1

In Vivo Multi-Day Calcium Imaging of CA1 Hippocampus in Freely Moving Rats Reveals a High Preponderance of Place Cells with Consistent Place Fields

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Abstract

Calcium imaging using GCaMP indicators and miniature microscopes has been used to
image cellular populations during long timescales and in different task phases, as well
as to determine neuronal circuit topology and organization. Because the hippocampus
(HPC) is essential for tasks of memory, spatial navigation, and learning, calcium
imaging of large populations of HPC neurons can provide new insight on cell changes
over time during these tasks. All reported HPC in vivo calcium imaging experiments
have been done in mouse. However, rats have many behavioral and physiological
experimental advantages over mice. In this paper, we present the first in vivo calcium
imaging from CA1 hippocampus in freely moving rats. Using the UCLA Miniscope, we
demonstrate that hundreds of cells can be visualized and held across weeks, and that
calcium events in these cells are highly correlated with periods of movement. We show
that an extremely large percent of cells recorded during recorded on a navigational task
are place cells (77.3±5.0%, surpassing the percent seen during mouse calcium
imaging), and that these cells enable accurate decoding of animal position and can be
held over days in a consistent spatial map. A detailed protocol, including notes on the
numerous parameter changes needed to use calcium imaging in rats, is included, and
implications of these advancements are discussed.
43

Introduction

The explosion in the use of *in vivo* calcium imaging has allowed the visualization of hundreds of identified neurons over long time periods [1-8]. Calcium (Ca2+) imaging using GCaMP calcium indicators and miniature microscopes has been used to image cellular populations during long timescales [9-15] and in different task phases [16-18], as well as to determine neuronal circuit topography and organization [19-22].

The hippocampus (HPC) has been studied with cellular resolution using *in vivo* electrophysiology, but this technique does not allow the same cells to be definitively followed over days, nor does it allow the visualization of cellular organization within the structure [23-27]. *In vivo* calcium imaging is particularly well suited for imaging the rodent HPC, as the orientation of the horizontal cell layer permits imaging of large numbers of neurons with insertion of a 1mm diameter or smaller lens [12, 13, 22, 28]. Because the hippocampus is essential for many tasks involving memory [15, 29-37], spatial navigation [38-43], and learning [44-47], Ca2+ imaging of large populations of HPC neurons can shed new insight on cell changes and organization over time during these tasks.

To our knowledge, all reports of hippocampal *in vivo* calcium imaging have been done in mouse (although calcium imaging has been used to visualize other structures in rat [48-51]). Using calcium imaging in rat hippocampus requires optimizing a number of methodological parameters, including aspiration and lens implantation techniques, to account for the increased thickness of the rat alveus compared to mouse which makes focusing on the CA1 cell layer difficult [52-54]. However, rats have many basic experimental advantages over mice: First, rats are able to learn and perform more complex tasks than mice, and employ more advanced strategies, and are thus suited for a wider variety of behavioral experiments [55-60]. Second, compared to mouse physiology, rat physiology for a number of conditions and disorders (including addiction, aging, and schizophrenia, among others) more closely mirrors human physiology [61-64]. Third, rats are less stressed by handling than mice, thus introducing less variability in experimental procedures [65].

Rats are also an advantageous organism to use for calcium imaging: Due to their

larger size, rats are able to support larger implants, including a wider diameter imaging

lens, larger and heavier cameras that may be available in the future, and more

combinations with electrophysiology implants. This advantage will thereby enable the

recording of a greater number of cells [2, 66, 67]. Additionally, rat hippocampal neurons

are less excitable than those in mice [54, 59], and rats are less prone to post-operative

seizures than mice [68-70]. Rats may therefore, compared to mice, be at a decreased

risk of the seizures (and potentially to cell death) seen in mice after prolonged GCaMP

expression [5, 6, 71-73].

Although *in vivo* Ca2+ imaging would appear to hold substantial promise for the

study of hippocampus in freely moving rats, there is currently no direct evidence that it

will work in this system. To our knowledge, there are no published studies employing *in*

vivo Ca2+ imaging in rat hippocampus, likely partially due to the number of

methodological changes necessary to adapt the technique from mice to rats. In this

paper, we present reports of *in vivo* Ca2+ recording from CA1 hippocampus in freely

moving rats. We demonstrate that hundreds of cells are reliably visualized and held

across weeks using this technique, and that calcium activity corresponds to periods of

movement. We show that during a navigational task involving retrieving food reward on

a linear track, a uniquely high percentage (77.3±5.0%) of imaged cells are place cells

(as compared to calcium imaging studies in mouse and electrophysiology studies in rat

and mouse), and that these place cells enable accurate decoding and can be held

stably over days with little change in field location. A detailed protocol for this technique,

including notes on the numerous parameter changes needed to use Ca2+ in rats, is

included in the Materials and Methods section, and implications of these advancements

are discussed.

Results

To initiate Ca2+ imaging, we injected AAV9-Syn-GCaMP7c below the CA1 cell

layer in five male Fischer 344 x Brown Norway rats (Figure 1a, see Materials and

Methods) [74]. After injection, in the same surgery, cortex and corpus collosum were

aspirated through a craniotomy until the alveus was clearly visible (Figure 1b, see

Materials and Methods). A 2mm diameter GRIN lens was inserted into the craniotomy

and cemented in place. Three animals were checked for GCaMP expression four weeks

after surgery, and all three animals showed expression and were subsequently affixed

with a base plate to secure the position of the Miniscope. The other two animals were

checked six weeks after surgery and showed expression and were base plated. After

the completion of the experiment, animals were sacrificed and expression of GCaMP in

CA1 pyramidal cells was verified with microscopy (Figure 1c).

Animals were then food deprived to 85% body weight and trained on a 2.64m

linear track (Figure S1a). Animals were rewarded with grain pellets on alternating ends

of the linear track and quickly learned to run back and forth on the track (Figure S1b). A

visit to one reward well signified a trial. Animals were run for a minimum of 30 minutes

or 50 trials, whichever came later, with total track time not to exceed one hour per

session. Cells were recorded for 7 days for one animal, 11 days for one animal, and 16

days for two animals (n=4 rats, one of the five animals was eliminated when the implant

was lost).

