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	Unravelling the neural substrates of behavior has made possible to dissociate a high level representation system dedicated to the build-up and storage of a world model, and an implementation system for decision, strategic choices, and sequential behavior. In most ecological situations, particularly in the animal kingdom, a tight functional association between the two blurs their boundaries. Nevertheless, some specific situations like sleep, memory consolidation, planning, or conversely habit performance tax specifically one of the two systems. Within the paradigm of spatial-temporal learning and navigation are presented the contributions of the main structures of the representation system such as hippocampus, entorhinal, prefrontal and parietal cortices; and of the implementation system, the cortical-striatal loops in particular, monitoring the transition between goal-oriented controlled behavior and automatic habit. The electrophysiological and behavioral results of a continuous navigation task which taxes both systems, as well as goal- oriented and habit spatial-temporal strategies are presented.					
Keywords (separated by "-")	Hippocampus - Entor Associative-cognitive oriented behavior - Ha	hinal - Prefrontal - Parietal cortices; limbic - - Sensori-motor cortico-striatal loops - Goal- abit				

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Abstract Unravelling the neural substrates of behavior has made possible to 5 dissociate a high level representation system dedicated to the build-up and storage 6 of a world model, and an implementation system for decision, strategic choices, 7 and sequential behavior. In most ecological situations, particularly in the animal 8 kingdom, a tight functional association between the two blurs their boundaries. 9 Nevertheless, some specific situations like sleep, memory consolidation, planning, 10 or conversely habit performance tax specifically one of the two systems.

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Keywords Hippocampus • Entorhinal • Prefrontal • Parietal cortices; limbic • 19 Associative-cognitive • Sensori-motor cortico-striatal loops • Goal-oriented 20 behavior • Habit 21

Stimulus-response and Tolman cognitive theories which issued from the splitting of ²² Behaviorism in early twentieth century, still provide surprisingly relevant accounts ²³ of behavior, as well as a useful framework for unravelling its neural bases. Indeed, ²⁴ cognitivist theory introduces the concepts of representation, and goal-oriented ²⁵ behavior, while S-R paradigm may include habits as a repetition-related end product ²⁶ of the previous mode. ²⁷

The outstanding progresses in identifying the neural components of behaviour ²⁸ allow to recognize a representation system, comprising in particular medial ²⁹

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prefrontal (mPFC), entorhinal (EC) and posterior parietal (PP) cortices, 30 hippocampus (HS), and amygdala, in direct hold with an implementation system 31 made essentially of cortical-striatal-thalamic loops and cerebellum. 32

Early hierarchical models of information processing make a distinction between ³³ the subcortical structures responsible for automatic behavior and the cortical ³⁴ structures that allow representations of event-relationship and value responsible for ³⁵ purposive behavior. The cortical/subcortical hierarchy is supplemented by an intracortical hierarchy, which dissociates the posterior sensory areas and the anterior ³⁷ associative areas, such as the prefrontal cortex. ³⁸

After fronto-striatal loops discovery, cortico-subcortical relationships are often ³⁹ described as segregated, parallel networks (limbic, associative-cognitive, sensori- ⁴⁰ motor) [1]. This description, very different from the aforementioned hierarchical ⁴¹ organization of behavioral and cognitive processes, emphasizes a tight 'vertical' ⁴² relationship between cortical and subcortical components within distinct, indepen- ⁴³ dent, functional channels. ⁴⁴

Nevertheless, recent evidence of "spiraling" connections between components of 45 these loops, in particular between striatum and midbrain dopamine (DA) systems, 46 and between thalamic relay nuclei and cortex [2], suggests that the loops are not 47 as closed as originally thought, but also support unidirectional, antero-posterior 48 interactions and integration, supposing oriented transfer of activation and learning 49 between devoted channels. Whereas, in the early models, the frontal pole of 50 the brain, at the top of the hierarchy constitutes the endpoint of the long-range 51 forward cortical connections, the frontal-limbic-striatal system, in the fronto-striatal 52 loop model, is at the origin of a backward-oriented spiraling connectivity, and 53 information transfer. 54

