

This copy is for your personal, non-commercial use only.

If you wish to distribute this article to others, you can order high-quality copies for your colleagues, clients, or customers by [clicking here](#).

Permission to republish or repurpose articles or portions of articles can be obtained by following the guidelines [here](#).

The following resources related to this article are available online at www.sciencemag.org (this information is current as of November 3, 2011):

Updated information and services, including high-resolution figures, can be found in the online version of this article at:

<http://www.sciencemag.org/content/333/6044/888.full.html>

Supporting Online Material can be found at:

<http://www.sciencemag.org/content/suppl/2011/08/10/333.6044.888.DC1.html>

A list of selected additional articles on the Science Web sites **related to this article** can be found at:

<http://www.sciencemag.org/content/333/6044/888.full.html#related>

This article **cites 27 articles**, 7 of which can be accessed free:

<http://www.sciencemag.org/content/333/6044/888.full.html#ref-list-1>

This article has been **cited by 2** articles hosted by HighWire Press; see:

<http://www.sciencemag.org/content/333/6044/888.full.html#related-urls>

This article appears in the following **subject collections**:

Neuroscience

<http://www.sciencemag.org/cgi/collection/neuroscience>

animals (15, 17). Nevertheless, future studies should determine whether *Sxl* homologs are expressed in the germ line of non-drosophilids. Moreover, it would be of particular interest to identify downstream targets of *Sxl* in the *Drosophila* germ line and to test whether these genes have a widespread role in germline sex determination.

References and Notes

1. T. DeFalco, B. Capel, *Annu. Rev. Cell Dev. Biol.* **25**, 457 (2009).
2. G. Durcova-Hills, B. Capel, *Curr. Top. Dev. Biol.* **83**, 185 (2008).
3. S. M. Murray, S. Y. Yang, M. Van Doren, *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.* **22**, 722 (2010).
4. M. Wawersik *et al.*, *Nature* **436**, 563 (2005).
5. A. L. Casper, M. Van Doren, *Development* **136**, 3821 (2009).
6. M. Wawersik, *Cell Cycle* **5**, 1385 (2006).
7. A. Casper, M. Van Doren, *Development* **133**, 2783 (2006).
8. S. Shigenobu, Y. Kitadate, C. Noda, S. Kobayashi, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **103**, 13728 (2006).
9. K. Hashiyama, S. Shigenobu, S. Kobayashi, *Gene Expr. Patterns* **9**, 50 (2009).
10. L. Huang, S. Ohsako, S. Tanda, *Dev. Biol.* **280**, 407 (2005).
11. Supporting online text is available on *Science Online*.
12. D. Bopp, L. R. Bell, T. W. Cline, P. Schedl, *Genes Dev.* **5**, 403 (1991).
13. L. N. Keyes, T. W. Cline, P. Schedl, *Cell* **68**, 933 (1992).
14. H. K. Salz, J. W. Erickson, *Fly (Austin)* **4**, 60 (2010).
15. L. O. Penalva, L. Sánchez, *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **67**, 343 (2003).
16. N. Camara, C. Whitworth, M. Van Doren, *Curr. Top. Dev. Biol.* **83**, 65 (2008).
17. L. Sánchez, *Int. J. Dev. Biol.* **52**, 837 (2008).
18. M. Steinmann-Zwicky, H. Schmid, R. Nöthiger, *Cell* **57**, 157 (1989).
19. M. Steinmann-Zwicky, *Dev. Genet.* **15**, 265 (1994).
20. B. Oliver, *Int. Rev. Cytol.* **219**, 1 (2002).
21. J. L. Marsh, E. Wieschaus, *Nature* **272**, 249 (1978).
22. T. Schüpbach, *Dev. Biol.* **89**, 117 (1982).
23. L. U. Hempel, B. Oliver, *BMC Dev. Biol.* **7**, 113 (2007).
24. G. Deshpande, G. Calhoun, J. L. Yanowitz, P. D. Schedl, *Cell* **99**, 271 (1999).
25. W. Mattoz, M. E. McGuffin, B. S. Baker, *Genetics* **143**, 303 (1996).
26. M. Van Doren, A. L. Williamson, R. Lehmann, *Curr. Biol.* **8**, 243 (1998).
27. J. I. Horabin, *Development* **132**, 4801 (2005).
28. M. Bernstein, R. A. Lersch, L. Subrahmanyam, T. W. Cline, *Genetics* **139**, 631 (1995).
29. Materials and methods are available as supporting material on *Science Online*.
30. L. U. Hempel, R. Kalamegham, J. E. Smith III, B. Oliver, *Curr. Top. Dev. Biol.* **83**, 109 (2008).
31. C. L. Littlefield, *Dev. Biol.* **102**, 426 (1984).
32. R. D. Campbell, *J. Exp. Zool.* **234**, 451 (1985).

