Calcium-permeable AMPA receptors mediate timing-dependent LTP elicited by six coincident

action potentials at Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses

Running title: Modulation of threshold t-LTP

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Abstract

Activity-dependent changes of synaptic transmission in neuronal circuits are thought to represent the

cellular mechanism of memory formation in the brain. Experimentally, such changes can be elicited by

repeated high-frequency synaptic stimulation inducing long-term potentiation (LTP), or by long-lasting

low frequency stimulation, that induces long-term depression (LTD). In contrast, spike timing-

dependent plasticity (STDP) can induce equally robust and long-lasting timing-dependent LTP (t-LTP) in

response to low frequency repeats of coincident individual action potentials first in the presynaptic and

then in the postsynaptic neuron. Conversely, this stimulation leads to t-LTD if the postsynaptic precedes

the presynaptic action potential. Importantly, STDP is best suited to investigate synaptic plasticity

mechanisms at the single cell level. Commonly, STDP paradigms relying on 25-100 repeats (comprising

several minutes of synaptic stimulation) of coincident pre- and postsynaptic spike firing are used to elicit

robust t-LTP or t-LTD. However, the minimum number of repeats required for successful STDP induction,

which could account for single trial learning *in vivo* (comprising only a few seconds), is barely explored.

Here, we examined low repeat STDP at Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses by pairing one presynaptic

action potential with either one postsynaptic action potential (1:1 t-LTP), or with a burst of 4

postsynaptic action potentials (1:4 t-LTP). Six repeats were sufficient to elicit 1:1 t-LTP while only three

repeats were required for 1:4 t-LTP. Postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation for 1:1 t-LTP required Ca^{2+} influx via

NMDARs and voltage gated calcium channels (VGCCs), but depended in case of 1:4 t-LTP on activation

of metabotropic GluR and ryanodine receptor mediated Ca^{2+} release from internal stores. Surprisingly,

both t-LTP variants were strictly dependent on a transient activation of postsynaptic Ca^{2+}-permeable

AMPARs, although the locus of t-LTP expression was presynaptic for low repeat 1:1 t-LTP but depended

on postsynaptic insertion of new GluA1 containing-AMPARs in case of low repeat 1:4 t-LTP. Both t-LTP

forms were regulated differentially by dopamine receptor subtype 1 (D1R) and D2R activation, but

occurred independent from BDNF/TrkB signaling. Our data suggest, that learning relevant long-lasting

synaptic changes can be induced by only 3-6 repeats of mild STDP stimulation that can occur in < 10 s

and could therefore underlie single trial learning *in vivo*.

Introduction

Long-term potentiation (LTP) and long-term depression (LTD) of synaptic transmission can be observed

in response to repetitive activation of synapses and are believed to represent cellular models of learning

and memory processes in the brain (see e.g., 1, 2, 3). While LTP leads to a stable enhancement of

synaptic transmission between connected neurons, LTD yields a long-lasting decrease in synaptic

responses. Depending on the time frame that is investigated, LTP as well as LTD can be divided into an

early phase lasting roughly 1h and a late phase that starts 2-3h after induction of the synaptic change.

While early LTP is mediated by posttranslational modifications, late LTP was found to depend on

synthesis of new proteins (4, but see 5). LTP was initially discovered using long-lasting high frequency

stimulation of glutamatergic synapses in the mammalian hippocampus (6), a brain region essential for

encoding episodic memory (7). While in these pioneering studies, LTP was recorded *in vivo* using

extracellular field potential recordings (6), LTP is also observed in acutely isolated brain slices *ex vivo*

and can be recorded in individual neurons using whole cell patch clamp recording techniques (reviewed

e.g. in 8, 9, 10). Notably, LTP studies at the single cell level are essential to understand the biochemical

and cellular mechanisms of LTP and LTD process.es of a specific neuronal connection with defined

postsynaptic target. To relate results from LTP measurements in acute slices *ex vivo* with learning

processes it is important to use LTP induction protocols that resemble synaptic activation patterns also

occurring during memory formation *in vivo* (compare 11), rather than paradigms involving tetanic

synaptic stimulation or long-lasting artificial depolarization of postsynaptic neurons.

In this respect, spike timing-dependent plasticity (STDP) seems to represent an especially relevant

protocol for induction of LTP (e.g., 12, 13-18). Here, bidirectional plasticity can be induced by repeated

coincident activation of pre- and postsynaptic neurons, with forward pairing (i.e. presynaptic spike

occurs several ms before the postsynaptic action potential; positive spike timing (+Δt)) yielding timing-

dependent (t-) LTP, while backward pairing (postsynaptic spike occurs before presynaptic activation; -

Δt) yields t-LTD. These protocols also fulfill the prerequisites for Hebbian synaptic plasticity (13) that are

widely accepted as fundamental requirements for synaptic strengthening. Compared to pairing protocols that induce LTP by combining a presynaptic tetanus with a postsynaptic depolarization (e.g., 19), STDP relies on a small number of pre- and postsynaptic action potentials that are repeated at low frequency (< 5 Hz).

Like memory formation *in vivo*, t-LTP in acute *ex vivo* brain slices is strongly controlled by neuromodulatory inputs (e.g., 20, 21-24, reviewed in 25). T-LTP was also reported to depend on brain-derived neurotrophic factor signaling (e.g., 26, 27-30). Still, these mechanistic studies on t-LTP employed STDP protocols depending typically on 25-100 repeats at ≤1 Hz that are unlikely to occur at synapses during memory formation *in vivo*. Therefore, in the present study we started out to determine the minimum number of repeats of coincident activation of pre- and postsynaptic neurons required for successful t-LTP induction. To this aim, we used low repeat variants of our recently described canonical (1:1 pairing: 22) and burst STDP protocols (1:4 pairing: 30). Although, STDP protocols involving low repeat synaptic activation have been used previously to induce t-LTP (visual cortex: 31, cultured hippocampal cells: 32, somatosensory cortex: 33, 34), the underlying cellular mechanisms for its induction and expression remained elusive.

Our present study demonstrates, that Schaffer collateral (SC)- CA1 t-LTP can be induced robustly by only six repeats of coincident pre- and postsynaptic spiking at 0.5 Hz. Moreover, our study reveals that, depending on specific STDP paradigms (i.e. 1:1 vs. 1:4) the low repeat protocols recruit distinct sources for postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation during induction of t-LTP, are mediated by distinct pre- and postsynaptic expression mechanisms, and are differentially regulated by dopamine receptor signaling. Together these data suggest that hippocampal SC-CA1 synapses can recruit multiple types of synaptic plasticity in response to low repeat STDP protocols for processing of information and memory storage in the hippocampus. Altogether, these distinct cellular STDP pathways might form the basis for the pluripotency of hippocampal functions in learning and memory.

Results

Timing-dependent LTP at Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses requires 3-6 spike pairings

Using whole cell patch clamp recordings, we investigated timing-dependent (t-)LTP at Schaffer collateral (SC) -CA1 synapses in acute hippocampal slices obtained from juvenile (i.e. P28-35) male C57BL/6J mice. T-LTP was induced by STDP protocols consisting of low repeat coincident pre- and postsynaptic action potentials at low pairing frequencies (0.5 Hz).

SC-CA1 synapses were repeatedly activated by pairing of an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) that was elicited by supra-threshold extracellular SC stimulation, with a single postsynaptically evoked action potential (AP; 1EPSP/1AP or 1:1, Δt= 10 ms at 0.5 Hz; compare Fig. 1A). To determine the minimal repeat number required for successful t-LTP induction with a prototypical STDP paradigm, neurons were subjected to either 70, 50, 25, 12, 6, or 3 repeats of single spike pairings. Unexpectedly, we found that just six spike pairings with 1:1 stimulation delivered at a frequency of 0.5 Hz were sufficient to induce robust potentiation of EPSP slopes to 154.5% ± 8.2% at 30 min after induction. The t-LTP magnitude was similar to the respective magnitude of t-LTP induced with either 25 or 70 repeats and significantly different from negative controls (25 x: 145.4% ± 9.1% and 70 x: 166.9% ± 11.8; ANOVA $F_{(4,114)}$=4,8562 p=0.0012, posthoc Dunnet's Test: 70 x: p=0.0089; 25 x: p=0.0326, 6 x: p=0.0017, Fig 1A). Stimulation protocols consisting of 6, 25 and 70 repeats produced slightly stronger effects than 12 or 50 x stimulations (50 x: 137.5 ± 12.1% and 12 x: 146.1 ± 14.8%). However also t-LTP with 12 and 50 repeats showed significant potentiation (50 x: 1-sample t-test $t_{(13)}$=3.092 p= 0.0086); 12 x: (1-sample t-test $t_{(4)}$=3.350 p=0.0286). STDP experiments performed with 3 x 1:1 stimulation at 0.5 Hz, showed only a very slight average increase of EPSP slopes to 104.6 ± 22.5% 30 min after induction that was highly variable between cells. The average value was not significantly different from the respective EPSP slopes observed after 40 min in control neurons that were not subjected to STDP stimulation (negative controls (0:0): 105.0% ± 6.5%; Fig 1A). The time course of synaptic strength in an individual cell that was potentiated with the low repeat 1:1 protocol is depicted at the right side in blue. These data indicate that t-LTP can be induced at SC-CA1 synapses with low repeat t-LTP paradigms (i.e. 6 x 1:1), that might more closely resemble the natural pattern of pre- and postsynaptic activity that can be observed during memory formation in CA1 *in vivo* than any high frequency or high repeat LTP protocol.

