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Reciprocal amygdala-prefrontal interactions in learning

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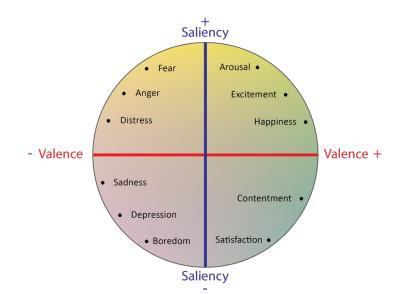
1 Abstract

2 Animals constantly evaluate their environment in order to avoid potential threats and obtain 3 rewards in the form of food, shelter and social interactions. In order to appropriately respond to 4 sensory cues from the environment, the brain needs to form and store multiple cue-outcome 5 associations. These can then be used to form predictions of the valence of sounds, smells and 6 other sensory inputs arising from the surroundings. However, these associations must be subject 7 to constant update, as the environment can rapidly change. Failing to adapt to such change can 8 be detrimental to survival. Several systems in the mammalian brain have evolved to perform 9 these important behavioral functions. Among these systems, the amygdala and prefrontal cortex 10 are prominent players. While the amygdala has been shown to form strong cue-outcome 11 associations, the prefrontal cortex is essential for modifying these associations through extinction 12 and reversal learning. Synaptic plasticity occurring in the strong reciprocal connections between 13 these structures is thought to underlie both adaptive and maladaptive learning. Here we review 14 the synaptic organization of the amygdala-prefrontal circuit, and summarize the physiological and 15 behavioral evidence for its involvement in appetitive and aversive learning.

16 Anatomy of the prefrontal-amygdala network

17 The amygdala is a region deep within the temporal lobe that constitutes a major information 18 crossroads. Amygdala neurons receive direct sensory input from all sensory modalities through 19 projections arising both from the sensory cortices and from thalamic sensory regions [1,2]. These 20 inputs provide the amygdala with access to fine-scale sensory information [3]. Another set of 21 important inputs to the amygdala arises from the hippocampal formation [2]. These inputs are 22 thought to deliver processed sensory information in the form of contextual representations, 23 supporting the integration of specific sensory cues with contextual information [4]. While the 24 sources of sensory cue-related information to the amygdala is well-described, less is known about 25 the circuits transmitting outcome-associated information. Amygdala responses to unexpected 26 aversive stimuli [5,6] are thought to be carried by a distributed set of circuits including the 27 periaqueductal gray [7], insular cortex [8] and habenula [9]. Together, these convergent inputs 28 support the formation of defined cue-outcome associations in the lateral area of the amygdala 29 [10].

30 In addition to these inputs, which provide it with sensory information at various degrees of 31 processing, the amygdala also receives "top-down" inputs from several different subregions of 32 the prefrontal cortex (PFC). The PFC plays a major role in the control of adaptive behavior and is 33 involved in a wide range of behavioral control processes, from working memory and decision 34 making to impulse control and emotional regulation. In primates, the PFC is highly-developed, 35 constituting a major fraction of the frontal cortex [11]. In rodents, the location of homologous 36 regions has been anatomically and functionally identified based on tracing, lesion studies and 37 pharmacological manipulations [12,13]. While the rodent PFC lacks a granular zone (which 38 encompasses the entire dorsolateral PFC in primates), its medial-wall regions are thought to 39 correspond to medial PFC structures in the primate: the prelimbic (PL) and infralimbic (IL) subregions of the rodent medial PFC (mPFC), are considered to be homologous in their connectivity 40 41 patterns and functional properties with the primate anterior cingulate and ventral medial 42 prefrontal cortex, respectively [12,14,15].



44

45 Figure 1. Modified from Russel (1980), this figure places representative affective states within a two 46 dimensional space defined by Valence (*X* axis) and Salience (*Y* axis).

