisms are well positioned to impact postsynaptic frequency selectivity, integration, and trans-

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Figure 1. Resonance recorded near the resting membrane potential (approximately -78 mV) is stronger in the dendrites than in the soma because of h-channels. *A*, *B*, Simultaneous whole-cell recording from soma and dendrite (distance to soma: 210 μ m). The somatic response (*A*) to somatic I_{ZAP} injection (0 – 15 Hz, 0.3 nA peak to peak, lower trace) and the dendritic response (*B*) to dendritic I_{ZAP} injection are shown. The diagram shows the triple patch recording configuration. *C*, *D*, Voltage responses in soma and dendrite after bath application of 10 μ m ZD7288 (same cell and I_{ZAP} as in *A* and *B*). *E*, *F*, Somatic (blue) and dendritic (red) impedance profiles from the recordings in *A* and *C* and in *B* and *D*, respectively. *G–I*, Summary comparing the local somatic (blue) and dendrite (red) resonance strength (*Q* value, shown in *G*), resonance frequency (*H*), and local peak impedance (*I*) before (n =8) and after (n = 5) ZD7288 application. Note that ZD7288 abolished all resonance and equalized the impedance properties in soma and dendrites. All data were obtained from simultaneous soma and dendrite recordings: average distance between recording sites: 202 ± 13 μ m. *G*, *Q* values: control: soma: 1.06 ± 0.02, dendrite: 1.13 ± 0.02; ZD7288: soma: 1.0, dendrite: 1.0 H, Resonance frequency: control: soma: 3.5 ± 0.4 Hz, dendrite: 42.9 ± 3.7 M\Omega; ZD7288: soma: 72.9 ± 14.5 M\Omega, dendrite: 70.2 ± 10.7 M\Omega. **p < 0.01; *0.01 < p < 0.05; NS, p > 0.05.

duction, by multistep bandpass filtering of synaptic input, thus locally at the site of dendritic input (Leung and Yu, 1998; Hu et al., 2002; Narayanan and Johnston, 2007), during signal propagation from dendrites to the soma (Ulrich, 2002), and finally during backpropagation of somatic signals to the dendrites. Since the filters are tuned to the theta frequency band, both are suited to participate in the theta network rhythm processing in the entorhinal/hippocampal system (Buzsáki, 2002). Indeed, the complementary spatial arrangement and function of the two resonators seems to fit intriguingly well with models of hippocampal theta oscillations, in which pyramidal cell somata are rhythmically hyperpolarized by theta-modulated inhibitory input while their apical dendrites are rhythmically depolarized by excitatory input from EC (Buzsáki, 2002). Furthermore, the segregated dual resonance described here fit well with the proposed spatially separated dual oscillator models of place fields, grid fields, and phase precession in the entorhinal/hippocampal network during exploration, spatial navigation, learning, and memory (Lengyel et al., 2003; Burgess et al., 2007; Giocomo et al., 2007).

The main data and conclusions of this study were presented at a conference two years ago (Hu et al., 2007b).

Materials and Methods

Slice preparation. Male Wistar rats (6-10 weeks) were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of Equithesin (3 ml/kg body weight), before being perfused transcardially with ice-cold (\sim 4°C) cutting solution (in mM): 230 sucrose, 25 NaHCO₃, 1.25 KCl, 1.25 KH₂PO₄, 10 MgCl₂, 1.0 CaCl₂, and 16 glucose, saturated with 95% O2-5% CO2. After decapitation, hippocampal horizontal slices were cut in the same solution used for perfusion with a Vibratome 3000 slicer. Slices were incubated at ~35°C for 30 min and subsequently stored at room temperature (20-25°C) in artificial CSF (aCSF) containing the following (in mM): 125 NaCl, 25 NaHCO₃, 1.25 KCl, 1.25 KH₂PO₄, 1.0 MgCl₂, 1.0 CaCl₂, and 16 glucose, saturated with 95% O2-5% CO2. During recording, slices were submerged in aCSF with 2.0 mM CaCl₂ at 30-35°C (<0.5°C variation within each recording).

Whole-cell patch-clamp recording. Wholecell patch-clamp recordings were obtained from soma or apical dendrite of visually identified CA1 pyramidal neurons, viewed with an upright microscope with IR-DIC optics (Olympus, BX50). The diagram in Figure 1 shows the triple patch recording configuration that was used in most of the experiments of this study (i.e., in Figs. 1, 3, 6, 7 and supplemental Figs. S1, S2, S4, S7a,b, available at www. jneurosci.org as supplemental material). The intracellular solution contained the following (in mM): 140 KMeSO₄ (or 140 K-gluconate), 10 HEPES, 2 ATP disodium salt, 0.4 GTP sodium salt hydrate, 1.0 MgCl₂, 10 phosphocreatine disodium salt hydrate, 10 inositol, and 0.1 EGTA (pH adjusted to 7.3), giving a pipette resistance of 2–5 M Ω for somatic recordings and $8-12 \text{ M}\Omega$ for dendritic recordings. The maximal series resistance that we accepted in this study was 90 M Ω . Thus, recordings with higher series resistance were discarded. The

resting potential was -70.0 ± 1.4 mV in the soma and -71.5 ± 1.6 mV in the dendrite (n = 31 simultaneous recordings). The somatic action potential threshold was -50.8 ± 1.7 mV (determined from a subset of recorded cells, n = 8). To trace the apical dendrite, the soma was patched with 100 μ M Alexa 488 in the patch pipette. After 3–5 min, the slice was illuminated at a wavelength of 492 nm (Polychrome IV, T.I.L.L. Photonics) and the fluorescence imaged with a CCD camera (VX45 Optronics). The visualized apical dendrite was subsequently patched under IR-DIC optics. Series resistance was 15–90 M Ω , and all potentials were corrected for the junction potential (-8 to -10 mV). Current-clamp recordings were obtained with two Dagan BVC 700A amplifiers or an additional Multiclamp amplifier (Molecular Devices).

Data acquisition and analysis. The data were acquired with pClamp 9 (Molecular Devices) at a sampling rate of 0.5–20 kHz, measured, and plotted with pClamp 9 and Origin 7 (Microcal). Local somatic or dendritic impedance was obtained by injecting I_{ZAP} in soma and dendrite, respectively, and the impedance amplitude profile (ZAP) was calculated by dividing the magnitude of the fast Fourier transform (referred to hereafter as "FFT") of the voltage (*V*) by the FFT of the injected current (I_{ZAP}) [ZAP = FFT(*V*)/FFT(I_{ZAP})]. I_{ZAP} increased linearly from 0 to 15 Hz in 20 s. By exploring how resonance properties depended on the I_{ZAP}

amplitude with the model, we found that changes in IZAP that produced voltage responses from 0.5 to 10 mV (peak to peak) made little difference in the results as long as the peak voltages were at least 2-3 mV below the spike threshold. The lowest frequency analyzed was 1 Hz to avoid boundary artifacts of the fast Fourier transformation. $I_{\rm ZAP}$ amplitude at depolarized potentials was adjusted to keep the voltage responses below ~5 mV, to avoid spiking. The frequency-dependent voltage attenuation was calculated as follow: during simultaneous dendritic and somatic recordings I_{ZAP} was injected in either the soma or the dendrite and the local and propagated voltage response recorded. The attenuation (percentage) was then calculated as follows: 100 - $[FFT(V_{propagated})/FFT(V_{local}) \times 100]$. The transfer impedance was obtained during dual somatic and dendritic recordings by injecting I_{ZAP} in either soma or dendrite and calculating the ratio

FFT($V_{\text{propagated}}$)/FFT(I_{ZAP}). Statistics. Two-tailed Student's t test and nonparametric tests (Wilcoxon signed-rank test or Mann–Whitney test) were used for statistical analysis when appropriate ($\alpha = 0.05$). Values are expressed as mean \pm SEM.

Chemicals. XE991 ([10,10-bis(4-pyridinylmethyl)-9(10*H*)-antracenone]) was obtained from DuPont pharmaceutical company and Neuro-Search. TTX was obtained from Alomone Labs. Alexa 488 was purchased from Invitrogen. The remaining chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Norway.

We showed previously that ZD7288 did not affect somatic M-resonance when this compound was bath applied for <15 min (Hu et al., 2002). However, there is evidence that

long-lasting application of ZD7288 (for >20 min) has h-currentindependent effects on synaptic transmission at hippocampal mossy fiber synapses (Chevaleyre and Castillo, 2002). Therefore, to avoid possible unknown side effects of long-lasting ZD7288 applications, we restricted the application time to <15 min (see Figs. 1, 6, and supplemental Fig. S2, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). Since this time window was often too short for a clear and stable isolation of M-resonance followed by M-channel blockade by XE991, we chose to use CsCl instead of ZD7288 in experiments in which it was necessary to block the h-current for longer than 15 min, such as in Figure 3.

