Maturation of Hippocampus-Medial Prefrontal Cortex Projections Defines a Pathway-Specific Sensitive Period for Cognitive Flexibility

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Summary (150 words)

The septotemporal axis of the hippocampus separates it into domains with unique molecular, cellular, downstream connectivity and behavioral profiles, and yet very little is known about the ontogenesis of these highly specialized subcircuits. Here, we used viral tracing, optogenetic-assisted patch clamping, chemogenetics and behavior in mice to examine changes in domain-defined hippocampus efferent projections from postnatal day (P)10 to P60. We found distinct anatomical and synaptic developmental signatures in ventral and intermediate CA1 downstream connectivity, with unique contributions to the prelimbic and infralimbic subregions of the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC). Inhibition of the ventral CA1 (vCA1)-mPFC pathway during juvenility led to a deficit in adult cognitive flexibility exclusively in females, establishing a sex- and pathway-specific sensitive period preceding the stabilization of vCA1-mPFC synaptic transmission. Our data elucidate domain- and target-defined postnatal maturation of hippocampus efferents, identifying a sex-specific sensitive period with crucial implications for early life influences on adult cognition.

Keywords: Ventral CA1, intermediate CA1, electrophysiology, mice, cognitive flexibility, set shifting, optogenetics, chemogenetics.

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Supplemental information:
Document S1: Figures S1–S7, Supplemental Table S1

Introduction

The hippocampus (HPC) plays a key role in learning and memory[1,2], anxiety-like

behavior[3–5] and stress[6], with substantial evidence of distinct downstream pathway-

specific contributions to these behaviors. Hippocampal projections to the lateral septum

(LS) and basolateral amygdala (BLA) underlie fear memory processing and motivated

behavior[7–9], while projections to the thalamic nucleus reuniens (Re) and medial

prefrontal cortex (mPFC) are involved in working spatial memory and episodic

memory[10–12]. Hippocampal projections to the nucleus accumbens (NAc) and lateral

hypothalamus (LH) have been linked to anxiety, social interaction and feeding

behavior[9,13]. HPC topographical organization across the septotemporal axis[14–16]

distinguishes three HPC domains: dorsal, intermediate and ventral HPC, which diverge

in their cellular composition[17–21], efferent/afferent projection patterns[6,22,23], population

encoding[24,25] and behavioral output[14,26–30]. This HPC tripartite differentiation is present

from birth at both the gene expression and topographical afferent pattern levels[31,32], but

very little is known about how the postnatal maturation of the HPC and its downstream

projections diverge across its domains.

Early life is also the time of peak onset for neurodevelopmental and psychiatric

disorders[51–53], which often feature deficits in the HPC and mPFC[54–61] and HPC-mPFC

connectivity[62–66] in patients and animal models[49,56,68–70,57,58,62–67]. The HPC-mPFC

pathway comprises unidirectional projections from the HPC intermediate and ventral

domains to the mPFC[71–75], and supports decision making, reward learning, fear, and

anxiety-like behaviors[11,36,76–78], all of which are (i) developmentally regulated[18,38] and (ii)

implicated in neurodevelopmental and psychiatric disorders[36,79–81]. Furthermore, similar

to the sensory cortex[82–85], both HPC[86–88] and mPFC[48–50,89–91] display heightened

synaptic plasticity and behavioral features in early life consistent with critical periods,

which may inform sensitivity to external influences such as stress[83,92–96,91]. Despite this

convergence of factors in early life, it is unclear exactly how HPC-mPFC maturation

may affect adult behavior and/or risk of neurodevelopmental and mental disorders.

Cognitive flexibility, or the ability to adjust behavior in response to changing

conditions[97], is an essential facet of adaptive behaviour necessary for survival. Studies

in humans broadly implicate the prefrontal cortex in cognitive flexibility[97–99], particularly

in the case of extra-dimensional (ED) set shifting[100–102], a finding replicated in

primates[103,104] and rodents[105–108]. Importantly, HPC lesions also feature deficits in ED

set shifting in humans[102]. In rodents, developmental manipulations of ventral HPC

impair ED set shifting[109,110] and alter mPFC morphology[110], implicating the HPC-mPFC

pathway in ED set shifting. While this is consistent with other research tying HPC-PFC

alterations to cognitive flexibility deficits in schizophrenia[111,112], the precise contribution

of HPC-mPFC pathways to higher-order cognitive flexibility remains unclear.

Despite important contributions to our understanding of HPC-mPFC oscillatory activity

in neonatal to juvenile mice[64,72,113,114], nothing is known about the postnatal

development of HPC-mPFC synaptic connectivity, or how this developmental trajectory

may affect adult cognitive function. To address this gap, we first compared the

developmental profile of intermediate and ventral CA1 innervation to brain regions

implicated in learning and memory (LS, BLA, mPFC, Re), social, anxiety- and

depression-like behavior (BNST, LH, NAc). We then resolved the synaptic maturation of

projections from ventral and intermediate CA1 to either prelimbic or infralimbic layer 5

mPFC pyramidal neurons using optogenetics-assisted patch clamping at postnatal day

(P)10, P15, P21, P30 and P60. Finally, we examined the functional implications of these

developmental changes by chronically inhibiting the vCA1-mPFC pathway during either

juvenility (P15-P30) or adulthood (P60-P75) and testing animals a month later in a

cognitive flexibility task. We found that inhibition of the vCA1-mPFC pathway led to a

sex-specific deficit in ED set shifting which was not present when the same inhibition

took place in adulthood. Together, these data establish a precise timeline for the

maturation of the HPC-mPFC pathway, highlighting septotemporal differences and

target-defined asynchronies in anatomical and synaptic maturation guiding sensitivity to

circuit disruption.

Results

Dorsal, intermediate and ventral CA1 neurons differ in their projection patterns in adult animals

To understand the developmental timeline of HPC efferent pathway innervation, we first compared the axonal terminal patterns of CA1 neurons from the dorsal, intermediate and ventral HPC domains in adult mice. For consistency with subsequent analyses, we infused the dCA1, iCA1 and vCA1 of P53 C57BL/6J mice with AAV1-ChR2-EYFP virus and processed the brains one week later for histology (Fig. 1A), an interval previously established by our group as sufficient for terminal transport[115]. Target regions were chosen based on their involvement in the regulation of memory and emotional behavior: NAc[116–118], LH[4], LS[119], BNST[120], BLA[4,121], Re[122] and mPFC[123–125]. Consistent with previous reports[14,15,23,126–129], we saw domain-specific differences in CA1 efferent innervation, particularly between dorsal and intermediate/ventral CA1 projections (Fig. 1). We found strong projections from iCA1 and vCA1 to mPFC (Fig. 1B), NAc core and shell (Fig. 1C), LS (Fig. 1D), BLA (Fig. 1E), LH (Fig. 1F) and Re (Fig. 1G) which were absent in dCA1-infused brains. We noticed strong projections from vCA1 to the BNST (Fig. 1H), which were far weaker for iCA1 and absent for dCA1, as described in the literature[130]. While all HPC domains send projections to the LS (Fig. 1D), the pattern of LS innervations differs between dorsal and intermediate/ventral projections, with the former predominantly innervating dorsomedial LS, and the latter the ventromedial LS (Fig. 1D), as previously reported[131]. When we examined the mPFC, we saw strong projections from both iCA1 and vCA1 spanning the prelimbic (PL) and infralimbic (IL) subregions, with the strongest signal in IL layers 2/3 and 5, and PL layer 5 (Fig. 1B).

dCA1 axons in both PL and IL were only visible upon GFP signal amplification using

immunofluorescence (Fig. 1B, left). Accordingly, we were unable to evoke terminal

signals from this pathway when patching from either PL or IL pyramidal neurons,

suggesting the sparsity of dCA1-PFC projections may favour the outcome of some

experimental manipulations[132] over others.

Anatomical maturation of vCA1 and iCA1 projections across the lifespan

Given the lack of overlap in the terminal projection patterns from dCA1 compared to

iCA1 and vCA1, we focused our efforts on comparing the maturation of iCA1 and vCA1

projections from infancy to adulthood. As ventral and intermediate CA1 projections

overlap across most targets tested, we wanted to assess whether these subprojections

would show equivalent maturation profiles, at both the anatomical and synaptic levels.

First, we quantified CA1 targeting across ages to ensure robust viral transduction

across ages and subprojections. Mice were injected with AAV1-ChR2-EYFP virus in

either vCA1 or iCA1 and brains were processed for histology one week later at P10,

P15, P21, P30 and P60 (Fig. 2A), corresponding to infancy, juvenility, late juvenility,

adolescence and adulthood, respectively[133]. We observed that in mice younger than

P15, vCA1 is very limited in total area compared to later ages, which precluded robust

targeting of vCA1 (but not iCA1) at P10 without spread to CA3 and neighboring areas.