47 The convergence of inputs from sensory, hippocampal and frontal regions allows the amygdala to 48 produce an integrated output that can be regarded as an "annotated" version of sensory inputs 49 from the animal's environment. Amygdala representations carry crucial information about the 50 degree of relevance of a stimulus to the animal, which can be regarded as its saliency, and about 51 its incentive value, or its valence [16,17]. These properties can be incorporated by the amygdala 52 into a meaningful signal transmitted to downstream circuits and used to guide behavior. Such 53 incorporated signals can be considered as including crucial characteristics of affective information 54 [18]. Although the definition of emotions and their roles in behavior have been under much 55 debate in the past century [19], one influential framework specifically highlights aspects related 56 to the information carried by the amygdala-mPFC network. This framework describes affect in a 57 two dimensional space, with arousal or saliency on one axis and valence on the other [18]. 58 Saliency and valence can be regarded as the two major defining features of sensory stimuli, and 59 are both features encoded by BLA and mPFC circuits (Fig. 1). By encoding these crucial variables, 60 the mPFC-BLA axis can serve as a major channel providing affective information to top down 61 control of adaptive, goal-directed behavior.

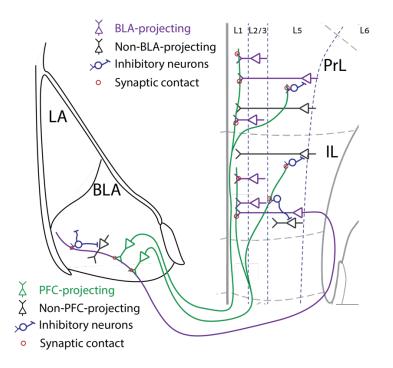




Figure 2. Reciprocal monosynaptic connectivity and local-circuit inhibition in the complex interplay between
 BLA and mPFC neurons. Excitatory projections from BLA pyramidal neurons drive both direct excitation and
 feed-forward inhibition in the different and functionally segregated mPFC subregions, with distinct
 populations of BLA neurons projecting to the infralimbic and prelimbic regions. Back-projections from the
 mPFC to the BLA follow similar logic with excitatory projections to BLA forming synaptic connections with
 higher probability onto mPFC-projecting neurons. Prelimbic (PL) and infralimbic (IL) depicted here, cingulate
 cortex not shown.

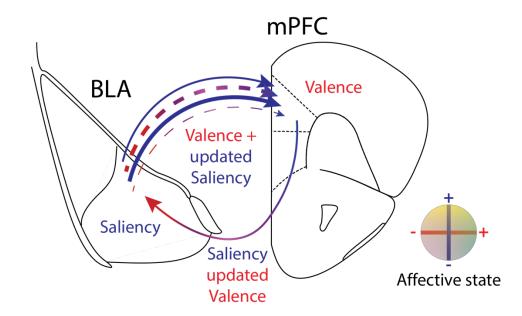
70

71 Fine-scale synaptic connectivity in the prefrontal-amygdala network

72 While forming one of the major neocortical inputs to the amygdala, the PFC is also one of its major 73 synaptic targets (Fig. 2). The basolateral nucleus of the amygdala (BLA) projects directly and forms 74 monosynaptic excitatory connections with several sub-regions of the mPFC [20,21]. In rodents, 75 the main targets of BLA input in the mPFC are the anterior cingulate (ACC), prelimbic (PL) and 76 infalimbic (IL) cortices [22-25]. In primates, similarly robust and bidirectional connections were 77 demonstrated between the amygdala and the medial pole of the prefrontal cortex, particularly in 78 the caudal medial and orbitofrontal regions (areas 24, 25 and 32) [26,27]. This strong reciprocal 79 connectivity suggests that information about learned associations is relayed from the BLA to the 80 mPFC, where it is processed and redirected back into the amygdala in a manner that supports 81 flexible responding to sensory cues. While the amygdala-mPFC network has been studied mostly in the context of regulating fear behaviors, it is also emerging as a key player in emotional
regulation in a wider variety of adaptive and maladaptive behaviors [28-33].

84 At the macroscopic level, the long-range projections from mPFC to BLA and from the BLA to mPFC 85 are anatomically dissociable [34]. Out of several main projection pathways leaving the BLA, the 86 projections targeting the mPFC travel mainly laterally through the external capsule and adjacent 87 deep cortical layers with minimal branching to additional targets along the pathway. The axons 88 then diverge medially into and around the rostral pole of the accumbens, traversing toward the 89 mPFC [34]. In the reciprocal direction, out of two descending pathways originating from the mPFC, 90 the vast majority of projections towards the amygdala travel medially towards the medial part of 91 the rostral-caudate putamen, branching from the bundle that crosses to the contralateral 92 hemisphere in the corpus callosum towards the internal capsule. At the level of the sublenticular 93 region, numerous fibers leave the internal capsule, diverge laterally across the sublenticular 94 region and enter the amygdala [34].

