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8 9	Julien Gasser ^{1,2} , Anne Pereira de Vasconcelos ^{1,2} , Brigitte Cosquer ^{1,2} , Anne-Laurence Boutillier ^{1,2} , Jean-Christophe Cassel ^{1,2,3}
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11 12 13 14	¹ Université de Strasbourg, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives (LNCA), F-67000 Strasbourg, France
15 16 17	² CNRS, LNCA UMR 7364, F-67000 Strasbourg, France
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25 26	
26 27	³ Corresponding author: Dr. Jean-Christophe Cassel, Laboratoire de
27	Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives (LNCA), UMR 7364, Université de
28 29	Strasbourg-CNRS, 12 rue Goethe, F-67000 Strasbourg, France. E-mail:
30	jcassel@unistra.fr

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 40 declare.

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42 Abstract (273 words)

Response and place memory systems have long been considered 43 independent, encoding information in parallel, and involving the striatum and 44 hippocampus, respectively. Most experimental studies supporting this view used 45 simple, repetitive tasks, with unrestrained access to spatial cues. They did not give 46 animals an opportunity to correct a response strategy by shifting to a place one, 47 which would demonstrate dynamic, adaptive interactions between both memory 48 49 systems in the navigation correction process. In a first experiment, rats were trained in the double-H maze for different durations (1, 6, or 14 days; 4 trials/day) to acquire 50 a repetitive task in darkness (forcing a response memory-based strategy) or normal 51 light (placing response and place memory systems in balance), or to acquire a place 52 memory. All rats were given a misleading shifted-start probe trial 24-hr post-training 53 to test both their strategy and their ability to correct their navigation directly or in 54 response to negative feedback. Additional analyses focused on the dorsal striatum 55 56 and the dorsal hippocampus using c-Fos gene expression imaging and, in a second experiment, reversible muscimol inactivation. The results indicate that, depending on 57 training protocol and duration, the striatum, which was unexpectedly the first to come 58 into play in the dual strategy task, and the hippocampus are both required when rats 59 have to correct their navigation after having acquired a repetitive task in a cued 60 environment. Partly contradicting the model established by Packard and McGaugh 61 (1996, Neurobiology of Learning and Memory, vol 65), these data point to memory 62 systems that interact in more complex ways than considered so far. To some extent, 63 they also challenge the notion of hippocampus-independent response memory and 64 striatum-independent place memory systems. 65

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<u>Keywords:</u> hippocampus; spatial navigation; place memory; response memory; rat;
 striatum

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73 **1. Introduction**

When navigating toward a goal in a familiar environment, animals may use a 74 place strategy based on their cognitive map, pilot themselves toward an explicit cue 75 marking their goal, or repeat a response behavior consisting of a given sequence 76 of actions concatenated in a constant order (e.g., Chersi & Burgess, 2015; Tolman et 77 al., 1946). Research in rodents demonstrated a preferential role of the 78 hippocampus in place memory and of the striatum in response memory (DeCoteau 79 and Kesner, 2000; Gold, 2004; Packard & McGaugh, 1992, 1996; Packard, 1999, 80 Poldrack & Packard, 2003). 81

Currently it is thought that in the initial stages of learning a repetitive 82 navigation task with double solution (i.e., the goal can be reached either through 83 place or response strategy), the hippocampus memory system guickly integrates 84 information due to its "one-shot" incidental learning capabilities (Chersi and Burgess, 85 2015). With repetition, the striatal system takes over and starts to guide behavior, as 86 shown in e.g., rodents (e.g., Packard & McGaugh, 1996; Laria et al., 2003; but see 87 Asem & Holland, 2013; Martel et al., 2007). Importantly, even after automation due to 88 sustained practice, subjects may not lose the capacity to shift from response to place 89 strategy upon receiving negative feedback (e.g., when the usual route is 90 unexpectedly compromised or the goal is missed). 91

Many experiments exploring place and response memories in rodents tested 92 animals with unrestrained access to their environmental landmarks while running on 93 T- or cross-maze devices (McDonald and White, 1994; 1995; 2013; Mizumori et al., 94 2004; Packard, 1999; Packard & McGaugh, 1992; 1996; Packard and White, 1991; 95 Tolman et al., 1946; White and McDonald, 2002; White et al., 2013). In these 96 experiments, their behavior was usually classified as egocentric (i.e., relying on 97 idiothetic cues) or allocentric (i.e., relying on allothetic cues) based on a single-98 response probe test (e.g., Packard & McGaugh, 1996; Fouquet et al., 2013). When 99 100 the response strategy revealed inefficient, the shift to a place strategy was not permitted. Such correction is crucial, however, because it would demonstrate a 101 102 capability to engage the hippocampal and striatal memory systems in dynamic, 103 interactive and situation-adapted ways (e.g., Berke et al., 2009; Chersi & Burgess, 104 2015; Eshenko & Mizumori, 2007; Mizumori et al., 2004; Regier et al., 2015).

105 Past research has suggested that the interaction between response and place

memory systems is modulated by saliency of intramaze and/or extramaze cues (e.g., 106 Packard & Goodman, 2013), task complexity (e.g., Cassel et al., 2012; Ruprecht et 107 al., 2014), practice (e.g., Martel et al., 2007), and a few other factors, including stress 108 (e.g., Gardner et al., 2013; Packard and Goodman, 2013; Quaedflieg and 109 Schwabe, 2018; Schwabe, 2013). However, general conclusions regarding 110 hippocampal-striatal interactions cannot be drawn because the aforementioned 111 factors have most often been tackled by using a diversity of experimental devices, 112 protocols, training levels in different and separate experiments. In order to 113 investigate the dynamic interaction between dorsal striatum and hippocampus in 114 conditions that systematically control modulating factors, we used a repetitive task in 115 a single device with a single type of task motivation (escape from water), and varied 116 the experimental settings across three protocols and durations of training (1, 6 or 14 117 days). The training durations of 6 and 14 days were chosen to parallel Packard and 118 Mc Gaugh's study (1996). The apparatus was the double-H maze described by 119 Cholvin et al. (2013), and our experimental rats had to learn a unique pathway 120 between the same start arm and the same target arm. These experimental rats were 121 trained under normal illumination in a task with a dual response/place strategy (Lt-122 ON-Dual). One control group was trained in darkness (to minimize perception of 123 allothetic cues) in a task promoting a response strategy (Lt-OFF-Resp). A second 124 control group was trained under normal illumination in a task promoting a place 125 strategy (Lt-ON-Place). 126

One day after the last training session, all rats were given a probe trial (same 127 illumination as for training) for which the start arm was changed in order to identify 128 the initial strategy - place or response - and to subsequently evaluate if an alternative 129 strategy could be adopted upon negative feedback (i.e., platform not found). Based 130 on the current understanding of memory systems and hippocampal-striatal 131 interactions (Chersi and Burgess, 2015; Packard and Goodman, 2013), the 132 predictions were that : i) Lt-OFF-Resp rats would favor a response strategy 133 based on the striatum memory system and would not construct a spatial map 134 enabling a strategy shift, whatever the training duration, ii) Lt-ON-Dual rats, which 135 would adopt a hippocampal-dependent spatial navigation strategy at the beginning of 136 training and change to a striatum-dependent response strategy with further training, 137 would be able to shift from a response to a place strategy, and iii) Lt-ON-Place rats 138

would favor a place strategy based on the hippocampus memory system
enabling a strategy shift either directly or after a mistake. We also investigated the
memory-based behaviors using c-Fos brain imaging and muscimol inactivation.

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143 2. Materials and methods

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145 **2.1. Animals**

Male Long-Evans rats (Janvier Labs, Le Genest-St-Isle, France) were used. 146 They were aged 6-7 weeks (body weight: 160-170g) at their arrival at the laboratory. 147 They were housed individually with ad libitum food and water in a temperature 148 $(22 \pm 1 \text{ °C})$ and humidity $(55 \pm 5\%)$ controlled room under a 12-12 hr light–dark cycle 149 (lights on at 7.00 a.m.). The study respected the rules and guidelines of the 150 European Parliament 2010/63/UE of September 22, 2010, and of the French 151 Department of Agriculture. All experimental protocols used herein have been 152 validated a priori by a local ethical committee (CREMEAS, authorization no. 153 AL/17/24/02/13). 154

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2.2. Double-H maze

The double-H testing device has been described in detail in previous articles 157 (e.g., Pol-Bodetto et al., 2011; Cassel et al., 2012; Kirch et al., 2013, 2015) along 158 with the characteristics of the room hosting it (Cholvin et al., 2013). Briefly, the 159 general layout of the apparatus corresponds to the shape of two contiguous capital 160 Hs. It is made of three parallel run arms, 160 cm in length and 18.8 cm wide (internal 161 measure), connected to each other at their center by a perpendicular arm. All side 162 walls, 35 cm high, are made of transparent Plexiglas to favor access to allothetic 163 cues. The two opposite arms in the middle are labeled north (N) and south (S), 164 respectively (see Figure 1). The four other arms are labeled south-east (SE), south-165 west (SW), north-east (NE), and north-west (NW). For pre-training, training and 166 memory testing, the device was always kept at the same place (on a square table, 80 167 cm from the floor) and all cues in the room (two black disks on one wall, and one 168 large triangle on another wall, two orange-painted heating ducts above the maze, 169 one table, one chair, one computer desk, one boiler...) were left at their original 170 location for the entire duration of the experiments. Most of these landmarks were 171

172 located close to the maze, i.e., between 1.20 and 1.50 m from the closest maze wall 173 and between 86 and 140 cm above the water surface. To secure the locations of 174 objects, including the maze and its table, their positions were marked on the floor. In 175 the room, there was a small loudspeaker fixed on the wall, playing music at low 176 volume during the 12-h light period.

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2.3. Pre-training and training protocols

The double-H was filled with water (20 °C) to a height of 15 cm. A platform, 179 11 cm in diameter, 14 cm high, was ballasted with gravel and used as the escape. 180 For pre-training, the platform protruded 1 cm above the surface of the water at the 181 extremity of the SW arm, the water was left clear and the rats were given four 182 consecutive trials. On each trial, rats had to swim straight from the NW to the SW 183 arm in order to keep the cognitive demand at a low level. A transparent guillotine 184 door blocked the access to the central corridor and thus to all other places in the 185 maze. In all rats, pre-training was performed in a normally lit environment. 186

For the training sessions, the platform was moved to the NE arm and immersed 1 cm under the water surface. Water was made opaque by addition of powdered milk (about 1.5 g/L). Rats were given four daily trials. Each trial lasted a maximum of 60 s. When the rat did not reach the platform within this time, it was gently guided to the platform by the experimenter. Once a rat had climbed on the platform, it was left there for 10 s, after what the next trial was started without delay.

Three training protocols were used (Figure 1). In the first protocol (Lt-OFF-193 194 Resp), rats were tested in darkness: the only source of light was generated by six red darkroom bulbs, type B22PF712B by Philips, 15 W each, placed near the maze at 195 the extremity of each arm; light intensity in and around the maze was of about 1 lux. 196 The rats were released from the S on all trials and had to swim to the NE, which they 197 reached most directly by a right turn immediately followed by a left turn. The N arm 198 199 was closed with a transparent guillotine door. The guillotine door prevented the repetition of the straight swimming trajectory rats had to follow during the pre-training 200 201 phase of the protocol. In the second protocol (Lt-ON-Dual), the same procedure was 202 used except that the room was illuminated by neon lights (180 lux) to make all 203 landmarks easily visible. The N arm was closed with a guillotine door. In the third protocol (Lt-ON-Place), the room was illuminated (180 lux) and rats were released 204

randomly from a different arm on each of the four daily training trials. The N arm wasclosed.

Each trial was videotaped for subsequent off-line scoring. Variables collected 207 were: swim patterns, latencies (s) and distances (cm) to reach the platform, as well 208 as the number of errors. An error was counted each time a rat was swimming in a 209 segment (either in one of the arms with no platform or one of the segments of the 210 central alley to the left or right of the start arm) toward a direction opposite to that 211 212 leading most directly to the platform (see Pol-Bodetto et al., 2011, for detail). Each time a rat had its head and 4 paws in one of those segments, it was considered to 213 have entered it. For each protocol, three subgroups of rats were constituted. The first 214 one was trained for 1 day (and thus received only four trials), the second one for 6 215 consecutive days (24 trials), and the last one for 14 consecutive days (56 trials). 216

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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221 **2.4. Probe trial**

The probe trial, for which the platform was removed from the water, was given 222 24 hr after the last trial of the last training day. Probe trial duration was of 60 s. 223 Regardless of their previous training protocol, all rats were released from the SW 224 arm, thus with a 60 cm translation to the left of their usual starting point. In Lt-ON-225 Dual rats, this translation to the left was previously found to be misleading. Indeed, 226 more than 90% of the rats usually first repeated the right-left (R-L) body turns, ending 227 up in the N arm, instead of using a direct trajectory to the NE arm (Cassel et al., 228 2012). This high misleading potential can be explained by the fact that the 60-cm 229 translation to the left only slightly alters room perspectives (Cassel et al., 2012). The 230 presence of the guillotine door in front of the arm from which the rat was released 231 possibly added to this misleading potential. Upon negative feedback (i.e., no platform 232 found in N), however, a number of rats leaving the N arm then entered the NE one, 233 234 where they searched for the platform for a longer time than chance level, further supporting their ability to use a place strategy (Cassel et al., 2012). Variables 235 236 collected during the probe trial were i) type of swim trajectory displayed immediately after the start (R-L turn and thus direct swim to the N, direct swim to the NE, or other) 237

and the capacity to shift to the NE arm after having visited the N one; ii) response 238 memory and place memory exploration times over the entire probe trial duration. 239 Response memory exploration time is defined as the cumulated time in any arm that 240 a rat entered after successive R-L turns. Place memory exploration time is defined as 241 the cumulated time in the NE arm. Because a trajectory going from the S to the NE 242 arm could be the result of either a response memory or a place memory, without any 243 possibility for the experimenter to know which strategy a rat had used, the times 244 spent in the NE arm when the rats came directly from the S were discarded from 245 statistical analyses. As a result, only times recorded in the NE arm when rats came 246 from SW, SE or N were considered for analyses. Additional variables analyzed were 247 the swim velocity, the time spent in the first visited arm before leaving it, as well as 248 the time spent in the N or NE arm after the rats had entered it for the first time. 249

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2.5. Surgery and muscimol (MUSC) infusions

For our second experiment, surgery was performed under aseptic conditions. 252 Rats were anesthetized with a ketamine (98 mg/kg)-xylazine (13 mg/kg) mixture 253 254 injected intraperitoneally. They were secured in a stereotaxic frame (incisor bar at -3.0 mm). Stainless steel guide cannulas (external diameter 0.4 mm) were implanted 255 bilaterally in the dorsal hippocampus (DHip), targeting CA1 (AP -3.6 mm, ML ±2.4 256 mm, DV -2.4 mm from skull), or in the dorsal striatum (DStr; AP +0.72 mm, ML ±2.85 257 mm, DV -4.2 mm from skull). All coordinates are given from Bregma according to 258 Paxinos and Watson (2007). On the basis of the c-Fos expression patterns of our first 259 experiment (see below), we decided to infuse MUSC into a relatively central site of 260 the DStr, rather than separately into the DLS or DMS, where c-Fos expression levels 261 were in most instances not dramatically different between rats trained for 6 as 262 compared to 14 days under each training condition. Each guide cannula was secured 263 to the skull by acrylic dental cement and sterilized stainless steel screws. At the end 264 of surgery, a stainless steel mandrel (external diameter 0.28 mm) was inserted into 265 each guide cannula. Thereafter, rats were allowed to recover under a heating lamp 266 for 20-30 min before being placed back into their home cage. An 8-day 267 rest/manipulation time (for home-cage rats of experiment 1 as well) was given before 268 269 the start of the behavioral experiment.

