

The Hippocampal Horizon: Constructing and Segmenting Experience for Episodic Memory

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Highlights:

- Event segmentation can be externally or internally driven.
- Externally driven event segmentation on shorter versus longer timescales reflects distinct cognitive and hippocampal mechanisms.
- Hippocampal Sharp-Wave Ripples can subserve an intrinsic event segmentation function.
- Hippocampal coding during specific event boundaries may be necessary for episodic recollection.

Abstract

How do we recollect specific events that have occurred during continuous ongoing experience? There is converging evidence from non-human animals that spatially modulated cellular activity of the hippocampal formation supports the construction of ongoing events. On the other hand, recent human oriented event cognition models have outlined that our experience is segmented into discrete units, and that such segmentation can operate on shorter or longer timescales. Here, we describe a unification of how these dynamic physiological mechanisms of the hippocampus relate to ongoing externally and internally driven event segmentation, facilitating the demarcation of specific moments during experience. Our cross-species interdisciplinary approach offers a novel perspective in the way we construct and remember specific events, leading to the generation of many new hypotheses for future research.

Keywords: Episodic memory; Hippocampus; Recollection; Event segmentation; Event boundary; Event horizon model.

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1. Introduction

Since the first reporting of hippocampal place cells (O'Keefe & Dostrovsky, 1971), we have developed a clearer understanding of the nature of spatial representations within the medial temporal lobe (MTL; e.g., Poulter, Hartley & Lever, 2018; Moser, Moser & McNaughton, 2017) and their relation to episodic memory, which is itself so clearly reliant on the hippocampus (e.g., Eacott & Easton, 2010; Vargha-Khadem et al., 1997). However, only recently have we begun to consider fully the nature of the events being recollected in episodic memory. Whilst an event can be understood in the laboratory as a discrete, controlled period distinct from any other, in real life events merge into one another and their boundaries can change over time. Here, we discuss a model of event segmentation in cognitive studies, how it relates to hippocampal formation mechanisms on shorter versus longer timescales and how this may result in the recollection of specific events from ongoing experience.

2. The Event Horizon Model

There is an extensive literature on event and situation cognition in humans (Altmann & Ekves, 2019; Zwaan, 2016; Zacks, 2020; Richmond & Zacks, 2017), and in recent years the event horizon model (EHM) has developed to address how ongoing experience is encoded in long-term human event memory, how those event representations are subsequently accessed and may link to each other (Radvansky & Zacks, 2014; Radvansky, 2012). The EHM is discussed in fuller detail elsewhere (Radvansky & Zacks, 2014, 2017), but here we seek to highlight key aspects of the model relating to event segmentation and link these to understood neural mechanisms.

The starting assumption of the EHM is that events in everyday life are continually segmented into discrete meaningful units (Zacks, Speer, Swallow, Braver & Reynolds, 2007;

Kurby & Zacks, 2008). The event of ‘getting ready in the morning’ might include meaningful units such as ‘getting washed’, ‘getting dressed’, ‘brushing teeth’, rather than less meaningful units such as ‘putting toothpaste on the toothbrush’ or ‘pouring mouthwash’ etc. In such a model, an event boundary reflects the cognitive ‘border’ separating one event from another, i.e., separating ‘getting ready in the morning’ from ‘having breakfast’ (Radvansky & Zacks, 2014). Moreover, the EHM outlines that recurrent neural activity maintains a given working event model (i.e., an active mental representation of the current ongoing event) and is predictive, needing regular updating when error of predictions accumulates, typically at event boundaries (Zacks et al., 2007; Radvansky & Zacks, 2014).

The segmentation of events can be explored experimentally, by allowing people to watch movies and instructing them to press a button when they feel a meaningful unit of activity finishes and another starts (Newtson, 1973; Newtson & Engquist, 1976). Indeed, people can adjust the level at which they consider a meaningful unit of activity, by reporting event boundaries at different temporal grains, with finer-grained event boundaries grouped into coarser-grained event boundaries, indicating a partonomic hierarchy (Zacks, 2020). For instance, as one goes to purchase a coffee from a shop, they may broadly segment this experience: entering, ordering, receiving the coffee and leaving the shop (*coarse-grained*). Equivalent to broader segmentation in ‘getting ready for in the morning’: getting dressed, brushing teeth... However, if one attends to the steps undertaken by the barista, they may segment by each detailed action of the coffee making process (i.e., adding the beans, grinding them, heating the milk etc., *fine-grained*), in addition to the coarser boundaries. Thus, brushing one’s teeth may consist of finer-grained segmentations: putting toothpaste on the toothbrush and pouring mouthwash, which also contributes to the overall event of ‘getting ready in the morning’, demonstrating the partonomic hierarchy.

Work based on these passive viewing paradigms has found good inter- and intra-

subjective agreement on event boundaries (Speer, Swallow & Zacks, 2003; Zacks, Speer, Swallow & Maley, 2010). Moreover, regardless of whether a video of the same actions was filmed in first person or third person (with visual features differing over time) there was also similarity in segmentation, suggesting it is changes in meaningful content that underlies event segmentation (Swallow, Kemp & Simsek, 2018). Thus, our perspective highlights the critical importance of this event boundary heterogeneity on the cognitive level, as we later outline evidence indicating that this heterogeneity is underpinned by various differing albeit interacting neural mechanisms. Yet, in order for us to consider the physiology of how events are segmented for memory, we first have to discuss how they are constructed. One way to do so is to perceive scenes, which can efficiently package spatially organised content (what-where information). And indeed, it is easier to remember multiple objects in a single location, as opposed to remembering a single object in multiple locations (Radvansky, Andrea & Fisher, 2017).

3. The Hippocampal Formation and Event Construction

The hippocampal formation of the MTL is highly conserved across mammalian species (Insausti, 1993) and homologies are seen across birds and reptiles (Allen & Fortin, 2013). Historically, it has been functionally ascribed to declarative memory and spatial navigation cognition in such species (Scoville & Milner, 1957; Squire & Zola-Morgan, 1991; O'Keefe & Dostrovsky, 1971; Rodríguez et al., 2002; Moser et al., 2017). Accumulating evidence from episodic memory tasks in rodents strongly supports that the hippocampus proper, fornices, lateral entorhinal cortex, perirhinal cortex and the medial prefrontal cortex (and interaction between these areas) are critical for good performance on these tasks (Eacott & Norman, 2004; Langston & Wood, 2010; Langston, Stevenson, Wilson, Saunders & Wood, 2010; Chao, Nikolaus, Brandão, Huston & de Souza Silva, 2017; Chao, Huston, Li,

Wang & de Souza Silva, 2016; de Souza Silva, Huston, Wang, Petri & Chao, 2015; Wilson, Watanabe, Milner & Ainge, 2013; Vandrey et al., 2020; Barker & Warburton, 2020). On the other hand, converging evidence from neuropsychological patients with MTL pathology suggests that the hippocampus contributes to many cognitive functions namely: episodic memory, spatial navigation, imagining personal future experiences and fictitious scenes (Vargha-Khadem et al., 1997; Hassabis, Kumaran, Vann & Maguire, 2007; Race, Keane & Verfaellie, 2011), all unified by the capacity of the hippocampus to construct internally spatially coherent scenes (Maguire & Mullally, 2013; Hassabis & Maguire, 2007).

One paradigm that explores this perceptual role of scenes by the hippocampus in humans is the boundary extension effect (Intraub & Richardson, 1989). Boundary extension is a rapidly occurring cognitive phenomenon, where we implicitly visualise and extrapolate beyond the borders of a scene stimulus and subsequently misremember the original scene input due to the internalised extended scene representation (Intraub & Richardson, 1989). It was reported that MTL damaged participants paradoxically performed better than healthy controls by displaying fewer boundary extension related recognition errors (Mullally, Intraub & Maguire, 2012). Later, using neuroimaging in healthy participants, the hippocampus and parahippocampal cortex (PHC) were seen to be markedly activated, 2-4s after a 250ms scene stimulus onset in trials where boundary extension errors were made (Chadwick, Mullally & Maguire, 2013). Notably, the human PHC and monkey PHC homolog also display robust activation to scene stimuli (Epstein & Kanwisher, 1998; Epstein, Harris, Stanley & Kanwisher, 1999; Baldassano, Beck & Fei-Fei, 2013; Rajimehr, Devaney, Bilenko, Young & Tootell, 2011). Moreover, Aly, Ranganath and Yonelinas (2013) support this perceptual function of the hippocampus by reporting that MTL patients have deficits in perceiving the strength of relational match between scene stimuli, but not when discrete details can differentiate similar images. They also describe that hippocampal activity in healthy

participants monitored the strength of the scene perception as measured by neuroimaging, becoming increasingly active when participants were more confident of stimuli change (Aly et al., 2013).