The six sessions with the most trials run were analyzed from each animal

(average trials run = 100.3±33.1, see Materials and Methods), with first and last

recorded sessions automatically included; sessions were not always consecutive (see

Materials and Methods). These sessions were analyzed for cellular activity using the

CNMF-E method implemented by the CIATAH software package [75-77] (See Materials

and Methods). A total of 5761 neurons were recorded over the 24 sessions, with a

maximum of 428 cells from a single session (mean of 239.6±90.0 cells) (Figure 2a-d).

The number of cells recorded from each animal across sessions was relatively constant

(Figure 2c).

We then determined average calcium events/s across animals to be 0.090+-

0.019 events/s, with individual animals averaging 0.084+-0.024, 0.074+-0.026, 0.085+-

0.020, and 0.116+-0.032 events/second. (Figure 2D-E). There was a significant positive

correlation between the animal's average speed and the average events/s for each

session (F(22)=4.2, p=0.05) (Figure 2F). In every session, we saw a positive correlation

between the animal's speed and the number of calcium events across the population

(average correlation was 0.2 +-0.7 at an average lag of +4.7+-5.4s) (Figure 2G).

Significantly, calcium activity appeared to be heavily modulated by the animal's

activity, with periods of higher activity when the animal was running rather than

stationary on the track (Figure 3). The biggest contributor to a change in event rate was

transition from no movement to movement, with very few events occurring during

periods of no movement (Figure 3C).

We then determined if there were place cells on any of the trials. A cell was

considered to be a place cell if the mutual information (MI) computed in either direction

of travel was greater than 95% of MI scores computed 500 times after shuffling the

times of the calcium events that occur when the animal is moving [14, 78]. Based on

this criterion all trials contained place cells (Figure 3a). An average of 77.3±5.0%, of

cells were place cells (Figure 3), with individual rat averages at 71.6±10.6%, 77.3±1.2%,

76.4±9.5%, and 83.7±7.1%. We additionally determined the percentage of place cells if

we only analyzed cells that had an average calcium events rate of greater than 0.01hz

[28]. This additional criterion yielded an even higher percentage of place cells, with

88.3±4.4% of these cells being classified as place cells. (Figure 3a).

We extended these results using an additional criterion previously used to

determine the percentage of place cells using calcium imaging [28]. We determined the

percentage of cells that would be place cells if the mutual information value exceeded

the mean plus three standard deviations of a shuffled distribution. Using this criterion,

we found that 64.3+-5.1 percent of all cells were place cells, with individual animals at

59.5+-12.0%, 65.5+-2.3%, 61.2+-14%, and 71.0+-12.1%. If we applied the 0.01hz

threshold for cell inclusion to this group, 73.4+-4.3% of cells were place cells, with

individual animals at 68.0+-11.8%, 77.6+-5.6%, 77.0+-14.6% and 76.0+-13.0% (Figure

S2).

We wished to further investigate the properties of these place cells and to

confirm that cells were increasing their firing rate in place fields as is typical for

pyramidal cells; as opposed to interneurons that mark spatial location by a substantial

decrease in firing [11, 79, 80]). We examined the place cells' maximum event rate

during movement (presumably occurring in the place field) with their average firing rate

during movement. The mean maximum rate was 0.15events/s, and the mean average

rate was 0.02events/s. On average, cells increased firing 7.4x from their average firing

rate during movement to their maximum firing rate (Figure 4D).

We then aimed to determine whether place cell firing was sufficient to decode the

position of the animal. We split the track in 10cm segments and used Bayesian

decoding to determine the position of the animal in non-overlapping 0.5 second

increments [81]. We found that the best positional decoding was accurate to a median

error of 4.3cm (1.6% of the 2.64m track). Across all animals, accuracy ranged from a

median of 4.3cm to 13.6cm (decoding errors were below 10cm in 23 sessions and

above 10cm in one session) with a median error of 5.9cm (Figure 5a). To confirm that

decoding accuracy was better than chance we shuffled firing rate per position bins and,

using the shuffled data, decoded position. Median error for shuffled data ranged from

59.1cm to 77.6cm, which was significantly worse than non-shuffled data (Kruskal-Wallis

test, $x^2(47)= 35.3$, $p=2.9*10^{-9}$) (Figure 5b).

We then aimed to determine if the same cells could be held over the duration of

our recordings (six recording sessions, spanning 7, 11, or 16 days). 40% of the cells

imaged on day one of the 7-day session were also present on day seven. Of the rat run

for 11 days, 31% of the cells present on day one were also present on day eleven. For

the two rats run 16 days, 28% and 50% of cells, respectively, that were present on day

one were also present on day sixteen. Across all four animals, cells that were imaged

on day one of recording had, on average, a 72±6% chance of being imaged on at least

one subsequent day of recording (Figure 6A). (Of note, while the camera was placed in

the same approximate position each day, the focal plane was not always held constant

and recordings each day were made to optimize total cell number in each day as proof

of method, rather than to maintain the same landmarks or focal planes.)

We then looked to determine how often a cell appeared in each session. Across

all cells, 59.4+-5.4% of cells were visible in only one session, 19.9+-2.4 were visible in

two, 11.2+-1.5 in three, 6.3+-0.8 in four, 2.3+-1.3 in five, and 1.0+-0.9 were in all six

sessions (Figure 6B). We then looked at place cells that were repeated across

sessions. As stated, 22.6+-4.3% of cells did not have place cells in any session. Of the

77.4% of cells that did have place fields, 61.0+-5.7% (47.2% of total cells) had fields in

only one session, 20.6+-2.0 (15.9% of total) had fields in two sessions, 10.8+-2.4%

(8.3% of total) had fields in three sessions, 5.1+-0.7% (4.9% of total) had fields in four

sessions, 2.0+-1.4% (1.5% of total) had fields in five sessions, and 0.5+-0.5 (0.4%of

total) had fields in all six sessions (Figure 6C). Place cell recurrence was not statistically

different from the recurrence of all cells (paired t-test(5)=$2.04*10^{-15}$, p=1).

We then determined the recurrence probability of a cell based on the number of

days apart the recording took place (Figure 6D). Three of our animals had relatively

consistent recurrence probabilities, while one animal (animal 3) was highly variable.

Going back to the recordings, we saw that recordings from this animal came from two

different focal planes, causing the recording of two different cell populations. Excluding

this animal, there was a modest trend across days for a decreasing recurrence

probability, with the probability of a cell reoccurring decreasing by 0.43% per day

separating the recording periods (Figure 6E).

