Early diversity in the firing pattern of embryonic Renshaw cells: just a synergy between two opposite voltage-dependent currents

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Abstract

A remarkable feature of the developing central nervous system is the generation of spontaneous network activity (SNA) at the onset of synaptogenesis. In the spinal cord (SC) of the mouse embryo, SNA occurs around the 12th embryonic day (E12.5) and involves a recurrent functional loop between motoneurons (MNs) and GABAergic interneurons. We previously showed that Renshaw cells (V1^R), which constitute a functionally homogeneous population in the adult, are the first neurons enriched with GABA in the mouse embryonic lumbar SC. V1^R make synaptic-like contacts with MNs and likely participate to the genesis of SNA. However, how electrophysiological intrinsic properties of V1^R evolve during early development remains poorly understood. Here, using patch-clamp recordings, cluster analysis and biophysical modeling, we analyzed the mechanisms underlying the firing patterns of V1^R between E11.5 and E16.5. This developmental period covers the initial phase of development of SC activity (E11.5-E14.5) when SNA is present, and a pivotal period (E14.5-E16.5) when locomotor-like activity emerges. We discovered that V1^R can be subdivided into different clusters before E13.5 and that many cells are capable of sustaining repetitive firing or plateau potentials. These V1^R then lose transiently this firing ability, which is later recovered at E16.5. This is in contrast to the classical developmental scheme, i.e. an increase of firing capability with time. Combining pharmacology and computational modeling, we showed that the firing patterns of embryonic V1^R rely on the synergy between two opposing voltage-dependent currents, namely the slowly inactivating persistent sodium current and the delayed rectifier potassium current. These two currents are responsible for the repetitive firing of action potentials in a vast majority of neurons. Such a synergy is sufficient to explain the clustering of embryonic V1^R and determines the developmental trajectories of the electrical phenotype. Taken together our findings reveal a simple mechanism that is at the core of the heterogeneity of firing patterns. Such a mechanism must be tuned later on to eventually achieve firing pattern homogeneity.

Author summary

A remarkable feature of the developing central nervous system is the generation, at the onset of synaptogenesis, of a spontaneous network activity that is essential for the correct development of neuronal networks. Although the role of this early spontaneous network activity was extensively studied, little is known about the electrophysiological intrinsic properties of the key neurons involved in the genesis of this network activity. In the embryonic spinal cord, this activity involves a recurrent functional loop between motoneurons and GABAergic interneurons. We previously showed that embryonic Renshaw cells, known to control motoneurons firing in the mature spinal cord, are the first spinal neurons to produce GABA and likely participate to the genesis of the early spontaneous network activity. Using multiple approaches, including biophysical modeling, we found that, in contrast to the classical developmental scheme, Renshaw cells can be subdivided into different functional classes at the onset of network activity, and many cells are capable of sustaining repetitive firing or plateau potentials at this time; then they transiently lose this. We discovered that the firing patterns of these immature neurons rely on the synergy between two opposing voltage-dependent currents. Such a simple mechanism explains the functional diversity of embryonic Renshaw cells and determines the developmental trajectories of their electrical phenotype. Since these two voltage-gated currents are responsible for action potentials and are found in the vast majority of neurons, this basic mechanism is likely at the core of firing pattern heterogeneity. A tuning of this mechanism during later development, together with the involvement of a richer repertoire of voltage-dependent currents, is probably required to achieve the stereotypical firing patterns observed at the adult stage.

Introduction

Introduction

The development of the central nervous system (CNS) follows complex steps, which

depend on genetic and environmental factors and involve interactions between multiple

elements of the neural tissue. Remarkably, emergent neurons begin to synchronize soon after

the onset of synapse formation, generating long episodes of correlated spontaneous network

activity (SNA), usually at low frequency (<0.01 Hz) [1-8]. In the mouse embryonic spinal

cord (SC), SNA is driven by an excitatory cholinergic-GABAergic loop between

motoneurons (MNs) and interneurons (INs), GABA being depolarizing before embryonic day

16.5 (E16.5) in the embryonic SC [9]. SNA emerges around E12.5 [4, 6, 10-12], at a time

when functional neuromuscular junctions are not yet established [13] and sensory and

supraspinal inputs have not yet reached the spinal motor networks [14-17].

Several studies pointed out that SNA is an essential component in neuronal networks

formation. [18-21]. In the SC, pharmacologically-induced disturbances of SNA between

E12.5 and E14.5 induce defects in the formation of motor pools, in motor axon guidance to

their target muscles and in the development of motor networks [4, 21-23]. This is consistent

with the proposition that emerging neural networks, although subject to constant changes,

must remain functionally stable to develop properly. During SNA episodes, long lasting giant

depolarization potentials (GDPs) are evoked in the SC, mainly by the massive release of

GABA onto MNs [12]. Renshaw cells ($V1^R$) are likely the first GABAergic partners of MNs

in the mouse embryo [24, 25], and the massive release of GABA during SNA probably

requires that many of them display repetitive action potential firing or plateau potential

activity [25].

However, little is known about the maturation of the intrinsic properties and the firing

pattern of embryonic $V1^R$ in the mouse embryo. We recently found that embryonic $V1^R$

exhibit heterogeneous excitability properties when SNA emerges in the embryonic SC [25] in

contrast to adult Renshaw cells that constitute a functionally homogeneous population [26,

27]. Whether this early functional diversity really reflects distinct functional classes of

embryonic V1[R], how this diversity evolves during development, and what are the underlying

biophysical mechanisms remain open questions. The impact of the functional diversity of

embryonic V1[R] on MN activity during SNA episodes is also unknown. The present study

addresses these issues using multiple approaches, including patch-clamp recordings, cluster

analysis, biophysical modeling and dynamical systems theory. The firing patterns of

embryonic V1[R] and the mechanisms underlying their functional diversity are analyzed during

a developmental period covering the initial phase of development of SC activity in the mouse

embryo (E11.5-E14.5), when SNA is present, and during the critical period (E14.5-E16.5),

when GABAergic neurotransmission gradually shifts from excitation to inhibition and

locomotor-like activity emerges [4, 10, 11].

Our study demonstrates that the heterogeneity of embryonic V1[R] found at E12.5 arises from

the existence of distinct functional groups. Surprisingly, and in opposition to the classically

accepted development scheme [28-33], we show that the embryonic V1[R] population loses its

ability to support tonic firing from E13.5 to E15.5, exhibiting a transient functional involution

during its development. Importantly, we highlight a simple biophysical mechanism, involving

a synergy between two opposing voltage-dependent currents: the slowly inactivating

subthreshold persistent sodium current (I_{Nap}) that shapes the firing pattern of neurons [34]

and the delayed rectifier potassium current (I_{Kdr}), which accounts for the heterogeneity of

embryonic V1[R]. Because these two currents are ubiquitous in neurons, this basic mechanism

could be at the core of firing pattern heterogeneity.

Results

The heterogeneity of the embryonic $V1^R$ ***firing patterns decreases during SC development.***

We previously highlighted that embryonic $V1^R$ are spontaneously active at E12.5. Their response to a 2 s suprathreshold depolarizing current steps revealed four main patterns, depending of the recorded interneuron. This led us to define four classes of $V1^R$ [25]: long-lasting sodium-dependent plateau potentials (PP) $V1^R$, repetitive spiking (RS) $V1^R$, mixed events (ME) $V1^R$ that shows an alternation of action potentials (APs) and plateau potentials, and $V1^R$ firing only 1-3 APs at the onset depolarizing pulse, which were named single spiking (SS) $V1^R$.

However, it was unclear whether these different firing patterns corresponded to well separated classes within the E12.5 $V1^R$ population. To address this issue, we performed a hierarchical cluster analysis on 163 embryonic $V1^R$, based on three quantitative parameters describing the firing pattern evoked by a depolarizing pulse: the mean duration of evoked APs or plateau potentials measured at half amplitude (mean ½Ad), the variability of the event duration during repetitive firing (coefficient of variation of ½Ad: CV ½Ad) and the total duration of all events, expressed in percentage of the pulse duration (depolarizing duration ratio: ddr) (Fig 1A inserts). In view of the large dispersion of mean ½Ad and ddr values, cluster analysis was performed using the (decimal) logarithm of these two quantities [35]. The analysis of the distribution of log mean ½Ad, CV ½Ad and log ddr revealed multimodal histograms that could be fitted with several Gaussians (S1 Fig, A1, B1 and C1). Cluster analysis based on these three parameters showed that the most likely number of clusters was 5 (Fig 1, A and B), as determined by the silhouette width measurement (Fig 1B). Two clearly separated embryonic $V1^R$ groups with CV ½Ad = 0 stood out, as shown in the 3D plot in Fig 1C (Fig 1C). The cluster with the largest ½Ad (mean ½Ad = 833.5 ± 89.99 ms) and the largest ddr (0.441 ± 0.044) contained all PP $V1^R$ (n = 35) (Fig 1, C and D and S1 Fig, A2, B2

and C2). Similarly, the cluster with the shortest ½Ad (9.73 ± 0.66 ms) and the lowest ddr

(0.0051 ± 0.0004) contained all SS V1^R (n = 46) (Fig 1, C and D and S1 Fig, A2, B2 and C2).

The three other clusters corresponded to V1^R with nonzero values of CV ½Ad (Fig 1C). A

first cluster regrouping all RS V1^R (n = 69) was characterized by smaller values of ½Ad

(23.91 ± 1.43 ms), CV ½Ad (27.36 ± 1.64%) and ddr (0.11 ± 0.01) (Fig 1, C and D and S1 Fig,

A2, B2 and C2). The last two clusters corresponded to ME V1^R (Fig 1, C and D). The smaller

cluster, characterized by a larger CV ½Ad (170.9 ± 8.9%; n= 4), displayed a mix of APs and

short plateau potentials, while the second cluster, with smaller CV ½Ad (87.61 ± 7.37%; n =

9), displayed a mix of APs and long-lasting plateau potentials (Fig 1D and S1 Fig B2). Their

½Ad and ddr values were not significantly different (S1 Fig, A2 and C2).

It must be noted that three embryonic V1^R were apparently misclassified since they were

aggregated within the RS cluster although having zero CV ½Ad (Fig 1C; arrows).

Examination of their firing pattern revealed that this was because they generated only two

APs. However, their ddr (from 0.16 to 0.2) and ½ Ad values (from 31.6 to 40.3 ms) were well

in the range of values corresponding to the RS cluster. We cannot rule out that these rare

misclassified V1^R (1.8%) actually constitute a sixth class of embryonic V1^R.