Together, this provides evidence for a perceptual role of the hippocampus in scene construction and monitoring. Yet, as shown by event segmentation, scenes can be dynamic and temporally bound (events), and intuitively we as agents are always inside events and interact with the outside of objects (Cheng, Walther, Park & Dilks, 2021). Therefore, we tend to view and experience ourselves as part of events that unfold from our egocentric perspective (Rubin & Umanath, 2015; Langston et al., 2010; Zaman & Russell, 2021). If the hippocampal formation mentally constructs events, we should expect a dynamic neural code that binds the self and event content into a spatially coherent representation over time (see Table 1; also Eichenbaum et al., 2012; Sugar & Moser, 2019; Clewett, DuBrow & Davachi, 2019).

3.1. Cellular Representations of Self Position and Viewpoint

Hippocampal principal cells can fire in one or more localised areas of space in environments, constituting a cell's place field(s), hence named place cells (O'Keefe & Dostrovsky, 1971). Place cells, and other hippocampal cells can display temporal organisation of their firing pattern in relation to the local field potential of the theta oscillation (~4-12Hz in rats; O'Keefe & Reece, 1993; Skaggs, McNaughton, Wilson & Barnes, 1996; Valero & de la Prida, 2018). The temporal discharge relationship between given place cells allows good decoding of the animal's position in space as during locomotion the co-firing of place cells can trigger one another depending on the animal's trajectory, indicating that place fields are overlapping (Kubie, Levy & Fenton, 2020; O'Neill, Senior, Allen, Huxter & Csicsvari, 2008; Kay et al., 2020; Harris, Csicsvari, Hirase, Dragoi & Buzsáki, 2003). When an animal is slowly moving or immobile, the self-position

representation is understood to be signalled by a subset of cornu ammonis 2 (CA2) place cells, in which their firing rate displays an atypical negative correlation with speed compared to other place cells (Kay et al., 2016). Furthermore, in a multi-pathway environment, spiking of subicular neurons have been found to represent the current axis of travel along space and time in a given corridor (Olson, Tongprasearth & Nitz, 2017), and this activity was distinguished from head-direction tuning (Taube, Muller & Ranck, 1990).

Despite much of the place cell research being conducted in rodents, it is clear that these findings extend to other species. Cross-species comparisons of place cell activity have been made in bats (Ulanovsky & Moss, 2007; Yartsev & Ulanovsky, 2013; Eliav et al., 2021) and place cell activity exists in the hippocampal homolog of several bird species (Payne, Lynch & Aronov, 2021; Bingman & Sharp, 2006). However, spatially modulated activity recorded from single MTL cells of primates have yielded a different insight to that of rodent work. Spatial view cells have been described in the hippocampus which display localised firing activity when the animals look at a particular location in space. This activity persists even when the visual space is occluded suggesting a mnemonic component (Rolls, 1999; Rueckemann & Buffalo, 2017).

Recordings from the MTL of human patients navigating virtual environments echoes both the primate and rodent data, showing both place-like activity and spatial view activity (Ekstrom et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2013; Tsitsiklis et al., 2020). Analogous to the axis of current travel activity found in rodent subiculum (Olson et al., 2017), there is a primate spatial view cell equivalent, where posterior entorhinal cortex (EC) cells were modulated by the saccade direction during viewing of complex images (Killian, Potter & Buffalo, 2015). In fact, subgroups of saccade direction EC cells differed in activity, with some predicting future saccade trajectories, others reflecting previous saccade movements, and some not uniformly classifying into the latter groups (Killian et al., 2015). Such data reveals that attention plays a

prominent role in primate MTL spatially modulated cellular activity and highlights that attentional control likely also influences place cell activity in rodents (Keleman & Fenton, 2016).

A cue-mismatch paradigm that rotated distal cues relative to local cues in an environment, hinted at the employment of two different spatial frames of reference in place coding (Shapiro, Tanila & Eichenbaum, 1997; Lee, Yoganasimha, Rao & Knierim, 2004). Most of the CA3 place fields rotated with local cues, whereas CA1 place cells displayed little preference for rotation amongst distal versus local cues, being more selective across sessions or displaying ambiguous activity compared to more coherent CA3 activity (Lee et al., 2004). However, Kelemen and Fenton (2010) more explicitly demonstrated attentional control in CA1 place cell coding using a two-frame place avoidance task where rats were trained to avoid two shock areas. Importantly, distal visual landmarks defined a room-guided spatial frame of reference, whereas rotating olfactory and visual cues marked an immediate arena spatial frame. Within a session it was shown that CA1 activity dynamically switched between the two spatial frames of reference, with given coactive cell ensembles displaying a tendency to exhibit the same frame of reference on a scale from milliseconds to minutes (Kelemen & Fenton, 2010). More recently, it has been argued that place field tuning only accounts for a small variance of a given place cell's spikes, suggesting there may be alternative sources for firing activity (Jercog et al., 2019). Indeed, heading direction to a specific reference point in an environment can influence place cell activity (Jercog et al., 2019). In other words, single CA1 cells are conjunctively driven by multiple coding factors that can include attentional modulation, a finding mirrored across different mammalian species (Nieh et al., 2021; Wirth, Baraduc, Planté, Pinède & Duhamel, 2017; Ulanovsky & Moss, 2011; Keleman & Fenton, 2016). Therefore, there is strong evidence that cells of the hippocampal formation not only place the self within the spatial context of events, but at least in primates, do so with an 'own

eyes' perspective concomitant with the phenomenological aspect of conscious episodic recollection (Zaman & Russell, 2021).

3.2. Cellular Representations of Content

In addition to placing ourselves within the spatial context of events, our day-to-day experiences are naturally filled with things that happen, as we interact with objects and people. Early work recording from CA1 showed that when a 3D barrier, transparent or opaque, was placed into a familiar environment some of the place fields in the vicinity of the barrier were suppressed (Muller & Kubie, 1987); an early indication that the hippocampal place code is sensitive to objects in the local environment. Furthermore, some CA1 firing fields moved with the barrier when the barrier was translated, rotated when the barrier rotated, were abolished when the barrier was removed and were context-invariant when the global environment was changed (Rivard, Li, Lenck-Santini, Poucet & Muller, 2004).

Landmark vector cells found in CA1 exhibit a more complex spatial relationship to objects, forming firing fields at certain vectors to objects and have a propensity to establish new firing fields to other objects at the same vector relationship as the previous objects (Deshmukh & Knierim, 2013). Unlike superficial medial EC (MEC) object-vector cells which are readily present within environments (Høydal, Skytøen, Andersson, Moser & Moser, 2019), landmark vector cells take more time to be established (Deshmukh & Knierim, 2013). Even virtual visual cues upon a linear track can increase the CA1 spatial coding resolution, with a larger portion of place cells with smaller place fields (Bourboulou et al., 2019). Moreover, vector trace cells found in the distal subiculum of rats, displayed trace firing fields at allocentric vector relationships after objects were removed, and these were seen to persist for hours (Poulter, Lee, Dachtler, Wills & Lever, 2021). Of remarkable note, is the distinguishable yet complementary object-vector coding scheme in the various subregions of the hippocampal formation with robust vector object-location memory in subiculum,

which is regarded as an area that outputs information from the hippocampus to the neocortex (Deshmukh & Knierim, 2013; Høydal et al., 2019; Poulter et al., 2021; Kim & Spruston, 2012; Graves et al., 2012; Niztan et al., 2020). As well as firing in particular locations in an environment, the firing rate of CA1 and CA3 pyramidal neurons can also be used to identify specific objects and object-location memories (Geiller, Fattahi, Choi & Royer, 2017; Deshmukh & Knierim, 2013) and the heterogeneity of hippocampal formation anatomy contributes to object-location coding (Vandrey, Duncan & Ainge, 2021; Fernández-Ruiz et al., 2021). Overall, whether given stimuli are mainly tactile, olfactory, gustatory or auditory, the hippocampal formation can represent ‘what’ information (Anderson & Jeffery, 2003; Herzog et al., 2019; Wang, Monaco, Knierim, 2020; Woods et al., 2020; Sakurai, 1994; Aronov, Nevers & Tank, 2017), highlighting a necessary polymodal nature supporting the idea that the hippocampus constructs events.