We then determined whether a cell's place field remained in the same location

during days when the place cell reoccurred. We found that, across all days of recording,

the mean standard deviation of place field locations was about 36cm (~13% of track

length), with the individual animals at 39cm, 36cm, 32cm, and 37cm. We compared

these distances with distances if place field locations were shuffled, and we repeated

shuffling 500 times. All four animals had a smaller deviation between fields than would

be expected by chance (p<0.05 for all animals). Between individual days (including

nonadjacent days), the change in field distance was highly variable at 65cm+-71cm,

with a median of 40cm and a large concentration of values around 0cm (Figure 6F).

Although fields across days were more consistent than would have been

expected by random chance, we had not yet determined whether the animal had a

consistent map across all recording days [14], or if it switched between multiple maps

[13]. To determine this, we compared place field location for cells in a session against

the place field locations of the same cells in another session. Of the pairs of sessions

that had more than 10 place cells shared between sessions (57 out of 60 total session

pairs—15 session pairs for rat 1, 15 for rat 2, 14 for rat 3, and 13 for rat 4), 53 of these

pairs (93%) had a significant positive correlation between the place field locations in

both sessions, with no evidence of switching between maps across days (Figure 6G).

We found that correlations between field locations did not decay as a function of the

number of days between sessions (Figure 6HG).

Discussion

In this manuscript, we have demonstrated calcium imaging recordings can be

performed in the CA1 region of the hippocampus in freely moving rats. These

recordings can capture hundreds of cells in a single recording session, including a high

number and percentage of place cells sufficient to decode the animal's position to within

centimeters of accuracy, and that place cell field location is consistent across days.

Calcium imaging in rat will allow for more behaviorally complex and translational

experiments than have been done in mouse.

We chose to use mutual information as the measure of spatial content for

multiple reasons: First, it has precedence for use in both calcium imaging [12, 14, 28,

78, 82] and electrophysiology studies [83] (Table 1). Second, threshold measures

commonly used in electrophysiology that depend on firing rate (such as "a cell is a place

cell if firing rate, as measured by electrophysiology, exceeds 2Hz for a 10cm area") [84]

(Table 1) do not transfer well to calcium imaging experiments as, using currently

availably GCaMPs, calcium events are captured much less frequently than spikes in

electrophysiology [28]. Third, other measures of information content, such as bits/spike

or bits/second (Table 1), tend to be highly sensitive to changes in firing rate, including

baseline firing rate [85], as compared to mutual information. Specifically, cells with lower

baseline firing rates are favored to have higher baseline bits/spike or bits/second values

[85, 86], which makes it not a useful metric with which to compare values from calcium

imaging with data collected from electrophysiology. Additionally, mutual information is

advantageous in that it is a better predictor of decoding accuracy than bits/spike and

bits/second, and thus may better capture spatial informational content [85]. The criteria

we used to identify place cells were as or more stringent than previously used criteria in

calcium imaging that identified a significantly lower percentage of place fields (Table 1).

Significantly, we found a higher percentage of cells were place cells in our

calcium imaging experiments in rats than those reported in mouse CA1 calcium imaging

experiments, even after the mice experiments were corrected for cells with low spiking

rates (Table 1). (The studies with mice reported 20-30% of imaged CA1 cells were

place cells, which is also substantially below most electrophysiology experiments [14,

87]). Previous work has reported that mouse place cells are less spatially tuned, contain

less spatial information, and have less stable place fields than in rat [59, 88], so some of

the difference in place cell percent may be due to species differences in spatial

representations. However, there are also likely physiological differences between rats

and mice that affect the type of activity captured in calcium imaging recordings. CA1

cells in mice are more excitable than those in rat [54, 59], and prolonged GCaMP

expression in mice has been shown to lead to cell hyperexcitability, seizures, and even

cell death [5, 6, 71-73]. The higher baseline excitability of mouse cells, combined with a

further increase in cellular excitability after GCaMP expression may result in a lower

threshold for cell firing and less defined place fields, less stable fields, and, therefore, a

seemingly lower number of place cells compared to electrophysiology recordings [59].

Because rats have a lower baseline excitability, they may be less prone to these

GCaMP effects, although further slice electrophysiology work will need to be done to

directly compare the effect of GCaMP on mouse and rat neurons.

In addition to potentially allowing the recording of a higher number of place cells,

the lower excitability of rat CA1 neurons, compared to mouse, also has other

advantages. We saw no behavioral evidence of post-operative seizures in any of our

implanted animals, and no behavioral or imaging evidence of seizures several months

post viral injection and lens implementation. This is in contrast to calcium imaging

experiments in mice, which frequently report that animals have to be removed from

behavior or analysis due to the development of seizure activity [71, 89].

The percentage of hippocampal CA1 cells found to be place cells using calcium

recordings (77.3+-5.0%) was also very slightly above the upper range of findings from

electrophysiological data in rats, which report that 35-75% of CA1 pyramidal cells

recorded on a navigational task are place cells (the number varies widely depending on

task parameters, with studies using a linear track task reporting the highest number of

place cells) (Table 1) [86, 90, 91]. There are multiple possible reasons related to

recording technology as to why our calcium imaging experiments detected a higher

percentage of place cells than traditional electrophysiology experiments: the difference

likely resulted from electrophysiology capturing (as compared to calcium imaging) both

a lower number of cells with active place fields detected (a smaller numerator) and a

larger number of cells without active place fields detected (a larger denominator). First,

in electrophysiology experiments with moveable electrodes (such as tetrodes),

electrodes are typically positioned while rats are inside a "sleep box" or other non-

training apparatus until cells are detected. The animal is then placed on a track for

experimentation. This practice optimizes cell detection for place cells that are active in

the "sleep box" (both place cells with fields in the sleep box, and place cells that are

reactivated during ripples during sleep), rather than cells that have place fields on the

track. Adjusting and recording in a sleep box therefore increases the number of total

cells recorded that do not have fields on the track and therefore reduce the place cell

percentage. Because calcium imaging uses a fixed lens location and images a large

number of cells at once, recording is not optimized for a particular environment. This

may result in the recording of a higher percentage of active place cells on the recording

