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Experience-Dependent Plasticity Acts via GluR1 and a Novel Neuronal Nitric Oxide Synthase-Dependent Synaptic Mechanism in Adult Cortex

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Synaptic plasticity directs development of the role of AMPA receptors in synaptic plasticity comes from studies on developing cortex and cell cultures. In the present study, we instead focus on plasticity in mature neurons in the neocortex of adult animals. We find that the glutamate receptor 1 (GluR1) subunit of the AMPA receptor is involved in experience-dependent plasticity in adult cortex in vivo and that it acts in addition to neuronal nitric oxide synthase (aNOS1), an enzyme that produces the rapid synaptic signaling molecule nitric oxide (NO). Potentiation of the spared whisker response, following single whisker experience, is ~33% less in GluR1-null mutants than in wild types. We found that the remaining plasticity depended on aNOS1. Potentiation was reduced by >42% in the single aNOS1-null mutants and completely abolished in GluR1/aNOS1 double-knock-out mice. However, potentiation in GluR1/NOS3 double-knock-outs occurred at similar levels to that seen in GluR1 single knock-outs. Synaptic plasticity in the layer IV to II/III pathway in vitro mirrored the results in vivo, in that LTP was present in GluR1/NOS3 double-knock-out mice but not in the GluR1/aNOS1 animals. While basal levels of NO in cortical slices depended on both aNOS1 and NOS3, NMDA receptor-dependent NO release only depended on aNOS1 and not on NOS3. These findings demonstrate that aNOS1 acts in concert with GluR1 to produce experience-dependent plasticity in the neocortex.

Introduction
Plasticity mechanisms play an important role in development of the neocortical circuit and, later in life, in processing and storing long-term memories. Many studies to date have focused on the role of AMPA receptor insertion as a mechanism for plasticity, in which the canonical form of LTP involves insertion of GluR1/GluR2-containing AMPA receptors in the postsynaptic membrane (Shi et al., 2001; Lu et al., 2009). While there is a good deal of evidence that plasticity involves GluR1 receptor insertion in the neocortex of developing animals (Takahashi et al., 2003; Clem and Barth, 2006; Clem et al., 2008) and in cultured neurons from neonates (Shi et al., 2001; Lu et al., 2009), it is not known that the same process occurs in adult cortex, and, indeed, some evidence suggests it does not. Blocking GluR1 insertion with a virally expressed C-terminal domain of GluR1 does not decrease synaptic strength even in animals as young as P21–P23 (Jitsuki et al., 2011), and silent synapses, lacking functional AMPA receptors, tend to be rare in neocortex beyond ~1 month of age (Rumpel et al., 2004). Studies show that the GluR1 dependence of cortical and hippocampal plasticity decreases with age (Grosshans et al., 2002; Jensen et al., 2003). This makes it important to study plasticity outside the developmental time window to understand the plasticity mechanisms that operate in adult animals and that might thereby underlie the lifelong plasticity that is characteristic of the neocortex.

To test the involvement of GluR1 in plasticity, we studied plasticity in GluR1 knock-out mice. We looked at the effect of whisker deprivation on receptive field plasticity in layer II/III neurons in the barrel cortex. The barrel cortex is part of the somatosensory cortex, and observations from several species show that somatosensory cortex also exhibits plasticity in adulthood (Clark et al., 1988). It also exhibits plasticity that shares many properties with hippocampal LTP, such as activity dependence (Wallace et al., 2001) and a requirement for a CaMKII autophosphorylation (Glazewski et al., 2000). Our previous studies in vitro have shown that GluR1 knock-out mice exhibit neocortical LTP that depends on nitric oxide (NO) (Hardingham and Fox, 2006). NO is produced by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) of which there are two main isoforms in the healthy brain; neuronal NOS (or NOS1) and endothelial NOS (or NOS3). Both isoforms are thought to play a role in hippocampal LTP (Hopper and Garthwaite, 2006), but their function in neocortical LTP is unclear. To test whether experience-dependent plasticity also depends on NO in adult animals, we crossed GluR1 knock-outs with animals lacking either aNOS1 or NOS3 and deprived the animals of all but the D1 whisker (aNOS1 is a subisoform of NOS1 that has PDZ interacting domains that localize it to the postsynaptic density of the synapse (Huang et al., 1993)).
findings not only provide evidence for the involvement of GluR1 in adult experience-dependent potentiation (EDP) but also show that GluR1-independent potentiation occurs and operates via neuronal nitric oxide synthase (αNOS1).