When using conspecifics instead of objects, hippocampal areas CA2 and ventral CA1 were critical for successful social recognition memory (Hitti & Siegelbaum, 2014; Okuyama, Kitamura, Roy, Itohara & Tonegawa, 2016). Indeed, ventral CA1 excitatory neurons respond greatly to the presence of conspecifics over minutes and are modulated by conspecific facial whisker stimulations and vocalisations (Rao, von Heimendahl, Bahr & Brecht, 2019). Firing rate in males could also be used to discriminate the identity of females in single neurons (Rao et al., 2019). Interestingly, dorsal CA2 social place cells can shift their place fields relative to the identity of specific conspecifics in a trial-by-trial manner (Oliva, Fernández-Ruiz, Leroy & Siegelbaum, 2020). Furthermore, social place cells have also been observed in CA1 of the rat and bat, where neuronal firing fields were established by the position of the conspecific separate to the self (Danjo, Toyozumi & Fujisawa, 2018; Omer, Maimon, Las & Ulanovsky, 2018). Therefore, similarly to the situation for inanimate objects as described above, there is

a cellular level hippocampal representation for ‘who’ and ‘who-where’ information. The final content representation relates to affective experiences and behavioural prediction or outcome.

Reward-associated cells in CA1 and subiculum were found to be either active at the location after reward delivery or strikingly, before obtaining the reward (reward-predictive cells; Gauthier & Tank, 2018). Such reward-associated cells were context-dependent or context-invariant to the external virtual environment and the reward-predictive neurons were correlated with slowed running behaviour indicative of reward anticipation (Gauthier & Tank, 2018). Moreover, shifting of intermediate CA1 place field locations were observed in response to palatable changes in reward value (Jin & Lee, 2021). Again, such reward-location activation is not unique to rodents but can also be seen in other species (e.g., Pigeons; Bingman & Sharp, 2006).

In terms of adverse stimuli, a recent fear acquisition-extinction experiment reported elevated CA1 place cell activity during freezing bouts (Schuette et al., 2020). Surveying the calcium-related activity across this population of place cells indicated that their firing was located at a significant difference from individual freeze locations, suggesting that these place cells co-jointly encoded defensive freezing behaviour (Schuette et al., 2020). Similarly, basolateral amygdala projecting ventral CA1 cells can be shock-responsive after brief environment exploration, with these cells later responding during tone-shock pairs in the same environment (i.e., context-dependent), but not in a novel environment when the tones were repeated (Jimenez et al., 2020). Finally, in a jump avoidance task, single cell CA1 firing activity in rats was triggered by dropping or jumping, with some cells sensitive to both occurrences (Lenck-Santini, Fenton & Muller, 2008). Collectively this evidence highlights the diversity of cellular content representations in the hippocampus, particularly in CA1.

It was initially posited that hippocampal scene construction may be an atemporal process (Maguire & Mullally, 2013), yet time can also play an essential role in hippocampal

formation functioning, especially when considering the process of monitoring changes in event content over time (Maurer & Nadel, 2021; Griffiths & Fuentemilla, 2020; Clewett et al., 2019; Eichenbaum, 2004; Yonelinas, Ranganath, Ekstrom & Wiltgen, 2019; Ameen-Ali, Easton & Eacott, 2015; Aly et al., 2013).

3.3. Cellular Representations of Time

Hippocampal damage in rodent models indicates that it is necessary for elapsed time discrimination beyond 10 seconds (Sabariego et al., 2020; Kesner, Hunsaker & Gilbert, 2005), and memory for high resolution elapsed time discriminations on short (1 vs 1.5 minutes) and longer timescales (8 vs 12 minutes; Jacobs, Allen, Nguyen & Fortin, 2013). Additionally, remembering the sequential order of items in events was seen to be hippocampus dependent, yet recognising a task item versus a novel stimulus was intact in these same hippocampus lesioned animals (Fortin, Agster & Eichenbaum, 2002; Kesner, Gilbert & Barua, 2002).

These lesion studies allude to a possible hippocampal cellular assembly mechanism for temporal coding, and indeed, CA1 and CA3 pyramidal neurons can function as ‘time cells’ firing sequentially in temporally structured experiences (Eichenbaum, 2014; Salz et al., 2016). Such activity can be triggered after the onset or offset of a stimulus and can bridge stimuli across delays, until the temporal firing fields gradually become broader and lesser in number, similarly to place cells relative to landmarks (Eichenbaum, 2014; Sheehan, Charczynski, Fordyce, Hasselmo & Howard, 2021). Time cell activity in rodents and primates, can be scalable and is seen on the scale of milliseconds to minutes (Modi, Dhawale & Bhalla, 2014; Shimbo, Izawa & Fujisawa, 2021; Naya & Suzuki, 2011; Shikano, Ikegaya & Sasaki, 2021; Umbach et al., 2020; Reddy et al., 2021). Another reported temporal hippocampal phenomenon was termed event-specific rate remapping (ESR) activity (Sun,

Yang, Martin & Tonegawa, 2020). Mice were trained to run four consecutive laps in a square maze, the environment and task was identical, apart from the first lap being rewarded in a start box, acting as a temporal marker. Calcium imaging indicated that ~30% of the given CA1 cells had a peak activity rate for a given lap number that was preserved across days, hence termed ESR, and these cells conjunctively represented place coding, but this was separable from ESR activity (Sun et al., 2020). Crucially, when each lap was rewarded following a previous day of the standard one-in-four lap reward experiment i.e., removal of the temporal marker, ESR activity was abolished. Furthermore, some cell's activity could be described as 'counting', in that they had ESR activity for lap four (the last lap before a new trial) yet showed a progressive increase across laps until displaying maximal rate for lap four (Sun et al., 2020), similar to the ramp-like activity reported in CA1 minute time cells (Shikano et al., 2021).

Emerging evidence also highlights that the EC contributes to temporal coding (Robinson et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2015; Suh, Rivest, Nakashiba, Tominaga & Tonegawa, 2011; Kitamura et al., 2014; Tsao et al., 2018; Heys & Dombeck, 2018; Chenani et al., 2019). For example, extensive optogenetic inactivation of the MEC has led to disruption of CA1 temporal coding, whereas spatial coding was largely preserved (Robinson et al., 2017). Likewise in the ESR experiment, MEC optogenetic inactivation evoked remapping in ESR activity, whilst place field location remained stable (Sun et al., 2020). Interestingly, a recent computational model predicts that the MEC should also be capable of producing ESR representations (Whittington et al., 2020). The persistent activity of layer 3 MEC neurons, which project directly to CA1, make it a good candidate area for temporal related coding and communication between the neocortex and hippocampus (Hahn, McFarland, Berberich, Sakmann & Mehta, 2012; Kitamura et al., 2014; Beed et al., 2020; Isomura et al., 2006). In fact, a revised continuous attractor network model describes that a synergetic relationship

between the hippocampus and the MEC underlies the sequential temporal order of ongoing event construction (Rueckemann, Sosa, Giacomo & Buffalo, 2021). However, it is important to note that the temporal activity reported above encapsulates relative time and may require learning of the repeated regularity in the event structure, which likely requires recruitment of other brain regions (Paz et al., 2010; Shikano et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2020).

In summary, there is convincing evidence on the cellular level that the hippocampal formation binds event content and the self's position (and viewpoint in primates) to construct spatially coherent event representations over time (Rueckemann et al., 2021). This leads us to how the heterogeneity in behaviourally reported event boundaries is differentially yet complementarily represented by the brain. More specifically, how does this relate to the aforementioned hippocampal dynamics of event construction to facilitate the discrimination of certain moments in event memory. Interestingly, many of the neuronal coding phenomena discussed in this section overlap with dimensions relating to event representations from text narratives, as outlined by event-indexing theory, namely: time, space, entity, causation, and motivation (Zwaan, Langston & Graesser, 1995; Zwaan, 2016), which may enact as features of experience that cue segmentation.

4. Working Event Memory and Event Horizons

Neuroimaging and electrophysiological recordings in humans have shown that hippocampal neurons (and other MTL neurons) contribute to working memory of complex images (e.g., people and scenes) over short maintenance periods (Luck et al., 2010; Ranganath, DeGutis & D'Esposito, 2004; Kornblith, Quiroga, Koch, Fried & Mormann, 2017; Kamiński et al., 2017). This has shed light upon the existing mixed evidence for an impairment of working memory in patients with MTL pathology (Allen, Vargha-Khadem & Baddeley, 2014; Duff, Hengst, Tranel & Cohen, 2006; Zuo et al., 2020; Jonin et al., 2019; Nichols, Kao, Verfaellie & Gabrieli, 2006; Olson, Moore, Stark & Chatterjee, 2006;

Goodrich & Yonelinas, 2016; Goodrich, Baer, Quent & Yonelinas, 2019). Indeed, this working memory hippocampal activity was stimuli specific, building upon prior research of concept cells in the human MTL, whereby single neurons were seen to fire selectively to multiple images of the same person and to their written and spoken name (Kamiński et al., 2017; Kornblith et al., 2017, Quiroga, Reddy, Kreiman, Koch & Fried, 2005; Quiroga, 2020).

