

miRNA-132's Role as a Dynamic Regulator of Memory

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Introduction

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small (~22 nt) evolutionarily-conserved single stranded RNA species that function as potent negative regulators of gene expression (Ambros 2004; Bartel 2004; Lim et al. 2005). miRNAs repress gene expression via their ability to hybridize with the 3' UTR of target mRNAs, and, in turn, trigger mRNA degradation and/or translational repression (reviewed in (Bartel 2009; Eulalio et al. 2008; Carthew and Sontheimer 2009)). miRNA expression is often cell-type and tissue-specific (Lagos-Quintana et al. 2002; Kim et al. 2004b; Kosik 2006; Cao et al. 2006), and within the central nervous system (CNS), recent work has indicated that they play key roles in a wide range of physiological processes. Along these lines, during development, the disruption of miRNA expression through genetic deletion of Dicer results in aberrant neuronal development and differentiation, as well as altered morphogenesis and neuronal signaling (Cuellar et al. 2008; Giraldez et al. 2005). Furthermore, recent work reveals specific roles for miRNAs (including miR-124a, miR-134 and miR-375) in dendritogenesis and axonal path finding (Schratt et al. 2006; Abdelmohsen et al. 2010; Fiore et al. 2009; Sanuki et al. 2011).

As more neuronal-enriched miRNA have been identified, the possibility of a prominent role for miRNA in the regulation of neuronal activity and cognition has emerged (Konopka et al. 2011; Im et al. 2010). Among these is the CREB-regulated miRNA132 (miR-132) (Cheng et al. 2007; Remenyi et al. 2010; Wibrand et al. 2010; Nudelman et al. 2010). miR-132 is transcribed from the intron

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of a non-coding RNA and has been shown to alter both neuronal morphology and synaptic physiology (Hansen et al. 2010b; Vo et al. 2005). Along these lines, the effects of miR-132 on dendritic morphogenesis appears, in part, to be mediated by its suppression of p250GAP, thus leading to a de-repression of Rac1-PAK-mediated spinogenesis (Impey et al. 2010; Wayman et al. 2008). Furthermore, selective deletion of the miR-132/212 locus led to significant alterations in neuronal morphology in newborn adult hippocampal neurons, including decreased dendritic complexity and spine density (Magill et al. 2010).

Given its complex, and context-specific effects on neuronal structure and function, an examination of the potential role of miR-132 as a regulator of cognition is highly merited. In line with this, we recently reported that robust transgenic over-expression of miR-132 in the forebrain increased spine density and caused deficits in novel object recognition memory (Hansen et al. 2010b). Interestingly, in this study, transgenic miR-132 expression levels were quite high (> 5-fold over basal expression), approximating the expression level of endogenous miR-132 following seizure activity (Jimenez-Mateos et al. 2011). This high level of transgenic miR-132 raised the possibility that our reported effects on novel object recognition memory may not serve as a useful guide to understand the role of miR-132 under normal physiological conditions such as following learning/memory tasks. We hypothesized that under normal physiological conditions, miR-132 could couple neuronal activity to enhanced cognition.

To begin to address this question, we employed a combination of *in vivo* detection methods and transgenic mouse models to assess the functional effects of miR-132 on hippocampal dependent learning and memory. Here we show that endogenous miR-132 is induced in response to a spatial memory task, and that this '*induced*' level of miR-132 enhances cognition. Moreover, over-expression (> 3-fold) of miR-132 leads to profound cognitive deficits. Together, these data indicate that miR-132 is part of a normal cellular signaling pathway that

couples associative learning paradigms to memory formation, and that dysregulation of its expression leads to impaired cognition.

Methods and Materials

Ethics Statement

All animal breeding and experimental procedures were approved by the Ohio State University Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol number: 2008A0227).

tTA::miR132 mice

Generation of the tetracycline-regulated bidirectional miR-132/cyan fluorescent protein transgenic mouse line (here referred to as: *miR-132 transgenic mice*) was recently described (Hansen et al. 2010b). To drive transgene expression, the TRE-miR-132 transgenic mice were crossed with the CaMKII tTA driver line (Mayford et al. 1996), which allowed for robust transgene expression within excitatory forebrain neurons (Hansen et al. 2010b). Temporal regulation of tTA (i.e., ‘Tet-off’) inducible miR-132 transgene expression was accomplished by administration of doxycycline (0.40-200 µg/mL) to the drinking water. Doxycycline was also administered to monotransgenic controls, and was shown to have no cellular level or behavioral effect relative to untreated animals (data not shown).

For the examination of neuronal spine density, tTA::miR132 mice were crossed with a transgenic line expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP) in a subpopulation of hippocampal neurons under the control of the *thy1* promoter (Morris 1985). Thy-1 GFP mice (Feng et al. 2000) were generously provided by Gouping Feng (Duke University). Of note, the Thy-1-driven morphological marker does not affect the electrophysiological or the morphological properties

(i.e., dendrite length and number, spine number and density, soma size) of hippocampal neurons (Vuksic et al. 2008).

RT-PCR miRNA quantitation

The NCode™ VILO™miRNA cDNA Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen) was used to create a cDNA library of total hippocampal RNA that was extracted by TRIzol isolation (Invitrogen) from nontransgenic and tTA::miR132 animals. miRNAs were polyadenylated with Poly(A)polymerase and reverse transcribed with universally-tagged 5' oligo-dT primer (Invitrogen). cDNA amplification was performed using SYBR green reporter-based qPCR (Applied Biosystems) and the miScript Primers (Qiagen). Data were normalized to RNU6B_2 cDNA levels.