Computational modeling. In the supplemental material (available at www.jneurosci.org), we describe the CA1 pyramidal neuron model in detail. Briefly, computer simulations were performed using the Surf-Hippo simulator, version 3.5a (Graham, 2004). For integrating the circuit equations, Surf-Hippo uses a variant of the Crank Nicholson method as described by Hines (1984). The variable time-step method was used to speed up the simulations (Borg-Graham, 2000), with a maximum voltage error criterion of 0.05 mV. We used four reconstructed cells from the Duke/Southampton database, named n416, n418, n420, and n120, and one from the laboratory of David Amaral (Center for Neuroscience, University of California, Davis, CA), named c12861. Only the results from simulations with cell n120 are shown in the figures. However, simulations with all other morphologies gave qualitatively similar results. Since the model was used to explore only the subthreshold voltage regime, only the following ion channels active in the subthreshold voltage range were included to speed up the simulations: M-current (I_M), h-current (I_h) , persistent Na⁺ current (I_{NaP}) , A-current (I_A) , a T-type Ca^{2+} current (I_{CaT}), D-current (I_D), a fast delayed rectifier type K⁺ current (I_K) , and a K⁺ leak current (I_{leak}) . The resting potential in the



Figure 2. Resonance recorded close to the spike threshold (approximately -56 mV) is stronger in the soma than in the dendrites. *A*–*C*, Local somatic (blue) and dendritic (red) whole-cell voltage responses to I_{ZAP} were obtained in the following sequence from the same cell: soma and proximal dendrite were simultaneously patched (distance to soma: 161μ m, I_{ZAP} , 100 pA peak to peak) (*A*); both pipettes were retracted and the same dendrite was repatched more distally (distance to soma: 378μ m, I_{ZAP} is 100 and 150 pA in left and right panels, respectively) (*B*); and the dendritic pipette was retracted and the soma was repatched (I_{ZAP} ; 150 pA) (*C*). *D*–*F*, Impedance profiles of the respective responses shown above, in *A*–*C*. *G*–*I*, Summary graphs for all recorded cells, comparing local somatic and dendritic *Q* values (*G*, soma: 1.15 ± 0.02 , dendrite: 1.03 ± 0.02), resonance frequency (*H*, soma: 3.4 ± 0.27 Hz, dendrite: 2.0 ± 0.5 Hz), and peak impedance (*I*, soma: 63.2 ± 4.8 MΩ, dendrite: 65.9 ± 11.8 MΩ). Somatic recordings: n = 10, dendritic recordings: n = 6, average dendritic recording distance: $186 \pm 40 \mu$ m from the soma. **p < 0.01; *0.01 ; NS, <math>p > 0.05.

soma and dendrite was -69 mV and -70 mV, respectively, and the threshold was approximately -57 mV.

Results

Neuronal resonance properties are determined by the interplay between passive membrane properties and voltage-dependent conductances. Since these active conductances are distributed nonuniformly within CA1 pyramidal neurons (Magee, 1998; Devaux et al., 2004; Vervaeke et al., 2006a; Hu et al., 2007a; Shah et al., 2008), the resonance properties between different subcellular compartments may differ. We tested this hypothesis by simultaneous triple or dual whole-cell recording from the soma and apical dendrite of CA1 pyramidal cells in rat hippocampal slices. In most experiments, we used triple patching with one somatic and two separate dendritic electrodes (separation <20 μ m), one recording membrane potential, the other injecting current, to avoid series resistance artifacts (see Fig. 1 diagram, and Materials and Methods).

Since M- and h-currents may underlie theta-resonance expressed at different membrane potentials (Hu et al., 2002), we compared the resonance properties of the different cellular compartments both (1) near the resting potential, as determined non-invasively in slices (approximately -78 mV) (Fricker et al., 1999); and (2) at a depolarized level near the spike threshold (approximately -55 mV). Note that -78 mV, which is hyperpolarized relative to the prevailing membrane potential during *in vivo* activity (Kamondi et al., 1998; Hahn et al., 2007), was recorded in the soma (Fricker et al., 1999).



Figure 3. Resonance recorded close to the spike threshold (approximately -56 mV) is stronger in the soma than in the dendrites because of M-channels. *A*, *B*, Simultaneous whole-cell recording from soma and dendrite (distance to soma: 130 μ m) in the presence of 1 μ m TTX. The soma response (*A*) to somatic I_{ZAP} injection (0 -15 Hz, 0.4 nA peak to peak, lower trace) and the dendritic response (*B*) to dendritic I_{ZAP} injection are shown. *C*, *D*, Voltage responses in soma and dendrite after bath application of 10 μ m XE991 (same cell and I_{ZAP} as in *A* and *B*). *E*, *F*, Somatic (blue) and dendritic (red) impedance profiles from the recordings in *A* and *C* and in *B* and *D*, respectively. *G*–*I*, Summary graphs for all recorded cells, comparing the local somatic (blue) and dendritic (red) resonance (*Q* value (*G*), resonance frequency (*H*), and local peak impedance: (1) before (n = 7, average dendritic recording distance: 125 $\pm 7 \mu$ m) and after (n = 5, average dendritic recording distance: 137 $\pm 8 \mu$ m) XE991 application. Note that XE991 abolished all resonance and equalized the impedance properties in soma and dendrites. All data were obtained from simultaneous soma and dendrite recordings. *G*, *Q* values: control: soma: 1.07 ± 0.02 , dendrite: 1.0 ± 2 , 0.01; XE991: soma: 1.0, dendrite: 1.0. *H*, Resonance frequency: control: soma: 4.0 ± 0.6 Hz, dendrite: 2.0 ± 0.4 Hz; XE991: soma: 62.2 ± 4.0 M Ω , dendrite: 57.5 ± 3.8 M Ω . **p < 0.01; *0.01 ; NS, <math>p > 0.05.

As described below, our recordings revealed two complementary theta resonance mechanisms within each cell: a dendritic resonator operating near the resting potential, and a perisomatic resonator operating near the spike threshold.

Dendritic resonance at resting potential mediated by h-channels

To study resonance, we determined the impedance amplitude profile (ZAP, see Materials and Methods) by injecting an oscillating current of constant amplitude and linearly increasing frequency (I_{ZAP}) (Hutcheon and Yarom, 2000), and measured the voltage response. We adjusted the sinusoidal current amplitude to evoke voltage responses that resemble intracellular theta-like voltage oscillations occurring *in vivo*, which have been reported to be up to 5–10 mV in amplitude (Kamondi et al., 1998; Lee et al., 2006). The resonance strength is expressed as the Q value, obtained by dividing the impedance at the peak resonance frequency with the impedance at 1 Hz (the lowest tested frequency). When we kept the background membrane potential close to -78mV with steady current (Fig. 1), both the soma and the dendrite displayed resonance in response to locally injected I_{ZAP} (Fig. 1*A*, *B*), indicated by a peak in the ZAP at theta frequencies (4–8 Hz) (Fig. 1*E*, *F*, control). The resonance in the dendrite was stronger (i.e., larger *Q* value) (Fig. 1*G*, control; see also supplemental Fig. S1*A*, available at www. jneurosci.org as supplemental material), with a higher resonance frequency (Fig. 1*H*, control) but lower peak impedance (Fig. 1*I*, control) than the soma. Thus, near the resting potential, the dendrites are "leakier" but display stronger resonance than the soma.

We hypothesized that these differences between dendrites and soma might be caused by the far higher h-channel density in the distal dendrites (Magee, 1998; Lörincz et al., 2002). Indeed, we found that bath application of the h-channel blocker ZD7288 (10 μ M) abolished both the somatic and the dendritic resonance at approximately -78 mV, as indicated by a shift of the peak voltage response to the lowest frequency tested (Fig. 1C-F; supplemental Fig. S2A, available at www. ineurosci.org as supplemental material). Thus, ZD7288 made the local filtering properties of the soma and dendrite equal (Fig. 1E-H). In parallel, ZD7288 increased the peak impedance, both in the soma and in the dendrite (Fig. 11). Supplemental Figure S2 (available at www. jneurosci.org as supplemental material) shows that the application of ZD7288 had a significant effect on the Q value, resonance frequency, and peak impedance in both soma and dendrite. These results indicate that the differences in somatic versus dendritic resonance near the resting potential are due to different subcellular h-channel densities.

Somatic resonance close to the spike threshold mediated by M-channels

Next, we compared resonance in the soma and dendrites at depolarized potentials (approximately -56 mV) near the spike threshold (Fig. 2). During simultaneous recording from the soma and a relatively proximal site in the dendrite (distance to soma: 161 μ m), somatic and dendritic I_{ZAP} injections evoked similar local voltage responses (Fig. 2A, D). To test the properties of the distal dendrite, we then retracted both recording pipettes and repatched the apical dendrite of the same neuron at a more distal site (distance: 378 μ m) (Fig. 2B). Injection of the same I_{ZAP} (100 pA) at the same holding potential as before now failed to induce any resonance (Fig. 2*B*,*E*, left), indicating distance dependence. Since M-channels, which generate M-resonance at depolarized potentials (Hu et al., 2002), are largely axosomatic (Devaux et al., 2004; Hu et al., 2007a; Shah et al., 2008), the absence of resonance might be caused by dendrite-to-soma voltage attenuation, giving insufficient somatic depolarization during dendritic I_{ZAP} injection. To test this idea, we injected a stronger I_{ZAP} (150 pA) (Fig. 2B, E, right), almost evoking backpropagating spikes.

Still, no detectable resonance was evoked, again indicating genuine distance dependence. To also test whether the absence of M-resonance in the distal dendrite might be caused by run-down of M-current during whole-cell recording, we repatched the soma of the same neuron and repeated I_{ZAP} . Again, the soma displayed clear resonance (Fig. 2C,F). Overall, at depolarized potentials, somatic resonance was stronger than dendritic resonance (see also supplemental Fig. S1B, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material), with a higher resonance frequency (Fig. 2H). However, there was no significant difference in peak impedance between the soma and the dendrite at this potential (Fig. 21).

The difference between somatic and dendritic theta resonance at approximately -56 mV might be due to the higher density of M and/or persistent Na⁺ (NaP) currents near the soma compared with the dendrite (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Devaux et al., 2004; Astman et al., 2006; Vervaeke et al., 2006b; Hu et al., 2007a; Kole et al., 2008; Shah et al., 2008). To test this hypothesis, we used the M-channel blocker XE991 while $I_{\rm h}$ was blocked by 3 mM CsCl, to avoid contamination from H-resonance (Fig. 3).