Concepts cells have provided important corroboration for semantic information as well as episodic information contributing to hippocampal activity, it is therefore somewhat surprising that amnesic patients with hippocampal damage can communicate efficiently with a partner in a collaborative goal-directed communication game, showing rapid learning over time, within and across sessions, comparably to controls (Duff et al., 2006).

Moment-by-moment brain activity in the default mode network (DMN) between an amnesic patient and controls was seen to be similar in response to complex auditory-based narrative information (Zuo et al., 2020). Likewise, there was similar brain activity in DMN regions during watching of video stimuli between an amnesic patient and age-matched controls (Oedekoven, Keidel, Anderson, Nisbet & Bird, 2019). However, an exception of reduced functional connectivity between the posterior midline cortex (of the DMN) and left hippocampus was noted (Oedekoven et al., 2019). Human studies such as these have led to argument that the DMN can retain some comprehension of narratives and communitive interactions in ongoing events over the span of minutes without the hippocampus (Yeshurun, Nguyen & Hasson, 2021; Hasson, Chen & Honey, 2015; Zuo et al., 2020; Oedekoven et al., 2019), and generally contend against the notion of specialised memory systems (Hasson et al., 2015; Gaffan, 2002). It is yet to be determined how these added complexities in human event construction may relate to non-human animals. However, numerous reports of amnesic patients with hippocampal damage consistently highlight the forgetting of momentary information during ongoing experience, particularly when delayed retention or distraction is

involved (Vargha-Khadem et al., 1997; Tulving, 1985; Corkin, 1984; Duff et al., 2006; Scoville & Milner, 1957). This suggests that there is a dynamic functional relationship between working memory and hippocampal dependent episodic memory to continuously maintain some coherence in our experience, within and across events (Beukers, Buschman, Cohen & Norman, 2021; Maurer & Nadel, 2021; Schneider et al., 2021; Clewett et al., 2019). To this end, we employ the term ‘event horizons’ defining them as coarse-grained hippocampal-dependent event boundary activations, which we view as distinct from finer-grained event boundary activity. This can more clearly realise the transition of an event representation from working memory into ‘long’-term episodic memory (Zacks, 2021; Richmond & Zacks, 2017; Baldassano et al., 2017).

4.1. Long Timescales

An emerging body of research in humans have made use of naturalistic stimuli to investigate how we segment and remember events (Bird, 2020). For example, Ben-Yakov and Dudai (2011) used short realistic audiovisual clips (8-16s) and found peak bilateral hippocampal activity following offset of the stimuli. They further show that this response persisted when two clips were presented consecutively (Ben-Yakov, Eshel & Dudai, 2013). In this context, event horizons reflected the rapid termination of the brief clips, indicating that each clip was encoded as a discrete episode, yet due to the length of the videos in these studies it remained unanswered how the brain responded to longer continuous naturalistic input.

Comparable brain activity in DMN regions within and across participants was observed between watching a long episode of Sherlock (~50mins), and subsequently verbally recalling aspects from said episode (Chen et al., 2017). However, it was later shown using the same stimuli, that there was dynamic, hierarchically structured activity in the hippocampus and neocortex (including the DMN) in response to the passive exposure of this continuous

input (Baldassano et al., 2017). Primary visual and auditory cortex were active to more fine-grained event boundaries on shorter timescales, whereas coarser-grained event boundaries were represented at longer timescales by stable activity in DMN regions, such as the posterior medial cortex and angular gyrus, matching behaviourally reported event boundaries from independent scorers (Baldassano et al., 2017). Importantly, along with cortically represented long-time scale event boundaries, there was also peak hippocampal activity (Baldassano et al., 2017). This has been corroborated by other long movie data sets, finding that the more observers uniformly referenced a given event boundary, the stronger the magnitude of the post-boundary hippocampal activation (Ben-Yakov & Henson, 2018). Therefore, there is good evidence to support the distinction of event horizons which tend occur on longer timescales, relating to coarser-gained event boundaries (Ben-Yakov & Henson, 2018; Cooper & Ritchey, 2020; Baldassano et al., 2017; Ben-Yakov & Dudai, 2011; Ben-Yakov et al., 2013; Zacks et al., 2010; Stawarczyk, Bezdek & Zacks, 2021). Further work will be needed to characterise event horizon activity in humans on the cellular level (Zheng et al., 2021; Yoo, Umbach, Lega, 2021) and investigate how aging and pathology impacts event boundaries and horizons (Reagh, Delarazan, Garber & Ranganath, 2020; Bailey et al., 2013). Finally, it will be critical to further understand how the relevant aspects from event-index theory (Zwaan, 2016; Zwaan et al, 1995) e.g., space, time, narrative (of protagonists) and causality drives evocation of event horizons and hippocampal activity across event horizons (Cutting, 2014; Chang, Lazaridi, Yeshurun, Norman & Hasson, 2021; Cohn-Sheehy et al., 2021a; Cohn-Sheehy et al., *in press*; Lee & Chen, 2021; Clewett et al., 2019; Song, Finn & Rosenberg, 2021).

4.2. *Short Timescales*

Implementation of long continuous naturalistic stimuli in neuroimaging studies has been extremely insightful, yet they are not without their limitations. One being that in real-

world events we are not always passively perceiving the events that unfold before us, but our own bodily actions can be instrumental to how events develop, hence we can be actively engaged in the events we experience. This distinction has been realised by a recent virtual reality experiment in humans, showing that memory recall for words was better when participants actively explored a novel virtual environment, as opposed to passively experiencing the input of another participant (Schomaker & Wittmann, 2021). In a similar vein, passive transport training of hippocampal-lesioned and sham rats in a Morris water maze task led the control group to perform worse than the lesioned group on probe-trials when rats had to actively swim to the goal location (Poulter et al., 2019). This is echoed neurally, as when rats were passively transported in a car instead of self-generated movement, their place cell activity was degraded in number and resolution (Terrazas et al., 2005). In this way, the formerly described hippocampal place and spatial view cell ensemble dynamics (and other hippocampal activity) that operate on much faster timescales, are left unaccounted for in the previous section.

Taking a different approach to movie viewing paradigms, a momentary burst of arousal was observed (as measured by increased pupil dilation) in response to auditory-based event boundaries versus non boundaries (Clewett, Gasser & Davachi, 2020). Moreover, making revisitation saccade movements to previous focal points in novel scene imagery (presented for 3s) was seen to enhance scene memory formation (Kragel, Schuele, VanHaerents, Rosenow & Voss, 2021). Crucially, prevalence of hippocampal theta oscillations after the revisitation fixation was increased relative to other saccade movements and there was top-down hippocampal modulation of the visual network specifically for revisitation saccades (Kragel et al., 2021). Indeed, hippocampal-lesioned mice are unable to produce learning induced plasticity in primary visual cortex when exposed to sequential visual grating stimuli, which also affect their predictive capabilities relative to sham controls

(Finnie, Komorowski & Bear, 2021).

Returning to movie stimuli, a wide distributed network of brain areas including the hippocampus were seen to be active following blink-onset during video watching, with the hippocampus displaying peak activation 4-6s after blink-onset (Nakano, 2015). Additionally, increases in mean between-participant eye movement synchrony correlates with increases in the proportion of movie-recalled episodic details (Davis, Chemnitz, Collins, Geerligs & Campbell, 2021). And in fact, a general increase in eye fixation rate at recall is also correlated with an increase of episodic recollection details in those with high autobiographical recollection ability (Armson, Diamond, Levesque, Ryan & Levine, 2021).

This highlights that one's own volition on shorter timescales are an important factor to consider within the scheme of unfolding events. Thus, it is necessary to further establish whether theta organised hippocampal cellular activity exists in humans and in relation to event boundaries and event horizons (which preliminary evidence supports that it does, e.g., Qasim, Fried & Jacobs, 2021; Zheng et al., 2021; Yoo et al., 2021). For example, Zheng and colleagues (2021) asked patients to watch a continuous movie clip with no boundary, a movie clip with a soft boundary (cutting to new scene in the same movie) or with a hard boundary (cutting to a different movie; an event horizon). They reported 'boundary' and 'event' cells in the MTL, wherein the onset of soft boundaries or event horizons triggered increased firing rate respectively, with event cells being entrained by local theta oscillations (Zheng et al., 2021). Therefore, as events evolve, hippocampal activity (particularly stemming from the visual domain) can operate on shorter timescales, impact memory formation (Kragel et al., 2021) and is more concomitant with finer-grained event boundaries (Baldassano et al., 2017; Zacks, 2020).