Tissue Processing and Fluorescent in situ hybridization

All tissue preparation was carried out under RNase-free conditions and with use of DEPC-treated solutions. Brain tissue was removed after cervical dislocation and post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 4 h at 4°C and cryoprotected with 30% sucrose in PBS. Hippocampus-containing sections were then thin-cut (40 µm) on a freezing microtome. Sections were incubated (5 min) with the nuclear stain DRAQ5 (1:10,000; BioStatus Limited, UK) and washed 3x in PBS.

Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) against miRNA was carried out according to procedures outlined by Nuovo (2010) (Nuovo 2010). In brief, tissue was mounted onto slides, followed by a short digestion with pepsin. Tissue was then hybridized overnight with fluorescein-conjugated locked nucleic acid (LNA) probes (Obernosterer et al. 2007) to mouse

miR-132, snRNA U6, or an Exiqon-designed 'scramble' negative control probe (Exiqon). The signal from the fluorescein-conjugated probes was amplified with an anti-fluorescein Alexa 488 signal detection kit (Invitrogen).

Analysis of FISH intensity was examined using the above equipment and software to acquire images at 40x. Images of the relevant cellular layers of FISH-labeled sections were traced digitally and intensity levels were analyzed with MetaMorph software (Molecular Devices). Intensity levels were normalized by background subtraction and presented relative to staining in naïve animals.

Immunofluorescent Labeling

Tissue was fixed and prepared as described above. Sections were then washed and permeabilized in PBS with 1% Triton X-100 PBST (3x, 10 min each). Sections were blocked for 1 h in 10% normal goat serum in PBS. Sections were incubated overnight at 4°C in rabbit polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (acquired from Dr. Luc G. Berthiaume, University of Alberta, Canada). The GFP antibody was used at 1:2,500 to detect the TRE-regulated CFP transgene, and 1:20,000 to detect the Thy-1-regulated GFP transgene. Of note, the expression of the tet-responsive CFP transgene is markedly lower than the Thy-1 driven GFP, and thus, by using this relatively low concentration of the primary antibody, we are able to distinguish the Thy-1 GFP transgene from the CFP transgene. A series of control data sets which confirm successful discrimination of the two signals is presented in (Hansen et al. 2010b).

Sections were then incubated in Alexa Fluor-488-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibody (1:1000; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) for three hours at room temperature. Tissue was washed in PBST for a total of 30 min between each labeling step. Sections were mounted on

slides with Fluoromount-G (SouthernBiotech, Birmingham, Alabama, AL). For clarity, CFP transgene immunolabeling (Fig. 3b) is presented as a blue/cyan fluorescent signal.

Thy-1 GFP Morphometric Analysis

CA1 basal dendrites (ten per animal) were examined for morphological changes in 40 μm -thick coronal sections. Images of Thy-1 GFP immunofluorescence of 20 μm dendritic segments extending 90-120 μm from the cell soma were captured using confocal microscopy. Processes extending $> 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ from the dendrite were counted as dendritic spines and included both mushroom-shaped and filopodia-like protrusions. Images were acquired at 63x with 4.3x optical zoom, using a Zeiss 510 confocal microscope and LSM Software Zen.

Behavioral Analysis

Mature (6-8 weeks), age and gender-matched animals were used for all behavioral paradigms. Novel object recognition was adapted from procedure described by Bevins and Besheer (Bevins and Besheer 2006). Briefly, each animal was allowed a 10 min training session with exposure to two identical, non-toxic objects (glass or hard plastic items). After training, animals were returned to the home cage for a 30-min delay period. After the retention interval, each animal was returned to the testing arena in which one familiar object was replaced with a novel object. Animals were given 5 min to explore while being video recorded for later scoring. Subsequently, exploration time for each object was timed, as identified as the animal's nose being within 2 cm of, and pointed toward, the object. The discrimination ratio was calculated as ['exploration time with novel object' / ('time with novel object' + 'time with familiar object')]. Of note, all animals

demonstrated similar ambulatory capacity, as demonstrated by motility of exploration. All groups exhibited similar total exploration time of their environment.

Barnes maze testing followed procedures outlined by Sunyer et al (Sunyer et al. 2007; Barnes 1979). In summary, a circular and elevated maze platform (92 cm diameter, 76 cm above the floor) with 20 equally-spaced holes was positioned in a brightly lit room. An escape box was placed under one of the holes and visual cues (geometric shapes) were placed on the walls that surround the maze. Bright light (120W in addition to overhead lighting) and an electronic metronome (Boss DB-66, 440 Hz, 65 dB) were used as aversive stimuli. Mice were given five days of training, during which mice experienced three 5-minute trials of free exploration with a 10-min inter-trial interval. A trial ended once the mouse entered the escape box, or after 5 minutes of exploration had elapsed (at which point it was gently guided to the target box). Nose pokes into incorrect holes and latency to reach target hole were recorded as measures of maze performance over all trials. To distinguish the potentially-subtle phenotypic effects of graded transgene expression, Barnes maze testing on animals with titered doxycycline administration (Fig. 3) was conducted under slightly less aversive conditions, relative to those used to test the gross effects of robust transgenic miR-132 (Fig. 4) to avoid any ceiling effect related to minimum training errors and latency to escape.