apparatus. Additionally, in this study, we did not complete any recording while the

animal was not on the track, thereby decreasing the number of cells recorded without

fields on the track. Second, while an effort is made in electrophysiology to discard times

on the track when the animal is not moving, and thus to remove corresponding spiking

during ripples, this removal is never perfectly done. The recording of ripples during

electrophysiology has two effects: the recording of cells that are being replayed on the

track but do not have place fields on the track and, second, the recording of 'extra-field'

ripple spiking from cells with fields on the track. This 'extra-field' spiking can cause

place fields to seem less defined, and cause corresponding distortion of measures of

spatial information, such as mutual information and bits/spike. This, in turn, may cause

these cells not to be classified as place cells. Conversely, in calcium imaging, very few

to no calcium events are picked up during periods of no movement (see later in

discussion, figure 3), so both of these issues (increasing the count of cells without fields

on the track, and the distortion of spatial information for place cells) are avoided. Third,

while current GCaMPs, such as the GCaMP7c used in this study, have improved single

spike resolution compared to past GCaMPs, they still fall short of the single spike

resolution of electrophysiology [92-96]. This property of calcium indicators causes

individual spikes, such as those that may occur on the track outside a cell's place field,

to be missed, therefore biasing calcium imaging towards fast cell activity that only

occurs in the confines of a place field. Calcium imaging therefore, again, results in

potentially higher spatial information metrics as compared to electrophysiology, which

may cause the identification of more place cells. Finally, compared to electrophysiology,

calcium imaging provides additional characteristics (cell shape, size, and brightness) by

which to separate adjacent or nearby cells. Because conflation of multiple cells may

disguise place fields and disrupt place field measurements (such as mutual information

or bits per spike) in electrophysiology, the additional resolution afforded by calcium

imaging may allow for more accurate place cell differentiation and identification.

Similar to electrophysiology and in contrast to intermediate early gene (IEG)

studies, calcium imaging is biased towards capturing cells active in an environment and

not the total cellular population. Additionally, as discussed above, due to limits on single

spike resolution, calcium imaging may be picking up even fewer cells with infrequent

spiking compared to electrophysiology. Thus, this bias of calcium imaging toward

detecting only active cells yields a higher percentage of place cells than intermediate

early gene studies that estimate a total of 30-40% of cells to be active in any given

environment (table 1) [97, 98].

We considered that differences in calcium event rate between our data and other

studies might lead to the high percentage of place cells we saw in this work. On one

end of the spectrum, Stefanini et al 2020 found a particularly low percentage of place

cells (~4% of recorded cells in mouse CA1, using calcium imaging) and investigated

whether this might be a consequence of collecting many cells with low calcium event

rates. Their reported mean rate was 0.06+-0.04 events/s as recorded in mice in an open

field, consistent with 0.05-0.5 events/s in other calcium imaging experiments in mouse.

Even after eliminating cells with <0.1events/sec (a 10x less stringent criteria than we

used in Figure 3A), they still only found that 10-20% of cells were place cells ([28]).

Conversely, Ziv 2013, who reported a high (for mouse) 20% of imaged CA1 mouse cells

were place cells, reported a higher mean event rate, at ~0.1-0.5 events/s [14]. Our

results (0.090+-0.019 events/s, Figure 2D-E) are on the lower end of those reported in

Ziv et al, and potentially consistent with the fact that rat neurons are somewhat less

excitable than those in mice [54, 59]. Additionally, our very slightly lower event rate

could be the result of less 'out of field' firing of place cells, which also tends to be more

predominant in mice [59]. However, our results are within the range of those reported in

mouse imaging studies, so differences in event rate are not a likely to be a major

contributor to the place cell percentage we observed.

During our recording sessions, we saw clear evidence that calcium event rate

was correlated with periods of movement (Figure 3). In electrophysiology experiments,

place cell spiking is generally linearly correlated with running speed [99], and significant

spiking occurs during ripples when the animal is not moving [100-103]. Our finding

greatly differs from the patterns of spiking seen in electrophysiology data, as we saw

minimal calcium events during periods of no movement, with a pattern of logarithmic

growth of the number of calcium events as the animal began moving and sped up

(Figure 3C). Our result is consistent with calcium imaging experiments done in mice by

Zhou et al., in which more calcium events were seen during movement in an

environment where food reward could be obtained than during quiet wakefulness in a

neutral box [8]. In our experiment, periods of quiet wake were in the same environment

(the track) as periods of movement, which shows that changes in calcium event

frequency are related to movement and not to contextual associations. Zhou et al. posit

that the high amount of calcium activity that occurs during movement, but not during

sharp wave ripples in mouse, implicate calcium events in theta dependent processes,

such as memory encoding and planning [104-110]. Given that AMPA receptor

antagonists abolish ripples in slice, while NMDA receptor agonists do not, it is possible

that NMDA receptors, which permit calcium influx, are minimally involved in cell spiking

during ripples [111, 112]. This would result in a smaller influx of calcium into the cell

during ripples compared to place field spiking and, thus, a smaller, less perceptible

signal during calcium imaging. Further work will be needed to determine if, in rat,

frequent calcium events are also unique to movement, as opposed to sharp wave

ripples.

Our findings on cell activity over days were similar to and consistent with prior

results reported in mice. Prior work has reported that about 57% of cells are active in

only one or two sessions [14]; we found a higher proportion (59.4+-5.4% of cells were

visible in only one session, 19.9+-2.4 were visible in two) (Figure 6B), likely because we

worked to optimize cell count over precisely consistent focal planes. We also reported

that probability of a cell reoccurring decreased by 0.43% per day separating recording

sessions. This result was exactly consistent with prior results in mouse that cell

reoccurrence decreases from ~25% for sessions 5 days apart to ~15% for sessions 30

days apart (25 days difference * 0.43 = ~10.8% change)(Figure 6E) [14]. This potential

cell turnover did not impact the accuracy of the representation of the environment, as

decoding accuracy was consistent throughout sessions [113].

There are differing results regarding whether an environment has a single semi-

stable map [1, 4, 5], or there are multiple maps, involving the same cells, that code for a

single environment [2]. In this study, we only saw evidence of the former, as the vast

majority of sessions had cells with place fields correlated to previous sessions (Figure

6F) and place field locations did not change as a function of the number of days

between sessions (Figure 6G). In other words, cell reoccurrence decreases across

days, but apparently when a cell does reoccur, its place field remains largely the same.