In contrast to lidocaine or tetrodotoxin, MUSC reportedly induces an 270 inactivation of neurons in the diffusion radius of the drug without changing the 271 excitability of the fibers en passage therein (Edeline et al., 2002; Van Duuren et al., 272 2007). Starting 3 days after surgery, rats were first habituated over 5 consecutive 273 days to being handled and maintained for drug infusions. For infusions, rats were 274 gently restrained by hand in a soft towel, the mandrels were removed, and an 275 infusion needle (external diameter 0.28 mm) was slowly lowered into each guide 276 cannula. The tip of each infusion needle protruded 1.0 mm beyond the tip of the 277 guide cannula into the DHip or the DStr. The other needle tip had been connected to 278 a 10µL Hamilton syringe by polyethylene tubing. Using a microinjection pump 279 (CMA/100), MUSC (Sigma, Saint-Louis, USA; dissolved in artificial cerebrospinal fluid 280 [aCSF]) was infused bilaterally (200 ng/µL in the DStr, and 250 ng/µL in the DHip, 281 282 each over 60 s; 1µL was infused, whatever the structure, in each hemisphere). In a previous study, such small amounts were found to induce marked cognitive effects 283 when infused in the DHip, the prefrontal cortex, or the ventral midline thalamus 284 (Cholvin et al., 2013). Controls received a bilateral infusion of aCSF (same volume as 285 for inactivation). At the completion of infusion, the needles were left in place for 60 s 286 to allow drug diffusion into the parenchyma. Needles were then slowly retracted and 287 mandrels repositioned into the guide cannulas. Right after the infusion, rats were 288 returned to their home cage until the start of the probe trial, 30 min later. This delay of 289 30 min is within the time window of maximal effect of the drug (i.e., 25 to 90-120 290 min), as shown by electrophysiological (Arikan et al., 2002; Edeline et al., 2002) or 291 autoradiographic studies (using [³H]-MUSC, Edeline et al., 2002; Martin & Ghez, 292 1999). The diffusion radius of MUSC at the time of the probe trial was estimated on 293 brain sections stained for c-Fos expression. Possible intergroup differences in the 294 inactivation extent might have induced differences in performance. Therefore, the 295 area covered by the absence of c-Fos expression was measured in both 296 297 hemispheres on coronal sections from both structures. Estimating the extent of a pharmacologic inactivation remains a tricky issue. In previous studies (Cholvin et al., 298 299 2013), we used fluorescent MUSC to localize the infusion site and efficiency of diffusion into the parenchyma. The molecular weight of this molecule, however, is 5.3 300 301 times larger than its natural homologue. Therefore, we chose to measure the extent of reduced c-Fos expression around the infusion site. Indeed, this immediate early 302

gene having a very low basal expression level, a region that should be active (as 303 seen in rats infused with aCSF) but would exhibit a very low or no c-Fos expression 304 can be considered efficiently inactivated. A similar approach on zif268 expression in 305 mice was used by Maviel et al. (2004) to assess the effects of lidocaine in the 306 hippocampus and neocortex. All inactivation areas were expressed as a % of the 307 surface of the DStr at about -0.1, 0.1, +0.5, +0.7, +0.8, +1.0, +1.4, and +1.7 mm 308 (ventral limits of the DStr are those shown in Supplementary Figure 1), and of the 309 DHip at -4.4, -4.2, -3.8, -3.6, -3.5, -3.4, -3.1, -2.9, and -2.6 mm, from Bregma 310 (Paxinos and Watson, 2007). 311

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2.6. Tissue preparation

Ninety minutes after the probe trial, rats were injected with an overdose of 314 315 sodium pentobarbital (200 mg/kg i.p.) and perfused transcardially with 80mL of a 4% phosphate-buffered (0.1 M) paraformaldehyde solution (PFA, 4°C). Brains were 316 317 removed, post-fixed for 2 hr in 4% PFA (4°C), and placed into a 20% sucrose solution (in 0.1 M PBS) for 48 hr at 4 °C. They were then guickly frozen in isopentane 318 (-40 °C) and stored at -80°C. Floating coronal sections (40 µm) were cut using a 319 cryostat (MICROM HM 500M) in serial sections within a block of tissue extending 320 from +1.90 to -1.90 mm from Bregma for the DStr, and from -2.16 to -4.44 mm from 321 Bregma for the dHip (Paxinos & Watson, 2007). 322

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2.7. c-Fos immunohistochemistry, imaging and quantification

All sections dedicated to c-Fos immunohistochemistry were processed in 325 separate rounds so as to have all between-subject factors equally represented in 326 each round (n = 8 rats for each group). These precautions minimized technical 327 biases. The sections were first rinsed three times during 10 min in PBS and soaked 328 for 1 hr in 5% normal donkey serum in PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100. All 329 330 sections were subsequently transferred into the primary anti-Fos rabbit polyclonal antibody solution (1:4,000, Rabbit anti-Fos polyclonal IgG; Santa Cruz, USA), where 331 332 they were left overnight at room temperature. Then, they were rinsed and soaked in a buffer solution containing biotinylated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody (1:500, 333 334 Biotin SP-conjugated affiniPure Goat anti-rabbit IgG; Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA). Staining was revealed with the avidin-biotin peroxidase 335

method (Vectastain ABC kit; Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) coupled to
diaminobenzidine (Lopez et al., 2012). In rats subjected to a functional inactivation by
MUSC (see below), additional sections were stained with cresyl violet to make sure
that the location of the infusion sites was acceptable.

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2.8. Stereological analyses of c-Fos expression

The quantitative analyses of c-Fos-positive nuclei were performed in the DStr 342 and DHip. As the dorsomedial striatum (DMS) contributes to setting up an 343 automatism by its implication in action outcome on a goal-directed navigation task, 344 and the dorsolateral striatum (DLS) to the automatism's storage (e.g., Packard & 345 McGaugh 1996; Thorn et al., 2010), guantifications were made separately in the 346 DMS and DLS. Additional quantifications were also made in CA1, CA3, and dentate 347 gyrus (DG), as c-Fos expression levels accompanying place memory retrieval may 348 differ between these hippocampal subregions (e.g., Lopez et al., 2012). A single 349 investigator, blind to the identity of the rats, analyzed all sections. The overall number 350 of c-Fos immunoreactive cells was estimated with the optical fractionator technique 351 using optical dissectors (45 x 45 µm) allowing unbiased counting (West et al., 1991; 352 West, 2013). For stereological counting we used a Leica DM5500B light microscope 353 coupled with a MicroFire CCD color camera (Optronics) equipped with a motorized 354 x-y stage control. Stereological analyses were performed using the Mercator 355 software (Explora Nova, La Rochelle, France) and all cell counts were processed 356 online on the video image. The same intensity of light in the microscope and the 357 same parameters in the exposure time of the digital camera were used for all 358 sections. Areas of interest in stained sections (see Supplementary Figure 1) were 359 first outlined using a 2.5x objective and c-Fos-positive cells were counted using a 360 100x (1.40 NA) oil-immersion objective. Counting grids (145 x 145 µm for the DStr 361 and 80 x 80 µm for DHip subregions) equidistant from each other were randomly 362 positioned within the area of interest using the Mercator software. The total number 363 of c-Fos positive nuclei/mm³ of cerebral tissue was estimated from six (for the DHip) 364 or seven (for the DStr) sections per animal (section sampling fraction (ssf) = 1/6 for 365 DHip or 1/12 for DStr, from the total number of nuclei counted in all optical 366 367 dissectors). Details of stereological parameters were as follows: section interval = 200 μ m for DHip and 400 μ m for DStr; dissector height = 12 μ m and guard zone = 2 368

 μ m (corresponding to upper and lower border exclusion zone, mean section thickness being at 16 μ m). Counting was performed in the DMS, the DLS, and the DHip. Roughly, the DLS region was the one connected to the sensorimotor cortex and the DMS region was the one connected with medial prefrontal regions (see McGeorge & Faull, 1989; Voorn et al., 2004). The error coefficients (see Gundersen et al., 1988) for each estimation and animal ranged from 0.09 to 0.11.

A group of never-tested rats taken from their home cage (HC) was used as a 375 376 baseline control for c-Fos quantification (see below). Our HC controls were handled daily by the experimenter for the same time as the average duration the rats trained 377 and tested in the double-H maze took to complete four trials. The same was done on 378 the probe trial day. Swimming controls would have been acceptable for a training 379 duration of 1 day (four training trials). However, for 6 and 14 days of training, rats 380 381 would have received 24 and 56 trials, respectively, without any solution to escape from the water. Typically, this situation is a learned helplessness one, which affects 382 c-Fos expression patterns in the hippocampus (e.g., Huang et al., 2004) or structures 383 innervating the hippocampus (Steciuk et al., 1999). Therefore, swimming-only rats 384 were not included in this study. 385

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2.9. Statistical analyses

For the first experiment, analyses of acquisition scores used a Protocol x Trial 388 (1-day training) or Protocol x Day (6- or 14-day training) ANOVA. For analyses of the 389 corresponding probe trial performance, we considered qualitative and quantitative 390 variables. After having been released in the SW arm of the maze, rats could swim 391 directly to the NE arm, indicating an immediate engagement of place memory, or N 392 arm, indicating a direct engagement of response memory. All other swim patterns 393 (i.e., a first visit of any of the other arms) were considered in an 'Other' category. To 394 compare the number of rats in the response memory category among training 395 protocols (factor called 'Protocol' hereafter) and training durations (factor called 396 'Duration' hereafter), we used a non-parametric Chi² test. To refine this analysis, we 397 398 analyzed the latencies to the NE arm as they might provide precious information in rats tested in light about the strategy they used. If this strategy relied on response 399 400 memory, the latency should be close to that found in rats tested in the absence of light. We also compared the cumulated time spent in the NE arm or in any other arm 401

to which a R-L turn had led for each training protocol and duration. When post-hoc
comparisons were required and justified by the ANOVA, we used the Newman-Keuls
multiple range test. Exploration times in the R-L and NE arms were compared to
chance. As each arm had a surface representing 13.7% of the accessible surface of
the maze and as the probe trial duration was of 60 s, chance was computed as 60 x
0.137 = 8.22 s. Quantitative c-fos expression data were analyzed using a Protocol X
Duration ANOVA for each separate brain region (DMS, DLS, CA1, CA3, DG).

For our second experiment, we also used a Chi² test to analyze the first arm 409 choice at the start of the probe trial, and an Inactivation (aCSF, MUSC) x Duration (6, 410 14 days) ANOVA for each protocol to analyze the behavioral consequence of 411 inactivating the DStr or DHip. Multiple comparisons were performed with the more 412 conservative Tuckey test, because, based on graphical observations, they were 413 414 occasionally run in the absence of significant interactions when a main effect of MUSC was found. Performance was also compared to chance using a Student t-test. 415 To analyze the extent of inactivation (c-Fos imaging) at different anteriority levels, we 416 used a Protocol x Duration x Anteriority (6 or 7 levels)) ANOVA. This was done for 417 each brain region (DStr, DHip). 418

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420 **3. Results**

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422 3.1. Experiment 1: Incremental training in the double-H maze and c-fos 423 expression patterns in the dorsal striatum vs. dorsal hippocampus

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3.1.1. Comparable acquisition performance among training protocols

Latencies to reach the platform in the NE arm are shown in Figure 2. Rats trained for 426 one day (four trials) showed performance improvement across trials. (Trial: $F_{(3,63)} =$ 427 12,2, p < 0.001). This improvement was comparable among the three training 428 protocols (interaction: $F_{(6.63)} = 0.33$). In the rats trained over 6 days (six trial blocks), 429 there was a significant Day effect (F $_{(5/105)}$ = 46.6, *p* < 0.001), but no effect of Protocol 430 $(F_{(2/21)} = 0.1)$ or of the interaction (F $_{(10/105)} = 0.23$). In the rats trained over 14 days, 431 only the Day effect was significant (F $_{(13,273)}$ = 43.1, p < 0.001). For the two longest 432 433 training durations, significant improvements of performance were from day 1 to day 2

and then to day 3 (p < 0.01). Analyses of the distances (not illustrated) yielded strictly 434 comparable results, as was also the case for errors (see Supplementary Figure 2). 435

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3.1.2. A training-duration-dependent shift from response to place memory in Lt-ON-Dual rats 442

According to our current knowledge, Lt-OFF-Resp rats should form a 443 stimulus-response representation and favor a response strategy without 444 constructing a spatial map. Therefore, they should not shift to spatial navigation, 445 446 even in response to negative feedback. Conversely, Lt-ON-Dual rats should adopt a hippocampal-dependent spatial navigation strategy after weak training (1 or 6 days), 447 448 but change to a striatum-dependent response strategy after sustained training (14 days). We hypothesized that they should nevertheless be able to shift from a 449 response strategy to a place strategy, either directly or upon negative feedback. In Lt-450 ON-Place rats, for the three training durations, all behaviors should reflect a place 451 strategy. According to these predictions, our results showed that Lt-OFF-Resp rats 452 did not form a spatial map. However, and unexpectedly, Lt-ON-Dual rats started to 453 acquire the task by response learning, and acquired only later on a place memory 454 enabling a trajectory correction, either directly or in response to negative feedback. 455 Lt-ON-Place rats relied on a spatial map, as soon as after 1 day of training. 456

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The data are illustrated in Figure 3. Whatever the training duration, almost all 458 Lt-OFF-Resp rats swam directly to the N, a proportion (20/23; 87%) largely above 459 chance (i.e., 25% as there were 4 accessible arms; start arm not considered). Most 460 461 Lt-ON-Place rats (16/23; 69%) also swam directly to the N. In Lt-ON-Dual rats, most first swim paths ended in the N arm after 1 (100%) or 6 (87%) training days. After 14 462 training days, however, half the rats swam directly to the NE arm. The difference 463 between first choices after 1 and 14 training days was significant (Chi² = 4,8, p < 464 465 0.05), indicating a late emergence of spatial navigation capabilities. Supplementary Table 1 shows the proportion of rats correcting their choice in response to negative feedback, i.e., rats which swam to the NE arm next to having entered the N one.