Successful acquisition of the Barnes maze task was demonstrated by a probe trial that occurred 24 hours after the final acquisition day. Probe trial consisted of a single 90-second exploration of the maze with the escape box removed. All animals demonstrated a capacity to locate the target hole, and no significant differences were found between groups on the probe day (data not shown).

Examination of learning-induced miR-132 expression in wild-type animals was conducted using a modified Barnes maze paradigm in order to capture changes in early miRNA expression. Animals were given two days of Barnes maze training, by which point spatial memory appeared to be largely established, as demonstrated by improved performance across measures of both latency and errors (Fig. 3e). Control animals were also handled and exposed to aversive stimuli, but were not trained to escape to the target box. Tissue was isolated for *in situ* hybridization twelve hours after the last trial on day two, reflecting both the time course of miRNA processing (Schmittgen et al. 2008), as well as similar paradigms used to detect early signaling mechanisms of memory formation (Vázquez et al. 2000; Kim et al. 2004a).

Statistics

All values presented here are given as means \pm SEM. Unless otherwise noted, a value of $p < 0.05$ was accepted as statistically significant. Comparisons between two groups were made by Student's t-test. Significance for qPCR, spine density, and within-day Barnes maze analysis conducted by SPSS 19.0 and were assessed using one-way ANOVA analysis, followed by Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test. Repeated Measures Mixed-Model ANOVA was used for multi-day Barnes maze training comparison.

Results

Expression of miR-132 in the hippocampus

To begin our analysis, we profiled miR-132 expression in the mature hippocampus using fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH). To this end, coronal sections from adult wild-type mice animals were incubated with a fluorescein-conjugated locked nucleic acid (LNA) probe against the mature form of miR-132 and labeled with the DNA/nuclear marker DRAQ5 (Fig. 1).

Representative data reveal marked expression of miR-132 in all excitatory sublayers of the hippocampus (i.e., CA1, CA2, CA3, and GCL), as well as in the cortex (Fig. 1a, b). Higher magnification imaging of tissue labeling confirmed that miR-132 expression was largely restricted to neuronal cell populations (Fig. 2). Hence, in contrast to the robust expression detected in the CA1 and GCL sublayers, minimal labeling was detected within cells (largely non-neuronal) located in the molecular layer of the dentate gyrus (Fig. 2A-C). A control set of experiments in which tissue was labeled with a ‘scrambled’ fluorescein-conjugated LNA probe that does not detect known microRNA species revealed little labeling (Fig. 1 C). As a positive control, tissue was labeled with an LNA-probe against the ubiquitously expressed snRNA U6. As expected, U6 labeling was detected throughout the hippocampus. Together these indicate neuronal enrichment of miR-132 in the adult hippocampus.

Induction of miR-132 after spatial learning

A number of studies have shown that miR-132 expression is tightly regulated by CREB (Jimenez-Mateos et al. 2011; Cheng et al. 2007). Given that CREB plays a central role in transcriptionally-dependent forms of learning and memory, it was reasonable to posit that miR-132 may be inducibly expressed during memory formation. To begin to test this idea, we profiled hippocampal miR-132 expression in wild-type animals undergoing Barnes maze spatial memory training (described in detail below). Because the greatest period of memory formation appears to occur during the first two days of training (as demonstrated by both reduced latency and errors, and successful escape to the target box: Fig. 3d), animals were given two days of training (three trials per day). Tissue was then collected twelve hours later, and miR-132 expression was measured via FISH (Fig. 2). Quantitative analysis of the FISH signal revealed that miR-132

expression was significantly higher (~1.5 fold) in the CA1, CA3, and GCL cell layers of Barnes maze-trained animals, relative to control animals that were naïve to the learning paradigm (Fig. 2a, b and d). In naïve mice, miR-132 expression in the CA1 layer was heterogeneous, with limited expression in some cells, while other cells expressed relatively high levels. Interestingly, training resulted in an elevated and more uniform miR-132 signal across the CA1 sublayer (Fig. 2a). Of note, learning did not increase miR-132 expression in non-neuronal cells, including those occupying the molecular layer of the dentate gyrus (Fig. 2c and d). Together, these data show that miR-132 expression is significantly increased in response to the learning challenge.

Cognitive enhancement in animals with moderate increases in transgenic miR-132

Our previous work using a transgenic miR-132 mouse model revealed that robust over-expression (> 3-fold, relative to endogenous levels) of miR-132 impaired learning and memory (Hansen et al. 2010b). Given our work here showing a relatively low-level of miR-132 induction following a learning paradigm, coupled with a number of studies showing that miR-132 affects neuronal plasticity (Impey et al. 2010; Wayman et al. 2008), we hypothesized that robust transgenic over-expression approach may not be a useful model to dissect the contribution of endogenous miRNA-132 to cognition. Hence, in an attempt to provide a more telling model, we returned to our miR-132 transgenic mouse, and tested the effects of low-level transgene expression on Barnes maze learning. As outlined in our previous paper (Hansen et al. 2010b), to drive transgene expression in forebrain excitatory neurons, the tetracycline-regulated miR-132/CFP bidirectional transgenic mouse line was crossed with a α CaMKII tTA driver line (Mayford et al. 1996) (denoted as ‘tTA::miR132’ mice). To negatively regulate transgenic miR-132 expression, varying concentrations of doxycycline were added to the drinking water, and