As previously mentioned, similarities between rat and human physiology, as well

as the increased capacity for complex tasks of learning and memory [55-60], position

rats as a well-suited model organism for studying hippocampal function, with several

advantages over the mouse. Rats are advantageous over mice in that, for many

diseases and disorders, including those with substantial hippocampal involvement, their

physiology and behavior more closely mirrors that of humans [63]. For instance, 5-HT

serotonin receptors, which are prominent in the hippocampus and are implicated in a

variety of disorders (including mood and anxiety disorders, psychiatric disorders such as

schizophrenia, addiction and ADHD), are distributed in rats, but not in mice, in a similar

pattern as seen in humans [63, 115]. Hippocampal neurogenesis, which is believed to

play an important role in learning, memory, and the treatment of depression, is believed

to follow a similar pattern in rats and humans, and is less pronounced in mice [116]. In

addition, both pharmacologic and behavioral responses to addiction are more similar

between rats and humans than mice and humans [63, 117, 118].

Having the ability to do calcium imaging in rat CA1 will allow increased research

into these disorders, as well as basic research in learning and memory. Because rats

are substantially larger than mice, they can support larger lens implants and cameras,

which may lead to the ability to record from thousands of hippocampal cells in a single

session during complex tasks. The ability to record a large number of cells across days

will allow research into cell firing changes in the hippocampus, which will provide insight

into more advanced learning and disease mechanisms that are difficult to understand

when only investigating mice. Additionally, the uniquely high percentage of recorded

place cells (>80% of recorded cells) makes CA1 calcium imaging in rats an ideal

method by which to study spatial navigation and learning over days, including

mechanisms behind memory consolidation, spatial remapping, and planning over time.

Materials and Methods

SUBJECT DETAILS

      All procedures were performed within Northwestern Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and NIH guidelines. Five male Fischer 344 x Brown Norway rats (275g to 325g) were sourced from National Institute on Aging colony at Charles River Laboratories, injected with AAV9-GCaMP7c, implanted with a 2mm GRIN lens and run on linear maze (Figure S1). Animals were individually housed in an animal facility with a 12h light dark cycle.

METHOD DETAILS

GCaMP7s Injection and Lens Implantation

      Rats were anesthetized with isoflurane (induction 4%, maintenance 1-2%). Following anesthesia, ear bars, and skull leveling, the skull was cleaned and a craniotomy site was marked above CA1 (stereotaxic coordinates Bregma AP -4.00mm, ML 3.00mm). The skull was scored around the craniotomy site using a razor blade to provide texture for future application of epoxy. A craniotomy was made with a 2mm trephine around the marked site and dura was removed with a bent 30 gage needle. A Hamilton syringe (Gastight® 1700 Series Syringes, Hamilton, Model 1705 Small RN Syringe, Volume=50 μL, Point Style=3, Gauge=22s, Needle Length=50.8 mm) loaded with AAV9-GCaMP7c (obtained from Viogene Biosciences, packaged AAV9 of pGP-AAV-syn-jGCaMP7c-WPRE, titer $1.73*10^{13}$GC/mL) was lowered straight down to about 0.2mm past the CA1 cell layer (approximate coordinates Bregma AP -4.00mm, ML 3mm, DV 2.95mm relative to skull). 0.6uL of virus were injected over 12 minutes using an automated stereotaxic Injector. The syringe was then raised 0.2mm (Bregma AP -4.00mm, ML 3mm, DV 2.75mm) and another 0.6uL of virus were injected over 12 minutes (Figure 1a). The syringe was then left for 10 minutes before slowly raising to the skull.

      We used a computerized stereotaxic injection system that allowed us to specify the coordinates of the injection. Due to the imprecision of craniotomies and imperfectly level skulls, often the initial injection at the specified sub-cortical coordinates did not fall

in the center of the craniotomy. To increase and maximize the spread of viral injection,

we completed a second injection. The process of lowering the syringe and doing two

injections was repeated so that the two syringe "lowering points" were evenly spread

throughout the craniotomy site. There were thus a total of four injections of 0.6uL each

(2.4uL total): two injections per each brain entrance site, each at different depths

(Figure 1a).

Following injection, four skull screws were screwed into the skull: one rostral to

bregma above the same hemisphere as the craniotomy, two between bregma and

lambda on the hemisphere opposite the craniotomy, and one behind lambda on the

hemisphere with the craniotomy. Under a dissecting microscope, tissue from the

craniotomy was then aspirated using a vacuum pump and 25 gage needle that had

been previously blunted using a Dremel drill. Tissue was quickly aspirated until the start

of horizontal striations could be seen in the craniotomy hole. Care was then taken to

"level" the hole and make sure aspiration was at an even depth. The horizontal

striations of the corpus callosum were then carefully and slowly aspirated until the

vertical striations of the alveus were visible in the entirety of the craniotomy hole (Figure

1b). If the aspiration hole was bleeding, a small twisted piece of gel foam was inserted

into the hole for approximately five minutes and then removed.

Notes differentiating this method from mouse Ca2+ imaging: We found the best

AAV for expression in rats was AAV9. Because of rat's lower seizure threshold and,

anecdotally noted, lower GCaMP expression than in mice, four injection sites appear

both necessary and sufficient for ideal GCaMP expression. The injection volumes are

much larger than those used in mice [14, 15], which is made possible due to the larger

hippocampal area and the technique of injecting below the CA1 cell layer, instead of on

it. Unlike in mice, where just the cortex or most dorsal part of the corpus callosum is

aspirated [15, 119], it is important that the entire corpus callosum be completely

aspirated in order to get very close to the alveus.

A 2mm GRIN lens (obtained from Go!Foton, CLH lens, 2.00mm diameter, 0.448

pitch, working distance 0.30mm, 550nm wavelength) was then held on the end of a

pipette using suction from the vacuum pump. The pipette was placed in the stereotaxic

instrument which was zero-ed with the bottom of the lens on bregma. The lens was then

moved to the center of the craniotomy and lowered to a depth of approximately 3mm

from skull surface. The lens was then fixed in place with UV curing epoxy and the

vacuum pump was turned off and the pipette holding the lens removed. The epoxied

lens was then secured to the skull screws using dental acrylic. Animals were then given

buprenorphine (0.05mg/kg) and 20mL saline, taken off anesthesia, and allowed to

recover in a clean cage place upon a heat pad.