Figure 1: Low repeat t-LTP at Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses is dependent on stimulation pattern and on the repeat number. A) 1:1 t-LTP protocol consisting of the temporal coincident stimulation of an EPSP and one postsynaptic action potential (AP) with a time delay of +10 ms. Summary plot showing the average magnitude of t-LTP (EPSP slope normalized to baseline recording) in response to variable numbers of repeats of the 1:1 t-LTP protocol delivered at 0.5 Hz. Successful t-LTP could be induced with 6 (n= 56 / N= 44), 25 (n= 25 / N= 6) and 70 (n=10 /N=7) repeats of the 1:1 t-LTP protocol. Three repeats did not cause any changes in synaptic strength (n=7 / N=6), and showed similar normalized EPSP slopes as negative controls (0:0; n=23 / N=17). Right: original EPSPs and time course of 6 x 1:1 induced potentiation recorded in an individual representative cell example of a single STDP experiment performed for 6x 1:1 stimulation. **B)** 1:4 t-LTP protocol consisting of the temporal coincident stimulation of an EPSP and four postsynaptic action potentials (APs) with a time delay of +10 ms. Summary plot showing the average magnitude of t-LTP (EPSP slope normalized to baseline recording) in response to variable numbers of repeats of the 1:4 t-LTP protocol delivered at 0.5 Hz. Successful t-LTP could be induced with 3 (n=10 /N= 3), 6 (n=10 / N=6) and 35 (n=10 / N=8) repeats of the 1:4 t-LTP protocol. Two repeats did not cause changes in synaptic strength (n=10 /N =3) and showed similar normalized EPSP slopes as negative controls (0:0; n=8 / N=3). Right: original EPSPs and time course of 6 x 1:4 induced potentiation recorded in an individual representative cell. Averaged traces for EPSPs before and after LTP induction are shown as insets. * p < 0.05 ANOVA posthoc Dunnet's test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Since it has been suggested, that successful induction of t-LTP at SC-CA1 synapses requires firing of multiple postsynaptic APs (35, 36), we incorporated a postsynaptic burst (4 APs delivered at 200 Hz) into the 6 x 1:1 protocol (Fig 1B). This protocol is referred to as 6 x 1EPSP/4AP (or 6 x 1:4, Fig 1B) paradigm and induced t-LTP at SC-CA1 synapses with the same efficiency as the 6 x 1:1 protocol (compare Fig 2C). As for the canonical protocol, we determined the threshold number of repeats also for the burst

protocol. As shown in Figure 1B, successful 1:4 t-LTP could be induced by only three repeats of our burst

protocol. Three, 6 and 35 repeats of 1:4 stimulation all yielded significant potentiation compared to the

negative control (0 x repeats; ANOVA $F_{(4,42)}$=9.3654 p<0.0001, posthoc Dunnett's Test: 3 x: p=0.0017; 6

x: p<0.0001; 35 x: 0.0415). The time course of change in synaptic strength of a typical cell obtained with

6 x 1:4 t-LTP stimulation is shown on the right. For further comparison and analysis of signaling and

expression mechanisms of t-LTP we focused in all subsequent experiments on the 6 repeat protocols

that induced with the same number of repeats successful t-LTP for both, the canonical and the burst

paradigm (indicated as 6 x 1:1 or 6 x 1:4).

Canonical and burst containing low-repeat STDP paradigms induce Hebbian t-LTP

When spike pairings were delivered with longer time delays between pre- and postsynaptic firing (Δt:

+20 ms) the magnitude of t-LTP declined (6 x 1:1: 132.1% ± 17.5% and 6 x 1:4: 118.3% ± 9.8). Stimulation

with short negative time delays (post-pre; Δt: -15 ms) did neither induce t-LTP nor significant t-LTD (6 x

1:1: 86.9% ± 9.6%; 6 x 1:4: 106.5 ± 10.5%; Fig 2A & B).

Figure 2: Comparison of canonical and burst low repeat STDP paradigms. STDP plots for 6 x 1:1 (**A**, blue)

and 6 x 1:4 (**B**, red) protocols. Changes in synaptic strength are shown for different intervals between

start of the EPSP and postsynaptic APs. Groups of cells at +10 ms interval (standard), with longer time

interval (+25 ms) or with negative spike pairings (-15 ms) are shown. Each open circle represents the

result for an individual CA1 neuron. Mean values are shown as closed circles. **C)** The time courses of t-

LTP expression do not differ between 6 x 1:1 (n= 56 / N= 44) and 6 x 1:4 (n= 34 / N= 27) paradigms, but

they were significantly different from negative controls (0:0; n= 23 / N= 17) and unpaired controls (6 x

0:4; n= 9 / N= 7). The average magnitude of t-LTP is shown in the bar graphs. **D)** Extended measurements

for 1 hour after t-LTP induction for both low repeat STDP protocols (6 x 1:1: n=6 / N=6, 6 x 1:4: n=9 /

N=8). Data are shown as mean ± SEM, bar scales are shown in the insets.

In general, the magnitude of t-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:4 stimulation (159.6% ± 8.0%) was comparable

to that observed for 6 x 1:1 stimulation (154.5% ± 8.2%; p > 0.05, compare Fig 2C). Eliciting only

postsynaptic bursts without pairing to presynaptic stimulation (6 x 0:4; 110.1 ± 11.9%) was not

significantly different from negative controls (0:0; 105.0% ± 6.5%, p > 0.05; Fig 2C). Importantly, these

results indicate that repeated postsynaptic burst firing alone does not induce any change in synaptic

strength. Prolonged patch clamp recordings carried out for 1 hour after pairing showed that both low

repeat STDP paradigms yielded at 60 min comparable t-LTP magnitudes as observed 30 min after

pairing. These data demonstrate that both low-repeat protocols enable longer lasting changes in

synaptic transmission without any decline in magnitude. Moreover, the overall time course of the

potentiation was indistinguishable for both types of low repeat t-LTP (Fig 2D). Together, these findings

indicate that the low repeat STDP paradigms identified in this study induce Hebbian plasticity selectively

at short positive spike timings with similar properties as has been described in earlier studies using high

repeat canonical and burst type STDP (e.g., 1, 30, 31).

In the next series of experiments, we determined the mechanisms of induction and expression as well

as the intracellular signaling cascades involved in modulation of both types of low repeat t-LTP.

Influence of single and multiple postsynaptic action potentials on t-LTP expression

To investigate whether the low repeat STDP paradigms introduced here, rely on pre- or postsynaptic

expression mechanisms of synaptic plasticity, we determined changes in the paired pulse ratio (PPR)

before and 30 min after t-LTP induction that was obtained when two successively evoked EPSPs were

elicited at 50 ms inter-stimulus interval (Fig. 3A). Commonly, a decrease in PPR after induction of LTP is

interpreted as an increase in transmitter release probability and would be expected in case of

presynaptically expressed synaptic plasticity. Interestingly, when t-LTP was induced with the 6 x 1:1

paradigm we found a significant increase rather than a decrease in PPR (paired Student's t-test, $t_{(28)}$

=5.026; p<0.001), whereas the PPR remained unchanged after inducing 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (paired Student's

t-test, $t_{(26)}$ = 1.066; p = 0.2960; Fig 3A). This strong increase in PPR after induction of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP does

not directly hint at a presynaptic expression mechanism. However, it could be argued that the rise in

PPR under these conditions is due to an increase in the number of new effective release sites (i.e.

presynaptic unsilencing) with relatively low release probability. When determining PPR after induction

of t-LTP this would result in a small EPSP in response to the first pulse that becomes much larger in

response to the second PPR stimulus (see 37, 38). Accordingly, the data shown in Figure 3A might still

be consistent with presynaptic expression of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP. In contrast, the PPR analysis clearly speaks

against any presynaptic contribution in the expression of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP. Interestingly, the initial PPR

before inducing t-LTP was not significantly different between the tested groups (negative control (0:0):

1.77 ± 0.09; 6 x 1:1: 1.78 ± 0.08; 6 x 1:4: 1.74 ± 0.06; Kruskal-Wallis test, $H_{(2)}$ = 0.059; p = 0.9710),

indicating that the initial release probability was similar and a stable basal parameter in our slices.

Figure 3: Different loci of expression for t-LTP induced by the low repeat 1:1 and 1:4 paradigms. A)

Paired pulse ratio (PPR) calculated before (pre-cond.) and after (post-cond.) t-LTP induction, or at the

beginning and the end of measurements in negative controls (0:0: n=18/N= 16; 6 x 1:1: n=29/N= 24; 6

x 1:4: n=31/N=23 animals). B) Right: original traces of AMPAR mediated currents recorded in voltage

clamp at -70 mV holding potential (Vm) and NMDAR (gray) mediated currents at -20 mV holding

potential. Left: ratio of AMPA/NMDA receptor mediated currents (AMPAR: peak current at -70 mV;

NMDAR: current amplitude 50 ms after start of EPSC, recorded at -20 mV) for negative controls (0:0;

n=12 / N= 9) and after induction of t-LTP with both low repeat paradigms (6 x 1:1: n= 12 / N=11; 6 x 1:4:

n= 7 / N= 5). C) Intracellular application of Pep1-TGL (inhibiting membrane insertion of GluA containing

AMPARs) blocks 6 x 1:4 t-LTP, whereas 6 x 1:1 t-LTP remains intact (6 x 1:1: ACSF; n= 12 / N= 10, Pep1-

TGL n= 9 / N= 7 and 6 x 1:4: ACSF n= 11 / N= 11, Pep-TGL n= 9 / N= 7). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Scale bars are shown in the figures.