Quantification of vCA1 infection area from P15 to P60 showed that the proportion of

infected vCA1 area (i.e. ratio of vCA1 EYFP volume and total vCA1 volume) was

equivalent across ages (Fig. 2B-C). The volume of infected vCA1 at P15 was lower than

all older ages (Fig. 2D, green; one-way ANOVA p=0.0067; post hoc p<0.031) to

compensate for hippocampal growth during this period (Fig. 2D, grey; one-way ANOVA,

p=0.0001; post hoc p< 0.013). There were no differences in vCA1 EYFP intensity (Fig.

2E) or sex differences in vCA1 volume across ages (Table S1).

Quantification of iCA1 infection showed a higher percentage of iCA1 targeted at P10,

but not among other age groups (Fig. 2F-G; one-way ANOVA p=0.0001; post hoc

p<0.036). This is likely driven by the significantly smaller volume of iCA1 at P10 (Fig.

2H, grey; one-way ANOVA p<0.0001; post hoc p<0.0022), despite a smaller iCA1

infected area at P10 compared to older ages (Fig. 2H, green; one-way ANOVA p=0.016;

post hoc p<0.047). We found no age-dependent differences in EYFP iCA1 intensity

(Fig. 2I) or sex differences in iCA1 volume across ages (Table S1).

vCA1 and iCA1 terminals reach target regions by P10

We next examined the age in which CA1 projections arrive to their target regions. vCA1

and iCA1 terminals were already present in all target regions by the earliest age tested

of P10 (Fig. S1). To determine at what precise age CA1 axon terminals arrive at the

mPFC, we infused RetroBeads into the mPFC and examined their transport to CA1 in

infant and adult mice (Fig. S2A). We first confirmed that a 5-day incubation period was

sufficient for retrograde transport from mPFC to CA1 in adult (8 weeks of age) mice

(Fig. S2B). CA1 soma signal was present exclusively at the posterior/temporal HPC, at

both the vCA1 and iCA1, but not at the anterior/septal (dorsal) HPC (Fig. S2B). We

found soma signal in the CA1 of P10 brains following this same injection interval (Fig.

S2C), consistent with our anterograde data (Fig. S1). We then tested the presence of

CA1-mPFC projections at the earlier age of P5. There was no soma signal at the HPC

of P5 brains (Fig. S2D), suggesting that CA1 axons arrive at the mPFC between P5 and

P10 in C57BL/6J mice.

Distinct target-defined maturation signatures in vCA1 and iCA1 terminal density

To characterize CA1 terminal density changes across ages, we quantified CA1 axon

terminal fluorescent intensity in the NAc, LS, BLA, LH, Re, BNST and mPFC (PL and

IL). vCA1 terminal density changed across ages within LS nuclei (Fig. 3A-C), showing a

peak at P21 in the LSD, LSV and LSI (Fig. 3A; LSD: one-way ANOVA p=0.0005; post

hoc test p<0.015; Fig. 3B; LSV: one-way ANOVA p=0.0013; post hoc p<0.0040; Fig.

3C; LSI: one-way ANOVA p=0.0088; post hoc p = 0.0050). vCA1 terminal density

showed a similar peak at P21 in the NAc core and shell (Fig. 3D; NAc core: one-way

ANOVA p=0.036; post hoc p<0.05; Fig. 3E; NAc shell: one-way ANOVA p=0.012; post

hoc p<0.041) and BNST (Fig. 3H; one-way ANOVA p=0.021; post hoc p<0.039), but

remained stable across ages in the BLA (Fig. 3F) and the Re (Fig. 3G). In contrast,

vCA1 terminal density in the LH was higher at P15 compared to P30 (Fig. 3I; one-way

ANOVA p=0.024; post hoc p=0.017). We saw no sex differences in any of the regions

examined (Table S1). These data suggest target-defined developmental changes in

vCA1 efferent anatomical connectivity, with vCA1 terminal density in regions such as

BLA and Re remaining stable from P15, while terminals in LSD, LSV, LSI, NAc, BNST

and LH undergo further refinement across ages, emphasized by a peak in vCA1

terminal density at P21 in most of these regions.

We next conducted a similar analysis targeting the iCA1 (Fig. 3J-Q). iCA1 terminal

intensity in the LSD and LSI decreased with age, starting at P21 in the LSD (Fig. 3J:

one-way ANOVA p=0.0092; post hoc p< 0.049), and between P10 and P60 in the LSI

(Fig. 3K: one-way ANOVA p=0.0153; post hoc p=0.0081). There were no iCA1

terminals in the LSV, indicating that vCA1 is the only source of LSV innervation across

the CA1 septotemporal axis. Counter to our results in the vCA1, iCA1 terminal intensity

remained stable across ages in the NAc core and shell (Fig. 3L-M), BLA (Fig. 3N), Re

(Fig. 3O) and BNST (Fig. 3P). Surprisingly, iCA1 terminal intensity in the LH was

greater at P60 compared to P10 (Fig. 3Q; one-way ANOVA p=0.0088; post hoc

p=0.019). We found sex differences in the Re (two-way ANOVA p=0.039; post hoc

p=0.012) and the LH (two-way ANOVA p=0.015; post hoc p = 0.0032), whereby males

displayed increased iCA1 terminal density compared to females at P21 (Table S1).

These data emphasize a contrast between a mostly stable pattern of iCA1 terminal

density across ages (with the exception of the LS and LH), and vCA1 terminal changes,

which displayed distinct timing (centered around P21, or juvenility), and more

widespread targets, also spanning the NAc and BNST. A graphical summary of these

findings is available in Fig. S3. Together, these data highlight sex- and domain-specific

time signatures of anatomical connectivity among HPC efferents.

We next quantified ventral and intermediate CA1 terminal density in the mPFC, focusing

on PL and IL layers 2/3, 5 and 6 (Fig. 4A, H). We saw no differences in vCA1 terminal

density from P15 to P60 in PL layers 2/3 (Fig. 4B), 5 (Fig. 4C) or 6 (Fig. 4D). We also

saw no age-dependent differences in vCA1 innervation of IL (Fig. 4E-G), or sex

differences (Table S1). Thus, in contrast to the refinements seen in other vCA1 target

regions, anatomical connectivity between vCA1 and PL/IL is stable from P15 onwards.

When we extended this analysis to iCA1 terminals (Fig. H-N), we found significant age-dependent increases in iCA1 terminals in all PL layers starting at P30 (Fig. 4I-K; Layer 2/3: one-way ANOVA p=0.0006; post hoc p<0.0031; layer 5: one-way ANOVA p=0.0009; post hoc p<0.020; layer 6: one-way ANOVA p=0.0085; post hoc p=0.0070). These changes were not seen in IL (Fig. 4L-N). Interestingly, P21 males showed increased terminal density in PL layer 5 compared to females (two-way ANOVA p=0.013; post hoc p=0.0024; Table S1). These data suggest asynchrony in the anatomical maturation of iCA1 terminals within the mPFC, with a delay in the stabilization of iCA1 innervation of PL relative to IL, starting at adolescence. Furthermore, these divergent maturation trajectories point to significant septotemporal specialization in the anatomical maturation of iCA1 and vCA1 projections to mPFC, whereby only iCA1 projections to PL display age-dependent changes between infancy and adulthood.

Maturation of CA1-PFC synaptic transmission

Dysfunction in the communication between the intermediate/ventral HPC and the mPFC is a prominent feature of cognitive deficits in rodent models of neurodevelopmental disorders[65], and yet very little is known about the developmental trajectory of synaptic connectivity within this pathway[64,72,113,134]. To address this gap, we set out to investigate the domain-specific synaptic maturation of CA1-mPFC pathways in C57BL/6J mice.

Maturation of spontaneous transmission in PL and IL layer 5 pyramidal neurons

To understand the context in which CA1 axons arrive and influence synaptic

transmission in the mPFC, we first investigated the maturation of spontaneous

excitatory and inhibitory synaptic transmission in layer 5 PL and IL pyramidal neurons at

P10, P15, P21, P30 and P60. Starting with the PL, we saw an increase in the amplitude

of spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs) between P10-P21 to P30-

P60 (Fig. 5A-B; one-way ANOVA p< 0.0001; post hoc p<0.032), but no change in

sEPSC frequency (Fig. 5C) or tau decay time (Fig. 5D). When examining PL

spontaneous inhibition, we found a similar increase in the amplitude of spontaneous

inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSCs) between P10-21 and P30-P60 (Fig. 5E: one-

way ANOVA p<0.0001; post hoc p<0.045) and an earlier increase in sIPSC frequency

starting at P21 (Fig. 5F; one-way ANOVA p <0.0001; post hoc p<0.012), but no change

in sIPSC decay time (Fig. 5G). A within-cell comparison of sEPSC and sIPSC PL

frequencies showed a shift toward increased relative sIPSC frequency at P30 and P60

(Fig. 5H; paired t-test p<0.033), which is replicated in the increase in the spontaneous I-

E frequency difference at P30 and P60 (Fig. 5I; one-way ANOVA p=0.0042; post hoc

p<0.0480). We saw sex differences in PL sEPSC and sIPSC amplitude (higher in P30

females and P60 males), tau decay time (higher in P30 males and P60 females), sIPSC

frequency (higher in males at P30 and P60), as well as spontaneous I-E frequency

differences, with P21 males and P60 females showing greater differences (Table S1).