In this context, while cortico-striatal implementation systems stand at the ⁵⁵ forefront of neurobiological research, and in particular modeling, the limbic representation system is often under-considered. Indeed, in many situations, this limbic ⁵⁷ part of the representation system plays a role in the preparation-for-action and ⁵⁸ behavior. Nevertheless, there are conditions where active behavior is not the purpose ⁵⁹ of representation processes. Furthermore, in a phylogenetic perspective, it could ⁶⁰ be proposed that the degree of independence between the representation and the ⁶¹ implementation systems stands as an index of 'encephalisation', in the animal ⁶² kingdom.

We first draw a sketch of the relations of key components of the representation ⁶⁴ and implementation systems, as well as their functional articulation. Then will be ⁶⁵ presented the results of an experimental paradigm, the continuous navigation task, ⁶⁶ where typically spatial and temporal representations are directly bound to action, ⁶⁷ but also where learning deeply modulates the functional implication of the different ⁶⁸ systems involved in the task. ⁶⁹

1 Representation System

As a prototypical exemplar of the representation system functions, spatio-temporal 71 encoding within archi-, meso- and neo-cortical structures will be considered. These 72 different levels lead to more abstract and complex representations, and eventually, 73 to cognitive maps. 74

The different stages of spatial representation are relatively well known, even 75 though their relations are not completely understood. Dorsomedial parts of the 76 entorhinal cortex (MEC) contain cells with multiple firing fields organized in a 77 regular grid-like structure of equilateral triangles, coextensive to the explored space 78 (Fig. 1). Grid fields with the same triangular geometry vary across different grid 79 cells, according to spatial frequency (field distance), orientation (tilt angle of the 80 map), and phase (field offset relative to an external reference) [3]. Because grid cells 81 patterns are relatively independent of the environment, and because a small number 82



of their firing patterns suffice to reconstruct animal's position during navigation, ⁸³ these EC patterns are thought to represent a universal metric of the environment, ⁸⁴ from which downstream hippocampal (Fig. 1) and cortical spatial representations ⁸⁵ are derived, even though some authors propose an alternative interpretation [4]. ⁸⁶

The properties of hippocampal place fields vary according to the exact location ⁸⁷ where place cells are recorded (i.e. dentate gyrus: DG, CA3, CA1). However ⁸⁸ place cells share the spatial specificity of their strongly location-related signal, ⁸⁹ and exquisite sensitivity to the environment and context, either spatial or temporal. ⁹⁰ Different models have mechanistically demonstrated how the combination of grid ⁹¹ cells with different spatial frequencies give rise to DG place fields of different ⁹² sizes [5, 6]. Further, in a entorhinal-hippocampal loop model [5, 7, 8], spatial ⁹³ and temporal representations combine in CA3 and CA1 to provide a dynamic ⁹⁴ representation of the animal's navigation, under the form of *transitions* from ⁹⁵ place to place, rather than pure locations, by associating allothetic and idiothetic ⁹⁶ information. Transitions form the building blocks for sequence and trajectory ⁹⁷ encoding.

Indeed, beyond the hippocampal stage, and in particular in deep MEC layers, 99 strict spatial specificity is lost, in favor of trajectory encoding. In particular, in 100 inverted W or in alternating T maze experiments, the firing field of EC pyramidal 101 cells expands to an entire maze arm (Fig. 2). A supra-ordinate factor, like heading 102 direction or path context could integrate successive firing fields in cells combining 103 place and direction or task information. 104

From HS, spatio-temporal information may be routed to the posterior parietal (PP) cortex through the retrosplenium. In PP neurons, the trajectory coding undergoes further abstraction, becoming trajectory, size and direction independent (Fig. 2); mapping the order of multiple navigational epochs in a route; integrating location and self-movement information.

The head direction system which pervades all these structures seems to provide 110 coherence between allo-centric and ego-centric representations.