These different firing patterns of V1^R might reflect different states of neuronal

development [29, 36-38]. During the development of neuron excitability single spiking and/or

plateau potentials are generally believed to be the most immature forms of firing pattern,

repetitive spiking being the most mature form [19, 39]. If it were so, firing patterns of

embryonic V1^R would evolve during embryonic development from single spiking or plateau

potential to repetitive spiking, this latter firing pattern becoming the only one in neonates [26]

and at early postnatal stages [27]. RS neurons already represent 41% of V1^R at E12.5. We

therefore analyzed the development of V1^R firing patterns from E11.5, when they terminate

their migration and reach their final position [40], to E16.5. This developmental period covers

a first phase of development (E11.5-E14.5), where lumbar spinal networks exhibit SNA, and

a second phase (E14.5-E16.5), where locomotor-like activity begins [4, 11, 41, 42]. We first

analyzed changes in the intrinsic properties (input capacitance C_{in}, input resistance $R_{in} =$

$1/G_{in}$ and spike voltage threshold) of V1[R]. Their capacitance C_{in} did not change significantly

from E11.5 to E13.5 (Fig 2A), remaining of the order of 12 pF, in agreement with our

previous work [25]. However, it increased significantly at the transition between the two

developmental periods (E13.5-E15.5) to reach about 23.5 pF at E15.5 (Fig 2A). A similar

developmental pattern was observed for R_{in}, which remained stable during the first phase

from E11.5 to E14.5 ($R_{in} \approx$ 1-1.2 GΩ) but decreased significantly after E14.5 to reach about

0.7 GΩ at E15.5 (Fig 2B). Spike threshold values also decreased significantly between the

first and the second developmental phases, dropping from about -34 mV at E12.5 to about -41

mV at E16.5 (Fig 2C). Interestingly, this developmental transition around E14.5 correspond to

the critical stage at which SNA gives way to a locomotor-like activity [11, 41, 42] and

rhythmic activity becomes dominated by glutamate release rather than acetylcholine release

[4].

This led us to hypothesize that this developmental transition could be also critical for the

maturation of embryonic V1[R] firing patterns. The distinct V1[R] firing patterns observed at

E12.5 were already present at E11.5 (Figs 1D and 3A), but the percentage of RS V1[R] strongly

increased from E11.5 to E12.5, while the percentage of ME V1[R] decreased significantly (Fig

3F). The heterogeneity of V1[R] firing patterns substantially diminished after E12.5. Plateau

potentials were no longer observed at E13.5, and ME V1[R] disappeared at E14.5 (Fig 3, B, C

and F). Interestingly, the proportion of SS V1[R] remained high from E13.5 to E15.5 and even

slightly increased (91.23% at E14.5 and 93.33% at E15.5; Fig 3F). This trend was partially

reversed at E16.5, as the percentage of RS V1[R] increased at the expense of SS V1[R] (67.86 %

SS V1[R] and 32.34% RS V1[R]; Fig 3F). This decrease in repetitive firing capability after E13.5

was surprising in view of what is classically admitted on the developmental pattern of

neuronal excitability [18, 43]. Therefore, we verified that it did not reflect the death of some

embryonic V1[R] after E13.5. Our data did not reveal any activated caspase3 (aCaspase3)

staining in VI[R] (FoxD3 staining) at E14.5 (n = 10 SCs) (Fig 4), in agreement with previous

reports showing that developmental cell death of V1[R] does not occur before birth [44].

The voltage-dependent potassium delayed rectifier current I_{Kdr} is a key partner of the

persistent sodium current I_{Nap} in controlling embryonic V1[R] firing patterns during

development.

In our previous work we discovered a relationship between I_{Nap} and the ability of

embryonic V1[R] to sustain repetitive firing [25]. However, the heterogeneous firing patterns

of V1[R] observed at E12.5 could not be fully explained by variations in I_{Nap} [25]. It is

therefore likely that other voltage-gated channels, such as potassium channels, known to

control firing and AP repolarization, play a role in the control of the firing pattern of V1[R]. Our

voltage clamp protocol did not reveal any inward rectifying current at E12.5 nor at E14.5

(hyperpolarizing voltage steps to -100 mV from V_H = -20 mV, data not shown), but we found

two voltage-dependent outward potassium currents, a delayed rectifier current (I_{Kdr}) and a

transient potassium current (I_A) in embryonic V1[R], whatever the firing pattern (Fig 5). These

two currents are known to control AP duration and/or firing pattern [45]. The activation

threshold of I_{Kdr} lied between -30 mV and -20 mV and the threshold of I_A between -60 mV

and -50 mV, (n = 27) (Fig 5, A2, A4, A6 and B2).

It is unlikely that the heterogeneity of V1[R] firing patterns results from variations in the

intensity of I_A, because its voltage-dependent inactivation (time constant: 23.3 ± 2.6 ms, n =

8), which occurs during the depolarizing phase of an AP, makes it ineffective to control AP or

plateau potential durations. This was confirmed by our theoretical analysis (see S2 Fig). We

thus focused on I_{Kdr}.

At E12.5 PP V1^R had a significantly lower G_{Kdr} (2.12 ± 0.44 nS, n = 6) than SS V1^R (5.57

± 0.56 nS, n = 9) and RS V1^R (6.39 ± 0.83 nS, n = 7) (Fig 6A). In the same manner, PP V1^R at

E12.5 had a significantly lower G_{Kdr} than SS V1^R at E14.5 (11.11 ± 1.12 nS, n = 10).

However, there was no significant difference in G_{Kdr} between SS V1^R and RS V1^R at E12.5

(Fig 6A), which indicated that variations in G_{Kdr} alone could not explain all the firing patterns

observed at E12.5.

Similarly, there was no significant difference in G_{Nap} between RS V1^R (0.91 ± 0.08 nS, n =

8) and PP V1^R (1.24 ± 0.19 nS, n = 6) at E12.5 (Fig 6B), indicating that variations

in G_{Nap} alone could not explain all the firing patterns of V1^R at E12.5 [25]. G_{Nap} measured in

SS V1^R at E12.5 (0.21 ± 0.06 nS, n = 9) (Fig 6B) and in SS V1^R at E14.5 (0.13 ± 0.05 nS, n =

10) (Fig 6B and S3 Fig) were significantly lower compared to G_{Nap} measured in RS V1^R and

in PP V1^R at E12.5 (Fig 6B). This suggests that repetitive firing and plateaus require a

minimal I_{Nap} intensity.

Because the firing pattern of a neuron depends on the balance between outward currents

and inward voltage-dependent currents [45], we then hypothesized that the different firing

patterns of V1^R observed at E12.5 were related to the G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} ratio. We found that this

ratio was significantly lower for SS V1^R recorded at E12.5 (G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} = 0.043 ± 0.015, n =

9) or at E14.5 (0.012 ± 0.004, n = 10) compared to RS V1^R (0.154 ± 0.022, n = 8) and PP V1^R

(0.66 ± 0.132, n = 6) recorded at the same age (Fig 6C). We also found that

the G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} ratio was significantly lower for RS V1^R compared to PP V1^R (Fig 6C).

Altogether, these results strongly suggest that, although the presence of I_{Nap} is required

for embryonic V1^R to fire repetitively or to generate plateau potentials [25], the heterogeneity

of the firing pattern observed between E12.5 and E14.5 is not determined by I_{Nap} *per se* but

by a synergy between I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr}.

Manipulating the balance between G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} changes embryonic V1^R firing patterns.

We previously showed that blocking I_{Nap} with riluzole converted PP V1[R] or RS V1[R] into

SS V1[R] [25]. To confirm further that the balance between G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} was the key factor

that determined the heterogeneity of V1[R] firing patterns, we assessed to what extent a given

SS V1[R] cell could change its firing pattern when I_{Kdr} was gradually blocked by 4-

aminopiridine (4-AP). We found that I_{Kdr} could be blocked by microM concentrations of 4-

AP (Fig 7) without affecting I_A at E12.5 and E14 .5 (S4 Fig A). This result favors the presence

of the potassium channel subunit $K_{V3.1}$ [46, 47], which is known to be also present at postnatal

stages [48], in V1[R] both at E12.5 and E14.5.

To assess to what extent we could alter the balance between I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr}, we had to

determine first the dose-response curve of I_{Kdr} inhibition by 4-AP. 4-AP, applied at

concentrations ranging from 0.3 μM to 300 μM, specifically inhibited I_{Kdr} (Fig 7, A1 and A2)

with an IC_{50} of 2.9 μM (Fig 7B), without significantly affecting I_A (S4 Fig, A). We then

determined to what extent increasing the concentration of 4-AP modified the firing pattern of

embryonic V1[R] at E12.5. Applying 4-AP at concentrations ranging from 3 μM to 300 μM

changed the firing pattern of SS V1[R] recorded at E12.5 (n = 10) in a concentration-dependent

manner (Fig 8, A1, A2 and A3). In 50% of the recorded embryonic V1[R], increasing 4-AP

concentrations successfully transformed SS V1[R] into PP V1[R] with the following sequence: SS

→ RS → ME → PP (Fig 8A1). In a second group of embryonic V1[R] (25%), 4-AP application

only evoked mixed activity, with the same sequence as aforementioned (SS → RS → ME). In

the remaining SS V1[R] (25%), increasing 4-AP concentration only led to sustained AP firing

(Fig 8A2). Application of 300 μM 4-AP on RS V1[R] at E12.5 evoked mixed events or plateau

potentials (S5 Fig). Plateau potentials and repetitive spiking evoked in the presence of 300

μM 4-AP were fully blocked by 0.5-1 μM TTX, indicating that they were generated by

voltage-gated Na$^+$ channels (Fig 8, A4 and A5 and S5 Fig).

At E14.5, 300 μM 4-AP inhibited only 59.2% of I_{Kdr}. Increasing 4-AP concentration to

600 μM did not inhibit I_{Kdr} significantly more (60.2%) (S6 Fig), indicating that inhibition of

I_{Kdr} by 4-AP reached a plateau at around 300 μM. 600 μM 4-AP application had no

significant effect on I_A (S4 Fig).

The application of the maximal concentration of 4-AP tested (600 μM) converted SS V1^R

(n = 13) to PP V1^R (23.1%; Fig 8, B1 and B3), RS V1^R (38.5% Fig 8, B2 and B3) or ME V1^R

(38.4%; Fig 8B3), as was observed at E12.5, thus indicating that the firing pattern of

embryonic V1^R depends on the balance between I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr} also at E14.5. Plateau potential

and repetitive spiking recorded in the presence of 4-AP at E14.5 were fully blocked by 0.5-1

μM TTX indicating that they were generated by voltage-gated Na$^+$ channels (Fig 8, B1 and

B2), as observed at E12.5. It should be noted that the application of 300 μM of 4-AP induced

a significant 30.5 ± 12.4 % increase (P = 0.0137; Wilcoxon test) in the input resistance of the

recorded cells (1.11 ± 0.08 GΩ versus 1.41 ± 0.12 GΩ; n = 11).

These results show that, in addition to I_{Nap}, the delayed rectifier potassium current is also a

major determinant of the firing pattern of embryonic V1^R. They suggest that the firing pattern

depends on a synergy between I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr} and that the different patterns can be ordered

along the following sequence SS → RS → ME → PP when the ratio G_{Nap}/ G_{Kdr} is increased.

Theoretical analysis: basic model.

As shown in Fig 9A for 26 cells, in which both G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} were measured, the three

largest clusters revealed by the hierarchical clustering analysis (SS, RS and PP, which account

together for the discharge of more than 95% of cells, see Fig 1) correspond to well defined

regions of the G_{Nap}- G_{Kdr} plane. Single spiking is observed only when G_{Nap} is smaller than

0.6 nS. For larger values of G_{Nap}, repetitive spiking occurs when G_{Kdr} is larger than 3.5 nS,

and V1[R] display plateau potentials when G_{Kdr} is smaller than 3.5 nS. Mixed events (ME, 4.5%

of the 163 cells used in the cluster analysis), where plateaus and spiking episodes alternate,

are observed at the boundary of RS and PP clusters. This suggested to us that a conductance-

based model incorporating only the leak current, I_{Nat}, I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr} (see Materials and

Methods) could account for the experimental observations, the observed zonation being

explained in terms of bifurcations between the different stable states of the model.