These data point to significant pre- and postsynaptic changes in spontaneous inhibitory

transmission in PL layer 5 pyramidal neurons between P15-21 and P30, including a shift

toward increased spontaneous inhibition that is likely reflective of maturation of local

interneurons[135].

Parallel analysis of the maturation of IL layer 5 spontaneous transmission showed no

change in sEPSC amplitude (Fig. 5J-K) or tau decay time (Fig. 5M), but a peak in

sEPSC frequency at P21 compared to P10 and P60 (Fig. 5L; one-way ANOVA

p=0.0021; post hoc p<0.0073). IL layer 5 pyramidal neurons showed an increase in

sIPSC amplitude between P15 and P30 (Fig. 5N; one-way ANOVA p=0.049; post hoc

p=0.023), and an increase in sIPSC frequency from P21 (Fig. 5O; one-way ANOVA

p<0.0001; post hoc p<0.026) accompanied by a change in sIPSC tau decay time (Fig.

5P; one-way ANOVA p=0.019). Similar to PL, we saw an increase in the relative

frequency of spontaneous inhibition at P30-P60 (Fig. 5Q; paired t-test p<0.013) and

increased spontaneous inhibition to excitation differences between P10-15 and P60

(Fig. 5R; one-way ANOVA p=0.0023; post hoc p<0.0097), but no sex differences in this

dataset (Table S1). These data indicate synchronous changes in spontaneous inhibition

between PL and IL layer 5 neurons, with distinct maturation timelines for spontaneous

excitation between subregions.

Asynchrony in the maturation of vCA1-PL and vCA1-IL presynaptic transmission

To examine the maturation of pathway-specific CA1-mPFC synaptic transmission, we

injected AAV1-ChR2 virus into the ventral CA1 one week prior to recording from layer 5

pyramidal neurons in the PL or IL at P15, P21, P30 and P60 (Fig. 6A). To assess age-

dependent changes in glutamate release in these synapses, we analyzed EPSCs

during paired pulse stimulation, whereby the relative amplitude of the second response

is modulated by initial release probability. There was a significant decrease in paired

pulse ratios (PPR) of vCA1-PL synapses between P21 and later ages (Fig. 6B; Mixed-

effects model: main effect of age p=0.0009, interval x age interaction p<0.0001; post

hoc 100ms: p<0.029; 250ms: p<0.028; Fig. 6C; 250ms: one-way ANOVA p=0.0004;

post hoc p<0.0035), an effect largely driven by changes in females (two-way ANOVA

p=0.036; post hoc p=0.0024). This suggests an increase in vCA1-PL release probability

starting at adolescence. In contrast, vCA1-IL paired pulse ratios were equivalent across

all ages (Fig. 6D-E; no sex differences, Table S1), pointing to distinct presynaptic

maturation trajectories for vCA1 projections to these mPFC subregions, with the vCA1-

PL pathway showing a unique profile of presynaptic changes between P21 and P30 in

females.

Projection-specific timing signatures for vCA1- and iCA1-mPFC presynaptic maturation

Using an identical experimental setup, we next infused the iCA1 of mice with AAV1-

ChR2 virus and conducted patch clamp recordings one week later at P10, P15, P21,

P30 or P60 (Fig. 6J). There was a significant peak in iCA1-PL paired pulse ratios at

P15 compared to P10, P30 and P60 (Fig. 6K; Mixed-effects model: main effect of age

p=0.0003; post hoc 100ms: p<0.013; 250ms: p<0.021; 500ms: p<0.041; 1000ms:

p=0.048; Fig. 6L; 250ms: one-way ANOVA p= 0.0007; post hoc p< 0.011), suggesting a

relative increase in presynaptic efficacy in iCA1-PL synapses from P30. When we

examined iCA1-IL synapses, we saw a similar decrease in paired pulse ratio between

P15-P21 and P60 (Fig. 6M; Mixed-effects model: main effect of age p=0.0001; interval x

age interaction p=0.013; post hoc 100ms: p<0.024; 250ms: p<0.049; 500ms: p<0.041;

1000ms: p<0.020; Fig. 6N; 250ms: One-way ANOVA p=0.0022; post hoc p< 0.013).

These data suggest a slight delay in the refinement of presynaptic release probability in

iCA1-IL synapses (at P60) relative to vCA1-IL synapses (P15). There were no sex

differences in iCA1-IL paired pulse ratios (Table S1). Together, these results reveal a

differential time course for the presynaptic maturation of iCA1 and vCA1 projections to

mPFC subregions, with earlier maturation of iCA1-PL presynaptic efficacy (P21)

compared to vCA1-PL (P30). While vCA1-IL presynaptic changes reach adult levels by

P15 (earlier than iCA1-PL synapses), iCA1-IL synapses are relatively delayed, with a

significant change in paired pulse ratios only occurring at P60 (see Fig. S4, left panel for

a graphic summary of these data).

Delayed maturation of iCA1-mPFC postsynaptic efficacy

To examine changes in CA1 evoked *post*synaptic transmission in the mPFC, we next

recorded AMPAR currents and AMPA:NMDA ratios as a function of developmental age

in vCA1- and iCA1-PL and IL synapses using the same experimental design described

previously (Fig. 6A, J). We saw no change in the amplitude of AMPAR currents (Fig. 6F)

or in AMPA:NMDA ratios (Fig. 6G) in vCA1-PL synapses across ages. In vCA1-IL

synapses, there was a significant decrease in AMPAR response amplitude between

P15 and P60 (Fig. 6H; one-way ANOVA p=0.034; post hoc p=0.023) but no change in

AMPA:NMDA ratios (Fig. 6I; no sex differences, Table S1). While vCA1-mPFC

postsynaptic transmission remains largely stable between P10 and P60, iCA1-mPFC

postsynaptic maturation undergoes marked refinement across this period. There was no

change in the amplitude of AMPAR currents (Fig. 6O), but an increase in AMPA:NMDA

ratios between P15 and P30 (Fig. 6P; one-way ANOVA p= 0.019; post hoc p=0.020),

similar to the timeline of presynaptic changes. Analysis of iCA1-IL synapses showed a

decrease in AMPAR current amplitude (Fig. 6Q; one-way ANOVA p=0.0014; post hoc

p<0.025) and an increase in AMPA:NMDA ratios between P15 and P30-60 (Fig. 6R;

one-way ANOVA p=0.0048; post hoc p<0.020), indicating synchronous maturation of

postsynaptic efficacy (AMPA:NMDA ratios) of iCA1 synapses onto PL and IL

subregions, which occurs after the stabilization of vCA1-mPFC postsynaptic

transmission (from P15). Females showed larger vCA1-IL AMPAR current amplitude

compared to males at P15 (Table S1). Overall, these data show domain-, target-, and

synaptic locus-defined time signatures of synaptic maturation within the CA1-mPFC

pathway. While the vCA1-IL pathway remains stable across postnatal development,

vCA1-PL synapses display a dissociation between the timing of pre- and postsynaptic

refinement (increased PPR from P30 but stable AMPA:NMDA ratios across ages).

Within iCA1 projections, iCA1-IL synapses show a delayed onset of presynaptic

changes (P60) compared to postsynaptic changes (P30), but iCA1-PL synapses show

synchronous changes in PPR and AMPA:NMDA ratios. A visual summary of the evoked

CA1-mPFC synaptic maturation data is featured in Figure S4.

Inhibition of the vCA1-mPFC pathway during juvenility impairs adult cognitive

flexibility

We next wanted to probe the functional implications of the CA1-mPFC maturation

signatures identified by our anatomical and synaptic analyses. Critical periods in the

sensory cortex are marked by structural and synaptic changes[82,84,136–140], suggesting

that the timing of CA1-mPFC synaptic changes may signal similar sensitive periods in

its dependent behavior. To test this, we used an intersectional viral approach to

chemogenetically inhibit the vCA1-mPFC pathway at select developmental timepoints

and assess its effects on a cognitive flexibility behavioral task in adulthood (Figure 7A).

