1

NEUROSCIENCE



RESEARCH ARTICLE

J. Yoshida et al. / Neuroscience xxx (2018) xxx-xxx

Area-specific Modulation of Functional Cortical Activity During 3 **Block-based and Trial-based Proactive Inhibition** 4

Junichi Yoshida, ^{a,b,c,d} Akiko Saiki, ^{a,c,e} Shogo Soma, ^{a,c} Ko Yamanaka, ^f Satoshi Nonomura, ^a Alain Ríos, ^{a,b} Masanori Kawabata, ^{a,b} Minoru Kimura, ^{a,b} Yutaka Sakai ^{a,b} and Yoshikazu Isomura ^{a,b}* 5 6

- 7 ^a Brain Science Institute, Tamagawa University, Tokyo 194-8610, Japan
- 8 ^b Graduate School of Brain Sciences, Tamagawa University, Tokyo 194-8610, Japan
- 9 ^c Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, Tokyo 102-0083, Japan
- 10 ^d Dominick P. Purpura Department of Neuroscience, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, New York 10461, United States
- 11 ^e Department of Neurobiology, Institute of Biomedical and Health Sciences, Hiroshima University, Hiroshima 734-8553, Japan
- ^f Department of Physiology, Faculty of Health and Sports Science, Juntendo University, Chiba 270-1695, Japan 12
- Abstract—Animals can suppress their behavioral response in advance according to changes in environmental 14 context (proactive inhibition: delaying the start of response), a process in which several cortical areas may participate. However, it remains unclear how this process is adaptively regulated according to contextual changes on different timescales. To address the issue, we used an improved stop-signal task paradigm to behaviorally and electrophysiologically characterize the temporal aspect of proactive inhibition in head-fixed rats. In the task, they must respond to a go cue as quickly as possible (go trial), but did not have to respond if a stop cue followed the go cue (stop trial). The task alternated between a block of only go trials (G-block) and a block of go-and-stop trials (GS-block). We observed block-based and trial-based proactive inhibition (emerging in GS-block and after stop trial, respectively) by behaviorally evaluating the delay in reaction time in correct go trials depending on contextual changes on different timescales. We electrophysiologically analyzed task-related neuronal activity in the primary and secondary motor, posterior parietal, and orbitofrontal cortices (M1, M2, PPC, and OFC, respectively). Under block-based proactive inhibition, spike activity of cue-preferring OFC neurons was attenuated continuously, while M1 and M2 activity was enhanced during motor preparation. Subsequently, M1 activity was attenuated during motor decision/execution. Under trial-based proactive inhibition, the OFC activity was continuously enhanced, and PPC and M1 activity was also enhanced shortly during motor decision/execution. These results suggest that different cortical mechanisms underlie the two types of proactive inhibition in rodents. © 2018 IBRO. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Key words: rodent, cerebral cortex, proactive inhibition, stop-signal task, multi-neuronal recording.

15

INTRODUCTION

Proactive inhibition, a type of behavioral inhibition, delays 16 the start of a behavioral response (i.e., reaction time) 17 under a condition that may suddenly require 18 suppression of the intended response (Verbruggen and 19 Logan, 2008b; Aron, 2011; Jahanshahi et al., 2015b). 20 This rational behavior is advantageous in that it allows 21 the animal to reliably make the appropriate choice (i.e., 22 execution or suppression of the response) by slowing 23

E-mail address: isomura@lab.tamagawa.ac.jp (Y. Isomura).