A one-parameter bifurcation diagram of the model is shown in Fig 9B for two values of

G_{Kdr} (2.5 nS and 10 nS) and a constant injected current I = 20 pA. The slow inactivation of

I_{Nap} was not taken into account at this stage of our analysis. For G_{Kdr} = 10 nS, the steady-

state membrane voltage progressively increases (in gray) with G_{Nap}, but repetitive spiking (in

red, see voltage trace for G_{Nap}= 1.5 nS) is not achieved until G_{Nap} reaches point SN$_1$, where a

saddle node (SN) bifurcation of limit cycles occurs. This fits with the experimental data,

where a minimal value of G_{Nap} is required for repetitive spiking (see also [25]), and is in

agreement with the known role of I_{Nap} in promoting repetitive discharge [49, 50]. Below SN$_1$,

the model responds to the onset of a current pulse by firing only one spike before returning to

quiescence (see voltage trace for G_{Nap}= 0.1 nS), or a few spikes when close to SN$_1$ (not

shown). The quiescent state becomes unstable through a subcritical Hopf bifurcation (HB) at

point HB$_1$, bistability between quiescence and spiking occurring between SN$_1$ to HB$_1$.

Repetitive firing persists when G_{Nap} is increased further and eventually disappears at point

SN$_2$. The firing rate does not change much throughout the RS range (see S2 Fig B), remaining

between 11.9 Hz (at SN$_1$) and 17.1 Hz (at SN$_2$). A stable plateau appears at point HB$_2$ through

a subcritical HB. The model is bistable between HB$_2$ and SN$_2$, where both plateau and large

amplitude APs coexist.

The model behaves very differently when G_{Kdr} is reduced to 2.5 nS (gray-blue curve in

Fig 9B). It exhibits a unique stable fixed point whatever the value of G_{Nap} is, and the

transition from quiescence to plateau is gradual as G_{Nap} is increased. No repetitive spiking is

ever observed. This indicates that the activity pattern is controlled not only by G_{Nap} but also

by G_{Kdr}. This is demonstrated further in Fig 9C, where G_{Nap} was fixed at 1.5 nS while G_{Kdr}

was increased from 0 to 25 nS. The model exhibits a plateau potential until G_{Kdr} is increased

past point HB$_2$. Repetitive spiking then sets in, *via* a supercritical HB (in contrast to the

subcritical bifurcation in Fig 9B for G_{Kdr} = 10 nS, see legend of Fig 9). The amplitude of AP

decays to zero at HB$_2$, and no bistability occurs. When G_{Kdr} is further increased, repetitive

firing eventually disappears through a SN bifurcation of limit cycles at point SN$_1$, the

quiescent state becomes stable through a subcritical HB at point HB$_1$, and bistability occurs

between these two points. This behavior is in agreement with Fig 9A.

Since both G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} control the firing pattern of embryonic V1^R cells, we computed a

two-parameters bifurcation diagram (Fig 9D), where the different possible activity states and

the transitions between them are plotted in the G_{Nap} - G_{Kdr} plane. The black lines correspond

to the bifurcations HB$_1$ and HB$_2$ and delimit a region where only repetitive firing occurs. The

red lines correspond to the SN bifurcations of periodic orbits associated with the transition

from quiescence to firing (SN$_1$) and the transition from plateau to firing (SN$_2$). They

encompass a region (shaded area) where repetitive firing can be achieved but possibly

coexists with quiescence (between the HB$_1$ and SN$_1$ lines) or plateau potential (in the narrow

region between the HB$_2$ and SN$_2$ lines). We note that the SN$_1$ and SN$_2$ lines merge with the

HB$_1$ and HB$_2$ lines at points B$_1$ and B$_2$, respectively. There, codimension-two Bautin

bifurcations occur, and the bifurcations HB_1 and HB_2 switch from subcritical to supercritical

case.

Some important features of the diagram must be emphasized: 1) minimal values of both

G_{Nap} (to ensure sufficient excitability) and G_{Kdr} (to ensure proper spike repolarization) are

required for repetitive spiking, 2) quiescence and plateau can be clearly distinguished only

when they are separated by a region of repetitive spiking (see also Fig 9B for G_{Kdr}= 10 nS),

otherwise the transition is gradual (see also Fig 9B for G_{Kdr}= 2.5 nS), 3) only oblique lines

with an intermediate slope cross the bifurcation curve and enter the RS region (see, for

example, the red line in Fig 9D). This means that repetitive spiking requires an appropriate

balance between I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr}. If the ratio G_{Nap}/G_{Kdr} is too large (blue line) or too small

(gray line), only plateau potentials or quiescence will be observed at steady state. This is

exactly what is observed in experiments, as shown by the cumulative distribution function of

the ratio G_{Nap}/G_{Kdr} for the different clusters of embryonic V1^R in Fig 9E (same cells as in A).

The ratio increases according to the sequence SS → RS → ME → PP, with an overlap of the

distributions for SS V1^R and RS V1^R. Note also that the ratio for ME cells (around 0.25)

matches the transition between repetitive spiking and plateau potentials in D (more on this

below).

Embryonic V1^R cells display voltage fluctuations of up to 5 mV, presumably due to

channel noise. The relatively low number of sodium and potassium channels (of the order of a

few thousands) led to voltage fluctuations in the stochastic version of our model comparable

to those seen experimentally when the cell was quiescent (top voltage trace in Fig 9D) or

when a voltage plateau occurred (bottom trace). Channel noise caused some jitter during

repetitive spiking (middle trace), with some occasionally missing spikes (not shown), and

induced clearly visible variations in the amplitude of APs. However, repetitive firing proved

to be very robust and was not disrupted by voltage fluctuations. Altogether, channel noise

little alters the dynamics (compare the deterministic voltage traces in Fig 9B and the noisy

traces in Fig 9D). This is likely because channel noise has a broad power spectrum and did

not resonate with the deterministic solutions of the model.

The one-parameter bifurcation diagram of our model was not substantially modified when

we took I_A into account, as shown in S2 Fig. It just elicited a slight membrane

hyperpolarization, a rightward shift of the firing threshold and a decrease of the firing

frequency. The transition from repetitive firing to plateau was not affected because I_A is

inactivated by depolarization.

The bifurcation diagram of Fig 9D accounts for the physiological data on V1^R at E12.5

presented in Fig 9A, as shown in Fig 9E where the conductance data of Fig 9A were

superimposed on it. Its exact position in the G_{Nap} - G_{Kdr} plane actually depends on the values

of the passive parameters and it was computed in Fig 9D and F for G_{in}= 1 nS and C_{in}= 13 pF,

the median values of the input capacitance and conductance at E12.5. Between E12.5 and

E14.5, C_{in}, which provides an estimate of the cell size, increases by 38% in average, whereas

the input conductance G_{in} is not significantly modified (see Fig 2). As illustrated in Fig 9G

the two-parameters bifurcation diagram is then shifted upward and rightward compared to Fig

9F, because larger conductances are required to obtain the same firing pattern. The observed

regression of excitability from E12.5 to E14.5-E15.5 (see Fig 3) thus comes from a decrease

in G_{Nap} density (see presumable developmental trajectories indicated by arrow in F) together

with a shift of the RS region as cell size increases. As a result, all 9 cells shown in Fig 9G are

deeply inside the SS region at E14.5.

The bifurcation diagram of Fig 9D and F cannot readily account for the experiments where

decreasing G_{Kdr} with 4-AP changed the firing pattern of SS V1^R (see Fig 8). This is because

4-AP decreases substantially the input conductance, which leads to a decreased rheobase

current. If we take these changes in the passive parameters into account (see S7 Fig), the

bifurcation diagram remains qualitatively the same, but it is shifted toward the origin in the

G_{Nap}- G_{Kdr} plane. As a consequence, the bifurcation lines between SS and RS (SN1) and

between RS and PP (SN2) are successively crossed when G_{Kdr} is reduced, in accordance with

experimental results.

Theoretical analysis: extended model with slow inactivation of the persistent sodium

current.

Our basic model accounts for the firing pattern of 73% of the 163 cells used in the cluster

analysis. However, bursting, under the form of recurring plateaus separated by brief

repolarization episodes (see a typical trace in Fig 10A left), was experimentally observed in

half of PP V1[R] (24 out of 46) and plateaus intertwined with spiking episodes were recorded in

the 13 cells of the ME cluster (8% of the total sample, see Fig 10A right for an example).

Recurrent plateaus indicate membrane bistability. This requires that the $I - V$ curve be S-

shaped, which occurs when anomalous rectification is large (large G_{Nap} and small G_{Kdr} , Fig

10, B1 and B2). However, our basic model lacks a mechanism for switching between

quiescent state and plateau. Channel noise might induce such transitions, but our numerical

simulations showed that this is too infrequent to account for bursting (see voltage trace in Fig

10B1 where the plateau state is maintained despite channel noise).

To explain recurrent plateaus, we incorporated a slow dynamical process, namely the

experimentally observed slow inactivation of G_{Nap}, in our model. The one-parameter

bifurcation diagram of the basic model for G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS is shown in Fig 10C. The injected

current was reduced from the value of 20 pA used in the previous section to 8 pA , so as to

allow for bistability (Fig 10B2). The $G_{Nap} - V$ curve is then S-shaped, as shown in Fig 10B1,

with a bistability region for G_{Nap} between 1.48 and 1.87 nS. This is in contrast with Fig 9B

where the $G_{Nap} - V$ curve was monotonic. Adding slow (de)inactivation of I_{Nap} caused

periodic transitions between up (plateau) and down (quiescent) states, and the model then

displayed a stable limit cycle (shown in black in Fig 10C), as illustrated by the top voltage

trace on the right. This mechanism is known as pseudo-plateau bursting (a.k.a. fold-subcritical

HB bursting) [51]. It is akin to square wave bursting [52-55], but the up-state is a stable fixed

point rather than a limit cycle [56-58], which is why recurrent plateaus are obtained rather

than bursts of APs. The duration of the plateaus and repolarization episodes depends on the

values of G_{Nap}, G_{Kdr} and I, but it is also largely controlled by the inactivation kinetics. A

voltage-independent time constant τ_s leads to up and down states of comparable durations

(see top voltage trace in Fig 10C), the duration of which increases with τ_s. Making τ_s voltage-

dependent changes the relative durations of plateaus and repolarization episodes. If τ_s

decreases with membrane voltage, for instance, repolarization episodes are shortened (bottom

voltage trace). Adding channel noise preserves bursting but introduces substantial randomness

in the duration of plateaus and repolarization episodes (middle voltage trace). We also noted

that adding the I_A current lengthened the repolarizing phase (S2 Fig).