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To further analyze probe trial performance, and especially the shift capacity, 472 we considered three additional variables: latencies to the NE arm, cumulated time 473 spent in an arm to which a R-L turn had led (response memory-based behavior), and 474 cumulated time spent in the NE arm (place memory-based behavior). Latencies to 475 the NE arm (Supplementary Figure 3) provided additional information about the 476 nature of the strategy used by the rats. Overall, we found that latencies were 477 478 significantly reduced in the probe trial of the Lt-ON-Dual rats compared to the Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 14 days of training, thus compatible with the progressive 479 formation of a cognitive map in this group. Swim velocities (see Supplementary Table 480 2) during the probe trial did not differ significantly among groups, allowing us to 481 compare latencies. Regarding the time to exit the first visited arm, there was no 482 significant difference among groups (Supplementary Figure 4). It is noteworthy that 483 when Lt-ON-Dual rats (after 14 days of training) and Lt-ON-Place rats (after 6 and 14 484 days of training) visited the NE or the N arm for the first time, the to exit was longer in 485 the former than in the latter (supplementary Figure 5), a difference not found in Lt-486 OFF-Resp rats. 487

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3.1.2.1. Cumulated time in arms reached by R-L turns:

This variable shows a response memory-based strategy in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, 490 a strategy abandoned by Lt-ON-Dual rats after the longest training duration, and not 491 existing in Lt-ON-Place rats. Data are shown in Figure 4. In the Lt-OFF-Resp rats, the 492 493 exploration time was above chance for the two longest durations (p < 0.01), and larger after 14 training days than after 1 or 6 days (p < 0.05). In the Lt-ON-Place rats, 494 495 this time was neither significantly different from chance nor affected by training duration. In Lt-ON-Dual rats, the time decayed as a function of training duration, 496 497 reaching chance level after 14 training days. The Protocol x Duration ANOVA showed significant effects of the Protocol (F $_{(2.58)}$ = 17.4, p < 0.001), Duration (F $_{(2.58)}$ 498

499 = 0.13, *ns*), and of the interaction between the two factors (F $_{(4,58)}$ = 3,19, *p* < 0.05). 500 The Protocol effect was due to an overall exploration time (collapsed over training 501 durations) that was longest in the Lt-OFF-Resp rats, intermediate in the Lt-ON-Dual 502 rats, and lowest in the Lt-ON-Place ones (all differences were significant: *p* < 0.01). 503 The interaction reflected a time of exploration that increased with training duration in 504 Lt-OFF-Resp rats and decreased in Lt-ON-Dual rats.

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3.1.2.2. Cumulated time in NE arm:

This variable shows no place memory-based strategy in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, a 507 place strategy which appeared in L-ON-Dual rats after the longest training duration 508 (14 days) and which was present in Lt-ON-Place rats already after 1 day of training. 509 Statistics for comparisons of performance to chance level are illustrated in Figure 4. 510 ANOVA of exploration time showed significant effects of Protocol (F $_{(2.58)}$ = 25,2, p < 511 0.001), Duration (F $_{(2.58)}$ = 8,9, p < 0.001), and of the interaction between the two 512 513 factors (F $_{(4.58)}$ = 2,5, p < 0.05). The group effect was due to overall time of exploration that was longest in Lt-ON-Place, intermediate in the Lt-ON-Dual rats, and 514 lowest in Lt-OFF-Resp rats (all differences were significant: p < 0.01). The low 515 exploration time in Lt-OFF-Resp rats and the high exploration time in Lt-ON-Place 516 rats were not affected by training duration. Conversely, in Lt-ON-Dual rats, this time 517 increased as a function of training duration, starting at the level of Lt-OFF-Resp rats 518 and ending up at that of Lt-ON-Place ones. This difference explains the interaction 519 between the two factors. 520

521

In summary, rats trained in the response strategy task developed a response 522 strategy and showed a bias towards the response arm during the probe trial. Rats 523 trained in the dual response/place strategy task performed comparably after 1 or 6 524 training days. However, after 14 days, half of them used an initial place strategy and, 525 526 at the group level, there was a clear cut bias towards the place (NE) arm in the probe trial. Rats trained in the place strategy task did not use a place strategy for their initial 527 528 swim path, but over the probe trial they showed a clear bias towards the place arm, whatever the training duration. The main result here is that when cues are visible in 529 530 the dual double-H maze task, rats first approach the task on the basis of response learning and construct a cognitive map later on. 531

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3.1.3. c-fos expression patterns in the dorsal striatum and dorsal

537 *hippocampus*

c-fos expression was measured by immunohistochemistry in the DMS and 538 DLS and in the dHip (CA1, CA3 and DG). Examples of c-fos expression patterns, 539 including in two control regions (i.e., the primary somatosensory cortex and the 540 primary auditory cortex), are shown in Supplementary Figures 6-10. Quantitative data 541 are illustrated in Figure 5. Given our initial predictions from the literature (e.g., 542 Packard and McGaugh, 1996), we expected high c-Fos expression levels in the 543 striatum of Lt-OFF-Resp rats and in the hippocampus of Lt-ON-Place regardless of 544 training duration, and a shift over training from high levels in the hippocampus to high 545 levels in the striatum in the Lt-ON-Dual rats. Based on our behavioral data, however, 546 the expectations for Lt-ON-Dual rats should be opposite. Overall, our results show 547 that, during the probe trial, striatal activation was highest in Lt-OFF-Resp rats for all 548 training durations. Striatal activation was weaker in Lt-ON-Dual rats in comparison 549 with Lt-OFF-Resp rats, but yet largely above HC rats. In Lt-ON-Place rats c-Fos 550 levels were higher than in HC rats, but the difference was more pronounced in the 551 DMS than in the DLS. In Lt-OFF-Resp rats, CA1 c-Fos levels were close to those 552 found in HC rats after all training durations. In Lt-ON-Dual rats, CA1 showed the 553 largest evidence for activation, but only after 1 and 6 days of training. In Lt-ON-Place 554 rats, a larger c-Fos expression was found only after 1 day of training. 555

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3.1.3.1. c-Fos quantification in the dorsal striatum:

Analyses of c-Fos positive neurons in the DMS showed significant Protocol (F $_{(3,72)}$ = 86.0, p < 0.001), Duration (F $_{(2,72)}$ = 3.5, p < 0.05), and interaction effects (F $_{(6,72)}$ = 2.7, p < 0.05). The highest overall c-Fos expression was found in the DMS of Lt-OFF-Resp rats, the second highest one in Lt-ON-Dual rats, then in Lt-ON-Place rats, and finally in HC rats; all intergroup differences were significant (p < 0.01, at least). Multiple comparisons showed that the only group in which the number of c-Fospositive neurons was significantly depending on the duration of training was the Lt-

ON-Dual group; this number was reduced significantly after 6 and 14 days compared

566 to 1 day (p < 0.05 in each case).

Analyses of the DLS data showed significant Protocol (F $_{(3,72)}$ = 87.2, p < 0.001) and 567 Protocol X Duration interaction effects (F $_{(6,72)}$ = 2.7, p < 0.05); the overall Duration 568 effect was not significant (F $_{(2.72)}$ = 1.5, p = 0.22). The highest overall c-Fos 569 expression was found in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, the second highest one in Lt-ON-Dual 570 rats, then in Lt-ON-Place rats, and finally in HC rats; all intergroup differences were 571 significant (p < 0.01). The only group in which the number of c-Fos-positive neurons 572 was significantly depending on training duration was the Lt-OFF-Resp group; this 573 number was larger after 6 and 14 days than after 1 day (p < 0.05 in each case). 574

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3.1.3.2. c-Fos quantification in the dorsal hippocampus:

577 Analyses of c-Fos positive neurons in CA1 showed significant Protocol (F (3.72) = 17.9, p < 0.001), Duration (F (2.72) = 16.1, p < 0.001), and interaction effects (F (6.72) 578 579 = 11.1, p < 0.001). The same effects were found in CA3 and in the DG, although with less pronounced differences. In the DG, post hoc analyses indicated that overall c-580 581 Fos expression was weaker after 14 than after 1 and 6 days of training (p < 0.05). In CA1 and CA3, the highest overall c-Fos expression was found in Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-582 ON-Place rats (p < 0.001), which did not differ from each other. The lowest one was 583 found in Lt-OFF-Resp and HC rats, which did not differ from each other. Regarding 584 training durations, the lowest overall c-Fos expression was found for the longest 585 duration in CA1, CA3, and DG (p < 0.05). In two groups, the number of c-Fos-positive 586 neurons was dependent on training duration: it was dramatically reduced between 1 587 and 6 days in CA1 of Lt-ON-Place rats (p < 0.01), and between 6 and 14 days of Lt-588 ON-Dual rats (p < 0.01). In CA3, it was reduced between 1 and 6 days in Lt-ON-589 Place rats (p < 0.05) and increased after 6 days of training in Lt-ON-Dual rats 590 compared to 1 and 14 days (p < 0.01). This was also the case in the DG (p < 0.05). 591

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Insert Figure 5 about here

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596 In summary, there was an increased c-Fos expression in the dorsal striatum of 597 Lt-OFF-Resp rats after all training durations, but after sustained training c-Fos levels

had decreased in the DMS and increased in the DLS. In Lt-ON-Place rats, c-Fos 598 expression was substantially lower and not dependent on training duration. Lt-ON-599 Dual rats had c-Fos levels comparable to Lt-OFF-Resp rats after the shortest 600 training, and to Light-ON-Place rats after the longest training. In region CA1 of Lt-601 OFF-Resp rats, c-Fos levels were close to those found in home cage rats. In Lt-ON-602 Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats these levels were high after one day of training, but had 603 decayed to levels of home cage rats after 6 days of training in Lt-ON-Place rats, and 604 605 after 14 days of training in Lt-ON-Dual rats, when these were showing evidence for place memory. It is noteworthy that some changes in c-Fos expression did not fit with 606 the literature-based expectations (e.g., Packard and McGaugh, 1996). 607

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3.2. Experiment 2: 6- or 14-day training in the double-H maze and muscimol inactivation before the probe trial

Training conditions were the same as in the first experiment, but durations 611 were of 6 and 14 days only. Thirty minutes before the probe trial, rats were infused 612 with MUSC or aCSF into the DStr or the DHip. Based on the behavioral data of the 613 614 first experiment, our expectations were that intrastriatal MUSC would disrupt response memory-based behavior, and hence disrupt performance in Lt-OFF-Resp 615 rats after 6 or 14 days of training, and in Lt-ON-Dual rats only after 14 days of 616 training. In Lt-ON-Place rats, striatal inactivation should have no effect. We also 617 expected that intrahippocampal infusions of MUSC would not affect performance in 618 Lt-OFF-Resp rats, but would alter it in Lt-ON-Dual rats after 14 days of training, and 619 in Lt-ON-Place rats after either training duration. Consideration of c-Fos data leave 620 our expectations unchanged for Lt-OFF-Resp rats. For the other groups, it is difficult 621 622 to make strong predictions because c-Fos expression data were not in line with our behavioral observations. 623

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3.2.1. Muscimol infusion sites

The cannulas/needles reached their intended target in most rats (otherwise, the rats were discarded from analyses). The infusions sites are shown in Figure 6. Briefly, when the cannulas were implanted in the DStr, the between-subject variability of the infusion sites was of about 1.5 mm along the antero-posterior axis, 1.2 mm in laterality, and 1.2 mm ventrally. When the cannulas were implanted in the DHip, the

variability of the infusion sites was of about 1.2 mm along the antero-posterior axis, 631

- 1.0 mm in laterality, and 1.0 mm ventrally. 632
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- 634 Insert Figure 6 about here
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3.2.2. Inactivation radius in the dorsal striatum and dorsal hippocampus as assessed by c-Fos expression 638

The extent of inactivation was comparable among experimental conditions for each 639 structure. An overview of the diffusion of the MUSC effects as estimated from our c-640 Fos expression material is shown in Supplementary Figure 11. The inactivation 641 extent was quantified based on c-Fos gene expression staining: Inactivation areas 642 643 were expressed as a percentage of the surface of the DHip or DStr at different levels of anteriority. Data are shown in Supplementary Figure 12. ANOVA (Protocol X 644 645 Duration X Anteriority) showed no other significant effect than an effect of Anteriority in the DStr (F $_{(6.252)}$ = 114.7, p < 0.001) and DHip (F $_{(6,306)}$ = 136.1, p < 0.001). This 646 effect reflected a diffusion decrease as a function of distance from the infusion site. 647 No other single factor effect (Protocol, Duration) and none of the different interactions 648 were significant. Typical examples of MUSC inactivation effects on c-Fos expression 649 are shown in Supplementary Figure 13. 650

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3.2.3. Drug infusion-free task acquisition regardless of training duration

Acquisition performance was comparable among experimental conditions. 653 Data are shown in Figure 7. In the rats with intrastriatal cannulae and given 6 training 654 days, there was a significant Duration effect (F $_{(5/205)}$ = 124.6, p < 0.001), but no effect 655 of Protocol ($F_{(2/41)} = 3.00$) on latencies; the interaction between the two factors was 656 significant (F $_{(10/205)}$ = 1.9, p < 0.05). The Duration effect was due to overall 657 performance that improved significantly over the first three days. In the rats with 658 intrahippocampal cannulae, we only found a significant Duration effect (F (5/300) = 659 155.7, p < 0.001) reflecting overall performance improvement over the first three 660 days, not afterwards. For the longest training period (14 days), there were significant 661 Protocol (F $_{(2/47)}$ = 6.7, p < 0.01) and Duration (F $_{(13/611)}$ = 152.2, p < 0.001) effects in 662 the rats with intrastriatal cannulae. The Duration effect reflected an improvement of 663

overall performance, mainly over the first four days. In the rats with the cannulae implanted in the hippocampus, all factors produced significant effects (Protocol: F $_{(2/46)} = 8.1, p < 0.001$; Duration: F $_{(13/598)} = 191.5, p < 0.001$; Protocol X Duration: F $_{(26/598)} = 1.6, p < 0.05$). The Duration effect was due to an overall improvement during the first three days. The analysis of the distances (not illustrated) and of the number of errors (see Supplementary Figure 14) pointed to **similar** conclusions.

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Insert Figure 7 about here

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3.2.4. Effects of muscimol inactivation on double-H maze navigation

MUSC altered performance in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, whether infused in the striatum or the hippocampus. In Lt-ON-Dual rats, intrahippocampal MUSC infusion disrupted the response memory after 6 training days and –at least to some extent– the place memory after 14 days. In Lt-ON-Place rats, place memory was altered by MUSC after 6 and 14 days of training. After sustained training, the place memory system has become resistant to intrastriatal MUSC infusion. The data are illustrated in Figures 8 and 9.

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3.2.4.1. Initial swimpaths

In the Lt-OFF-Resp condition, almost all rats infused with aCSF in the striatum 684 first swam to the N (i.e., showed an egocentric strategy); their proportion did not differ 685 statistically from chance (i.e., from 25%) and was not influenced by training duration. 686 Very few of them subsequently shifted to the NE arm (see supplementary Table 3). 687 MUSC infusions reduced the number of rats swimming directly to the N arm (Chi² = 688 4,7, p < 0.05 whatever the duration of training). Almost none of these rats shifted to 689 the NE after their visit to the N arm. In the Lt-ON-Dual group, most first-swim paths 690 691 also consisted in R-L turns after aCSF infusion. The proportion of rats then shifting to the NE was weak after 6 training days, and larger after 14 days (see supplementary 692 693 Table 3). In Lt-ON-Dual rats given intrastriatal MUSC, the proportion of direct swims to the N was not affected after 6 training days, but it was significantly reduced after 694 14 days of training (Chi² = 4.8, p < 0.05). Finally, after intrastriatal aCSF infusion in 695 Lt-ON-Place rats, 3 out of 7 rats swam directly to the N arm (the others swimming to 696

the NE one) after 6 days of training, but after 14 days of training, all of them first swam to the N arm. MUSC did not disrupt this proportion significantly. Under MUSC, however, none of the rats that swam directly to the N shifted to the NE when tested after 6 training days; this shift capability was not affected by MUSC after 14 days of training. Regarding the time to exit the first visited arm, there was no significant difference among groups (supplementary Figure 15).

When aCSF was infused in the dorsal hippocampus, a large majority of rats first swam directly to the N arm, whatever the training condition. After intrahippocampal MUSC, this behavior was significantly reduced in Lt-OFF-Resp rats (6 days: Chi² = 8.8, p < 0.01; 14 days: Chi² = 6.5, p < 0.05). The same was observed in Lt-ON-Dual rats (6 days: Chi² = 5.6, p < 0.05; 14 days: Chi² = 5.6, p < 0.05). Finally, in Lt-ON-Place rats, intrahippocampal MUSC reduced the number of rats swimming directly to the N after 6 days of training (Chi² = 4.7, p < 0.05), but not after 14 days of training.