To further address the locus of expression of 6 x 1:1 and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP, we analyzed the changes in

AMPA/NMDA receptor (R) mediated current ratios 30 min after inducing t-LTP. This analysis revealed a

strong and statistically significant increase in AMPAR vs. NMDAR-mediated excitatory postsynaptic

currents (EPSCs) following the induction of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP but not when inducing 6 x 1:1 t-LTP, or in non-

STDP stimulated control cells (ANOVA $F_{(2, 34)}$ = 7.979; p = 0.0014, Fig 3B). Since an increase in

AMPAR/NMDAR mediated currents after inducing LTP is commonly explained by the insertion of new

GluA1 containing AMPARs into the postsynaptic spine (30, 39-41) these data strongly suggest a

postsynaptic mechanism of expression selectively for the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP.

As the next step, we asked whether this postsynaptic mechanism is driven specifically by incorporation

of GluA1 containing AMPARs. To investigate whether 6 x 1:4 stimulation leads to the insertion of GluA1

containing AMPARs, we loaded the postsynaptic cells with Pep1-TGL via the patch pipette solution and

induced t-LTP with both 6 repeat t-LTP paradigms (compare 30). Pep1-TGL contains the last three amino

acids of the C-terminus of the GluA1 subunit, which are required for its insertion into the plasma

membrane (42, 43). The postsynaptic application of Pep1-TGL resulted in a complete block of 6 x 1:4 t-

LTP (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 14.0; p = 0.007). In contrast, t-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:1 protocol

remained intact under the same recording conditions (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 36.0; p =0.201, Fig

3C). Together with the PPR analysis and the AMPA/NMDAR ratios, these data suggest a prevailing

presynaptic locus of expression for the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP, and a dominant postsynaptic locus of expression

for the 6 x 1:4 stimulation induced synaptic plasticity. These findings are consistent with our previous

results obtained with high repeat t-LTP protocols (30). The data suggest that the number of postsynaptic

spikes fired during induction of low repeat t-LTP decides whether associative Hebbian synaptic plasticity

is expressed by pre- or by postsynaptic mechanisms, whereas the locus of t-LTP expression does not

seem to depend on the number of repeats of a specific t-LTP paradigm.

Distinct calcium sources are recruited for induction of low repeat STDP paradigms

There is a general consensus that induction of long-lasting changes in synaptic strength at SC-CA1

synapses requires a postsynaptic rise in intracellular calcium concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) via NMDA receptors

(NMDARs, 44). Likewise, also intracellular Ca^{2+} elevation resulting from synchronous activation of

NMDARs, voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels (VGCC), and release of Ca^{2+} from internal stores, together with

activation of metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) might be responsible for postsynaptic STDP

induction (45). Accordingly, we investigated the sources for the intracellular Ca^{2+} elevation triggering

the 6 x 1:1 and 1:4 t-LTP. Interestingly, the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP was significantly impaired when it was executed

either in the presence of the specific NMDAR antagonist APV (50 µM; unpaired Student's t-test, $t_{(26)}$ =

2.348; p = 0.0268 ; Fig 4A), or in the presence of the L-type VGCC blocker Nifedipine (25 µM; unpaired

Student's t-test, $t_{(14)}$ = 4.25; p = 0.0008; Fig 4C). In contrast, neither APV (50 µM, unpaired Student's t-

test, $t_{(22)}$ = 1.016; p = 0.3207; Fig 4B) nor Nifedipine (25 µM, Mann-Whitney U test, U = 20.0; p =0.6620,

Fig 4D) inhibited t-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:4 protocol. These data indicate that postsynaptic Ca^{2+} influx

via NMDAR and VGCC is required for 6 x 1:1 but not for 6 x 1:4 t-LTP induction.

Figure 4: Contribution of NMDA receptors and VGCCs to the induction of 6 x 1:1 and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP. Effects

of bath applied NMDAR antagonist APV (50 µM) and L-type voltage-gated calcium channel (VGCC)

inhibitor Nifedipine (25 µM) on low repeat t-LTP. Inhibition of either NMDAR or VGCC activation

completely blocked 6 x 1:1 t-LTP (**A)** 6 x 1:1: ACSF n=14 / N=8, APV n= 13 / N= 12 and **C)** DMSO control

n= 8 / N=7, Nifedipine n=8 / N=7), whereas 6 x 1:4 t-LTP remained unaffected (**B)** 6 x 1:4: ACSF n=10 /

N=6, APV n=14 / N=9; **D)** DMSO n=8 / N=4, Nifedipine n=6 / N=4). Average time course of potentiation

and mean (± SEM) magnitude of t-LTP are shown for the respective experiments.

To verify a role of postsynaptic Ca^{2+} signaling in the induction of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP, we loaded postsynaptic

neurons with 10 mM of the Ca^{2+} chelator BAPTA via the patch pipette solution (Fig 5A). After obtaining

the whole cell configuration, the BAPTA containing internal solution was allowed to equilibrate for 30

min before t-LTP induction. As shown in figure 5A, buffering of intracellular Ca^{2+} signals in this way

resulted in a complete impairment of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 3.0; p =0.0303), indicating

that a rise in postsynaptic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is indeed required also for the induction of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP.

Figure 5: Contribution of group I mGluR and ryanodine receptor-dependent calcium release from

internal stores to 6 x 1:4 t-LTP. A) Inclusion of 10 mM BAPTA in the intracellular solution prevented t-

LTP induced by 6 x 1:4 stimulation (Control: n=5 / N=5, $BAPTA_i$: n=6 / N=4), indicating the necessity of

postsynaptic calcium elevation to induce t-LTP. **B)** T-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:4 protocol was neither

affected by bath application of the mGluR1 antagonist YM-298198 (1 µM; ACSF: n=7 / N=5, YM-298198:

n=6 / N=3), nor by the mGluR5 antagonist MPEP (10 µM, n=6 / N=4). **C)** However, co-application of both

antagonists (YM-298198 and MPEP; ACSF n=12 / N=8, YM-MPEP n=12 / N=5) significantly reduced

synaptic potentiation. **D)** Wash in of 100 µM ryanodine into the postsynaptic neuron via the patch

pipette inhibited t-LTP induced by 6 x 1:4 stimulation (DMSO n= 9 / N= 4; Ryanodine n= 14 / N= 5).

Average time course of potentiation and mean (± SEM) magnitude of t-LTP are shown for the respective

experiments.

Since induction of t-LTP involves repeated glutamate release that should contribute to the induction

process, we next tested the involvement of metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) in 6 x 1:4 t-LTP.

In the hippocampal CA1 region $mGluR_1$ and $mGluR_5$ are widely expressed and have been reported to

facilitate Ca^{2+} release from internal calcium sources during LTP (e.g., 5, 46, 47). Nevertheless, blocking

mGluR activation by bath application of antagonists of either $mGluR_1$ (YM198298, 10 µM) or $mGluR_5$

(MPEP, 10 µM) alone, did not affect the magnitude of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP compared to ACSF controls (Kruskal-

Wallis test, $H_{(2)} = 0.2774$; p =0.8705; Fig 5B). However, coapplication of the $mGluR_1$ and $mGluR_5$

antagonists significantly impaired the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (unpaired Student's t-test, $t_{(22)} = 2.248$; p= 0.0093;

Fig 5C), indicating that the activation of one of these receptors alone (either $mGluR_1$ or $mGluR_5$) is

sufficient and required to support 6 x 1:4 t-LTP.

To test for involvement of internal Ca^{2+} stores in the low repeat burst protocol, we applied 100 µM

ryanodine (a concentration known to irreversibly inhibit RyR; 48) via the patch pipette into the recorded

postsynaptic neurons. As expected in case of RyR involvement, 6 x 1:4 t-LTP induction was completely

inhibited under these conditions (Mann-Whitney U test, U= 5.5; p = 0.0003; Fig 5D). These data indicate

that Ca^{2+} release from the ER is a critical component of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP. Thus, the postsynaptic Ca^{2+}

elevation required for induction of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP seems to involve $mGluR_1$ or $mGluR_5$ mediated release

of Ca^{2+} from the ER via IP3 receptors and subsequent Ca^{2+} induced Ca^{2+} release via RyRs.

Distinct dopaminergic modulation of different low repeat t-LTP protocols at Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses

Dopamine (DA) serves as an important neuromodulator in learning and memory formation, as well in synaptic plasticity mechanisms underlying both phenomena. DA receptors in the brain are classified into two main families: D1-like receptors that include D1 and D5, and D2-like receptors that include D2, D3 and D4 (49). It has been shown that activation of D1/D5 receptors has a particularly strong influence on synaptic efficacy (e.g., 50, 51), and that treatment of cultured hippocampal neurons with exogenous DA (20 µM) reduces the induction threshold for t-LTP from 60 to 10 spike pairings (32). To examine whether in our case, endogenous DA signaling is an essential component of synaptic mechanisms triggering low repeat t-LTP, we investigated the effect of specific bath applied antagonists for D1-like and D2-like DA receptors (D1: SCH23390 (SCH), 10 µM; D2: Sulpiride (Sulp), 10 µM). We found that t-LTP induced with 6 x 1:1 stimulation was blocked completely when SCH23390 and Sulpiride were coapplied (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H_{(3)}$ = 14.28; p = 0.003), whereas application of either the D1-like or the D2-like receptor antagonist alone did not significantly reduce the magnitude of the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP (Fig 6A). In contrast, the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP was dependent exclusively on D2-like receptor signaling, as was evident from complete inhibition of this burst t-LTP in the presence of Sulpiride (significantly different from ACSF controls; Kruskal-Wallis test $H_{(3)}$ = 12.65; p = 0.005, Fig 6B), whereas SCH23390 was without effect.

