

Physiological Properties of Hippocampal Neurons



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Abstract Neurons are the basic computational units of the nervous system. Information processing in the brain is critically dependent on the electrophysiological properties of individual neurons, which are determined by the presence and distribution of many functionally and pharmacologically different ion channels. The parameters that define the functional roles of individual neurons can be grouped into two major groups: on one side are cellular morphology and topology, which dictate the connectivity of each neuron; on the other side are the different electrophysiological properties of each cell type, which are defined by the combined effects of neuronal active and passive properties and shape the integrative function of each individual cell. The type and timing of neuronal responses to synaptic inputs depend on the firing pattern of each neuron, which in turn is set by the interplay of intrinsic and synaptic electrophysiological properties. In recent years it has also become clear that within each individual neuron the electrophysiological properties are not homogeneous but vary in the various cellular compartments. In particular, it has been shown that dendrites, far from being simple cellular antennas that passively conduct synaptic inputs toward the soma and the axon, are very active structures capable of actively boost synaptic inputs and, at least in some neurons, of generating action potentials that effectively propagate to the soma (Llinás and Sugimori, *J Physiol* 305:197–213, 1980; Stuart and Sakmann, *Nature* 367:69–72, 1994; Häusser et al., *Neuron* 15:637–647, 1995; Spruston et al., *Science* 268:297–300, 1995; Martina et al., *Science* 287:295–300, 2000). Thus, the different voltage-gated ion channels expressed by each neuron and in each cellular compartment within individual neurons play a fundamental role in shaping the electrical response of individual neurons to synaptic stimulation and ultimately in

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dictating the role of each neuron within the hippocampal network. This chapter will focus on the properties and distribution of voltage-gated ion channels in some of the major neuronal types in the hippocampus and dentate gyrus.

The Data

Comprehensive models describing the function of any brain area must take account of the large differences in the electrophysiology of individual neuronal types. Such differences are mainly the result of the properties of the ion channels expressed by each individual cell type. This chapter provides a brief review of the properties and distribution of voltage-gated ion channels in some of the main hippocampal cell types. The hippocampal formation contains three classes of glutamatergic projection neurons (pyramidal neurons of the hippocampus and granule cells and mossy cells of the dentate gyrus) and many different types of GABAergic interneurons (Freund and Buzsáki 1996, Parra et al. 1998; see also chapter “[Connectivity of the Hippocampus](#)” of this book). Hippocampal pyramidal neurons are among the most extensively studied neurons in the entire brain. Electrophysiologically, they can be grouped into three major groups, CA1, CA2, and CA3, although a recent study reports a striking heterogeneity in both intrinsic properties and synaptic connectivity along the transverse axis of CA3 (Sun et al. 2017). Furthermore, pyramidal neurons in the subiculum likely constitute a fourth neuronal class with different electrical properties (Jung et al. 2001).

CA1 Pyramidal Neurons

The recorded resting membrane potential of CA1 pyramidal neurons varies in different preparations from -64 mV (recorded in perforated patch configuration at 32 °C, Spruston and Johnston 1992) to -84 mV, inferred from the reversal potential of voltage-gated potassium currents recorded in cell-attached configuration at 34 °C (Fricker et al. 1999). These cells have typically low input resistance (27 $\text{K}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}^2$, measured in acute rat slices using whole-cell configuration at room temperature, Taverna et al. 2005). The background conductance of CA1 pyramidal neurons is mainly mediated by inward rectifier potassium currents (Takigawa and Alzheimer 2002), voltage-insensitive KCNK potassium currents (largely TASK3 Taverna et al. 2005), and I_h (Maccaferri et al. 1993). The voltage response of CA1 pyramidal neurons is characterized by the presence of voltage sag upon injection of hyperpolarizing current and by action potential frequency accommodation on injection of depolarizing current. About 15% of the neurons show intrinsic bursting (defined as a ratio of <0.1 between the shortest interspike interval and the mean interspike interval; Metz et al. 2005). Spike accommodation mostly depends on the properties of the voltage-gated sodium and potassium currents expressed in these

Table 1 Sodium channels of CA1 pyramidal neurons

	Soma	Dendrites	Axon
Current type	Fast/persistent (Yue et al. 2005)	Fast (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	Fast (Colbert and Pan 2002)
Current density	+ (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	+ (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	++
Channel subunit	Nav1.1, Nav1.2 (Gong et al. 1999) Nav1.3 RNA before p30 (Felts et al. 1997)	Nav1.1, Nav1.2 (Gong et al. 1999)	Nav1.1, Nav1.2 (Gong et al. 1999)

cells. Action potentials are normally initiated close to the soma and backpropagate into dendrites in an activity-dependent manner so that while action potentials early in a train propagate reliably, those occurring later may fail to actively invade the distal dendrites (Spruston et al. 1995). Sodium currents of CA1 pyramidal neurons recover from inactivation with a bi-exponential time course (Martina and Jonas 1997); interestingly, longer lasting depolarizations increase both the relative contribution of the slow component and its time constant (see below). Thus, during a long depolarization, sodium channels undergo cumulative inactivation, which prevents sustained fast firing. Additionally, sustained high-frequency firing is also hindered because most of the voltage-gated potassium currents of these neurons inactivate rapidly (see below), and therefore prolonged depolarizations inactivate the potassium current and interfere with action potential repolarization.

Sodium Currents Voltage-gated sodium currents are expressed in all three functional compartments (soma, axon, dendrites; see Table 1) of pyramidal neurons. The current density appears relatively uniform in the different compartments (Colbert and Pan 2002; Magee and Johnston 1995a, b, Fig. 1), although enrichment in the axon initial segment is also compatible with the experimental data (Colbert and Pan 2002) and would mirror observations in CA3 pyramidal neurons, where sodium channel density peaks in the axon at $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$ from the soma (see below). The density of sodium current in CA1 pyramidal cell nucleated patches is $\sim 5 \text{ mS/cm}^2$ (M. Martina, unpublished observations).

The properties of the sodium current slightly differ between soma and dendrites. In particular, dendritic channels appear to undergo stronger cumulative inactivation during repetitive firing (Jung et al. 1997) and to have slower recovery from inactivation compared to somatic channels (Colbert et al. 1997). Recovery from inactivation in pyramidal neurons is described by a double exponential process, with the fast and slow components having time constant of ~ 2 and ~ 150 ms and contributing 85% and 15%, respectively, for a 30 ms-long test pulse; for 300 ms-long pulses, the values of the time constants are similar (2.6 and 351 ms, respectively), but the contribution of the slow component increases to 24% (all data were obtained at -120 mV holding potential and $22\text{--}24^\circ\text{C}$, Martina and Jonas 1997). Abundant expression of two sodium channel subunits (Nav 1.1 and 1.2) has been detected in

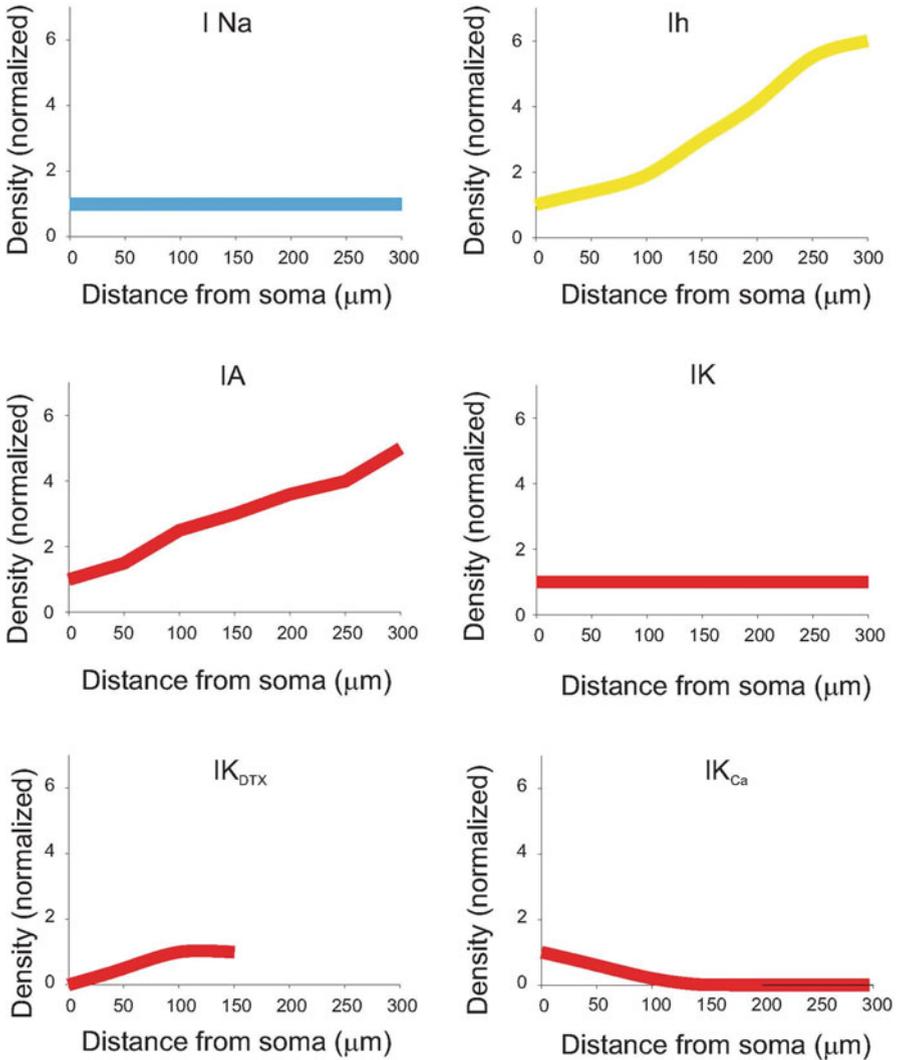


Fig. 1 Ion current density along the somatodendritic axis of CA1 pyramidal neurons. The density of each current type was normalized to its own density at the soma (except for $I_{K_{DTX}}$ in which it was normalized to the value in proximal dendrites). Therefore the figure only depicts the trend for each individual current, and no comparison is possible between the absolute values of the different currents