Overall, this analysis suggests that MUSC in one or the other memory structure led a proportion of the rats toward the 'Other' category of behaviors (i.e., neither response nor place strategy), most probably pointing to a general disruption of the memory-based performance, whatever the memory.

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3.2.4.2. Cumulated time in R-L turn and NE arms

As in our first experiment, the probe trial performance analyses were refined 719 by considering quantitative variables: i) cumulated time spent in arms to which a R-L 720 721 turn had led regardless of which arm was entered (response memory variable), and ii) cumulated time spent in the NE arm (place memory variable). Again, times 722 resulting from an entry in NE when a rat was coming from S were not considered. 723 724 Data are shown in Figure 9. As shown in Supplementary Table 4, swim velocities during the probe trial did not differ among treatment groups. Time spent in the first 725 726 arm visited, and time spent in the N arm or in the NE one after the first visit is 727 illustrated in supplementary Figures 15 and 16.

Altogether, our data confirm that the possibility to shift to a spatial strategy (and thus a strategy-correction capacity) emerges with increasing training duration 730 (data from aCSF-treated rats). In Lt-OFF-Resp rats, intrastriatal and intrahippocampal MUSC infusions disrupted (or tended to do so) the response 731 memory-based behavior (time in arms after R-L turns); the place memory-based one 732 (time in NE arm) was not different from chance. In the Lt-ON-Dual rats, the 733 intrastriatal infusion of MUSC did not interfere with place memory after 14 days, 734 whereas intrahippocampal MUSC infusion disrupted the response memory after 6 735 and 14 days of training. In Lt-ON-Place rats, intrastriatal infusion of MUSC disrupted 736 the place memory system after 6 days of training, and intrahippocampal infusion did 737 so for both training durations. 738

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3.2.4.3. Cumulated time in arms reached by R-L turns:

MUSC disrupted response memory performance, especially when infused intothe dHIP. Data are shown in Figure 9.

After intrastriatal infusions, the time spent in the R-L arm was above chance in aCSF-743 744 treated Lt-OFF-Resp and Lt-ON-Dual rats after 6 days of training (p < 0.05), and only in Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 14 days of training (p < 0.05). In rats infused with MUSC, it 745 never exceeded chance significantly. MUSC-induced effects were further analyzed 746 with a MUSC x Duration ANOVA for each training protocol. MUSC infusions into the 747 DStr induced an overall impairment of response-memory-based behavior only in Lt-748 OFF-Resp rats (F $_{(1,28)}$ = 8.12, p < 0.05). Multiple comparisons showed that the 749 difference was significant after 6 (p < 0.05; Tuckey test) not 14 days of training. 750

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After intrahippocampal infusions, the time spent in the R-L arm was above 752 chance in aCSF-treated Lt-OFF-Resp and Lt-ON-Dual rats after 6 days of training (p 753 < 0.05), and in Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 14 days of training (p < 0.05). In rats infused 754 with MUSC, it never exceeded chance significantly. In Lt-ON-Place rats, MUSC had 755 no significant effect, whatever the training duration. When infused into the 756 hippocampus, MUSC altered the behavior in Lt-OFF-Resp rats (F $_{(1,31)}$ = 10.74, p < 757 0.01) and in Lt-ON-Dual ones (F $_{(1,26)}$ = 18.34, p < 0.01); there was no significant 758 759 effect of Duration and no interaction between both factors. Multiple comparisons showed the MUSC effect to be significant after both training durations in Lt-OFF-760 761 Resp rats (p < 0.05; Tuckey test). In Lt-ON-Dual rats, the difference was significant

after 6 days of training (p < 0.05; Tuckey test), and only tended towards significance after 14 days (p = 0.066; Tuckey test).

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769 **3.2.4.4.Cumulated time in NE arm:**

770 Overall, MUSC disrupted place memory performance. Data are shown in 771 Figure 9.

The time in the NE arm exceeded chance in aCSF-treated Lt-ON-Place rats 772 773 after 6 and 14 days of training (p < 0.05), whether subjected to intrastriatal or intrahippocampal infusions. Only after 14 days of training did this time also exceed 774 775 chance in Lt-ON-Dual rats. After MUSC infusion, time in the NE arm did not differ from chance, except when MUSC was infused in the striatum of Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-776 ON-Place rats after 14 days of training. ANOVA showed that when infused into the 777 striatum, MUSC reduced place-memory-based performance (time in NE arm) in Lt-778 ON-Place rats, but only after 6 days of training (p < 0.001). When MUSC was infused 779 into the hippocampus, there was a significant overall impairment in Lt-ON-Resp rats 780 (F $_{(1,31)}$ = 7.66, p < 0.05) and Lt-ON-Place rats (F $_{(1,30)}$ = 24.5, p < 0.001), but in Lt-781 ON-Dual rats only a tendency was noticed (F $_{(1,26)}$ = 3.56, p = 0.07). In Lt-ON-Resp 782 rats, the MUSC effect was significant only after 6 days of training (p < 0.001; Tuckey 783 test). In Lt-ON-Place rats, it was significant after both training durations (p < 0.05; 784 Tuckey test). 785

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787 4. Discussion

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In tasks with dual place/response solution, the place memory system is the first to find the solution, the response memory system coming into play later on (e.g., Packard and McGaugh, 1996). We therefore expected Lt-ON-Dual rats to use their place memory system first. Our results point to a different outcome. We also expected that hippocampal c-Fos expression would increase when place memory is used, thus at an early stage of training, and that striatal c-Fos expression would 795 increase later on when response memory is used. Our results only partly support these expectations. We predicted that striatal blockade would affect response 796 memory, whereas hippocampal blockade would affect place memory, as e.g., in 797 Packard and McGaugh (1996). We found that striatal inactivation altered response 798 memory in Lt-OFF-Resp rats. Furthermore, for both training durations, hippocampal 799 inactivation affected performance in Lt-ON-Place and, although to a weaker degree, 800 801 in Lt-ON-Dual rats, as expected, but also surprisingly in Lt-OFF-Resp rats. These 802 data point to memory systems that interact in more complex ways than considered so far. To some extent, they also challenge the notion of a hippocampus-independent 803 response memory and a striatum-independent place memory. 804

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4.1. In some conditions, the dorsal striatum memory system may guide behavior faster than the hippocampal memory system

Training in darkness promoted the use of response learning, while training in 808 809 light proposed a dual solution paradigm, in which rats used a response strategy at the early stages of training and then switched to a place strategy. This result 810 contradicted predictions based on Packard and McGaugh (1996), who found in a 811 food-rewarded plus-maze dual solution task that rats tended to use a spatial strategy 812 before shifting to a response one. Our results, however, are in line with a report by 813 Asem and Holland (2013). In an escape-motivated, submerged T maze, rats had to 814 repeatedly swim to the same target. Their first approach of the task was egocentric; 815 spatial skills arose later on. Asem and Holland (2013) proposed that escaping from 816 water is more stressful than approaching food, and that stress-related mechanisms 817 may have disadvantaged hippocampal functions (Kim & Diamond, 2002; see also 818 Vogel et al., 2017 for data in humans). Interestingly, in mice trained in a water maze 819 with a cued platform, Martel et al. (2007) also found that "the hippocampus was not 820 the first to provide solution". It is noteworthy that with a kind of appetitive and dry 821 822 variant of our double-H maze (alias the 'Opposing Ts maze'), rats trained to reach the same goal from the same start point first used an allocentric strategy and came to the 823 824 egocentric one in a second time (Gardner et al., 2013). Taken together, these findings provide support to Asem and Holland's proposal, as other studies also do 825 826 (e.g., Packard and Goodman, 2013; Schwabe, 2013). Because cues influence the type of strategy adopted (e.g., Packard and Goodman, 2013), an alternative 827

explanation could be that allothetic cues were less salient in the environment of our 828 double-H apparatus than in that of Packard and McGaugh's elevated plus maze, 829 biasing the Lt-ON-Dual rats toward an egocentric solution. However, under exactly 830 the same illumination conditions, Lt-ON-Place rats used allothetic cues already after 831 1 day of training. It could also be that navigation of Lt-ON-Dual rats relied on 832 nonvisual cues such as music playing from the unique loudspeaker in the room (e.g., 833 Save et al., 1998; Zhang & Manahan-Vaughan, 2015). If so, however, loudspeaker-834 835 based guidance should also have been beneficial to Lt-OFF-Resp rats, which was not the case. 836

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4.2. c-Fos expression in the dorsomedial striatum is marked regardless of the training protocol/duration

840 In the current study, regardless of training duration, we found enhanced expression of c-Fos in the DMS and DLS of Lt-OFF-Resp and Lt-ON-Dual rats, as 841 well as in the DMS of Lt-ON-Place rats (vs. HC). Using a striatum-dependent cued or 842 hippocampus-dependent spatial version of a water maze task, Teather et al. (2005) 843 found that the c-Fos expression increase in the DMS was undistinguishable between 844 cued and spatial rats, suggesting comparable impact of swimming behavior. In the 845 current study, part of the c-Fos expression in DMS could therefore be due to 846 swimming behavior, whatever the training conditions. In the dark condition, c-Fos 847 expression was highest in DMS and DLS, the absence of visual information from 848 allothetic cues leaving no alternative to the response memory-based strategy. Blind 849 rats (Spalax ehrenbergi) can form a primitive map by gradual calibrations over 850 progressive explorations of the perimeter of their testing environment (e.g., Avni et 851 al., 2008). Such rats, however, are blind at birth and develop navigation strategies 852 compensating for their congenital lack of vision, a huge difference with our sighted 853 Long-Evans rats trained and tested in darkness. Interestingly, in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, c-854 855 Fos decreased after 14 compared to 6 days in the DMS, and increased after 6 compared to 1 training days in the DLS. Devan and White (1999; see also Devan et 856 857 al., 1999) were the first to show differences between the behavioral functions of the DMS and DLS. Our results are compatible with i) DMS controlling action outcome 858 859 and participating in goal-directed actions, including navigation corrections and habit formation, and ii) DLS supporting the storage of habits and stimulus-response 860

learning (e.g., Balleine & O'Doherty, 2010; Devan and White, 1999; Hawes et al., 861 2015; Ito & Doya 2015; Pauli et al., 2012). Indeed, this view predicts a shift of the 862 highest activation from DMS to DLS over training in Lt-OFF-Resp rats. In the DHip of 863 our Lt-ON-Dual rats, a c-Fos increase was found in CA3 and the DG only after 6 days 864 of training. We do not known why, but it is tempting to speculate that these regions 865 could have contributed to the transition from a response memory-based behavior to a 866 place memory based one. CA1 was the only region to show a number of c-Fos-867 868 positive neurons largely above controls. This difference, however, was found only after 1 and 6 training days, suggesting that once navigation relied on a place 869 strategy, memory retrieval occurred at a substantially weaker neuronal activation cost 870 in the hippocampus (e.g., Bertaina-Anglade et al., 2000; Shires & Aggleton, 2008). 871 This possibility is compatible with the fact that in Lt-ON-Place rats, c-Fos levels were 872 873 not different from controls already after 6 days of training. An alternative explanation would be that, over training, the task ceased to depend on the hippocampus, a 874 875 hypothesis contradicted by our MUSC data. Using a protocol close to that of Packard and McGaugh (1996) in mice, Passino et al. (2002) observed a c-Fos expression that 876 877 was less pronounced in CA1 (about 45%) after a long training period (18 days; 72 trials) compared to a shorter one (9 days; 36 trials). Unfortunately, c-Fos counts were 878 not distinguished according to whether mice were response or place learners. This 879 study nevertheless indicates that well-trained performance is not necessarily 880 correlated with high neuronal activation indexes in the structure presumed to support 881 performance. Another point in Lt-ON-Dual rats was the high c-Fos expression level in 882 the DStr (DMS and DLS) after 1 day of training, which was associated with high c-883 Fos expression in CA1. The DStr activation most probably reflected the predominant 884 engagement of the R-L turns the rats had learned on the previous day. Upon 885 negative feedback during the probe trial, these rats might have tried to shift to a 886 hippocampal-driven correction, which failed because after 1 day of training, the place 887 888 memory trace may have been too weak or absent. Indeed, we know that, in the water maze, a 1-day training encompassing 4 consecutive trials does not enable above 889 890 chance performance in a probe trial given on the next day (e.g., Bousiges et al., 2013, see Fig 1A). Another explanation for the decrease in hippocampal c-Fos 891 892 expression seen in Lt-ON-Dual rats (between 6 and 14 training days) could be that rats have developed an alternative to the place memory strategy. For instance, they 893

might have learned to reach the NE arm by swimming in the central corridor until 894 facing a wall; once there, they just had to turn on their left. Finally, we cannot exclude 895 that stress inherent to our test has impacted the way rats have tried to solve their 896 respective task, hence their c-Fos activation patterns, and that this factor accounts 897 for differences between expected and observed results. Further experiments, 898 however, perhaps with modified testing device/protocols, are required to explore 899 these issues. Whatever may be, some of our functional imaging results suggest that, 900 901 in well-trained and well-performing rats, c-Fos expression within the behaviorallyrelevant structures may not accurately parallel performance. 902

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4.3. Striatal-hippocampal interactions in supporting memory-based behavior

Given the literature (e.g., Packard & Goodman, 2013), the disruption of i) 905 906 response memory-based strategy by intrastriatal infusions of MUSC in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, and ii) place memory-based strategy by intrahippocampal infusions of MUSC in 907 908 Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats was expected. Because after 14 days of training intrahippocampal infusions of MUSC disrupted the place memory-based strategy, 909 910 which intrastriatal MUSC infusions left unaltered, Lt-ON-Dual rats were relying on hippocampal function after sustained training, as was the case for Lt-ON-Place rats. 911 Not expected – but observed – were i) the disruption of the response memory-based, 912 strategy by intrahippocampal MUSC in Lt-OFF-Resp rats after both training 913 durations, and ii) given Packard and McGaugh (1996), the absence of an egocentric 914 memory-based deficit in Lt-ON-Dual rats in response to intrastriatal MUSC after 14 915 days of training. The MUSC-induced alteration of performance in Lt-ON-Place after 6 916 days of training was also not expected. Taken together, these results suggest that, in 917 the double-H maze task, the use of a response strategy may depend on both the 918 dorsal striatum and the hippocampus, which do not become functionally independent 919 from each other in Lt-OFF-Resp rats, even after long training. The use of an 920 921 allocentric strategy also depends on both structures, but transiently. Indeed, following sustained training, the DStr is no longer needed for navigation correction, but it 922 923 seems important for the acquisition of a spatial approach to a task (Jacobson et al., 924 2012; Pooters et al., 2015, 2016). In case of a repetitive navigation task with full 925 access to allothetic cues, the DHip appears more crucial than the DStr, first to enable a preferential engagement of the response memory-based system for up to 6 training 926

days, and later on, between 6 and 14 days, to use the place memory-based system. 927 In Lt-ON-Dual rats, the two systems could disengage from each other after sustained 928 training, but both seem to be needed during the first training days. These 929 observations are compatible with - and therefore reinforce - recent literature showing 930 engagements of the striatum and hippocampus for adapting behavior to navigation 931 task demands (e.g., Berke et al., 2009; Chersi & Burgess, 2015; Eshenko & 932 Mizumori, 2007; Mizumori et al., 2004; Regier et al., 2015). Yet, why the DStr 933 934 blockade altered spatial memory (even in Lt-ON-Place rats after 6 days of training) and the DHip blockade altered procedural memory cannot be elucidated from our 935 present data. Alterations of spatial memory in a cross maze have been reported after 936 DStr lesions, and alterations of response memory have been observed after 937 hippocampal damage (Jacobson et al., 2012). Along this line, Kathirvelu and 938 939 Colombo (2013) reported that lentiviral-mediated increase of CREB expression in the DStr enhanced memory for cue learning, but also for context in fear conditioning, and 940 941 context memory is typically hippocampus-dependent; place learning, however, was impaired. In a recent study, Ferbinteanu (2016) trained rats in a hippocampus-942 dependent spatial task or a dorsal striatum-dependent cue-response task, as 943 compared with rats that were trained in both. All rats were then subjected to 944 permanent excitotoxic lesions of the DMS or DLS, or of the hippocampus. DMS and 945 hippocampal lesions produced marked retention deficits in rats trained in only the 946 spatial task. In rats trained in only the cue-response task, both types of striatal 947 lesions, but not hippocampal ones, produced marked deficits. Most interestingly, 948 949 however, when both tasks were acquired concurrently, all lesions induced marked deficits. These observations suggest that when a unique task is learned, the 950 951 corresponding memory is constructed in the most appropriate system (e.g., place) and does not depend on the other system (e.g., response; see also White et al., 952 2013). When the two tasks are learned concurrently, however, not only are memories 953 954 constructed in each memory system, but they also seem to be linked to each other in a way that makes it possible to alter performance by obliterating either memory 955 956 system. Our results suggest that the same might be true in our Lt-ON-Dual rats 957 when, over learning, they shifted from one to the other memory system. Why, then, 958 could response memory in the double-H task be also depending on the dorsal hippocampus? A possibility would be that the habit was processed by the striatum 959

960 (e.g., DMS to form it, DLS to store it) and the overall geometry (spatial calibration;
961 see Avni et al., 2008) of the maze by a mechanism partly implicating the
962 hippocampus. Both information aspects may have combined in a modular
963 representation (e.g., Tcheang et al., 2011).