Figure 6: Differential modulation of canonical and burst low repeat t-LTP by dopaminergic signaling. A) Dependence of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP on D1 and D2 receptor signaling. Neither bath application of SCH23390 (SCH, D1-like antagonist; 10 µM) nor bath application of Sulpiride (Sulp, D2-like antagonist; 10 µM) alone impaired t-LTP (ACSF: n=12 / N=9; SCH23390 n=9 / N=6; Sulpiride n=10 / N=8). However, co-application of both antagonists significantly reduced t-LTP (SCH + Sulp n=9 / N=4). **B)** T-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:4 protocol was impaired in the presence of Sulpiride, but not further reduced by co-application with SCH23390. Accordingly, application of SCH23390 alone did not affect 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (ACSF: n=9 / N=6; SCH23390 n=10 / N=5; Sulpiride n=11 / N=8; SCH + Sulp n=7 / N=4). **C)** T-LTP induced with the high repeat (70 x) 1:1 protocol was inhibited in the presence of the D1 receptor antagonist SCH23390 (10

μM) in mouse slices (ACSF n=10 / N=8; SCH23390 n=14 / N=5) to a similar extent as observed previously

in rat hippocampal slices (Edelmann and Lessmann, 2011). Average time course of potentiation and

mean (± SEM) magnitude of t-LTP are shown for the respective experiments.

Together, these data indicate that 6 x 1:1 t-LTP depends on D1/D2 receptor co-signaling whereas 6 x

1:4 t-LTP is only dependent on D2 receptors, highlighting an important role of D2 receptors in both types

of t-LTP. This is at variance with the fact that most previous studies investigating DA-dependent LTP at

SC-CA1 synapses reported an eminent role of D1-like receptors (e.g., 51, 52). A similar role for D1

receptor signaling was also described for for high repeat (70 x) canonical t-LTP in rat hippocampal slices

(22, 23). To clarify whether repeat number or species matter for the contribution of D1 and D2 receptors

in t-LTP, we re-examined DA dependence of high repeat 70 x 1:1 t-LTP in mouse hippocampal slices. We

found that also in mouse slices 70 x 1:1 t-LTP was fully blocked by bath application of the D1 antagonist

SCH23390 (unpaired Student's t-test, $t_{(22)}$ = 3.028; p= 0.0062; Fig 6C). These data reveal that high repeat

number induced t-LTP is regulated by D1 signaling whereas D2 signaling is selectively involved in low

repeat t-LTP. Further, the extent of D2 receptor involvement in low repeat t-LTP is regulated by the

postsynaptic spike pattern used for t-LTP induction.

The role of BDNF/TrkB signaling in low repeat t-LTP induced by canonical or burst protocols

We recently showed for SC-CA1 synapses that brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) induced

tropomyosin related kinase B (TrkB) signaling mediates t-LTP elicited by a 1:4 t-LTP paradigm with 25

repeats at 0.5 Hz. This t-LTP is driven by an autocrine postsynaptic BDNF/TrkB mechanism that relies on

postsynaptic insertion of new AMPA receptors (30). To investigate the role of BDNF/TrkB signaling in

synaptic plasticity processes induced with low repeat t-LTP protocols, we first tested whether bath

application of the non-selective tyrosine kinase inhibitor K252a has an effect on low repeat t-LTP. In the

presence of 200 nM K252a, a concentration that is commonly used to block Trk receptor signaling, 6 x

1:1 t-LTP was inhibited (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 37.0; p = 0.0306), whereas K252a had no effect on 6

x 1:4 t-LTP (Mann-Whitney U test, U = 19.0; p = 0.9433; Fig 7A). To address whether release of

endogenous BDNF might be involved in low repeat t-LTP, we next tested our low repeat t-LTP protocols

in slices obtained from heterozygous BDNF knockout (BDNF$^{+/-}$) mice which express ~50% of BDNF

protein levels compared to WT littermates (e.g., 53, 54; Fig7B). Our results show that both types of low

repeat t-LTP remained functional in response to this chronic depletion of BDNF (6 x 1:1 t-LTP: Mann-

Whitney U test, U = 25.0; p = 0.7789; and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP: Mann-Whitney U test, U = 14.0; p = 0.5887, Fig

7B). Finally, to examine whether acute inhibition of BDNF/TrkB signaling affects low repeat t-LTP, we

asked whether scavenging of BDNF by bath applied TrkB receptor bodies (human TrkB-Fc chimera, TrkB-

Fc) impairs canonical or burst low repeat t-LTP (Fig 7C). However scavenging of BDNF had no effect on

the magnitude of t-LTP induced by either of the two protocols (6 x 1:1 t-LTP: Mann-Whitney U test, U =

13.0; p = 0.0939 and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP: Mann-Whitney U test, U = 22.0; p = 0.8048, Fig 7C).

Figure 7: BDNF induced TrkB receptor signaling is not required for t-LTP elicited by low repeat t-LTP

protocols. A) The 6 x 1:1 t-LTP was inhibited by bath application of the tyrosine kinase inhibitor K252a

(200 nM; left), while t-LTP induced with the 6 x 1:4 paradigm (right) remained unaffected (6 x 1:1: DMSO

n=14 / N=10, K252a n=10 / N=7; 6 x 1:4: DMSO n=5 / N=4, K252a n=9 / N=6). **B)** Low repeat t-LTP was

not different for 6 x 1:1 (left) and 6 x 1:4 (right) stimulation in heterozygous BDNF knockout animals ($^{+/-}$)

compared to wild type litter mates (6 x 1:1: +/+ n 7 / N=6, +/- n=8 / N=7; 6 x 1:4: +/+ n=6 / N=5, +/- n=6

/ N=5). **C)** Bath application of the BDNF scavenger TrkB-Fc (100 ng/ml; 3h preincubation) did not affect

t-LTP in response to the two low repeat protocols (left: 6 x 1:1: ACSF n=7 / N=5, TrkB-Fc n=6 / N=6; right:

6 x 1:4: ACSF n=7 / N=5, TrkB-Fc n= 7 / N= 6). Average time course of potentiation and mean (± SEM)

magnitude of t-LTP are shown for the respective experiments.

Together these data suggest that 6 x 1:4 t-LTP is independent from BDNF induced TrkB signaling, and

that the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP might involve TrkB receptor signaling, but is clearly not dependent on

endogenously released BDNF. In conjunction with our previous observation that 25 x 1:4 t-LTP is

dependent on release of endogenous BDNF (compare 30) the present data suggest that a higher

number (>6) of postsynaptic bursts in the t-LTP protocol is required to activate BDNF secretion. It could

be argued, that inhibition of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP in the presence of K252a results from a block of TrkB receptor

transactivation, which is stimulated by zinc influx through NMDA receptors (compare 55, but see 56,

57). However, when Zn^{2+} influx was blocked in the presence of the bath applied zinc chelator TPEN (10

µM), the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP was still functional (6 x 1:1: DMSO: 173.7 ± 24.8; TPEN: 208.7 ± 35.6; Mann-

Whitney U test, U = 22.0; p =0.5358).

Overall these experiments show that BDNF induced TrkB receptor signaling is not involved in either of

the two low repeat t-LTP protocols in investigated here.

The role of GluA2-lacking, calcium-permeable AMPA receptors in low repeat t-LTP

Recently, the transient incorporation of GluA2-lacking, Ca^{2+} permeable (cp-) AMPARs after LTP induction

has been proposed as an important process to increase postsynaptic Ca^{2+} for LTP expression (58-60,

reviewed in 61). To examine whether these receptors are involved in low repeat t-LTP, we incubated

our recorded hippocampal slices with the selective cp-AMPAR inhibitor NASPM (100 µM). Interestingly,

6 x 1:1 t-LTP and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP were both completely blocked in the presence of NASPM (6 x 1:1: unpaired

Student's t-test, $t_{(12)}$ = 3.257; p= 0.0069; 6 x 1:4: unpaired Student's t-test, $t_{(11)}$ = 3.330; p= 0.0067, Fig

8A & B). Surprisingly, these results indicate that the influx of Ca^{2+} via GluA2-lacking, cp-AMPARs is

mandatory to elicit low-repeat t-LTP induction.

Figure 8: Ca^{2+} influx via GluA2-lacking calcium-permeable AMPARs is required for low-repeat t-LTP

induction. Bath application of a selective inhibitor of Ca^{2+} permeable AMPARs (100 µM NASPM) blocks

6 x 1:1 t-LTP (**A**) as well as 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (**B**; 6 x 1:1: ACSF n=7 / N=4, NASPM n=7 / N=3; 6 x 1:4: ACSF n=

6 / N=4, NASPM n=7 / N=3). Average time course of potentiation and mean (± SEM) magnitude of t-LTP

are shown for the respective experiments. **C)** Successful induction of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP and subsequent 6 x

1:4 t-LTP in the same cells (n=6 / N=3). Note the absence of any signs of occlusion between t-LTP induced

by the two low repeat protocols.