miR-132 expression was profiled two weeks later. As expected, increasing the concentration of doxycycline in the drinking water (0.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ -50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) resulted in an incremental repression of transgene expression in the hippocampus, as measured by qPCR (Fig. 3a). Consistent with this, administration of 200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of doxycycline led to a suppression of CFP expression (Fig. 3b). To approximate the wild-type expression level of miR-132 after 2-days of Barnes maze learning, we chose an intermediate doxycycline concentration (0.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) that yielded an ~ 2 -fold increase in transgene expression over control tTA mice (Fig. 3a). For the behavioral assay, tTA::miR132 animals were treated with this dose of doxycycline for three weeks and then tested on the Barnes maze paradigm. Animals were given five consecutive days of training (three trials per day), during which they were allowed to explore the circular Barnes maze platform (maximum of five minutes per trial). Bright lights and metronomic clicks provided aversive stimuli sufficient to motivate escape to a target hole fitted with an escape box. Learning performance was measured by latency to escape, as well as errors made before escaping (nose pokes to incorrect holes). Remarkably, doxycycline-treated tTA::miR132 animals showed excellent Barnes maze performance, exhibiting both reduced latencies and fewer errors relative to monotransgenic (tTA) littermates that also received doxycycline (Fig. 3c and d). Hence, moderate increases in transgenic miR-132 significantly enhanced cognitive capacity, suggesting that the learning-evoked increase in endogenous miR-132 also enhances cognition.

Cognitive impairment in mice over-expressing miR-132

As noted, our previous work demonstrated that robust transgenic over-expression of miR-132 (i.e., no doxycycline treatment) impaired novel object recognition memory (Hansen et al. 2010b). Here, we furthered this line of inquiry by testing the effects of transgenic miR-132 over-

expression on spatial memory capacity, and by testing the plastic nature of the learning phenotype.

In the Barnes maze assay, mice that expressed high levels of transgenic miR-132 (no doxycycline) showed significant impairment in spatial memory capacity, as demonstrated by poor performance in maze acquisition. While all groups improved across the five days of acquisition, the transgenic group without doxycycline exhibited both a longer latency to escape to the target hole, as well as an increase in errors made before escape, as compared to monotransgenic littermates (Fig. 4a and b). These data are consistent with our prior work using the novel object recognition test, and thus provide further support for the idea that miR-132 shapes cognitive capacity.

To examine whether the cognitive deficits observed in tTA::miR132 were reversible, a separate group of miR-132:tTA animals received doxycycline through the drinking water at a dose sufficient to fully suppress transgene expression (200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). After three weeks of treatment, these animals exhibited Barnes maze performance that was indistinguishable from tTA monotransgenic mice (Fig. 4a and b). Similarly, the poor performance of transgenic miR-132:tTA animals assayed via the novel object recognition test (Hansen et al. 2010b), was reversed by maintaining animals on doxycycline treatment for three weeks (Fig. 4c). For this assay, animals were given 10 minutes to explore two identical objects placed on opposite sides of a testing arena. After removal for a 30-minute delay, animals were returned to the arena, in which one familiar object had been replaced by a novel one. Animals were allowed five minutes of investigation, during which exploration time with each object was recorded. In the absence of doxycycline, tTA::miR132 mice spent equal time with both the novel and familiar objects. However, a separate cohort of animals that had been treated with doxycycline (200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) for

three weeks spent significantly more time with the novel object, paralleling the behavior of tTA monotransgenic mice. Thus, these data indicate that cognitive capacity is tightly and dynamically linked to the expression level of miR-132.

Reversibility of increased spine density in tTA::miR132 animals

Our previous work demonstrated that, in the absence of doxycycline treatment, tTA::miR132 mice exhibit a marked increase in dendritic spine density relative to monotransgenic mice (Hansen et al. 2010b). Again, although increased spine density is often associated with enhanced cognitive capacity, excessive spine formation has been linked to cognitive deficits (Hutsler and Zhang 2010). Here, we examined spine density in mature tTA::miR132 animals after receiving three weeks of doxycycline treatment (200 µg/mL). For these experiments, the miR-132 transgenic mice were crossed with a *Thy-1* GFP mouse line that has been used extensively to examine neuronal morphology and plasticity (Vuksic et al. 2008; Feng et al. 2000; Hansen et al. 2010b). Morphometric analysis revealed that spine density in CA1 basal dendrites of tTA::miR132 mice treated with doxycycline was indistinguishable from tTA monotransgenic mice (Fig. 5). Further, consistent with our prior work, spine density was significantly enhanced in tTA::miR132 mice that were not treated with doxycycline. This ostensible doxycycline-mediated reversibility of the miR-132 spine density phenotype parallels the reversibility of the miR-132 cognitive phenotype, and thus suggests that miR-132 is a dynamic and transient regulator of neuronal plasticity. Together, these data, along with the noted work on miR-132 targets, indicate a key role for this non-coding RNA in activity-inducible CNS physiology and function.