After application of XE991, the neurons often fired spontaneous spikes (Shah et al., 2008), thus distorting the responses to IZAP. To avoid spiking, it was often necessary to reduce $I_{\rm ZAP}$ to <15% of the control level (supplemental Fig. S3, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). However, the voltage responses at high frequencies (>8 Hz) then often became so small (<1 mV) that they were distorted by the intrinsic noise and the typical spontaneous oscillations in these cells (Leung and Yim, 1991) (supplemental Fig. S3, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material), thus precluding accurate analysis of membrane impedance. To improve the signal-to-noise ratio while testing the effects of XE991, we used TTX (1 μ M) to block spiking and allow the amplitude of the voltage responses to be increased (Figs. 3, 7; supplemental Figs. S4, S7B, available at www.jneurosci. org as supplemental material).

Figure 3 illustrates local somatic and dendritic resonance at depolarized membrane potentials in the presence of TTX and CsCl. The soma showed stronger local resonance (Fig. 3*A*,*B*,*E*–*G*, control) and

higher local resonance frequency (Fig. 3 *E*, *F*,*H*, control) than the dendrite in response to I_{ZAP} . Hence, the resonance differences at depolarized potentials were unlikely to be caused by different I_{NaP} densities in soma and dendrite, since this current was blocked by

TTX, but were probably due to the higher M-channel density near the soma.

Application of XE991 abolished the resonance in both the soma and dendrite at approximately -55 mV (Fig. 3*C*–*F*). Sup-



Figure 4. Simulations with a CA1 pyramidal cell model confirmed h- and M-channel-dependent and location-dependent resonance properties near the resting potential and near the spike threshold. A, B, I_{7AP} (0-16 Hz, 18 pA peak to peak) was applied at either the soma (A, blue) or the dendrite (B, red, \sim 200 μ m from the soma) with (upper traces) or without (lower traces) $I_{\rm b}$. The membrane potential was set to approximately -78 mV with steady current. The hyperpolarization due to blocking of $I_{\rm h}$ was compensated with steady current. C, D, The impedance profiles of the soma and dendrites from the simulations in A and B with or without I_n. E-G, Summary of the local somatic and dendritic Q values (E), resonance frequency (F), and peak impedance (G), with (control) and without $I_{\rm h}$. Note that blocking of $I_{\rm h}$ abolished all resonance and equalized the impedance properties of soma and dendrite. *E*, *Q* values: control: soma: 1.17, dendrite: 1.27; no *I*_h: soma: 1.0, dendrite: 1.0. *F*, Resonance frequency: control: soma: 3.6 Hz, dendrite: 4.7 Hz; no /h; soma: 1.0 Hz, dendrite: 1.0 Hz. G, Peak local impedance: control: soma: 61 MΩ, dendrite: 52 MΩ; no /h; soma: 91 M Ω , dendrite: 89 M Ω . *H*, *I*, *I*_{ZAP} (0–16 Hz, 18 pA peak to peak) was applied either at the soma (blue) or dendrite (red, \sim 200 μ m from the soma) with (upper traces) or without I_M (lower traces). The membrane potential was set to approximately -60 mV with steady current. The depolarization due to blocking of I_M was compensated with steady current. J, K, The impedance profiles of the soma and dendrites from the simulations in (H, I) with or without I_{M} , L-N, Summary of the local somatic and dendritic Q values (L), resonance frequency (M), and peak impedance (N) with (control) and without I_{M} . Note that blocking of I_{M} abolished all resonance and equalized the impedance properties of soma and dendrite. In J, the ringing artifact at low frequencies is caused by the Fourier transform near the discontinuity at 0 Hz (Gibbs phenomenon) and can also be seen in other plots. L, Q values: control: soma: 1.21, dendrite: 1.15; no I_M: soma: 1.0, dendrite: 1.0. *M*, Resonance frequency: control: soma: 2.6 Hz, dendrite: 2.6 Hz; no I_M: soma: 1.0 Hz, dendrite: 1.0 Hz. **N**, Peak local impedance: control: soma: 101 M Ω , dendrite: 85 M Ω ; no I_{M} : soma: 202 M Ω , dendrite: 127 M Ω .



Figure 5. Model simulations showing polarized location- and membrane potential-dependent differences in local resonance strength, caused by polarized h-, M-, and NaP-channel distributions. **A**, I_{ZAP} (0–16 Hz, 18 pA peak to peak) was injected at various potentials (from -60 to -80 mV) and at various locations in the apical dendrite, and the resonance strength (*Q* value) was determined. Note the two strong resonance poles; one around the soma at depolarized potentials, caused by I_M and I_{NAP} (M-resonance) and one in the distal dendrites near the resting potential, caused by I_h (H-resonance). **B**-**D**, Like in **A**, but I_{h} , I_{M} , or I_{NAP} were blocked, respectively. Changes in holding potential due to ion channel blockade were compensated with steady current.

plemental Figure S4*A* (available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material) shows the time course of the XE991 effect. Thus, XE991 abolished all resonance differences between soma and dendrite at approximately -55 mV (Fig. 3*G*,*H*), indicating that they were due to M-channels. Furthermore, the local peak impedance was significantly increased by XE991 (Fig. 4*D*). Supplemental Figure S4 (available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material) also shows that the application of XE991 had a significant effect on *Q* value, resonance frequency, and peak impedance in the soma.

Simulations of dual, complementary resonance with CA1 pyramidal neuron models

Our experiments so far indicate that these neurons are endowed with two segregated and complementary mechanisms mediating local theta resonance bandpass filtering: (1) one caused by h-channels in the distal apical dendrites, operating close to the resting potential, (2) the other caused by M-channels in the axosomatic region, operating close to the spike threshold. To test whether this hypothesis is sufficient to explain our experimental findings, we used a set of detailed compartmental CA1 pyramidal cell models based on five reconstructed morphologies and state of the art data on ion channel kinetics and distributions (see Materials and Methods and supplemental material, available at www.jneurosci.org). In particular, the models included M- and NaP-currents with high density in the soma and axon initial segment (AIS), and h-current with high density in the distal apical dendrites (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Magee, 1998; Lörincz et al., 2002; Devaux et al., 2004; Astman et al., 2006; Vervaeke et al., 2006b; Hu et al., 2007a; Kole et al., 2008; Shah et al., 2008). Before being used in this study, the models were developed and tested to reproduce a wide spectrum of previously published experimental data from these neurons (Hoffman et al., 1997; Magee, 1998, 1999; Staff et al., 2000; Golding et al., 2005). Importantly, however, the models were not adjusted to fit the data from the present experiments.

To test local resonance properties in the model (Fig. 4), we injected I_{ZAP} in the soma and in the distal apical dendrite (200 μ m from soma). When tested at approximately -78 mV, the dendrites showed stronger resonance (Fig. 4A-E, control) and higher resonance frequency (Fig. 4F, control) but lower peak impedance (Fig. 4G, control) than the soma. When repeating I_{ZAP} without I_h (Fig. 4A–G, no I_h), resonance was abolished, thus giving similar impedance profiles in dendrites and soma (Fig. 4C-F, no $I_{\rm h}$). Also the peak impedances became virtually identical (Fig. 4G). These modeling results all agree closely with our experimental results (Fig. 1), demonstrating that our dendritic H-resonance hypothesis is sufficient to explain the observed $I_{\rm h}$ -dependent resonance both in the dendrites and soma, although I_b is primarily dendritic. The simulations also show that the experimental data of Figure 1 are compatible with our somatic M-resonance hypothesis, and the

other ionic mechanisms of our model.

In the model we also tested the somatic and dendritic resonance properties close to the spike threshold (approximately -60 mV) (Fig. 4*H*–*N*, control). The dendrites showed weaker resonance than the soma (Fig. 4*L*, control), a similar resonance frequency (Fig. 4*M*, control), and a slightly lower peak impedance (Fig. 4*N*, control). Omitting $I_{\rm M}$ abolished resonance at depolarized potentials in both soma and dendrites (Fig. 4*H*–*N*, no $I_{\rm M}$), while the peak impedance increased at both sites (Fig. 4*N*).

Thus, the simulations at depolarized potentials also resemble our experimental results (Figs. 2, 3), although there were minor differences. Whereas the model yielded similar somatic and dendritic resonance frequencies (Fig. 4M, control), the experimental resonance frequency was lower in the dendrites at depolarized potentials (Figs. 2H, 3H, control). However, simulation of I_{ZAP} injection further out in the dendrites (\sim 320 μ m from the soma) showed resonance with lower frequency than in the soma (dendrites: 1.8 Hz, soma: 2.6 Hz; data not shown). A similar effect was also shown experimentally (Fig. 2A, B). The model also showed a lower dendritic than somatic peak impedance at depolarized potentials (Fig. 4N), while experimentally the peak impedance seemed similar in both locations (Figs. 21, 31). However, simulations at slightly less depolarized potentials (approximately -63mV), where I_{NaP} is less active, strongly reduced the somatic input resistance, producing a similar peak impedance in soma and dendrite (data not shown). Overall, these simulations demonstrate that the axosomatic M-resonance hypothesis is sufficient to explain the observed $I_{\rm M}$ -dependent resonance both in the soma and dendrites, and is also compatible with the H-resonance hypothesis and other known active and passive membrane properties.

We also used the model to explore the resonance strength throughout the entire apical trunk at membrane potentials ranging from -60 to -80 mV (Fig. 5), by expanding the type of simulations illustrated in Figure 4. Interestingly, resonance strength showed a strong dual polarization, with prominent resonance at depolarized potentials around the soma and at hyperpolarized potentials in the distal dendrites (Fig. 5A). When simulations were repeated after turning off $I_{\rm b}$, the resonance at potentials negative to -65 mV was abolished in both dendrites and soma (Fig. 5B). Omitting I_M abolished the strong somatic resonance at depolarized potentials, but also the weaker dendritic resonance at these potentials (Fig. 5*C*). Omitting I_{NaP} , weakened the somatic resonance at depolarized potentials, without eliminating it, showing that I_{NaP} strengthens M-resonance but is not essential for generating it (Fig. 5D). Thus, M-resonance is generated by I_M and amplified by I_{NaP} .