We injected a retrograde AAV virus expressing Cre recombinase into the mPFC and a

Cre-dependent inhibitory hM4Di AAV virus into the vCA1 to selectively inhibit the vCA1-

mPFC pathway via treatment with the agonist C21, which selectively activates hM4Di

receptors[141,142] (Figure 7A). As our electrophysiological data showed marked changes in

vCA1-PL presynaptic transmission between P21 and P30 in females, we targeted our

chronic inhibition to the juvenile period (P15-P30) in male and female mice, and

compared it to an identical manipulation during adulthood (P60-P75) (Figure 7A). After

30d, we tested the animals in an attentional set shifting task[106] for cognitive flexibility in

the absence of C21 (Figure 7A). In this task, mice learn to dig through two types of

bedding for a food reward. During rule acquisition, the food reward is associated with a

scent, regardless of bedding type (Figure 7A). After reaching criterion, animals undergo

an extradimensional set shifting test, in which the reward predictor switches to bedding

type (Figure 7A).

Mice that underwent vCA1-mPFC inhibition (hM4Di mice) during juvenility (P15-P30)

showed similar rates of rule acquisition of the set shifting task performed compared to

control mCherry mice in adulthood (Figure 7B). However, hM4Di females showed an

impairment in extradimensional set shifting (Figure 7C; two-way ANOVA effect of virus

and sex $p<0.0001$, interaction $p=0.0022$; post hoc $p<0.0001$). Importantly, juvenile-

inhibited female and male hM4Di-injected animals did not differ from mCherry-injected

mice in terms of time to first choice (Figure 7D) or distance travelled (Figure 7E) during

ED set shifting, suggesting that the ED set shifting deficit seen in the hM4Di females is

not driven by changes in exploration or motivation during the task. In the adult inhibition

cohort, which took place between P60-P75, male and female mCherry and hM4Di mice

showed similar performance at rule acquisition (Figure 7F) and in ED set shifting (Figure

7G-I), indicating that the ED set shifting impairment is specific to vCA1-mPFC pathway

disruption during juvenility. Importantly, chronic vCA1-mPFC inhibition in either cohort

did not affect performance or exploration in the elevated plus maze (Figure S5),

indicating that changes in anxiety-like behavior are not driving the ED set shifting deficit.

These findings identify a sex-specific sensitive period within the HPC-mPFC pathway

during early life that is crucial for cognitive flexibility in adulthood.

Discussion

Here we used a combination of viral tracing, optogenetic-assisted patch clamping,

chemogenetics and behavior to examine septotemporal differences in HPC afferent

projections across the lifespan, and their implications for cognitive function in adulthood.

This is to our knowledge the first demonstration of a pathway-specific sensitive period

for cognitive function. We found that the timing of anatomical refinement of CA1 axons

varied both according to the target region and within the CA1 septotemporal axis. While

CA1 projections to IL, BLA and Re remained stable from P10 to P60, vCA1 and iCA1

terminal density displayed distinct timing signatures in the PL, LS, NAc, BNST and LH.

Focusing on the synaptic maturation of CA1-mPFC projections, we saw an earlier onset

of changes in presynaptic transmission in iCA1-PL compared to vCA1-PL synapses,

with the opposite occurring between vCA1- and iCA1-IL synapses. Developmental

changes in postsynaptic transmission also showed asynchrony among these pathways,

with a marked delay within iCA1-PL and -IL synapses compared to vCA1 inputs. Finally,

we uncovered a sex-specific sensitive period for the vCA1-mPFC pathway during

juvenility, leading to cognitive flexibility deficits in adulthood. Overall, our data

consolidate a blueprint for the maturation of CA1-mPFC projections with crucial

implications for behavior and the effects of circuit disturbances and/or other factors

influencing circuit output from early life.

Our anatomical analysis showed unique timing of developmental signatures in vCA1

and iCA1 terminal density in the LS, NAc, BNST, LH and mPFC. While iCA1 terminal

density in LSD and LSI was the highest at P10, vCA1 terminal density across LS

subregions peaked at P21. In rats, HPC projections shift from medial septum to LS at

embryonic and perinatal (P1 and P5) stages[8,143], but less is known about HPC-LS

maturation following that period. Interestingly, in contrast to our vCA1 data, subiculum

projections to the LS increase in density between P0-P30 in the rat[144], suggesting

possible species and/or subregion developmental differences. We also saw a peak in

vCA1 innervation of NAc core and shell and BNST around P21, indicating coordinated

changes across most vCA1 targeted areas that undergo postnatal refinement within this

timeframe (but note the LH as an exception). In contrast, postnatal iCA1 terminal

density displays different afferent and temporal patterns. While iCA1 terminal pruning

occurs synchronously across LS subregions from P10 to later ages, projections to PL

increase in density with age, similar to the LH. In rats, the first 2 to 3 postnatal weeks

mark major changes in PL cytoarchitecture and an increase in dendritic

arborization[37,145,146], which may be informed by changes in afferent innervation including

from iCA1. While local expression of DCC/netrin guides pathway-specific anatomical

innervation trajectories within mesocortical pathways[147–150], the precise signaling

molecules guiding the timing and region-specific differences in CA1 anatomical

maturation still need to be identified. Importantly, the consistency of collateral patterns

seen among certain adult vCA1 subpopulations[151] may contribute to the synchrony

between vCA1 terminal changes reported here. Accordingly, Kim and Cho found that

9% of vCA1 neurons project to both mPFC and BLA[127], regions that showed similar

maturation patterns in our analysis.

Our data on age-dependent changes in spontaneous EPSCs and IPSCs at PL layer 5

showed a significant shift towards increased global presynaptic inhibition at P30. Our

findings are largely consistent with work by Kroon and colleagues which described an

increase in sEPSC and sIPSC frequencies between P13-16 and P26-30 in PL layer

5[146], with similar increases also noted elsewhere[146]. However, Kroon and colleagues

report relatively increased excitatory responses compared to ours[146], with differences in

the age of the animals or in mouse strain/vendor possibly contributing to this disparity.

Our data showed a significant shift toward PL and IL spontaneous inhibitory activity by

P21-30, which is consistent with the timing of maturation of inhibitory interneurons in the

mPFC between juvenility and adolescence[152–154]. Given the important role of mPFC

inhibitory transmission in juvenility and adolescence to adult function[155], dissecting the

relative contributions of select input pathways to mPFC interneurons in early life will be

key to elucidating the factors regulating this potential sensitive period.

We established that iCA1 and vCA1 axons arrive at the mPFC between P5 and P10 in

C57BL/6J mice. This is in line with neonatal studies that report HPC oscillatory influence

on the mPFC as early as P7 in rats[72,156,157]. Although the physiology of glutamatergic

monosynaptic projections from the vCA1 to mPFC is well-known in adult mice[127,158–160],

very little was known about synaptic transmission within the CA1-mPFC circuit in early

life. Following the initial arrival of CA1 axons, we saw marked pathway- and age-

dependent changes in CA1-mPFC evoked synaptic activity. Specifically, the major

changes occurring in CA1-PL transmission within the second and third postnatal weeks

coincide with a P7-P13 shift from presynaptic depression to facilitation in PL layer 5

pyramidal cells following layer 2/3 stimulation in rats[161], as well as the maturation of

mPFC fast spiking interneurons and their increase in connectivity with pyramidal

neurons in the second postnatal week[154]. Importantly, this period also comprises major

changes in mPFC network oscillatory activity[154,156] and strengthening of HPC-mPFC

coupling between P8-10 and P16-24[64]. Moreover, changes in CA1 synaptic composition

across this same timeline[162] emphasize the need to understand the contribution of

developmental changes in synapse structure to the maturation of synaptic connectivity

as reported here.

Our previous work had shown a distinct temporal profile for the anatomical and synaptic

maturation of the mPFC-BLA pathway, which display a delayed arrival and refinement

of axons compared to CA1-mPFC projections, but synchronous evoked synaptic

changes around P30[115]. Interestingly, iCA1-PL, iCA1-IL and mPFC-BLA pathways

display an identical timeline of postnatal maturation of AMPA:NMDA ratios, suggesting

that pre- and postsynaptic maturation programs might be differentially expressed across

specialized projections. Altogether, these analyses point to a high degree of

specialization in the developmental profiles across brain pathways, whose guiding

principles remain unknown. Given the developmental milestones taking place from

juvenility to adolescence, including increased exploration and threat exposure upon

leaving the nest[163], understanding how these time signatures relate to specialized

stimulus processing and behavioral output needs further investigation.