Acknowledgments: We thank the researchers who provided us with flies and antibodies and members of our laboratory for their valuable comments. We also thank the *Drosophila* Genetic Resource Center (Kyoto), the Bloomington and Vienna *Drosophila* RNAi Stock Centers, and the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank for fly stocks and antibodies. This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (Japan) to S.K. and a Research Fellowship for Young Scientists from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science to K.H.

Supporting Online Material

www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/science.1208146/DC1
Materials and Methods

SOM Text

Figs. S1 to S9

Tables S1 to S5

References

10 May 2011; accepted 20 June 2011

Published online 7 July 2011;

10.1126/science.1208146

Nicotinic Acetylcholine Receptor $\beta 2$ Subunits in the Medial Prefrontal Cortex Control Attention

Karine Guillem,¹ Bernard Bloem,^{1*} Rogier B. Poorthuis,^{1*} Maarten Loos,² August B. Smit,² Uwe Maskos,^{3,4} Sabine Spijker,^{2†} Huibert D. Mansvelde^{1†‡}

More than one-third of all people are estimated to experience mild to severe cognitive impairment as they age. Acetylcholine (ACh) levels in the brain diminish with aging, and nicotinic ACh receptor (nAChR) stimulation is known to enhance cognitive performance. The prefrontal cortex (PFC) is involved in a range of cognitive functions and is thought to mediate attentional focus. We found that mice carrying nAChR $\beta 2$ -subunit deletions have impaired attention performance. Efficient lentiviral vector-mediated reexpression of functional $\beta 2$ -subunit-containing nAChRs in PFC neurons of the prelimbic area (PrL) completely restored the attentional deficit but did not affect impulsive and motivational behavior. Our findings show that $\beta 2$ -subunit expression in the PrL PFC is sufficient for endogenous nAChR-mediated cholinergic regulation of attentional performance.

Cortical acetylcholine (ACh) release from the basal forebrain is essential for proper sensory processing and cognition (1–3) and tunes neuronal and synaptic activity in the

underlying cortical networks (4, 5). Loss of cholinergic function during aging and Alzheimer's disease results in cognitive decline, notably a loss of memory and the ability to sustain attention (6, 7). Interfering with the cholinergic system strongly affects cognition (3, 8–13). Rapid changes in prefrontal cortical ACh levels at the scale of seconds are correlated with attending and detecting cues (14, 15). Various types of nicotinic ACh receptor (nAChR) subunits are expressed in the prefrontal cortex (PFC) (16–18), and in particular nAChRs containing $\beta 2$ subunits are thought to enhance attention (13). However, the causal relation between nAChR $\beta 2$ subunits (henceforth $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs) expressed in the medial PFC (mPFC) and attention performance has not yet been demonstrated.

We first determined whether absence of nicotinic $\beta 2$ subunits affects attentional behavior in the five-choice serial reaction time task (5-CSRTT), a well-established test setup that taxes various aspects of attentional control over performance (19). Mice lacking $\beta 2$ subunits of nAChRs ($\beta 2^{-/-}$) and their wild-type littermates (WT) were trained to detect and respond to a brief light stimulus randomly presented in one of five nose poke holes to receive a food pellet (20). $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice showed normal locomotor activity in an open field test (fig. S1), normal sensorimotor gating in a prepulse inhibition test (fig. S2), and normal acquisition in the 5-CSRTT (fig. S3). After complete acquisition of the 5-CSRTT, animals were trained at the stimulus duration of 1 s (SD1) for 10 more days until they reached stable performance (fig. S4). Baseline 5-CSRTT performance was then calculated from the 6th until the 10th session at SD1 (Fig. 1, A and B). $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice exhibited significantly more omissions than their WT littermates [$F_{(1,27)} = 12.45$; $P < 0.01$] (Fig. 1A), whereas the level of accuracy was not significantly different [$F_{(1,27)} = 2.56$; not significant (NS)] (Fig. 1B). We found no effect of genotype on any other measures, such as number of initiated trials [$F_{(1,27)} = 1.99$; NS], number of premature responses [$F_{(1,27)} = 0.003$; NS], correct response latency [$F_{(1,27)} = 2.03$; NS], or latency to collect earned food pellets [$F_{(1,27)} = 0.12$; NS] (table S1), suggesting that increased omissions reflected impairments in stimulus detection processes in $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice rather than motor or motivational deficits. $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice and their WT littermates did not differ in the number of food pellets earned by responding to a single cue light nor in the maximal number of responses in a progressive ratio for earning food pellets (fig. S5). In contrast to $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice,

¹Department of Integrative Neurophysiology, Center for Neurogenomics and Cognitive Research (CNCR), Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University, 1081 HV Amsterdam, Netherlands.