Polarized M- and h-channel distributions cause frequency- and direction-dependent voltage

attenuation along the apical dendrites Next, we studied how this polarized distribution of ion channels affects the frequency dependence of voltage attenuation along the apical dendrite, both experimentally (Figs. 6, 7) and by simulations (Figs. 8; supplemental Figs. S5, S6, available at www. jneurosci.org as supplemental material).

First at approximately -78 mV, we injected I_{ZAP} either in the soma (Fig. 6A, left) or in the dendrites (Fig. 6A, right) and recorded the local and propagated voltage responses, thus measuring the fre-

quency and direction dependence of voltage attenuation along the dendrite (see Materials and Methods). We found that the soma-to-dendrite voltage transfer was more attenuated than the dendrite-to-soma transfer, particularly at frequencies of <5 Hz (Fig. 6C). Moreover, soma-to-dendrite voltage transfer, but not transfer in the opposite direction, was minimally attenuated at theta frequencies ($\sim 6-7$ Hz) (Fig. 6C). ZD7288 reduced the voltage attenuation below 7.5 Hz in the soma-to-dendrite direction (Fig. 6B,D), showing that it was caused by $I_{\rm h}$, but had no significant effect on attenuation in the opposite direction (Fig. 6D, E). After blocking h-channels, the dendrite behaved like a low-pass filter for voltage propagation in both directions. These results indicate that close to the resting potential, theta-modulated synaptic or intrinsic signals originating in the soma or basal dendrites are preferentially transmitted to the apical dendrites. Thus, the thetarhythmic inhibitory input to CA1 somata (Kamondi et al., 1998;



Figure 6. Near the resting potential, h-channels confer direction selective bandpass filtering along the apical dendrite. *A*, I_{ZAP} was injected either into the soma (blue) or into the apical dendrite (red) during simultaneous somatic and dendritic recordings in the same CA1 pyramidal cell (distance to soma: 210 μ m). Both the dendrite and soma were held at approximately -78 mV, while the local and propagated voltage responses were recorded. *B*, Similar experiments as in *A* were performed in the presence of 10 μ m ZD7288. *C*–*E*, Summary graphs for all recorded cells. *C*, From the recordings in *A*, we calculated the frequency-dependent voltage attenuation either from the soma to the dendrite when I_{ZAP} was applied to the soma (violet triangles), or from the dendrite to the soma when I_{ZAP} was applied to the dendrite (purple circles), for all recorded cells (n = 8, p < 0.05 below 5 Hz). *D*, Summary of the voltage attenuation from the soma to the dendrite before and after application of 10 μ m ZD7288 (n = 4, dendritic recordings: 170–273 μ m from soma; average distance: 212 ± 19 μ m) (p < 0.05 below 7.5 Hz, except p = 0.07 at 0.5 Hz). *E*, Summary of the voltage attenuation from the dendrite to the soma before and after application of 10 μ m ZD7288 (n = 5, dendritic recordings: 167–273 μ m from soma, average distance: 203 ± 19 μ m) (p > 0.05 at all frequencies). The traces shown in *A* and *B* are from the same recordings shown in Figure 1*A*–*D*.

Buzsáki, 2002) may selectively propagate into the apical dendrite, and may gate voltage-dependent synaptic plasticity (LTP, LTD) of theta-modulated dendritic inputs from CA3 or EC.

Closer to threshold (approximately -55 mV), dendrite-tosoma voltage transfer [Fig. 7*A* (right),*C*] was attenuated at frequencies of <7.5 Hz, in sharp contrast both to soma-to-dendrite transfer at the same potential [Fig. 7*A* (left),*C*] and to dendriteto-soma transfer at more negative potentials (Fig. 6*C*). Thus, theta-modulated input to the CA1 pyramidal dendrites, e.g., from CA3 or entorhinal cortex, will be selectively transmitted to soma and the axonic spike generation site when the cell is depolarized close to threshold, i.e., when the input can most efficiently influence the cell's spike output.

XE991 reduced dendrite-to-soma voltage attenuation below theta frequency (\sim 5 Hz) (Fig. 7*E*), thus blocking the theta bandpass filter properties in this direction, but did not affect soma-todendrite attenuation (Fig. 7*D*). Thus, strikingly, the M- and



Figure 7. Near the spike threshold, M-channels confer direction selective bandpass filtering along the apical dendrite. **A**, I_{ZAP} was injected either into the soma (blue) or into the apical dendrite (red) during simultaneous somatic and dendritic recordings (distance to soma: 130 μ m). Both the dendrite and soma were held approximately -55 mV, while the local and propagated voltage responses were recorded. **B**, Similar experiments as in **A** were performed in the presence of 10 μ m XE991. **C**–**E**, Summary graphs for all recorded cells. **C**, From the recordings in **A**, we calculated the frequency-dependent voltage attenuation either from the soma to the dendrite (purple circles) (n = 10, dendritic recordings: 101–165 μ m from soma, average distance: 136 \pm 8 μ m) (p < 0.05 below 9.5 Hz). **D**, Summary of the voltage attenuation from the soma to the dendrite recordings: 101–152 μ m from soma, average distance: 126 \pm 9 μ m) (p > 0.05 at all frequencies). **E**, Summary of the voltage attenuation from the dendrite to the soma dafter application of 10 μ m XE991 (n = 5, dendritic recordings: 101–152 μ m from soma, average distance: 126 \pm 9 μ m) (p > 0.05 at all frequencies). **E**, Summary of the voltage attenuation from the soma before and after application of 10 μ m XE991 (n = 5, dendritic recordings: 101–152 μ m from soma, average distance: 126 \pm 9 μ m) (p < 0.05 below 5 Hz, except p = 0.1 at 4 Hz). The traces shown in **A** and **B** are from the same recordings shown in Figure 3A–D.

H-resonance-dependent bandpass filter mechanisms are virtually mirror images of each other in every respect, except their remarkable common preference for theta frequency.

We also used model simulations to explore the mechanisms of frequency-dependent voltage attenuation along the apical trunk (Fig. 8; traces shown in supplemental Figs. S5, S6, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). When I_{ZAP} was injected in the soma at approximately -78 mV, the soma-todendrite attenuation was minimal at ~ 8 Hz (Fig. 8*A*, control), reflecting theta-selective transfer, which was abolished by turning off I_h (Fig. 8*A*, no I_h). In contrast, dendrite-to-soma attenuation (Fig. 8*B*, control) resembled more passive low-pass filtering, and turning off I_h had a much smaller effect (Fig. 8*B*, no I_h). These results are qualitatively similar to those we obtained experimentally (Fig. 6*C*–*E*), thus confirming that our hypotheses were sufficient to explain our observations. In contrast to the experiments (Fig. 6*E*), the attenuation from dendrite-to-soma (Fig. 8*B*, control) showed a slight resonance, which might be overlooked experimentally because of noise and variability. However, blocking I_h in the basal dendrites of the model abolished this slight resonance, suggesting that there may be little or no I_h in this part of the neuron.

Modeling signal propagation at depolarized potentials also confirmed our experimentally derived conclusions (Fig. 8C,D, solid lines; supplemental Fig. S6, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). Thus, the soma-todendrite transfer showed nearly no bandpass filtering and blocking $I_{\rm M}$ had no effect (Fig. 8C, solid lines). In contrast, the dendrite-to-soma transfer showed clear theta resonance, which was eliminated by omitting $I_{\rm M}$ (Fig. 8D, solid lines).

We also repeated the latter simulations after blocking I_h and I_{NaP} (Fig. 8C,D, dashed lines) to compare with the impact of TTX and CsCl in our experiments. Omitting $I_{\rm h}$ and I_{NaP} abolished the slight theta preference in the soma-to-dendrite attenuation (Fig. 8C, dashed lines). The dendrite-tosoma transfer (Fig. 8D, dashed lines) still showed $I_{\rm M}$ -dependent theta preference, even in the absence of $I_{\rm h}$ and $I_{\rm NaP}$, in agreement with our experimental results (Fig. 7*E*). However, without $I_{\rm h}$ and $I_{\rm NaP}$ the overall attenuation was stronger (Fig. 8D, compare solid and dashed lines). Additional simulations revealed that this is because I_{NaP} amplifies signals entering the soma (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Vervaeke et al., 2006b) (data not shown). Thus, like in the experiments, propagation along the dendrite shows theta bandpass filtering when the signal propagates toward a region with an active theta resonance mechanism, i.e., toward the soma at depolarized potential (Mresonance), and toward the dendrites at more negative potentials (H-resonance).

Cook et al. (2007) reported that the gain of the dendrite-to-soma input/out-

put relationship varied as a function of stimulus variance. Using the model, we explored whether the stimulus amplitude affected the transfer impedance, and found no significant amplitudedependent difference (supplemental Fig. S8, available at www. ineurosci.org as supplemental material). Thus, injection of ZAP currents of very different amplitudes, which evoked oscillations of either 1 or 12 mV peak-to-peak amplitude, revealed no differences in the transfer impedance, neither from the soma to the dendrite, nor from dendrite to soma, and neither at -65 nor at -80 mV (supplemental Fig. S8, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). Neither the gain nor the filter properties seemed to differ depending on the stimulus amplitude. However, these results cannot be directly compared with those of Cook et al. (2007), because their high-variance stimuli evoked action potentials. Therefore, spike-evoked conductances may well alter the gain properties in their experiments, unlike our study, in which purely subthreshold stimuli were used.

Thus, the dendrite-to-soma or somato-dendrite transfer impedance is not significantly dependent on the stimulus amplitude.

The relation between asymmetric voltage attenuation and local transfer impedances

Finally, we examined the symmetry properties of the frequency-dependent relationship between current injected at one site *i*, I_i , and the voltage recorded at a second point *j*, V_j , i.e., the transfer impedance $K_{ij}(f) = V_j/I_i$. We examined how the transfer impedance related to the local impedance, $K_{ii}(f)$ (Figs. 1–5), and how both measures related to the voltage attenuation $A_{ij}(f)$ between voltages measured at the two locations *i* and *j*.