Another possibility could be related to mechanisms of navigation in darkness, 964 which, regarding self-motion information in goal-directed behavior, involves the 965 cerebellum and its functional connection with the hippocampus (e.g., Rochefort et al., 966 967 2011). This functional connection might have been disrupted by dorsal hippocampus inactivation. Why could spatial memory be depending on the dorsal striatum after 6 968 (and not 14) days of training? Given its location, our MUSC inactivation affected 969 970 partly the DMS and partly the DLS (see supplementary figure 11). Furthermore, correcting a response memory-based strategy by using a place memory-based one 971 972 requires behavioral flexibility driven by the prefrontal cortex (e.g., Cholvin et al., 2013). Because the DMS is involved in action outcome and behavioral flexibility, 973 974 notably through its connections with the (pre)frontal cortex (e.g., Baker and Ragozzino, 2014; Ragozzino et al., 2002), it is well possible that MUSC has affected 975 976 one or both of these functions, perhaps even without affecting hippocampusdependent spatial memory processes per se. Interestingly, Ragozzino (2003) found 977 that DMS cholinergic interneurons contributed to behavioral flexibility, which is further 978 supported in the studies by e.g., Aoki et al. (2013; but see Okada et al., 2014, or 979 Braun and Hauber, 2011; Braun et al., 2012). Still along these lines, we reported that 980 reversible inactivation of the prefrontal cortex, which did not alter spatial memory 981 retrieval in a water maze task, profoundly disrupted strategy adaptation in the double-982 H maze (Cholvin et al., 2013). Indeed, after MUSC inactivation of the prefrontal 983 cortex, rats were unable to shift from the response-based to the place-based 984 strategy. A functional alteration of the prefrontal cortex being a potential 985 consequence of dorsal striatum inactivation, it is possible that something similar 986 987 occurred in our Lt-ON-Dual rats. This possibility is in line with a report showing that the DMS plays a role in adapting a habitual strategy to a sudden modification of the 988 989 contingency in a spatial task (Regier et al., 2015).

Based on our findings, it is not possible to provide clear and solid arguments to explain the discrepancy between our expectations and the observed results. It is noteworthy that striatal inactivation affected the DMS and DLS, when previous

studies used inactivation of one or the other of these regions. Alterations of both the 993 DMS and DLS should conjointly disrupt control of action outcome, goal-directed 994 actions, habit retrieval, and expression of stimulus-response learning. These 995 modifications might have weakened the expression of place memory. Furthermore, 996 as many of the experiments leading to the view positing a functional dichotomy 997 between response and place memory systems have been carried out in appetitive 998 999 tasks, it cannot be excluded that stress linked to the aversive motivation in the 1000 double-H maze has been a major actor of this discrepancy. Addressing this possibility requires experiments in which, using a same device (e.g., double-H or 1001 cross maze), rats would be compared for c-Fos expression and inactivation effects 1002 according to whether training motivation is aversive or appetitive. 1003

In environments more complex than a T- or cross-maze, spatial calibration 1004 1005 may remain necessary over repetitive tasks, even in the absence of visual cues (e.g., based on perimeter exploration as in Avni et al., 2008). If so, this calibration might 1006 1007 require, in addition to a contribution of the striatum, some mechanisms orchestrated by the hippocampus. From our inactivation approach, it is possible to speculate about 1008 1009 some mechanisms compatible with our observations. When rats have to reach a goal in a maze like the double-H, their constrained navigation may be supported by a 1010 multimodal representation resulting from both allothetic visual inputs (when cues are 1011 visible) and idiothetic motion cues (of e.g., proprioceptive or kinesthetic nature), 1012 including experience of the borders of the maze (e.g., Tcheang et al., 2011). It is 1013 noteworthy that idiothetic cues can be used for path integration (Cheung et al., 2012). 1014 1015 That the hippocampus contributes to the processing of allothetic visual cues and the striatum to that of idiothetic motion cues is not nonsense and, as such, both 1016 1017 structures may conjointly participate in the construction of this multimodal representation. It is known that path integration and border information, when 1018 combined, can support hippocampus-dependent spatial representations in darkness 1019 1020 (Zhang et al., 2014). This could be a reason why, in darkness, the inactivation of the hippocampus altered performance (time in R-L arm) similarly to striatal inactivation. 1021 1022 Lt-ON-Dual rats roughly behaved as Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 6 days of training. At this 1023 time point, their navigation system may have been on the way to rely on the 1024 multimodal representation, from which it later on shifted to the visual representation, as there was no effect of intrastriatal MUSC after 14 days of training. 1025

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1027 **5. Conclusion**

In this study, predictions based on our current understanding of response and 1028 place memory systems have not been verified in extenso. Indeed, when cues were 1029 visible, the rats first acquired a response memory-based behavior and only later on 1030 could navigate by using place memory. Our results suggest that the striatum and the 1031 1032 hippocampus are both required when rats have to retrieve a repetitive maze-1033 navigation task in the double-H maze, be allothetic cues visible or not. In case of visible cues, however, with extensive training (14 days), retrieving the task is entirely 1034 hippocampus-dependent. Thus, the degree to which the striatum and the 1035 hippocampus contribute to navigation behavior, including navigation correction in 1036 response to negative feedback, depends on previous training level and cue 1037 1038 availability. Our data point to related systems, in line with recent findings in both animals (Delcasso et al., 2014; Jacobson et al., 2012; Rice et al., 2015) and humans 1039 1040 (e.g., Brown & Stern, 2014; Woolley et al., 2015). These systems may operate in a baton-passing way under some task constraints (task repetitiveness, cue availability, 1041 and training duration), and in a different way under other constraints. Disruption of 1042 the DStr affects place memory retrieval, and thus navigation correction capacities, 1043 following moderate training (6 days) in a spatial task, in line with a role of this 1044 structure in allocentric navigation. Inactivating the DHip affects retrieval of response 1045 memory following both moderate (6 days) and extensive (14 days) training in an 1046 egocentric task. These findings qualify our current knowledge and call for further 1047 1048 research on the implication of striatal and hippocampal mechanisms in goal navigation and navigation correction; there might also be a need to consider the 1049 communication of these structures with other brain regions (e.g., prefrontal cortex: 1050 Cholvin et al., 2013; Dahmani & Bohbot, 2015). 1051

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1318 Figure captions

1319

Figure 1: Summary of the experimental protocol used in Experiment 1. (a) Rats 1320 were trained for 1, 6 or 14 days in the double-H water maze. The escape platform 1321 was hidden at the extremity of the NE arm. Each trial lasted for a maximum of 60 s. 1322 (b) Three training protocols were used. In the first protocol (Lt-OFF-Resp; left), rats 1323 serving as controls were trained in a darkened room lit by red light (1 lux) to prevent 1324 the use of landmarks. On all trials, they were released from the S arm and had to 1325 swim to the NE arm. This protocol promoted a response memory-based body-turn 1326 strategy. In the second protocol (Lt-ON-Resp; middle), rats were trained in the same 1327 room but with normal neon light (180 lux) to enable the use of landmarks. This 1328 protocol proposed a task with a dual body-turn/spatial strategy. In the third protocol, 1329 1330 which promoted a spatial strategy, another group of control rats were trained in the same lit environment but for each daily trial they were released from a different arm 1331 1332 (Lt-ON-Place; right). In all training protocols, access to the N was blocked by a guillotine door. (c) Twenty-four hours after the last training trial (i.e., on day 2, 7 or 1333 15), all rats were given a probe trial which lasted 60 s. Light conditions were the 1334 same as for the training but there was no platform in the maze. All rats were released 1335 from the SW arm and the NW arm was blocked. Ninety minutes after the probe trial, 1336 the rats were killed and their brain processed for subsequent c-Fos immunostaining 1337 and stereological quantifications. 1338

1339

Figure 2: Acquisition performance: similar performance in Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-1340 Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats. Whatever the training protocol, average latencies to 1341 platform are represented for the first training day (trials 1 to 4) and over the 6- and 1342 14-day training sessions (daily blocks of four trials). Statistical analyses showed no 1343 significant difference among training protocols. Note that the Y axis corresponding to 1344 1345 the first training day indicates latencies for each trial, whereas in the other two panels on the right it indicates latencies for each 4-trial block, hence the different scale. The 1346 1347 number of animals in each condition can be found in Figure 3 underneath each pie chart. 1348

Figure 3: Swim paths adopted by rats in the probe trial: response memory-1350 based behavior in Lt-OFF-Resp rats for all training durations, place memory-1351 based behavior in Lt-ON-Place rats for all training durations vs. a shift from 1352 response memory- to place memory-based behavior in Lt-ON-Dual rats. In 1353 white: proportion of rats that swam directly to the NE arm. Percentages of rats that 1354 swam to the NE arm after having left the N one are shown in supplementary Table 1. 1355 Statistics: * significant modification of the proportion of rats that swam directly to the 1356 N arm as shown by a Chi² analysis, p < 0.05. The total number of rats tested with 1357 each protocol / training duration is indicated under the corresponding pie chart. 1358

1359

Figure 4: Exploration time in R-L or NE arm during the probe trial: shift from 1360 response memory- to place memory-based is confirmed in Lt-ON-Dual rats. 1361 1362 Average cumulated times (+s.e.m.) in the arms rats had reached by successive right (R) and left (L) turns (white bars), or in the NE arm (grevish bars) for each training 1363 protocol and each training duration (1, 6, 14 days; indicated in the white bars). The 1364 probe trial was given with a 24-h delay after the last training trial. Times in the NE 1365 arm when coming from the S arm were discarded from the analysis (see Methods 1366 and Supplementary material for an explanation). The stippled lines indicate chance 1367 level (see Methods for precisions on its computation). Statistical analyses: * 1368 significantly different from chance, p < 0.05; # significantly different from Lt-ON-1369 Place, p < 0.05; § significantly different from the corresponding 1-d training group, p < 0.051370 0.05. The number of animals in each condition can be found in Figure 3. 1371

1372

Figure 5: Quantification of c-Fos expression: increased c-Fos expression in the 1373 striatum of Lt-OFF-Resp and Lt-ON-Dual rats, and a transient increase in the 1374 dorsal hippocampus of Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place, but delayed decay in Lt-1375 **ON-Dual rats as compared to Lt-ON-Place rats.** Number of c-Fos positive neurons 1376 1377 quantified stereologically in the dorsomedial (DMS) and dorsolateral (DLS) striatum, as well as in regions CA1, CA3, and dentate gyrus (DG) of the dorsal hippocampus 1378 1379 after a probe trial for the different training durations (1, 6, and 14 days) and protocols. Statistical analyses: # significantly different from Lt-ON-Place, p < 0.05; § significantly 1380 1381 different from the corresponding 1-d training group, p < 0.05.

Figure 6: Location of the infusion sites ; the sites were located where expected 1383 (rats with misplaced sites were discarded from analyses and are not illustrated 1384 here). The infusion sites are indicated on coronal sections through the striatum (left) 1385 and the dorsal hippocampus (right) at various levels of anteriority according to 1386 Bregma, for each training duration (6 and 14 days). Each site corresponds to the tip 1387 of the infusion needle as identified in Lt-OFF-Resp (open circles for aCSF, black 1388 circles for MUSC), Lt-ON-Dual (open squares for aCSF, black squares for MUSC), 1389 1390 and Lt-ON-Place (open triangles for aCSF, black triangles for MUSC) rats. Coordinates are given in mm from Bregma according to Paxinos and Watson (2007). 1391 1392

1393 Figure 7: Acquisition performance: very similar performance in Lt-OFF-Resp,

Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats. In each of the three training protocols (Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-Dual, Lt-ON-Place), average latencies over the 6- and 14-day training sessions (daily blocks of four trials are presented). These rats had been implanted with intrastriatal (STRIATUM) or intrahippocampal (HIPPOCAMPUS) cannulas to be used for subsequent MUSC inactivation or control aCSF infusion. Statistical analyses did not show any significant difference among training protocols, nor among the different groups. The number of animals in each condition can be found in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Initial swim paths adopted by rats at the start of the probe trial 1402 indicate that memory system-based behavior, whether response or place, is 1403 disrupted by MUSC. In each of the three training protocols (Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-1404 Dual, Lt-ON-Place), training lasted for 6 or 14 days and the probe trial was given 24 1405 hr after the last training day. Rats were subjected to bilateral intrastriatal 1406 (STRIATUM) or intrahippocampal (HIPPOCAMPUS) infusions of muscimol (MUSC) 1407 or artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) as control, 30 min before the probe trial. In 1408 white: proportion of rats that swam directly to the NE arm. Percentages of rats that 1409 1410 swam to the NE arm after having left the N one are shown in supplementary Table 2. Statistics: * significant modification of the proportion of rats that swam directly to the 1411 N arm as shown by a Chi² analysis, p < 0.05. The total number of rats tested under 1412 each condition is indicated under the corresponding pie chart. 1413

Figure 9: Response memory is disrupted by intrastriatal (STRIATUM) and 1415 intrahippocampal (HIPPOCAMPUS) MUSC in Lt-OFF-Resp rats; however, the 1416 shift to place memory-based behavior is resistant to intrastriatal MUSC after 14 1417 days of training in Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats. Average cumulated times 1418 (+s.e.m.) in the arms rats had reached by successive right (R) and left (L) turns 1419 (white bars), or in the NE arm (greyish bars) for each of the three training protocols 1420 (Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-Dual, Lt-ON-Place) and each training duration (6, 14 days). 1421 The probe trial was given with a 24-h delay after the last training trial. Times 1422 consecutive to swim paths ending in the NE arm when coming from the S arm were 1423 discarded from the analysis (see Methods). The stippled lines indicate chance level 1424 (see Methods for precisions on its computation). Statistical analyses: * significantly 1425 different from chance, p < 0.05; # significantly different from aCSF, p < 0.05. The total 1426 1427 number of rats tested under each condition is indicated in Figure 8.