²Department of Molecular and Cellular Neurobiology, CNCR, Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University, 1081 HV Amsterdam, Netherlands. ³Unité Neurobiologie Intégrative des Systèmes Cholinergiques, Département de Neurosciences, Institut Pasteur, F-75724 Paris cedex 15, France. ⁴CNRS, URA2182, F-75724 Paris cedex 15, France.

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

‡To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: huibert.mansvelde@cncr.vu.nl

mice lacking $\alpha 7$ subunits of nAChRs ($\alpha 7^{-/-}$) exhibited similar levels of omission [$F_{(1,35)} = 0.10$; NS] and accuracy [$F_{(1,35)} = 0.05$; NS] as their WT littermates [but see supporting online material (SOM) text; Fig. 1, C and D; and table S3]. To further characterize attentional deficits, we compared performance in a variable stimulus procedure, in which stimulus durations were randomly decreased to 0.5 and 0.25 s (fig. S6 and table S2). $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice made significantly more omissions than WT mice at every stimulus duration (fig. S6A and table S2) but had similar accuracy and motivation to earn food rewards (fig. S6B and fig. S5),

whereas no difference was observed between $\alpha 7^{-/-}$ and WT animals (fig S6, C and D, and table S4).

To further understand the specific role of $\beta 2$ -containing nAChRs in mediating the effects of endogenous ACh on cognition (21), we selectively reexpressed the $\beta 2$ subunit (22) in the prelimbic area (PrL) of the mPFC of $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice. The mPFC is critically involved in attentional performance (23). We reexpressed $\beta 2$ subunits in combination with enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) by injection of the $\beta 2$ -eGFP bi-cistronic vector (24, 25) into the PrL PFC of $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice (KO^{VEC}). As a control, we used a

lentiviral vector expressing eGFP only in $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice (KO^{eGFP}) and WT littermates (WT^{eGFP}). Coronal sections showing the site of lentivirus injection revealed that viral reexpression was selective to the PrL of the mPFC (Fig. 2A). The efficacy of this in vivo reexpression strategy was demonstrated by confocal analysis showing that eGFP colocalized with a neuronal marker (NeuN) in KO^{VEC} mice (Fig. 2A) and indicates efficient transduction of $\beta 2$ -eGFP vectors in PrL neurons. $\beta 2$ subunits do not form functional nAChRs by themselves but require nAChR α subunits to co-assemble into functional receptors (26). Therefore, in KO^{VEC} mice not all eGFP-expressing neurons will have $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs. Only in neurons that express nAChR α subunits will lentivirus-mediated expression of $\beta 2$ subunits result in functional nAChRs containing $\beta 2$ subunits. We thus made whole-cell recordings from eGFP-expressing neurons in the three groups and tested their response to ACh (Fig. 2, B to D). In WT^{eGFP} mice, locally applied ACh (1 mM) induced inward currents with slow kinetics, characteristic of $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs (Fig. 2D). These currents were strongly reduced by the antagonist of $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs, dihydro- β -erythroidine [DHBE 1 μ M; Student's t test $t_{(7)} = -3.15$; $P < 0.05$ (Fig. 2, D and E)]. KO^{eGFP} neurons never showed slow inward currents in response to ACh application (Fig. 2D). Neurons in the mPFC of KO^{VEC} mice