Discussion

The central goal of this project was to further our understanding of the role of miR-132 in hippocampal-dependent learning and memory formation. To this end, we demonstrated that endogenous miR-132 is expressed in excitatory cell layers throughout the hippocampus, and that miR-132 is induced in response to a spatial learning task. Using these data as a guide, we employed a tetracycline-regulated operon to drive the expression of transgenic miR-132 and assess its effects on cognition. These data reveal that cognitive capacity is tightly regulated by miR-132. Hence, physiological levels of miR-132 enhance cognition, whereas supra-physiological levels of the miRNA lead to cognitive deficits. Together, these data indicate that miR-132 plays a key role in shaping cognitive capacity.

Next, we turned to the question of miR-132 inducible expression following the presentation of a spatial learning task. For this assay, we used the Barnes maze paradigm, and profiled miR-132 expression after two days of training. One key motivation for choosing a relatively short time point following initiation of the learning paradigm was the desire to capture ostensible early-stage gene expression, which would be expected to play a central role in the induction of learning. At this time point, significant upregulation of miR-132 was detected in the excitatory cell layers of the hippocampus, suggesting that miR-132 induction occurs during a period of memory consolidation. Interestingly, these data are consistent with recent PCR-based profiling data which showed that contextual fear conditioning triggers a rapid increase in the expression of the primary transcript of miR-132 (Nudelman et al. 2010), although a learning-evoked increase in the mature form of miR-132 was not detected in the noted study. Together, these data suggest that miR-132 is part of the CREB-regulated, learning evoked transcriptional

response, and, given the time course of induction, raises the prospect that miR-132 plays a role in CREB-dependent memory consolidation.

In our prior report, we found that transgenic miR-132 expression led to an increase in overall dendritic spine density in the hippocampus, and a deficit in novel object recognition memory (Hansen et al. 2010b). Here, the examination of transgenic miR-132's action on learning and memory was extended to the Barnes maze, where we found that over-expression of miR-132 (no doxycycline treatment) led to a profound deficit in spatial learning capacity. On its face, pairing our current data showing that learning induces an increase in miR-132 expression with the our prior data showing that transgenic over-expression of miR-132 triggers cognitive deficits would suggest that endogenous miR-132 functions as a negative regulator of learning and memory. However, a more circumspect examination of the data raises issues with this interpretation. Central to this concern is the marked difference between the miR-132 induction level evoked by learning and the level driven by the tet-operon. Notably, wild-type animals showed learning-evoked increase in expression of ~1.5-fold, whereas in transgenic mice, miR-132 expression was elevated > 3-fold over control levels (in the absence of doxycycline). This transgenic, supra-physiological, level of miR-132 could profoundly dysregulate neuronal physiology and, in turn, cognition. To address this possibility, we employed the doxycycline regulatory system to modulate transgenic miR-132 levels, and assess the effects of moderate miR-132 induction that approximates the learning-evoked expression level. Under these conditions, tTA::miR132 animals showed significantly enhanced spatial memory capacity relative to nontransgenic littermates. These expression-level-specific effects of miR-132 led us to envision miRNA functionality as an inverted U-shaped curve, where low or supra-physiological levels of the miRNA result in cognitive impairment, and where miR-132 enhances cognitive

capacity only within a fairly limited expression range (Fig. 6). Our data raise the prospect that a limited range of miR-132 expression leads to morphological plasticity conducive to normal cognitive capacity, and that relatively high levels disrupt cognition via aberrant spinogenesis/synaptic connection. Consistent with this idea, our data reveal that doxycycline suppression of transgenic miR-132 reversed *both* the cognitive deficits and the spinogenesis phenotype.

Given the complexity of miRNA expression and the plethora of miR-132 targets that have yet to be validated, newly developed approaches, including array and deep sequencing assays designed to quantify gene expression levels and identify gene networks, may be required to begin to unravel the mechanisms by which miR-132 sculpts cognition.