Slow inactivation of the persistent sodium current also provides an explanation for mixed

patterns, where plateaus alternate with spiking episodes (Fig 10A, right). They take place in

our model near the transition between repetitive spiking and plateau, as in experiments (see

Fig 9A). Slow inactivation (V_s = -30 mV, k_s = -5 mV) may then lead to elliptic bursting [59,

60] when the bifurcation HB$_2$ is subcritical and located near the Bautin bifurcation B$_2$, which

is the case here (Fig 9D). The model then displays a stable limit cycle with alternating

plateaus and spiking episodes, arising from crossing the bifurcation points HB$_2$ and SN$_2$ back

and forth (see bifurcation diagram in Fig 10D and top voltage trace). We note that sufficient

deinactivation of I_{Nap} for triggering a new plateau is difficult to be achieved during spiking

episodes, because voltage oscillates over a large range and variations of the inactivation level

are largely averaged out. Therefore, we had to choose a shallower inactivation curve than for

pseudo-plateau bursting together with a more depolarized half-inactivation voltage to achieve

elliptic bursting. Otherwise, the model keeps on spiking repetitively without returning to the

plateau state. This is probably why it is difficult in many recorded cells to elicit plateaus by

increasing the injected current, an experimental observation that was not explained by our

basic model.

When τ_s is voltage-dependent and small enough in the subthreshold voltage range, there is

not enough time for APs to be fired between plateaus (see bottom voltage trace in Fig 10D).

One then observes successive plateaus with superimposed voltage oscillations that decay at

plateau onset and grow at offset. Both types of plateaus, with voltage oscillations (elliptic

bursting) and without (pseudo-plateau bursting) are observed in recorded embryonic V1^R.

Finally, we note that bistability between plateau and repetitive spiking is not necessary for

elliptic bursting, which may also be due to the slow passage through HB$_2$ when this Hopf

bifurcation is supercritical [61, 62]. Slow inactivation of I_{Nap} then leads to a delayed

destabilization of the plateau after HB$_2$ is crossed, while deinactivation during repetitive

spiking leads to the crossing of HB$_2$ in the opposite direction and a delayed restabilization of

the plateau (not shown).

Altogether, our study shows that a model incorporating the slow inactivation of

I_{Nap} accounts for all the firing patterns displayed by cells of the PP and ME clusters.

Effect of evoked changes of GABAergic interneuron firing pattern using 4-AP on evoked-

GABAergic response on MNs at E12.5.

During SNA, MNs receive massive inputs from GABAergic INs and, to a lesser extent,

from glutamatergic INs. This leads to the occurrence of GDPs [12]. We previously showed

that embryonic V1^R are likely the first INs to release GABA in E12.5 SC [25]. Even though

I_{Nap} appears essential for the occurrence of GDPs and SNA in the SC at E12.5 [25], it is

unclear how the heterogeneity of the activity patterns observed in V1^R shapes GABA-evoked

current in MNs. To address this issue, we took advantage of the ability of 4-AP to change the

activity pattern of V1^R. We focused our analysis on the evoked GABAergic Giant Inward

Currents (GICs) (voltage clamp recordings; E_{Cl} = -30 mV) and GABAergic Giant

Depolarizing Potential (GDPs) (current clamp recordings). GICs and GDPs were induced by a

1 ms stimulation applied at the cervical level of the SC while recording lumbar MNs (Fig 11A)

in the presence of the broad spectrum glutamate receptor antagonist kynurenic acid (4 mM).

At E12.5, 4-AP increased the amplitude of GABAergic GICs (155 ± 86 pA vs 191 ± 112 at 30

μM, and 206 ± 115 pA at 300 μM, n = 6) and the GICs half-width (0.57 ± 0.28 s vs 1.01 ±

0.34 s at 30 μM, and 1.32 ± 0.34 s at 300 μM, n = 6) (Fig 11, B1 and B2). When analyzing

GDPs, we observed a strong increase of their half-width in the presence of 4-AP (1.9 ± 0.4 s

vs 3.8 ± 1.3 s at 30 μM, and 3.6 ± 1.1 s at 300 μM, n = 8) but no significant change in their

amplitude (30.5 ± 7.2 mV vs 32.6 ± 6.4 mV at 30 μM and 33.4 ± 7.2 mV at 300 μM, n = 8),

nor in the firing rate of MNs (Fig 11, C1 and C2). Increasing the proportion of GABAergic

INs that sustain repetitive firing or plateau potential activity likely enhances the release of

GABA on MNs as exemplified by the increased evoked GABAergic current on MNs.

However lack of effects on GDP amplitude and on MN firing also indicates that biophysical

properties of MNs likely buffer variations in the intensity of their GABAergic inputs. This is

likely due to a combination of the depolarized equilibrium potential of chloride at this

embryonic age (ECl = -30 mV; [9]) and the relatively high input resistance of E12.5 MNs

(0.3-1 GΩ) [12]), allowing relatively small changes in GABAergic conductance to evoke a

voltage response with maximum amplitude. Such a process probably contributes to the

robustness of MN activity during episodes of SNA.

Discussion

V1^R constitute a homogeneous population in terms of their transcription factor program expressed during development [24, 63], their physiological function [64] and their firing pattern in postnatal stages [27]. Surprisingly, our electrophysiological recordings and our cluster analysis clearly indicate that distinct functional classes of V1^R are transiently present during development at the onset of the SNA (E11.5-E12.5). Five different groups of embryonic V1^R were defined using cluster analysis, according to their firing properties.

Development of the firing pattern of embryonic V1^R during SNA.

It is generally assumed that, during early development, newborn neurons cannot sustain repetitive firing [33, 43]. Later on, neurons progressively acquire the ability to fire repetitively, APs become sharper, and neurons eventually reach their mature firing pattern, due to the progressive appearance of a panoply of voltage-gated channels with different kinetics [18, 33, 43]. Our results challenge the general view that single spiking is a more immature form of excitability [33]. Indeed, we show that repetitive firing and plateau potentials dominate at early stages (E11.5-E12.5), single spiking prevailing only later (E13.5- E16.5).

The functional heterogeneity of embryonic V1^R is unlikely to be a special case during the early development of neuronal excitability. Firing pattern heterogeneity was also observed in the mouse enteric nervous system at E11.5-E12.5 [65] and in SC rat MNs at early postnatal ages [66, 67]. The different V1^R firing patterns observed at E11.5-E12.5 might reflect variability in the maturation level between V1^R at a given developmental stage, as suggested for developing MNs [67]. If so, the proportion of V1^R that can sustain repetitive firing would be expected to increase with age, but this is not the case. The transient functional heterogeneity of embryonic V1^R rather reflects an early developmental stage of intrinsic

excitability, occurring before the increase in the diversity of voltage-gated ion channels

stabilizes a robust mature firing pattern [68].

The physiological meaning of this transient functional involution of embryonic V1^R is

puzzling. To our knowledge, such a phenomenon was never described in vertebrates during

CNS development. So far, a functional involution was described only for inner hair cells

between E16 and P12 [69, 70] and cultured oligodendrocytes [71], and it was irreversible.

Because most embryonic V1^R cannot sustain tonic firing after E12.5, it is likely that their

participation to SNA is limited to the developmental period before other GABAergic

interneuron subtypes mature and start to produce GABA and glycine [72]. Interestingly,

embryonic V1^R begin to recover their capability to sustain tonic firing when locomotor-like

activity emerges [4, 11], a few days before they form their recurrent synaptic loop with MNs

(around E18.5 in the mouse embryos, [73]). One possible function of this transient involution

could be to regulate the growth of embryonic V1^R axons toward their targets. It is indeed

known that low calcium fluctuations within growth cones are required for axon growth while

high calcium fluctuations stop axon growth and promote growth cone differentiation [74].

Ion channels mechanisms underlying embryonic V1^R functional heterogeneity.

The heterogeneous discharge patterns of embryonic V1^R contrasts with the unique firing

pattern of V1^R at postnatal age [27] and likely reflects immature properties. Blockade of

I_{Nap} leads to single spiking [25], which emphasizes the importance of this current for the

occurrence of repetitive firing and plateau potentials in V1^R at early development stages. But

these neurons can also switch from one firing pattern to another, when G_{Kdr} is decreased by

4-AP, which emphasizes the importance of I_{Kdr}. We found that the main determinant of

embryonic V1^R firing pattern is the balance between G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr}.

A Hodgkin-Huxley-like model incorporating a persistent sodium current I_{Nap} provided a

parsimonious explanation of all the firing patterns recorded in the V1^R population at E12.5,

even in details. It provided a mathematical interpretation for the clustering of embryonic V1^R

shown by the hierarchical analysis and accounted for the effect of 4-AP and riluzole [25] on

the discharge. Remarkably, it highlights how a simple mechanism involving only the two

opposing currents I_{Nap} and I_{Kdr} can produce functional diversity in a population of

developing neurons. The model explains why minimal G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} are required for firing,

how a synergy between G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} controls the firing pattern, and it accounts for the

zonation of the $G_{Nap} - G_{Kdr}$ plane that is observed experimentally.

Adding the slow inactivation of I_{Nap} to the model allowed us to account for the bursting

patterns displayed by cells of the PP and ME clusters. We showed, in particular, that mixed

events arose from elliptic bursting at the repetitive spiking-plateau transition and that smooth

repetitive plateaus could be explained by a pseudo-plateau bursting mechanism [51, 57]. Such

bursting scenario has been previously studied in models of endocrine cells [56, 75, 76] and

adult neurons [77], but rarely observed in experiments. Heterogeneity of pacemaker neurons

discharge pattern has also been observed in the embryonic pre-Bötzinger network [78].

However, it is related to the gradual change of a balance between two inward currents,

I_{Nap} and the calcium-activated nonselective cationic current I_{CAN}, during neuronal maturation,

which leads to the progressive replacement of pseudo-plateau bursting by elliptic bursting.

Such a scenario cannot account for the variety of discharge patterns observed in embryonic

V1^R at the E11.5-12.5 stage of development [25]. Our theoretical analysis and our

experimental data clearly indicate that competition and synergy between two opposing

currents are necessary to explain all the firing patterns of V1^R. We also note that our model is

not restricted to embryonic V1^R, but may also apply to any electrically compact cell, the firing

activity of which is dominated by sodium and delayed rectifier potassium currents. This is the

case of many classes of embryonic cells in mammals at an early stage of their development.

Altogether our experimental and theoretical results provide a global view of the

developmental trajectories of embryonic V1^R (see Fig 9, F and G). At E12.5, conductances of

embryonic V1^R are widely spread in the $G_{Nap} - G_{Kdr}$ plane, which explains the heterogeneity

of their firing patterns. This likely results from the random and uncorrelated expression of

sodium and potassium channels from cell to cell at this early stage. Between E12.5 and E14.5-

15.5 cell size increases, and G_{Kdr} with it, while the density of sodium channels decreases (see

Figs 6 and 9). The functional involution displayed by V1^R between E12.5 and E15.5 thus

results from a decrease of G_{Nap} coordinated with an increase of G_{Kdr} as cells grow. How

these two synergistic processes are controlled during this developmental period remains an

open issue.

Functional implication of embryonic V1^R firing pattern heterogeneity at the onset of the

SNA.

The increase in GABAergic GIC amplitude and duration in the presence of 4-AP suggests

that 4-AP, by increasing embryonic V1^R excitability, augments GABA release onto MNs.