4.3. Spatial Context

Another issue arising from the use of movie stimuli to investigate the neural mechanisms of event segmentation, is that cinematic techniques applied by filmmakers are aimed to facilitate viewer event segmentation (Cutting, 2014; Cutting & Iricinschi, 2015). Cutting to a new scene with a camera shot and expressing a novel spatiotemporal context or character inclusion may indicate an event boundary (Cutting, 2014), whereas in real-world situations it is unlikely that there are such definitive transitions. However, some have argued that the context of spatial environments and physical boundaries in space may enact as cues for event segmentation in real-world scenarios (Radvansky, 2012; Brunec, Moscovitch & Barense, 2018).

The location-updating effect paradigm explores spatially driven event segmentation by making human participants experience (or virtually experience) a spatial shift by walking through a doorway from one distinct room to another with a memory task (Radvansky & Copeland, 2006; Radvansky, Krawietz & Tamplin, 2011). It was initially found that people took longer and were more erroneous in reporting the object they were carrying when there had been spatial shifts compared to when there were no shifts in a virtual environment (Radvansky & Copeland, 2006). Additionally, this forgetting effect was shown to increase by how many shifts there were to new rooms and not by the number of spatial shifts (i.e., returning to a room; Radvansky et al., 2011) and equally was seen to impact long-term temporal memory for sequentially presented items (Horner, Bisby, Wang, Bogus & Burgess, 2016). Critically, experiencing a spatial shift decreases the number of high confident correct reports associated with subjective remembering, whereas the feeling of knowing remains unaffected by a spatial shift (Seel, Easton, McGregor, Buckley & Eacott, 2019).

If we expect that experiencing a spatial shift is sufficient to trigger event boundaries or event horizons, for example, by walking through a doorway into contextually different rooms, we should therefore expect a hippocampal-dependent physiological mechanism to reflect this. Indeed, this is known as global remapping, referring to the phenomenon whereby place fields of given place cells will drastically change their spatial tuning such that population level representations of different environments become distinguished (Kubie et al., 2020; Sanders, Wilson & Gershman, 2020; Alme et al., 2014). However, we note that changes in one's use of sensory modality to achieve a goal has equally elicited global remapping in an otherwise stable environment with fixed sensory cues (Radvansky, Oh, Climer & Dombeck, 2021; Geva-Sagiv, Romani, Las & Ulanovksy, 2016). Such remapping in rodents can be modulated by environment novelty and prior experience (Frank, Stanley & Brown, 2004; Barry, Ginzberg, O'Keefe & Burgess, 2012; Duszkievicz, McNamara, Takeuchi & Genzel, 2019; Bulkin, Law & Smith, 2016; Plitt & Giocomo, 2021) and is underpinned by differential coding dynamics from hippocampal subareas and cell populations (Dong, Madar & Sheffield, 2021; Hainmueller & Bartos, 2018; Grosmark & Buzsáki, 2016; Gava et al., 2021). Interestingly, when recording in a multicompartiment environment (connected by a single corridor), place cells displayed a tendency to cluster around the doorways (Spiers, Hayman, Jovalekic, Marozzi & Jeffery, 2015; Grieves, Jenkins, Harland, Wood & Dudchenko, 2016) and remapped when there was a local contextual change to one out of the four rooms (Spiers et al., 2015). Moreover, when rats were 'teleported' from one familiar environment to another (via manipulation of light cues), there was prolonged flickering of alternate CA3 ensemble environment representations in rhythm with theta (less so in CA1; Jezek et al., 2011). In this way, interference between past and present hippocampal spatial representations and novelty-evoked responses likely contribute

to the cognitive manifestations from the location-updating effect in humans (Radvansky et al., 2011; Seel et al., 2019).

Theta-paced sequential place cell activity in rats showed the capability to segment various parts of an environment, by representing past and future trajectories in space differentially to maze turn points and reward landmarks (Gupta, van der Meer, Touretzky & Redish, 2012). Similar relevant activity for segmenting space has also been observed at arising choice-points (Kay et al., 2020; Kinsky et al., 2020) and as previously mentioned, along corridors (Olson et al., 2017). Upstream from the hippocampus, segmentation of space by turns also affects superficial MEC grid cells, that typically display spatially organised hexagonal firing fields and provide input to the hippocampus (Hafting, Fyhn, Molden, Moser & Moser, 2005; Jacobs et al., 2013). When an environment was divided into spatially equal corridors (a hairpin maze), MEC grid cells were reset at turning points resulting in discrete submaps for a given corridor (Derdikman et al., 2009). This corresponds to human phenomenological work, where it was found that when navigating and waiting before a turn compared to the route midpoint, people's memories for scenes at pre-turn stop points were more associated with 're-experiencing' compared to just knowing (Brunec et al., 2020).

The above evidence spanning from a neural level to a cognitive-experiential level, provides a compelling argument that shifts in spatial context and physical boundaries not only contribute to event segmentation but differentially impact subsequent episodic recollection (Seel et al., 2019; Brunec et al., 2020; Tulving, 1985), paralleling the work from naturalistic stimuli (Ben-Yakov & Henson, 2018; Baldassano et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2021). Moreover, hippocampal predictive coding in rodents (Gauthier & Tank, 2018; Liu, Sibille & Dragoi, 2021; Stachenfeld, Botvinick & Gershman, 2017) can also relate to important elements regarding predictive cognition from the EHM, namely that increasing prediction error in what to expect in situations can lead to segmentation and is reliant on

one's prior knowledge about such situations (Radvansky & Zacks, 2014; Zacks, 2020). For example, when mice were presented with changes in their currently experienced contextual information their hippocampal activity remapped (suggestive of segmentation) in either a continuous or discontinuous manner, dependant on whether the animal was trained in a frequently morphing context versus a rarely morphing context respectively (Plitt & Giocomo, 2021). In other words, when the mice faced increasing prediction error during their experience, their prior knowledge in what to expect in such events impacted how the hippocampus reacted to the prediction error. Therefore, operationalising event segmentation by physical means (e.g., spatial context), as opposed to conceptual means (e.g., narrative/semantic causality) may allow the start of a clearer framework to bridge the EHM from humans to nonhuman animals. Finally, given the aforementioned evidence of dynamic hippocampal processing on shorter timescales (sections 3, 4.2), we argue that this further supports the necessity of distinguishing event horizons, as we speculate that several bidirectional hippocampal-cortical interactions may occur (Beukers et al., 2021; Maurer & Nadel, 2021; Kragel et al., 2021) before a given event horizon. Returning to the coffee shop example, while many visual fixations may be made during the diligence of barista's coffee making process (finer-grained event boundaries), only upon receiving the coffee and leaving the shop (change in spatial context), may an event horizon be afforded.

5. Intrinsically Driven Event Segmentation

Insofar we have mostly discussed event segmentation in terms of external stimulus-driven change, yet are external changes always necessary for event segmentation, i.e., in the absence of external change does event segmentation still occur? Many event boundary studies encapsulate high inter-participant agreement upon given boundaries, implying homogeneity in subsequent memory performance. Yet, there is in fact great individual variance in episodic recollective abilities (Palombo, Sheldon & Levine, 2018) and while

many factors may give rise to this variance, one being oculomotor-hippocampal interactions during encoding as previously discussed (Davis et al., 2021; Armson et al., 2021; Kragel et al., 2021; Meister & Buffalo, 2016), there remains an explanatory gap between event encoding, segmentation and recollection.

Recent reports indicate that our daily mental experiences are frequently punctuated by periods of spontaneous thoughts, such as mind-wandering (Christoff, Irving, Fox, Spreng & Andrews-Hanna, 2016) or stimulus-independent perceptions (Waters, Barnby & Blom, 2020), with the former recruiting similar neural machinery as we have already mentioned e.g., the hippocampus, wider MTL and the DMN (Christoff et al., 2016; Stawarczyk et al., 2021; O’Callaghan, Shine, Hodges, Andrews-Hanna & Irish, 2019; McCormick, Rosenthal, Miller & Maguire, 2018; Karapanagiotidis, Bernhardt, Jefferies & Smallwood, 2017; Ellamil et al., 2016). The methodology of the aforementioned event segmentation studies do not address these introspective interruptions during ongoing events, which we posit are equally likely to elicit a form of ‘internal’ event boundary. The core of this argument relies on the postulation that event segmentation in itself is an inherent property of the brain, as a result of the mechanisms of intrinsically generated neural activity and transition between network states (Honey, Newman & Schapiro, 2017; Kay & Frank, 2019; Buzsáki & Draguhn, 2004). We elaborate this idea by focusing upon hippocampal sharp-wave ripples (SWRs), which have recently been discussed in relation to event boundaries (Bilkey & Jenson, 2021). Notably, similar approaches to cognition based on intrinsic function have been raised in the context of the hippocampus (Buzsáki & Tingley, 2018; Nieh et al., 2021; Kay & Frank, 2019; Mau, Hasselmo & Cai, 2020; Bittner, Milstein, Grienberger, Romani & Magee, 2017; Josselyn & Frankland, 2018). Importantly, this view does not invalidate externally modulated event boundaries or horizons but proposes that externally driven and inherent event segmentation can act both separably and complementarily to one another.