We found that the timing of changes in vCA1-mPFC synaptic transmission marked a

sensitive period in the effects of pathway disruption on cognitive flexibility. This effect

was exclusive to females, in line with sex-specific changes in vCA1-PL PPR ratio

between juvenility and adolescent. While the origin and extent of this sex-specific effect

in vCA1-mPFC maturation trajectory and sensitivity remains unclear, these data add to

a growing literature showing sex differences in various aspects of HPC and mPFC

maturation[164–168], and in early life vulnerability to morphological, electrophysiological

and synaptic plasticity changes in both the HPC[169–171] and mPFC[95,172–175]. Interestingly,

the sex differences in our dataset were restricted to PL maturation of spontaneous

excitation and inhibition, as well as changes in vCA1-PL and iCA1-PL PPR, pointing to

mPFC subregion selectivity. Furthermore, pubertal onset of psychiatric disorders has

been linked to changes in cognitive flexibility[176–179], as well as changes in mPFC (and

CA1[180]) perineuronal nets[181] and increased inhibition[178] in females, factors known to

modulate sensitive periods[182–184]. Given the earlier onset of puberty in female mice

relative to males[178,185], which spans our intervention window, this may bear an important

influence over our results.

Previous studies had implicated mPFC function in the same ED set shifting task of

cognitive flexibility, with a key role for mPFC parvalbumin interneuron activity from P14-

P50 in adult ED set shifting performance[155]. While this timing overlaps with that of our

manipulation, the contribution of local mPFC interneurons to our findings is unknown.

Furthermore, inhibition of mediodorsal thalamus (MD) from P20-P50 leads to similar ED

set shifting impairments, which were accompanied by a reduction in mPFC sEPSC

frequency and in the density of thalamus-mPFC projections in adulthood[106], suggesting

that both vCA1- and MD-mPFC pathways exert a developmental influence on adult

cognitive flexibility. Intriguingly, layer 2/3 PL pyramidal neurons receive convergent input

from both MD and vHPC, while input to interneurons is biased: parvalbumin

interneurons receive relatively more input from MD and VIP interneurons from the

vHPC[186]. The exact interplay of these pathways and their modulation of developmental

sensitivity to disruption should be further explored. Additionally, a recent study showed

that systemic disruption of microglia activity from P28-P37 in mice led to changes in

mPFC network function and deficits in attentional set shifting rule acquisition and

reversal learning in adulthood[187]. While ED set shifting was not assessed, this suggests

the timing of this sensitive period might extend onto adolescence, while raising the

question of whether HPC input to mPFC is sensitive to microglial manipulation.

Importantly, this developmental timeline is also consistent with that reported for the

effects of amphetamine (P22-P31) on adult mPFC dopaminergic innervation and

behavioral inhibition[150,188], further establishing this period as one of broad sensitivity to

mPFC-related circuit function and behavior.

While these studies, together with ours, support a sensitive period from juvenility to

adolescence for mPFC-dependent cognitive function in adulthood, neonatal mPFC

disruptions have also been linked to behavioral deficits. Transient optogenetic activation

of mPFC from P7-11 leads to social, recognition and working memory deficits in

juvenility and adolescence, which are accompanied by changes in mPFC morphology,

electrophysiology and oscillations[189]. Additionally, serotonin transporter blockade from

P2-P11 disrupts mPFC morphology, neuronal excitability and anxiety- and depression-

like behavior[90]. Interestingly, the same group recently implicated serotonergic input to

the mPFC in ED set shifting[190], urging future research to explore the degree of overlap

(if any) between serotonergic and vCA1 terminals onto mPFC pyramidal neurons.

As research continues to refine knowledge of the topography and function of HPC

projections[127,151], the sex- and pathway-specific interrogation of the postnatal

development of HPC pathways adds a crucial layer to improving our understanding of

brain-behavior relationships and their contribution to the physiology of emotional and

cognitive function across the lifespan.

Figures and Figure Legends:

Figure 1. **Comparison of projection patterns from dorsal, intermediate and ventral**
CA1. A. C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the dorsal,
intermediate or ventral CA1 and perfused seven days later at P60 for tissue and image
processing. **B-H.** Qualitative differences between projections from dCA1 (left image
columns) and those from intermediate iCA1 (middle image column) and vCA1 (right
most column), with the iCA1 and vCA1 projections showing largely similar patterns
across examined regions. The left most column of images (dCA1 amplified) underwent
immunohistochemistry against GFP to amplify viral signal. All other images show direct
fluorescence under identical settings. BNST = bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, BLA =
basolateral amygdala, IL = infralimbic cortex, LH = lateral hypothalamus, LSD = dorsal
lateral septum, LSI = intermediate lateral septum, LSV = ventral lateral septum; NAc =
nucleus accumbens, PL= prelimbic cortex, Re = thalamic nucleus reuniens. Scale bar:
200μm.

Figure 2. **Targeting vCA1 and iCA1 across ages. A.** C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in either the vCA1 (**B-E**) or iCA1 (**F-I**) and perfused seven days later at P10, P15, P21, P30 or P60 for tissue and image processing. **B**. Sample images of AAV1-ChR2-EYFP infusion at the vCA1 in P15, P21, P30 and P60 mice. **C**. Estimated proportion of total vCA1 volume (mm^3) with EYFP infection for each age group. **D**. Estimated total vCA1 volume (grey) and EYFP infected vCA1 volume (green) for all age groups. **E**. Average intensity of infected EYFP vCA1 area for each age group.

F. Sample images of AAV1-ChR2-EYFP infusion at the iCA1 in P10, P15, P21, P30 and
P60 mice. **G**. Estimated proportion of total iCA1 volume (mm^3) with EYFP infection for
each age group. **H**. Estimated total iCA1 volume (grey) and EYFP infected iCA1 volume
(green) for all age groups. **I**. Average intensity of infected EYFP iCA1 area for each age
group. Individual female datapoints are represented as circles, and males as squares.
Scale bars: 500μm. ***** p <0.05. Grey and green asterisks in **D** and **H** represent statistical
significance in the total region volume and EYFP volume datasets, respectively. For full
n values and break-down of all figures, refer to Table S1.

Figure 3. **Pathway-specific developmental changes in vCA1 and iCA1 terminal**
density. C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the vCA1 (**A-I**) or
the iCA1 (**J-Q**) and perfused seven days later at P10, P15, P21, P30 or P60 for tissue
and image processing. **A-I**. Normalized average vCA1 terminal intensity across ages at
the dorsal lateral septum (LSD; **A**), ventral lateral septum (LSV; **B**), intermediate lateral
septum (LSI; **C**), nucleus accumbens (NAc) core (**D**) and shell (**E**); basolateral
amygdala (BLA; **F**), thalamic nucleus reuniens (Re; **G**), bed nucleus of the stria
terminalis (BNST; **H**), and lateral hypothalamus (LH; **I**). **J-Q**. Normalized average iCA1
terminal intensity across ages at the LSD (**J**), LSI (**K**), NAc core (**L**) and shell (**M**), BLA
(**N**), Re (**O**), BNST (**P**), and LH (**Q**). Individual female datapoints are represented as
circles, and males as squares. *p<0.05. **p<0.01.

Figure 4. **vCA1 terminal density is stable in PL and IL across postnatal development, but iCA1 terminal density increases in PL starting at adolescence.**
A. *Left*: Experimental design for the vCA1 experiments. C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the vCA1 and perfused seven days later at P15, P21, P30 or P60 for tissue and image processing. *Right*: Sample images of vCA1 projections present at the medial prefrontal cortex in P15, P21, P30 and P60 mice (numbers indicate cortical layers). **B-D**. Quantification of vCA1 terminal intensity across ages in PL layers 2/3 (**B**), 5 (**C**) and 6 (**D**). **E-G**. Average vCA1 terminal intensity for all age groups at IL layers 2/3 (**E**), 5 (**F**) and 6 (**G**). **H**. *Left:* Experimental design and sample images for the iCA1 experiments. C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the iCA1 and perfused seven days later at P10, P15, P21, P30 or P60 for tissue and image processing. *Right*: Sample images of iCA1 projections present at the mPFC. **I-K**. Age-dependent differences in iCA1 terminal intensity in PL layers 2/3 (**I**), 5 (**J**) and 6 (**K**). **L-N**. Average iCA1 terminal intensity for all age groups at IL layers 2/3 (**L**), 5 (**M**) and 6 (**N**). Individual female datapoints are represented as circles, and males as squares. Scale bar: 250µm. *p<0.05, ** p<0.01. PL = prelimbic cortex. IL = infralimbic cortex.

Figure 5. **Maturation of PL and IL layer 5 Pyramidal Cell Spontaneous Activity. A-I**.
Age-dependent changes in PL layer 5 pyramidal neuron spontaneous excitatory and
inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs and sIPSCs) from P10 to P60. Example traces
(A), sEPSC amplitude (**B**), frequency (**C**) and tau decay (**D**). sIPSC amplitude (**E**),
frequency (**F**) and tau decay (**G**). **H**. Within-cell comparison of sEPSC and sIPSC
frequencies. **I**. Spontaneous I-E frequency difference (calculated by subtracting sEPSC
frequency from sIPSC frequency). **J-R**. Maturation of IL layer 5 Spontaneous Activity.
Example traces (**J**)**,** sEPSC amplitude (**K**), frequency (**L**) and tau decay (**M**). Maturation
of IL sIPSC amplitude (**N**), frequency (**O**) and tau decay (**P**). **Q**. Within-cell comparison
of relative sEPSC and sIPSC frequencies. **R.** Spontaneous I-E frequency difference.
Individual female datapoints are represented as circles, and males as squares. ***** p
<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001.