This fits with the view according to which repetitive firing is more efficient than single

spiking to evoke presynaptic calcium entry and promote vesicular release at presynaptic

terminals, plateau potentials being even more efficient [79-81]. This is also consistent with

our previous results [25] showing that repetitive firing, mixed event activity or plateau

potential activity were required for GABAergic GICs to occur on MNs. We cannot

completely exclude that some other INs than V1^R were affected by 4-AP application, but it is

important to note that V1^R are the first INs contacting MNs and producing GABA at the onset

of the SNA in the embryonic SC [25], which makes them the best candidates to explain the

effect of 4-AP.

The relationship between the firing pattern and the amount of neurotransmitter release

could *a priori* explain why GIC amplitude strongly varied between SC preparation [12], the

proportion of the different firing patterns within the GABAergic V1^R population likely

varying from one embryo to another at E12.5. However, that variability has little effect on

GDP amplitude. This can be explained by the depolarized equilibrium potential of chloride

ions at this developmental age (-30 mV) [82] and by the high input resistance of MNs, which

reduces the number of activated GABA$_A$ receptors needed for generating a GDP of maximal

amplitude. The current generated by GABA$_A$ receptor activation in MNs is probably larger

than necessary to achieve maximal GDP amplitude. Robustness of GABAergic GDP seems

thus related to redundant GABA$_A$ receptors. It must also be noted that most MNs cannot

sustain tonic firing in response to long lasting suprathreshold depolarization at E12.5. This

makes them poorly sensitive to fluctuations in GDP duration, as was experimentally observed.

This points out to another redundant process (the GDP duration is longer than required to

generate MN firing) involved in the robustness of SNA episodes. In addition, the degeneracy

of neurotransmitter systems that we previously observed (Czarnecki et al. 2014) also

contributes to the robustness of SNA. GDPs in MNs are evoked mainly by GABA release and,

to a lesser extent, by glutamate release. However, blocking either of these two

neurotransmitter systems alters neither the amplitude, nor the duration of the GDPs recorded

in MNs at E12.5 [12].

Conclusions.

In conclusion, our results indicate that a single mechanism involving two classes of

voltage-gated channels with opposite functions is sufficient to produce functional diversity

between neurons and to account for the unusual developmental pattern of immature $V1^R$

during the important time window where SNA is expressed. To our knowledge, such a

mechanism was never described during embryonic development. Importantly, this

demonstrates that diversity of the electrical phenotype between neurons and robustness of a

given firing pattern does not necessitate the presence of many different classes of voltage-

gated channels.

Our results also reveal the robustness of GDPs in MNs during SNA at E12.5 MNs. It likely

results from several processes, including GABAergic receptor redundancy and

neurotransmitter degeneracy, that counterbalance the functional heterogeneity of INs. Such

mechanisms are likely of great importance during SC development since the robustness of

SNA pattern at a given age is required for correct MN axon pathfinding and establishment of

the first functional motor network [21, 23, 83].

Materials and Methods

Isolated spinal cord preparation.

Experiments were performed in accordance with European Community guiding principles on the care and use of animals (86/609/CEE, CE Off J no. L358, 18 December 1986), French decree no. 97/748 of October 19, 1987 (J Off République Française, 20 October 1987, pp. 12245-12248). All procedures were carried out in accordance with the local ethics committee of local Universities and recommendations from the CNRS. We used GAD67eGFP knock-in mice to visualize putative GABAergic INs [84], as in our previous study (Boeri et al. 2018). To obtain E12.5-E16.5 transgenic GAD67-eGFP embryos, 8 to 12 weeks old wild-type Swiss female mice were crossed with GAD67-eGFP Swiss male mice.

Isolated mouse SCs from 420 embryos were used in this work and obtained as previously described [82, 85]. Briefly, pregnant mice were anesthetized by intramuscular injection of a mix of ketamine and xylazine and sacrificed using a lethal dose of CO_2 after embryos of either sex were removed. Whole SCs were isolated from eGFP-positive embryos and maintained in an artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing 135 mM NaCl, 25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM NaH_2PO_4, 3 mM KCl, 11 mM glucose, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 mM $MgCl_2$ (307 mOsm/kg H_2O), continuously bubbled with a 95% O_2-5% CO_2 gas mixture.

In the lumbar SC of GAD67eGFP mouse embryos, eGFP neurons were detected using 488 nm UV light. They were localized in the ventro-lateral marginal zone between the motor columns and the ventral funiculi [63]. Embryonic $V1^R$ identity was confirmed by the expression of the forkhead transcription factor Foxd3 [25].

Whole-cell recordings and analysis.

The isolated SC was placed in a recording chamber and was continuously perfused (2 ml/min) at room temperature (22-26°C) with oxygenated ACSF. Whole-cell patch-clamp

recordings of lumbar spinal embryonic $V1^R$ were carried out under direct visualization using

an infrared-sensitive CCD video camera. Whole-cell patch-clamp electrodes with a resistance

of 4-7 MΩ were pulled from thick-wall borosilicate glass using a P-97 horizontal puller

(Sutter Instrument Co., USA). They were filled with a solution containing (in mM): 96.4 K

methanesulfonate, 33.6 KCl, 4 $MgCl_2$, 4 Na_2ATP, 0.3 Na_3GTP, 10 EGTA, and 10 HEPES

(pH 7.2; 290 mOsm/kg-H_2O). This intracellular solution led to an equilibrium potential of

chloride ions, E_{Cl}, of about -30 mV, close to the physiological values measured at E12.5 in

spinal MNs [82]. The junction potential (6.6 mV) was systematically corrected offline.

Signals were recorded using Multiclamp 700B amplifiers (Molecular Devices, USA). Data

were low-pass filtered (2 kHz), digitized (20 kHz) online using Digidata 1440A or 1550B

interfaces and acquired using pCLAMP 10.5 software (Molecular Devices, USA). Analyses

were performed off-line using pCLAMP 10.5 and Axograph 1.7.2 (Molecular devices;

RRID:SCR_014284) software packages.

In voltage-clamp mode, voltage-dependent K^+ currents (I_{Kv}) were elicited by 500 ms

depolarizing voltage steps (10 mV increments, 10 s interval) after a prepulse of 300 ms at V_H

= -100 mV. To isolate the delayed rectifier potassium current I_{Kdr}, voltage steps were applied

after a 300 ms prepulse at V_H = -30 mV that inactivated the low threshold transient potassium

current I_A. I_A was then obtained by subtracting offline I_{Kdr} from the total potassium current

I_{Kv}. Capacitance and leak current were subtracted using on-line P/4 protocol provided by

pCLAMP 10.5.

In current-clamp mode, $V1^R$ discharge was elicited using 2 s depolarizing current steps

(from 0 to ≈ 50 pA in 5-10 pA increments, depending on the input resistance of the cell) with

an 8 s interval to ensure that the membrane potential returned to V_H. When a cell generated a

sustained discharge, the intensity of the depolarizing pulse was reduced to the minimal value

compatible with repetitive firing.

The persistent sodium current I_{Nap} was measured in voltage-clamp mode using a 70 mV/s

depolarizing voltage ramp [86]. This speed was slow enough to preclude substantial

contamination by the inactivating transient current and fast enough to avoid substantial

inactivation of I_{Nap}. Subtraction of the current evoked by the voltage ramp in the presence of

1 μM tetrodotoxin (TTX) from the control voltage ramp-evoked current revealed I_{Nap}.

Pharmacological reagents.

During patch-clamp recordings, bath application of TTX (1 μM, Alomone, Israel) or 4-AP

(0.3 - 600 μM, Sigma) was done using 0.5 mm diameter quartz tubing positioned, under direct

visual control, 50 μm away from the recording area. The quartz tubing was connected to 6

solenoid valves linked with 6 reservoirs *via* a manifold. Solutions were gravity-fed into the

quartz tubing. Their application was controlled using a VC-8 valve controller (Warner

Instruments, USA).

4-aminopyridine (4-AP; Sigma Aldrich, USA) was used to block I_{Kdr}. To determine the

concentration–response curve, $I - V$ curves of I_{Kdr} for different concentrations of 4-AP (0.3

to 300 μM) were compared to the control curve obtained in the absence of 4-AP. The

percentage of inhibition for a given concentration was calculated by dividing the peak

intensity of I_{Kdr} by the peak value obtained in control condition. The obtained normalized

concentration–response curves were fitted using the Hill equation:

$\frac{100 - I_{min}}{1 + ([4-AP]/IC_{50})^{n_H}} + I_{min}$,

where [4-AP] is the 4-AP concentration, I_{min} is the residual current (in percentage of the peak

I_{Kdr}), $100 - I_{min}$ is the maximal inhibition achieved for saturating concentration of 4-AP,

IC_{50} is the 4-AP concentration producing half of the maximal inhibition, and n_H is the Hill

coefficient. Curve fitting was performed using KaleidaGraph 4.5 (Synergy Software, USA).

 Immunohistochemistry and confocal microscopy.

E14.5 embryos were collected from pregnant females. Once dissected out of their yolk sac,

SCs were dissected and immediately immersion-fixed in phosphate buffer (PB 0.1 M)

containing 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; freshly prepared in PB, pH 7.4) for 1 h at 4°C. Whole

SCs were then rinsed out in 0.12 M PB at 4°C, thawed at room temperature, washed in PBS,

incubated in NH_4Cl (50 mM), diluted in PBS for 20 min and then permeabilized for 30 min in

a blocking solution (10% goat serum in PBS) with 0.2% Triton X-100. They were incubated

for 48 h at 4°C in the presence of the following primary antibodies: guinea pig anti-FoxD3

(1:5000, gift from Carmen Birchmeier and Thomas Müller of the Max Delbrück Center for

Molecular Medicine in Berlin) and rabbit anti-cleaved Caspase-3 (1:1000, Cell Signaling

Technology Cat# 9661, RRID:AB_2341188). SCs were then washed in PBS and incubated

for 2 h at RT with secondary fluorescent antibodies (goat anti-rabbit-conjugated 649; donkey

anti-guinea pig-conjugated Alexa Fluor 405 [1:1000, ThermoFisher]) diluted in 0.2% Triton

X-100 blocking solution. After washing in PBS, SCs were dried and mounted in Mowiol

medium (Millipore, Molsheim, France). Preparations were then imaged using a Leica SP5

confocal microscope. Immunostaining was observed using a 40X oil-immersion objective

with a numerical aperture of 1.25, as well as with a 63X oil-immersion objective with a

numerical aperture of 1.32. Serial optical sections were obtained with a Z-step of 1 μm (40X)

and 0.2-0.3 μm (63X). Images (1024x1024; 12-bit color scale) were stored using Leica

software LAS-AF and analyzed using ImageJ 1.5 (N.I.H., USA; http//rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/) and

Adobe Photoshop CS6 (Adobe, USA) software.

Cluster analysis.

To classify the firing patterns of embryonic $V1^R$, we performed a hierarchical cluster

analysis on a population of 163 cells. Each cell was characterized by three quantitative

measures of its firing pattern (see legend of Fig 1). After normalizing these quantities to zero

mean and unit variance, we performed a hierarchical cluster analysis using the hclust function

in R software (version 3.3.2, https://cran.r-project.org/) that implements the complete linkage

method. The intercluster distance was defined as the maximum Euclidean distance between

the points of two clusters, and, at each step of the process, the two closest clusters were

merged into a single one, thus constructing progressively a dendrogram. Clusters were then

displayed in data space using the dendromat function in the R package 'squash' dedicated to

color-based visualization of multivariate data. The best clustering was determined using the

silhouette measure of clustering consistency [87]. The silhouette of a data point, based on the

comparison of its distance to other points in the same cluster and to points in the closest

cluster, ranges from -1 to 1. A value near 1 indicates that the point is well assigned to its

cluster, a value near 0 indicates that it is close to the decision boundary between two

neighboring clusters, and negative values may indicate incorrect assignment to the cluster.