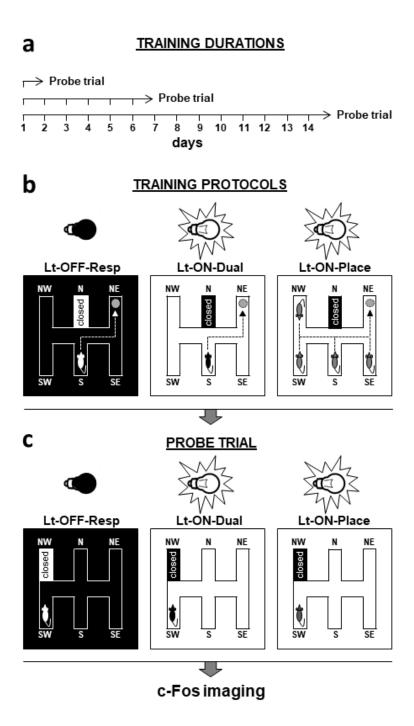


Figure 1

Training duration 1 day 6 days 14 days Latency to platform (s) - Lt-OFF-Resp - Lt-ON-Dual - Lt-ON-Place 8 10 12 14 Trials Days (4-trial blocks)

1434 Figure 2

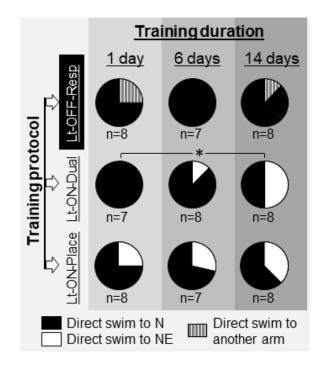
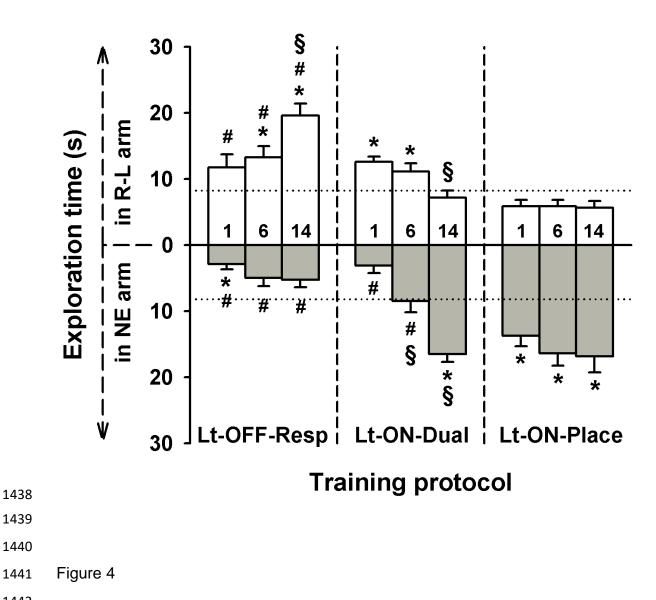


Figure 3



Striatum, hippocampus, and navigation

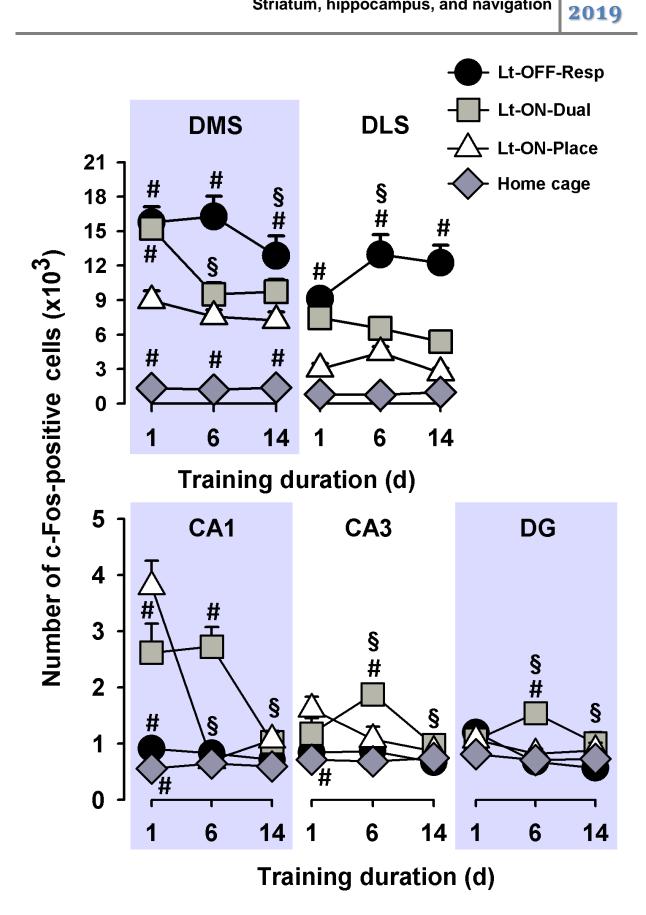


Figure 5

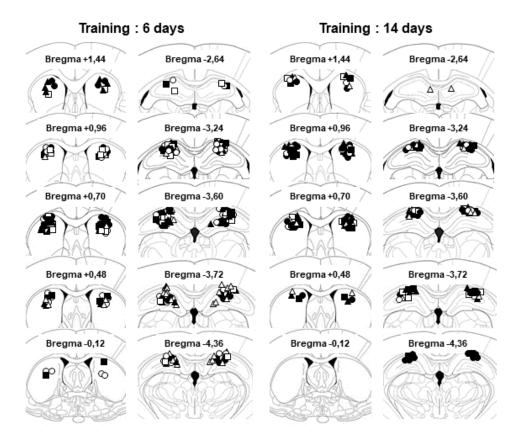
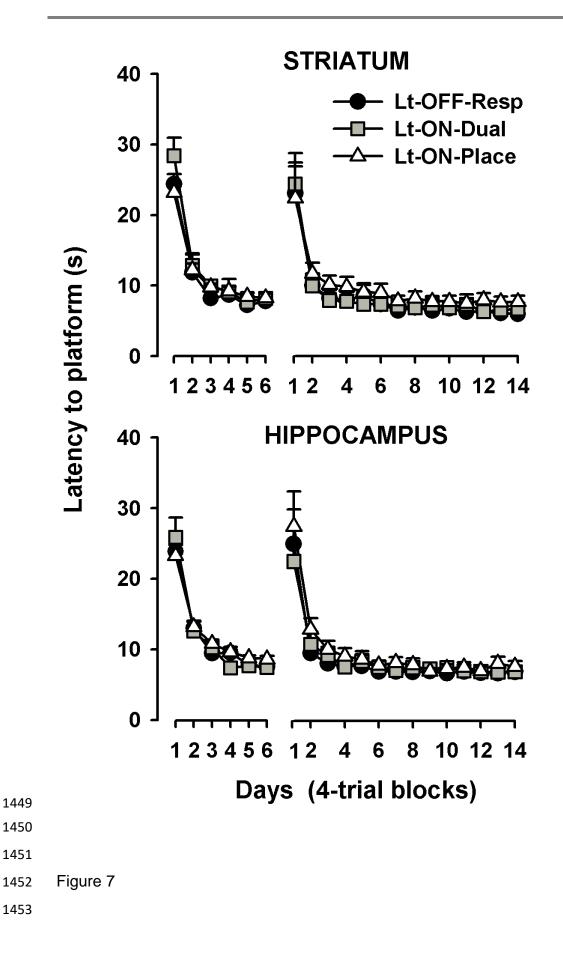


Figure 6



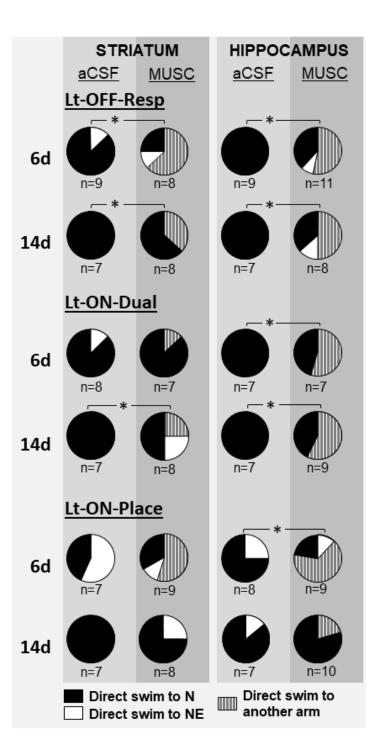
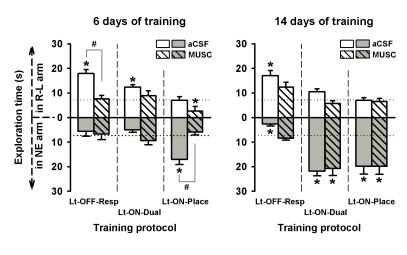
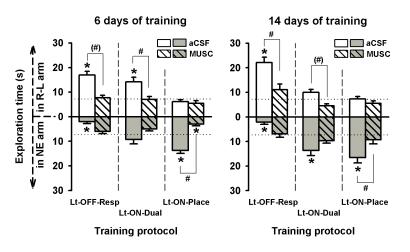


Figure 8



STRIATUM

HIPPOCAMPUS



1456

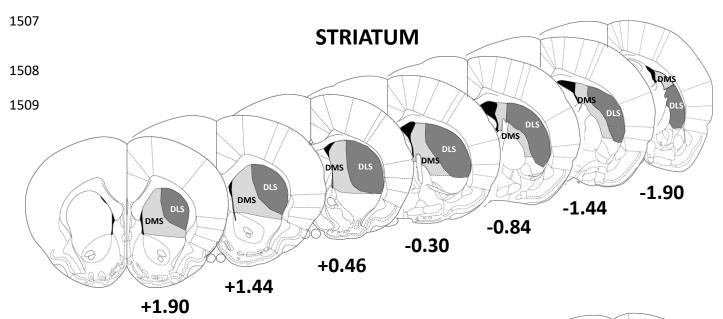
1457 Figure 9

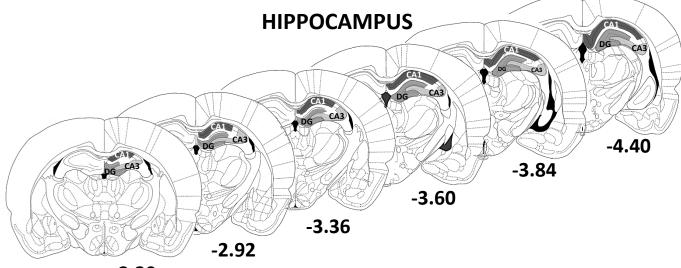
1459	Shifting between response and place strategies in maze navigation: effects of
1460	training, cue availability and functional inactivation of striatum or hippocampus
1461	in rats
1462	
1463	Running title: Striatum, hippocampus and navigation
1464	Julien Gasser ^{1,2} , Anne Pereira de Vasconcelos ^{1,2} , Brigitte Cosquer ^{1,2} , Anne-Laurence
1465	Boutillier ^{1,2} , Jean-Christophe Cassel ^{1,2,3}
1466	
1467	¹ Université de Strasbourg, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives
1468	(LNCA), F-67000 Strasbourg, France
1469	
1470	² CNRS, LNCA UMR 7364, F-67000 Strasbourg, France
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1472	³ Corresponding author: Dr. Jean-Christophe Cassel, Laboratoire de
1473	Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives (LNCA), UMR 7364, Université de
1474	Strasbourg-CNRS, 12 rue Goethe, F-67000 Strasbourg, France. E-mail:
1475	jcassel@unistra.fr
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1478	Supplementary material (25 pages)
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1480	Number of supplementary text : 2 (Methods and References)
1481	Number of supplementary figures : 16
1482	Number of supplementary tables : 4

1483 **Supplementary Methods:**

1484 A trajectory going from the S to the NE arm can reflect a response (successive R-L 1485 turns) memory or a place memory. In such case, it is not possible for the 1486 experimenter to know which strategy a rat has actually used. Therefore, the times spent in the NE arm when a rat was coming from the S were not considered. In fact, 1487 1488 only times recorded in the NE arm when rats came from SW, SE or N were considered. This correction represented in average a subtraction of 2.34 ± 0.51 s 1489 (range 0-5.5 s) in experiment 1, and of 2.22 \pm 0.56 (range 0-5.6) and 1.2 \pm 0.32 1490 (range 0-3.8) in rats with intrastriatal and intrahippocampal cannulas, respectively, in 1491 experiment 2. The correction was applied whatever the training protocol and duration. 1492 It was computed for each rat and subtracted from its probe trial performance (i.e., 1493 time in target after R-L turns, and time in NE) before statistical analyses of individual 1494 scores were performed. 1495

Supplementary Figure 1: Subregions of the dorsal striatum and of the dorsal 1497 hippocampus in which the number of c-Fos positive cells was quantified. 1498 Abbreviations: <u>DLS:</u> dorsolateral striatum; <u>DMS:</u> dorsomedial striatum; <u>CA1:</u> region 1499 CA1 of the cornu Ammonis; CA3: region CA3 of the cornu Ammonis; DG: dentate 1500 gyrus. Anteriority levels under each plate are indicated in mm from Bregma (Paxinos 1501 and Watson, 2007). The distinction between DLS and DMS is based on the article by 1502 Voorn et al. (2004), with the DLS corresponding essentially to the afferents from the 1503 sensorimotor cortex, and the DMS to afferents from other cortical structures (e.g., 1504 medial prefrontal cortex, visual cortex, auditory cortex, perirhinal cortex, and 1505 entorhinal cortex). 1506



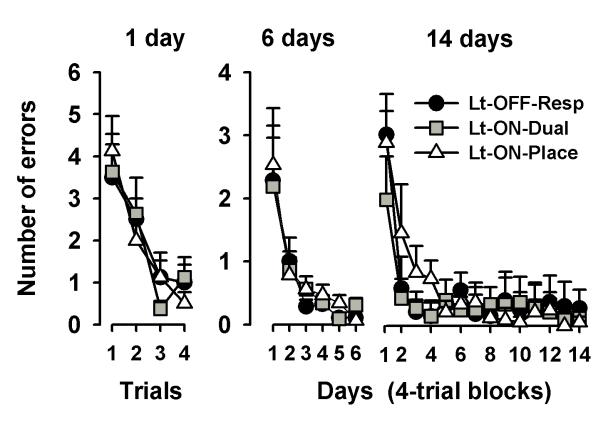


-2.30

Supplementary Figure 2: Number of errors showed comparable acquisition 1510 curves in Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats. In each training 1511 protocol of the first experiment (Lt-OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place), mean 1512 numbers of errors (+ sem) are represented for the first training day (trial by trial) and 1513 over the 6- and 14-day training sessions (in daily blocks of four trials). Statistical 1514 analyses showed no significant difference between the training conditions. Notice 1515 1516 that the Y axis corresponding to the first training day indicates a number of errors for 1517 each trial whereas in the two other panels (middle, right), it indicates the mean number of errors for each 4-trial block, hence the different scales of the Y-axis. The 1518 number of animals in each condition can be found in Figure 3 of the article. Statistical 1519 analyses showed the same effect (Trial or Day) as for the latencies to reach the 1520 platform. The same was true for distances. 1521

- 1522
- 1523
- 1524





Supplementary Table 1: Percent of rats shifting to the NE arm right after having 1526 first visited the N arm was not (significantly) different among groups. Number of 1527 rats showing a direct swim to the N arm after having been released in the maze are 1528 indicated between brackets as "(n/ N)", the "N" indicating the group size. The table 1529 reads as follows : "of the N tested rats, % of the n rats first entering the N arm and 1530 which then shifted to the NE one". For instance, regarding Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 1531 one day of training : one should read 33% of the 6 rats out of the 8 which first entered 1532 the N arm then shifted to the NE arm. 1533

Training protocol	Training duration				
	1 day	6 days	14 days		
Lt-OFF-Resp	33 % (6/8)	14 % (7/7)	29 % (7/8)		
Lt-ON-Dual	14 % (7/7)	38 % (8/8)	50 % (4/8)		
Lt-ON-Place	<u>83 %</u> (6/8)	60 % (5/7)	60 % (5/8)		

In Lt-ON-Place rats, this proportion was significantly higher than chance after 1 day of training (Chi² = 10.89, p < 0.01), and tended to exceed chance after 6 or 14 days of training (Chi² = 3.27, p = 0.071). The significant percentage is underlined. In the other cells, there was no significant difference from chance.

