a0005 4.16 Neural Ensembles in Taste Coding

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Glossary

- <u>g9000</u> **coherence** The state of sticking together, here meaning neurons firing (or changing firing) at the same times.
- <u>g9005</u> **context** A set of variables having to do with the environment, either internal or external.
- <u>g9010</u> **ensembles** Groups of neurons recorded simultaneously.
- <u>g9015</u> **forebrain** The rostral-most portion of the brain, including the thalamus, hypothalamus, basal ganglia, limbic system, and of course cerebral cortex.
- <u>g9020</u> *hierarchy* Classification for a system containing a series of levels, each of which does a particular job or set of jobs.
- <u>g9025</u> *interactions* Activity in one element (here, a neuron or brain region) having an impact on activity in another.

pattern completionA property of a neural net-
work architecture, whereby the act of setting a
small subset of units into a state reflecting a par-
ticular global pattern causes, through time, the
rest of the network to complete this global
pattern.g9030receptive fieldThe range of stimuli to which ag9035

neuron responds. *taste space* A theoretical organization of the rela-

tive similarities between the stimuli within a particular modality.

top-down Interregional interactions reflecting the influence of a higher level of a hierarchy on a lower level of the same hierarchy. g9045

<u>s0005</u> 4.16.1 Introduction

p0005 Two main theories of taste coding, the labeled-line (LL) and across-neuron pattern (ANP) hypotheses, dominate research in gustation. The two theories are similar, in that both explain taste coding in terms of activity in populations of neurons. They differ in only one regard: according to the LL theory, a particular subgroup of neurons communicates information for a particular taste, and therefore a reduction in firing among one subgroup (say, sucrose-best neurons) codes a reduction in that taste (sweetness); according to the ANP theory, the entire population of taste-responsive neurons participates in all codes, and therefore a reduction in the response of sucrose-best neurons is expected to code both a reduction in sweetness and an increase in some other taste quality (which is coded, in part, by specifically low firing rates in sucrose-best neurons).

It is not our intent to pursue these distinctions <u>p0010</u> here. Excellent pro-LL (Scott, K., 2004) and pro-ANP (Smith, D. V. and St. John, S. J., 1999) reviews have been written in the last 10 years. Instead, we will discuss a basic aspect of neural population function that is largely lacking from debates over taste coding. In this essay, we will suggest that coding in distributed neural populations is intrinsically interactive, and that future advances in our theories of gustatory population coding will therefore require an accounting of such interactions. We will present data demonstrating that such interactions occur in sensory systems, including the gustatory system. This will lead to a discussion of the spatial and temporal structures that such interactions introduce into population activity, and finally to our suggestion that dynamic population codes may be best thought of not as coding stimuli themselves, but rather as driving the transformation of sensory-related activity into action-related activity. Guided by seminal theorizing about perception and action (Gibson, J. J., 1966; Erickson, R., 1984) and by data from taste and other sensory systems, we will argue that the time has come to think about gustatory population coding in a way that is orthogonal to the LL–AFP debate.

s0010 4.16.2 Population Coding and Neural Interactions

- <u>p0015</u> While the LL and ANP hypotheses both refer to activity in populations of neurons, neither suggests a specific role for interactions between the neurons. Such interactions, embodied at the simplest level by concepts such as lateral or reciprocal inhibition and excitation, would in fact introduce complications into the decoding of a LL or ANP code, because such interactions cause neural activity to be modulated through time (see below). In fact, any purely spatial coding scheme (such as both LL and ANP) proposed to function in a network in which neurons interact must include specification of the operative time period during which the spatial code will be polled for content.
- By comparison, most conceptions of neural popup0020 lation function explicitly rely on convergence and/or feedback between nodes (see, for instance, Nagai, T. et al., 1992; van Vreeswijk, C. and Sompolinsky, H., 1998; Nagai, T., 2000; Masuda, N. and Aihara, K., 2003). The earliest neural network models, founded on basic neuroscientific principles but developed before researchers had the means to do ensemble electrophysiology, suggested that population coding relies on information transfer among an entire set of neural elements (McClelland, J. L. and Rumelhart, D. E., 1981). No individual group of neurons in these models (save the input and output nodes) is profitably described as coding any particular stimulus. Instead, processing is a function of the interactions between neurons. Input to such models - even LL input - is transformed by interconnected neural networks into dynamic patterns in which individual neural elements seldom code stimulus attributes independently of their neighbors (see, for instance, Lumer, E. D. et al., 1997; Rabinovich, M. I. et al., 2000; Sporns, O. et al., 2000).