the hippocampus; type 1 channels appear to account for most of the somatodendritic staining, while type 2 staining is concentrated in the axons (Gong et al. 1999). In hippocampal pyramidal neurons, action potentials are normally initiated in the axon initial segment (Colbert and Johnston 1996). Colbert and Pan (2002) showed that initiation at this site is probably favored by a more negative activation range of

voltage-gated sodium current (sodium channel activation is shifted by ~ 7 mV in the hyperpolarizing direction). Modulation of Na^+ channel activation is also detected in dendritic channels. Sodium channels in distal dendritic segments have more negative activation range than in proximal dendrites. The midpoint of the activation curve is ~ -12 mV for distal dendritic channels and ~ -20 mV for proximal channels (Gasparini and Magee 2002), and this difference appears as the result of phosphorylation-dependent modulation since it is reproduced by staurosporine, a nonselective kinase inhibitor (Gasparini and Magee 2002). Yet, in spite of the more negative activation range of sodium channels, dendritic action potential initiation is not common and requires highly synchronized (within 3 ms) activation of ~ 50 synaptic inputs spread over $100 \mu\text{m}$ of the apical trunk/tuft (Gasparini et al. 2004). Moreover, the voltage threshold for dendritic action potential initiation is more positive than the somatic one (-48 ± 1 mV in the dendrites vs. -56 ± 1 mV at the soma, Gasparini et al. 2004). This apparent contradiction may be explained by the higher density of A-type potassium current in distal dendrites (Hoffman et al. 1997, Gasparini et al. 2004).

Voltage-Gated Potassium Channels CA1 pyramidal neurons express multiple types of voltage-gated K^+ channels (Storm 1990, Hoffman et al. 1997; Martina et al. 1998, Table 2). Three main components can be identified on the basis of functional and molecular analysis: an A-type current (see Table 3 for the A-type current properties), most likely mediated by $\text{Kv}4$ channels, which contributes $\sim 60\%$ of the total somatic current; a slow delayed rectifier (ID), likely attributable to $\text{Kv}1$ and $\text{Kv}2$ subunits, which contributes $\sim 27\%$ of the total somatic current; and a fast delayed rectifier (IK) mediated by $\text{Kv}3$ channels that contributes $\sim 12\%$ of the somatic current (Martina and Jonas 1997). The relative contribution of these components is different between the somatic and dendritic compartments (See Fig. 1). While the non-inactivating voltage-dependent currents (most likely mediated by $\text{Kv}2$ and $\text{Kv}3$ channels) show relatively constant density in the somatodendritic compartment, A-type current (mediated by $\text{Kv}4$ subunits Martina et al. 1998; Hoffman and Johnston 1998; Kim et al. 2005) progressively increases with distance from the soma (up to fivefold, Hoffman et al. 1997). The A-type potassium current typically activates at relatively hyperpolarized membrane potentials (starting ~ -45 mV, Martina et al. 1998). Interestingly, A-type current of pyramidal neurons is highly sensitive to metabolic modulation (Hoffman and Johnston 1998). Such modulation could play an important role in regulating synaptic plasticity, as shown by the change in the threshold for induction of long-term potentiation measured in response to pharmacological blockade of this current (Ramakers and Storm 2002). Expression of dendrotoxin-sensitive ($\text{Kv}1$ -mediated) potassium currents is spatially segregated in pyramidal neurons. This current is not expressed in the soma, but it is expressed in proximal dendrites (Fig. 2) where it contributes to the active regulation of the action potential afterdepolarization and therefore of burst firing (Metz et al. 2007).

Calcium-Dependent Potassium Channels Depolarizations produced in CA1 pyramidal neurons by iontophoretically applied glutamate are followed by hyperpolarizations which are mediated by calcium-dependent potassium channels

Table 2 Voltage-gated potassium channels of CA1 pyramidal neurons

	Soma	Dendrites	Axon
Current type	Potassium A-type (Storm 1990, Martina et al. 1998)	Potassium A-type (Hoffman et al. 1997)	Potassium A-type (Kim 2014)
Current density	+	+++	++
Channel subunit	Kv4.2 (+++), Kv4.3(+++)	Kv4.2, Kv4.3	Kv1.4 (?), Dendrotoxin-sensitive K ⁺ current (likely Kv1.1, Kv1.2, Kv1.6)
Current type	Potassium fast delayed rectifier (IK)	Potassium fast delayed rectifier (IK)	Potassium fast delayed rectifier (IK)
Current density	+(Hoffman et al. 1997)	+(Hoffman et al. 1997)	
Channel subunit	Kv3.1, 3.2	Kv3.1, 3.2	
Current type	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)
Current density	+ - (Martina et al. 1998)	+(Chen and Johnston 2004; Metz et al. 2007)	
Channel subunit	Kv1.1 (+, Wang et al. 1994, Martina et al. 1998), 1.2; Kv2.1, 2.2 (Maletic-Savatic et al. 1995; Martina et al. 1998)	Kv1.3(Metz et al. 2007); Kv 1.5 (Maletic-Savatic et al. 1995); Kv2.1 (Maletic-Savatic et al. 1995; Du et al. 2000; Misonou et al. 2006)	Kv1.1; 1.2 (Wang et al. 1994)
Current type	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)	Potassium slow rectifier (ID)
IK _{Ca}	+++	+(Johnston et al. 2000); but not Slo1 (Misonou et al. 2006)	
M-current (KCNQ)	++ (Hu et al. 2007)	-(Chen and Johnston 2004)	+ Vervaeke et al. 2006
Subunits	KCNQ2; KCNQ5 Shah et al. 2002	KCNQ2; KCNQ5 Shah et al. 2002	KCNQ2 Devaux et al. 2004

Table 3 Properties of inactivating voltage-gated K⁺ current in different hippocampal neurons and the MFB

	DG FS (1)	CA1 PC (1)	DGGC (2, 3)	MFB (4)
Act. V _{1/2}	-6.2	-3	-7.6 (3)	-26
Act. Slope (mV/e-fold)	5.75*	6.75*	10 (3)	5.2*
Inact. V _{1/2}	-75.5	-77.3	-65.1 (3); -67 (2)	-72
Inact. Slope	8.5	7.4	6 (3); 6.3 (2)	9.6
TEA block	No	No	Yes	Yes

In the original papers (1) and (4) activation curves were fitted with a Boltzmann function raised to the fourth power. In order to allow direct comparison with data obtained fitting a simple Boltzmann component (References 2 and 3), the slope factors reported in the papers have been divided by 4 in this table (marked by *)

References 1: Martina et al. (1998), 2: Beck et al. (1992); 3: Riazanski et al. (2001); 4: Geiger and Jonas (2000)

(Nicoll and Alger 1981). Additionally, action potential frequency is also regulated by a Ca²⁺-dependent potassium current, although the molecular identity of the channels mediating this current remains still unclear (King et al. 2015). Calcium-dependent, charybdotoxin-sensitive potassium channels appear to be unevenly distributed along the somatodendritic axis of CA1 neurons, with channel density decreasing with distance from the soma (Poolos and Johnston 1999) so that the current mediated by these channels is almost completely absent at ~150 μm from the soma (Johnston et al. 2000, see Fig. 1). This is in stark contrast to the A-type current density, which strongly increases along the dendrites, but also to the non-inactivating currents mediated by voltage-gated channels (most likely by Kv3 and Kv2 subunits), which are expressed at constant density throughout the somatodendritic compartment (Hoffman et al. 1997).