Abbreviations: M1, primary motor cortex; M2, secondary motor cortex; PPC, posterior parietal cortex; OFC, orbitofrontal cortex; frSST, free response stop-signal task.

reaction time. To date, stop-signal tasks have often been 24 adopted to investigate behavioral inhibitions, including 25 proactive inhibition (Vince, 1948; Lappin and Eriksen, 26 1966; Logan et al., 1984; Verbruggen and Logan, 27 2008b). In such tasks, subjects must typically respond 28 quickly to a go cue (go trial), but if a stop cue, given ran-29 domly, follows the go cue, they must suppress the 30 response (stop trial). Reaction time in a go trial is longer 31 following a stop trial than following a go trial in humans 32 (Riger and Gauggel, 1999), monkeys (Emeric et al., 33 2007; Nelson et al., 2010), and rodents (Mayse et al., 34 2014). This effect rapidly disappears within a few trials. 35 suggesting that proactive inhibition can emerge in a 36 trial-based change in context; hereafter, we refer to this 37 as a "trial-based proactive inhibition". On the other hand, 38 in humans, reaction time is longer during blocks of go tri-39 als with occasional stop trials than during blocks of only 40

0306-4522/© 2018 IBRO. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1

^{*}Correspondence to: Y. Isomura, Brain Science Institute, Tamagawa University, 6-1-1 Tamagawa-gakuen, Machida, Tokyo 194-8610, Japan Fax: +81-42-739-7221.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2018.07.039

2

go trials (Verbruggen et al., 2005; Verbruggen and Logan, 41 2008a). Also, an instruction cue indicating the possibility 42 of a stop trial (as a rule instruction) causes proactive inhi-43 bition in monkey and human (Chikazoe et al., 2009; 44 Verbruggen and Logan, 2009; Zandbelt et al., 2013). 45 These effects appear to last as long as the context contin-46 ues. These observations suggest that proactive inhibition 47 48 can emerge in a block/rule-based change in context: we refer to this as a "block-based proactive inhibition". There-49 fore, it is possible that proactive inhibition can be induced 50 adaptively by contextual changes on different timescales. 51

Abnormalities in proactive inhibition have been 52 53 reported in several human diseases in which the 54 balance of behavioral execution and inhibition is impaired, e.g., parkinsonism (Jahanshahi et al., 2015a), 55 Tourette's syndrome (Ganos et al., 2014), alcoholism 56 (Hu et al., 2015), and eating disorders (Bartholdy et al., 57 2016). Accordingly, it is of great importance, pathophysi-58 ologically as well as physiologically, to elucidate the neu-59 ral mechanism underlying proactive inhibition. Recent 60 functional imaging studies in healthy subjects revealed 61 that brain structures such as the cerebral cortex, striatum, 62 63 and midbrain are involved in block-/rule-based proactive 64 inhibition during stop-signal tasks (Vink et al., 2005; 65 Chikazoe et al., 2009; Stuphorn and Emeric, 2012; 66 Zandbelt et al., 2013; van Belle et al., 2014; Vink et al., 67 2015). In particular, proactive inhibition involves cortico-68 basal ganglia loops originating from different cortical areas, e.g., the premotor cortex, supplementary motor 69 area, parietal cortex, and inferior frontal gyrus (for 70 reviews, see Aron, 2011; Jahanshahi et al., 2015b; 71 Meyer and Bucci, 2016). However, only a small number 72 of studies attempted to clarify the neural mechanism of 73 proactive or similar inhibition at the single-neuron level. 74 For example, neuronal activity was electrophysiologically 75 examined with regard to trial-based proactive inhibition in 76 77 monkeys performing stop-signal tasks (Chen et al., 2010; 78 Pouget et al., 2011; Stuphorn and Emeric, 2012), and post-error slowing, a delay in reaction following an error 79 go response, in behaving rats (Narayanan and Laubach, 80 2008; Narayanan et al., 2013). Those studies never con-81 sidered the differences in proactive inhibition according to 82 contextual changes on different timescales. Conse-83 quently, it remains unknown whether the block- and 84 85 trial-based types of proactive inhibition are regulated by common or distinct neuronal mechanism(s). 86