Data collected in the light of such neural network <u>p0025</u> modeling has suggested that real brain systems engage in exactly this sort of population coding. A variety of vertebrate and invertebrate sensory, cognitive, and motor systems may make explicit use of interactions between neurons (see below). These interactions introduce considerable complexity into single-neuron behavior and do processing work in neural systems. And while most of this work has been done in the visual, auditory, somatosensory, and olfactory systems, it now appears that the same can be said of the gustatory system – neuronal interactions occur both within and between brain regions in the taste neuroaxis. We will now briefly discuss those anatomical and physiological data.

Interactive processing within single brain regions p0030 can be revealed in cross-correlogram (CCG) and cross-coherence peaks, which indicate that one neuron produces action potentials in a consistent temporal relationship to those of another (Brody, C. D., 1999). When that correlated activity is specific to particular stimuli, it suggests that neural coding may involve population interactions. Such coding has been observed to occur in the somatosensory (Roy, S. and Alloway, K. D., 1999), auditory (e.g., Eggermont, J. J., 1994; DeCharms, R. C. and Merzenich, M. M., 1996; Eggermont, J. J., 2000), visual (e.g., Brosch, M. et al., 1997; Lampl, I. et al., 1999; Bretzner, F. et al., 2001; Yoshimura, Y. et al., 2005), and olfactory (e.g., Wehr, M. and Laurent, G., 1996; Christensen, T. A. et al., 2003) systems, and similar findings have been reported in the frontal cortex of monkeys performing a GO NO-GO task (Vaadia, E. et al., 1995) and in motor cortex (Hatsopoulos, N. G. et al., 2003).

In the taste system as well, pairs of cortical neu- p0035 rons produce correlated spike patterns during the presentation of particular subsets of tastes (Yokota, T. et al., 1996; Nakamura, T. and Ogawa, H., 1997; Yokota, T. and Satoh, T., 2001; Katz, D. B. et al., 2002b). Taste administration recruits taste-specific but overlapping neuronal ensembles, including some neurons that are broadly tuned and some that according to classic single-neuron analyses cannot even be identified as taste responsive, that is, neurons with flat or unremarkable responses to taste administration may still be involved in taste-specific crosscorrelations (Katz, D. B. et al., 2002b). Taste-specific cross-correlations have also been observed in the nucleus of the solitary tract (NTS, Adachi, M. et al., 1989) and in the pontine parabrachial nuclei (PbN, Yamada, S. et al., 1990; Adachi, M., 1991). Patterns of

neural interactions appear to provide an additional source of taste-related information not inherent in single-unit spike trains, suggesting that taste neurons are embedded in interactive ensembles.

Of course, these intraregional ensembles are themp0040 selves embedded in larger interactive networks. Various dye-labeling techniques have demonstrated the existence of reciprocal connections among tasteresponsive nuclei in brainstem, thalamic, limbic, and cortical regions. Just as injections of horse-radish peroxidase into PbN have revealed two parallel ascending taste pathways in rodents - a parabrachiothalamo-cortical and parabrachio-amygdaloid pathway (Halsell, C. B., 1992) - similar methods have revealed descending pathways back to the brainstem (van der Koov, D. et al., 1984; Huang, T. et al., 2003). Reciprocal connections have been shown to exist between various pairs of taste regions, including gustatory cortex (GC) and thalamus (Nakashima, M. et al., 2000), GC and amygdala (McDonald, A. J. and Jackson, T. R., 1987), and amygdala and PbN (Takeuchi, Y. et al., 1982). These data suggest that taste information is processed in a distributed system of information exchange involving ascending and descending pathways.

Interregional connectivity in the taste system is p0045 both convergent and functional (Di Lorenzo, P. M. and Monroe, S., 1997), just as it is in other systems (e.g., Kay, L. M. et al., 1996; Alonso, J. M. et al., 2001; Alloway, K. D. and Roy, S. A., 2002; Villalobos, M. E. et al., 2005). For example, stimulation of GC, amygdala, or hypothalamus modifies single-neuron PbN responses to lingual application of the four basic tastes (Lundy, R. F. and Norgren, R., 2004; Li, C. S. et al., 2005). A large percentage of the PbN taste neurons that receive any sort of feedback receive it from at least two forebrain sites, suggesting that multiple feedback loops may converge upon single brainstem taste neurons. Modulation of neurons in NTS, the very first central taste relay, via manipulation of both central amygdala and lateral hypothalamus, produces similar results (Cho, Y. K. et al., 2003).

p0050 The specific function of feedback from forebrain to brainstem has been suggested to be a sharpening of receptive field (i.e., forebrain stimulation typically reduces the number of stimuli to which brainstem neurons respond, see Lundy, R. F. and Norgren, R., 2004). It might be tempting to conclude that the ultimately sharpened responses are evidence for a LL code, but in fact these data compellingly demonstrate that feed-forward projections are relatively broadly tuned (reflecting either broadly receptive transduction mechanisms or very early mixing of pathways), and that the apparent labeling of brainstem neurons represents an interactive network effect, in which the broad responses are tuned up by forebrain populations.