The data presented so far suggest that several different potassium channel subunits are expressed by CA1 pyramidal neurons. Indeed, in situ hybridization, immunostaining, and single-cell RT-PCR show that CA1 pyramidal neurons express many different potassium channel subunits, including Kv1.1, 1.2, 1.4, and 1.5 (Maletic-Savatic et al. 1995, Martina et al. 1998); Kv2.1 and 2.2 and Kv3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 (Martina et al. 1998; Du et al. 2000); and Kv4.2 and 4.3 (Serôdio and Rudy 1998; Martina et al. 1998; Rhodes et al. 2004). It is interesting that although expression of dendrotoxin-sensitive Kv1 subunits is detected in these cells, no effect of dendrotoxin, a Kv1-selective toxin (Grissmer et al. 1994), is detected on potassium currents either in nucleated patches from CA1 pyramidal neurons (Martina et al. 1998) or in focal somatic application of the toxin (Metz et al. 2007). This is consistent with reports showing that Kv1 channels are mainly expressed in presynaptic structures (Monaghan et al. 2001; Sheng et al. 1992). Whole-cell recordings, however, showed an effect of dendrotoxin on action potential initiation (Golding et al. 1999), further suggesting axonal localization of these channels. Finally, dendritic recordings and focal drug application showed that dendrotoxin-sensitive channels are also expressed in apical dendrites, where they modulate the

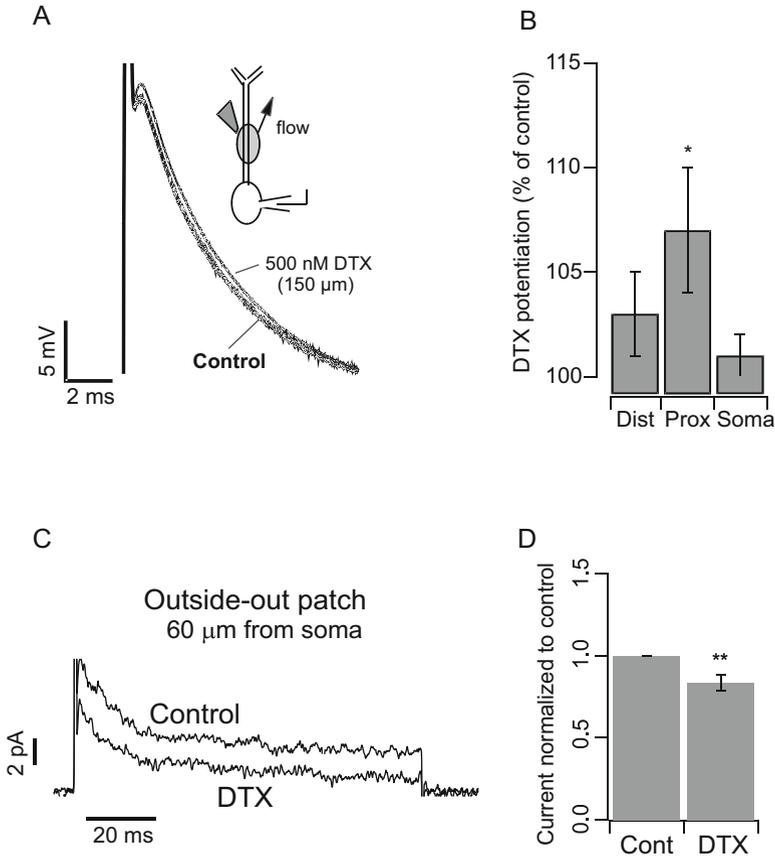


Fig. 2 Dendrotoxin sensitive currents in dendrites of CA1 pyramidal neurons **(a)** Current clamp recording of a somatic afterdepolarization (ADP) recorded in control conditions (thick line) and in the presence of focal dendritic application of dendrotoxin (DTX, thin line). The ADP is increased by DTX. **(b)** Bar chart summarizing the effects of DTX locally applied to the soma, proximal, and distal apical dendrites on the somatic ADP. **(c)** Voltage clamp outside-out dendritic recordings confirm the presence of DTX-sensitive currents in proximal apical dendrites. **(d)** Bar chart summarizing the blocking effect of DTX on dendritic potassium currents. (Figure modified from Metz et al. 2007)

size of the afterdepolarization that underlies burst firing (Metz et al. 2007). These data nicely match those obtained by histological analysis that shows expression of Kv1 subunits in the dendritic arbor of CA1 pyramidal neurons (Park et al. 2001). Thus, Kv1 subunit expression appears to be selectively absent from the soma, while present in both the axon and dendrites of CA1 pyramidal neurons.

M-Current This potassium current is mediated by members of the KCNQ family (Wang et al. 1998; Schroeder et al. 2000). M-current is expressed at very low density in the dendritic compartment of CA1 pyramidal neurons (Chen and Johnston 2004).

However, expression of KCNQ2 and KCNQ3 subunits is high in CA1 pyramidal neurons (Saganich et al. 2001), and M-type current in these neurons effectively controls burst generation (Yue and Yaari 2004). In keeping with these observations, Hu et al. (2007) have shown that M-current in CA1 pyramidal neurons is mainly localized in the perisomatic area. It has been proposed that the interaction between M-current and persistent sodium current mediates a form of theta resonance (M-resonance) in hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons (Hu et al. 2002).

Voltage-Gated Calcium Channels Both low- and high-voltage-activated calcium currents have been described in CA1 pyramidal neurons (Table 4). Calcium channels are primarily located at the soma, and their density decreases along the dendrites (Christie et al. 1995), although they are present in dendrites and in dendritic spines (Mills et al. 1994).

The high-voltage-activated current is itself mediated by multiple components. An omega-agatoxin IVA-sensitive (P-type) current contributes about 26% of the somatic high-threshold current (Mintz et al. 1992). N-type channels have also been described in the soma as well as dendrites and spines (Mills et al. 1994) although somatic expression appears more prominent. Nevertheless postsynaptic N-type current has been shown to play an important role in modulation of synaptic strength (Normann et al. 2000). CA1 pyramidal neurons also express large blocker-resistant high-voltage calcium current (R-type). In acutely dissociated cells, this component (defined as the fraction of calcium current available from a holding potential of -50 mV in the presence of the combined application of ω -CgTx GVIA, ω -CgTx MVIIC, ω -AgaTx IVa, and nifedipine) contributes $\sim 40\%$ of the high-voltage-activated current (Sochivko et al. 2003). Interestingly, a large fraction of the tail current activated by an action potential in nucleated patches is attributable to the R-type (Metz et al. 2005). This current appears to play an important role in the regulation of the afterdepolarization that drives burst firing in CA1 pyramidal neurons. In particular, the calcium influx mediated by this tail current downregulates Kv7 potassium channels, which, when fully available, strongly attenuate the afterdepolarization (Chen and Yaari 2008). R-type currents are present also in dendrites and dendritic spines, where, together with T-type, they provide about 50% of the calcium currents evoked by backpropagated action potentials (Hoogland and Saggau 2004). The R-component in CA1 pyramidal neurons is partly mediated by $\alpha 1E$ subunits (Sochivko et al. 2002), although other subunits also contribute as demonstrated by the fact that a current with the functional properties of the R current is still present in $\alpha 1E$ knockout mice (Wilson et al. 2000).

The classical dihydropyridine-sensitive L-type current is also present in the soma as well as in the dendrites of pyramidal neurons (Takahashi et al. 1989; Magee and Johnston 1995a, b; Hoogland and Saggau 2004). Dihydropyridine-sensitive channels appear to be open at membrane potential around resting and therefore contribute to the neuronal calcium homeostasis (Magee et al. 1996). This current is expressed in every neuronal compartment although its density appears particularly elevated in the proximal apical dendrites. Activation at negative membrane potential and sensitivity to dihydropyridine suggest that this current is mediated by the $\alpha 1D$

Table 4 Voltage-gated calcium channels of CA1 pyramidal neurons

	Soma	Dendrites	Axon
T-type			
Density	++ (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	+(Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	
Subunits	Cav3.1; 3.2; 3.3 (McKay et al. 2006)	Cav 3.2; 3.3 (McKay et al. 2006)	Cav3.3 (McKay et al. 2006)
L-type			
Density	++ (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	++(Magee and Johnston 1995a, b)	
Subunits	Cav1.2 (Tippens et al. 2008) +++ + Bowden et al. 2001	Cav1.2 (Tippens et al. 2008) ++ ++ Bowden et al. 2001	Cav1.2 (Tippens et al. 2008) ++
Subunits	Cav1.3 (Veng and Browning 2002) ++ + Bowden et al. 2001	Cav1.3 (Veng and Browning 2002) ++ ++ Bowden et al. 2001	Cav1.3(Veng and Browning 2002) + -
N-type			
Density	++ (Christie et al. 1995) But NOT Cav2.2 (Chung et al. 2000) ++ Magee and Johnston (1995a, b)	+ - (Christie et al. 1995) + Mills et al. 1994 (omega-CgTx-sensitive); - Magee and Johnston (1995a, b)	
P/Q-type			
Density	+ (Christie et al. 1995) + Hillman et al. 1991 ++ Stea et al. 1994	+ - (Christie et al. 1995) + Hillman et al. 1991	
Subunits			
	Cav2.1 (Day et al. 1996) But NOT Cav2.2 (Chung et al. 2000) + Metz et al. 2005 + Wilson et al. 2000 + Sochivko et al. 2002	+ dendritic shaft Bloodgood and Sabatini 2007 + Dendritic spines Bloodgood and Sabatini 2007	

subunit (Cav1.3, Xu and Lipscombe 2001), which has been shown to be expressed throughout the somatodendritic compartment of CA1 pyramidal neurons (Veng and Browning 2002). However, Radzicki et al. (2013) showed that a large low-threshold nimodipine-sensitive current is still present in CA1 pyramidal neurons of Cav1.3 KO mice. The same authors also showed that Cav1.2 and 1.3 are the only L-type subunits expressed in the CA1 subfield, thus suggesting that Cav1.2 subunits mediate a large fraction of the resting calcium current in these neurons. Low-threshold T-type currents (in CA1 pyramidal cells, these currents start activating ~ -60 mV and reach full amplitude ~ -20 mV; Takahashi et al. 1991) are also present in both the somatic and dendritic compartments (Takahashi et al. 1989; Magee and Johnston 1995a, b). Dendritic T-type currents are activated by subthreshold synaptic events and produce local increases in intracellular calcium, which may be important for the regulation of synaptic strength (Magee et al. 1995). It has been shown that selective potentiation of T-type current occurs in status epilepticus and can transform CA1 pyramidal neurons from regular firing to intrinsically low-threshold bursting cells (Su et al. 2002); it has also been proposed that the increase in T-type current density associated with status epilepticus is limited to, or more prominent, in the apical dendrites where these channels facilitate dendritic depolarization by backpropagating somatic spikes (Yaari et al. 2007).