Figure 6 Asynchronous pre- and postsynaptic strengthening of vCA1- and iCA1-
PL and IL synapses. C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the
vCA1 (**A-I**) or the iCA1 (**J-R**) and seven days later at P15, P21, P30 or P60 underwent
patch clamp recordings from PL or IL layer 5 pyramidal neurons upon blue light LED
stimulation. **A**. Experimental design for vCA1 experiments. **B-E**. Comparison of paired
pulse ratio (second/first response) in PL layer 5 pyramidal neurons across intervals (**B**)

and at 250ms interstimulus interval (**C**). **D-E.** Paired pulse ratios from IL layer 5
pyramidal neurons across intervals (**D**) and with 250ms interval (**E**). **F-G**. vCA1-PL layer
5 AMPAR current amplitude (**F**) and AMPA:NMDA ratios (**G**) across ages. **H-I.** vCA1-IL
AMPAR amplitudes (**H**) and AMPA:NMDA ratio (**I**). **J**. Experimental design for iCA1
experiments. **K-L**. Paired pulse ratios in iCA1-PL synapses across interstimulus
intervals (**K**) and at 250ms interstimulus interval (**L**). **M-N.** Paired pulse ratios in iCA1-IL
synapses across intervals (**M**) and with 250ms interval (**N**). **O-R**. iCA1-PL AMPAR
current amplitude (**O**) and AMPA:NMDA ratios (**P**). **Q-R**. iCA1-IL AMPAR current
amplitude (**Q**) and AMPA:NMDA ratios (**R**). Individual female datapoints are
represented as circles, and males as squares. *p <0.05. ✱ Represents a difference

between P21 and P30/P60; ✱ between P15 and P60; ✱ between P15 and P21/P30;
✱ between P15 and P10; ✱ between P15 and P10/P60; ✱ between P10/P15 and
P60; ✱ between P15 and P30/P60; ✱ between P15/P21 and P60; ✱ between P21
and P60, and ✱ between P15 and P21.

Figure 7. vCA1-mPFC inhibition during juvenility, but not adulthood, impairs extradimensional set shifting in females. A. Experimental design. Mice were injected with a retrograde AAV expressing Cre recombinase (AAVrg-Cre) in the mPFC and Cre-dependent hM4D or mCherry (AAV-DIO-hM4D-mCherry or AAV-DIO-mCherry) in the vCA1 7d prior to chronic treatment with the DREADD agonist C21 for 15d either during the *juvenile* period (from P15-P30) or in *adulthood* (separate cohort receiving equivalent C21 injections from P60-P75). 30d later, animals underwent attentional set shifting[105,106]. Following handling, habituation and training to dig sessions, animals learned an association (rule learning) between a scent and a food reward (rewarded contingency marked in blue). The next day, animals underwent an extradimensional (ED) set shifting test in which the reward was paired with the bedding type. All groups underwent set shifting in adulthood in the absence of C21. **B-E**. Juvenile cohort. Number of trials to criterion at rule learning (**B**) and ED set shifting (**C**). Time to first choice (**D**) and distance travelled (**E**) during ED set shifting. **F-I**. Adult cohort. Number of trials to criterion at rule learning (**F**) and ED set shifting (**G**). Time to first choice (**H**) and distance travelled (**I**) during ED set shifting. Individual female datapoints are represented as circles, and males as squares. ****p<0.0001.

Methods

Animals

C57BL/6J (Jackson Laboratory) mice were bred at the University of Toronto

Scarborough and kept on a 12h light/dark cycle (lights on at 07:00 h) in a standard static

cage on ¼" corncob bedding with access to food and water *ad libitum*. Date of birth was

designated postnatal day (P)0, with litter sizes ranging from 2 to 11 pups. At 21 days

(P21) mice were weaned and housed in same-sex littermate groups of 2 to 5 mice.

Littermates were randomly assigned to experimental groups, with each litter distributed

across ages tested counterbalanced for sex. All experiments were conducted during the

light cycle. Approximately equal numbers of females and males were used for all

experiments. All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Care Committee at

the University of Toronto.

Stereotaxic surgery and viral injections

C57Bl/6J mice underwent stereotaxic surgery at P3, P8, P14, P23 or P53. 0.12-0.25μL

of AAV1-CaMKIIa-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP virus was infused at the iCA1 bilaterally for

each age group (P3: AP-2.5, ML-/+2.65, DV-2.5; P8: AP-2.60, ML-/+3.15, DV-3.00;

P14: AP-2.65, ML-/+ 3.2, DV-3.00; P23: AP-2.7, ML-/+3.4, DV-3.00; P53: AP-2.75, ML-

/+3.6, DV-3.00). For vCA1 experiments, 0.12-0.2μL of AAV1-CaMKIIa-hChR2(H134R)-

EYFP virus was infused at the vCA1 bilaterally at P8, P14, P23 or P53 (P8: AP-2.46,

ML-/+3.05, DV-4.60; P14: AP-1.9, ML-/+ 3.1, DV-4.6; P23: AP-2.42, ML-/+3.1, DV-4.60;

P53: AP-2.53, ML-/+3.25, DV-4.5). For dCA1 experiments, 0.2uL of AAV1-CaMKIIa-

hChR2(H134R)-EYFP virus was infused at the dCA1 bilaterally at P53 (AP-2.1, ML-

/+1.50, DV-1.50). Hypothermia was used as an anesthetic for surgeries taken place at

P3. Mice older than P8 were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) with a combination of

ketamine (100 mg/kg) and xylazine (5 mg/kg) to induce anesthesia. Once anesthetized,

the head was shaved and swabbed with iodine followed by 70% ethanol. Tear gel

(Alcon) was applied to the eyes to prevent dehydration. Mice were then secured in a

rodent stereotaxic apparatus (Stoelting) using ear bars. Body temperature was

maintained throughout surgery with a heating blanket. An incision was made down the

midline of the scalp using a scalpel, the connective tissue was excised, and then the

skull was cleaned with sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH=7.4). An autoclaved

cotton-tip applicator was briefly submerged in 30% hydrogen peroxide and gently

applied to the skull surface to identify bregma. After surgery, mice recovered for one

week and then were transcardially perfused or underwent slice electrophysiology

(details described below). For the retrograde tracing surgeries, mice at P0, P5 or aged

8-9 weeks underwent stereotaxic surgery (as above) infusing, bilaterally, red Lumafluor

RetroBeads™ at the mPFC (P0: AP+0.3, ML-/+0.2, DV-0.75; P5: AP+1.07, ML-/+0.25,

DV-2.6; Adult: AP+2.0, ML-/+0.3, DV-2.8). Five days after surgery, mice underwent

transcardial perfusion (details described below). For the set shifting experiments, mice

at P8 or P53 underwent stereotaxic surgery (as described above) infusing bilaterally,

pAAV5-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry or pAAV5-hSyn-DIO-mCherry at the vCA1

(coordinates for P8 and P53 above) and pENN-AAV-hSyn-Cre-WPRE-hGH

(Retrograde) at the mPFC (P8: AP+1.52, ML-/+0.26, DV-2.5; P53: AP+2.0, ML-/+0.3,

DV-2.8). After surgery, mice recovered for one week prior to commencing chronic C21

injections (procedure described below).

<u>Perfusions and sectioning</u>

Mice were injected with Avertin (250mg/kg, i.p.) and once under deep anesthesia,

transcardially perfused with approximately 50mL of room temperature 0.1M PBS

(pH=7.4), followed by approximately 80mL of cold 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). Brains

were extracted and stored overnight at 4°C in 4% PFA. Brains were subsequently

sectioned at 50µm in the coronal plane (VT1000, Leica) and stored at -20 °C in a

cryoprotectant solution comprised of 60% glycerol and 0.01% sodium azide in PBS.

<u>Immunohistochemistry</u>

Immunostaining was performed on free floating sections. Sections were washed in 0.1M

PBS (3 x 5 min each) and then incubated in blocking solution comprising 5% normal

goat serum and 0.25% Triton X-100 in 0.1M PBS for 30 min. For the amplified dCA1

brains, amplification of the viral signal was achieved by incubating sections with

polyclonal chicken anti-GFP (1:1000, #ab13970; Abcam, RRID: AB_300798) primary

antibody diluted in blocking solution. Sections were incubated overnight at 4 °C on a

rotary shaker under gentle agitation. On the following morning, sections were incubated

in goat anti-chicken Alexa 488 (1:1000, #A11039, Invitrogen, RRID: AB_2534096)

secondary antibody for 2 hours and Hoechst 33342 nuclear dye (1:1000 diluted in 0.1M

PBS; #H1399; ThermoFisher). Sections were then rinsed in 0.1M PBS, mounted onto

gelatin-coated slides and coverslipped with Permafluor anti-fade mounting medium

(#TA030FM; Thermo Scientific).