Specifically, in this paper we use the term "resonance" in the context of a linear circuit response. One property of such a circuit is that the transfer impedance is symmetrical (Koch, 1999). In other words, if a linear approximation of a dendritic tree is valid, then the ratio of the current injected at one point and the voltage measured at another point is the same as when the two locations are reversed (Koch, 1999).

We investigated this property by injecting I_{ZAP} into the dendrite and measuring the voltage at the soma, and vice versa, with experiments and simulations at approximately -78 mV (supplemental Fig. S7*A*, *C*, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material) or at approximately

-55 mV (supplemental Fig. S7 *B*, *D*, available at www.jneurosci.org as supplemental material). The transfer impedances $K_{ij}(f)$ from both experiments and simulations not only showed resonance (h-channel dependent at approximately -78 mV; M-channel dependent at approximately -55 mV), they were also symmetrical under all conditions tested:

$$K_{ij}(f) = K_{ji}(f). \tag{1}$$

These results are consistent with the prediction of a linear model, thus confirming that the somatodendritic compartments behave as a nearly linear system at subthreshold membrane potentials, despite the demonstrated presence of a multitude of voltage-dependent conductances.

However, in contrast to this symmetry, and as we described above, the voltage attenuation $A_{ij}(f)$ between the site of current injection and the voltage recording site were asymmetric (Figs. 6C, 7C, 8). This can be explained as follows: Since $A_{ij}(f)$ is given by the ratio of the local and transfer impedances (Koch, 1999), as follows:

$$A_{ij}(f) = \frac{V_j(f)}{V_i(f)} = \frac{K_{ii}(f)}{K_{ij}(f)},$$
(2)

the ratio of the voltage attenuations back and forth between two points is as follows:



Figure 8. Model simulations confirmed direction- and voltage-dependent bandpass filtering along the apical dendrite. *A*, *B*, Frequency dependence of the voltage attenuation is shown either for the soma-to-dendrite direction when I_{ZAP} (0–16 Hz, 18 pA peak to peak) was applied to the soma (*A*), or for the dendrite-to-soma direction when I_{ZAP} was applied to the dendrite (*B*). The membrane potential was set to approximately -78 mV with steady current. The dendritic site was 200 μ m from the soma. *C*, *D*, Similarly, the frequency dependence of the voltage attenuation is shown when holding the membrane potential at approximately -60 mV. The simulations were run to compare the results when all channels were present and when I_M was blocked (solid lines). The simulations comparing the result with or without I_M were also repeated to match more closely the experimental conditions of the recordings shown in Fig. 3, i.e., I_{NAP} and I_h were blocked (dashed lines).

$$\frac{A_{ij}(f)}{A_{ji}(f)} = \frac{K_{ji}(f) \times K_{ii}(f)}{K_{ij}(f) \times K_{jj}(f)}.$$
(3)

By Equation 1, the right side simplifies to a ratio of the local impedances at the two points:

$$\frac{A_{ij}(f)}{A_{ji}(f)} = \frac{K_{ii}(f)}{K_{jj}(f)}.$$
(4)

Thus, an inequality of $A_{ij}(f)$ and $A_{ji}(f)$, e.g., a direction dependence of the voltage attenuation, or transfer, can be completely accounted for by a location dependence of the local (input) impedances.

Indeed, for even a simple neuron model with a soma and a single dendrite, linear cable theory predicts that the input impedance will depend on location. In particular, for a neuron with homogeneous membrane properties, a lower somatic input impedance is expected due to the soma's larger surface to volume ratio, compared with the dendrites (Rall and Rinzel, 1973; Koch, 1999). Following directly from Equation 4, a corollary in this case is that the voltage attenuation from dendrites to the soma will be larger than that from the soma to the dendrites (Koch, 1999).

Our model and, in part our experiments, also show inequalities in input impedance and voltage attenuation, but in contrast these inequalities are exactly the opposite from that predicted by the simple model with homogeneous membrane properties. First, the input impedance at the soma was larger than at the



Interactions between dual theta resonance mechanisms and oscillatory inputs

Figure 9. Interactions between dual theta resonance mechanisms and oscillatory inputs. This diagram illustrates how the two main theta-modulated oscillatory synaptic inputs to the CA1 pyramidal cell can interact with the two segregated theta resonance mechanisms in this cell type. Rhythmic firing of GABA-ergic neurons (G) in the medial septum and diagonal band of Broca (DBB) causes rhythmic inhibition of local hippocampal inhibitory interneurons (G), which in turn causes theta-modulated disinhibition (black sine curve) of the soma region/axon initial segment (AIS) of the CA1 pyramidal cell. Here, in the AIS/soma, the high density of voltage-gated Kv7/M-type potassium channels produce somatic theta-resonance (M-resonance), which is strengthened by the sodium channels underlying the persistent Na⁺ current (l_{haP}), when the cell is close to spike threshold. This makes the spike generator mechanism at the AIS/soma selectively responsive to the theta-modulated disinhibition driven by the septum. It also causes direction-selective bandpass filtering of subtheta frequencies entering the AIS/soma from the apical dendrite (not illustrated). Conversely, the excitatory perforant path (PP) input from L3 cells in the entorhinal cortex (EC L3), which is the second main theta-modulated synaptic input to the CA1 pyramidal cell (gray sine curve), impinges on the distal dendrites where it can selectively interact with the highly concentrated HCN/h channels there. These h-channels, by producing local H-resonance, make the dendrites selectively responsive to the theta-modulated excitation (and inhibition; data not shown) driven by the EC. It also causes direction-selective bandpass filtering of subtheta frequencies entering the apical dendrites from the soma/AIS (not illustrated). (Modified from Buzsáki, 2002.)

dendrites at both hyperpolarized [Figs. 11 (experiment), 4G (model)] and depolarized potentials (Fig. 4N, model) [see also Magee (1998) and Narayanan and Johnston (2007)]. Our model accounts for this difference from the simple homogeneous neuron model because of inhomogeneous membrane properties. Specifically, in our model there is a higher density of $I_{\rm h}$ (relevant when recording at low potentials where these channels are open) (Magee, 1998) and I_{leak} in the distal dendrites, as well as a restricted distribution of I_{NaP} around the soma (relevant when recording near spike threshold where these channels are open) (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Vervaeke et al., 2006b; Kole et al., 2008) (see supplemental material, available at www.jneurosci. org). In both voltage conditions, these channel distributions make the soma impedance larger than the dendritic impedance (note that activation of the I_{NaP} inward current at the soma results in an increase of the local slope impedance) (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Vervaeke et al., 2006b). We do note that the model's prediction of input impedance at depolarized potentials is not reproduced in the experimental recordings (no significant different between somatic and dendritic input impedances, the latter measured within 200 μ m from the soma) (Fig. 2D,I). This is explained because we were constrained to recording potentials that were insufficiently depolarized to significantly activate I_{NaP} , to avoid noise-triggered spikes during the ZAP protocols. Second, consistent with Equation 4 and again in contrast to a simple homogeneous neuron model, we found a stronger voltage attenuation from the soma to the dendrite than in the opposite direction, at

both hyperpolarized [Figs. 6*C* (experiment), 8*A*, *B* (model)], and depolarized levels (Fig. 8*D*, model). Consistent with the input impedance results described above, there is an exception between our model and the experiments at depolarized potentials (Fig. 7*C*), again because our recording potentials did not strongly activate I_{NaP} .

To our knowledge, this is the first explicit account of centripetal versus centrifugal voltage attenuation properties that depart from a classical homogeneous neuron model. Our results recapitulate in part the detailed experimental and modeling study by Golding et al. (2005), which also focus on inhomogeneous distributions of membrane properties, particularly the leak resistance and I_h. However, while that study measured, separately, soma to dendrite voltage attenuation due to current injection, and dendrite to soma voltage attenuation with evoked EPSPs, the different protocols were not analyzed together to examine direction dependence of these attenuations.

Discussion

In this study we found experimentally and by computational modeling that CA1 pyramidal neurons not only respond preferentially to theta frequency signals locally, at the input site (local resonance), but also show complementary, theta-tuned bandpass filtering of subthreshold signals that propagate along the dendrite, in a direction- and voltage-dependent manner, i.e., depending on the state of the cell. We also tested pre-

dictions from linear cable theory regarding the frequency and direction dependence of voltage attenuation and transfer impedance, demonstrating that nonlinear membrane channels can mediate nearly linear filtering for small, physiologically relevant signal amplitudes, as the transfer impedances were symmetrical. Our data and model however contrast with linear neuron models with homogeneous membrane properties, by showing stronger voltage attenuation from the soma to the dendrite than in the opposite direction.

Functional implications

A fundamental functional implication of our results is that CA1 pyramidal cells are selectively responsive to input at theta frequency by two different mechanisms. This may extend the possibility for selective communication between neurons via resonance (Izhikevich et al., 2003), using two segregated information channels, a somatic "depolarized" one and a dendritic "hyperpolarized" one. Since both are tuned to the theta frequency band, they seem adapted for functioning within the theta-dominated hippocampal network. These dual theta resonance mechanisms are in strategic positions for interacting with the two main oscillatory inputs to the CA1 area during theta *in vivo*—one at the soma level, the other in the distal dendrites (Fig. 9) (Kamondi et al., 1998; Buzsáki, 2002).