5.1. Features and Ontogeny of Sharp-Wave Ripples

Sharp waves can be characterised as large negative amplitudes seen in the local field potential of the CA1 *stratum radiatum* layer, where afferents from the dentate gyrus-CA3 performant pathway reside (Witter et al., 2000; Buzási, 2015). These usually coincide with ‘ripples’ (~110–220 Hz), transient events containing a series of wavelets (Buzási, 2015). Together sharp waves and ripples form a complex, SWRs, observed frequently in slow wave sleep and wakeful still behaviours (Kay & Frank, 2018; Joo & Frank, 2018; Poulter et al., 2018; Buzási, 2015) and are prevalent, albeit less often during exploratory active behaviour (O’Neill, Senior & Csicsvari, 2006; Leonard et al., 2015; Leonard & Hoffman, 2017). Moreover, SWRs can be accompanied by slower gamma oscillations (~20-50 Hz) in the hippocampus and cortex (Carr, Karlsson & Frank, 2012; Remondes & Wilson, 2015). Critically, even in a decorticated mammalian brain SWRs internally arise in the hippocampus (Buzási, 2015), with regions CA3, CA2, subiculum and EC all contributing to the generation of SWRs typically in low cholinergic states (Hunt, Linaro, Si, Romani & Spruston, 2018; Davoudi & Foster, 2019; Hwaun & Colgin, 2019; Oliva, Fernández-Ruiz, Buzási & Berényi, 2016; Imbrosci et al., 2021; Norimoto, Matsumoto, Miyawaki, Matsuki & Ikegaya, 2013; Yamamoto & Tonegawa, 2017; Chenani et al., 2019; Vandecasteele et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2021).

The earliest emergent oscillatory activity of the rodent hippocampus are early SWs at postnatal day 4±2 (Leinekugel et al., 2002). They are highly spatiotemporally coordinated, originating in part from synchronous CA3 burst activity that can be preceded by EC layer 3 burst activity, paw twitches or startles (Leinekugel et al., 2002; Karlsson, Mohns, di Prisco & Blumber, 2006; Valeeva et al., 2019; Valeeva, Rychkova. Vinokurova, Nasretdinov &

Khazipov, 2020). Whole cell patch experiments in 5 ± 1 day old rats have shown that CA1 pyramidal cells are driven by both gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) and glutamatergic synaptic input during early SWs (Leinekugel et al., 2002). Notably, GABA has an excitatory affect during development and can induce calcium influx in synergy with N-Methyl-D-Aspartate receptors (Ben-Ari, Gaiarsa, Tyzio & Khazipov, 2007; Leinekugel, Medina, Khalilov, Ben-Ari & Khazipov, 1997; Valeeva, Tressard, Mukhtarov, Baude & Khazipov, 2016). Interestingly, although early SWs occur within the rodent's first postnatal week, CA1 ripples develop toward the end of the second postnatal week, seemingly around the time of eye-opening and the earliest reports of operational CA1 place cells (Buhl & Buzsáki, 2005; Wills et al., 2010; Langston et al., 2010). However, ripple-like activity (140-200 Hz) and fast-gamma activity (60-100 Hz) has been described as early as postnatal day 7 ± 1 (Mohns, Karlsson & Blumberg, 2007). Thus, before the emergence of place cells and complex externally driven experience SWRs are present, contributing to synchronous hippocampal activity which is theorised to facilitate network maturation at this stage (Ben-Ari, 2001), underlying further development of more complex spatial and event cognition (Tan, Wills & Cacucci, 2017; Donato et al., 2021).

5.1. Cognitive Functions of Sharp-Wave Ripples

A substantial body of evidence supports that SWRs serve a memory consolidatory function of recent experience, commonly referred to as 'replay' (See Pfeiffer, 2020; Foster, 2017; Joo & Frank, 2018). For example, Lee and Wilson (2002) showed that CA1 sequential place cell firing during SWRs in slow wave sleep were forwardly replayed after rats traversed a linear track, temporally compressing the place cell firing sequence by approximately 20-fold. During wakeful rest periods, place cell sequences have also been observed to be reversely and forwardly replayed (Foster & Wilson, 2006; Diba & Buzsáki, 2007), which

may underlie different functions (Pfeiffer, 2020). Furthermore, disruption of SWRs in rodents has led to impaired performance on spatial and social memory tasks (Girardeau, Benchenane, Wiener, Buzsáki & Zugaro, 2009; van de Ven, Trouche, McNamara, Allen & Dupret, 2016; Oliva et al., 2020), whereas in converse, optogenetically prolonging or triggering SWRs has increased performance on such tasks (Fernández-Ruiz et al., 2019; Oliva et al., 2020).

Likewise, to that of rodent work, the number of human SWRs (in parahippocampal areas) during an afternoon sleep have been positively correlated with the number of successfully recognised image items, as measured by intracranial recordings (Axmacher, Elger & Fell, 2008). This is corroborated by a recent neuroimaging study in healthy participants, finding that sequential hippocampal activity during wakeful rest periods (proxy for SWRs), replayed the ordered hippocampal activity when completing a non-spatial decision-making task (Schuck & Niv, 2019). Primate SWRs are also temporally coupled with neocortical oscillations much like in rodents (Staresina et al., 2015; Abadchi et al., 2020; Logothetis et al., 2012; Oyanedel, Durán, Niethard, Inostroza & Born, 2020; Remondes & Wilson, 2015), which has provided further support for long-term memory models incorporating systems consolidation; the transfer of information from the hippocampus to the neocortex (Squire, 1992; Barry & Maguire, 2019).

‘Pre-play’ as opposed to replay, describes the hippocampal phenomenon whereby during SWRs of sleep and rest periods *prior* to novel experience, place cell sequences can emerge that are subsequently recruited during ongoing experience (Dragoi & Tonegawa, 2011, 2013). The ontogeny of this occurrence has recently been explored, reporting that pre-play develops around postnatal day 17, before the development of theta entrained sequential place cell activity and complex extended replay around day 23 (Farooq & Dragoi, 2019). Importantly, within single CA1 cells, those that went on to form place cells versus silent cells in a novel track, displayed more propensity to burst fire and had a lower first action potential

threshold during exploration (Epsztein, Brecht & Lee, 2011), suggesting that intrinsic dynamics contribute to place cell selection and cell allocation for memory formation (Lee, Lin & Lee, 2012; McKenzie et al., 2021; Park et al., 2016; Sekeres, Neve, Frankland & Josselyn, 2010; Josselyn & Frankland, 2018). The future oriented role of SWRs also complies with more direct cognitive demands. For instance, sequential activity during SWRs can represent novel spatial trajectories of shortcuts rarely or never even physically experienced (Gupta, van der Meer, Touretzky & Redish, 2010). Indeed, increased pre-play activity of unexperienced space was found when rats observed that the space was goal-baited as opposed to unrewarded (Ólafsdóttir, Barry, Saleem, Hassabis & Spiers, 2015). In this way, hippocampal SWRs not only reflect experience-dependent consolidatory activity but contribute to preconfigured activity (which can also be shaped by experience), allowing the network to flexibly prepare for future experience.

Memory retrieval is the final function of SWRs that we will highlight. In humans, Vaz and colleagues (2019) described an increased number of MTL ripples and coupled MTL-temporal association cortex ripples relative to successful verbally reported paired-word association retrievals. Similarly in the visual domain, the rate of SWRs increased prior to verbal retrieval (describing visual details) of previously viewed faces and places (Norman et al., 2019). Recently, increased ripple rate was also seen in relation to long-term episodic recollections and past and future oriented thought (Norman, Raccach, Liu, Parvizi & Malach, 2021; Chen et al., 2021). Comparatively in nonhuman animals, when macaques searched for target objects during repeated visual scene stimuli, SWR rate increased as a function of gaze distance to the target location (Leonard & Hoffman, 2017). Furthermore, when rats learned to avoid a shock zone by making avoiding turns, awake SWRs before rats made the turn, preferentially reactivated sequential place cell activity in the shock zone learned previously, indicative of memory retrieval (Wu, Haggerty, Kemere & Ji, 2017). Collectively, the above

cross-species evidence highlights a range of putative cognitive functions for SWRs.