4.16.3 Functional Implications of <u>souls</u> Interactive Population Coding

The existence of interactive ensembles has strong <u>p0055</u> implications for neural network function. Specifically, within- and between-region interactions affect neural activity by introducing structure – both spatial and temporal – into spontaneous and evoked neural activity. Through such imposition of structure, interneuronal interactions imbue neural activity with contextual and behavioral specificity. We will now discuss studies demonstrating that these phenomena are prominent in many neural systems and, to the extent that they have been studied, in the taste system as well.

Classical analysis of sensory neural coding relies <u>p0060</u> on the tacit assumption that spontaneous, prestimulus neural activity is random and uncorrelated – noise with which stimulus-evoked signals must compete. In populations of interacting neural elements, however, spontaneous activity is far from random. Hallmark phenomena of interactive processing, such as pattern completion (Rumelhart, D. E. and McClelland, J. L., 1986), ensure that spontaneous activity can drive a network into preferred coherent states.

Little work on this topic has yet been done in the <u>p0065</u> taste neuroaxis, but visual cortex has been shown to spontaneously attain spatially coherent global states (Arieli, A. *et al.*, 1996). Images of intrinsic V1 signals, keyed to the spontaneous firing of individual neurons, are nearly identical to the maps produced when those neurons' best stimuli are presented (Tsodyks, M. *et al.*, 1999; Kenet, T. *et al.*, 2003). Analogously, motor cortical networks have been suggested to attain states, referred to as preshapes, that predict population codes for particular movements well in advance of such movements (Bastian, A. *et al.*, 1998; 2003). Cortex can produce best-stimulus responses both in the presence and absence of these stimuli.

The complementary result has also been shown: $\frac{p0070}{cortex}$ produces surprisingly variable responses to static stimuli. In fact, the specific spatial structure of cortical responses is less dependent on the exact

physical stimulus than on the cognitive context, that is, the animal's interpretation of the stimulus at a particular moment. In the visual system, for example, attention modulates the magnitude of sensory activity, enhancing responses to the attended object and suppressing responses to unattended ones (e.g., Fischer, B. and Boch, R., 1985; Reynolds, J. H. and Chelazzi, L., 2004). In situations in which a stimulus is bistable (e.g., the figure-ground illusion), meanwhile, cortical neurons shift firing rates in direct relation to changes in perception, despite the fact that the actual sensory stimulus is static (Leopold, D. A. and Logothetis, N. K., 1996; Otterpohl, J. R. et al., 2000). Cognitive states also influence the correresponding lations between neurons to simultaneously presented stimuli, modifying spatial patterns of neural interactions in cortical regions (Hatsopoulos, N. G. et al., 1998; 2003), and thereby tagging the ensembles recruited to code particular real-world objects; the visual responses to disconnected line segments that are perceived to be part of a single occluded rod fire in synchrony, for instance, while responses to identical line segments that do not present the percept of an occluded rod do not (Singer, W., 1993; see also Harris, K. D., 2005).

p0075

In the taste system, as well, attentional variables affect cortical coding: when a rat ceases to pay attention to taste stimuli, the responses of 40% of the neurons in taste cortex suddenly change their receptive fields (Fontanini, A. and Katz, D. B., 2006). These changes are not random, but rather represent an interpretable modulation of perceptual taste space specifically, an increase in the salience of the palatability dimension. Changes in orofacial responses to the tastes (Grill, H. J. and Norgren, R., 1978; Berridge, K. C., 2000) confirm this interpretation (Fontanini, A. and Katz, D. B., 2006). Such placing of coherent responses into a meaningful context has been suggested to have its source in feedback from higher neural centers (Engel, A. K. et al., 2001; Buffalo, E. A. et al., 2005). In other words, inclusion of multiple brain regions in the coding population places the neural code into the motivational and cognitive context, such that sensory responses reflect the meaning of stimuli, and not simply their physical makeup.