Thus, the somatic M-resonance is strategically positioned to control spike generation and interact selectively with the thetarhythmic inhibition of the soma/AIS region, driven by rhythmic input from the medial septum (Buzsáki, 2002). Since M-resonance is maximal when the cell is close to spike threshold, where inhibition has maximal driving force, this ensures optimal modulation of the spike output by M-resonance. Thus the M-resonance makes the axon initial segment spike generator mechanism selectively responsive to theta input from septum. Conversely, the H-resonance, operating further from the spike threshold, is strategically positioned to control subthreshold theta-selective filtering of excitatory input from EC to the distal dendrites (Fig. 9). However, it should be kept in mind that our dendritic whole-cell recordings were limited to the str. radiatum, and were thus unable to directly explore the most distal, thin dendrites within str. lacunosum moleculare. Nevertheless, considering the strong evidence for a high h-channel density in str. lacunosum moleculare (Lörincz et al., 2002), we expect that the local resonance effects there will be even stronger than the ones we recorded in str. radiatum, thus strengthening our conclusion of a powerful distal dendritic h-resonance mechanism strategically positioned to filter input from EC.

Furthermore, the dual M- and H-resonance seems highly relevant for the "dual oscillator" models that have been proposed to explain both the hippocampal "place fields" and the striking EC "grid cell" pattern, as well as phase precession in both regions (Hafting et al., 2005; O'Keefe and Burgess, 2005; Burgess et al., 2007; Giocomo et al., 2007). In these models, a somatic oscillation imposed by the network interacts with an intrinsic dendritic oscillation modulated by velocity-dependent synaptic input, to produce interference patterns that gives rise to phase precession (i.e., temporal coding), grid cell fields, and/or hippocampal place cell fields (O'Keefe and Burgess, 2005; Burgess et al., 2007; Lengyel et al., 2003). Note that with addition of a sufficiently strong amplifying current, such as I_{NaP} , the currents (I_M, I_h) that cause resonance can also produce spontaneous intrinsic oscillations with similar frequency preference (Leung and Yim, 1991; Hutcheon and Yarom, 2000). Furthermore, channel kineticsand hence oscillation frequency-can be modulated both by voltage and transmitters (Robinson and Siegelbaum, 2003), thus regulating dual oscillator interference (Burgess et al., 2007; Giocomo et al., 2007). According to some models, however, input from the EC grid cells provides the necessary spatial information for generation of place cells in CA1 (McNaughton et al., 2006; Moser and Moser, 2008), which would seem to render intrinsic oscillator mechanisms in CA1 unnecessary. However, these models are still speculative and there are reasons to believe that the CA1 pyramidal cells may still need to "make their own comparison" between two oscillatory inputs, as hypothesized to explain the place fields of CA1 pyramidal cells (Kamondi et al., 1998b; Magee, 2001; Lengyel et al., 2003; O'Keefe and Burgess, 2005). Our finding of two theta resonator mechanisms in individual CA1 pyramidal cells may provide indirect support for the concept of oscillatory interference within an individual hippocampal place cell. In any event, and regardless of whether a dual oscillator model holds true for CA1, the existence of two complementary and segregated theta resonance mechanisms will in any case substantially impact postsynaptic frequency selectivity, integration, and transduction (Ulrich, 2002; Cook et al., 2007; Narayanan and Johnston, 2007).

Comparison with other studies

In line with our results (supplemental Fig. S7, available at www. jneurosci.org as supplemental material), Ulrich (2002) and Cook et al. (2007) found that the transfer impedance show $I_{\rm h}$ -dependent resonance in neocortical and CA1 pyramidal neurons,

respectively. However, they did not report I_M-dependent resonance, possibly because they did not test at sufficiently depolarized potentials. Also, our results on local H-resonance (Fig. 1) agree with the strong resonance in distal CA1 dendrites recently reported by Narayanan and Johnston (Narayanan and Johnston, 2007). However, their most depolarized test potential (-79 mV after correction for liquid junction potential) was close to our most hyperpolarized test potential. Such hyperpolarizations beyond -79 mV strongly boost the H-resonance (Hu et al., 2002; Narayanan and Johnston, 2007), but may lead to overestimation of its effect, since it seems likely that these neurons rarely experience such strong hyperpolarizations in vivo. Thus, the reported prevailing membrane potential of rat CA1 pyramidal cells in vivo during theta and other activity was -58 to -66 mV (Kamondi et al., 1998a; Hahn et al., 2007), i.e., a range where the somatic M-resonance filtering reported here is particularly prominent.

Other types of neurons

The mechanisms described here in CA1 pyramidal cells are likely to exist in other types of neurons in which the necessary channel types coexist. For example, both Kv7/KCNQ/M-channels and I_{NaP} are found in a variety of neurons in the CNS and are likely to be concentrated in the axon initial segment and soma (Stuart and Sakmann, 1995; Cooper et al., 2001; Devaux et al., 2004; Astman et al., 2006; Vervaeke et al., 2006b; Hu et al., 2007a; Kole et al., 2008), thus providing a basis for a somatic M-resonance and related subthreshold oscillations (Gutfreund et al., 1995). Likewise, HCN/h-channels are concentrated in the dendrites of neocortical pyramidal and other neurons in the CNS (Williams and Stuart, 2000; Migliore and Shepherd, 2002) thus providing a basis for dendritic H-resonance. Furthermore, there is increasing evidence that network oscillations in the theta band have widespread importance also outside the hippocampal-EC system, including the neocortex (Kahana et al., 2001). The strong voltage dependence of the M- and H-resonance and the related directiondependent bandpass filtering, may also enable cortical up and down states (Hahn et al., 2007; Mehta, 2007) to selectively modulate and exploit these processes for signaling, by favoring M-resonance during up states (approximately -60 mV) and H-resonance during down states (approximately -70 mV). Thus, the dual theta resonator mechanisms described here are likely to have widespread importance for neural coding in the brain.

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Hu et al. • Dual Theta Resonance Mechanisms in Pyramidal Cells

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<u>3rd Revision of JN-RM-0187-09</u> Changed text is in RED font.

Enclosure 3

Dual, complementary theta resonance filtering in hippocampal pyramidal neurons

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SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



Figure S1. The resonance strength (Q value) depends on the distance from soma. Summary diagram of Q values plotted against the distance on the apical dendrite from the soma of CA1 pyramidal neurons. (A) Resonance strength (Q values) plotted against the distance from the soma at hyperpolarized membrane potentials near the resting potential (-78 mV). (B) Resonance strength (Q values) plotted against the distance from the soma at membrane potential near the spike threshold (-58 mV). The data points in the scatter plots were fitted linearly (solid lines) with slope factors of 0.043 per 100 μ m in (A) and -0.049 per 100 μ m in (B).



Figure S2. Effect of the h-channel blocker ZD7288 on local somatic and dendritic resonance at membrane potentials near the resting potential. (**A**) Time course of the effect of bath applied ZD7288 (10 μ M) on local dendritic resonance (recorded 210 μ m from the soma) at -80 mV in response to dendritic injections of *I*_{ZAP}, applied once every 40 seconds. The arrow indicates when holding current was adjusted to compensate for the hyperpolarization caused by ZD7288. The time scale bar applies to each ZAP response. (**B-D**) Summary graphs for all recorded cells, showing the effect of ZD7288 on local somatic (blue, n=9) and dendritic (red, n=5) resonance strength (Q values; B), resonance frequency (C) and peak impedance (D) at a holding potential of ~ -80 mV. **:p<0.01, *: 0.01<p<0.05, NS: p>0.05.



Figure S3. Effect of the M-channel blocker XE991 (10 μ M) on local somatic responses to injections of *I*_{ZAP} at depolarized membrane potentials near the spike threshold. ZAP currents (0-15 Hz, 200-30 pA peak-to-peak) were injected once every 40 seconds at a membrane potential of ~ -55 mV. In the presence of XE991, it was necessary to reduce the peak-to-peak amplitude of *I*_{ZAP} (from 200 pA to 30 pA) in order to avoid action potentials [clipped and indicated by asterisks (*)]. Therefore, the peak-to-peak amplitude of the voltage responses at high frequency (>10 Hz) was small (< 1 mV) and significantly affected by background noise.





Figure S4. Effect of XE991 on local somatic and dendritic resonance at depolarized membrane potentials near the spike threshold. (**A**) The time course of 10 μ M bath-applied XE991 on dendritic resonance at -55 mV (recorded 129 μ m away from the soma). Red traces show the voltage responses to dendritic injection of I_{ZAP} (peak-to-peak amplitude: 0.4 nA), whereas dark brown traces show the dendritic voltage responses to the somatic I_{ZAP} injection (peak-to-peak amplitude: 0.4 nA) during simultaneous somatic and dendritic whole-cell recording. (*) indicates that the peak-to-peak amplitude of dendritic injected I_{ZAP} was increased from 0.40 to 0.45 nA. The arrow indicates that the holding current was adjusted to compensate for the depolarization caused by XE991. (**B-D**) Summary data for all recorded cells, showing the effect of XE991 on local somatic (blue) and dendritic (red) resonance Q value (B), frequency (C) and peak impedance (D) from a membrane potential of ~ -55 mV (n=5). **:p<0.01, *: 0.01<p<0.05, NS: p>0.05.

Figure S5



Figure S5. Example of model simulations of voltage attenuation along the apical dendrite near the resting potential. (**A,B**) I_{ZAP} was injected either into the soma (A, blue) or into the apical dendrite (B, red). The dendritic recording site was 200 µm from the soma. The membrane potential of both the dendrite and soma were held at ~ -78 mV by steady current injection. (**C,D**) Similar simulations as in (A,B) were performed without I_h .



Figure S6. Example of model simulations of voltage attenuation along the apical dendrite near the spike threshold. **(A,B)** I_{ZAP} was injected either into the soma (A, blue) or into the apical dendrite (B, red). The dendritic recording site was 200 µm from the soma. The membrane potential of both the dendrite and soma were held at ~ -60 mV by steady current injection. **(C,D)** Similar simulations as in (A,B) were performed without I_M .