Materials and Methods

Subjects. For the experience-dependent plasticity studies, we used 19 wild types [12 deprived (255 cells) and 7 undeprived (73 cells)], 25 GluR1 knock-outs [12 deprived (308 cells) and 13 undeprived (244 cells)], 13 GluR1/αNOS1 knock-outs [6 deprived (80 cells) and 7 undeprived (89 cells)], and 19 GluR1/NOS3 knock-outs [12 deprived (203 cells) and 7 undeprived (89 cells)]. Recordings were performed at an average age of 5 months (range, 2.5–10 months). For the in vitro LTP studies, we used eight GluR1/αNOS1 and eight GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs. For the NO release studies, we used 26 wild types, 3 wild types treated with l-NAME for 2 d, and 5 αNOS1 and 5 NOS3 single knock-outs. For the characterization of spontaneous spike-burst behavior and layer IV to II/III LTP, we studied 36 wild types and 2 αNOS1 single knock-outs. All genotypes for in vitro studies used were 6–8 weeks of age. Approximately equal numbers of male and female animals were used in both the in vivo and in vitro experiments for all genotypes.

The colony was maintained as heterozygotes of the targeted mutations of the αNOS1, NOS3 (both originally sourced from The Jackson Laboratory), or GluR1 genes (supplied originally by the Rawlins Laboratory, Oxford, UK). To generate single knock-outs and wild-type littermates for the experiments, we bred heterozygous animals. To generate double knock-outs, we bred double heterozygotes (e.g., GluR1−/−×NOS−/−). On occasions, it was necessary to breed homozygotes to increase the yield of double knock-outs. The background of the knock-outs was C57BL/6J/OlaHsd (Harlan).

Whisker deprivation, anesthesia surgery, and recording. Mice underwent unilateral whisker deprivation for 18 d followed by 6–10 d of regrowth before electrophysiological recordings. For the deprivation procedure, anesthesia was induced by isoflurane, and all but the D1 whisker were removed by slow steady tension. This has been previously shown not to anesthetize the mice. The solutions were all corrected to a pH of 7.3 and 290 mOsm.

Intracellular solutions and drugs used. Intracellular electrodes (10–15 MΩ) contained the following (in mM): 110 K-gluconate, 10 KCl, 2 MgCl2, 2 NaATP, 0.3 Na2GTP, 10 HEPES. To block NO synthase pharmacologically in the LTP experiments, 1 μM Nω-nitro-L-arginine (L-NNA) was included in the electrode filling solution as indicated in the text. The solutions were all corrected to a pH of 7.3 and 290 mOsm.

In vitro recording and LTP protocol. The stimulating electrode was placed accurately within the wall of a layer IV barrel under visual guidance using an Olympus Optical BH2 video microscope and a transilluminated slice. Cells were chosen in layer II/III on the near side of the adjacent barrel column and patched under visual guidance using a 40X water-immersion objective, differential interference contrast optics, and infrared illumination. Stimulation intensity was set at a level to produce an EPSP of ~5 mV in amplitude. EPSPs were evoked at a frequency of 10 Hz.

Whole-cell recordings were made at the postbreak in potential (average resting potential of ~70 ± 5 mV for wild types, ~72 ± 4 mV for αNOS1, ~70 ± 4 mV for GluR1/αNOS1, and ~72 ± 5 mV for GluR1/ NOS3 single knock-outs) and at this 30 mV time point. In one experiment, we also incubated sections in l-NAME for 4 h to estimate the rate of decay of the nitrite signal. In one further experiment, to antagonize NOS in vivo...
Experience-dependent plasticity in barrel cortex: the spared whisker domain expands following deprivation in layer II/III in wild types, GluR1 and GluR1/NOS3 knock-outs, but not in GluR1/NOS1 knock-outs. Each penetration represents the average response of layer II/III to D1 whisker stimulation in which recordings were made in at least three cells in layer II/III. Recording locations are identified from small (50 μm) lesions made in layer IV at the end of the recording penetration relative to the cytochrome oxidase-stained barrel field (Wong-Riley and Welt, 1980; Fox, 1994). The response level is color coded such that penetrations containing cells with the strongest average responses (R) are yellow (R ≥ 50 spikes per 50 stimuli), medium strength responses are coded green (50 > R ≥ 25), and the weakest responses, characteristic of control undeprived animals, are coded blue (R < 25 spikes per 50 stimuli). Top row, D1 whisker domains for control (undeprived) animals. Note that the strongest responses are evoked in cells largely confined to the D1 column. Bottom row, D1 domains for animals deprived of all but the D1 whisker for 18 d. The D1 barrel is shaded dark gray. Note that the D1 domain expands beyond the borders of the D1 barrel following deprivation.