Hyperpolarization-Activated Current (I_h) The hyperpolarization-activated current is a depolarizing current (the reversal potential is ~ -20 mV) activated by hyperpolarizations more negative than ~ -60 mV and was first described in CA1 pyramidal neurons by Maccaferri et al. (1993). This current is important for regulating firing activity as well as input resistance, and its density sharply increases along the somatodendritic axis (Magee 1998; Fig. 1). It is worth stressing that such gradient in I_h density, although very prominent in CA1 pyramidal neurons as well as in layer 5 cortical pyramidal neurons (Stuart and Spruston 1998), does not appear to constitute a general property of all pyramidal neurons. Bullis et al. (2007) recently described pyramidal-like principal (PLP) neurons, a novel class of hippocampal neurons with pyramidal morphology found in the stratum radiatum. Interestingly, in these neurons the I_h gradient is inverted, showing high somatic density that declines along the dendrites. This finding further supports the notion that, although general rules may regulate ion channel distribution among different neuronal classes, extrapolations should be avoided, and a detailed study is required for each cell type.

CA3 Pyramidal Neurons

The input resistance of CA3 pyramidal neurons is in the range 120–200 K Ω cm² (Major et al. 1994). The **sodium currents** are functionally similar to those in CA1 pyramidal cells, although some differences were observed in the voltage-dependent inactivation (Steinhäuser et al. 1990). It was recently shown that in CA3 pyramidal

neurons, sodium channel density is maximal in the axon at 30–50 μm from the soma, which constitutes the location of first action potential generation (Meeks and Mennerick 2007).

Similar to CA1 pyramidal neurons, the voltage-gated **potassium current** of CA3 pyramidal neurons can be classified into three main components: IA, ID, and IK. Of these, the fast-activating ID and IA contribute to the repolarization of the action potential (Mitterdorfer and Bean 2002).

A direct comparison of the potassium currents in CA1 and CA3 pyramidal neurons was performed by Klee et al. (1995). The main difference found was a larger contribution of Ca-dependent current in CA3 cells (20% of total delayed rectifier vs. 10% in CA1). This finding fits well with the observed impact of SK channels on the frequency of intra-burst action potentials in CA3 pyramidal neurons.

One potentially interesting difference is that in CA3 pyramidal neurons, part of the inactivating A-type current is highly 4-AP-sensitive (Bossu et al. 1996), which suggests that channels constituted either by Kv1 subunits associated to beta subunits (which confer rapid A-type inactivation to non-inactivating Kv1 channels; Rettig et al. 1994) or by Kv3.3/3.4 subunits contribute to this current. Relatively abundant expression of Kv3.3 transcript was actually reported in CA3 pyramidal layer (Weiser et al. 1994). A larger contribution of Kv3.3 subunits to the fast transient potassium current of CA3 neurons compared to the current of CA1 neurons (which is almost entirely mediated by Kv4 subunits, see above) may favor the generation of low-threshold bursts because of the more depolarized action potential values required to activate Kv3.3 channels compared to Kv4 (Baldwin et al. 1991; Fernandez et al. 2003). Another potential difference between the potassium current of CA3 and CA1 pyramidal neurons concerns the expression by CA3 cells, at least in organotypic cultures, of a current that is down-modulated by intracellular calcium and is involved in action potential repolarization as well as in the control of synaptic transmission (Saviane et al. 2003). In keeping with this observation, two of the potassium currents of CA3 pyramidal neurons, a voltage-gated current and a Ca-dependent current, are inhibited by activation of an ACPD-sensitive quisqualate receptor (Charpak et al. 1990), suggesting that the local metabolic state influences the size of these currents and therefore the input-output function of CA3 pyramidal neurons. Along this line, Hyun et al. (2013) have shown that a current likely mediated by Kv1.2 channels is downregulated by increased intracellular calcium and causes intrinsic hyperexcitability in response to action potential trains (10 Hz). Interestingly, such potentiation was not detected in CA1 pyramidal neurons.

Similar to CA1, the **calcium current** in CA3 pyramidal neurons is the sum of multiple components (Mogul and Fox 1991). Overall the currents are similar to those of CA1 pyramidal neurons (Thompson and Wong 1991). P-type contribution to the high-threshold currents, however, is smaller in CA3 neurons than in their CA1 counterparts (14% vs. 26% Mintz et al. 1992); a detailed analysis (Avery and Johnston 1996) showed that the main difference between the currents of the two cell types is that in CA3 pyramidal neurons, the low-voltage-activated current actually comprises two different components, one inactivating and nickel sensitive (typical T-type) and one sustained and partly dihydropyridine sensitive (L-type; see

Table 5 Distribution and gating properties of dendritic Na⁺ channels in the main glutamatergic cell types of the hippocampus

	DG FS (Hu et al. 2010)	CA1 PC (Magee and Johnston 1995a, b; Kim et al. 2012)	CA3 PC (Kim et al. 2012)
Conductance density vs. distance to soma	Low (+/-)	Constant (++)	Increasing (from ++ to +++)
Act. V _{1/2}	N/A	-30	-37.6
Act. slope (mV/e-fold)	7.2	7.9	
Inact. V _{1/2}	-62	-72.9	
Inact. slope	6.9	8.0	

Xu and Lipscombe (2001)). The presence of multiple types of low-voltage-activated calcium channels may contribute to the intrinsic firing of CA3 neurons.

Recent technical advancements, such as confocally guided subcellular patch clamp techniques, have helped advancing our knowledge of the ion conductances in dendrites of CA3 pyramidal neurons (Kim et al. 2012). Interestingly, in these cells dendritic spikes are mediated by voltage-gated Na⁺ channels, rather than by Ca²⁺ channels. Conversion of dendritic current density into conductance density revealed that the average ratio of Na⁺ to total K⁺ conductance density is 0.72. Thus, CA3 pyramidal neuron dendrites show a high Na⁺-to-K⁺ current ratio in comparison with other types of neurons (Table 5). The density of the different components showed differential distance dependence. For the Na⁺ current, the apparent density decreased from the soma to the proximal dendrites and then increased from the proximal to the distal dendrites. In contrast, the dendritic A-type K⁺ current density increased continuously from the soma to the distal dendritic region. Finally, the delayed rectifier K⁺ current density was not significantly dependent on distance (Kim et al. 2012).

CA2 Pyramidal Neurons

CA2 is a unique region situated between CA3 and CA1. Several recent studies revealed that pyramidal cells in this subfield have distinctive synaptic connectivity, intrinsic membrane properties, and functional roles (Chevalleyre and Siegelbaum 2010; Kohara et al. 2014; Palacio et al. 2017; Srinivas et al. 2017; see review by Robert et al. 2018). The development over the past decade of new tools such as molecular profiling and transgenic mouse lines has enabled the reliable identification of CA2 pyramidal neurons, facilitating the investigation of the functional properties of this cell population. CA2 pyramidal neurons display unique intrinsic electrophysiological properties that are distinct from those of CA1 or CA3 pyramidal neurons. In comparison to CA1 pyramidal neurons, the resting

potential of CA2 pyramidal neurons is more hyperpolarized, with values ranging from -76 mV to -74 mV at 30 – 36 °C for adult mice (Zhao et al. 2007; Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum 2010; Sun et al. 2014, 2017; Piskorowski et al. 2016; Srinivas et al. 2017). Additionally, the resting potential of CA2 pyramidal neurons appears to become gradually more hyperpolarized along the transverse axis from area CA2 and throughout CA3 (Sun et al. 2017). Similarly, the input resistance exhibits a proximo-distal (from CA3c to CA2) gradient, with the lowest values measured in CA2 pyramidal neurons, ranging from 49 to 86 M Ω (~ 15.5 – 26 K Ω cm²) at 33 – 36 °C (Palacio et al. 2017; Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum 2010; Srinivas et al. 2017). The gradients in both resting potential value and input resistance may be mediated, at least in part, by a similar proximo-distal gradient in Ih (see below).