Functional dissociation between representation and implementation systems can 112 result from at least two different rationales: the process has basically nothing to 113 do with action, like music listening, meditation in humans...; the process relates 114 to action, but the brain is in a memory or planning mode, and implementation is 115 not relevant, like in quiescent phases or sleep, in rodents; in this case, it seems 116 that two opposite modulations take place: first, activation of the cortical areas 117 where memories are recorded, and simultaneously inhibition of the subcortical 118 implementation systems. 119

2 Implementation Structures

The phylogenetic evolution of the distinct cortical structures (archi-, paleo-, meso-, 121 neo-cortex) takes place through the dual process of increased complexity (e.g., 122 number of layers) and inclusion of older structures into more recent ones. The same 123

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Fig. 2 Place fields in different anatomical structures: CA1, MEC, or Posterior Parietal cortex (PP) in different maze experiments. *Left*: discharge rate-maps for CA1/MEC neurons in rats performing a T-maze alternation task for right-to-left trials, to get reward at the white hole. *Right*: same rate-maps for outbound (CA1) and outbound (*upper plots*) and inbound (*lower plot*) (PP) traversal of a newly-learned path shown by *broken yellow lines*. For each of the two traversals the PP neuron discharges along each path's entire first segment and the final half of the last segment. While the spatial specificity of the place fields of CA1 place cells remains very strong whatever the geometry of the maze, this specificity is partly lost in MEC and furthermore in PP neurons, in favor of a more functional, task-related significance (Adapted from Eichenbaum et al. [9] and Nitz [10])

type of inclusion is found within ventral and dorsal (neo)striatum, through (older) 124 patch and (recent) matrix compartments, such that authors suppose that cortical 125 evolution may have influenced striatal evolution. This could account for the tight 126 functional links between the two structures. Indeed, there is an anatomic, hodologic, 127 and functional coherence between the different compartments, limbic, associativecognitive and sensori-motor, at all levels of the cortico-ganglio-basal loops: cortex, 129 striatum, thalamus. 130

Following the characterization of cortico-striato-thalamic loops [1], the functions 131 of the different striatal compartments have been progressively refined, particularly 132 in relation to reinforcement learning, pavlovian conditioning, and instrumental 133 conditioning in goal oriented behavior. Thus, the nucleus accumbens (ACu) has 134 been more particularly associated to Pavlovian conditioning and stimulus-outcome 135 (SO) association. The core is involved in preparatory CR and anticipatory approach; 136 core lesions impair drug-seeking behavior triggered by drug-associated reinforcers. 137 The shell mediates consummatory CRs and hedonic URs; its lesions preserve drugseeking acquisition. 139

Similarly, dorso-medial striatum (DMS), involved in instrumental conditioning, 140 during goal-oriented actions, plays a long-lasting role in the acquisition and expression of action-outcome (AO) learning, in clear contrast with the short-lived function 142 of the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) in the same conditions. It contributes to 143 the selection and learning of situations representing valuable parts of the task. The 144 dorsolateral striatum (DLS) transforms goal-oriented repetitive behaviors into habits 145 and skills, and contributes to learning behavioral sequences in general. 146

However, this view of dedicated functions of the striatal components of the loops 147 can only be partial if the spiraling connections between the different loops are not 148 taken into account [2]. Striatal neurons send direct inhibition to DA neurons from 149 which they receive projections, and also disinhibitory connections to DA neurons 150 projecting to the distinct next striatal area, allowing unidirectional activationpropagation from limbic to associative to motor loops (Fig. 3). A learned conditioned stimulus (CS) could simultaneously suppress a ventral tegmental area (VTA) 153 DA learning signal, and potentiate a substantia nigra compacta (SNc) DA signal in 154 the next cognitive loop. Thus, limbic striatal loops are in a position to control learning and processing within associative and sensori-motor cortico-striatal networks. 156

Pavlovian Instrumental Transfer (PIT) resorts to the same principle of learning- 157 transfer from one structure to the next: after separate learning of a classical 158 Pavlovian SO contingency, and of an instrumental AO contingency, with the same 159