Figures

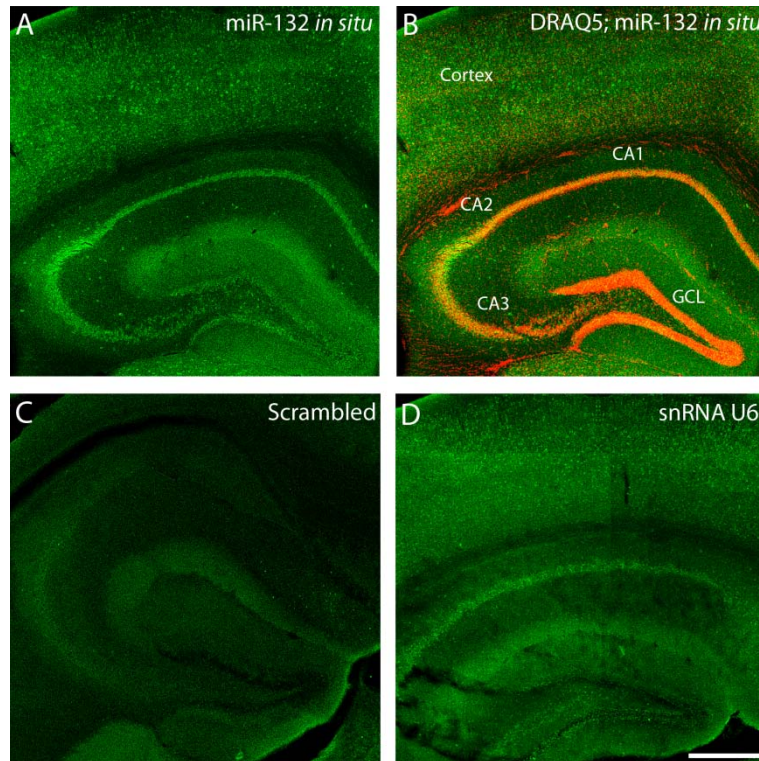


Fig. 1 miR-132 expression in the hippocampus (A) Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) using an LNA-antisense probe directed against miR-132 reveals robust miR-132 expression throughout the cortex and hippocampus of wild-type animals. (B) Within the hippocampus, marked excitatory-layer-specific expression of miR-132 was confirmed by merging the miR-132 fluorescence micrograph in A with a fluorescence micrograph image of DRAQ5 labeling (red). (C) Representative FISH labeling using a scrambled miRNA probe: minimal labeling was detected. (D) As a positive control for the FISH labeling approach, hippocampal sections were incubated with an antisense probe against the snRNA U6. CA1-3, hippocampal subfields; GCL, granule cell layer. Scale bar: 400 μ m.

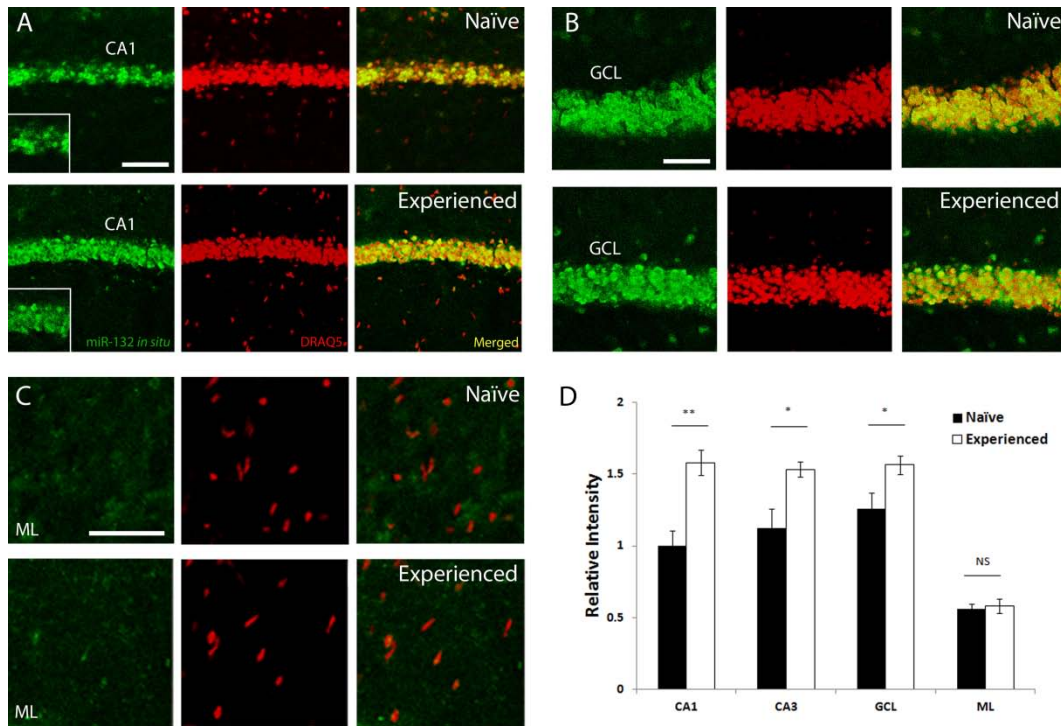


Fig. 2 miR-132 expression is induced in response to the Barnes maze learning paradigm

Hippocampal miR-132 expression was examined by FISH in control animals, and in animals that experienced two days of Barnes maze learning. (A-C) In animals exposed to the learning paradigm, expression of miR-132 (green) was increased in the CA1 (A), CA3 (not shown), and GCL (B) excitatory cell layers relative to control animals, but not in the molecular layer (ML: C). Tissue was also labeled with the DNA stain DRAQ5 (red). Scale bar: 100 μ m. (D) Quantification of relative fluorescent intensity \pm SEM in CA1, CA3, GCL and ML; NS, not significant. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, two-tailed t-test, $n = 6$ animals for each group.