In light of the many differences in the induction, expression mechanisms, and dopaminergic modulation

of the canonical 6 x 1:1 t-LTP and the 6 x 1:4 burst t-LTP we asked whether both types of t-LTP can be

elicited completely independent from one another or if they occlude each other. To this aim, we first

induced 6 x 1:1 t-LTP followed in the same cells by a subsequently induced 6 x 1:4 t-LTP. As shown in

figure 8C, both types of t-LTP could be activated independently without any signs of occlusion. Given

the strong differences in the induction processes and the presynaptic expression of 6 x 1:1 vs.

postsynaptic expression of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP, this absence of occlusion was an expected finding. However,

this result corroborates the independence of the two different types of low repeat t-LTP investigated

here.

The scheme presented in figure 9 summarizes our findings for the presynaptically expressed 6 x 1:1 t-

LTP and the postsynaptically expressed 6 x 1:4 t-LTP and suggest the putative roles of mGluRs, cp-

AMPARs, dopamine signaling, and internal Ca^{2+} stores in low repeat t-LTP. However, since the

distribution of dopaminergic fibers and the pre- and/or postsynaptic dopamine receptor localization in

the CA1 region and is not yet clear (compare 25), further experiments are clearly required to improve

the mechanistic understanding of this aspect of low repeat t-LTP. None withstanding, both low repeat

t-LTP forms are already by now clearly distinguishable. Their different features of induction and

expression mechanisms and the distinct signaling cascades they employ likely form the basis for the

versatile computing capacity of individual neurons.

Figure 9: Suggested cellular signaling mechanisms involved in low repeat t-LTP at Schaffer collateral-CA1

synapses. Summary of induction, signaling, and expression mechanisms involved in low repeat canonical

(i.e. 6 x 1:1 t-LTP) and burst (i.e. 6 x 1:4) t-LTP protocols in CA1 pyramidal neurons. **A)** Synaptic

mechanisms involved in the presynaptically expressed 6 x 1:1 t-LTP. T-LTP induction depends on

postsynaptic NMDAR and L-type VGCC mediated Ca^{2+} influx (1.). Insertion of cp-AMPARs into the

postsynaptic membrane might be regulated by D1/D2 signaling (2.) and could account for the combined

D1/D2 receptor dependence of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP. Ongoing low frequency test stimulation after induction of

t-LTP leads to sustained Ca^{2+} elevations through postsynaptic cp-AMPARs (3.). The resulting prolonged

postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation leads via a yet unidentified retrograde messenger to increased presynaptic

efficacy (4.). An additional presynaptic contribution of D1/D2 signaling to enhanced presynaptic

glutamatergic function is possible. **B)** The postsynaptically expressed 6 x 1:4 t-LTP does neither require

postsynaptic NMDAR nor L-type VGCC activation for induction. It rather depends on calcium release

from postsynaptic internal stores mediated by $mGluR_{1,5}$-dependent activation of IP3 receptors in the ER

(1.). This initial postsynaptic Ca^{2+} rise is amplified by Ca^{2+} dependent Ca^{2+} release via Ryanodine

receptors (RyRs; 2.). Moreover, the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP depends (like 6 x 1:1 t-LTP) on the activation of cp-

AMPARs. Intact D2 receptor signaling is mandatory to observe 6 x 1:4 t-LTP and might be involved in

recruiting cp-AMPARs to the postsynaptic membrane (3.) for sustained Ca^{2+} influx during ongoing low

frequency synaptic stimulation after t-LTP induction (4.). The resulting prolonged postsynaptic Ca^{2+}

elevation initiated by mGluRs, RyRs, and cp-AMPARs leads to postsynaptic expression of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP by

insertion of new GluA1 and GluA2-containing AMPARs into the postsynaptic membrane (5.)

Discussion

Our study shows that t-LTP at hippocampal SC-CA1 synapses requires only six repeats of coincident presynaptic stimulation paired with either 1 or 4 postsynaptic spikes at low frequency (0.5 Hz). For the 1:4 burst protocol, even just three repeats are sufficient to elicit t-LTP. The 6 x 1:1 t-LTP could be induced by Ca^{2+} influx via postsynaptic NMDARs and VGCCs, occurred independent of BDNF release, and required combined D1/D2 receptor signaling. In contrast, the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP was induced by postsynaptic Ca^{2+} release from internal stores mediated via mGluRs and ryanodine receptors, occurred independent from BDNF/TrkB signaling, and was completely inhibited in the presence of D2 receptor antagonists. Both, low repeat canonical and burst t-LTP, strongly depended on activation of GluA2-lacking cp-AMPARs. These data suggest that low repeat STDP paradigms with potentially high physiological relevance can induce equally robust t-LTP as observed for high repeat t-LTP in the hippocampus. However, the pharmacological profile of low repeat t-LTP induction and expression revealed astonishingly subtle differences between both induction protocols.

Dependence of t-LTP on repeat number and frequency of the STDP stimulation

Both 6 x t-LTP protocols used in our study yielded robust t-LTP with similar time courses as described previously for standard STDP paradigms that used either higher number of pairings or higher pairing frequency (compare e.g., 20, 30, 45, 62, 63-65). To date, only few studies focused on STDP protocols with low numbers of repeats for t-LTP induction (discussed in 17, 31, 32, 34). Since only such low repeat t-LTP protocols can be completed within a few seconds, these protocols are likely to represent a very physiological model for synaptic plasticity events triggering learning and memory processes that can also occur on a timescale of seconds. Thus, investigating the underlying signaling mechanisms appears to be relevant for learning induced synaptic changes *in vivo*. Similar to the results of Froemke and colleagues (31) for layer 2/3 cortical neurons, we observed no significant difference in the magnitude of 1:1 t-LTP between the threshold repeat number (i.e., 6 repeats at 0.5 Hz) and higher repeat numbers at hippocampal Schaffer collateral (SC)–CA1 synapses (25 and 70 repeats; compare Fig 1A). As for the canonical protocol, we also determined the threshold for successful t-LTP induction also for the burst

protocol (compare Fig 1B). The observed shift of the threshold repeat number to lower values (3 instead

of 6 repeats for successful t-LTP induction) for the burst protocol speaks in favor of facilitated

postsynaptic induction by the spike train instead of single spikes used by the 1:1 protocol. Although 35

repeats of the burst protocol showed a tendency towards reduced magnitude of t-LTP, the efficacy of

3, 6 and 35 repeats of 1:4 t-LTP were not significantly different. Together these data suggest that

depending on the exact pattern (e.g., 1:1 vs. 1:4 paradigm) used for t-LTP induction distinct thresholds

for the successful number of repeats can be observed.

In cultured hippocampal neurons, Zhang and colleagues (32) showed that more than 10 repeats of their

1:1 STDP protocol were necessary to induce t-LTP. However, bath application of dopamine facilitated t-

LTP induction and reduced the number of pairings that were required at a given frequency to

successfully induce t-LTP (32). Since primary cultures of dissociated hippocampal neurons develop

synaptic connections in the absence of dopaminergic inputs, the role of endogenous DA can be

investigated only if t-LTP is recorded in acutely isolated hippocampal slices as performed here.

Interestingly, our data show that both low repeat t-LTP variants tested here are blocked when signaling

of endogenously released DA is inhibited (Fig 6). Our results are in line with the previously described

effects of exogenously added DA on t-LTP in hippocampal cultures (32). The release of endogenous DA

in our slices (22, 23) is therefore likely to account for the low number of repeats required for successful

induction of t-LTP in our study. Whether this effect is due to acute release of DA from axon terminals

elicited via the extracellular co-stimulation of dopaminergic afferents during t-LTP induction and test

stimulation or rather depends on ambient levels of DA in the slices remains to be determined.

Regarding the magnitude of t-LTP induced by low repeat canonical and burst protocols we, found that

both, 6 x 1:1 and 6 x 1:4 t-LTP, were equally successful to induce t-LTP at positive spike timings (Fig 2C).

Because it is reasonable to assume that 1:4 burst protocols induce longer lasting and stronger Ca^{2+}

elevations than 1:1 pairings, it might be expected that the time course of synaptic potentiation could

differ between the two protocols. However, both protocols induced t-LTP with similar onsets and rise

times of potentiation and also resulted in indistinguishable magnitudes of t-LTP after 1 h recording

(compare Fig 2D). Thus, except for the lower threshold number of repeats to elicit t-LTP (see last

paragraph), the burst protocol does not seem to be more effective in inducing t-LTP at SC-CA1 synapses

than the canonical protocol.

We also compared different spike timings (with negative and positive delays), to compare the full

capacity to induce bidirectional plasticity with low repeat protocols (Fig 2A, B). For positive pairings with

Δt: +25 ms we observed a similar decline (compared to Δt: +10 ms) in t-LTP magnitude as described

previously for higher numbers of repeats (compare 1, 30). When applying negative pairings (i.e. post

before pre pairings) t-LTP was absent, but we did not observe robust t-LTD for either of the two

protocols. While these results stress that successful induction of t-LTP is critically dependent on the

sequence of presynaptic and postsynaptic spiking, future studies should address under which conditions

low repeat t-LTD can be induced by anti-causal synaptic activation.