Figure 1. Experience-dependent plasticity in barrel cortex: the spared whisker domain expands following deprivation in layer II/III in wild types, GluR1 and GluR1/NOS3 knock-outs, but not in GluR1/NOS1 knock-outs. Each penetration represents the average response of layer II/III to D1 whisker stimulation in which recordings were made in at least three cells in layer II/III. Recording locations are identified from small (50 μm) lesions made in layer IV at the end of the recording penetration relative to the cytochrome oxidase-stained barrel field (Wong-Riley and Welt, 1980; Fox, 1994). The response level is color coded such that penetrations containing cells with the strongest average responses (R) are yellow (R ≥ 50 spikes per 50 stimuli), medium strength responses are coded green (50 > R ≥ 25), and the weakest responses, characteristic of control undeprived animals, are coded blue (R < 25 spikes per 50 stimuli). Top row, D1 whisker domains for control (undeprived) animals. Note that the strongest responses are evoked in cells largely confined to the D1 column. Bottom row, D1 domains for animals deprived of all but the D1 whisker for 18 d. The D1 barrel is shaded dark gray. Note that the D1 domain expands beyond the borders of the D1 barrel following deprivation.

Results
Experience-dependent potentiation is partly GluR1 dependent in adults
In wild-type animals, a period of single (D1) whisker experience caused potentiation of spike responses to D1 whisker stimulation in layer II/III of D1-surrounding barrel columns. The color-coded map of individual penetrations in the barrel cortex shows the strength of response to D1 whisker stimulation (Fig. 1). The strongest responses are normally localized to the D1 barrel in

for 2 d before the release study, wild-type mice were given two, once-daily intraperitoneal injections of 1-NAME (at a dose of 75 mg/kg in 0.9% saline solution). The final injection was delivered 24 h before slice preparation. The cortical slices were then incubated in 100 μM 1-NAME for 4 h. After treatment with BMI/0Mg2+ or other drug solutions, the brain slices were placed in a cryo-vial (three per vial) and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. The tissue was homogenized in ΔH2O (1:3; w/v) and centrifuged at 4°C (36,000 × g; 15 min) to pellet tissue components. The supernatant was then assayed for NO in a spectrometer. Fifty microliters of the sample to be measured was incubated in the presence of sulfanilamide, followed by N-1-naphthylethylendiamine, which causes the conversion of NO to NO2. A colorimetric change was measured at a wavelength of 525 nm, and levels were quantified using an NO2 standard curve. By testing solutions of NO donor (spermine NONOate), we found that this method is capable of measuring NO concentrations over a range of between 1 and 100 μM, a range that included our experimentally observed concentrations (see Fig. 5E,F). The same BMI/0Mg2+ solution was used to measure burst firing in neurons and for experiments in which EPSPs were measured in response to changing the solution to BMI/0Mg2+ (see Fig. 6).

Statistical methods. Spike responses for the D1, principal, and surrounding whiskers were averaged for each animal, and then averaged across all mice within each genotype group. All values are expressed as means ± SEM. Plasticity was assayed by comparing D1 responses from deprived mice with undeprived control mice as well as across deprived genotypes, where “n” is the number of animals involved in each case. Unpaired t tests, one-way and two-way ANOVAs with post hoc analysis were used to evaluate differences between genotypes. Cumulative distribution functions were analyzed using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test.

Map plasticity was estimated by averaging all layer II/III D1 responses within a penetration and assigning each penetration to one of three bands, blue for <25 spikes per 50 stimuli, green for between 25 and 50 spikes per 50 stimuli, and yellow for >50 spikes per 50 stimuli. The colored circles were placed on a diagram barrel map in their precise anatomical location. Differences between control and deprived conditions were determined by χ2 analysis.

EPSP amplitudes were averaged over 15 min control periods of recording. Plasticity was monitored by comparing mean amplitudes between 50 and 60 min after the LTP protocol with mean amplitudes from the control periods of recording. In the case of the in vitro NO measurements, average NO measurements from slices treated with bicuculline were compared with control slices that had been bathed in aCSF at the same time. Comparisons of NO levels were also made between different treatment conditions and genotypes. The effect of these treatments was analyzed using a two-way ANOVA and post hoc t tests.
The residual GluR1-independent potentiation requires the spared whisker potentiation. Data also show that GluR1 is clearly not the only factor involved in experience-dependent plasticity in the neocortex. However, the magnitude of LTP was just 4% in wild-type mice (t(24) = 3.16; p < 0.004). Together, these findings demonstrate that αNOS1 is not only involved in potentiation in the cortex but can also account for the residual plasticity in the GluR1 knock-out mice.

**Long-term potentiation is αNOS1 dependent in GluR1 knock-outs**

LTP is partly NO dependent in wild-type mice and entirely NO dependent in GluR1 knock-out mice (Hardingham and Fox, 2006), and LTP is known to interact with EDP in barrel cortex (Hardingham et al., 2008). Therefore, we tested whether αNOS1 was also involved in cortical LTP. We studied mice aged 6–8 weeks, which, although younger than animals studied in vivo, were still beyond the stage of development for the juvenile form of LTP seen in GluR1 knock-outs (P42) (Jensen et al., 2003) and several weeks beyond the major period of synaptogenesis in the cortex (Micheva and Beaulieu, 1996).