To address this issue, we established an improved 87 version of the stop-signal task, which enabled us to 88 evaluate the block-based (long timescale) and trial-89 based (short timescale) types of proactive inhibition 90 91 separately in the same rats. Combining this behavioral task with multi-neuronal recordings, we observed 92 93 different patterns of modulation of neuronal activity in the frontal and parietal cortical areas during proactive 94 inhibition on different timescales. 95

96 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

97 Animals and surgery

All experiments were approved by the Animal ResearchEthics Committee of Tamagawa University (animal

experiment protocol H22/28-32), and were carried out in 100 accordance with the Fundamental Guidelines for Proper 101 Conduct of Animal Experiment and Related Activities in 102 Academic Research Institutions (Ministry of Education, 103 Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan) and 104 Guidelines for Animal Experimentation the in 105 Neuroscience (Japan Neuroscience Society). All 106 surgical procedures were performed under appropriate 107 isoflurane anesthesia, and all efforts were made to 108 minimize suffering (see below). Our procedures for 109 animal experiments were established in our previous 110 studies (Isomura et al., 2009, 2013; Kimura et al., 2012, 111 2017; Saiki et al., 2014, 2018; Nonomura et al., 2017; 112 Soma et al., 2017). 113

Seven adult Long-Evans rats $(277 \pm 29 \, \text{g}, \text{ males})$ 114 were kept in their home cages under an inverted light 115 schedule (lights off at 9 a.m.; lights on at 9p.m.). These 116 rats were briefly handled by an experimenter (10 min, 117 twice) before surgery. To attach a head-plate (CFR-2, 118 Narishige, Tokyo, Japan) for head-fixation, animals were 119 anaesthetized with isoflurane gas (4.5% for induction 120 and 2.0-2.5% for maintenance, Pfizer Japan Inc., 121 Tokyo, Japan) using an inhalation anesthesia apparatus 122 (Univentor 400 anesthesia unit, Univentor, Zejtun, 123 Malta), and then placed on a stereotaxic frame (SR-124 10R-HT, Narishige). For local anesthesia, lidocaine 125 (AstraZeneca, Osaka, Japan) was administered around 126 the surgical incisions. Reference and ground electrodes 127 (Teflon-coated silver wires, A-M systems, WA, USA; 128 125 µm in diameter) were implanted above the 129 cerebellum. During anesthesia, body temperature was 130 maintained at 37 °C using an animal warmer (BWT-100, 131 Bio Research Center, Tokyo, Japan). Analgesics and 132 antibiotics were applied postoperatively as required 133 (meloxicam, 1 mg/kg s.c., Boehringer Ingelheim Japan, 134 Tokyo, Japan; gentamicin ointment, 0.1% us. ext., MSD, 135 Tokyo, Japan). After recovery from surgery (6 days 136 later), the rats were deprived of drinking water in their 137 home cage, but they were able to obtain a sufficient 138 amount of water as rewards for daily task performance. 139 If necessary, the rats were provided an agar block 140 (containing 15 ml water) to maintain >80% of their 141 original body weight. Food was available in the home 142 cage ad libitum. 143

Behavioral task

To examine proactive inhibition, we established the free 145 response stop-signal task (frSST) (Fig. 1A), in which 146 rats could easily learn to perform go and stop responses 147 adaptively in a head-fixed condition. In the frSST, the 148 rats had to correctly manipulate a "spout-lever" (an 149 operandum unified with a reward; Kimura et al., 2012) 150 with their right forelimb under head-fixation to acquire 151 reward water from the tip of the spout-lever. The spout-152 lever was movable horizontally (full range 12 mm; posi-153 tions defined as follows: 0% for front end, 100% for rear 154 end). We defined the 'push' area as the range 0-20%. 155 the 'hold' area as 65-79%, the 'lick' area as 80-100% 156 (Fig. 1A, left). For data analysis, we defined the push-157 reaction border as 50%, and the pull-reaction border as 158

144

Download English Version:

https://daneshyari.com/en/article/8840570

Download Persian Version:

https://daneshyari.com/article/8840570

Daneshyari.com