Voltage-Gated Potassium Channels Although molecular profiling studies have identified distinct mRNA expression patterns between CA1 and CA2 (Talley et al. 2001; Lein et al. 2005), the expression of different types of channels in CA2 pyramidal neurons remains largely unexplored. The expression levels of the Kv2 subunit are strikingly different in CA1 and CA2 pyramidal neurons (Palacio et al. 2017). Fluorescence immunohistochemistry in mouse brain has revealed that Kv2.1, Kv2.2, and their auxiliary subunit AMIGO-1 have the highest expression levels in CA1, with a sharp decrease at the CA1-CA2 boundary, and significantly reduced levels in CA2 pyramidal neurons (Palacio et al. 2017). Consistent with this observation, CA2 pyramidal neurons lack the prominent slow afterhyperpolarization seen in CA1 pyramidal neurons (Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum 2010; Palacio et al. 2017), and that has been attributed to Kv2-mediated currents (Liu and Bean 2014).

Hyperpolarization-Activated Current (Ih) The depolarizing membrane “sag” in response to hyperpolarizing current injection, which is caused by Ih activation, is much larger in CA1 than in CA2 pyramidal neurons (Chevaleyre and Siegelbaum 2010). This difference is consistent with the higher expression of the HCN1 subunit in CA1 pyramidal neurons compared to CA2 and CA3 (Notomi and Shigemoto 2004; Santoro et al. 2004; Srinivas et al. 2017). In agreement with the linear gradient in resting potential and input resistance across the transverse axis, CA2 pyramidal neurons exhibit the greatest sag amplitude, followed by CA3a, with CA3c having the smallest sag (Sun et al. 2017).

Dentate Gyrus Granule Neurons

Granule cells are glutamatergic projection neurons conveying information from the dentate gyrus to the CA3 area of the hippocampus. From an electrophysiological perspective, these neurons are particularly interesting among central glutamatergic neurons because the large size of their axonal terminals allows patch clamp characterization of the ion channels in the boutons (Geiger and Jonas 2000; Bischofberger et al. 2002; Engel and Jonas 2005), thus providing a rare opportunity to compare the properties and density of ion channels in the soma and the axon terminal of

Table 6 Gating properties of Na⁺ channels in hippocampal neurons

	DG FS Soma (1)	CA1 PC Soma (1)	DGGC Soma (2, 4)	DGGC Bouton (3)
Act. V _{1/2}	-25.1	-23.9	-22.6 (2) -25.8 (4)	-38.4
Act. slope (mV/e-fold)	11.5	11.8	5.8 (2); 5.2 (4)	8
Deact. τ (-40 mV)	0.13 ms	0.2 ms		0.17 ms
Inact. V _{1/2}	-58.3	-62.9	-56.8	-89.6
Inact. slope	6.7	10.7	6.7	6.4

References 1: Martina and Jonas 1997; 2: Ellerkmann et al. 2001; 3: Engel and Jonas 2005 4: Ellerkmann et al. 2003

an individual neuron. Granule cells have particularly negative membrane potentials (-75 mV at physiologic temperature, Lübke et al. 1998) and relatively low input resistance (38 KΩ* cm², Schmidt-Hieber et al. 2007), which suggests abundant expression of background potassium channels.

Sodium Current The density of sodium current in granule cells was determined in acutely dissociated rat neurons (Ellerkmann et al. 2003); thus, these measurements offer an estimate of the density in the somatic compartment. These authors found a density of ~33 mS cm⁻² (extrapolated from the reported 1400 pA/pF, assuming a reversal potential of 30 mV, see Fig. 1 in their paper, and a specific capacitance of 0.9 μF cm⁻² (Gentet et al. 2000)), similar to that in the soma and dendrites of OLM interneurons. These authors also studied the expression profile of the different voltage-gated sodium channel subunits and found co-expression of several subunits in these neurons: in particular, they demonstrated expression of Nav 1.2; 1.3; 1.5; 1.6. The current activation is strongly voltage-dependent (the slope is 5.2 mV/e-fold, Table 6); similar strong voltage dependence characterizes the fast inactivation process of the current, which is half inactivated at -48 mV and has a slope of -5.8 mV/e-fold. The recovery from fast inactivation is best fit by the sum of two exponential functions: a fast component with time constant (at -80 mV) of 6.8 ms (and relative amplitude ~90%) and a smaller slow component with time constant of 546 ms. The recovery from inactivation in somatic granule cells channels was also analyzed by Engel and Jonas (2005) using outside-out patches. Similar to Ellerkmann et al., they found that the recovery from inactivation is best fit by a double exponential function with the fast component accounting for most of the current (relative amplitude 0.8). The time constants were however faster than in dissociated neurons (τ₁ = 4 ms and τ₂ = 65 ms), possibly suggesting that the recovery from inactivation is actively modulated through intracellular pathways which may be differently affected in whole cell and excised patch recordings.

When long depolarizations are applied (10–300 s at -10 mV, at room temperature), the sodium current of dentate gyrus granule cells undergoes slow inactivation.

The recovery from this inactivated state is described by a bi-exponential process, with fast and slow time constants ranging in the 1–10 and 20–50 seconds, respectively (Ellerkmann et al. 2001). The importance of slow inactivation in physiologic processes remains to be explored; it is interesting, for instance, that status epilepticus deeply affects the properties of fast activation and fast inactivation of granule cells' sodium currents (half maximal activation shifts from -25.8 in control to -28.6 mV and the fast inactivation half point from -48.2 to -43.2 mV; these changes lead to a significant increase of the window current, resulting in higher neuronal excitability), while the slow inactivation appears to be unaffected (Ellerkmann et al. 2003).

The axon terminals of these neurons have been carefully studied. The gating properties of the sodium current in the mossy fiber boutons were compared to those of the somatic component; the main difference was in the inactivation kinetics that in the bouton is almost twofold faster than in somatic patches (Engel and Jonas 2005). The current density in mossy fiber bouton is 49.0 mS cm^{-2} (range: 9 – 138 mS cm^{-2}), which corresponds to an estimated channel density of 41 channels μm^{-2} in hippocampal MFBs. These density values are comparable to previous estimates in invertebrate axons (120 mS cm^{-2} in squid axons and 40 mS cm^{-2} in *Myxicola* axons; Hodgkin and Huxley 1952 and Goldman and Schauf 1973). Thus, presynaptic mossy fiber terminals have axon-like properties, expressing voltage-gated Na^+ channels at very high density. Very recently, Schmidt-Hieber et al. (2008) have used dual axo-somatic recordings and computer modeling to obtain an estimate of the sodium current density in mossy fiber axons and found that axonal sodium current density of 100 mS cm^{-2} best fit the experimental data.

Potassium Current Similar to other neurons, the potassium current of granule cells is the sum of at least two components: IA (see Table 3 for the A-type current properties) and IK (Beck et al. 1992).

Contrary to pyramidal neurons, however, the fast inactivating component in granule cells is TEA sensitive and largely mediated by Kv3.4 channels (Riazanski et al. 2001). Interestingly, these authors showed that Kv3.4 expression in granule cells is spatially segregated, showing higher expression around the axon initial segment and lower expression in the somatic compartment more distal from the axon; these data suggest a role for these channels in controlling the generation of action potentials.

The heterogeneous nature of the potassium current in granule neurons is supported by the expression of multiple ion channel subunits, including Kv1.1, 1.2, and 4.2 (Sheng et al. 1994; Tsaur et al. 1992), Kv4.3 (Serôdio et al. 1996), and GIRK1 and GIRK2 (Liao et al. 1996). Kv3.1 RNA expression was also detected in granule neurons, although at low level (Weiser et al. 1995).

The current in the mossy fiber terminal is largely dendrotoxin-sensitive (Geiger and Jonas 2000), in agreement with the prominent expression of Kv1.2 subunits (Sheng et al. 1994). Additionally, specialized voltage-activated K^+ channels of the Kv3 family and calcium-dependent, large conductance, potassium (BK) channels are present at a low density (Alle et al. 2011; but see Misonou et al. 2006). Interestingly, direct bouton recordings show that Kv3 channels efficiently contribute

to the presynaptic AP repolarization, whereas BKCa channels, which are designed and arranged not to interfere with basal AP repolarization, are activated during sustained AP trains and limit AP duration in case of KV3 hypofunction (Alle et al. 2011).

Calcium Current Voltage-gated calcium currents of granule cells include both high- and low-voltage activated currents (Blaxter et al. 1989; Fisher et al. 1990). About 40% of the current is blocked by dihydropyridines (and is therefore L-type), while P/Q-type and N-type current each accounts for about 20% of the total current (Eliot and Johnston 1994). These data suggest that T- and R-type currents account for ~23% of the total current. T-type current was described by Zhang et al. (1993) and contributes to the spike afterdepolarization (ADP). R-type current was estimated to contribute about half of the blocker-resistant current (Sochivko et al. 2002).

Calcium currents have been carefully studied in the mossy fiber bouton (Li et al. 2007). These authors found that a single bouton contains ~2000 voltage-gated calcium channels. The largest current fraction (66%) is mediated by P/Q channels, while N- and R-type contribute 26% and 8% of the total current, respectively.