Notes differentiating this method from mouse Ca2+ imaging: A much larger lens

(2mm diameter as opposed to 0.5mm or 1.0mm diameter) lens can be used in rats due

to their larger size. Of high importance: in order to be as close to the CA1 layer as

possible, the lens is inserted further down (about .5mm) lower than the cell layer. This

serves, presumably, to temporarily compress the alveus to make sure the alveus is

pressed against the grin lens; this allows for in focus imaging of the CA1. We saw no

permanent compression of the CA1 cell layer (Figure 1C) or any behavioral deficits that

are associated with HPC compression [120, 121]. We had zero visualization of cells

unless the lens was deeply inserted. Additionally, unlike in mouse implantation

surgeries, we did not have success using meloxicam after surgery as it appeared to

cause excessive bleeding around the lens.

Four to six weeks after surgery, animals were again anesthetized with isoflurane

and checked for cells expressing GCaMP. If expression was seen, the animal's lens

was base-plated. The baseplate was attached using UV-curing epoxy and dental

acrylic.

Notes differentiating this method from mouse Ca2+ imaging: During base plating,

it gets progressively harder to see cells the longer the animal is under anesthesia.

Additionally, while a few cells will appear to be bright circles in the captured image, cells

do not appear to be flashing at all while the rat is under isoflurane, even after a tail pinch

or loud noise (techniques often used to incite a calcium during mouse base plating). We

recommend focusing on the bright, not flashing cells while base plating. The entire field

of view should become progressively brighter as the animal wakes up. We recommend

not imaging for experiments within 24 hours of isoflurane exposure and base plating.

Behavioral Training

      Prior to training, animals were food deprived to 85% body weight and maintained at this weight throughout the experiment. Implanted animals were trained on a 2.64m Med Associates linear track with pellet dispensers at either end. Animals learned to run back and forth between the sides of the track and received a grain pellet at alternate ends. Each pellet received was considered a trial. The fasted animals were able to achieve over 120 trials in 30 minutes. (Animal were fed after daily training to maintain weight.) Six sessions were selected for analysis for each animal, with first and last recorded sessions automatically included. When not being run, animals were housed in individual cages with a 12hr light- 12hr dark light cycle.

      Six sessions from each animal were selection for analysis. Although each animal was run for at least seven sessions, occasionally an animal would refuse to run or run slowly (often the day following a run with a lot of pellets received). For the animal run the least number of times, only six sessions exceeded 50 trials per run. For consistency across analysis, we therefore selected the six sessions with the most trials to analyze from each animal. On average, the four animals ran 100.3+-33.1 trials per session, with the individual animals averaging 94.7+-35.3, 85.5+24.0, 114.5+-19.8, and 106.2+-41.2 trials per session.

      Because the runs with the most trials were selected for analysis, trials were not always consecutive. If the first analyzed session is considered day 1, the analyzed sessions were as follows for each animal (as numbered by days on a calendar; animals were not necessarily run every day due to scheduling and equipment troubleshooting):

Animal 1:   Days 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9 *(run across 9 days)*

   Animal 2:   Days 1, 2, 6, 7, 9, 13 *(run across 13 days)*

   Animal 3:   Days: 1, 2, 11, 14, 15, 16 *(run across 16 days)*

   Animal 4:   Days: 1, 2, 10, 14, 15, 16 *(run across 16 days)*

Calcium Imaging

One photon calcium imaging was done using UCLA V4 Miniscopes [122, 123],

assembled with standard lens configurations (two 3mm diameter, 6mm FL achromat

lens used in the objective module and one 4 mm diameter, 10mm FL achromat lens

used in the emission module). We tested Ca2+ recording when one of the objective

module lenses was replaced by a 3mm diameter, 9mm FL achromat lens, but no

improvement in cell visualization was noted. Gain was set at high and Miniscope LED

intensity varied between 10 and 38.

Notes differentiating this method from mouse Ca2+ imaging: Base fluorescence

appears lower in rats as compared to mice. While we have been advised that, using

Miniscopes, gain can often be on "low" for mouse imaging, we found it necessary to

have gain on "high" to visualize the highest number of cells.

GCaMP Visualization in Slice

Following conclusion of the study, animals were anesthetized and perfused with

PBS then 10% formalin. The brain was then sliced into 60 micron coronal sections,

mounted, let dry, and coverslipped with Vectashield. Sections were then imaged with a

confocal microscope.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Means are expressed as mean ± the standard deviation. Overall averages are

computed by finding average per animal then averaging those values. All analysis code

is available at https://github.com/hsw28/ca_imaging.

Position and speed analysis

Position was sampled by an overhead camera at 30Hz. Position tracking was

done post-recording using Bonsai [124]. Speed was determined by taking the

hypotenuse of the coordinates of the point one before and one after the time point of

interest. Speed was then smoothed using a Gaussian kernel of 1s and speed was

converted from pixels/s to cm/s.

Video pre-processing

Videos were recorded with Miniscope software at 15 frames/second and 752 by

480 pixels. All video processing was done using the Matlab-based CIATAH software

[76, 77] and processing files are available at https://github.com/hsw28/ca_imaging/ .

Videos were down sampled in space (3x using bi-linear interpolation) and time (2x). The

video was normalized by subtracting the mean value of each frame from the frame.

Each frame was then spatially filtered (normalized) using a bandpass FFT filter (70-

100cycles/pixel). The video was then motion corrected to a chosen reference frame

using TurboReg [125]. Videos were then converted to relative florescence (dF/F_0),

where F_0 was the mean over the entire video.

Cell identification

Cells were first automatically identified using the Matlab-based CIATAH software

[76, 77], using the CNMF-E method [75]. Processing files are available at

https://github.com/hsw28/ca_imaging/ . Images were filtered with a gaussian kernel of

width 3 pixels. Neuron diameter was set at a pixel size of 13. The threshold for merging

neurons was set at a calcium trace correlation of 0.65, and neurons were merged if their

distances were smaller than 2 pixels and they had highly correlated spatial shapes

(correlation>0.8) and small temporal correlations (correlation <0.4).