Mechanisms of expression of low repeat t-LTP

Despite the similarities described above, both low repeat protocols recruited different expression

mechanisms. Synaptic potentiation induced with the 6 x 1:1 protocol is most likely expressed by

presynaptic alterations (see below), whereas the 6 x 1:4 protocol relies on postsynaptic insertion of

AMPA receptors (Fig. 3). Commonly, LTP at SC-CA1 synapses that is induced by high-frequency

stimulation and is also thought to be expressed by a postsynaptic increase in AMPA receptor mediated

currents (66, 67). For STDP, however, different mechanisms of expression have been described that

varied between brain regions and depending on experimental conditions (see e.g., Costa et al., 2016).

Even at a given type of synapse (i.e. hippocampal SC-CA1) t-LTP can be expressed either pre- or

postsynaptically (30). At this synapse, the expression mechanism of LTP seemed to be encoded by the

pairing pattern used for STDP. While t-LTP induced by 70 x 1:1 stimulation was expressed via increased

presynaptic glutamate release, a 35 x 1:4 t-LTP was expressed via insertion of additional AMPARs by a

GluA1-dependent mechanism (30). However, in this previous study, we used different numbers of

repeats for the two t-LTP protocols (i.e. 20-35 x 1:4 and 70-100 x 1:1) to keep postsynaptic activity at an

equivalent level. Those previous results do not allow to distinguish whether repeat number or

stimulation pattern determined the site of t-LTP expression. With help of our current experiments using

fixed numbers of repeats for both protocols, we could now determine that the pattern of postsynaptic

spiking and not the repeat number influences the expression locus for t-LTP (compare Fig 3).

For the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP, the absence of an increase in AMPAR mediated currents (Pep1-TGL experiments;

Fig 5) and the observed increase in paired pulse ratio (PPR) after successful LTP induction, are consistent

with presynaptic unsilencing of glutamatergic synapses with low release probability. In contrast, other

presynaptic mechanisms leading to more efficient glutamate release at successfully conducting (i.e. with

EPSPs) synapses already before induction of LTP (18, 68, 69) are at variance with our PPR data (Fig 3A),

because then we should have observed a decrease rather than an increase in paired pulse facilitation

after t-LTP expression. Interestingly, judged by the PPR data, low and high repeat 1:1 t-LTP (compare

30) seem to recruit different presynaptic mechanisms for t-LTP expression. Thus, 6 x 1:1 t-LTP seems to

depend on presynaptic unsilencing, whereas 70 – 100 x 1:1 t-LTP leads to an increase in

neurotransmitter release (30). Regarding the retrograde messenger required for both types of 1:1 t-LTP

our data indicate that neither NO nor endocannabinoids are involved in the presynaptic expression (data

not shown). However, further investigating the underlying presynaptic mechanisms of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP was

beyond the scope of the current study. The six repeat version of our burst t-LTP protocol (6 x 1:4) seems

to follow the suggested classical model of SC–CA1 LTP with postsynaptic expression via insertion of new

AMPARs and absence of significant changes in paired pulse facilitation as previously described for high

repeat burst t-LTP (30). Furthermore, our experiments with Pep1-TGL clearly demonstrate the

importance of GluA1 containing AMPARs in expression of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (Fig 3C).

Dependence of low repeat t-LTP induction on different sources for postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation

Induction of t-LTP with low repeat STDP protocols as a model to investigate physiologically relevant

synaptic plasticity mechanisms has just started. Accordingly, to date the contribution of different

sources of Ca^{2+} to its induction is unknown. Unexpectedly, our experiments revealed distinctly different

routes for postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation for the low repeat 1:1 and 1:4 protocol to induce t-LTP.

The results for the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP are in accordance with previous studies showing that t-LTP as well as

classical high frequency stimulation induced LTP at glutamatergic synapses rely on Ca^{2+} influx via

postsynaptic NMDA receptors (2). For STDP, NMDARs are thought to serve as coincidence detectors of

timed pre- and postsynaptic activation (e.g., 1, 30, 70, 71). Depending on the level of postsynaptic Ca^{2+}

that is reached during induction, separate signaling cascades leading to either LTP or LTD are activated

(cited in 13, 72, 73). For t-LTD, alternative mechanisms for coincidence detection have been described

(74, 75). Instead of NMDAR-mediated Ca^{2+} influx, these studies reported that either mGluRs, VGCCs or

IP3 gated internal Ca^{2+} stores can trigger the induction of LTD. As for LTD, also for LTP, additional

coincidence detectors and Ca^{2+} sources might be involved in its induction (5, VGCC: 76, IP3-sensitive

stores: 77, 78-80). In accordance with these previous studies, we found that 6 x 1:1 t-LTP can in addition

to NMDARs also be induced by Ca^{2+} entry through L-type VGCCs (Fig 4A, C).

In contrast to these conventional Ca^{2+} sources for the canonical low repeat t-LTP, the situation is much

different for 6 x 1:4 burst t-LTP. Although a requirement for postsynaptic Ca^{2+} elevation is clearly evident

from the BAPTA experiments (Fig 5A), Ca^{2+} entry via NMDARs or VGCCs was not involved (compare Fig

4B, D). Rather, our results demonstrated that the initial postsynaptic Ca^{2+} rise required for this atypical

form of hebbian plasticity involved group I mGluRs, RyRs and GluA2-lacking Ca^{2+}-permeable AMPAR

activation (compare Figs 5 and 8). Our observation that RyR-dependent Ca^{2+} release from internal stores

triggers 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (compare Fig 5D) suggests a role of this Ca^{2+} release pathway during induction of

this type of t-LTP. However, while RyRs can efficiently amplify an initially much smaller rise of

intracellular Ca^{2+} levels, they have not been described to be directly activated by a plasma membrane

resident receptor in neurons. Since neither NMDA receptors nor L-type VGCCs were involved in the

induction of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (Fig 4), the initial rise in postsynaptic Ca^{2+} levels is most likely mediated by

either Ca^{2+} influx through GluA2 subunit deficient Ca^{2+}-permeable AMPA receptors (cp-AMPARs) into

the postsynaptic cell (81) or driven by activation of mGluRs (82). This is evident from our experiments

performed in the presence of the mGluR antagonists and the antagonist of Ca^{2+} permeable AMPARs

NASPM, which both completely inhibited 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (group I mGluR: Fig 5B, C, cp-AMPAR: Fig 8B, for

discussion of cp-AMPAR, see below).

Group I metabotropic GluR have indeed been described previously to be involved in some types of

hippocampal LTP (5), while our present results show for the first time their involvement in STDP.

Altogether it seems plausible that 6 x 1:4 stimulation first activates $mGluR_{1,5}$ receptors, which

subsequently trigger IP_3- mediated calcium release from internal stores (83). The resulting calcium rise

and additional Ca^{2+} influx via cp-AMPARs might than be strengthened by additional RyR mediated

calcium induced Ca^{2+} release to successfully boost low repeat induced burst t-LTP (compare Fig 9).

Regulation of low repeat t-LTP by dopamine receptor signaling

The accurate timing of pre- and postsynaptic activity is necessary for hebbian plasticity. In addition,

neuromodulator signaling critically regulates the efficacy of STDP protocols to elicit t-LTP (e.g., 17, 20,

21, 22, 25, 30, 32, 33, 65, 84). Since high repeat STDP in the hippocampus is regulated by dopamine (DA,

e.g., 23), we also investigated DAergic modulation of our two low repeat STDP variants (compare Fig 6).

While both low repeat t-LTP protocols were dependent on endogenous DA signaling, the

pharmacological profile for them was quite different. The 6 x 1:4 t-LTP was completely dependent on

intact D2 receptor signaling, but independent from D1 receptor signaling. This result can be easily

reconciled with pure D2 receptor dependent signaling being responsible for induction of the 6 x 1:4 t-

LTP (compare Fig 6B). However, the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP remained functional when either D1-like or D2-like

dopamine receptor signaling was intact. Although inhibition of D2 receptors by Sulpiride had a tendency

to reduce the magnitude of the 1:1 t-LTP, this effect did not reach statistical significance. Moreover,

while the D1 receptor inhibitor SCH23390 alone did not show any signs of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP inhibition, it was

nevertheless able to impair the slightly reduced t-LTP in the presence of Sulpiride down to control levels,

when both antagonists were co-applied (Fig 6A). The interpretation of this pharmacological profile of 6

x 1:1 t-LTP needs to take into consideration that D1-like and D2-like receptors do not signal exclusively

via altering cAMP levels (cAMP increase via D1-like receptors - or decreased via D2-like receptors; 85).

Rather, D5 receptors and heterodimeric D1/D2 receptors can also activate cAMP-independent PLC

pathways stimulating in turn IP_3/Ca^{2+}, DAG/PKC signaling, or MAPK signaling downstream of D1 receptor

activation and Akt kinase signaling. Also direct modulation of NMDARs and VGCCs in response to D2R

activation is possible (86). Although it is clear that D1-like and D2-like receptors are expressed in

hippocampal pyramidal neurons (86), their presence on pre- and/or postsynaptic membranes is not well

characterized. Consequently, the question whether the combined D1/D2 receptors dependence of the

1:1 t-LTP reflects rather the activation of D1/D2 heteromeric receptors, or distinct pre- vs. postsynaptic

expression and signaling of D1 and D2 receptors at SC-CA1 synapses needs to be addressed by future

experiments.