95 Within the mPFC, BLA inputs diverge and innervate mostly layers 2 and 5, targeting the dendritic 96 spines of post-synaptic pyramidal neurons, suggesting a direct feed-forward excitation of cells 97 with dendrites in those layers [35]. Strikingly, BLA inputs were shown to preferentially target 98 mPFC pyramidal cells projecting back to the BLA (Fig. 2; [36]), suggesting fine-scale recurrent 99 wiring within this network. This recurrence is mirrored within the BLA, with similar specificity in 100 the innervation of BLA cells projecting back to the mPFC [37]. However, despite this strong 101 feedforward excitation, BLA stimulation suppresses firing in the mPFC [38]. Recent work has 102 shown that this inhibition is mediated through excitation by BLA axons onto mPFC GABAergic 103 interneurons of the parvalbumin (PV) and somatostatin (SOM) subtypes (Fig. 2; [35,39] [40]). 104 Thus, BLA inputs to the mPFC can potentially both excite pyramidal neurons in this region and 105 alter local-circuit dynamics through feed-forward inhibition. A recent study has provided 106 fascinating insight into this local-circuit inhibition, demonstrating that a specific PV neuron 107 subtype comprised mainly of chandelier-type inhibitory interneurons forms specific synaptic 108 connections with layer 2 BLA-projecting pyramidal cells [41].



110

Figure 3: Schematic model of the propagation of information through the BLA-mPFC system in support of updating the valence and saliency of sensory stimuli during learning. The BLA signals the input's saliency to the mPFC where it is combined into an integrated saliency + valence signal which travels back to update the BLA representation, driving adaptive behavioral responses and regulating affective states.

115

116 Fear and anxiety

117 The functions of the amygdala nuclei have been extensively studied in the context of fear and anxiety [42-44]. The lateral amygdala (LA) has been shown to be crucial for the formation of 118 associations between aversive conditioned stimuli and unconditioned stimuli [45,46]. Newly-119 120 formed associations generated in the LA can control autonomic, reflexive fear behaviors through 121 the projections to the central nucleus, a key output of the amygdala to brainstem nuclei 122 controlling behavioral and visceral correlates of conditioned fear [10,47,48]. This associative fear 123 response is controlled by inputs the mPFC. Within the mPFC, the pre-limbic and infra-limbic 124 subregions were shown to play dissociable and often opposing roles in fear acquisition and 125 extinction [49] (for reviews see [48,50]). The aforementioned recurrent network allows the same 126 associations to modulate their own prefrontal top down control. It has been shown that the mPFC 127 neural response (both PL and IL) to a stimulus associated with an emotionally salient event such 128 as a foot shock highly depends on input from the BLA [51]. Directionality of information transfer 129 between BLA and mPFC seems to play an important role in both fear and safety[52]. In primates 130 it has been shown that adaptive-aversive learning depends on unsigned prediction error signal

131 developing in the amygdala transmitted to the ACC where a signed prediction error develops to 132 guide learning [6,53]. However, the exact nature of the information carried by this network is still 133 under debate. A recent study demonstrated that BLA neurons projecting to the PL and IL are 134 differentially activated during fear and extinction learning, respectively [54]. This could imply that 135 amygdala processing could not only provide the mPFC with information of relevant salient cues, 136 but also bias mPFC output based on the antagonistic roles of PL and IL in fear expression. A more 137 recent study provided support to a more general model in which fear-related information from 138 the amygdala targets both PL and IL, while local-circuit processing combined with information 139 from other nodes of the fear circuit transform this information to allow the differential 140 contribution of these two regions to fear and extinction learning [55]. That is, while saliency is 141 computed in the amygdala and introduced to the mPFC, the direction of behavioral control due 142 to relevance or valence depends on information flow through the recurrent BLA-mPFC network. 143 Information is subscribed through the differential connectivity of the BLA to the local circuitry 144 within the mPFC. This process could potentially create a signal which encodes both saliency and 145 valence in both the BLA and the mPFC and allow this integrated signal to modify the behavioral 146 output through the BLA (Fig. 3).