<u>Anatomical maturation analysis</u>

Brains were sectioned (50μm thickness) with a VT1000S vibratome (Leica). All sections were stained with nuclear dye Hoechst 33342 (1:1000) for 10 min at room temperature. Sections were mounted onto slides, air dried, and coverslipped with anti-fade mounting medium (as described above) and imaged using a Nikon Eclipse Ni-U Upright epifluorescent microscope. iCA1 and vCA1 projection-associated EYFP fluorescence was quantified by measuring average pixel intensity for each in region of interest and subtracting the background/basal measure of intensity. Internal baseline measures of intensity for each section were taken from the motor cortex/frontal associative cortex which are devoid of temporal hippocampal projections[128]. An average intensity difference was calculated from both hemispheres using ImageJ/FIJI software (NIH, MD, USA; https://imagej.net/software/fiji/). Regions of interest included: the prelimbic cortex (PL) (layer 2/3, 5 and 6), infralimbic cortex (IL) (layer 2/3, 5 and 6), nucleus accumbens (NAc) (shell and core), lateral septum (LS) (dorsal, ventral and intermediate nucleus), basolateral amygdala (BLA), lateral hypothalamus (LH), thalamic nucleus reuniens (Re) and the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST). Whole area intensity was measured for each region. Comparisons were made of iCA1/vCA1 projection-associated EYFP intensity at these regions among the different age groups. All calculated intensities were normalized with total iCA1 or vCA1 volume.

To ensure viral spread is restricted only to, and covers the whole of the iCA1 or vCA1, the Cavalieri method [($V_c = d(\Sigma(y_i))$, where V_c = estimated volume (mm^3), d = distance between sections (μm) and y = area of EYFP infection or iCA1/vCA1 per section (mm^2)] was used to estimate, for each age, viral spread and total iCA1/vCA1 volume. The iCA1

is defined as the dorsal CA1 (dCA1[i]) region (pyramidal, oriens and radiatum layers) that

begins from bregma -2.70mm and terminates at -3.88mm labelled in Franklin & Paxinos

mouse atlas[191]. For sections that do not have the CA2 region that easily delineates the

dCA1[i] on the dorsal-ventral axis within bregma -2.70 to -3.88mm, the dCA1[i] consisted of

the CA1 area above the rhinal fissure/bottom limit of the perirhinal cortex[191]. This

boundary follows the lower border of the intermediate CA1 set by Dong et al. (2009) and

Fanselow & Dong (2010). Since these authors found that their iCA1 region and

temporal/posterior dCA1 region follow the same pattern of gene expression[192], for this

study, the iCA1 encompasses both Dong et al. (2009)'s posterior dCA1 and iCA1.

Estimated volume of EYFP and iCA1/vCA1 were compared between each age group to

corroborate the reduction of hippocampal mass and the restriction of viral spread at

earlier ages[115]. Results are expressed as percentage of estimated EYFP volume and

iCA1/vCA1 volume.

Slice electrophysiology

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and perfused transcardially with ice-cold (0°C–

4°C) sucrose solution composed of (in mM): 197 sucrose, 11 glucose, 2.5 KCl, 1.25

NaH_2PO_4, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 0.4 ascorbate, 1 $CaCl_2$, 4 $MgCl_2$ and 2 Na pyruvate. Acute

350 μm coronal slices of PFC were obtained from dissected brains using a VT1000S

vibratome (Leica) and then incubated at 35°C for 25 min in the same solution, but with

50% standard artificial cerebral spinal fluid (ACSF) composed of (in mM): 120 NaCl, 2.5

KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 11 glucose, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$ and 2 Na pyruvate.

Following recovery, slices were maintained at room temperature in standard ACSF.

Whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings were obtained from principal pyramidal neurons in

layer 5 PL or IL using borosilicate glass electrodes (3–5 MΩ). Electrode internal solution

was composed of (in mM) of the following: 130 Cs-methanesulfonate, 10 HEPES, 0.5

EGTA, 8 NaCl, 4 Mg-ATP, 1 QX-314, 10 Na-phosphocreatine, and 0.4 Na-GTP.

Pyramidal excitatory neurons in the mPFC were discriminated on the basis of soma

size, high capacitance (>200 pF), and slow EPSC kinetics, under the rationale that no

interneuron subtypes possess all three of these characteristics. CA1 axon terminals

were stimulated using illumination with a digital multimirror device (Polygon400,

Mightex) and a TTL-pulsed microscope objective-coupled light-emitting diode (LED, 470

nm, 14 mW/mm2, Mightex). This pulse intensity evoked maximal response amplitudes

at all ages. For analysis of AMPA/NMDA ratios, we applied 1 μM TTX (#HB1035,

HelloBio) and 100 μM 4-AP (#AB120122, Abcam) for more stringent isolation of

monosynaptic transmission [115,193,194]. Paired pulse evoked EPSC and spontaneous

EPSCs and IPSCs were conducted in standard ACSF described above. Paired pulse

evoked EPSC were recorded using a low chloride internal (TEA-Cl 5mM). Data were

low-pass filtered at 3 kHz (evoked) and 10 kHz (spontaneous) and acquired at 10 kHz

using Multiclamp 700B and pClamp 10 (Molecular Devices). All stimulation was

conducted at 0.1 Hz to avoid inducing synaptic plasticity. Series and membrane

resistance was continuously monitored, and recordings were discarded when these

measurements changed by >20%. Recordings in which series resistance exceeded 25

MΩ were rejected. Detection and analysis of sEPSCs and sIPSCs were performed blind

to experimental group using MiniAnalysis (Synaptosoft). EPSC decay time constants (τ

decay) were obtained by standard exponential curve fitting of averaged current traces in

Clampfit (Molecular Devices). AMPA/NMDA ratio was calculated as the peak EPSC at -

70 mV divided by the EPSC amplitude at 100ms after current onset at +40 mV[115,193].

<u>C21 injections</u>

Animals were injected for 16 days consecutively with DREADD agonist compound 21

(C21; 2mg/kg, 0.5mg/mL, i.p.; #HB6124; HelloBio)[141], twice a day[106], once at 8:30 am ±

1 hour and once at 4:30 pm ± 1 hour, ensuring an 8-hour gap in between. The juvenile

group was injected from P15-P30, and the adult group was injected from P60-P75.

These cohorts underwent attentional set shifting in the absence of C21.

<u>Behavioural testing</u>

Attentional Set Shifting Task

Apparatus: A rectangular chamber made of white plexiglass (14.5 cm x 16.5 cm) was

separated by a 20 cm long x 16.5 cm wide x 0.5 cm thick plexiglass wall with two 19.2

cm wide x 17.8 cm long adjoining sliding doors on either lateral side to enclose the

mouse in the left or right upper quadrant. The apparatus was elevated 41 cm off the

floor with an Imaging Source DMK 22AUC03 1.1.3 IR camera mounted 88.4 cm directly

above it using a wall mount rack. An external LED lamp (280 Lux) was positioned

adjacent to the camera and 87.4 cm above the chamber to evenly distribute light. Two

round ceramic saucers each measuring 8.9 cm in diameter were placed in the chamber

at each of the quadrants during testing (at a 2.8 cm distance from each lateral wall and

7.6 cm away from the sliding door). The saucers were filled with one of two types of

bedding [counterbalanced; bark (Zoo Med Repti Bark) or cellulose paper (Biofresh 1/8"

Pelleted Cellulose) bedding], mixed with either a garlic or cinnamon powder

(McCormick), one of which predicted the reward location. Four different variations of

scent–bedding mixtures were used: bark–cinnamon, bark–garlic, paper–cinnamon and

paper–garlic.

Procedure: We used a variation of the protocol described by the Kellendonk group[105,106].

Animals were assessed in adulthood at P56-P61 for the juvenile group and at P101-

P106 for the adult group. Animals started undergoing food deprivation on the first day of

handling (Day 1). Mice were handled for 2 days (twice per day for 2 minutes, Days 1-2).