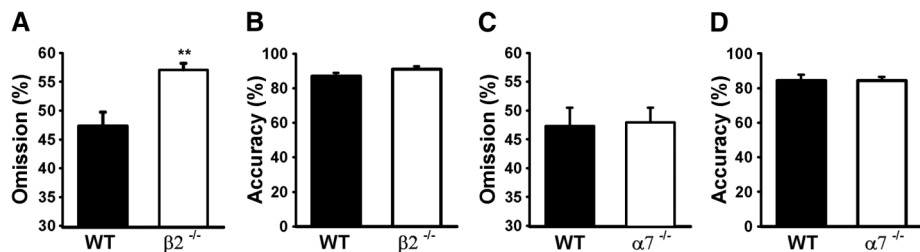


Fig. 1. $\beta 2$ -nAChR subunit is necessary for normal performance in 5-CSRTT. (A and B) Percentage omission (A) and accuracy (B) of WT ($n = 15$, black) and $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice ($n = 14$, white) during baseline training (SD1). ** $P < 0.01$, Newman-Keuls post hoc test. (C and D) Percentage omission (C) and accuracy (D) of WT ($n = 12$, black) and $\alpha 7^{-/-}$ mice ($n = 25$, white) during SD1. Data in all figures are shown as mean \pm SEM.

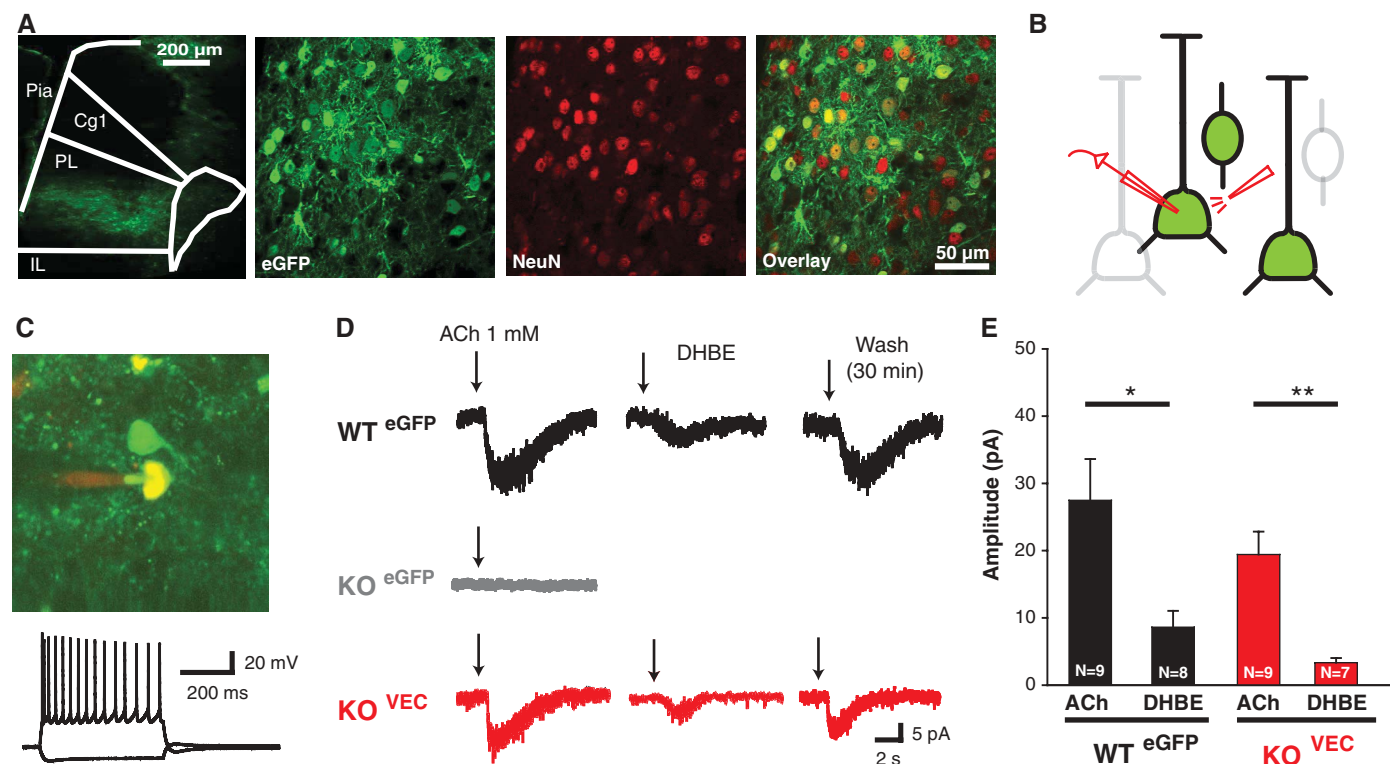


Fig. 2. Lentiviral restoration of functional $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs in the mPFC. (A) Coronal section (1.9 mm from bregma) showing the injection site in the prelimbic mPFC (left) and confocal images of acute coronal sections showing neuronal eGFP (green) expression (red, NeuN) in KO^{VEC} mice and merged image (right). (B) Experimental setup. (C) Patched eGFP-positive neuron. (D) Current traces recorded from WT^{eGFP} ($n = 9$, black),