This allowed us to identify an optimal number k of clusters by maximizing the overall

average silhouette over a range of possible values for k [87], using the silhouette function in

the R package 'cluster'.

Biophysical modeling.

To understand the relationship between the voltage-dependent membrane conductances

and the firing patterns of embryonic V1^R, we relied on a single compartment conductance

based model that included the leak current, the transient and persistent components of the

sodium current, I_{Nat} and I_{Nap}, and a delayed rectifier potassium current I_{Kdr}. Voltage

evolution then followed the equation

$C_{in}\frac{dV}{dt} = G_{in}(V_H - V) + G_{Nat}m^3h(E_{Na} - V) + G_{Nap}m_p^3(E_{Na} - V) + G_{Kdr}n^3(E_K - V) + I$ (1),

where C_{in} was the input capacitance; G_{in} the input conductance; G_{Nat}, G_{Nap}, G_{Kdr} the

maximal conductances of the aforementioned currents; m, m_p and n their activation variables;

h the inactivation variable of I_{Nat}; V_H the baseline potential imposed by *ad hoc* current

injection in current-clamp experiments; E_{Na} and E_K the Nernst potentials of sodium and

potassium ions, and I the injected current. All gating variables satisfied equations of the form:

$\quad \tau_x \dfrac{dx}{dt} = x_\infty(V) - x,$

where the (in)activation curves were sigmoid functions of the form:

$\quad x_\infty = \dfrac{1}{1+\exp\left(-(V-V_x)/k_x\right)}$

with k_x being positive for activation and negative for inactivation. The time constant τ_x was

voltage-independent except for the inactivation variable h.

To take into account the inactivating potassium current I_A revealed by experiments, we

also considered a model with the additional term $G_A m_A h_A (E_K - V)$ added to the right-hand-

side of equation (1). The activation variable m_A of I_A was assumed to follow any voltage

change instantaneously while its inactivation variable evolved more slowly.

To explain the more complex activity patterns observed in 27 % of the cells, we added a

slow inactivation variable s to I_{Nap}, which became $G_{Nap} m_p^3 s (V_{Na} - V)$. We considered that

the corresponding time constant τ_s could be voltage-dependent.

The effect of channel noise was investigated with a stochastic realization of the model,

where channels kinetics were described by Markov-type models, assuming a unitary channel

conductance of 10 pS for all channels.

Most model parameters were chosen on the basis of experimental measurements (see S1

File). Parameters that could not be constrained from our experimental data were chosen from

an experimentally realistic range of values.

 Numerical simulations and dynamical systems analysis.

We integrated numerically the deterministic model using the freeware XPPAUT [88] and a

standard fourth-order Runge-Kutta algorithm. XPPAUT was also used to compute one-

parameter and two-parameters bifurcation diagrams. The stochastic version of the model was

also implemented in XPPAUT and computed with a Gillespie's algorithm [89].

To investigate the dynamics of the model with slow inactivation of I_{Nap}, we relied on

numerical simulations together with fast/slow dynamics analysis [90]. In this approach, one

distinguishes slow dynamical variables (here only s) and fast dynamical variables. Slow

variables vary little at the time scale of fast variables and may therefore be considered as

constant parameters of the fast dynamics in first approximation. In contrast, slow variables are

essentially sensitive to the time average of the fast variables, much more than to their

instantaneous values. This separation of time scales allows one to conduct a phase plane

analysis of the full dynamics.

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Statistics.

All values were expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was assessed by non-

parametric Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc test, Mann-Whitney test or Wilcoxon

matched pairs test (GraphPad Prism 5.0 Software, USA). Significant changes in the

proportions of firing patterns with age were assessed by chi-square test for large sample and

by Fisher's exact test for small sample. Significance was determined at $P < 0.05$.

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 Figure captions

 Fig 1. Cluster analysis of embryonic V1^R firing pattern in the embryonic spinal cord at

 E12.5.

A inserts. Cluster analysis of embryonic V1^R firing pattern was performed using three

parameters that describe the firing pattern during a 2 s suprathreshold depolarizing pulses: the

mean of the half-amplitude event duration (mean ½Ad), the coefficient of variation of ½ Ad

(CV ½Ad) allowing to quantify the AP variation within a train (CV was set to 0 when the

number of spikes evoked by a depolarizing pulse was ≤ 3) and the duration ratio ddr = Σ½

Ad/Pw, obtained by dividing the sum of ½ Ad by the pulse duration Pw, that indicates the

total time spent in the depolarized state. For example, ddr = 1 when a plateau potential lasts as

long as the depolarizing pulse. Conversely, its value is low when the depolarizing pulse

evokes a single AP only. A. Dendrogram for complete linkage hierarchical clustering of 163

embryonic V1^R according to the values of log mean ½Ad, of CV ½Ad and of log ddr. The

colored matrix below the dendrogram shows the variations of these three parameters for all

the cells in the clusters (colored trees) extracted from the dendrogram. B. The number of

clusters was determined by analyzing the distribution of silhouette width values (see Material

and Methods). The boxplots show the distribution of silhouette width values when the number

of clusters k varies from 2 to 12. The mean silhouette width values (red diamond shaped

points) attained their maximum when the estimated cluster number was 5. C. 3D plot showing

cluster distribution of embryonic V1^R according to log mean ½Ad, CV ½Ad and log ddr.

Each cluster corresponds to a particular firing pattern as illustrated in D: V1^R that cannot

sustain repetitive firing of APs (1 to 3 AP/pulse only, gray), V1^R that can fire tonically (red),

V1^R with a firing pattern characterized by a mix of APs and relatively short plateau potentials

(dark purple), V1^R with a firing pattern characterized by a mix of APs and relatively long

plateau potentials (light purple) and V1^R with evoked plateau potentials only (blue). The

arrow in D indicates 3 misclassified $V1^R$ that could not sustain repetitive firing although they

were assigned to the cluster of repetitively firing $V1^R$ (see text).

1161

Fig 2. Changes in the input capacitance, the input resistance and the threshold values of

embryonic $V1^R$ from E11.5 to E16.5.

A. Graph showing how the input capacitance C_{in} of $V1^R$ changes with embryonic age. C_{in}

significantly increased between E12.5 or E13.5 and E14.5 (Kruskall-Wallis test $P < 0.0001$;

E12.5 versus E11.5 $P = 0.258$, E12.5 versus E13.5 $P = 0.904$, E12.5 versus E14.5 $P < 0.0001$,

E12.5 versus E15.5 $P < 0.0001$, E12.5 versus E16.5 $P < 0.0001$, E13.5 versus E14.5 $P <$

0.0001, E13.5 versus E15.5 $P < 0.0001$, E13.5 versus E16.5 $P < 0.0001$; E11.5 n = 31, E12.5

n = 267, E13.5 n = 43, E14.5 n = 61, E15.5 n = 16, E16.5 n = 30). B. Graph showing how the

input resistance R_{in} of $V1^R$ changes with embryonic age. R_{in} significantly increased between

E12.5 or E14.5 and E15.5 (Kruskall-Wallis test $P < 0.0001$; E12.5 versus E11.5 $P > 0.999$,

E12.5 versus E13.5 $P = 0.724$, E12.5 versus E14.5 $P > 0.999$, E12.5 versus E15.5 $P = 0.0004$,

E12.5 versus E16.5 $P = 0.0005$, E14.5 versus E15.5 $P = 0.0019$, E14.5 versus E16.5 $P <$

0.0058; E11.5 n = 31, E12.5 n = 261, E13.5 n = 43, E14.5 n = 60, E15.5 n = 16, E16.5 n = 30).

C. Graph showing how the threshold of regenerative events (APs and plateau potentials) of

$V1^R$ changes with embryonic age. The average threshold became significantly more

hyperpolarized after E12.5 (Kruskall-Wallis test $P < 0.0001$; E12.5 versus E11.5 $P = 0.676$,

E12.5 versus E13.5 $P = 0.0039$, E12.5 versus E14.5 $P < 0.0001$, E12.5 versus E15.5 $P <$

0.0001, E12.5 versus E16.5 $P < 0.0001$, E13.5 versus E14.5 $P > 0.999$, E13.5 versus E15.5 P

$= 0.1398$, E13.5 versus E16.5 $P = 0.0013$; E14.5 versus E15.5 $P > 0.999$, E14.5 versus E16.5

$P = 0.0634$, E15.5 versus E16.5 $P > 0.999$; E11.5 n = 20, E12.5 n = 162, E13.5 n = 31, E14.5

n = 30, E15.5 n = 16, E16.5 n = 30). Yellow and purple bars below the graphs indicate the

two important phases of the functional development of spinal cord networks. The first one is

characterized by synchronized neuronal activity (SNA) and the second one is characterized by

the emergence of a locomotor-like activity (see text). Note that changes in C_{in} and

R_{in} occurred at the end of the first developmental phase. (*$P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P <$

0.001; control, E12.5).

1188

Fig 3. Developmental changes of embryonic V1^R firing patterns from E11.5 to E16.5.

The intrinsic activation properties were analyzed using 2 s suprathreshold depolarizing

current steps. A-E. Representative traces of voltage responses showing SS V1^R (black), RS

V1^R (red), ME V1^R (purple) and PP V1^R (blue) at E11.5 (A), E13.5 (B), E14.5 (C) E15.5 (D)

and E16.5 (E). F. Bar graph showing how the proportions of the different firing patterns

change from E11.5 to E16.5 (E11.5 n = 22, E12.5 n = 165, E13.5 n = 32, E14.5 n = 57, E15.5

n = 15, 16.5 n = 28). Yellow and purple bars below the graphs indicate the first and the

second phase of functional embryonic spinal cord networks. The proportions of the different

firing patterns significantly changed between E11.5 to E12.5 (Fisher's exact test, $P = 0.0052$)

with a significant increase in the proportion of RS V1^R (Fisher's exact test, $P = 0.0336$) and a

significant decrease in the proportion of ME V1^R (Fisher's exact test, $P = 0.01071$) at E12.5.

Only two firing patterns (SS and RS) were observed after E13.5 and most embryonic V1^R lost

their ability to sustain tonic firing after E13.5. However, at E16.5 the proportion of RS V1^R

significantly increased at the expense of SS V1^R when compared to E14.5 (Fisher's exact test,

$P = 0.0112$), indicating that embryonic V1^R began to recover the ability to sustain tonic firing

after E15.5.

1205

Fig 4. **Activated caspase-3 is not observed in embryonic V1^R at E14.5.**

Representative confocal image of the ventral part of an isolated lumbar spinal cord of

E14.5 GAD67-eGFP mouse embryo showing immunostainings using antibodies against eGFP

(A), FoxD3 (B) and activated Caspase 3 (aCaspace 3, C). D. Superimposition of the three

stainings shows that embryonic V1^R (eGFP+ and FoxD3+) were not aCaspase 3

immunoreactive. A1, B1, C1 and D1. Enlarged images from A, B and C showing that

aCaspase 3 staining is localized in areas where eGFP and Foxd3 stainings were absent. A2,

B2, C2 and D2. Enlarged images from A, B and C showing that aCaspase 3 staining is absent

in the area where V1^R (eGFP+ and FoxD3+) are located. aCaspase 3 staining that did not co-

localize with GAD67eGFP likely indicates MN developmental cell death [91].