While the estimated probability of a single cell spiking during SWRs is ~0-40% (Ylinen et al., 1995), the activity of many cells in the waking state is typically organised into cell assemblies (Malvache, Reichinnek, Villette, Haimerl & Cossart, 2016). Moreover, the variance in single CA1 cell's membrane potential during spontaneous wakeful SWRs can largely be characterised by three components: depolarisation, intracellular ripples and hyperpolarisation (Hulse, Moreaux, Lubenov & Siapas, 2016), reflecting heterogeneity in a given hippocampal cells response during SWRs (Hulse et al., 2016; Valero et al., 2015; Böhm et al., 2015). Such evidence suggests that the synaptic weights of the vast majority of cells in the immediate network vicinity are likely modulated by SWRs (Buzsáki, 2015; Norimoto et al., 2018), indicating that a given awake SWR may simultaneously serve a dual cognitive function of consolidating and for example, retrieving information (see Joo & Frank, 2018), or even consolidating and providing a non-cognitive function (Tingley, McClain, Kaya, Carpenter & Buzsáki, 2021). Importantly, similar SWR-like high frequency oscillations are also observed in other regions of the mammalian brain, during sleep in the claustrum homolog of reptiles and the hippocampal homolog in birds (Buzsáki, 2015; Norimoto et al., 2020; Payne et al., 2021; Yeganegi, Luksch & Ondracek, 2019).

Based on (i) the hippocampus constructs events (section 3), (ii) the ontogeny of SWRs and (iii) the combinatory functions of SWRs, we argue that SWR activity inherently segments events. This novel perspective leads to several working hypotheses, firstly, the temporal onset of SWRs should correlate within a temporal window of some externally driven event horizons and finer-grained event boundaries (see Bilkey & Jenson, 2021). Secondly, heterogeneity in SWR activations may differentially reflect event boundaries from event horizons, in which we highlight long duration ripples and concatenating ripples as candidate phenomena (Fernández-Ruiz et al., 2019; Buzsáki, 2015; Yamamoto & Tonegawa,

2017; Pfeiffer, 2020). Thirdly, if mind wandering and episodic past/future oriented thought modulates SWRs (O’Callaghan, Walpolo & Shine, 2021; Chen et al., 2021) eliciting internal event boundaries, we thus expect that it will impact subsequent memory. This may especially be tested in the absence of external change or at least minimal external change. Previous evidence (with external change) supports that mind wandering or ‘zoning out’ during a lecture, critical moments in a narrative and a cued task-switching protocol negatively affects learning and memory performance (Risko, Anderson, Sarwal, Engelhardt & Kingstone, 2012; Smallwood, McSpadden & Schooler, 2008; Whitehead, Mahmoud, Seli & Egner, 2021). As opposed to traditional approaches to event segmentation that describe high inter-subject agreement on given event boundaries (Baldassano et al., 2017; Ben-Yakov & Henson, 2018; Zacks, 2020), our view speculates that individual differences in episodic memory may arise due to subjective differences in intrinsically driven event segmentation. In this way, theorising that event segmentation can be externally and internally driven allows the EHM and other human-oriented models to further account for nonhuman mammals.

6. Beyond the Event Horizon

Events are not experienced in isolation, they evolve sequentially upon our subjective temporal continuum (Tulving, 2002; Eichenbaum, 2004). Hence, once an event model passes an event horizon threshold, it likely crosses into ‘long’-term episodic memory (Zacks, 2020) and according to EHM, a given event model is updated (Radvansky & Zacks, 2014, 2017). To this end, the hippocampus and the entorhinal-hippocampal circuit should be able to maintain event relevant information via recurrent network activity, such that when recent previous event information is experienced, the circuit can conjunctively represent long-term episodic past and present information to formulate coherent meaning (Rueckemann et al.,

2021; Maurer & Nadel, 2021; Griffiths & Fuentemilla, 2020; Hasselmo, 2006; Clewett et al., 2019; Morris & Frey, 1997; McKenzie et al., 2014; Eichenbaum, 2004).

6.1. Relation of Information Across Events

Myriad anatomical evidence demonstrates that the hippocampus and entorhinal-hippocampal circuit have numerous recurrent connections both intra-regionally and inter-regionally (Nilssen, Doan, Nigro, Ohara & Witter, 2019; Sun et al., 2019; Ohara et al., 2018; Ohara et al., 2021; Rozov et al., 2020; Beed et al., 2020; Tsoi et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2021). For example, it is well described that pyramidal cells of distal CA3 display strong recurrent connectivity, which is theorised to computationally subserve pattern completion (autocompleting a representation when given a partial cue) and contribute to SWR generation (Cembrowski & Spruston, 2019; Hunt et al., 2018; Guzman, Schlögl, Frotscher & Jonas, 2016; Rolls, 2013; Jezek et al., 2011; Alme et al., 2014). Recently, the micro-circuitry of hippocampal output to the EC has also been explored in depth (Ohara et al., 2018; Ohara et al., 2021; Tsoi et al., 2021) and of note, is that SWRs can propagate to the deeper layers of MEC (Ólafsdóttir, Carpenter & Barry, 2016; Gardner Lu, Wernle, Moser & Moser, 2019; Chrobak & Buzsáki, 1994). This becomes especially important given that hippocampal firing during SWRs was seen to underlie inference between separate but related information that ultimately led to a reward (Barron et al., 2020), and that information can recirculate back into the hippocampus via functional connectivity between the entorhinal layers (Koster et al., 2018). Furthermore, subicular vector-trace cells as previously mentioned, can retain representations of allocentric object-location memory lasting for hours (Poulter et al., 2021). These cells were found to be topographically biased in distal subiculum, a region which exhibits bidirectional connectivity with the MEC (Kim & Spruston, 2012; Graves et al., 2012; Cembrowski et al., 2018), suggesting another functional entorhinal-hippocampal

recurrent pathway for the relation of information across events.

In regards to more complex naturalistic work, emerging evidence utilising auditory-based narratives and neuroimaging has described that human hippocampal activity not only tracks context-specific narratives, but is necessary to bridge previous narrative information across event boundaries and one-day delays to form globally coherent narratives (Chang et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2016; Milivojevic et al., 2016; Cohn-Sheehy et al., *in press*). Another recent neuroimaging experiment showed that the hippocampus was more active during encoding after the offset of event boundaries with high, but not low, causal or semantic connectivity to other events (Lee & Chen, 2021), yet further work will be needed to corroborate this finding. Nevertheless, this remains an interesting avenue of research given that causal and semantic relations to other event features is also a prominent aspect of episodic recollection on the timescale of days to months, to even more remote timescales, where hippocampal-prefrontal cortex interactions may be crucial (Greenberg & Rubin, 2003; Horner, Bisby, Bush, Lin & Burgess, 2015; Eacott & Easton, 2010; Clewett et al., 2019; McCormick, Barry, Jafarian, Barnes & Maguire, 2020).

6.2. Episodic Recollection

The present review has mostly focused upon the cognition of events through the lens of recency, however remote episodic memory is an especially reconstructive process, scaffolded by schema and context (Simons, Ritchey, Fernyhough, *in press*; Bartlett, 1932; Eacott & Easton, 2010). Human neuroimaging evidence has outlined a vast distributed network of interacting brain regions during episodic retrieval including the DMN and hippocampus, in the phenomenologically associated re-experiencing that Tulving originally envisioned (Nyberg, Kim, Habib, Levine & Tulving, 2010; Jacques, Kragel & Rubin, 2011; Fandakova, Johnson & Ghetti, 2021; Ritchey & Cooper, 2020; Richter, Cooper, Bays &

Simons, 2016; McCormick et al., 2020; Tulving 2002). On the micro level, several studies have now demonstrated that despite the stability of some spatially modulated hippocampal cells over long periods of time there is high cellular turnover (Ziv et al., 2013; Rubin, Geva, Sheintuch & Ziv, 2015; Kinsky et al., 2020; Hayashi, 2019; Hainmueller & Bartos, 2018), mirrored in synaptic turnover (Attardo, Fitzgerald & Schnitzer, 2015). This has led to discussion of memory models accounting for this synaptic volatility (Langille & Gallistel, 2020; Mau, Hasselmo & Cai, 2020; Barry & Maguire, 2019; Ziv & Brenner, 2018; Mongillo, Rumpel & Loewenstein, 2017). Here, we seek to unite how the mechanisms we raised in event construction (section 3) and event segmentation (sections 4 & 5) may facilitate subjective episodic recollection.