KO^{eGFP} ($n = 9$, gray), and KO^{VEC} ($n = 9$, red) neurons. ACh was locally applied (1 mM, 100 ms) in control (left), in the presence of $\beta 2$ -containing nAChRs antagonist, DHBE 1 μ M (middle), or after 30 min washout (right). (E) Summary of ACh-induced inward currents for WT^{eGFP} (black) and KO^{VEC} (red). nAChR current amplitudes of WT^{eGFP} and KO^{VEC} neurons were not statistically different.

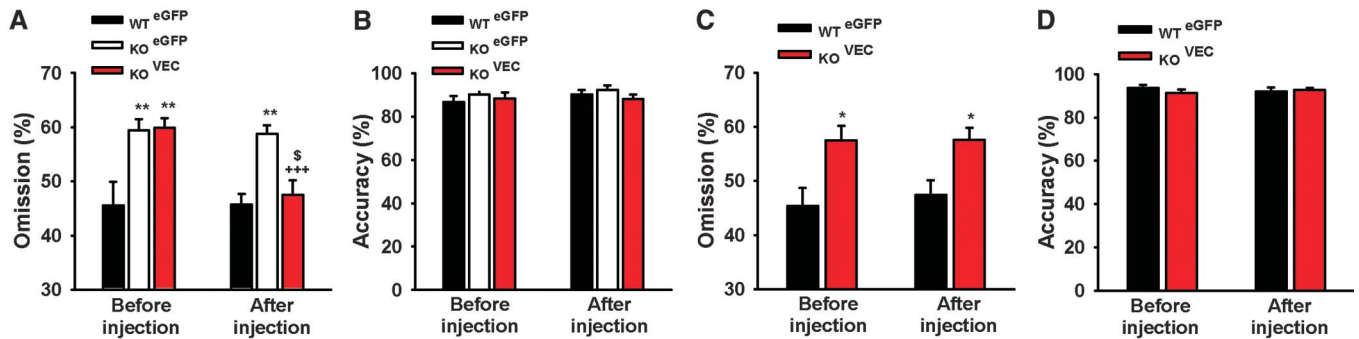


Fig. 3. Targeted reexpression of $\beta 2$ -nACR subunits in PrL mPFC restores performance. **(A and B)** Percentage omission (A) and accuracy (B) (SD1) before and after viral injection for WT^{eGFP} ($n = 11$), KO^{eGFP} ($n = 11$), and KO^{VEC} mice ($n = 11$). ** $P < 0.01$, compared with WT^{eGFP}; \$ $P < 0.05$, compared with KO^{eGFP}; +++ $P < 0.001$, before and after virus injection,

Newman-Keuls post hoc test. **(C and D)** Reexpression of $\beta 2$ -nACR subunits in the anterior cingulate cortex did not restore attentional performance. Percentage omission (C) and accuracy (D) (SD1) before and after viral injection for WT^{eGFP} ($n = 11$) and KO^{VEC} mice ($n = 4$). * $P < 0.05$, compared with WT^{eGFP}.

showed slow inward currents reminiscent of functional $\beta 2^*$ -nAChR responses [$n = 9$ of 17 EGFP-positive neurons (Fig. 2D)]. These currents were strongly reduced by DH β E [$t_{(6)} = -5.02$; $P < 0.01$ (Fig. 2, D and E)], showing the successful reexpression of functional $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs in KO^{VEC} mice.

We addressed the question of whether $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs specifically in the PrL mPFC would be sufficient for optimal attentional performance. We therefore tested whether impaired performance of $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice was rescued by targeted reexpression of the $\beta 2$ subunit in the PrL mPFC. Preliminary analysis before viral expression showed comparable findings between the independent batches of mice, with a significant increase in omissions in $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice (fig. S7). One week after virus introduction, WT^{eGFP}, KO^{eGFP}, and KO^{VEC} mice were retained in the 5-CSRTT procedure by using SD1 for 14 days before the effects of lentiviral intervention were assessed.