1538

Supplementary Table 2: Average swim velocity were comparable during the probe trial among protocols and training durations. Data indicated in cm/s are means (sem). Statistical analyses showed no significant difference among groups, indicating that other variables were not biased by changes in swim velocity.

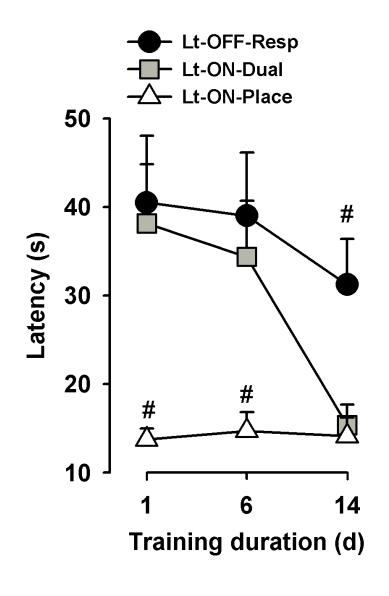
Training protocol	Training duration				
	1 day	6 days	14 days		
Lt-OFF-Resp	24.6 (1.1)	25.6 (1.0)	24.7 (1.1)		
Lt-ON-Dual	25.3 (1.6)	26.1 (1.2)	24.6 (1.4)		
Lt-ON-Place	25.8 (1.2)	27.2 (1.0)	25.5 (1.6)		

1543 An ANOVA of the average swim velocities showed that Protocol (F $_{(2,60)} = 0.7$, *ns*), 1544 Duration (F $_{(2,60)} = 0.9$, *ns*) and their interaction (F $_{(4,60)} = 0.0$, *ns*) had no significant 1545 effect.

1546

Supplementary Figure 3: Latencies to the place target (i.e., the NE arm) in Lt-1548 OFF-Resp, Lt-ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats during the probe trial are 1549 compatible with the progressive formation of a cognitive map in Lt-ON-Dual 1550 rats. All means are given in seconds (+ sem). This variable was computed to refine 1551 the analysis of the training-dependent evolution of strategies. We reasoned that if Lt-1552 ON-Dual rats behaved according to an egocentric strategy incompatible with 1553 navigation correction, their latencies should be close to those of Lt-OFF-Resp rats. 1554 On the contrary, if they behaved according to an allocentric strategy enabling 1555 correction, whether direct or indirect, their latencies should be close to that of Lt-ON-1556 Place rats. The idea behind this reasoning is that if a Lt-ON-Dual rat entered the N 1557 arm by R-L turns, it would expect to find the platform here and, consequently, spend 1558 some time looking for it in this arm. If, however, it already had some capability for a 1559 1560 spatial approach of the task, and thus for navigation correction, but entered the N arm due to repetition of the R-L turns after starting, it would immediately leave the 1561 1562 arm and swim to the NE one, whereby its latency to enter the NE arm should be shorter than in Lt-OFF-Resp rats. A Protocol x Duration ANOVA showed significant 1563 1564 overall Protocol (F $_{(2.60)}$ = 15.5, p < 0.001) and Duration (F $_{(2.60)}$ = 3.9, p < 0.05) effects, but no significant interaction between both factors (F $_{(4.60)}$ = 1.5, p = 0.22). A 1565 Newman-Keuls multiple comparisons test showed that Lt-ON-Dual rats did not differ 1566 significantly from Lt-OFF-Resp rats after 1 or 6 training days, but their latencies were 1567 significantly below those of their Lt-OFF-Resp counterparts after 14 training days (p < p1568 0.05). Conversely, latencies of Lt-ON-Dual rats were significantly larger than those of 1569 Lt-ON-Place rats after 1 or 6 training days (p < 0.05), not after 14 days. Statistical 1570 analysis: # different from Lt-ON-Dual rats, p < 0.05. 1571

- 1572 (see next page)
- 1573



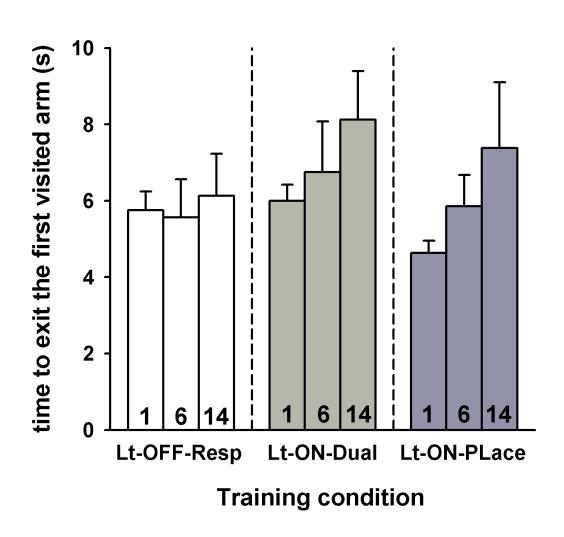


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Supplementary Figure 4 : Average time to exit the arm which the rats from the different training protocols and durations have visited first, be it N, NE or any other arm. Once having entered their first arm, the time spent therein was comparable among training protocols and duration conditions. The data illustrated are given in seconds (+ sem). Analysis of variance showed no significant Protocol (F (2,60) = 2.32, p = 0.11) or Duration (F (2,60) = 1.21, p = 0.31) effects, and no significant interaction between the two factors ((F (4,60) = 0,37, p = 0.83).

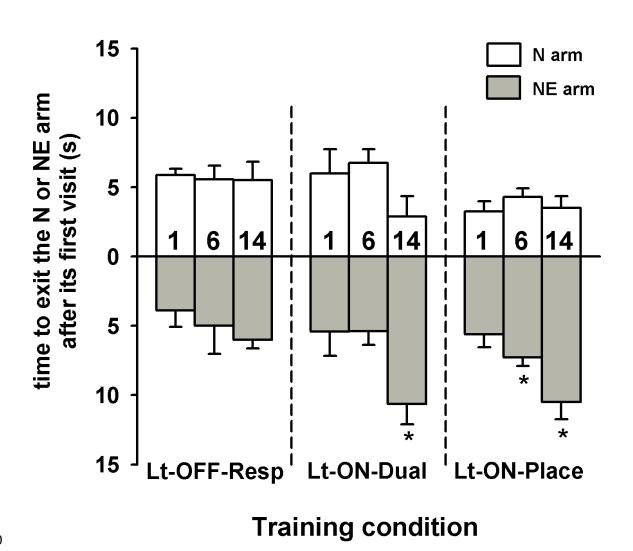
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Supplementary Figure 5 : Time to exit the N or NE arm after the rats had 1591 entered it for the first time is compatible with the progressive formation of a 1592 cognitive map in Lt-ON-Dual rats. All means are given in seconds (+ sem). White 1593 1594 bars correspond to the N arm, grey ones to the NE arm. For each training protocol and duration (indicated by the numbers at the bottom of the white bars), time to exit 1595 the N arm was compared to time to exit the NE one using a Student's t-test for paired 1596 samples. Statistical analyses : * indicates a significant difference between time to exit 1597 N as compared to time to exit NE ; p < 0.05. 1598

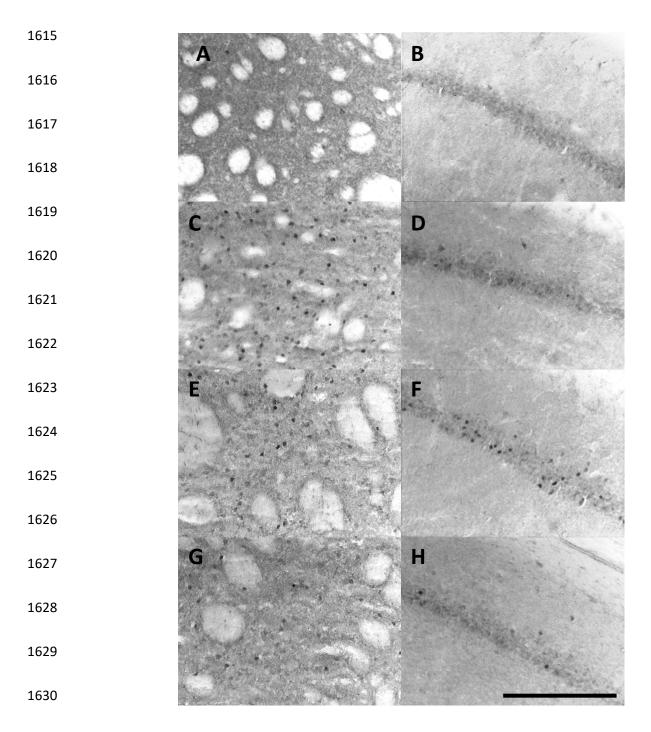
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Supplementary Figure 6: c-Fos staining, 1 day of training. Typical examples of c-Fos staining observed in the medial part of the dorsal striatum (A, C, E, G) and in region CA1 (B, D, F, H) of the dorsal hippocampus from rats tested in a probe trial 24 hours after a 1-day training duration (4 trials/day) or taken from their home cage (A, B). C and D are from a Lt-OFF-Resp rat, E and F from a Lt-ON-Dual one, and G and H from a Lt-ON-Place one. Scale bar = 250 μm.

> B F

Supplementary Figure 7: c-Fos staining, 6 days of training. Typical examples of
 c-Fos staining observed in the medial part of the dorsal striatum (A, C, E, G) and in
 region CA1 (B, D, F, H) of the dorsal hippocampus from rats tested in a probe trial 24
 hours after a 6-day training duration (4 trials/day) or taken from their home cage (A,
 B). C and D are from a Lt-OFF-Resp rat, E and F from a Lt-ON-Dual one, and G and
 H from a Lt-ON-Place one. Scale bar = 250 µm.



Supplementary Figure 8: c-Fos staining, 14 days of training. Typical examples of
 c-Fos staining observed in the medial part of the dorsal striatum (A, C, E, G) and in
 region CA1 (B, D, F, H) of the dorsal hippocampus from rats tested in a probe trial 24
 hours after a 14-day training duration (4 trials/day) or taken from their home cage (A,
 B). C and D are from a Lt-OFF-Resp rat, E and F from a Lt-ON-Dual one, and G and
 H from a Lt-ON-Place one. Scale bar = 250 μm.

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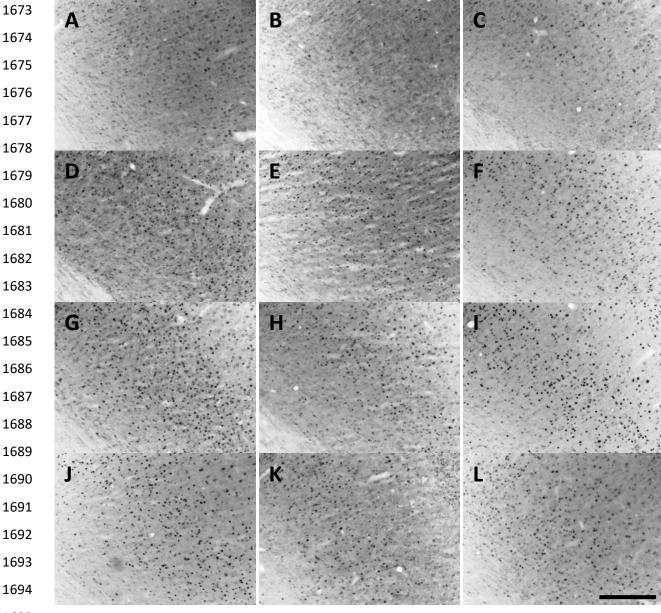




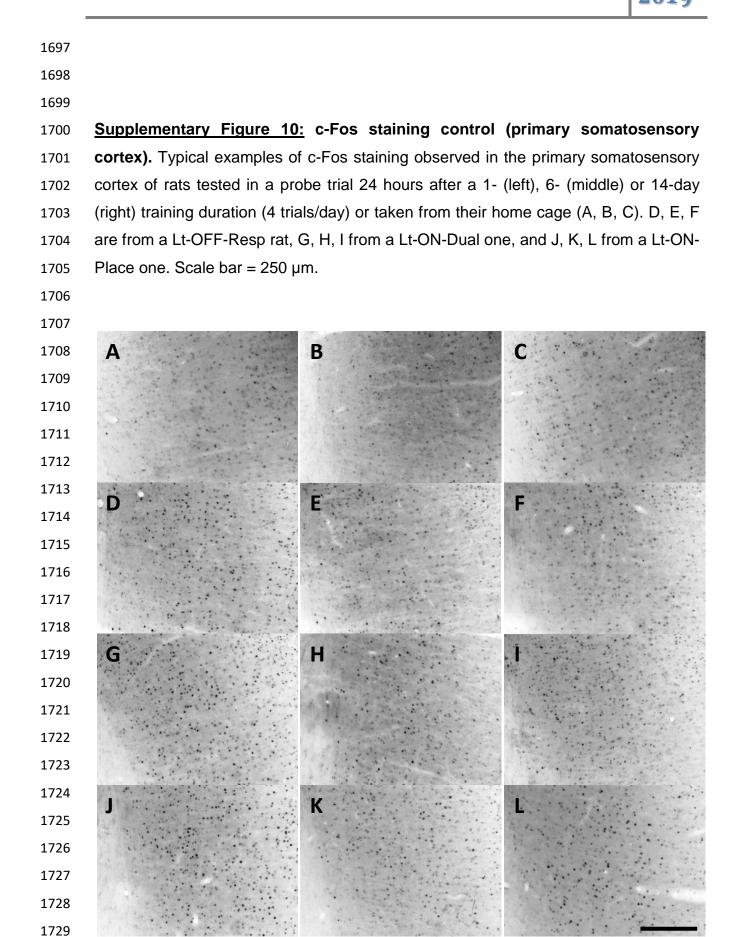
Supplementary Figure 9: c-Fos staining control (auditory cortex). Typical examples of c-Fos staining observed in the primary auditory cortex of rats tested in a probe trial 24 hours after a 1- (left), 6- (middle) or 14-day (right) training duration (4 trials/day) or taken from their home cage (A, B, C). D, E, F are from a Lt-OFF-Resp rat, G, H, I from a Lt-ON-Dual one, and J, K, L from a Lt-ON-Place one. Scale bar = 250 μm.