Figure S7. The reciprocity of transfer impedance between somatodendritic compartments. Transfer impedance = FFT(Vpropagated)/FFT(I_{ZAP}). When I_{ZAP} was injected into the soma, Vpropagated refers to dendritic voltage response, whereas Vpropagated refers to somatic voltage response when I_{ZAP} was injected into the dendrite. (**A**) The summary of transfer impedance from four neurons tested at ~ -78 mV before (left panel, control) and after the application of ZD7288 (right panel) during simultaneous somatic and dendritic whole-cell recordings (distance between patch electrodes: $226\pm21 \mu m$). (**B**) Summary of transfer impedance from five neurons tested at ~ -55 mV before and after the application of XE991 during simultaneous somatic and dendritic whole-cell recording (distance between patch electrodes: $126\pm9 \mu m$). (**C**) Computer simulations showing the effect of I_h on transfer impedance between the soma and the apical dendrite at a membrane potential of -78 mV. (**D**) Computer simulation showing the effect of I_M on the transfer impedance between the soma and the apical dendrite at a membrane potential of -60 mV. In both (*C*) and (*D*), the distance between somatic and dendritic recording site in computer simulations was 200 µm.



Figure S8. Model simulations show that the dendrite-to-soma or soma-to-dendrite transfer impedance is not significantly dependent on the stimulus amplitude. **(A-D)** Frequency dependence of the transfer impedance is shown for the various conditions as indicated. The membrane potential was set to -65 or -80 mV with steady current. The dendritic site was 200 μ m from the soma. Note that the red and black traces in (C) and (D) overlap.

CA1 PYRAMIDAL CELL MODEL SUPPLEMENT

I. Introduction

We developed a CA1 pyramidal neuron model. Our model parameters were largely based on experimental data from adult rats, except a few parameters for which only data from young animals or from other cell types or species were available. We simulated responses at 32°C, and therefore preferred data from acute slice preparations obtained at 30-35 °C, a temperature range commonly used for *in vitro* studies, including our experiments. When experimental current kinetics data were obtained at other temperatures, the Q10 value of that current was used to adapt the kinetics to 32°C.

II. CA1 pyramidal neuron morphology

We used 5 reconstructed CA1 pyramidal neurons (Fig.1). We chose randomly four reconstructions from the Duke/Southampton database, named: n416, n418, n420, n120 (Cannon et al., 1998) and one from David Amarals' lab named: c12861 (Ishizuka et al., 1995). During the random selection, morphologies were excluded if they showed clear z-plane jitter which is manifest as clear "kinks" in the morphology in the z-plane.



Fig.1. Five reconstructions of rat CA1 pyramidal cells used for simulations. (a)"n120", (b) "c12861", (c) "n416", (d) "n420", (e) "n418". The geometry of the axon hillock (AH), axon initial segment (AIS) and the myelinated axon segment (MA) is schematically shown to the right of (a).

A major problem using reconstructed morphologies, which has long been underappreciated but recently addressed in a series of papers, is the variability of morphology parameters between different labs (Ambros-Ingerson and Holmes, 2005;Szilagyi and De, 2004). Especially the diameter of the various segments of the reconstruction can vary an order of magnitude and this parameter can have dramatic effects on the simulation results (Ambros-Ingerson and Holmes, 2005). Assigning diameters during reconstruction is very difficult, because the thinnest branches are near the resolution of light microscopy and because most of the dendrites are covered with spines (Ambros-Ingerson and Holmes, 2005). In some neuron reconstructions, the diameters are even preset to a single fixed value by the reconstructor (Ambros-Ingerson and Holmes, 2005). To circumvent this problem, we explored the literature to find accurate measurements of dendrite diameters and applied these to the reconstructions. Trommald et al. (Trommald et al., 1995) analyzed the anatomical properties of these dendrites with high resolution confocal microscopy. They found little tapering of the oblique and basal dendrites. On average, the basal dendrites were 0.76 µm and the oblique dendrites were 0.73 µm in diameter. These values are very similar to the ones reported by Bannister et al. (Bannister and Larkman, 1995a). Dendrites in stratum lacunosum-moleculare (SLM) are reported to have the same mean diameter as in str. radiatum (SR) (Bannister and Larkman, 1995a), however values were not mentioned. Trommald et al. (Trommald et al., 1995) also reported that the apical trunk tapers from the soma to where the apical trunk splits (often at the border between SR and SLM), i.e. from \sim 3 µm at the soma to \sim 2 µm when the trunk splits. Golding et al. (Golding et al., 2005) mention a similar tapering, i.e. from \sim 4 to \sim 2 µm. To assign these diameter values to our reconstructions, we defined first the following parts of the dendritic tree:

- 1) <u>The apical trunk root</u>: the segment that connects the apical trunk with the soma.
- <u>The apical tuft root</u>: the segment where the apical trunk often splits at the border of the SR and the SLM (Bannister and Larkman, 1995a;Trommald et al., 1995). This segment is manually determined for every reconstruction.
- <u>Apical trunk</u>: segments between the apical trunk root and the apical tuft root.
 Segment diameter = 3.5 – 4.7e-3 * d_(segment), where d_(segment) (μm) is the distance from the centre of the segment to the centre of the soma, determined along the apical dendrite.
- <u>Oblique dendrites</u>: segments of the side branches of the apical trunk. Segment diameter = 0.73 μm
- 5) <u>Basal dendrites:</u> segments of the dendrites arising from the soma and entering the *stratum oriens*. Segment diameter = $0.76 \mu m$
- 6) <u>Apical tuft dendrites</u>: segments of the dendrites extending beyond the

apical tuft root segment, away from the soma. Segment diameter = $-18e-3 * (d_{(segment)} - d_{(apical-tuft-root)}) + D_{(apical-tuft-root)}$ $d_{(segment)}$: distance from the centre of the segment to the centre of the soma, determined along the apical dendrite $d_{(apical-tuft-root))}$: distance from the centre of the apical tuft root segment to the centre of the soma, determined along the apical dendrite $D_{(apical-tuft-root)}$: diameter of the apical tuft root segment

Since the axon was not added to the reconstructions, we defined a piece of axon, consisting of an axon hillock, axon initial segment, and a stretch of myelinated axon (Fig.1a). The axon hillock was attached to the soma and consisted of 4 segments of 2.5 μ m length each and a linearly tapering diameter, from 4 to 1 μ m. Connected to the end of the axon hillock was the axon initial segment (AIS). consisting of a single 20 µm long segment of 1 µm diameter. The AIS was connected to a stretch of myelinated axon, consisting of a single 100 µm long segment of 1 µm diameter. This axon morphology is similar to the one of a neocortical pyramidal neuron model developed by (Mainen et al., 1995). Surprisingly, there is little anatomical data on the dimensions of the axon hillock and AIS in CA1 pyramidal neurons. However, from the immunostaining of Ankyrin-G, a prominent protein of the AIS, it seems that the AIS of CA1 pyramidal neurons is ~20-30 µm long (Devaux et al., 2004). For our simulations, we did not need to add the entire axon morphology. Thus, Palmer et al. (Palmer and Stuart, 2006) showed that severing the axon as close as 25 µm from the soma did not affect the somatic spike shape, indicating that channels necessary for spike generation are located more proximal. Therefore we assume that our reduced axon morphology is sufficient for our purpose.

Our reconstructions are composed of thousands of compartments and pose a heavy computational burden. Therefore we reduced the amount of compartments with a simple scheme proposed by Borg-graham (Borg-Graham, 1997), which is part of the Surf-Hippo simulator. The reduction is iterative and operates on a pair of segments at a time. Starting from the soma and working down each proximal trunk, two consecutive segments are combined into one if there is no other segment common to both (i.e. the connection is not a branch point) and if the electrotonic length of the candidate replacement segment is less than that set by some a-priori criteria, i.e. a parameter Lmax. The parameters of the replacement segment are derived according to the following constraints:

1. The total axial series resistivity of the two original segments is conserved.

2. The total membrane impedance (area) of the two original segments is conserved.

3. The end points of the new segment correspond to the non-common end points of the original two segments.

For the reduction of our morphologies we used Lmax = 0.05. This reduced the amount of compartments to ~400-600. We tested whether this reduction in number of compartments made any difference to our results. We found that all simulations run with reduced or non-reduced morphologies were very similar.

Spines were not explicitly modeled. However, we modeled spines by increasing the membrane area of a compartment by a membrane coefficient. This adjusts membrane resistivities and capacitances to fold-in "virtual" spines, under the assumption that the voltage drop over the spine neck is negligible. The spine model here is of a cylindrical neck capped by a spherical head. Spine area is given by the area of the neck (not including ends) plus the area of the head minus the area of the neck end (to partially compensate for the junction between the head and neck). Spines densities and shapes are not similar throughout the dendritic tree. For the spine dimensions we relied on Harris et al.(Harris and Stevens, 1989). The spine densities were inferred from Bannister et al. (Bannister and Larkman, 1995b). These data agree well with other measurements, e.g. from Trommald et al. (Trommald et al., 1995). On the apical trunk, the first ~100 µm are devoid of spines. The soma is also free of spines. There is a clear reduction in the density of spines in the SLM (Bannister and Larkman, 1995b). The basal dendrites have few spines on the first initial 2-20 µm (Trommald et al., 1995). Konur et al. (Konur and Yuste, 2004) mention that the spine density in SLM is lower but the spine heads are \sim 25% larger than on the oblique dendrites.