At the end of these 14 days, WT^{eGFP} and KO^{eGFP} animals performed at the same levels as they showed before virus injection, but KO^{VEC} mice performed significantly better than before injection (Fig. 3). The percentage of omission of the three groups of mice was differentially affected by lentivector injection [group effect $F_{(2,30)} = 10.73$ and $P < 0.001$; injection time effect $F_{(1,30)} = 6.12$, $P < 0.05$; group \times injection time interaction $F_{(2,30)} = 9.29$; $P < 0.001$] (Fig. 3A). Although KO^{eGFP} mice made more omissions than WT^{eGFP} at each time point (WT^{eGFP} versus KO^{eGFP}, $P < 0.01$), both groups exhibited the same percentage of omissions before and after virus injections (NS, eGFP) and hence were not affected by eGFP expression. Reexpression of $\beta 2$ subunits in the mPFC (KO^{VEC}) significantly decreased the percentage of omissions (KO^{VEC} before versus KO^{VEC} after, $P < 0.001$). Moreover, the rescue in KO^{VEC} mice was complete, and these mice reached the same number of omissions as WT^{eGFP} mice (WT^{eGFP} versus KO^{VEC}, NS) and made significantly fewer omissions than KO^{eGFP} mice (KO^{eGFP} versus KO^{VEC}, $P < 0.05$). This

rescue effect was selective for omissions because $\beta 2$ reexpression had no significant effect on accuracy [group effect $F_{(2,30)} = 1.92$, NS; injection effect $F_{(1,30)} = 2.42$, NS; group \times injection interaction $F_{(2,30)} = 2.36$, NS] (Fig. 3B) or any other measures (table S5). This rescue effect was also observed during a variable stimulus procedure (fig. S9), as well as during a variable intertrial interval procedure in which the stimulus presentations were temporally unpredictable (fig. S10), further supporting the conclusion that $\beta 2$ -subunit restoration in the PrL is sufficient for proper attentional performance. A similar rescue effect of $\beta 2$ reexpression in KO^{VEC} mice was observed in an independent group of animals (fig. S11). After these behavioral experiments, the mice were killed, and neuronal expression of eGFP and functional $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs in the PrL was confirmed. $\beta 2$ -subunit reexpression in the anterior cingulate had no effect on omission or accuracy (Fig. 3, C and D), in line with the finding that cholinergic projections to the anterior cingulate cortex are not involved in 5-CSRTT performance (27).

Our findings show that expression of $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs is necessary for optimal attentional performance in mice and that restoring expression of $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs in the mPFC PrL area is sufficient for optimal performance. Nicotinic AChRs containing $\beta 2$ subunits are located on cell bodies of neurons as well as on thalamocortical afferents in the PrL PFC (16, 17). The latter have been suggested to be involved in attention and processing of sensory stimuli (17). The present study reveals that restoration of $\beta 2^*$ -nAChR receptors, specifically in the PrL area of the mPFC, is sufficient to restore the attentional deficit of $\beta 2^{-/-}$ mice to WT levels. Attentional control therefore appears to be mediated by endogenous ACh acting on $\beta 2^*$ -nAChR receptors expressed by neurons located within the PrL mPFC, although a role for $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs on thalamic projections cannot be entirely excluded on the basis of the present results. Nevertheless, the nAChR system in the PrL mPFC is a principal factor in atten-

tional control. Consistent with this, rapid changes of ACh levels in mPFC are correlated with cue attending and detection (14), an effect mainly due to mPFC $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs stimulation (28). Our findings have implications relevant for understanding the neurobiology of attention and suggest agonists or positive allosteric modulators at these mPFC $\beta 2^*$ -nAChRs within the PrL PFC as potential targets for the development of more effective treatments for cognitive impairments.