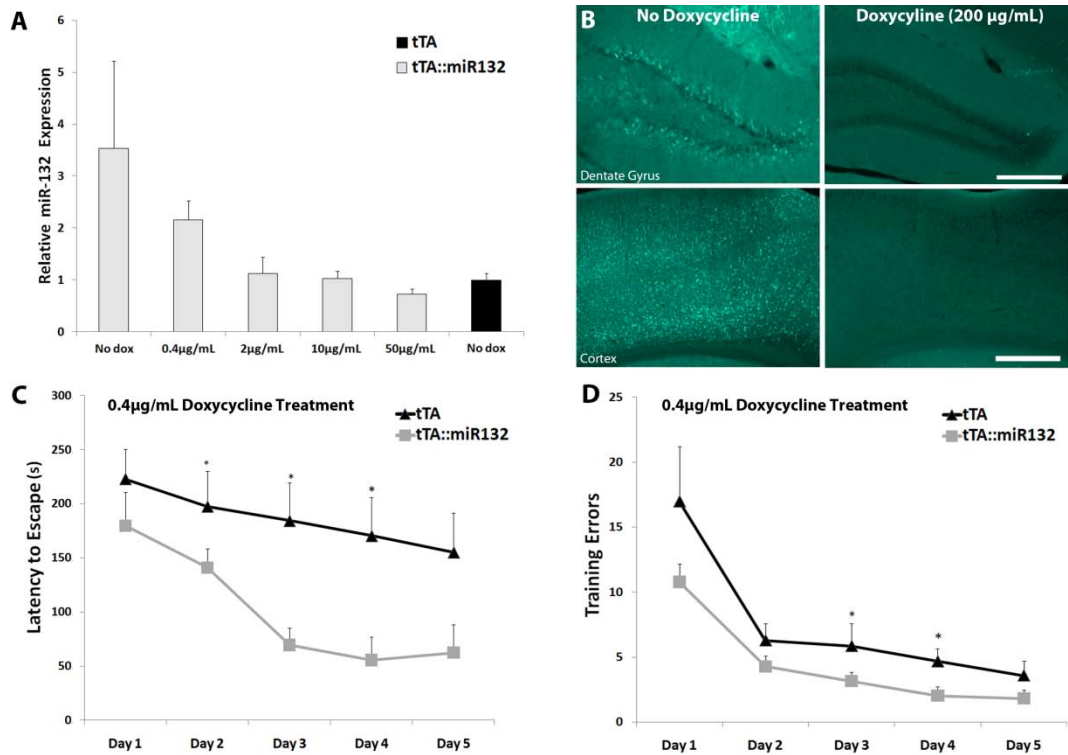


Fig. 3 Limited expression of transgenic miR-132 enhances Barnes maze performance (A)

tTA::miR132 animals exhibited robust expression of miR-132 in the hippocampus by qPCR in the absence of doxycycline, while the addition of doxycycline administration to the drinking water for two weeks led to a dose-dependent reduction in miR-132 expression. From 2-10 μg/mL of doxycycline, miR-132 levels in tTA::miR132 mice were not significantly different from levels in monotransgenic animals (tTA). Total hippocampal RNA was isolated, reverse-transcribed, and miR-132 cDNA was profiled via real-time PCR. Mature miR-132 expression was normalized to RNU6B_2 cDNA levels and then presented as mean ± SEM (n=3 per group) expression relative to the tTA (No dox) condition, which was set equal to a value of 1. (B) Immunofluorescent analysis of cyan fluorescent protein (CFP) expression in tTA::miR132 mice confirms robust transgene expression in the absence of doxycycline administration, and potent suppression of transgene expression following two weeks of doxycycline administration (200 μg/mL). Scale bars: 200 μm. (C,D) Animals (tTA and tTA::miR132) were administered doxycycline (0.4

μg/mL) for three weeks prior to Barnes maze testing. Under this condition, tTA::miR132 animals exhibited faster escape latency (C) and fewer training errors (D) than monotransgenic littermates. All groups improved significantly across five days of acquisition: Repeated Measures Mixed-Model ANOVA, $F(4,80)=6.685$, $P<.001$ (Latency), $F(4,80)=17.723$, $P<.001$ (Training Errors). Differences within day: one-way ANOVA, $*p<0.05$. n=11 animals per group.

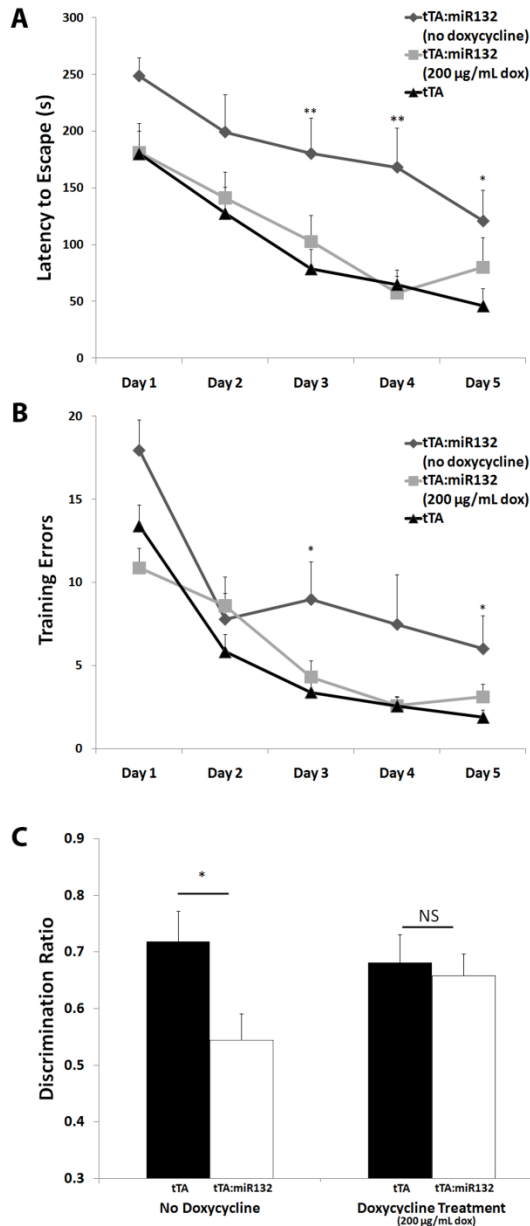


Figure 4. tTA::miR132 animals under conditions of robust transgenic miR-132 show cognitive impairment. (A,B) In the absence of doxycycline

treatment, tTA::miR132 animals undergoing Barnes maze testing showed increased latency to escape (A), as well as increased training errors (B) relative to monotransgenic littermates (tTA). In a separate group of tTA::miR132 mice, doxycycline treatment (200 mg/mL: three weeks) suppressed the cognitive impairment observed in the tTA::miR132 animals that were not treated with doxycycline. tTA animals were also treated with doxycycline, but showed no differences from untreated controls (data not shown).