Fig. 3 Spiraling connections between striatal regions and midbrain DA system. *Abbreviations: AC* Anterior cingulate, *DMS(DLS)* dorso-median (lateral) striatum, *IL(PL)* infralimbic (prelimbic), *mPFC* medial prefrontal cortex, *m(l)VTA* medial (lateral) ventral tegmental area, *v(d)SNC* ventral (dorsal) substantia nigra compacta (Adapted from Yin et al. [11])



outcome, the expression of the instrumental contingency is potentiated by the 160 concomitant presentation of the CS, but not the reverse. The integrity of both core 161 and shell is necessary for the expression of general and specific aspects of PIT, 162 respectively. 163

3 Experimental Results

In the continuous place-navigation task, the rat must reach an unmarked goal 165 location in an open arena with a single polarizing cue card. At this goal location, 166 it must stay immobile for a 2 s delay. A food pellet is then delivered by a food 167 dispenser above the arena. As it bounces when hitting the ground, it can end 168 anywhere in the arena. Therefore, the rat must explore the arena to find the food 169 pellet. 170

Despite its apparent simplicity, this paradigm combines two distinct instrumental 171 conditioning tasks: -goal-oriented navigation to the virtual goal zone, and -foraging 172 to find the food pellet; and also two variants of Pavlovian conditioning: -classical 173 (CS=click of food dispenser; US=food pellet); -secondary conditioning (CS=Goal 174 zone landmark configuration; US=Click). Therefore, all cortical and subcortical 175 areas presented in the branching tree describing learning and performance in general 176 (Fig. 4) should be concerned, if we suppose that goal navigation becomes an habit 177 after overtraining.



Fig. 4 The different types of behaviors and their interrelations are associated to the structures that support them. *Abbreviations: AO* action-outcome, *DLPFC* dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, *EC* entorhinal cortex, *OFC* orbitofrontal cortex, *PIT* pavlovian-instrumental transfer, *PPTN* pedonculo-pontine tegmental nucleus, *SMC*, sensori-motor cortex, *SR* stimulus-response

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Fig. 5 *Upper*: place fields in PL-IL neurons of mPFC (Hok et al. [12]); *-Lower left*: spatial activity of hippocampal CA1 place cells (Hok et al. [12]). *Circles* mark goal location and secondary fields; *Lower right*: cumulative PETHs for all recorded CA1 place cells at the goal

Most of these results challenge classical knowledge on navigation: First, PL/IL 179 rather than anterior cingulate neurons of mPFC have clear spatial correlates, in 180 particular at the goal and landing zones [12, 13] (Fig. 5). This is all the more 181 important that no spatial correlates were found in a simple foraging task [14]. 182

In HS, place fields were not overrepresented in the goal zone, as expected. Yet, 183 after overtraining, HS place cells presented, in addition to their location-specific 184 main place field, a weaker secondary field at the goal location as rats were waiting 185 for the required 2 s [13] (Fig. 5). 186

Third, HS secondary fields, as well as PL goal cell activity displayed a temporal 187 profile reaching a maximum just prior the end of the 2 s waiting period (Fig. 5) 188

Finally, ventral HS inactivation suppressed PL place and timing activity [15], 189 whereas mPFC inactivation did affect neither HS place cell timing activity nor 190 secondary fields [16].

These results confirm the supposed function of mPFC in combining place and 192 valence information to define goals; yet, confirming previous results, this function 193



appears to be transient and limited to early learning stages. Indeed, inactivation 194 of mPFC after overtraining does not affect behavioral performance [16]. These 195 findings suggest both bottom-up and top-down information transfer between mPFC 196 and HS, that could be expressed by the secondary fields of HS place cells. Moreover, 197 for the first time, to the best of our knowledge, the very same HS pyramidal cells 198 are shown to display simultaneously spatial and timing codes, which are conveyed 199 to neocortical structures. Space and time, possibly through frequency modulation 200 of the electrical field potentials could form a common frame for the coordination, 201 and eventually the synchrony of distant brain structures. As a whole, these results 202 shed new light on the role of the PF-HS circuits in goal-oriented and other types of 203 navigation. 204

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