References and Notes

1. M. Goard, Y. Dan, *Nat. Neurosci.* **12**, 1444 (2009).
2. N. J. Woolf, L. L. Butcher, *Behav. Brain Res.* **221**, 488 (2011).
3. B. J. Everitt, T. W. Robbins, *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* **48**, 649 (1997).
4. R. B. Poorthuis, N. A. Goriounova, J. J. Couey, H. D. Mansvelder, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **78**, 668 (2009).
5. M. Steriade, in *Progress in Brain Research*, K. K. Laurent Descarries, S. Mircea, Eds. (Elsevier, Amsterdam, 2004), vol. 145, pp. 179–196.
6. G. McKhann et al., *Neurology* **34**, 939 (1984).
7. R. Schliebs, T. Arendt, *Behav. Brain Res.* **221**, 555 (2011).
8. J. W. Dalley et al., *Cereb. Cortex* **14**, 922 (2004).
9. J. L. Muir, B. J. Everitt, T. W. Robbins, *Psychopharmacology (Berl.)* **118**, 82 (1995).
10. I. P. Stoleran, N. R. Mirza, M. Shoaib, *Med. Res. Rev.* **15**, 47 (1995).
11. B. Hahn, C. G. Sharples, S. Wonnacott, M. Shoaib, I. P. Stoleran, *Neuropharmacology* **44**, 1054 (2003).
12. M. Sarter, M. E. Hasselmo, J. P. Bruno, B. Givens, *Brain Res. Brain Res. Rev.* **48**, 98 (2005).
13. W. M. Howe et al., *Neuropsychopharmacology* **35**, 1391 (2010).
14. V. Parikh, R. Kozak, V. Martinez, M. Sarter, *Neuron* **56**, 141 (2007).
15. M. Sarter, V. Parikh, W. M. Howe, *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **10**, 383 (2009).
16. J. J. Couey et al., *Neuron* **54**, 73 (2007).
17. E. K. Lambe, M. R. Picciotto, G. K. Aghajanian, *Neuropsychopharmacology* **28**, 216 (2003).
18. S. M. Kassam, P. M. Herman, N. M. Goodfellow, N. C. Alves, E. K. Lambe, *J. Neurosci.* **28**, 8756 (2008).
19. T. W. Robbins, *Psychopharmacology (Berl.)* **163**, 362 (2002).
20. Materials and methods are available as supporting material on Science Online.

21. S. Granon, P. Faure, J. P. Changeux, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **100**, 9596 (2003).
22. K. Maruki, Y. Izaki, T. Akema, M. Nomura, *Neurosci. Lett.* **351**, 95 (2003).
23. J. W. Dalley, R. N. Cardinal, T. W. Robbins, *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* **28**, 771 (2004).
24. U. Maskos *et al.*, *Nature* **436**, 103 (2005).
25. M. E. Avale *et al.*, *FASEB J.* **25**, 2145 (2011).
26. D. S. McGehee, L. W. Role, *Annu. Rev. Physiol.* **57**, 521 (1995).
27. J. L. Muir, T. J. Bussey, B. J. Everitt, T. W. Robbins, *Behav. Brain Res.* **82**, 31 (1996).
28. V. Parikh, J. Ji, M. W. Decker, M. Sarter, *J. Neurosci.* **30**, 3518 (2010).

Acknowledgments: We thank J. Staal and H. Lodder. U.M. and A.B.S. received funding from the EU Seventh Framework Programme “Neurocypres” (HEALTH-F2-2007-202088); H.D.M., from the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (917.76.360 and 912.06.148), Neurobasic PharmaPhenomics, and the VU University board.

Supporting Online Material

www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/333/6044/888/DC1
Materials and Methods
SOM Text
Figs. S1 to S11
Tables S1 to S5
Reference (29)

15 April 2011; accepted 30 June 2011
10.1126/science.1207079

Schema-Dependent Gene Activation and Memory Encoding in Neocortex

Dorothy Tse,^{1*} Tomonori Takeuchi,^{1*} Masaki Kakeyama,² Yasushi Kajii,³ Hiroyuki Okuno,⁴ Chiharu Tohyama,² Haruhiko Bito,⁴ Richard G. M. Morris^{1†}

When new learning occurs against the background of established prior knowledge, relevant new information can be assimilated into a schema and thereby expand the knowledge base. An animal model of this important component of memory consolidation reveals that systems memory consolidation can be very fast. In experiments with rats, we found that the hippocampal-dependent learning of new paired associates is associated with a striking up-regulation of immediate early genes in the prelimbic region of the medial prefrontal cortex, and that pharmacological interventions targeted at that area can prevent both new learning and the recall of remotely and even recently consolidated information. These findings challenge the concept of distinct fast (hippocampal) and slow (cortical) learning systems, and shed new light on the neural mechanisms of memory assimilation into schemas.

Memory consolidation consists of two processes. Cellular consolidation is mediated by synaptic and signal transduction mechanisms that store newly encoded memory traces on-line (1, 2). Systems consolidation involves a time-limited interaction between the medial temporal lobe and the neocortical areas that eventually store long-term memory traces (3–5). Studies monitoring cerebral glucose use, immediate early gene (IEG) activation, and dendritic spine formation (6–9) indicate that rapid on-line encoding of episodic-like memory in the hippocampus can be followed by temporally graded neural changes in the medial prefrontal (mPFC), orbitofrontal (Orb), and retrosplenial (RSC) cortices.