Dentate Gyrus Mossy Cells

Mossy cells represent the third population of glutamatergic neurons in the hippocampal formation. These large multipolar neurons of the fascia dentata (Frotscher et al. 1991; Lübke et al. 1998) are characterized by relatively slow maximum firing rate (50 Hz at 35–37 °C, Lübke et al. 1998) and by the presence of a prominent membrane sag upon injection of hyperpolarizing currents. The resting membrane potential is between –60 and –62 mV at 30–37 °C (Jinno et al. 2003; Lübke et al. 1998). The voltage-gated **sodium current** of mossy cells activates at potentials ≥ -50 mV; fitting the conductance/voltage plot reveals half activation at –31 mV and (Howard et al. 2007).

The **potassium current** of these cells consists of at least three components: an A-type current, a delayed rectifier, and a third component, resistant to both 4-AP (2.5 mM) and TEA (25 mM), characterized by activation kinetics slower than the two other components (Howard et al. 2007). The kinetics and pharmacological properties strongly suggest that the A-type current is mediated by Kv4 subunits. More data are required in order to attribute the two other current components to expression of any individual channel subunit. An interesting difference in intrinsic electrophysiological properties has been reported between dorsal and ventral mossy cells. The majority of the ventral cells show intrinsic bursting, a phenotype that is never observed in dorsal mossy cells (Jinno et al. 2003). Interestingly, Ih expression is similar in bursting and non-bursting neurons; in keeping with these data, it was found that Ih in mossy cells starts activating around –65 mV, so that activation of this current is absent or minimal at resting membrane potential. Thus, in mossy cells Ih does not appear to play a role in intrinsic firing, similarly to what observed

in other neurons in different parts of the CNS (Atherton and Bevan 2005; Russo et al. 2007). Bursting in these neurons appears to depend on a phenytoin-sensitive persistent sodium current that starts activating around -50 mV (Jinno et al. 2003).

Hippocampal Interneurons

DG Basket Cells

Dentate gyrus basket cells are parvalbumin-positive fast-spiking interneurons and can be considered prototypical perisomatic inhibitory interneurons (see chapter “[Connectivity of the Hippocampus](#)”). These cells can fire at extremely high frequency (>200 Hz) and have very low input resistance ($10 \text{ K}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$, Bartos et al. 2001).

Sodium Currents Sodium currents of fast-spiking interneurons (see Table 6) are characterized by their very rapid recovery from fast inactivation, which is described (at -120 mV and room temperature) by a single exponential process with a time constant of ~ 2 ms. Another typical property of the sodium current of these neurons is the extremely fast deactivation (the time constant at -40 mV and ~ 23 °C is 0.13 ms; Martina and Jonas 1997). These two kinetic properties constitute the main difference between the current of basket cells and that of CA1 pyramidal neurons. Whether these differences are attributable to ion channel modulation or to expression of different subunits remains to be investigated. The sodium channel density at the soma is $\sim 36 \text{ mS cm}^{-2}$ and quickly declines along the dendrites with an estimated length constant of $25 \mu\text{m}$ in basal dendrites (Hu et al. 2010).

Potassium Currents Voltage-gated potassium currents of fast-spiking DG interneurons (putative basket cells) were studied in detail using the nucleated patch technique and single-cell RT-PCR (Martina et al. 1998). Two aspects set the potassium current of these cells apart from that of pyramidal neurons or dentate gyrus granules: (1) the total current density is almost double than in CA1 pyramidal neurons (175 vs. $95 \text{ pS}/\mu\text{m}^2$), and (2) the current is characterized by the almost complete absence of time-dependent inactivation. Functional and pharmacological dissection of the total voltage-gated current shows that, similar to the current of CA1 pyramidal cells, it is composed by three main components: a highly TEA- and 4AP-sensitive fast delayed rectifier (mediated by Kv3 subunits); a slow activating, slowly inactivating component (ID, probably mediated at least in part by Kv2 channels); and an A-type (fast activating and inactivating), TEA-resistant current (mediated by Kv4 subunits, Table 3). Contrary to pyramidal neurons, though, the A-type current only contributes $\sim 17\%$ of the total current, while the Kv3-like sustained current accounts for 58% . This sustained current appears ideally suited to allow effective repolarization of the fast action potential of these neurons due to extremely fast activation and deactivation kinetics (Fig. 3) and relatively positive activation potential (the activation midpoint is ~ -7 mV).

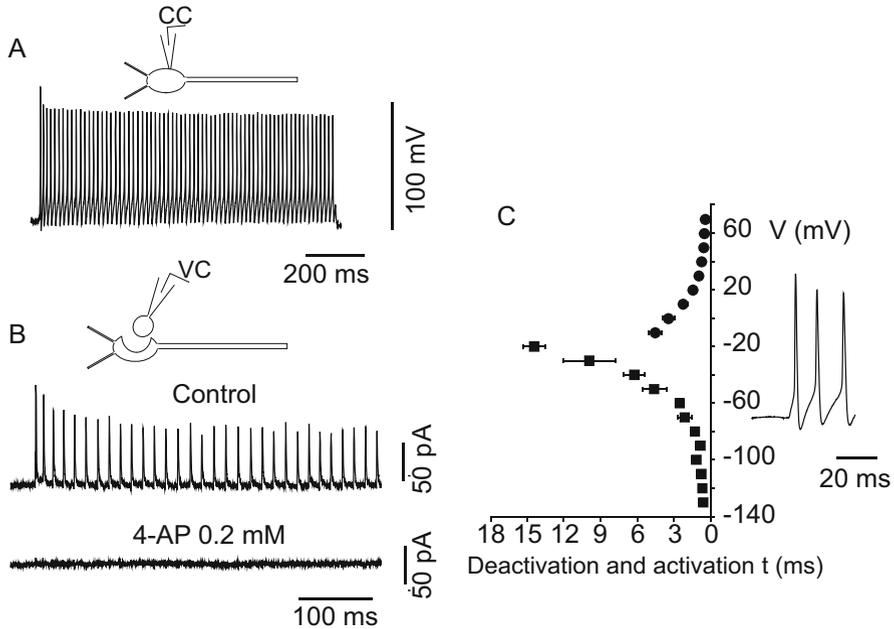


Fig. 3 Kv3 channels mediate action potential repolarization in fast-spiking interneurons of the dentate gyrus. (a) Current clamp recording of the firing response of a fast-spiking interneuron to the injection of depolarizing current. (b) The membrane potential waveform was then used as voltage stimulus to nucleated patches to study the potassium currents activated by each spike (recordings were performed after blockade of voltage-gated sodium and calcium currents). The potassium current elicited by the high-frequency action potentials was abolished by low concentration of 4-AP. (c) Plotting the activation and deactivation time constants of the 4-AP-sensitive current versus the voltage trajectory of the action potentials shows that asymptotic values of activation and deactivation time constants are reached at membrane potentials within the action potential range, allowing fast spike repolarization and minimum refractory period. (Figure modified from Martina et al. 1998)

Recent work has shed further light on the subcellular signaling properties of parvalbumin-positive fast-spiking interneurons (Hu et al. 2010; Table 7). Simultaneous somatodendritic recordings from basket cell dendrites show a high K^+ to Na^+ conductance ratio in BC dendrites. The Na^+ current density is a function of the distance from the soma, with $13.3 \pm 2.1 \text{ pA}/\mu\text{m}^2$ (-120 mV to 0 mV) at the soma and steeply declines as a function of distance, with estimated length constants of $87 \mu\text{m}$ in apical dendrites and $25 \mu\text{m}$ in basal dendrites. In contrast, in somatic outside-out patches isolated with K^+ internal solution, voltage pulses from -120 mV to 70 mV evoked large voltage-dependent outward currents. Quantitative analysis revealed a K^+ current density of $91.5 \pm 21.1 \text{ pA}/\mu\text{m}^2$ at the soma. In apical dendrites, the K^+ current density decays moderately as a function of distance, with an estimated length constant of $763 \mu\text{m}$. In contrast, in basal dendrites, the decay is steeper, with a length constant of $57 \mu\text{m}$. Consistent with immunocytochemical

Table 7 Gating properties of dendritic K⁺ channels of hippocampal neurons

Component	DG FS (Hu et al. 2010)	CA1 PC (Hoffman et al. 1997)		CA3 PC (Kim et al. 2012)	
	Sustained (Kv3-like)	Transient	Sustained	Transient	Sustained
Act. V _{1/2}	−10.9 (apical)	−1	13	−9.6	−3.8
	−12.6 (basal)				
Act. slope (mV/e-fold)	10.9 (apical)	15	11	16	10.2
	8.9 (basal)				
Inact. V _{1/2}	N/A	−56	N/A	−65.6	N/A
Inact. slope	N/A	8	N/A	7.1	N/A
TEA block	Yes	Yes	Yes	N/A	Yes
4-AP block	N/A	Yes	Little	Yes	N/A

data, analysis of dendritic K⁺ current kinetics suggests that it is mainly mediated by Kv3-type channels. Such a high density of K⁺ channels in basket cell dendrites contributes to unique integrative properties, leading to the rapid and temporally precise activation by excitatory inputs (Hu et al. 2010).

Calcium Currents Less is known about the calcium currents in basket cells; it has been recently shown that P/Q calcium channels mediate release at synapses of basket cells (Hefft and Jonas 2005), but a comprehensive study of the calcium currents present in these cells is still missing.