147 Action control

148 Performance in various decision making tasks is thought to depend on two different behavioral 149 control mechanisms, mostly related to the amount of training in the task. Restricted training leads 150 to action control that is mediated by the association of the response to its outcome in a goal-151 directed manner. In contrast, prolonged training leads to action control through stimulus-152 response associations that are insensitive to the outcome, and therefore more habitual in nature 153 [56,57]. Habit formation allows fast and efficient responding to pre-specified stimuli, while 154 changes in circumstances call for re-evaluation and hence require the flexibility that characterizes 155 the goal-directed behavioral control systems. Goal directed behavior is controlled by 156 consequences, while habitual behavior is guided primarily through sensory stimuli activating a 157 pre-programed behavior [58]. The ability to switch between these two control strategies is 158 essential for adaptive behavior, and failure to do so was suggested to lie at the root of pathologies 159 such as obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD), obesity and addiction [59-63]. Mirroring their roles 160 in fear learning and extinction, the PL and the IL have been suggested to exert opposing effects 161 on habitual and goal directed behavior [58]. Whereas the PL supports goal-directed behavior [64,65], the IL has been shown to be involved in habitual behavior [66,67]. As mentioned before,
both subregions are highly innervated and influenced by BLA inputs. In fact it was shown that
mPFC output to the ventral striatum, during responding to a conditioned cue, is highly influenced
by BLA activation [68]. That same influence is how BLA projections to the mPFC affects drug
seeking behavior [32]. However, more work will be needed to delineate the interactions of the
BLA and mPFC in the formation and extinction of habitual behavior.

168 Differential involvement of BLA to mPFC projections in aversive and appetitive learning

169 The potential role of the BLA-mPFC circuit in routing emotional information during learning is 170 especially evident in its differential contribution to appetitive and aversive learning. Two distinct 171 spatially segregated populations of projection neurons were identified in the BLA which 172 participate in valence-specific behaviors. These neurons seem to differentially target mPFC 173 subregions, such that negative valence neurons project more densely to superficial layers in PL 174 while the positive valence-encoding neurons more densely innervate deep-layer IL targets [69]. 175 This corresponds with findings of the differential roles of the PL and IL in aversive [49] and 176 appetitive behaviors [66]. This study implies a hard-wired system whereby amygdala neurons 177 control both the valence and vigor of behavioral control exerted by the mPFC, where both saliency 178 and valence are encoded in the amygdala and projected onwards. However, other evidence 179 indicates that amygdala neurons included in fear memory engrams are not pre-defined, but rather 180 result from a competitive process in which excitability dictates the recruitment of BLA neurons 181 fear representations [70,71]. Indeed, a more recent work found that activating BLA to PL 182 projections biases behavior towards defensive behavior (response to aversion) and that PL-183 projecting BLA cells were mainly active when responding to aversive rather than appetitive 184 stimuli. However, some PL projecting BLA cells responded to appetitive stimuli and cross 185 correlation analysis indicated inhibitory interactions between BLA and PL neurons during 186 appetitive learning [72]. This could indicate a more nuanced picture, where BLA input widely 187 targets the mPFC circuit, but local circuit interactions, driven through complex connectivity 188 patterns described above (Fig. 2) is required in order to yield appropriate behavioral responses. 189 Our recent work showing a reduction in response to aversive stimulus, when the BLA to both PL 190 or IL projections are attenuated [55] is in line with this hypothesis, but more work is required to 191 understand the detailed connectivity patterns and how individual circuit motifs are recruited 192 during defined behavioral states.

194 Summary

In this review, we summarize the anatomical, electrophysiological and behavioral evidence for the organization and functional roles of reciprocal BLA-mPFC interactions in appetitive and aversive learning. While the BLA is crucial for the formation of cue-outcome associations and for updating their value, the mPFC is required for the formation of adaptive, flexible behavioral responses. The tightly recurrent circuit linking the BLA and mPFC circuits might serve to continually update and refine both the saliency and valence of sensory stimuli in support of adaptive goal-directed behavior and regulation of affective states.

202

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