To interpret the combined regulation of the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP by D1 and D2 receptors it also needs to be

taken into consideration that D2-like receptors are generally believed to display a higher affinity for DA

compared to D1-like receptors (86). Therefore, the complex D1- and D2 receptor-dependent regulation

of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP might assure that this type of t-LTP is on the one hand regulated by the presence of DA,

but on the other hand remains intact at high and low DA concentrations. On the same vein, this co-

regulation could assure that slowly rising ambient DA levels created by tonic firing of DAergic neurons

are equally effective in regulating 6 x 1:1 t-LTP as much faster rising DA concentrations during phasic

firing.

Such a change in DA release was indeed shown in recordings of midbrain neurons, where activity of

DAergic neurons switches from tonic to phasic burst activity resulting in locally distinct levels of secreted

DA in the target regions (87). Local DA concentration differences can then result in different DA-

dependent effects, with high affinity D2-like receptors being activated by low and slowly rising

extracellular DA levels, while low affinity D1 receptors are only activated by local DA peaks.

For our STDP experiments where DAergic input fibers are most likely co-activated during SC stimulation,

we observed similar activity-dependent recruitment of different DA receptors. While D1 receptor-

dependent effects were activated by 70-100 stimulations (22 and compare Fig 6C), D1/D2 receptors or

pure D2 receptor mediated processes were already activated by six presynaptic co-stimulations of

DAergic fibers (compare Fig 6). Taking into account that D2-like receptors (i.e. D2, D3 and D4 receptors)

are classically thought to inhibit LTP by decreasing cAMP/PKA signaling (88, 89), D2-like receptor driven

t-LTP processes might indeed be activated by $G_{\beta\gamma}$ signaling independent of cAMP pathways. As

mentioned above, $G_{\beta\gamma}$ signaling also blocks L-type and N-type VGCCs (85) and D2 receptor signaling can

yield Ca^{2+} release from internal stores - two mechanisms that might account for the uncommon type of

calcium source required for the induction of our 6 x 1:4 t-LTP (compare Figs 4 and 5).

Dependence of low repeat t-LTP on BDNF/TrkB signaling

Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) is well known for its important role in mediating long-lasting

changes of synaptic plasticity (reviewed in e.g., 16, 90, 91, 92). Moreover, BDNF is also involved in

regulating STDP (28-30). For hippocampal SC-CA1 synapses it was shown that BDNF is secreted from

postsynaptic CA1 neurons in response to 20-35 repeats of a 1:4 STDP protocol mediating

postsynaptically expressed t-LTP via postsynaptic TrkB receptor activation (30). Interestingly, the results

of the present study revealed, that neither of the two low repeat t-LTP variants depends on BDNF

induced TrkB signaling (compare Fig 7). This finding was not unexpected since release of endogenous

BDNF has been reported previously to require more prolonged barrages of AP firing than just 6 repeats

of short AP (burst) firing at 0.5 Hz (compare 29, 30, 93). Nevertheless, the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP was significantly

inhibited in the presence of the Trk kinase inhibitor K252a. The mode of application and the K252a

concentration used in these experiments has been shown previously to selectively interfere with Trk

tyrosine kinase function in neurons (see e.g., 19, 30, 94). Therefore, the most straight forward

interpretation of the K252a-dependent inhibition of the 6 x 1:1 t-LTP is that transactivation of TrkB

receptors - independent of BDNF - might be involved in this type of low repeat t-LTP. In fact, such a

transactivation by dopamine has been reported previously for striatal neurons (95). Likewise,

transactivation of TrkB receptors was also reported for other G-protein coupled receptors mediating

adenosine or PACAP signaling (96). At hippocampal mossy fiber synapses zinc influx through NMDA

receptors has been shown to mediate activation of Src family kinases causing subsequent TrkB

activation (55, but see 56, 57). Additional experiments are clearly required to clarify the possible role of

transactivation routes of TrkB receptors in low repeat t-LTP.

Function of GluA2-lacking Ca^{2+} permeable AMPA receptors in low repeat t-LTP

Interestingly, both variants of low repeat t-LTP were strictly dependent on activation of GluA2-lacking

calcium-permeable (cp-)AMPA receptors (Fig 8). In these experiments, NASPM was present in the ACSF

from the start of the recording to assure complete inhibition of cp-AMPARs during t-LTP induction. In

CA1 neurons, cp-AMPARs were described to be absent from postsynaptic membranes during basal

synaptic stimulation. Rather, they were reported to transiently insert into the postsynaptic membrane

after tetanic LTP stimulation to allow sustained Ca^{2+} influx into the postsynaptic neuron after LTP

induction, thereby facilitating expression of late LTP (reviewed in 61). A role of cp-AMPARs in STDP has

thus far not been reported. Additional experiments will be required to determine the time course of

activity-dependent cp-AMPAR incorporation during induction of low repeat t-LTP into the postsynaptic

membrane. Furthermore, it needs to be determined how cp-AMPAR mediated Ca^{2+} influx is

orchestrated with mGluR- and RyR-dependent Ca^{2+} elevation for induction of low repeat 6 x 1:4 t-LTP.

Likewise, the co-operation of cp-AMPARs with NMDAR- and VGCC-dependent Ca^{2+} elevations for

inducing 6 x 1:1 t-LTP needs to be investigated.

Alternatively, cp-AMPARs might be involved in DA-dependent priming of synapses for

delayed/retroactive reinforcement of LTP or silent eligibility traces (e.g., 97, 98-100). Such mechanisms

might also be involved in the signaling mechanisms employed by our low repeat t-LTP protocols (6 x 1:1

and 6 x 1:4), since both variants of t-LTP show a clear dependence on DA signaling and on cp-AMPARs

(compare Figs 6 and 8).

In summary, we used two different low repeat STDP protocols at SC-CA1 synapses to record synaptic

plasticity at the single cell level in postsynaptic CA1 neurons (i.e. t-LTP). We found that, dependent on

stimulation pattern and repeat number, distinct signaling and expression mechanisms are activated by

the canonical and the burst low repeat paradigm. From our experiments, we can conclude that even

with the same experimental setup, age and species, multiple types of synaptic plasticity mechanisms

can coexist at a given type of synapse. This plethora of coexisting plasticity mechanisms for

strengthening synaptic transmission seems to be ideally suited to empower the hippocampus to fulfill

its multiplexed functions in memory storage.

Material and Methods

Preparation of hippocampal slices

Horizontal hippocampal slices (350 μm thickness) were prepared from 4 weeks old male wild type

C57BL/6J (Charles River), BDNF$^{+/-}$ or littermate control mice (101; all animals bred on a C57Bl/6J

background), according to the ethical guidelines for the use of animal in experiments, and were carried

out in accordance with the European Committee Council Directive (2010/63/EU) and approved by the

local animal care committee (Landesverwaltungsamt Sachsen-Anhalt).

Briefly, mice were decapitated under deep anesthesia with forene (Isofluran CP, cp-pharma, Germany)

and the brain was rapidly dissected and transferred into ice-cold artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF)

cutting solution (125 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 0.8 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 25 mM NaHCO$_3$, 25 mM Glucose, 6 mM

MgCl$_2$, 1 mM CaCl$_2$; pH 7.4; 300-303 mOsmol/kg), saturated with 95% O$_2$ and 5% CO$_2$. Blocks from both

hemispheres containing the hippocampus and the entorhinal cortex were sectioned with a vibratome

(VT 1200 S, Leica, Germany). Slices were incubated for 35 min at 32°C in a handmade interface chamber

containing carboxygenated ACSF cutting solution and then transferred to room temperature (~21°C) for

at least 1 hour before the recording started. Whole cell patch-clamp recordings were performed in

submerged slices in a recording chamber with continuous perfusion (1-2 ml per min) of pre-warmed (30

± 0.2°C) carboxygenated physiological ACSF solution (125 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 0.8 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 25

mM NaHCO$_3$, 25 mM Glucose, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM CaCl$_2$; pH 7.4; 300-303 mOsmol/kg). For all

experiments, 100 μM Picrotoxin (GABA$_A$ blocker) was added to ACSF solution. Epileptiform activity by

activation of recurrent CA3 synapses was prevented by a cut between CA3 and CA1 subfields (compare

30). To reduce the amount of inhibitors in some of the experiments (e.g. application of NASPM) we used

a micro-perfusion pump-driven solution recycling system (Bioptechs Delta T Micro-Perfusion pump high

flow, ChromaPhor, Germany) to limit the volume of solution for incubation of slices (19). Respective

matched control experiments were performed under identical conditions to assure that the

microperfusion recycling of ACSF alone did not affect t-LTP.