It is also worth mentioning that basket cells also express connexin36, although the strength of the electrical coupling is low and appears to decline with development. In 14-day-old mice, 92% of the cells tested are electrically coupled, although the coupling coefficient is low (0.029). In slices from 42-day-old mice, in contrast, only 30% of the cells are electrically coupled, and the coupling coefficient is further reduced (0.012, Meyer et al. 2002).

Hyperpolarization-Activated Current (I_h) I_h current contributes to the resting membrane potential and background conductance and thus mediates the fast membrane time constant of fast-spiking basket cells (Aponte et al. 2006). I_h channels of basket cells are nonselective cation channels with a slight preference for K⁺ over Na⁺ ions (P_{Na}/P_K is 0.36), and their activation curve has a midpoint potential (−83.9 mV) similar to other cell types (−90 to −83 mV; Franz et al. 2000). It is important to notice that I_h in basket cells displays several distinct functional properties compared with other types of central neurons. First, I_h channels in basket cells have slower activation as its activation time constant is 190 ms (at −120 mV and 21–24 °C), significantly slower than in hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons (64 ms) and neocortical layer 5 pyramidal neurons (84 ms), but faster than in substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons (482 ms) and thalamocortical neurons (602 ms; 22–24 °C; Franz et al. 2000). Second, both ZD7288- and Cs⁺-sensitive currents evoked by hyperpolarizing test pulses from a holding potential of −50 mV show a time-dependent current component and an instantaneous component.

Ih channels are expressed in both somatodendritic and axonal domains of basket cells (Aponte et al. 2006). Somatodendritic Ih shapes the input-output relation of basket cells, whereas axonal Ih current contributes to axonal excitability and synaptic output. Ih channels in presynaptic terminals maintain facilitate spontaneous release by maintain the terminals closer to action potential threshold. A recent study (Elgueta et al. 2015) demonstrates that Ih channels enable basket cells to integrate their intrinsic activity over time and can sustain persistent firing mode characterized by the ability to generate long-lasting trains of action potentials at 50 Hz in the absence of additional inputs. Interestingly, computational models suggest that the instantaneous component in the axon may contribute to the sustained firing (Elgueta et al. 2015).

Stratum Oriens Horizontal Interneurons

Horizontal interneurons in the hippocampal CA1 area represent a relatively homogeneous population and are prototypical feedback interneurons (see chapter “Connectivity of the Hippocampus”). Many of these cells are somatostatin-expressing OLM cells (Martina et al. 2000) which are capable of repetitive firing upon injection of depolarizing current, although their maximum frequency does not reach frequencies as high as those of basket cells (Lien and Jonas 2003). These neurons are also functionally easily distinguishable from basket cells because they are often intrinsically firing due to presence of large Ih (Maccaferri and McBain 1996). Ih expression also differentiates the response to hyperpolarizing current injection of these neurons from that of basket cells because the voltage response of OLM cells is characterized by a large voltage sag, which is absent in basket cells. Another interesting difference between OLM neurons and basket cells resides in the value of the input resistance, which in OLM cells is quite high ($48 \text{ K}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}^2$, Taverna et al. 2005), due to relatively low expression of background potassium channels (Taverna et al. 2005; Torborg et al. 2006).

Sodium currents of OLM neurons have properties similar to those of dentate gyrus basket cells; in particular the recovery from fast inactivation can be fit by a single exponential function (time constant 5 ms at -120 mV and $22\text{--}23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, Martina et al. 2000). An interesting feature of these neurons is the capability of action potentials to undergo reliable and full amplitude backpropagation into the dendrites. In addition, strong focal excitation may also lead to dendritic action potential initiation (Martina et al. 2000). Full amplitude backpropagation is the consequence of high dendritic sodium current density ($\sim 25 \text{ mS/cm}^2$, calculated from data in Martina et al. 2000). Dendritic initiation may also be favored by a $\sim 8 \text{ mV}$ left shift in voltage dependence of the activation curve (midpoint was -37.8 mV for somatic patches and -45.6 for dendritic patches). Dendritic sodium currents also contribute to boosting of excitatory synaptic inputs. As to the molecular identity of the sodium channels in these cells, recent data from the Catterall laboratory (Tai et al. 2014) suggest that Nav1.1 subunits contribute importantly to this current.

Potassium Currents Voltage-gated potassium currents are expressed at high and constant density throughout the somatodendritic compartment of OLM neurons

(Martina et al. 2000). The current composition is very similar, both in functional and molecular terms, to that of dentate basket cells (Lien et al. 2002). The total current is the sum of three components: a fast delayed rectifier (57% of the total current, mediated by Kv3 channels), an A-type current (19% of the total current, mediated by Kv4 subunits), and a slow delayed rectifier (25% of the total). In these neurons the deactivation of the Kv3 component is slower than in basket cells, most likely because of the more important contribution of the Kv3.2 subunit (Lien et al. 2002). Interestingly, this deactivation velocity appears to be finely tuned to allow the maximum firing frequency in this particular cell type (Lien and Jonas 2003). The potassium currents in OLM dendrites are very similar to the somatic ones with regard to both kinetics and sensitivity to block by broad-spectrum blockers such as TEA (Martina et al. 2000). It has also been suggested that a fraction of the TEA-sensitive current in the somatodendritic compartment of OLM cells appears to be mediated by KCNQ (M-current) channels. Although the size of this conductance is relatively small (~ 0.2 mS/cm², Lawrence et al. 2006), computer models suggest that this current may regulate the firing frequency of these neurons with minimal impact on the shape of the action potential (Lawrence et al. 2006).

Finally, little is known about voltage-gated **calcium channels** in these neurons. Poncer et al. (1997), however, showed that inhibitory potentials generated by interneurons in the CA3 stratum oriens are mediated by P/Q-type calcium channels.

Interneurons of the Stratum Radiatum-Lacunosum-Moleculare

Interneurons in this area can be classified into several classes. Vida et al. (1998) distinguished four classes: basket (BC), Schaffer associated (SA), perforant-path associated (PA), and neurogliaform (NC); most of these cells however can be classified as feedforward dendritic targeting interneurons. As it is the case in other brain areas, BCs are characterized by lower input resistance (70 M Ω) and more negative resting membrane potential (-60 mV) than the other interneurons (-56 mV, 96 M Ω ; -55 mV, 84 M Ω ; and -58 mV, 75 M Ω for SA, PA, and NG, respectively). Although no comprehensive studies of the voltage-gated sodium currents in these cells are available, sensitivity to beta pompilidotoxin, a wasp toxin, shows that the sodium currents differ between radiatum and LM interneurons (Miyawaki et al. 2002), suggesting differential expression of individual subunits.

Contrary to basket cells of the stratum pyramidale and to OLM interneurons, which express Kv3.1b subunits at high level, interneurons in the stratum radiatum-lacunosum-moleculare only seldom express this subunit (21% vs. $\sim 90\%$ of PV-positive basket cells; Sekirnjak et al. 1997). In agreement with this result, voltage-gated potassium currents of cultured interneurons of the stratum lacunosum-moleculare exhibit slow activation kinetics. Similar to other interneurons, the delayed rectifier current represents the sum of two components (a 4-AP sensitive and a 4-AP insensitive); the time to peak of the 4-AP-sensitive component is 4.2 ms at $+45$ mV (Chikwendu and McBain 1996; by comparison, the 20–80% rise time of Kv3-like currents at 40 mV in basket cells is ~ 1 ms, Martina et al. 1998). The 4-AP insensitive component has much slower (and voltage-independent) activation

(the time to peak at 30 mV is 46 ms, Chikwendu and McBain 1996). It is likely that at least part of the 4-AP- and TEA-sensitive slow delayed rectifier is mediated by Kv1.1 channels, which are expressed in these cells (Rhodes et al. 1997).

Voltage-clamp recordings were performed to study calcium currents in visually identified interneurons in stratum radiatum, near the border with LM. When held at -80 mV, these cells exhibited a relatively small calcium current (0.4–1 nA in whole-cell configuration) that appeared to include at least three (L, N, and P/Q) calcium current components: the L-type component contributed $\sim 28\%$ of the current, while the N-type current accounted for $\sim 23\%$ of the total. The contribution of the P/Q component was more heterogeneous ranging from 0% to 30% (average $\sim 10\%$, Lambert and Wilson 1996). It is possible that the different contribution of N-type current in different cells reflected different histological classes of interneurons; this hypothesis however still needs experimental confirmation.

Low-voltage-activated calcium currents were also described in interneurons acutely dissociated from CA1 lacunosum-moleculare (Fraser and MacVicar 1991). The current size was quite small (the peak current, recorded at -30 mV, was 100 ± 7 pA, compared with ~ 2 nA of TTX-sensitive sodium currents in the same neurons). This calcium current showed marked voltage-dependent inactivation, being half inactivated at -84 mV and totally inactivated at -60 mV. Less is known about dendritic calcium channels in these cells. Optical measurements however showed that action potential-associated calcium signals backpropagate into the dendrites of these neurons; indeed, backpropagated calcium signals progressively increase in size with distance from the soma (Rozsa et al. 2004). Whether this feature is the result of differential distribution of calcium channels or of other mechanisms (for instance, a different basal calcium level) remains to be investigated. These data however suggest that, similar to OLM interneurons, action potentials actively backpropagate into the dendrites of CA1 SR interneurons.