<u>p0080</u> While it has not yet been shown that taste networks organize into analogous spatial coherence (but see Yoshimura, H. *et al.*, 2004), it is becoming clear that neural responses to taste administration, like those to other stimuli (e.g., Golomb, D. *et al.*, 1994; Vaadia, E. *et al.*, 1995; MacLeod, K, and Laurent, G.,

1996; Seidemann, E. et al., 1996; Compte, A. et al., 2000: Kirkland, K. L. et al., 2000: Bazhenov, M. et al., 2001; Miller, P. et al., 2005), do have temporal structure. Such temporal structure has been extensively described in both brainstem (Di Lorenzo, P. M. and Schwartzbaum, J. S., 1982; Erickson, R. P. et al., 1994; Di Lorenzo, P. M. and Victor, J. D., 2003) and cortex (Katz, D. B. et al., 2001; see also Tabuchi, E. et al., 2002). The use of chronic recordings in active, tasting rats has allowed us to observe not only slower dynamics but also oscillations (Fontanini, A. and Katz, D. B., 2005) in taste cortex, a region rife with inhibitory cross-talk (Ogawa, H. et al., 1998). These cortical dynamics have been directly linked to network functioning (Katz, D. B. et al., 2002b), a finding that is consistent with paired-pulse studies showing that two identical inputs, separated by just long enough to allow the processing of information from the first input to begin, cause reliably distinct patterns of response in NTS neurons (Lemon, C. H. and Di Lorenzo, P. M., 2002; Di Lorenzo, P. M. et al., 2003). Gustatory responses are clearly dynamic, as predicted by interactive population models (but not by either the LL or ANP model).

Analogous to the above findings on spatial coher- p0085 ence, perceptual relevance emerges in the temporal structure of cortical taste responses, much as it does in other systems (Sugase, Y. et al., 1999; Friedrich, R. W. and Laurent, G., 2001). While data from primates have suggested that only prefrontal cortical activity is affected by important changes in state (i.e., satiety, Rolls, E. T. et al., 1989), rat primary cortical responses clearly contain both sensory and cognitive components. These responses can be divided in three epochs, each of which reflects a particular stage of gustatory processing - somatosensation, chemosensation, and palatability (Katz, D. B. et al., 2001). Attention-related changes in stimulus palatability are preferentially expressed in changes in lateepoch coding (Fontanini, A. and Katz, D. B., 2006), a fact that reinforces the conclusion that the three epochs represent genuine temporal coding, rather than trivially reflecting the outcome of processing.

The evolution of activity during these three <u>p0090</u> epochs could be the result of interactions/reverberations between the gustatory system and other highorder areas known to code palatability, such as the amygdala (Nishijo, H. *et al.*, 1998). It has also recently been shown that even later aspects of cortical responses in rats change as a taste becomes familiar (Bahar, A. S. *et al.*, 2004). Thus, cognitive processes are apparent both in the spatial and temporal structures of sensory responses, as one expects when examining a system functioning via interacting populations of neurons.

<u>s0020</u> 4.16.4 The Purposes of Neural Interactions in Taste

- **p0095** It is clear that the behavior of neurons in primary gustatory cortex must be interpreted in terms of context both the physical context of the networks (of neurons and brain areas) into which the neuron is connected and the cognitive context of the task. Primary GC is not a passive receiver, but rather a dynamic processor of information constantly engaged in a behaviorally dependent interplay with other regions; taste neurons in cortex interact with populations of neurons throughout the taste neuroaxis in the process of stimulus coding. A fundamental issue that remains to be addressed, however, is the definition of the term coding. Put another way, the question is: what kind of processes are interacting populations of taste neurons involved in?
- <u>p0100</u> It has been suggested that neural ensembles may interact for the purposes of binding and/or effective signal transmission, collapsing neurons into a functional, synchronous ensemble in order that this ensemble may code a context-embedded percept. Intraregional connectivity is thought to allow flexible assembly of a broad range of possible ensembles, while longer-range connections modulate that assembly according to global (cognitive) states (Brosch, M. *et al.*, 1997). This hypothesis has been further extended to consider time-varying responses, wherein distinct subpopulations of neurons fire synchronously at different times during the response (Vaadia, E. *et al.*, 1995; Wehr, M. and Laurent, G., 1996).
- Synchrony is potentially powerful, because synp0105 chronous input can be decoded by coincidencedetecting readout cells whose firing represents a synthetic and sparsened version of the input. Perhaps the most well-studied example comes from the insect olfactory system. Kenyon cells in the mushroom body of the locust and fly receive complex, time-varying inputs from populations of projecting neurons in the antenna lobe (Laurent, G. et al., 2001; Lei, H. et al., 2004; Wilson, R. I. et al., 2004) and respond to this very complex input with relatively few - and very reliable - action potentials following the arrival of synchronous inputs (Perez-Orive, J. et al., 2002). The attractiveness of the synchronization hypothesis lies in the ease with which it

fits into an overall vision of the brain as a codingdecoding device: every area codes the input according to some rules and feeds its output to a higher level area that synthesizes it into a sparser representation. In this framework the brain is treated as a linear hierarchical system, where the output of a level is sent to the next, and where the highest level decodes a fully contextualized percept.