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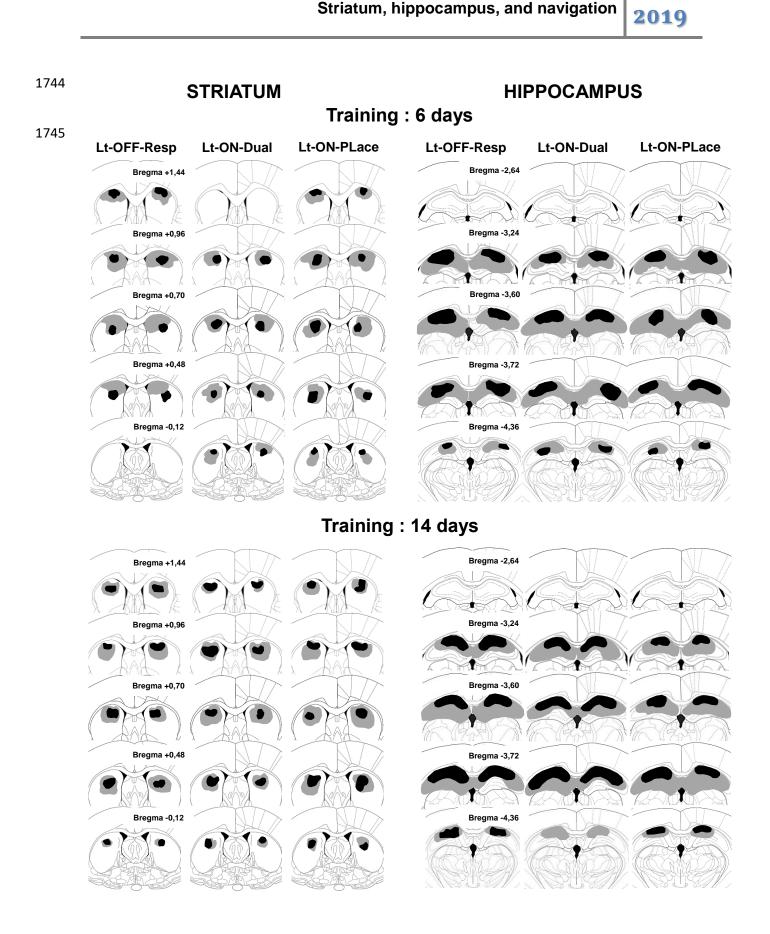
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Supplementary Figure 11: Diffusion of MUSC-induced inactivation around the 1732 infusion site was comparable among training protocols and durations. Grey 1733 and black areas indicate the largest and smallest diffusion of the inactivation, 1734 respectively, in either the dorsal striatum (left panel) or the dorsal hippocampus (right 1735 panel). This diffusion radius of MUSC effects was estimated on coronal sections 1736 stained for c-Fos expression in Lt-OFF-Resp (left), Lt-ON-Dual (middle) and Lt-ON-1737 Place rats (right). The rats were killed 90 min after the end of their 1-min probe trial. 1738 Before the probe trial, the rats had been trained for 6 (top) or 14 (bottom) days. 1739 Muscimol was infused 30 min before the probe trial. Coordinates are given in mm 1740 from Bregma (Paxinos and Watson, 2007). 1741

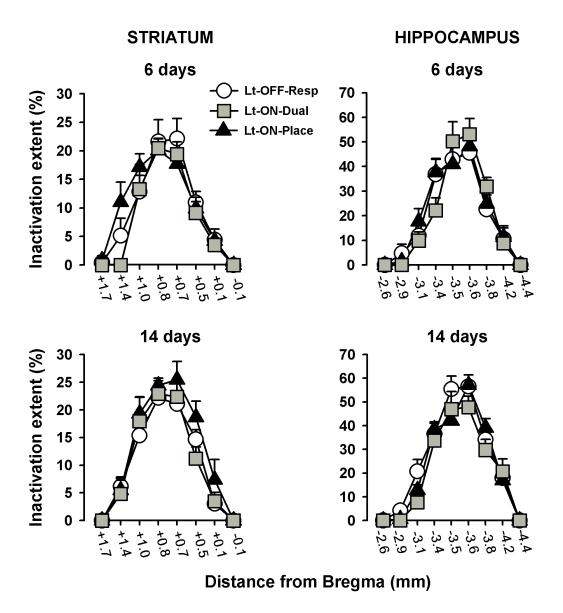
1742 (see next page)



Supplementary figure 12: Quantification on coronal sections of the diffusion 1746 radius of the MUSC-induced inactivation around the infusion sites in the dorsal 1747 striatum and dorsal hippocampus provides evidence for comparable diffusion 1748 areas among experimental conditions. All inactivation areas were expressed as a 1749 percentage of the surface of the region of interest at -0.1, +0.1, +0.5, +0.7, +0.8, 1750 +1.0, +1.4 and +1.7 mm (STRIATUM; dorso-ventral limits of the DStr are those 1751 shown in Supplementary Figure 1), and at -4.4, -4.2, -3.8, -3.6, -3.5, -3.4, -3.1, -2.9 1752 and -2.6 mm (HIPPOCAMPUS); all coordinates are given in mm from Bregma 1753 according to Paxinos and Watson (2007). Data illustrated are means (+ sem). The 1754 ANOVA only showed a significant Anteriority effect. All other effects (Protocol, 1755 Duration, or any of the second or third order interactions) were not significant. Notice 1756 that for the statistical analyses, anteriority levels where zero values were found in all 1757 1758 rats have not been included in the analyses. This was the case for levels of -0.1 mm in the DStr, and -2.6 and -4.4 mm in the DHip. 1759

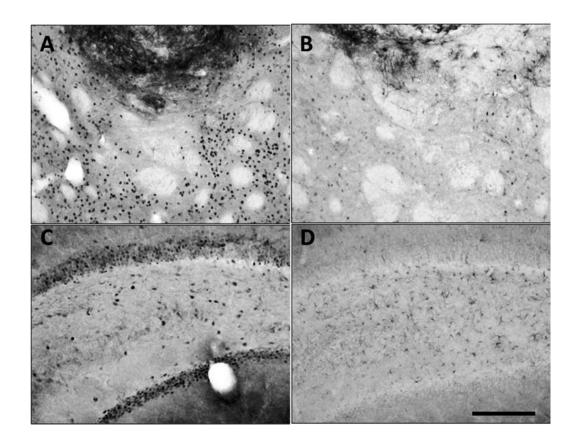
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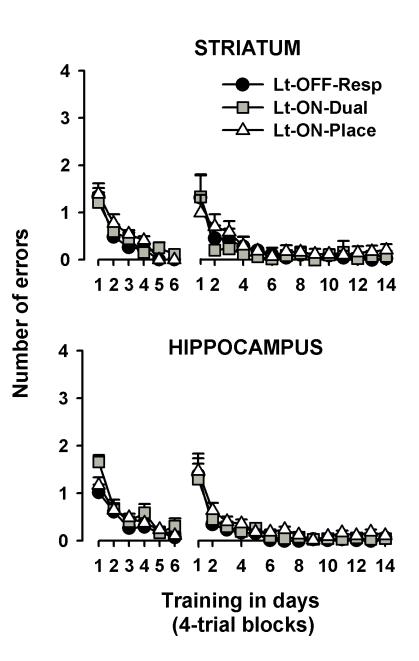
1765 <u>Supplementary Figure 13:</u> Effect of MUSC infusion on c-Fos staining. Typical 1766 examples of c-Fos staining observed in the medial part of the dorsal striatum (A, B) 1767 and in region CA1 (C, D) of the dorsal hippocampus from rats tested in a probe trial 1768 30 min after an intrastriatal or an intrahippocampal infusion of aCSF (A, C) or 1769 muscimol (B, D). Scale bar = 250 μ m.

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Supplementary Figure 14: Number of errors was comparable among experimental conditions, indicating similar performance in all groups of rats. In each of the four training conditions of our second experiment (Protocol X Duration), mean numbers of errors (+ sem) are represented over the 6- and 14-day training sessions (daily blocks of four trials). Statistical analyses showed no significant difference between the training conditions. The same was true for distances. The number of animals in each condition can be found in Figure 8 of the article.

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Supplementary Table 3: Percent of rats shifting to the NE arm right after 1782 having first visited the N arm showed MUSC-induced disruption of 1783 performance, except when infused in the striatum after 14 days of training in Lt-1784 ON-Dual and Lt-ON-Place rats. Number of rats showing a direct swim to the N arm 1785 after having been released in the maze are indicated between brackets as "(n/ N)". 1786 aCSF stands for artificial cerebrospinal fluid, MUSC for muscimol. The table reads as 1787 follows : "of the N tested rats, % of the n rats that first entered the N arm and which 1788 then shifted to the NE one". 1789

Training	Training	Infusion structure			
condition	duration	Striatum		Hippocampus	
		aCSF	MUSC	aCSF	MUSC
Lt-OFF-Resp	6 days	38 % (8/9)	0 % (2/8)	0 % (9/9)	25 % (4/11)
	14 days	14 % (7/7)	20 % (5/8)	0 % (7/7)	33 % (3/8)
Lt-ON-Dual	6 days	14 % (7/8)	50 % (6/7)	43 % (7/7)	0 % (3/7)
	14 days	<u>71%</u> (7/7)	<u>100 %</u> (4/8)	<u>86 %</u> (7/7)	25 % (4/9)
Lt-ON-Place	6 days	66 % (3/7)	0 % (3/9)	<u>66 %</u> (6/8)	50 % (2/9)
	14 days	<u>71 %</u> (7/7)	<u>100 %</u> (6/8)	<u>100 %</u> (6/7)	38 % (8/10)

The proportion of rats having first swum to the N arm and then shifted to the NE was 1790 significantly higher than chance in the following groups : after 6 days of training, in Lt-1791 ON-Place rats subjected to intrahippocampal infusion of aCSF; after 14 days of 1792 training, in Lt-ON-Dual rats subjected to intrastriatal aCSF or MUSC infusions (Chi² = 1793 8.05, p < 0.01 and Chi² = 18.0, p < 0.001, respectively) or to intrahippocampal aCSF 1794 infusions (Chi² = 13,76, p < 0.001), and in Lt-ON-Dual rats subjected to intrastriatal 1795 aCSF or MUSC infusions (Chi² = 8.05, p < 0.01 and Chi² = 12, p < 0.001) or 1796 intrahippocampal infusions of $aCSF(Chi^2 = 18.00, p < 0.001)$. The corresponding 1797 percentages are underlined. In the other cells, there was no significant difference 1798 from chance. 1799

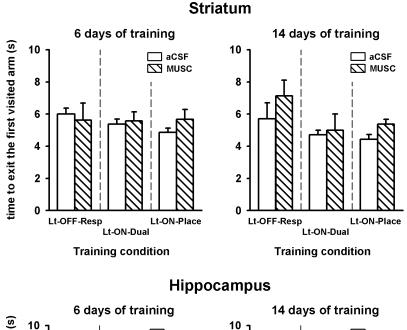
Supplementary Table 4: Average swim velocity during the probe trial was similar, regardless of training protocol, duration and inactivation conditions. aCSF stands for artificial cerebrospinal fluid, MUSC for muscimol. Data are indicated in cm/s as means (sem). Statistical analyses showed no significant difference among groups.

Training	Training	Infusion structure			
protocol	duration	Striatum		Ніррос	ampus
		aCSF	MUSC	aCSF	MUSC
Lt-OFF-	6 days	26.3 (0.9)	27.2 (1.7)	26.4 (0.9)	24.7 (1.2)
Resp	14 days	26.1 (1.6)	26.8 (1.6)	26.2 (1.3)	26.3 (1.7)
Lt-ON-Dual	6 days	24.0 (0.9)	23.6 (1.4)	26.0 (1.2)	26.3 (1.6)
	14 days	25.7 (1.2)	26.0 (1.0)	25.7 (1.4)	25.0 (0.5)
Lt-ON-	6 days	26.9 (0.7)	26.3 (0.5)	27.2 (1.0)	26.2 (1.0)
Place	14 days	26.4 (0.9)	26.5 (1.2)	25.6 (1.4)	26.8 (1.1)

The 3 (Protocol) X 2 (Duration) X 2 (Inactivation) ANOVAs were performed separately for rats infused into the striatum or the hippocampus. ANOVA of the average swim velocities in rats subjected to intrastriatal infusions showed that Protocol (F $_{(2,87)} = 0.4$, *ns*), Duration (F $_{(1,87)} = 0.1$, *ns*), Inactivation (F $_{(1,87)} = 0.2$, *ns*), and the second or third order interactions (F $_{(2,87)}$ or $_{(1,87)} < 1.0$, *ns*) had no significant effect on swim velocities. ANOVA of the swim velocities in rats subjected to intrahippocampal infusions supported similar conclusions.

Supplementary Figure 15: Time to exit the first visited arm, be it N, NE or any 1813 other arm, did not show any difference among experimental conditions (light, 1814 training, inactivation). All data illustrated are given in seconds (+ sem). Analysis 1815 (ANOVA) of the data from rats subjected to intrastriatal infusions showed no 1816 significant Protocol (F $_{(2,81)}$ = 2.61, p = 0.08), Duration (F $_{(1,81)}$ = 0.08, p = 0.77) or 1817 Inactivation effects (F $_{(1.87)}$ = 1.74, p = 0.19), and none of the second or third order 1818 interactions was significant. Analysis of the data from rats subjected to 1819 intrahippocampal infusions showed no significant Protocol (F $_{(2.87)}$ = 0.91, p = 0.40), 1820 Duration (F $_{(1,87)}$ = 1.17, p = 0.28) or Inactivation effects (F $_{(1,87)}$ = 0.04, p = 0.83), and 1821 none of the second or third order interactions was significant. 1822

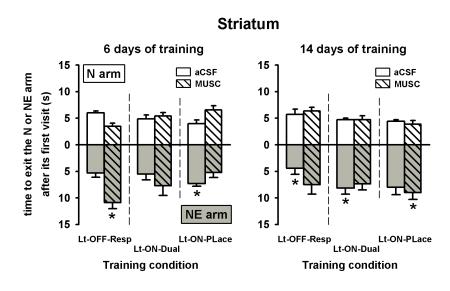
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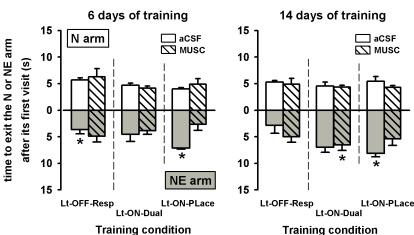


time to exit the first visited arm (s) 10 10 🔲 aCSF 🔲 aCSF MUSC Musc 8 8 6 6 4 4 2 2 0 ۵ Lt-OFF-Resp Lt-ON-Place Lt-OFF-Resp Lt-ON-Place Lt-ON-Dual Lt-ON-Dual Training condition Training condition

Supplementary Figure 16: Average time to exit the N or NE arm confirmed 1825 MUSC-induced disruptions, although they were less marked than in Figure 9 of 1826 the article. Data are shown according to the different protocol, duration and 1827 inactivation conditions. All means are given in seconds (+ sem). White bars 1828 correspond to the N arm, grey ones to the NE arm. For each condition, time in the N 1829 arm was compared to time in the NE arms using a Student's t-test for paired 1830 samples. Statistical analysis : * indicates a significant difference between time in N 1831 and time in NE ; p < 0.05. 1832

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Hippocampus

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