Electrophysiological recordings

Whole cell patch-clamp recordings were performed on pyramidal neurons in the CA1 subregion of the

intermediate hippocampus under visual control with infrared DIC-videomicroscopy (RT-SE series;

Diagnostic instruments, Michigan, USA). The pipettes (resistance 5-7 MΩ) were filled with internal

solution containing (in mM): 10 HEPES, 20 KCl, 115 potassium gluconate, 0.00075 $CaCl_2$, 10 Na

phosphocreatine, 0.3 Na-GTP, and 4 Mg-ATP (pH 7.4, 285-290 mOsmol/kg). Cells were held at -70 mV

in current clamp or voltage clamp (liquid junction potential of +10 mV of internal solution was corrected)

with an EPC-8 patch clamp amplifier (HEKA, Lamprecht, Germany). Extracellular stimulation of the

Schaffer collateral (SC) fibers to generate an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP, at 0.05Hz) was

induced by glass stimulation electrodes (resistance 0.7 – 0.9 MΩ) positioned in Stratum radiatum (SR)

of the CA1 subregion. The stimulus intensity was adjusted to evoke responses with amplitudes of 4-5

mV corresponding to 30-50% of maximal EPSP amplitudes. Stimulus duration was set to 0.7 ms with

intensities ranging between 90 to 700 μA.

Induction of Spike timing-dependent plasticity

Spike timing-dependent plasticity (STDP) was induced by pairing of an individual EPSP, generated by

extracellular stimulation of SC, with a single action potential (AP) or with a burst of 4 APs (frequency 200

Hz) induced by somatic current injection (2 ms; 1 nA) through the recording electrode (30). Pairings of

postsynaptic EPSP and APs were usually performed with a time interval of +10 ms, and were repeated

2-70 times at a frequency of 0.5 Hz to elicit t-LTP. In some experiments, either longer time windows

(positive spike timings: Δt= 17-25 ms) were used to test t-LTP at longer Δt or short negative spike timings

($\Delta t = -15ms$) were used when trying to elicit t-LTD. EPSPs were monitored every 20 s (i.e., 0.05 Hz) for

10 min baseline and then 30 min or 60 min after t-LTP (or t-LTD) induction. Unpaired stimulation of 4

postsynaptic APs instead of a full STDP protocol were performed (i.e., 6x 0:4) in a subset of cells that

served as controls. In another set of cells, we assessed possible spontaneous changes in synaptic

transmission (stimulation at 0.05 Hz for 40 min) in the absence of any STDP stimulation. These

recordings served as negative controls (designated 0:0 controls).

To investigate whether a rise of postsynaptic Ca^{2+} concentration is required for induction of t-LTP under

our conditions, we applied the Ca^{2+} chelator BAPTA (10 mM, Sigma, Germany) via the patch pipette

solution in the recorded postsynaptic neuron. NMDA receptor (R) dependency was tested by application

of an NMDAR antagonist (APV 50 µM, DL-2-Amino-5-phosphonopentanoic acid, Tocris, Germany) in the

bath solution. The contribution of L-type voltage gated Ca^{2+} channel activation to t-LTP was evaluated

with bath applied Nifedipine (25 µM, Sigma, Germany). To interfere with group I metabotropic

glutamate receptor (mGluR) signaling we used bath application of either the $mGlu_1$ receptor antagonist

YM298198 (1 µM, Tocris, Germany) or the $mGluR_5$ receptor antagonist MPEP (10 µM, Tocris, Germany)

alone, or both blocker simultaneously. Intracellular infusion of ryanodine (100 µM, Tocris, Germany)

was used to block ryanodine receptors of internal calcium stores. To investigate the possible role of zinc-

dependent transactivation of TrkB we applied the cell-permeable zinc chelator TPEN (10 µM, Tocris,

Germany) in the bath solution during t-LTP induction with the 6 x 1:1 protocol. Where appropriate,

respective controls were performed with ACSF or internal solution containing the same final

concentration of DMSO as used for the drug containing solution (i.e. solvent controls).

We investigated dopaminergic neuromodulation of STDP by bath application of specific antagonists for

dopamine D1-like (SCH23390, SCH; 10 µM, Sigma) and dopamine D2-like receptors (Sulpiride, Sulp; 10

µM, Sigma). The contribution of BDNF/TrkB signaling was tested by bath application of either the

tyrosine kinase inhibitor K252a (200 nM, Alomone labs, Israel) or a scavenger of endogenous BDNF

(recombinant human TrkB Fc chimera, R&D Systems, Germany). For scavenging of BDNF, slices were

pre-incubated for at least 3h with 5µg/ml TrkB-Fc, and subsequent recordings were performed in the

presence of 100 ng/ml TrkB-Fc (compare 30). Positive controls were recorded in slices kept under the

same regime, but without the addition of TrkB-Fc. Matched controls for the K252a experiments were

performed in the presence of the vehicle (0.05% DMSO, vehicle control). To test low repeat t-LTP under

conditions of chronic 50% BDNF reduction, we used heterozygous BDNF $^{+/-}$ mice and respective wildtype

littermates as described previously (30).

The contribution of activity-dependent incorporation of GluA1 subunit containing AMPA receptors to

expression of low repeat t-LTP was verified by postsynaptic application of Pep1-TGL (100 µM, Tocris,

Germany) via the patch pipette solution. To investigate a possible role of GluA2 lacking calcium

permeable (cp-) AMPA receptors, we use bath applied NASPM (1-Naphtyl acetyl spermine

trihydrochloride, 100 µM, Tocris, Germany).

Data acquisition and Data Analysis

Data were filtered at 3 kHz using a patch clamp amplifier (EPC-8, HEKA, Germany) connected to a LiH8+8

interface and digitized at 10 kHz using PATCHMASTER software (HEKA, Germany). Data analysis was

performed with Fitmaster software (HEKA, Germany). All experiments were performed in the current

clamp mode, except for paired pulse ratio (PPR) that was recorded in the voltage clamp mode at -70 mV

holding potential, and AMPA/NMDA receptor current ratios that were recorded in voltage clamp at -70

mV and -20 mV holding potential. Input resistance was monitored by hyperpolarizing current steps (250

ms; 20 pA), elicited prior to evoked EPSP responses. The average slope calculated from 10 min control

recording (baseline) were set to 100% and all subsequent EPSP slopes of a cell were expressed as

percentage of baseline slopes. Synaptic strength was calculated from the mean EPSP slopes 20-30 min

(or 50-60 min) after STDP induction, divided by the mean EPSP slope measured during 10 min before

STDP stimulation (baseline). Spike timing intervals (i.e. Δt, ms) were measured as the time between

onset of the evoked EPSP and the peak of the first action potential. Cells were only included for analysis

if the initial resting membrane potential (RMP) was between -55 and -70 mV. Cells were excluded when

the input resistance varied more than 25% over the entire experiment. Furthermore, traces showing

visible "run-up" or "run-down" during baseline recording were excluded.

AMPA/NMDA receptor mediated current ratios were calculated from the peak current amplitudes of

the fast AMPA receptor mediated components evoked at a holding potential of -70 mV divided by the

amplitudes of the NMDAR mediated slow current components measured after 50 ms of the onset of

the EPSCs at a holding potential of -20 mV. Selectivity of this procedure for AMPAR and NMDAR

mediated currents was confirmed by bath application of either 50 µM APV or 10 µM NBQX in some

experiments (compare 30).

For analysis of presynaptic short-term plasticity before and after t-LTP induction, paired pulse facilitation

was recorded in voltage clamp mode at a holding potential of -70 mV, and the paired pulse ratio (PPR)

was determined by dividing the peak current amplitudes of the second EPSC by the first EPSC at an inter-

stimulus interval of 50 ms.

To verify independent expression of the two low repeat paradigms, we performed an occlusion

approach. Here we subsequently activate first the 6 x 1:1 and 25 min later the 6 x 1:4 t-LTP in the same

cell and compared the change in synaptic strength by the two protocols.

Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 6.0 (GraphPad Software, USA) or JMP

8 (SAS Institute Inc., USA). Pooled data of experiments from at least three different animals are

expressed as mean ± SEM. Paired and unpaired two tailed t-tests were used for data with normal

distribution. Otherwise nonparametric Mann-Whitney U-test was applied. Multiple comparisons were

assessed with a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by a post hoc t-test Dunnet's test or

Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by post hoc Dunn's test for parametric and nonparametric data. A p-value

<0.05 was set as level of significance and is indicated by an asterisk. The actual statistic procedures used

for each experiment are mentioned in the text. The respective number of experiments (n) and the

number of animals (N) is reported in the figure legends.

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Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 1

Figure 1

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 2

Figure 2

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 3

Figure 3

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 4

Figure 4

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 5

Figure 5

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 6

Figure 6

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 7

Figure 7

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 8

Figure 8

A

Presynaptic site

Axon

Glu vesicles

Ca^{2+}

4.

Ca^{2+}

DA

Ca^{2+}

$\uparrow Ca^{2+}$

1.

3.

$\uparrow Ca^{2+}$

Postsynaptic site

DA

Dendrite

2.

Soma

presynaptic expression of 6 x 1:1 t-LTP

B

Presynaptic site

Axon

Glu vesicles

Ca^{2+}

DA

4.

$\uparrow Ca^{2+}$

5.

$\uparrow Ca^{2+}$

2.

DA

IP3

1.

Soma

3.

Ca^{2+}

2.

Ca^{2+}

Dendrite

postsynaptic expression of 6 x 1:4 t-LTP

NMDAR — Glutamate — IP3 receptor — G-protein — Endoplasmic reticulum

GluA1/2-containing AMPAR — Ryanodine receptor — Dopamine

GluA2-lacking AMPAR — VGCC (N and Q/P type) — Dopamine D1-like receptor

mGluR$_1$ — mGluR$_5$ — L-type VGCC — Dopamine D2-like receptor

Cepeda-Prado E *et al*, Figure 9

Figure 9