Memory can be phenomenologically distinguished as remembering (recollection) versus knowing (familiarity), subserved by separate neuronal structures (Tulving, 1985; Brown & Aggleton, 2001; Yonelinas, 2002; Ameen-Ali et al., 2015). With episodic recollection being critically reliant upon the hippocampus and fornices, as evidenced by non-human animal models and neuropsychological cases (Easton, Zinkivskay & Eacott, 2009; Eichenbaum et al., 2012; Aggleton & Brown 1999). Likewise for healthy participants, where successful recollection also depended on hippocampal activity (Richter et al., 2016), whereby the hippocampus can be necessary for cortical reinstatement (i.e., reinstatement of the content-specific activity at retrieval that is observed during encoding; Gordon, Rissman, Kiani & Wagner, 2014; Horner et al., 2015; Bone & Buchsbaum, 2021). However, cortical reinstatement may still occur without hippocampal involvement, although critically, the success of recollection is substantially reduced (Elward, Rugg & Vargha-Khadem, 2021). The experiential component is further realised by MTL patients being unable to vividly construct scenes, often describing a feeling of ‘blankness’ in doing so (Maguire & Mullally, 2013; Tulving, 1985), and therefore, some have posited that recollection by the hippocampus

is a threshold or index dependent process (Yonelinas, 2002; Teyler & DiScenna, 1986).

Some rodent CA1 place cells do not remap across environments and may indeed be indexing specific environmental experiences (Tanaka et al., 2018; Goode, Tanaka, Sahay & McHugh, 2020). These place cells are characterised by expressing the activity-dependent immediate early gene cellular feline osteosarcoma (*c-Fos*), which can be used as a biomarker for subsequent morphological and functional long-term synaptic plasticity (Yap & Greenberg, 2018; Choi et al., 2018). Moreover, *c-Fos*⁺ double projecting ventral CA1 cells (to the basolateral amygdala and medial prefrontal cortex) were found to be preferentially activated during fear conditioning (Kim & Cho, 2017) and are markedly activated during environment exploration (Kim & Cho, 2017; Kinnavane, Amin, Olarte-Sánchez & Aggleton, 2017). In this way, a fundamental question is whether *c-Fos*⁺ CA1 cells are indexing specific events within a spatially stable environment. If so, such activity may be comparable to the event cells recorded in humans (Zheng et al., 2021; Yoo et al., 2021). It is also notable that triple projecting ventral CA1 task-responsive neurons were preferentially recruited during SWRs (Ciocchi, Passecker, Malagon-Vina, Mikus & Klausberger, 2015). To this end, a working hypothesis can be constructed for episodic recollection of *recent* experience: (i) primate spatial view cells and the hippocampal-oculomotor related activity (Rolls, 1999; Rueckemann & Buffalo, 2017; see sections 3.1. and 4.2) offers the necessary foundations to lay trace to an ‘own eyes’ perspective during event encoding (Zaman & Russell, 2021). (ii) A subset of event or *c-Fos*⁺ CA1 cells may enact as indices (including place cells; Tanaka et al., 2018) underlying event boundaries and especially event horizons to demarcate specific moments during ongoing events. (iii) These may formulise cellular assemblies which can be consolidated via SWRs (Malvache et al., 2016; Ciocchi et al., 2015) and further segment ongoing events. (iv) Subsequent recollection of these recently experienced events will require activation of the hippocampal index (Bone & Buchsbaum, 2021; Goode et al., 2020),

coordinating cortical reinstatement (Gordon et al., 2014; Bone & Buchsbaum, 2021; Richter et al., 2016; Horner et al., 2015).

6.3. Aging, Pathology and Individual Differences

This review and its resulting working hypotheses have addressed event cognition largely in the absence of aging, pathology (e.g., dementia), and individual differences, which are undoubtedly important disciplines of active research. We will therefore briefly describe some relevant findings which may act as a guide for future research. Recent work has suggested that older adults segment less, and rely more upon semantic knowledge to aid their segmentation and subsequent memory (Pitts, Smith, Newberry & Bailey, 2021). This is potentially underpinned by observed age-related changes in brain activity during event segmentation (Reagh et al., 2020). Moreover, as we have argued that SWRs may play a key role in event segmentation, it is noticeable that aged rats display a reduced SWR rate during wakeful task performance and rest (Wiegand et al., 2016; Cowen, Gray, Wiegand, Schimanski & Barnes, 2020).

In a similar vein, several non-human animal *in vivo* models of Alzheimer's disease pathology also display a reduced abundance of SWRs (Sanchez-Aguilera & Quintanilla, 2021; Jones, Gillespie, Yoon, Frank & Huang, 2019) and importantly, are impaired at an episodic memory task compared to age-matched controls (Davis, Eacott, Easton & Gigg, 2013a; Davis, Easton, Eacott & Gigg, 2013b). However, naturally aged mice at around 12 months show an impairment on an episodic memory task too (Davis et al., 2013a). We therefore suggest that future work should explore the relationship between SWRs and behaviour on episodic tasks in aging rodents and more Alzheimer's disease models. Additionally, examining individual differences in aging (Santangelo et al., 2021; Reagh et al., 2020) and mild cognitive impairment (Serra et al., 2020) may further elucidate processes of

event segmentation and episodic memory.

Finally, while we have briefly touched upon some contributing factors relating to individual variability of episodic memory, we acknowledge that the picture is far more complicated than what has insofar been discussed. For example, many molecular (Redondo & Morris, 2011; Lisman, Cooper, Sehgal & Silva, 2018) and neuromodulatory mechanisms (Duszkiewicz et al., 2019; O’Callaghan et al., 2021) contribute to the formation and persistence of a hippocampal index and may be influenced by variability that is biologically determined (Lee & Silva, 2009), or by one’s experience before and after the time of event encoding (Yonelinas et al., 2019; Redondo & Morris, 2011; Gava et al., 2021; Plitt & Giocomo, 2021). Also, emerging research regarding system interactions during recollection in people with highly superior autobiographical memory have found differing neural activation compared to that of typical controls (Santangelo, Pedale, Macrì & Campolongo, 2020; Mazzoni et al., 2019; Santangelo et al., 2018). Therefore, given such evidence and known variability in humans (Palombo et al., 2018), there is a pressing need to refine behavioural measures of episodic memory in non-human animals that should become more sensitive to individual differences. This will ultimately allow us to utilise the increasingly complex invasive technologies at our disposal to further understand how aging, pathology and individual differences impact the neural mechanisms of episodic memory.

7. Conclusion

In order to holistically understand complex cognition such as episodic memory evidence spanning from molecular, cellular resolutions to meso-circuit, system levels, to cognition and behaviour (and even the experiential level) needs to be assimilated. In this review, we have united elements of the cognitive EHM with hippocampal formation physiological mechanisms, to allow development of a neurocognitive framework addressing event construction, monitoring, discrimination and subsequent episodic recollection of recent experience. Such a cross-species approach is necessary to link the rapidly developing human oriented and non-human based research fields in the episodic and spatial domains. Moreover, we have argued that hippocampal activity during event segmentation on shorter timescales (fine-grained event boundaries) is distinct from event horizons; hippocampal related activity during event segmentation on longer timescales (coarse-grained event boundaries). Also, we have challenged the typical ‘outside-in’ perspective (Buzsáki, 2019) up-held in the event segmentation literature, by proposing that the brain inherently segments events due to transitions in network states. We reiterate that this viewpoint does not invalidate externally driven event segmentation but envisages that external and internal segmentation operates in tandem to facilitate episodic memory, raising many novel hypotheses regarding episodic cognition in various fields.

Declaration of Competing Interest

Authors declare no conflict of interest to disclose.

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Table

Table 1

Cell types of the hippocampal formation implicated in event construction.

Cell Type	Region(s)	Description	Species	Refs.
Place	HPC	Firing is localised in one (or more) discrete area(s) of space when an animal moves around in an environment.	Rodents, Bats, Birds, Primates	O'Keefe & Dostrovsky, (1971); Ulanovsky & Moss, (2007); Payne, Lynch & Aronov, (2021); Ekstrom et al., (2003)*
Spatial View	HPC, EC	Firing is localised in a discrete area of space when an animal looks around in an environment.	Primates	Rolls, (1999); Killian, Potter & Buffalo, (2015)
Object Vector	CA1, SUB, MEC	Fire in specific vector relationships to local objects in the environment.	Rodents	Deshmukh & Knierim, (2013); Poulter et al., (2021); Høydal et al., (2019)
Vector Trace	SUB	Fire in specific vector relationships to local objects in the environment and leave a trace field when objects are removed.	Rodents	Poulter et al., (2021)
Time	CA1, CA3	Can fire sequentially in a temporally structured experience.	Rodents, Primates	Eichenbaum, (2014); Salz et al., (2016); Reddy et al., (2021)
Grid	MEC	Fire in spatially organised hexagonal fields, as an animal moves around in an environment.	Rodents, Bats, Primates	Hafting et al., (2005); Yartsev & Ulanovsky, (2013); Jacobs et al., (2013)*

Hippocampus (HPC), Cornu Ammonis (CA), Subiculum (SUB), Entorhinal Cortex (EC; medial, MEC). *Human place/grid-like cells navigating in virtual reality. *Note:* other cell types are not described in this present review (see Poulter et al., 2018; Moser et al., 2017).