All cells identified using CNMF-E were then scored as neurons or not by a

human scorer. Scoring was also done within the Matlab-based CIATAH software [76,

77] in a Matlab GUI. Human scoring was done while visualizing an activity trace,

average Ca2+ waveform, a cropped movie montage of the candidate cell's Ca2+

events, and a maximum projection of all cells on which the candidate cell was

highlighted. The relative fluorescence ($\Delta F/F_0$) local maxima of each identified cell were

considered calcium event times.

Place cell identification

Place cells were identified using two criteria. First, cells must have a mean firing
rate greater than 0.01Hz during periods of movement (>12cm/s) [86, 126]. Second, the
mutual information (MI) computed in either direction of travel must be greater than 95%
of MI scores computed 500 times from shuffled cells [78]. To compute MI, the track was
divided lengthwise into 4cm bins the firing rate of each cell and the occupancy of the
animal were found for each bin. Rate and occupancy were smoothed with a 2cm
Gaussian kernel. Mutual information was computed during periods of movement in each
direction of travel as follows [78, 86, 127]:

$P_s = calcium\ event\ probability\ in\ each\ bin$

$P_o = occupancy\ probability\ at\ each\ bin$

$p = \dfrac{P_s}{P_o}$

$M_s = \sum P_s$

$M_o = \sum P_o$

$$MI = \sum p * \log_2\left(\dfrac{p}{M_s * M_o}\right)$$

Place field location was determined by the location of maximum firing rate.

Position decoding

Position was decoded using all recorded cells in a session and was decoded for
times when the rat was moving (velocity>12cm/s). The track was split in 10cm
segments and the time window of decoding was 0.5 seconds with non-overlapping time
bins. Decoding was done using Bayesian decoding [81].

$x = positions, f_i(x) = average\ firing\ rate\ per\ second\ for\ cell\ N\ at\ position\ X$

$n = calcium\ events\ per\ cell, n_i = number\ of\ events\ in\ time\ window$

$N = total\ number\ of\ cells$

$t = time\ window\ of\ decoding$

$C(t, n) = normalization\ factor\ for\ probabilities\ to\ equal\ 1$

$P(x|n) = odds\ of\ being\ at\ position\ x\ giving\ calcium\ events\ n$

637
$$P(x|n) = C(t,n)\left(\prod_{i=1}^{N} f_i(x)^{n_i}\right)\exp\left(-t\sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i(x)\right)$$

Accuracy decoding was determined by randomly shuffling firing per position bins

and re-decoding. The difference between actual and decoded position was then

determined per time bin and compared to decoded shuffled data.

Validation across days and within session

Validation was done using the Matlab-based CIATAH software [76, 77]. Videos

underwent 3 rounds of registration comprised of Turboreg image rotation [125]. An

image binarization threshold of 40% of the images' maximum value was used to remove

background noise and axons and dendrites. A distance threshold of a maximum of 5

pixels was used to match cells across sessions, with a minimum 2-D correlation

coefficient of 0.5. All sessions were aligned to the fourth recording session.

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Figure captions

Figure 1: GCaMP is expressed in the CA1 cell layer of rat hippocampus

    a. Diagram showing injection locations of AAV9-Syn-GCaMP7c, right below the CA1 cell layer. There are four total injection sites, with 0.6uL injected at each site. (CC = corpus callosum, DG = dentate gyrus)

    b. Diagram showing level of aspiration in brain tissue. The entire corpus callosum is aspirated until the vertical striations of the alveus are visible.

    c. GCaMP expression in the hippocampus, taken with a confocal microscope. The CA1 cell layer is labeled.

Figure 2: Hundreds of cells can be captured in a single Ca2+ imaging session

    a. Examples of data from two (top and bottom rows) recording sessions. First column: example image from pre-processing. Second column: image post-processing (see materials and methods). Third column: all cell extractions, prior to manual cell sorting. Fourth column: post processing image overlayed with cell outlines identified after manual sorting.

    b. Example traces from 15 cells taken during 124 seconds of calcium imaging.

    c. Number of cells imaged per session for each rat. Dotted red line indicates the average for each animal.

    d. Events/second for cells. Dotted red line indicates the average (0.090+-0.019 events/s)

    e. Events/second for individual rats (averages: 0.084+-0.024, 0.074+-0.026, 0.085+-0.020, and 0.116+-0.032 events/second)

    f. Average events per second in a session is positively correlated with the animal's average speed in that session

    g. There is a positive correlation between events/s and the animal's speed.

Figure 3: Calcium events are correlated with periods of movement

a. Raster plot of cell firing during linear track running. Top: the animal's speed.

Bottom: raster of peak calcium transients of 352 identified cells.

b. Graph showing an example of speed (plotted in black) overlayed with event rate

(in blue). Bottom panel is a zoom in of a smaller time period.

c. An example logarithmic correlation of animal speed against calcium events/

second.

Figure 4: A high percentage of place cells are recorded on the linear track using Ca2+

imaging

a. Graph showing the percentage of place cells per session for each rat (blue).

Analysis was repeated including only cells with a firing rate >0.01Hz during

movement (red). Dotted lines indicate the average for each animal.

b. Nine example place cells. A firing rate map in both directions of travel is

provided for each cell, with the top map corresponding with running to the

right, and the bottom map corresponding with running to the left. Note the

colorbar scales may be different for each direction of travel. The difference in

mutual information scores between the cell and the top 95% of shuffled data

(actual MI-shuffled MI) is indicated in the left corner. If the actual MI was

greater than 95% of shuffled data, the number is printed in bold white.

c. Distribution of directional mutual information scores after shuffling cells seen

in figure 3b. Event data was shuffled 500 times and the top 95% of mutual

information scores were determined from shuffled data (red dotted line). If the

actual mutual information score (green line) was greater than the upper 95%

MI score of shuffled data, the cell was considered to be a place cell.

d. Top left: Place field maximum event rate during movement (dotted red line

indicates average of 0.15events/s). Top right: average firing rate during

movement (red line is average at 0.02events/s). Bottom: Increase from

average to maximum rate (max/mean). On average, cells increased firing

7.4x from their average firing rate during movement to their maximum firing

rate (dotted red line indicates average)

Figure 5: Place cells are sufficient to decode the animal's position

a. Four decoding examples as the animal traverses the track. Black line indicates the animal's actual position, with the stars indicated sample point. The colored circles connected by the red line indicate decoded position. The color of the circles indicates decoding certainty.

b. Same as A but decoding is using shuffled units. Decoding is much less accurate using shuffled data.