This apparent sequence of events does not preclude the possibility of simultaneous encoding or “tagging” in the hippocampus and cortex (9, 10). Indeed, when systems consolidation occurs in the presence of relevant prior knowledge (11, 12), the “assimilation” of new paired-associate (PA) memories into existing activated cortical

schemas proceeds very rapidly (13), reflecting an influence of prior knowledge on the rate of consolidation (14). The associative encoding of such PAs requires the hippocampus (13, 15, 16), accompanied by novelty-triggered cellular consolidation (17), but may also involve simultaneous cortical encoding. However, if parallel cortical encoding into a schema occurs, it may be driven solely in a bottom-up manner by the hippocampus or may also reflect the influence of activated prior knowledge already stored in cortex.

Study 1 mapped IEG activation in numerous brain areas of rats during both the retrieval of original PAs and the learning of new PAs after extensive prior training of a schema over many weeks (fig. S1). Guided by the retrieval cue of different flavors of food given in the start box of an event arena on each of six daily training trials, the animals learned to recall the location of the appropriate sand well, where they were rewarded by retrieving more of that same flavored food. Once performance reached asymptote over 6 weeks (fig. S2), a critical session of retrieval and new learning was conducted.

The 21 trained animals were then divided into three groups (Fig. 1A), to which a group of seven caged control animals (group CC) was added. One group had six trials with the original set of PAs and thus had only to retrieve (group OPA, i.e., original paired-associates). Another group had four successive trials with the original PAs and was then exposed to two new PAs that we had shown (13) could be encoded and successfully assimilated into the existing cortical

schema (group NPA, i.e., new paired-associates). The third group was exposed to six new combinations of flavor and location that constituted a set of six new PAs (group NM, i.e., new map). Although this group was subjected to much greater “novelty,” it was in a manner that should not allow successful cortical assimilation (timeline in Fig. 1A). The performance during that single session reflected these different conditions (Fig. 1B; latency data in fig. S3). After a further interval of 80 min (optimized for IEG signal detection of the neural correlates of the events of trials 5 and 6), the animals were first given a cued-recall test. This showed effective memory for the new PAs in the NPA group but no learning by the NM group (Fig. 1C). Brain sections were then prepared for histochemical analysis of two plasticity-associated IEGs—*Zif268* (*Egr1*) and *Arc* (activity-regulated cytoskeleton-associated protein) (18, 19). Quantitative blind analysis of entire brain regions revealed a striking learning-associated increase in IEG expression in the prelimbic region (PrL) of the mPFC that was nonmonotonic with respect to the extent of learning-associated novelty (Fig. 1, D and E). IEG expression was highest in the NPA rats for whom activated prior knowledge was relevant to new PA information.

Detailed analysis revealed three broad patterns of IEG activation (fig. S4 and tables S1 and S2). First, a group of cortical regions [PrL, anterior cingulate (ACC), and RSC] showed the same nonmonotonic pattern of higher *Zif268* and *Arc* expression in group NPA as in groups OPA and NM, despite the latter group being exposed to greater novelty (Figs. 1E and 2A); analyses of variance (ANOVAs) based on average values from all three regions showed a significant inverted U-shaped effect (Fig. 2A). Non-mnemonic aspects such as motivation were excluded as contributing factors by analysis of latency rather than choice (see fig. S3). Second, and in contrast, area CA1 of the hippocampus (Fig. 2B) showed a large increase in *Arc* expression in groups NPA and NM, with a monotonic trend favoring the highest expression in group NM; *Zif268* levels were unchanged (see also fig. S7). Third, certain cortical regions showed little absolute change in IEG expression across the trained groups or relative to group CC [including the primary somatosensory “barrel” cortex (Ssp); Fig. 2C]. Barrel cortex was therefore chosen as the control region for study 2.

In study 2, we sought to determine whether the significant increase in both *Zif268* and *Arc*

¹Centre for Cognitive and Neural Systems, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH8 9JZ, UK. ²Laboratory of Environmental Health Sciences, Center for Disease Biology and Integrative Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan. ³Pharmacology Research Laboratories I, Mitsubishi Tanabe Pharma Corporation, 1000 Kamoshida-cho, Aoba-ku, Yokohama 227-0033, Japan. ⁴Department of Neurochemistry, University of Tokyo Graduate School of Medicine, 7-3-1 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan.

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

†To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: r.g.m.morris@ed.ac.uk