All experimental groups improved significantly across five days of acquisition: Repeated Measures Mixed-Model ANOVA $F(4,160)=33.429$, $P<.001$ (Latency), $F(4,156)=45.65$, $P<.001$ (Training Errors).

Differences within day: one-way ANOVA, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. $n = 12$ animals per group. (C) In the absence of doxycycline, tTA::miR132 animals showed significant impairment in novel object recognition memory. Hence, tTA::miR132 mice did not exhibit greater exploratory bias towards the novel versus the familiar object. In contrast, blocking transgenic miR-132 expression via doxycycline administration (200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$: three weeks) suppressed the novel object recognition impairment of tTA::miR132 animals. Hence, doxycycline-treated tTA::miR132 mice exhibited significantly greater exploration time with the novel object than with the familiar one, paralleling the behavioral phenotype of monotransgenic littermates (tTA). Data are presented as mean discrimination ratio \pm SEM, * $p < 0.05$, two-tailed t-test, $n = 5$ animals per group. NS, not significant.

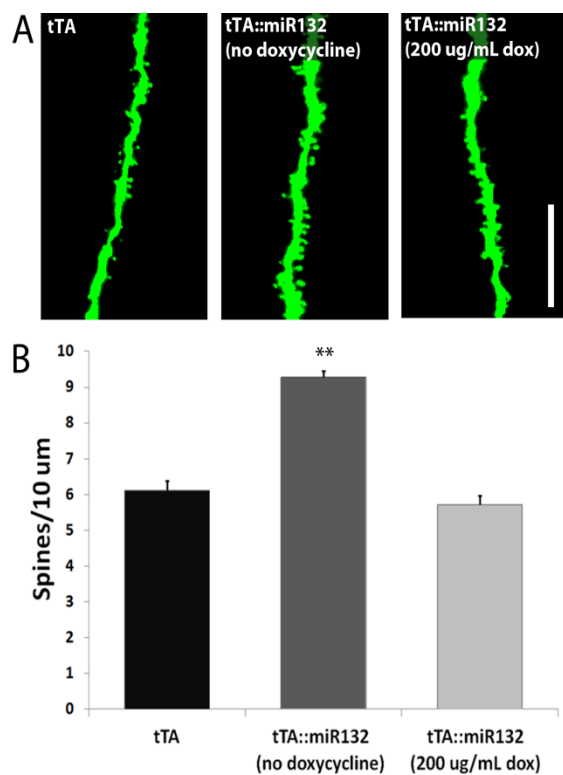


Fig. 5 Transgenic miR-132-induced increases in spine density are suppressed by administration of doxycycline A *Thy-1* driven GFP transgenic marker was used to examine spine density in tTA::miR132 mice. (A) Confocal images reveal an increase in spine density under conditions of robust miR-132 expression [tTA::miR132 (no doxycycline)] that is absent upon suppression of the transgene with doxycycline [tTA::miR132 (200 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ dox)]. Scale bar: 10 μm . (B) Graphical representation of the mean \pm SEM spine density.

One-way ANOVA, ** $P < 0.01$, $F(2,10) = 83.563$, $n = 5$ animals for each group.

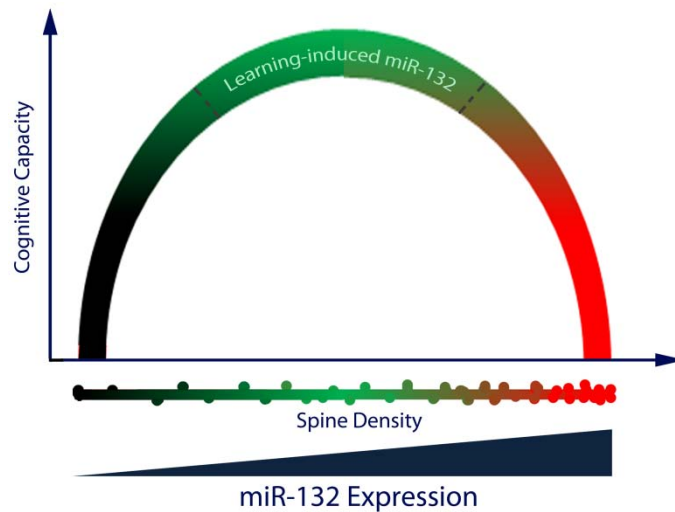


Fig. 6 Model depicting the proposed relationships between miR-132, neuronal morphology and cognition In this model, we propose that there is an optimal, and rather narrow, range of miR-132 expression which enhances cognitive capacity. Supra-physiological expression of miR-132 leads to excessive spine density and cognitive deficits that compromise learning and memory formation. Further, limited basal and/or damped inducible expression of miR-132 is hypothesized to inhibit cognition, possibly via a paucity of spine formation. Hence, deviation from this optimized miR-132 expression level (either excessive induction or too little expression) may lead to the severe learning deficits that are characteristic of a variety of neurocognitive disorders.

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