Experimental Techniques

Although conventional intracellular (sharp electrode) recordings can still provide valuable information about the electrophysiologic properties of neurons, most of the more recent literature (and of the data presented in this chapter) is based on patch clamp recordings. Some basic cellular properties appear quite different when compared using these two techniques. For example, resting membrane potential and input resistance measured with sharp electrodes and patch clamp techniques were directly compared in dentate gyrus basket cells (Staley et al. 1992), and the results obtained with the two techniques were quite different: with sharp pipette recordings, the resting potential was -74 mV and the input resistance was 54 M Ω , while the values obtained with patch clamp recordings were -85 mV and 228 M Ω , respectively. A potential explanation for these differences is that they are the consequence of a sub-optimal seal around the sharp electrodes that leads to some current leakage and that is not present in patch clamp recordings. Therefore,

patch clamp data were preferentially used for this chapter, except when sharp electrode data were the only available. The patch clamp technique was pioneered in the late 1970s by Erwin Neher and Bert Sakmann (Neher et al. 1978) and was originally developed to allow the measurement of the currents flowing through single ion channels in cellular membranes. Briefly, small tip ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$) pipettes are obtained by pulling glass capillaries, filled with saline and connected to a feedback amplifier. A tight electrical seal (in the $\text{G}\Omega$ range) is obtained between the pipette tip and the cellular membrane by applying gentle suction to the pipette. This leads to a firm attachment between the tip and the membrane, which allows several manipulations (Hamill et al. 1981) that offer invaluable tools for the study of many electrophysiological properties, varying from the cellular input resistance to the current flowing through single individual channels. The most commonly used configuration is the whole-cell configuration, in which, after obtaining the seal, continuity is obtained between the pipette and the cell interior by rupturing the cell membrane by applying brief negative pressure pulses. As a result, the pipette-cell assembly is well insulated from the bath solution. The intrapipette solution for these recordings is designed to reproduce the physiological intracellular solution (high potassium, low sodium). Whole-cell patch clamp recordings allow the accurate measurement of many basic functional properties such as resting membrane potential, input resistance, action potential threshold, amplitude, and frequency. Moreover, the voltage-clamp configuration allows recording the total ionic current flowing through the entire cell at each moment. Thus, complex voltage protocols and pharmacological tools can be used to isolate the currents mediated by individual channel types.

Although extremely successful on small isolated cells, such as acutely dissociated and cultured neurons, whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings are problematic when obtained from intact neurons having complex morphologies and large axonal and dendritic trees, as is the case for most neurons in brain slices. In this case the quality of voltage clamp is dramatically limited (see Major 1993 for a detailed discussion). Thus, data on current kinetics and voltage dependence are best obtained from excised patches and outside-out patches in particular. This configuration is obtained by pulling the pipettes away from the cell after having achieved the whole-cell mode (Hamill et al. 1981). By doing so, the lipid membrane seals the pipette tip leaving the outer side of the cell membrane exposed to the bath, while the inner side is exposed to the intrapipette solution. This configuration allows ideal voltage control and quick solution exchange, but is not always suitable for the study of channels expressed at low density in the cell membrane because the currents are often very small. An interesting variation of this technique is the nucleated patch (Sather et al. 1992). Similarly to the outside patch, the first step consists in achieving a whole-cell configuration. At this point a light suction is applied to the pipette, and the nucleus is attracted to the pipette tip. The pipette is then slowly withdrawn from the cell to obtain an outside-out patch. Because of the presence of the nucleus, the membrane has to reseal around the nucleus itself, and the result is an almost perfectly spherical outside patch comprising a large membrane area. Thus, the nucleated patch combines the possibility of precise identification of cells

in a slice with the possibility to record macroscopic currents and to obtain in almost ideal voltage-clamp conditions (Martina and Jonas 1997).

A potential pitfall common to intracellular and whole-cell patch clamp recordings is that these types of experiments lead to dialysis of the intracellular content. This fact has two main consequences: (1) it may lead to disappearance of some currents or cell functions (“rundown”) due to the loss of diffusible factors into the recording pipette and (2) the intracellular ion concentrations are not the native ones but those imposed by the experimenter: this fact may become critical when examining the functional role of a conductance. A typical example is the GABA_A channel, which is selective for anions and Cl⁻ ions in particular. Depending on the intracellular [Cl⁻], the GABA_A conductance can be either hyperpolarizing or depolarizing. For this type of experiments, it is therefore critical to know the undisturbed cellular [Cl⁻]. This can be obtained by establishing the electrical connection between the pipette and the cell interior not by rupturing the membrane but by inclusion in the pipette solution of a channel forming substance in the cell-attached mode (Horn and Marty 1988). By using substances that form channels selectively permeant to cations, as gramicidin, it is possible to obtain whole-cell recordings that maintain intact the neuronal chloride gradient. The technique also prevents intracellular dialysis because of the small diameter of the pores (they are only permeant to monovalent cations).

The Future

Although the hippocampus is one of the most thoroughly studied brain areas, much work is still needed to obtain a comprehensive description of the physiological properties of hippocampal neurons. In particular, future work will have to address two important aspects: one concerns the large heterogeneity of hippocampal neurons and interneurons in particular. Clearly, only a thorough study of each cell type will allow understanding of the fine tuning of hippocampal function; thus, detailed studies of the functional properties of anatomically identified neurons will be required for the many types of hippocampal neurons. With the technology of mouse genetic engineering, researchers have been able to create Cre-dependent driver lines that target specific classes of excitatory neurons (Kohara et al. 2014; Hitti and Siegelbaum 2014) as well as major classes and lineages of GABAergic neurons (Taniguchi et al. 2011). For example, using highly cell type-specific transgenic mouse lines for CA2, researchers can identify the CA2 pyramidal cells and characterize their intrinsic properties and ion channels (Kohara et al. 2014; Hitti and Siegelbaum 2014). Similarly, this approach allows reliable identification of GABAergic interneuron subtypes, thereby enabling detailed correlation between cell types and functional properties. At the same time, some technical aspects for functional studies may also require further development. Patch clamp recordings have greatly improved our knowledge of the electrophysiological properties of neurons. This technique, however, is not devoid of weaknesses. Two limitations of the

patch clamp technique are (1) the difficulty of obtaining data from small structures such as small dendrites, axons, and terminals, which results from the physical limitation in the size of the pipette tip as well as in the optical resolution necessary to distinguish such structures, and (2) the fact that the sealing process and, even more, the formation of the whole-cell configuration may cause important changes to the cellular cytoskeleton as well as to the composition of the intracellular milieu. Nowadays, increasing expectation is directed toward the development of low-toxic voltage-sensitive dyes, which may allow studying neuronal electrophysiology in intact cells. The signal to noise ratio of such dyes still represents a problem, but it is quickly improving (Baker et al. 2005). Particularly interesting is a recently developed method that allows filling neurons without the need to patch them to wash in the dye. This technique is the electrical electroporation, which has been extensively used for the delivery of DNA, RNA, and other molecules to the interior of cells. It has been shown that this technique can be effectively used to load neurons with fluorescent calcium indicators *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Nevian and Helmchen 2007). The combined use of electroporation and voltage-sensitive dyes may allow recording from cells with intact cytoskeleton and, even more importantly, obtaining detailed functional maps of small local circuitries. Another interesting technique that allows the identification of functional connections in a brain slice is the laser-scanning photostimulation (LSPS) based on glutamate uncaging. This technique allows for rapid imaging of local synaptic circuits by recording synaptic responses from a postsynaptic neuron while stimulating small clusters of presynaptic cells with high spatial resolution (Callaway and Katz 1993). A neuron is recorded in the whole-cell configuration and the slice bathing solution contains a molecularly caged form of glutamate. This molecule is then converted to the active form by submillisecond pulses of ultraviolet irradiation, which can be delivered selectively to small areas (of $<100\ \mu\text{m}$ diameter). It has been shown that, in most cases, this technique is selective enough to prevent activation of axons of passage, while the stimulus is sufficient to induce firing in the investigated neurons. Thus, the technique can be effectively used for mapping local circuits.

Optogenetic-assisted circuit mapping is another unprecedented development, which is based on the combination of optogenetics and patch clamp recordings. Optogenetics is a recent technology emerging from basic genetic research on microorganisms that rely on light-responsive opsin proteins to survive (see review by Deisseroth 2010, 2011). Using viral vectors, scientists can insert opsin genes, which encode light-sensitive proteins, in a specific population of neurons and control their activity with the light. Channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) is a light-sensitive cationic channel. By expressing ChR2 in the neuronal membrane of a select cell population, scientists can effectively drive the neurons to generate action potentials by shining blue light (470 nm). In contrast, halorhodopsin (HR) is a light-sensitive chloride pump, which transports the chloride into the cells. With a flash of amber light (589 nm), scientists can silence HR-expressing neurons. This technology permits temporally precise, cell type-targeted experiments in *ex vivo* brain slices as well as *in vivo* in anesthetized or freely moving animals. Additionally, viral-genetic

tracing allows the investigation of the intrinsic properties neuronal populations with common synaptic input or output.

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