On Day 2, after the second habituation session, mice underwent one 10-minute

habituation session in which they were exposed to the experimental apparatus in the

presence of cheerios spread across the chamber to encourage exploration (no saucers

present). Starting on the day after habituation (Day 3), mice underwent two days of

training to dig (6 trials/day), when they learn to dig in the saucer filled with bed-o-cob

bedding for a cheerio reward. The bedding amount was increased incrementally over

the six daily sessions until the cheerio was fully covered. On the following day (Day 5),

animals underwent rule acquisition. During rule acquisition, animals were exposed to

two saucers displaying a pseudorandom, counterbalanced combination of one of the

two beddings and scents, one of which contained a cheerio reward. The reward was

paired with one of the scents (rule; counterbalanced) for the first five warm-up trials until

they found the cheerio. From trial six onwards, once the animal's snout crossed the

edge of the saucer, this was considered a decision, which was followed by enclosing

the animal within the side of the chamber for 30 seconds using a sliding door. Trials ran

until animals reached the criterion of 8 correct choices within 10 consecutive trials,

taken as a proxy for learning the scent–reward association. The next day (Day 6), mice

underwent extradimensional (ED) set shifting. During ED set shifting, a similar

procedure from rule acquisition was followed, but the bedding medium (instead of the

scent) predicted the cheerio location. Trials ran until animals reached the criterion of 8

correct choices within 10 consecutive trials. Animals that did not meet this criterion

before reaching 70 trials were excluded from the experiment. Scent and bedding types

were counterbalanced between animals. Trials were recorded using the Imaging Source

DMK 22AUC03 1.1.3 IR camera and distance travelled and time to first choice were

quantified using ANYmaze software (Stoelting, USA). Trials to criterion were quantified

manually by a blind experimenter and validated through ANYmaze. Two juvenile hM4D

animals showed an outlier profile for distance travelled during set shifting (3.78m and

3.98m), which was solely driven by exploration after choice (while eating the food

reward) and were therefore excluded from that analysis.

<u>QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS</u>

Data are presented as mean ± SEM with n shown as the number of animals for

histological experiments, or number of cells followed by number of animals in

parenthesis for electrophysiological experiments. Due to space limits, only significant p

is reported in the main text, with all other detailed statistical analyses (including sex

differences) reported in Table S1. All statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad

Prism® version 9 through one-way ANOVA or two-way repeated-measures ANOVA,

where appropriate. Omnibus test results (F values) are reported in Table S1. To test for

group differences following ANOVA, we applied the software default of Tukey's or

Bonferroni-corrected post hoc tests for all pairwise comparisons following non-repeated

and repeated measures ANOVA, respectively, and significant results were denoted by

asterisks in associated figures. Potential sex differences were first assessed using a

two-way, repeated measures ANOVA and in the absence of effects, data were

collapsed across these variables for subsequent analyses. Outliers were detected using

the software outlier test (Grubbs' Test or the extreme studentized deviant method) and

removed from the dataset prior to running group and/or post hoc comparisons.

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Monoclonal rat anti-mCherry (#M11217)	ThermoFisher	RRID: AB_2536611
Polyclonal rabbit anti-cFos (#226 003)	Synaptic Systems	RRID: AB_2231974
Goat anti-rat Alexa 568 (#A11077)	ThermoFisher	RRID: AB_2534121
Donkey anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase (#711-036-152)	Jackson ImmunoResearch	RRID: AB_2340590
Polyclonal chicken anti-GFP (#AB13970)	Abcam	RRID: AB_300798
Goat anti-chicken Alexa 488 (#A11039)	Invitrogen	RRID: AB_2534096
Hoechst 33342 nuclear dye (#H1399)	ThermoFisher	
Bacterial and virus strains		
AAV1-CaMKIIa-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP	Addgene	# 26969-AAV1
Red RetroBeads	LumaFluor Inc	R170
pENN-AAV-hSyn-Cre-WPRE-hGH (Retrograde)	Addgene	#105553-AAVrg
pAAV5-hSyn-DIO-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry	Addgene	#44362-AAV5
pAAV5-hSyn-DIO-mCherry	Addgene	#50459-AAV5
Experimental models: Organism/strains		

Mouse: C57BL/6J	The Jackson Laboratory	
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Ketamine (Narketan 100 mg/mL Vial/10 ml)	CDMV	#032N
Xylazine (AnaSed 100 mg/mL Btle/ 50ml)	CDMV	#113537
Avertin (2% 2,2,2-tribromoethanol + tert-amyl alcohol in 0.1M PBS)	Sigma-Aldrich	#T48402 #240486
Tetrodotoxin citrate, Na+ channel blocker, 1mg (TTX)	HelloBio	#HB1035
4-Aminopyridine, K+ channel blocker, 100mg (4-AP)	Abcam	#AB120122
Compund-21, water soluble (C21)	HelloBio	#HB6124
Software		
ImageJ/Fiji	NIH, MD, USA	https://imagej.net/software/fiji/
ANYmaze	Stoelting Company	#60605
MiniAnalysis (Synaptosoft)		

Supplemental Figures and Legends:

Figure S1. **iCA1 and vCA1 axons are already present in all target areas by P10.**
C57BL/6J mice were injected with AAV-ChR2-YFP virus in the ventral (vCA1) or
intermediate (iCA1) CA1 at P3 and perfused seven days later at P10 for tissue and
image processing. vCA1 (top panel) and iCA1 (bottom panel) axons were already
visible at P10 in the prelimbic cortex (PL), infralimbic cortex (IL), nucleus accumbens
(NAc) core and shell, dorsal lateral septum (LSD) and intermediate lateral septum (LSI),
thalamic nucleus reuniens (Re), basolateral amygdala (BLA), bed nucleus of the stria
terminalis (BNST), and lateral hypothalamus (LH). Scale bar: 500μm.

Figure S2. **CA1 terminals arrive at the mPFC between P5 and P10 in C57BL/6J mice. A**. Schematic of experiment. C57BL/6J mice were infused with red Lumafluor RetroBeads™ bilaterally at the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC). Mice were transcardially perfused 5 days following surgery at P5, P10 or P60. **B**. Sample image of the mPFC infusion site in an adult P60 brain (*left most image*) shows absence of red

soma signal at the dorsal CA1 (dCA1) but labeled cells in the basolateral amygdala (BLA) (*center image*) and in the intermediate CA1 (iCA1) and ventral CA1 (vCA1) (*right most image*). **C**. Sample image of the mPFC infusion site in a P10 brain (*left most image*) showing absence of red soma signal at the dCA1 but labeled cells in the BLA (*center image*), as well as in the iCA1 and vCA1 (*right most image*). **D**. Sample image of the mPFC infusion site in a P5 brain (*left most image*) showing absence of red soma signal at the dCA1, iCA1 or vCA1 (*right most images*). Scale bar: 500μm.

Figure S3. Graphic representation of anatomical maturation data for vCA1 and iCA1 projections. Rectangular heatmaps represent relative changes in terminal density across respective ages, whereby darker color represents an increase. PL = prelimbic cortex, IL = infralimbic cortex, NAc = nucleus accumbens, LSD = dorsal lateral septum, LSI = intermediate lateral septum, Re = thalamic nucleus reuniens, BLA = basolateral amygdala, BNST = bed nucleus of the stria terminalis, LH = lateral hypothalamus.

Figure S4. **Graphic representation of evoked synaptic maturation data for vCA1- and iCA1- PL and IL pathways.** Rectangular heatmaps represent relative changes in presynaptic (**Left**; or release probability, the inverted function of the paired pulse ratios) and postsynaptic efficacy (**Right**, represented as AMPA:NMDA ratios) across respective ages, whereby darker color represents an increase. PL = prelimbic cortex, IL = infralimbic cortex.

Figure S5. **Chronic inhibition of the vCA1-mPFC pathway does not affect long-term performance in the elevated plus maze. A.** Following the experiments from Figure 7, animals in both the juvenile and adult cohorts were tested in the elevated plus maze (EPM) in the absence of C21. **B-D**. Juvenile cohort. mCherry and hM4D animals

that underwent C21 treatment from P15-P30 did not differ in time spent in the open
arms of the EPM (**B**; one-way ANOVA $F_{3, 25}$ = 0.2126, p =0.8867), number of open arm
entries (**C**; one-way ANOVA $F_{3, 25}$ = 0.5187, p =0.6733) or distance travelled (**D**; one-
way ANOVA $F_{3, 25}$ = 0.2966, p=0.8275). mCherry n= 14 (7 females, 7 males); hM4D n=
15 (8 females, 7 males). **E-G**. Adult cohort. mCherry and hM4D animals that underwent
C21 treatment from P60-P75 showed equivalent time spent in the open arms of the
EPM (**E**; one-way ANOVA $F_{3, 19}$ = 0.6785, p=0.5759), number of open arm entries (**F**;
one-way ANOVA $F_{3, 19}$ = 0.6532, p =0.5907) or distance travelled (**G**; one-way ANOVA
$F_{3, 19}$ = 1.807, p=0.1800). mCherry n= 11 (5 females, 6 males); hM4D n= 12 (6 females,
6 males). Individual female datapoints are represented as circles, and males as
squares.

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