	Neck length	Neck Diameter	Head diameter	Spine Density
	(µm)	(µm)	(µm)	(spines / µm ²)
Oblique	0.45	0.15	0.45	1.43
dendrites				
Apical tuft	0.45	0.15	0.56	0.6
dendrites				
Apical trunk*	0.45	0.15	0.45	1.27
(* only compartments > 100 µm away from the soma are corrected for membrane area)				
Basal	0.45	0.15	0.45	1.26

(** only compartments > 20 µm away from the soma are corrected for membrane area)

III. Passive properties

dendrites**

rm = 90 kΩ.cm² (soma, oblique- and basal dendrites, apical trunk, axon hillock and initial segment) rm = 20 kΩ.cm² (apical tuft) rm = 1 MΩ.cm² (myelinated axon)

cm = $1.5 \,\mu\text{F/cm}^2$ (soma, oblique-, basal- and tuft dendrites, apical trunk, axon hillock and initial segment) cm = $0.04 \,\mu\text{F/cm}^2$ (myelinated axon)

Ri = 100 Ω.cm

 I_{leak} reversal potential = -80 mV

IV) Channel model parameters

a) The extended Hodgkin-Huxley formalism (Borg-Graham, 1997)

A template for this scheme is now also provided in the NEURON simulator and is called, "borg-graham style".

 $n_{c} \xleftarrow{\alpha(V),\beta(V)}{and} n_{o}$ (1), $\alpha(V)$ and $\beta(V)$ being the forward and backward rate respectively

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = \frac{n - n_{\infty}(V)}{\tau_n(V)} \quad (2)$$

the EXT-H-H forward rate:

$$\alpha_{n}'(V) = K \times \exp\left(\frac{z \times \gamma \times \left(V - V_{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \times F}{R \times T}\right)$$
(3)

the EXT-H-H backward rate:
$$\beta'_{n}(V) = K \times \exp\left(\frac{-z \times (1-\gamma) \times \left(V - V_{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \times F}{R \times T}\right)$$
 (4)

The time-constant and steady-state particle is then described by:

$$\tau_n(V) = \left(\frac{1}{\alpha'_n(V) + \beta'_n(V)}\right) + \tau_0 \qquad (5) \qquad n_\infty(V) = \frac{\alpha'_n(V)}{\alpha'_n(V) + \beta'_n(V)} \qquad (6)$$

Note: how to relate the EXT-H-H forward and backward rate-constants to the usual Hodgkin Huxley rate description:

$$\alpha_{n}(V) = \frac{\alpha'_{n}(V)}{\tau_{0} * (\alpha'_{n}(V) + \beta'_{n}(V)) + 1} \qquad (7) \qquad \beta_{n}(V) = \frac{\beta'_{n}(V)}{\tau_{0}(\alpha'_{n}(V) + \beta'_{n}(V)) + 1} \qquad (8)$$

b) h-current (Ih) (Lorincz et al., 2002;Magee, 1998)

We inserted two Ih models: $Ih_{(proximal)}$ and $Ih_{(distal)}$. $Ih_{(proximal)}$ was inserted in the basal- and oblique dendrites and in the apical trunk. $Ih_{(distal)}$ was inserted in the apical tuft.

Ih densities:

Basal dendrites Ih density = $0.2 \text{ pS/}\mu\text{m}^2$

Oblique dendrites and apical trunk = $0.2 + \frac{2.0 - 0.2}{1 + e^{\frac{250 - d(segment)}{30}}}$

With $d_{(segment)}$: distance from the centre of the segment to the centre of the soma, determined along the apical dendrite

Apical tuft = 20 $pS/\mu m^2$

For calculating Ih density the spine area correction is not applied (thus assuming Ih is not significantly present the spines).

<u>Ih proximal</u>

E-rev (mV)	-40
Q10 diffusion	1.95
Diffusion reference temperature(°C)	33
Number of particles	1 activation particle

	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	-3	
γ	0.5	
V-half (mV)	-82	
$ au_0$ (ms)	4	
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.006	
Q10	4.7	
<i>Reference temperature</i> ($^{\circ}C$)	33	

Ih distal

E-rev (mV)	-40	
Q10 diffusion	1.95	
<i>Diffusion reference temperature</i> ($^{\circ}C$)	33	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	-3.1	
γ	0.5	
V-half (mV)	-90	
$ au_0 (ms)$	4	
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.006	
Q10	4.7	
Reference temperature ($^{\circ}C$)	33	

<u>c) M-current (IM)</u> (Devaux et al., 2004;Hu et al., 2002;Wang et al., 1998)

IM densities:

In soma and in axon segments < 40 μm from the soma: 12 $pS/\mu m^2$

IM		
E-rev (mV)	-80	
Q10 diffusion	2	
<i>Diffusion reference temperature(°C)</i>	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	3.5	
γ	0.5	
V-half (mV)	-43	
$ au_0 (ms)$	1.0	
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.004	
<i>Q10</i>	5	
Reference temperature (°C)	32	

<u>d) Persistent Na+ current (INaP)</u> (Astman et al., 2006;Hu et al., 2002;Stuart and Sakmann, 1995;Vervaeke et al., 2006;Yue et al., 2005)

INaP densities:

In axon segments < 40 μ m from the soma: 50 pS/ μ m²

INaP

E-rev (mV)	30	
Q10 diffusion	2	
<i>Diffusion reference temperature(°C)</i>	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	6.5	
γ	0.5	
V-half (mV)	-47	
$ au_0$ (ms)	1	
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0	
Q10	3	
Reference temperature (°C)	32	

e) A-current (IA) (Hoffman et al., 1997)

We used two IA models : $IA_{proximal}$ and IA_{distal} . $IA_{proximal}$ was inserted in the soma, basal dendrites and the segments of the proximal apical trunk (< 100 µm from the soma). IA_{distal} was inserted into the tuft and obliques dendrites.

IA densities:

Soma : 12 pS/µm²

Basal dendrites : 12 + 0.2 * d_(segment) [pS/µm²]

 $d_{(\text{segment})}$: distance from the centre of the segment to the centre of the soma

Proximal apical trunk (<100 μm): 12 + 0.2 * d_(segment) [pS/μm²]

Distal apical trunk (>100 μ m): 12 + 0.2 * d_(segment) [pS/ μ m²]

Tuft and oblique dendrites: $12 + 0.2 * d_{(segment)} + 3.0 * (d_{(segment)} - d_{(dendrite-root)}) d_{(dendrite-root)}$: distance from the centre of the segment that connects the oblique- or tuft dendrite to the apical trunk, to the centre of the soma.

For calculating IA density the spine area correction is applied (thus assuming IA in the spines).

IA proximal		
E-rev (mV)	-80	
Q10 diffusion	2	
Diffusion reference temperature(°C)	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	1 inactivation particle
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	1.6	-3.5
γ	0.57	1.2
V-half (mV)	11	-74
$ au_0(ms)$	0.2	5.0
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.28	1.3
<i>Q10</i>	3	3
<i>Reference temperature</i> ($^{\circ}C$)	32	32

IAdistal

E-rev (mV)	-80	
Q10 diffusion	2	
<i>Diffusion reference temperature(°C)</i>	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	1 inactivation particle
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	2	-3.5
γ	0.57	1.2
V-half (mV)	-1	-74
$ au_0 (ms)$	0.2	5.0
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.28	1.3
Q10	3	3
Reference temperature ($^{\circ}C$)	32	32

f) T-type Ca2+ current (ICaT) (Magee and Johnston, 1995)

ICaT density:

For ICaT, permeability was used rather then current density because the Goldman-Hodgkin-Katz equation is used. Uniform distribution in all compartments: $0.03 \text{ e}-12 \text{ cm}^3$ /s. Not present in axon.

For calculating ICaT density, the spine area correction is applied.

<u>ICaT</u>		
$[Ca^{2+}]_{extra}$	1.8 mM	
$[Ca^{2+}]_{intra}$	50 nM	
Q10 diffusion	2.5	
Diffusion reference temperature(°C)	22	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	1 activation particle
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	4.0	-4.7
Valence, z γ	4.0 0.9	-4.7 0.5
Valence, z γ V-half (mV)	4.0 0.9 -51.73	-4.7 0.5 -85.4
Valence, z γ V-half (mV) τ_0 (ms)	4.0 0.9 -51.73 0.5	-4.7 0.5 -85.4 12
Valence, z γ V-half (mV) τ_0 (ms) Base-rate, K (1/ms)	4.0 0.9 -51.73 0.5 0.15	-4.7 0.5 -85.4 12 0.006
Valence, z γ V-half (mV) τ ₀ (ms) Base-rate, K (1/ms) Q10	4.0 0.9 -51.73 0.5 0.15 1.7	-4.7 0.5 -85.4 12 0.006 2.5

<u>g) Delayed rectifier type K+ current (IK)</u> (Hoffman et al., 1997;Murakoshi and Trimmer, 1999)

11

IK density:

Uniform distribution throughout the entire somato-dendritic tree: 15 $pS/\mu m^2$. Not present in the axon.

For calculating IK density, the spine area correction is applied.

IK		
E-rev (mV)	-80	
Q10 diffusion	2	
Diffusion reference temperature(°C)	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	1 inactivation particle
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	2.4	-4
γ	0.5	0
V-half (mV)	13	-26
$ au_0 (ms)$	1.0	4000
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	0.08	0
<i>Q10</i>	3	3
<i>Reference temperature</i> ($^{\circ}C$)	32	32

h) D-current (ID) (Golding et al., 1999;Kole et al., 2007;Metz et al., 2007;Storm, 1988)

ID density:

In segments (< 200 μ m from the soma) of basal- and oblique dendrites and apical trunk: 5 pS/ μ m². Also in soma and in the axon (< 40 μ m from the soma): 5 pS/ μ m².

For calculating ID density the spine area correction is applied.

E-rev (mV)	-80	
Q10 diffusion	2	
<i>Diffusion reference temperature(°C)</i>	32	
Number of particles	1 activation particle	1 inactivation particle
	Activation particle	Inactivation particle
Valence, z	4	-3.5
γ	0	0.5
V-half (mV)	-50	-90
$ au_0$ (ms)	1.0	400
Base-rate, K (1/ms)	1.0	3e-4
Q10	3	3
Reference temperature ($^{\circ}C$)	32	32

ID

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