1216

Fig 5. Delayed Rectifier and A-Type potassium currents are present in embryonic V1^R

at E12.5.

Example of voltage-dependent potassium currents evoked in response to 10 mV membrane

potential steps (200 ms) from -100 or from -30 mV to +40 mV (10 s interval between pulses).

V1^R were voltage clamped at V_H = -60 mV. A prepulse of -40 mV (300 ms) was applied to

activate both I_A and I_{Kdr}. I_{Kdr} was isolated by applying a prepulse of 30 mV (300 ms) to

inactivate I_A (A1 insert). I_A was isolated by subtracting step-by-step the currents obtained

using a prepulse of 30 mV (V_H = - 30 mV) from the currents obtained using a prepulse of -40

mV (V_H = -100 mV). A1, A3 and A5. Representative examples of the total outward K$^+$

currents obtained from V_H = -100 mV (left traces), of I_{Kdr} (V_H = -30 mV, middle traces) and

of isolated I_A (left traces) recorded at E12.5 in SS V1^R (A1), RS V1^R (A3) and PP V1^R (A5).

A2, A4 and A6. Current-voltage relationship ($I - V$ curves) of I_{Kdr} (filled circles) and of I_A

(open circles) recorded in SS V1^R (A2), RS V1^R (A4) and PP V1^R (A6) at E12.5. $I - V$ curves

were obtained from currents shown in A1, A3 and A5. B1. Representative examples of the

total outward K$^+$ currents obtained from V_H = -100 mV (left traces), of I_{Kdr} (V_H = -30 mV,

middle traces) and of isolated I_A (left traces) recorded in SS V1^R at E14.5. B2. Current-

voltage relationship of I_{Kdr} (filled circle) and of I_A (open circle) in SS V1^R at E14.5. $I -$

V curves were obtained from currents shown in B1. Note that the $I - V$ curves are similar

between SS V1^R, RS V1^R, PP V1^R at E12.5 and SS V1^R at E14.5.

1236

Fig 6. Maximal G$_{Kdr}$, G$_{Nap}$ values and G$_{Nap}$/G$_{Kdr}$ ratio in embryonic V1^R recorded at

E12.5 and at E14.5.

A. Bar graph showing maximal G_{Kdr} value (Max G_{Kdr}) in SS V1^R at E12.5 (n = 9; gray bar)

and at E14.5 (n = 10; gray bar), and in RS V1^R (n = 7; red bar), ME V1^R (n = 3; purple bar)

and PP V1^R at E12.5 (n = 7; blue bar). G_{Kdr} was calculated from I_{Kdr} at V_H = + 20 mV,

assuming a K$^+$ equilibrium potential of -96 mV. There is no significant difference

in G_{Kdr} between SS V1^R and RS V1^R, while G_{Kdr} is significantly smaller in PP V1^R as

compared to SS V1^R and RS V1^R. G_{Kdr} was significantly higher in SS V1^R at E14.5 than in SS

V1^R, RS V1^R and PP V1^R at E12.5. (Kruskall-Wallis test P < 0.0001; SS V1^R versus RS V1^R

at E12.5, P = 0.5864; SS V1^R versus PP V1^R at E12.5, P = 0.0243; RS V1^R versus PP V1^R at

E12.5, P = 0.0086; E14.5 SS V1^R versus E12.5 SS V1^R, P = 0.0048; E14.5 SS V1^R versus

E12.5 RS V1^R, P = 0.0384, E14.5 SS V1^R versus E12.5 PP V1^R, P < 0.0001). The increase in

G_{Kdr} between E12.5 and E14.5 is likely to be due to the increase in neuronal size (input

capacitance; Fig 2A). Indeed there was no significant difference (Mann Whitney test, P =

0.133) in G_{Kdr} density between SS V1^R at E12.5 (408.5 ± 42.95 pS/pF, n = 9) and at E14.5

(522.6 ± 49.6 pS/pF, n = 10). Bar graph showing the maximal G_{Nap} value (Max G_{Nap}) in SS

V1^R at E12.5 (n 9; gray bar) and E14.5 (n = 10; green bar), and in RS V1^R (n = 8; red bar),

ME V1^R (n = 3; purple bar) and PP V1^R (n = 6; blue bar) at E12.5. Max G_{Nap} was calculated

from maximal I_{Nap} value measured on current evoked by depolarizing voltage ramp (see S3

Fig), assuming a Na$^+$ equilibrium potential of +60 mV. There was no difference

in G_{Nap} between RS V1^R and PP V1^R. On the contrary, G_{Nap} measured in SS V1^R at E12.5 or

at E14.5 was significantly smaller as compared to G_{Nap} measured at E12.5 in RS V1^R or in PP

$V1^R$. G_{Nap} measured at E12.5 and E14.5 in SS $V1^R$ were not significantly different (Kruskall-

Wallis test $P < 0.0001$; E12.5 SS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 RS $V1^R$, $P = 0.0034$; E12.5 SS $V1^R$ versus

E12.5 PP $V1^R$, $P = 0.0006$; E12.5 RS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 PP $V1^R$, $P = 0.5494$; E14.5 SS $V1^R$

versus E12.5 SS $V1^R$, $P = 0.5896$; E14.5 SS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 RS $V1^R$, $P = 0.0005$; E14.5 SS

$V1^R$ versus E12.5 PP $V1^R$, $P < 0.0001$). C. Histograms showing the G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} ratio in SS

$V1^R$ at E12.5 (n = 9; gray bar) and E14.5 (n = 10; green bar) and in RS $V1^R$ (n = 8; red bar),

ME $V1^R$ (n = 3; purple bar) and PP $V1^R$ (n = 6; blue bar) at E12.5. Note that

the G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} ratio differs significantly between SS $V1^R$, RS $V1^R$ and PP $V1^R$ at E12.5,

while it is not different between SS $V1^R$ recorded at E12.5 and at E14.5 (Kruskall-Wallis test

$P < 0.0001$; SS $V1^R$ versus RS $V1^R$ at E12.5, $P = 0.0367$; SS $V1^R$ versus PP $V1^R$ at E12.5, $P <$

0.0001; RS $V1^R$ versus PP $V1^R$ at E12.5, $P = 0.0159$; E14.5 SS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 SS $V1^R$, $P =$

0.2319; E14.5 SS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 RS $V1^R$, $P = 0.0017$; E14.5 SS $V1^R$ versus E12.5 PP $V1^R$

$P < 0.0001$). Data shown in A and B were used to calculate G_{Nap} / G_{Kdr} ratio shown in C. (*P

< 0.05, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$).

1273

Fig 7. Delayed Rectifier potassium current was inhibited by low concentrations of 4-

aminopyridine in embryonic $V1^R$ recorded at E12.5.

Example of voltage-dependent potassium currents evoked in response to 10 mV membrane

potential steps (200 ms) from -100 mV or from -30 mV to +40 mV (10 s interval between

pulses). $V1^R$ were voltage clamped at V_H = -60 mV. A prepulse of -40 mV (300 ms) was

applied to activate both I_A and I_{Kdr}.

I_{Kdr} was evoked in response to 10 mV membrane potential steps (200 ms) from -100 mV to

+40 mV. $V1^R$ were voltage clamped at V_H = -60 mV. A prepulse of 30 mV (V_H = - 30 mV)

was applied to isolate I_{Kdr}. A1. Representative example of the effect of 300 μM 4-AP

application on I_{Kdr} recorded from embryonic $V1^R$ at E12.5. A2. Curves showing current-

voltage relationships of I_{Kdr} in control and in the presence of 300 μM 4-AP. Measurements

were performed on traces shown in A1. B. Dose-response relationship of 4-AP-evoked I_{Kdr}

inhibition (mean + SE). Data were normalized to I_{Kdr} amplitude measured in the absence of

4-AP (V_H = 40mV) and fitted as explained in Materials and Methods. Note that 4-AP IC$_{50}$ is

in μM range (2.9 μM). 0.3 μM 4-AP n = 3, 1 μM 4-AP n = 3, 3 μM 4-AP n = 9, 10 μM 4-AP

n = 13, 30 μM 4-AP n = 7, 100 μM 4-AP n = 7, 300 μM 4-AP n = 7.

1290

Fig 8. Increasing 4-AP concentration changed the firing pattern of single spiking

embryonic V1^R recorded at E12.5.

The firing pattern of embryonic V1^R was evoked by 2 s suprathreshold depolarizing current

steps. A1. Representative traces showing an example of the effect of increasing concentration

of 4-AP (from 3 to 300 μM) on the firing pattern of a SS V1^R recorded at E12.5. Note that in

this case increasing 4-AP concentration converted single spiking (black trace) to repetitive

spiking (red trace), repetitive spiking to a mixed event pattern (purple trace) and mixed events

to plateau potential (blue trace). A2. Example of SS V1^R in which increasing 4-AP

concentration converted single spiking to repetitive spiking only. A3. Bar plots showing the

change in the firing pattern of SS V1^R according to 4-AP concentrations (control n = 10, 3 μM

4-AP n = 8, 10 μM 4-AP n = 10, 30 μM 4-AP n = 10, 100 μM 4-AP n = 10, 300 μM 4-AP n =

8). A4. Representative traces showing the effect of 0.5 μM TTX on a plateau potential evoked

in a SS V1^R in the presence of 300 μM 4-AP. A5. Representative traces showing the effect of

0.5 μM TTX on repetitive AP firing evoked in a SS V1^R in the presence of 300 μM 4-AP. In

both cases, the application of TTX fully blocked the responses evoked in the presence of 4-

AP, indicating that they were underlain by the activation of voltage-gated Na$^+$ channels. B1

and B2. Representative traces showing the effect of 4-AP application (600 μM) on the firing

pattern of single SS V1^R recorded at E14.5. Note that the applications of 600 μM 4-AP

evoked either a plateau potential (B1) or repetitive AP firing (B2), both fully blocked by TTX.

B3. Bar plots showing the proportions of the different firing patterns observed in the presence

of 600 μM 4-AP versus control recorded in SS V1^R at E14.5 (n = 14).

1312

Fig 9. Embryonic V1^R firing patterns predicted by computational modeling.

A. Firing patterns of 27 recorded cells, in which both G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} were measured. Gray:

SS, red: RS, blue: PP. The three purple points located at the boundary between the RS and PP

regions correspond to mixed events (ME) where plateau potentials alternate with spiking

episodes. Note that no cell exhibited low values of both G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} (lower left), or large

values of both conductances (upper right). B. Bifurcation diagram of the deterministic model

when G_{Kdr} is kept fixed to 2.5 nS or 10 nS while G_{Nap} is varied. G_{in} = 1 nS and I = 20 pA.