727 **Figure 6:** Individual cells and their place fields can be maintained across sessions

a. Cells can be maintained across sessions weeks apart. Examples from two animals of data taken on the first and final days of recording. Cells are color-matched from the first to last day. Cells in gray represent cells with no matches between the two days. Of note, these recordings were prioritized for cell number as proof of concept rather than maintaining the same landmarks (such as blood vessels) across days.

b. Percent of cells that appeared in different numbers of sessions. Symbols represent averages for individual animals.

c. Percent of cells that had place fields in different numbers of sessions. Symbols represent averages for individual animals.

d. The recurrence probability of a cell based on the number of days between recordings. Recordings from rat 3 were from found to be from two different focal planes.

e. Average recurrence probability across days, excluding rat 3. For every day passing, a cell has a 0.43% less chance of reoccurring.

f. Change in place field location between recording sessions. Included all sessions recorded for an animal; sessions did not need to be adjacent.

g. Place field locations are highly correlated across sessions. We compared place field locations between all sessions of an animal and found field locations to be consistently highly correlated.

h. There was no correlation (p>0.05) between r2 value of place field correlations

and days elapsed between sessions.

Figure S1: Animals ran on a linear track.

a. Diagram of linear track. The animal would run back and forth between the two

sides to receive a pellet reward

b. Trace of animal position over one session

Figure S2: Percentage of cells that would be place cells if the mutual information value

exceeded the mean plus three standard deviations of a shuffled distribution. Using this

criterion (blue bars), we found that 64.3+-5.1 percent of all cells were place cells, with

individual animals at 59.5+-12.0%, 65.5+-2.3%, 61.2+-14%, and 71.0+-12.1%. If we

applied the 0.01hz threshold to include cells (red bars), 73.4+-4.3% of cells were place

cells, with individual animals at 68.0+-11.8%, 77.6+-5.6%, 77.0+-14.6% and 76.0+-

13.0%. Dotted lines indicate averages.

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Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Related Manuscripts

Authors do not have a related or duplicate manuscript under consideration (or accepted)

for publication elsewhere.

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1219

Table 1. Comparison of place cell findings in previous studies in mice and rats

Study	Method	Species	Task	% place cells	How place cells were determined
[97] Guzowski et al. 1999	IEG	Rat	Cylinder and platform exploration	**38-39%**	ARC detection
[98] Witharana et al. 2016	IEG	Rat	Environmental exposure and circular track	**22-73%,** mean 33±18%	Homer1a and ARC detection
[128] Talbot et al. 2018	Ephys	Mouse	Open field	**47.8%**	overall discharge rate was 0.1-2 AP/s, the spatial coherence was >0.4, and the information content was >0.4 bits/spike
[83] Jun et al. 2020	Ephys	Mouse	Open field and linear track	**50%**	Mutual information >95% of shuffled data
[129] Maurer et al. 2006	Ephys	Rat	Circular track	**~43%** on smaller track **~68%** on larger track	place field has a single cycle (360%) phase precession
[86] Wirtshafter and Wilson 2020	Ephys	Rat	Double sided T maze	**75.2%** exceeded 0.8 bits/spike **63%** had at least one place field and exceeded bits/spike threshold	1) Bits/second >0.8 2) firing in a region must be greater than two standard deviations greater than the mean firing rate and place field area must be at least 15 cm long
[130] Fenton et al. 2008	Ephys	Rat	Forage for food in cylinder and chamber	**64%** in smaller cylinder **72%** in 6x larger chamber	cell coherence was >0.25 and information content was >0.5 bits/AP, and if the cell had at least one place field.
[131] Markus et al. 1994	Ephys	Rat	8 arm radial maze forced choice	**37%**	Bits/spike cutoff of 2.29
[84] Rich et al. 2014	Ephys	Rat	48m long track	**65%** at 48m (range 46-77%)	A place field was defined as >=15 contiguous cm of rate

					map in where firing rate > 2 Hz.
[82] Meshulam et al. 2017	2p calcium imaging	Mouse	VR linear track	**~30%,** range 28% to 41%.	Mutual information above 80% of shuffled
[14] Ziv et al. 2013	1p calcium imaging	mouse	Linear track	**20%**	Mutual information above 95% of shuffled
[28] Stefanini et al. 2020	1p calcium imaging	mouse	Open field	MI mean+3σ: **~4%** for all cells **~10%** with 0.1ev/s cutoff >95% shuffled MI **~12%** for all cells **~22%** with 0.1ev/s cutoff	Mutual information > mean+3σ of the shuffled distribution. Also compared to mutual information above 95% of shuffled
[78] Kinsky et al. 2018	1p calcium imaging	mouse	Square and octagon tracks	Unspecified	1) had >= 5 calcium transients during the session 2) Mutual information above 95% of shuffled
[12] Kinsky et al. 2020	1p calcium imaging	mouse	Continuous alternation	Unspecified	1) had >= 5 calcium transients during the session 2) Mutual information above 95% of shuffled
This work	1p calcium imaging	Rat	Linear track	>95% shuffled MI **77.3%** for all cells **88.3%** with 0.01ev/s cutoff MI mean+3σ: **64.3%** for all cells **73.4%** with 0.01ev/s cutoff	Mutual information above 95% of shuffled Also computed mutual information > mean+3σ of the shuffled distribution.

Figure 1

A

CC

CA1

X X
X X

DG

CA3

Alveus

Cell layer

B

Aspiration

CC

CA1

DG

CA3

Alveus

Cell layer

C

100 μm

} CA1
  cell layer

Figure 2

A

| pre-processing | post-processing | extraction outputs | cell overlay |

fluorescence (a.u.)

B

$\Delta F/F$

0   Seconds   124

C

Number of cells

Rat 1   Rat 2   Rat 3   Rat 4

Recording day

D

Number of cells

Average events/s

E

Events/S

Rat

F

Average speed (cm/s)

$y = 1.8e+02^*x + 21$

Average Events/s Per Session

G

Correlation

Events/s vs Speed

Lag (Sec.)

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S1

A

Sites of pellet
dispensing

2.64m

B

Figure S2