The evidence collected thus far, however, does p0110 not provide strong support for such a model of gustatory function. As described above, information traversing the gustatory system is hierarchical only to a first approximation - for every ascending pathway between brainstem and forebrain there is matching feedback. In the context of this recurrent organization it is hard to identify the putative decoding zone in which convergence and sparsening might occur. Recordings confirm that the taste selectivity of neural responses does not increase by a great deal as one ascends through the system (Yamamoto, T. et al., 1985; Ogawa, H. et al., 1990; Nishijo, H. et al., 1998), and there is not much evidence for synchrony or oscillations during gustatory processing. In fact, while oscillations occur prominently in gustatory cortex, they specifically occur when rats are not engaged in taste processing (Fontanini, A. and Katz, D. B., 2005). Significant CCGs between pairs of neurons separated by more than 100 µm, meanwhile, appear to reflect simultaneous changes of firing rate, rather than synchronous firing of action potentials (Katz, D. B. et al., 2002b).

Alternative theories avoid the coding-decoding p0115 issue entirely, simply by suggesting that processing of a sensory stimulus can be accomplished in the absence of coding of the sensory stimulus. Several researchers and philosophers (see, for instance, Varela, F. J. et al., 1991; van Gelder, T., 1992; Eggermont, J. J., 1998; Engel, A. K. et al., 2001), including more than one chemosensory scientist (Freeman, W. J. and Skarda, C. A., 1994; Halpern, B. P., 2000), have suggested that coding and representation may be constructs with more relevance to computer function than to brain function. Such a notion is prima facie attractive, because all extant concepts of taste coding run into trouble over the fact of the wide range of response latencies produced in gustatory behavior - the fact that some taste responses can be produced as little as 200 ms following taste administration, while others take well over 1 s (Halpern, B. P., 2005). Furthermore, it makes sense from an ecological prospective, in that the function of gustation is to provide information for

the crucial decision of ingesting or rejecting food (Gibson, J. J., 1966). Taste is therefore intimately linked to orofacial motor behavior – a linkage that is explicit in the fact that the brainstem taste relays are almost directly connected into orofacial motorneuron pools (Travers, J. B. and Norgren, R., 1983; Travers, J. B. *et al.*, 2000). It may be reasonably argued that the job of populations of neurons in the gustatory neuroaxis is not to code tastes at all, but rather to transform taste input into motor output. In such a scheme, the spatial hierarchy in which each successive brain region contains more highly processed information is replaced by a temporal hierarchy in which successive time points contain more highly processed information.

This, then, would be the function of interacting p0120 neural populations - to transform input, through poststimulus time, into a form adequate for driving behavior. Stimulus-related input does not get represented by neural firing (or even by neural synchrony) for any particular finite time, but rather sets in motion a dynamic process of population interaction (Harris, K. D., 2005). This is consistent not only with the recent data on temporal coding and cross-correlations in taste (Katz, D. B. et al., 2002a), but also with data from other systems showing: (1) action-oriented responses in early sensory relays (Kay, L. M. and Laurent, G., 1999, Shuler, M. G. and Bear, M. F., 2006); (2) emergence of perceptual information through time (Sugase, Y. et al., 1999); and (3) intriguing new data suggesting that visual input merely perturbs active processes already underway in V1 (Fiser, J. et al., 2004).

<u>s0025</u> 4.16.5 Conclusions

<u>p0125</u> These are necessarily speculative musings, because the study of interactive population coding in taste cortex and the larger taste neuroaxis is still in its infancy. We do not write this review in an attempt to resolve the debate between LL and ANP theories – both theories have their adherents, both can be thought to receive support from data, and as of now neither can be disproved in the central nervous system. Our suggestion is that we will need a more explicit account of interacting populations, perhaps adapted from research in other systems, if we are to provide the necessary framework for a complete understanding of the functioning of taste networks. These interactions exist in the taste system, as they do in other, more extensively examined systems and in realistic neural models. The extant theory and data suggest that they may be central to sensory function – function that may conceivably have more to do with transforming input smoothly into motor output than with actual coding of the stimulus *per se*. It will likely be years before these issues can be completely resolved.

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