For G_{Kdr} = 10 nS (i.e. in the top experimental range), the red curves indicate the maximal and

minimal voltages achieved on the stable limit cycle associated with repetitive firing (solid

lines) and on the unstable limit cycle (dashed lines). The fixed point of the model is indicated

by a gray solid line when it corresponds to the stable quiescent state, a gray dashed line when

it is unstable and a solid blue line when it corresponds to a stable plateau potential. The two

HB corresponding to the change of stability of the quiescence state (HB$_1$, G_{Nap}= 0.95 nS) and

of the voltage plateau (HB$_2$, G_{Nap}= 3.04 nS) are indicated, as well as the two SN bifurcations

of limit cycles associated with the onset (SN$_1$, G_{Nap} = 0.58 nS) and offset (SN$_2$, G_{Nap}= 3.14

nS) of repetitive spiking as G_{Nap} is increased. For G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS, the model does not display

repetitive firing; it possesses a unique fixed point, which is always stable (blue-gray curve).

The transition from quiescence to plateau is gradual with no intervening bifurcation.

Representative voltage traces of the three different activity patterns are shown: single spiking

in response to a 2 s current pulse (gray, G_{Nap} = 0.1 nS, G_{Kdr} = 10 nS), repetitive spiking

(red, G_{Nap} = 1.5 nS, G_{Kdr} = 10 nS) and plateau potential (blue, G_{Nap} = 1.5 nS, G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS).

Note that the plateau never outlasts the current pulse. C. Bifurcation diagram when G_{Nap} is

kept fixed at 1.5 nS and G_{Kdr} is varied (I = 20 pA). Same conventions as in B. Plateau

potential is stable until point HB$_2$ (G_{Kdr} = 5.05 nS), repetitive firing can be observed between

HB$_2$ and SN$_1$ (G_{Kdr} = 21.05 nS). The quiescent state is stable from point HB$_1$ (G_{Kdr} = 15.76

nS) onward. Increasing G_{Nap} by merely 10% from 1.5 to 1.65 nS makes the bifurcation HB$_2$

subcritical (not shown). This is because the RS-PP transition of the model occurs near a

Bautin bifurcation (a.k.a. generalized HB) bifurcation, where the supercritical HB, subcritical

HB and the SN bifurcation of limit cycles merge as shown in D (point B$_2$). D. Two-

parameters bifurcation diagram of the model in the G_{Nap} - G_{Kdr} plane (I = 20 pA). The black

lines indicate the bifurcations HB$_1$ and HB$_2$. The red lines indicate the SN bifurcations of

limit cycles SN$_1$ and SN$_2$. The shaded area indicates the region where repetitive firing can

occur. The black squares B$_1$ and B$_2$ correspond to Bautin bifurcations where supercritical HB

(occurring between B$_1$ and B$_2$), subcritical HB (occurring on the rest of the HB$_1$ and HB$_2$ lines)

and the SN bifurcations of limit cycles SN$_1$ and SN$_2$ coalesce. Because the model is near a

Bautin bifurcation, its behavior is little affected by the nature of the bifurcation HB$_2$. When

HB$_2$ is subcritical, the bistability region between HB2 and SN$_2$ is narrow (see Fig 9, B and D)

and action potentials keep a large amplitude until their disappearance at point HB$_2$ (see Fig

9B). When HB$_2$ is supercritical, the spike amplitude vanishes at HB$_2$ but the decay is very

steep (see Fig 9C). Taking into account channel noise further softens the distinction between

these two cases. The oblique lines correspond to three different values of the ratio G_{Nap}/G_{Kdr}:

0.03 (gray), 0.2 (red) and 0.5 (blue). Voltage traces on the right display the response to a 2 s

current pulse when channel noise is taken into account for the three regimes: quiescence (top,

gray trace and dot in the diagram), repetitive firing (middle, red) and plateau potential (bottom,

blue). They correspond to the three deterministic voltage traces shown in B. Note that the

one-parameter bifurcation diagrams shown in B correspond to horizontal lines through points

1 and 2 (G_{Kdr} = 10 nS) and through point 3 (G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS), respectively. The bifurcation

diagram in C corresponds to a vertical line through point 2 and 3 (G_{Nap} = 1.5 nS). E.

Cumulative distribution function of the ratio G_{Nap}/G_{Kdr} for the four clusters shown in A,

showing the sequencing SS (gray) → RS (red) → ME (purple, 3 cells only) → PP (blue)

predicted by the two-parameters bifurcation diagram in D. The wide PP range, as compared to

SS and RS, merely comes from the fact that G_{Kdr} is small for cells in this cluster. F. The data

points in A are superimposed on the two-parameters bifurcation diagram shown in D,

demonstrating that our basic model accounts well for SS, RS and PP clusters (indicated with

the same color code as in A). The bifurcation diagram is simplified compared to A, only the

region where repetitive spiking is possible (i.e. between the lines SN_1 and SN_2 in A) being

displayed (shaded area). Notice that 3 ME cells (purple dots) are located near the transition

between the RS and PP regions (indicated here by the purple fringe along the SN_2 bifurcation

line). The four arrows indicate the presumable evolution of G_{Nap} and G_{Kdr} for SS, RS, ME

and PP cells between E12.5 and E14.5-15.5. G_{Nap} eventually decreases while G_{Kdr} keeps on

increasing. G. Distribution of a sample of cells in the G_{Kdr} - G_{Kdr} plane at E14.5. All the cells

are located well within the SS region far from bifurcation lines because of the decreased G_{Nap}

compared to E12.5, the increased G_{Kdr}, and the shift of the RS region (shaded) due to

capacitance increase (18 versus 13 pF).

1377

Fig 10. Effects of the slow inactivation of I_{Nap} on firing patterns predicted by

computational modeling.

A. Examples of repetitive plateaus (left) and mixed events (right) recorded in V1[R] at E12.5

during a 2 s current pulse. B1. Current-voltage curve of the basic model (without slow

inactivation of I_{Nap}, and without I_A or channel noise) for G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS and for G_{Nap} = 1.7 nS

(lower curve) and 2.5 nS (upper curve). G_{in} = 2.5 nS. Solid lines denote stable fixed points

and dashed lines unstable ones. For G_{Nap} =1.7 nS, bistability between quiescence and plateau

occurs between the SN bifurcations SN_1 (I = 2.1 pA) and SN_2 (I = 8.3 pA). When G_{Nap} is

increased to 2.5 nS, that bistability region extends to the negative current range, which

implies that once a plateau has been elicited, the model will stay in that stable state and not

return to the resting state, even though current injection is switched off (see insert). B1 Insert.

Voltage response to a 2 s current pulse of 8 pA for G_{Nap} = 2.5 nS. The resting state (gray dot

on the lower curve in B1) is destabilized at pulse onset and a plateau is elicited (blue dot on

the upper curve in B1). At pulse offset, the plateau is maintained, even though the injected

current is brought back to zero, and channel noise is not sufficient to go back to the resting

state. B2. Domain of bistability between quiescence and plateau (shaded) in the I- G_{Nap} plane

for G_{Kdr}= 2.5 nS. It is delimited by the two lines SN_1 and SN_2 where SN bifurcations of fixed

points occur. Bistability requires that G_{Nap} exceeds 1.35 nS, and the domain of bistabilty

enlarges as G_{Nap} is increased further. The two horizontal lines correspond to the two cases

shown in B1: G_{Nap} =1.7 nS and 2.5 nS. C. Behavior of the model when slow inactivation is

incorporated (half-inactivation voltage V_s = -30 mV, steepness k_s= -5 mV). The bifurcation

diagram of the basic model (without slow inactivation) for I = 8 pA (compared to 20 pA in

Fig 9) and G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS (same conventions as in Fig 9B) and the stable limit cycle (black

solid curve) obtained when slow inactivation is added (voltage-independent time constant: 1 s)

are superimposed. The limit cycle is comprised of four successive phases (see labels): 1) long

plateau during which I_{Nap} slowly inactivates, 2) fast transition to the quiescent state, 3)

repolarization episode during which I_{Nap} slowly deinactivates, 4) fast transition back to the

plateau. Each plateau starts with a full blown action potential (or a series of rapidly decaying

spikelets). Note that the bifurcation HB is subcritical here (unstable limit cycle in red), at

variance with square wave bursting (supercritical bifurcation and stable limit cycle); this is a

characteristic feature of pseudo-plateau bursting. Voltage responses to a 2 s current pulse are

shown on the right for different kinetics of slow inactivation. Top: voltage-independent time

constant of 1 s, Middle: same with channel noise added to fast and slow gating variables,

Bottom: time constant increases with membrane voltage from 100 ms to 1 s (midpoint: -30

mV, steepness: 15 mV), D. Mixed events. The bifurcation diagram of the basic model

for G_{Kdr} = 2.5 nS and I = 10 pA and the stable limit cycle obtained in the presence of slow

inactivation (G_{Nap} = 2.5 nS, V_s = -20 mV, k_s = -15 mV, voltage-independent time constant: 1

s) are superimposed. Here again, the limit cycle is comprised of four successive phases (see

labels): 1) slow inactivation of I_{Nap} that leads to the crossing of the bifurcation point HB$_2$ and

the destabilization of the plateau potential, 2) fast transition to the spiking regime, 3)

repetitive spiking during which I_{Nap} slowly de-inactivates, which leads to the crossing of the

bifurcation point SN$_2$ and terminates the spiking episode, 4) fast transition back to the stable

plateau potential. Voltage traces for a constant injected current (10 pA) are shown on the right

and in the absence of any channel noise. Top: voltage-independent time constant of 1 s,

Bottom: time constant increases with membrane voltage from 200 to 800 ms (same V_s and k_s

as in C). Note that in C and D the first plateau lasts longer than the following ones, as in

electrophysiological recordings of embryonic V1^R cells displaying repetitive plateaus. This

form of adaptation is caused by the slow inactivation of the persistent sodium current.

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Fig 11. Effect of 4-AP application on evoked GABAergic GICs or GDPs recorded in

MNs at E12.5.

Drawing showing the cervical position of the stimulation electrode and the lumbar position of

the recording electrode. B. Evoked Giant Inward Current (GIC) in the presence of 4 mM

kynurenic acid in control condition, in the presence of 30 μM 4-AP and 300 μM 4-AP. B1.

Representative example of GICs in the three conditions. B2. Bar graph showing GIC

amplitude (pA) and half-width (s) (*P < 0.05). 4-AP applied at concentrations of 30 μM or

300 μM significantly increased the amplitude (Wilcoxon test, $P = 0.016$ and $P = 0.047$

respectively) and half-width (Wilcoxon test, $P = 0.016$ and $P = 0.018$ respectively) of

GABAergic GIC. C. Evoked Giant Depolarizing Potential (GDP) in the presence of 4 mM

kynurenic acid in control condition, in the presence of 30 μM 4-AP and 300 μM 4-AP. C1.

Representative example of GDPs in the three conditions. C2. Bar graph showing GDPs

amplitude (mV) and half-width (s). 4-AP applied at concentrations of 30 μM or 300 μM

significantly increased GABAergic GDPs half-width (Wilcoxon test $P = 0.004$ and $P = 0.007$

respectively), but it did not significant change the amplitude (Wilcoxon test $P = 0.07$ and $P =$

0.07 respectively).

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Fig 1.

Fig 2.

Fig 3.

Fig 4.

Fig 5.

Fig 6.

Fig 7.

Fig 8.

Fig 9.

Fig 10.

Fig 11.