In wild-type mice, pairing presynaptic and postsynaptic action potentials so that the postsynaptic action potential occurs 10 ms after the presynaptic action potential (Fig. 4) produces significant potentiation of EPSPs in 37.5% of cases and causes an average EPSP potentiation of 29 ± 8% of control values (Hardingham et al., 2008). Previous studies have shown that GluR1 KO s also exhibit LTP in this pathway (Hardingham and Fox, 2006). In the GluR1/αNOS1 double-knock-out mice, we found that the probability of LTP was reduced (to 6.7%) and the average magnitude of LTP was just 4 ± 1% of baseline levels (Fig. 4A) (n = 18). In contrast, the probability of LTP in the GluR1/αNOS3 knock-out mice was similar in frequency (41%) to that observed in wild-type mice and similar in magnitude to that found in single GluR1 knock-outs (19 ± 4%; t(41) = 2.2; p > 0.34; n = 20) (Fig. 4B). We also tested whether any residual LTP in the GluR1/αNOS3 knock-outs could be attributed to NOS activity by including the NOS blocker L-NNa in the intracellular electrode (n = 20). A two-way ANOVA showed an effect of genotype (F(3,139) = 4.90; p = 0.0001).
dependent as it was blocked by intracellular application of t-NAME (Fig. 4). Overall, these findings imply that, in animals lacking GluR1, the αNOS1 isoform is necessary for LTP in the layer IV to II/III intracortical pathway.

**NMDA receptor-dependent NO release is αNOS1 dependent**

NOS1 is found in neocortical spines associated with NMDA receptors (Aoki et al., 1997; Husi et al., 2000; Valtschanoff and Weinberg, 2001). Unlike NOS3, the αNOS1 isoform of nitric oxide synthase associates with the NMDA receptor via its PDZ binding domain (Huang et al., 1993), which may explain its role in experience-dependent plasticity in vivo and synaptic plasticity in vitro described above. It has been suggested that both NOS3 and NOS1 are involved in hippocampal LTP by controlling tonic and phasic levels of NO, respectively (Hopper and Garthwaite, 2006). We therefore measured the tonic levels of NO produced in NOS3 and αNOS1 knock-out mice as well as the ability of NMDA receptor activation to evoke phasic release of NO in cortex. Phasic NO release was induced by incubating slices in an isotonic electrolyte solution containing the GABA antagonist bicuculline, an established model of in vitro neuroplasticity (Arnold et al., 2005), and lacking the NMDA channel blocking divalent ion magnesium (BMI/0Mg²⁺) (Fig. 5). Simultaneous disinhibition with BMI and removal of the voltage dependence of the NMDA channel results in strong activation of NMDA receptors, which are known to be important for induction of LTP in the cortex. Preliminary studies using NMDA to evoke NO release were found to be deleterious to the slice, whereas slices were stable in BMI/0Mg²⁺ solution. The amount of NO released in an individual electrically stimulated pathway is too small to detect easily by present methods (Hall and Garthwaite, 2009). However, we found that, by producing spontaneous bursts of spikes throughout the slice, sufficient NO could be released to be quantified using the Griess assay [described by Griess (1879)]. However, adopting this method did mean that we measured NO release from the whole slice rather than just barrel cortex.

In wild types, NO levels increased by 69 ± 13% compared with control values following treatment with BMI/0Mg²⁺ (Fig. 5). The increase in NO was antagonized by the addition of APV (increase of −10 ± 9% after treatment) (Fig. 5A). A two-way ANOVA revealed an interaction term between BMI/0Mg²⁺ and APV (F(1,43) = 6.7; p < 0.02). Post hoc t tests showed that this was because NO release increased in the control cases (t(10) = 4.4; p < 0.01) but remained at basal levels in the presence of APV (t(18) = 1.1; p = 0.29). These findings show that cortical NO release is NMDA receptor dependent. The stimulated NO signal was also antagonized by application of t-NAME (average of −4 ± 10% after treatment) (Fig. 5B). A two-way ANOVA again showed an interaction term, this time between BMI/0Mg²⁺ and t-NAME (t(1,39) = 9.2; p < 0.005) due to BMI/0Mg²⁺ treatment increasing NO release in the control condition (t(9) = 3.6; p < 0.01) but not in the presence of t-NAME (t(13) = 0.02; p = 0.98).

While 30 min preincubation with t-NAME was sufficient to inhibit BMI/0Mg²⁺-evoked NO release (Fig. 5B), basal levels appeared to be only weakly affected (t(19) = 2.2; p = 0.055). We found this was because of preexisting nitrite in the slices. Nitrite, which is the molecule measured in the Griess assay, has a relatively long half-life in aqueous solution even in the presence of oxyhemoglobin (Ignarro et al., 1993). If we preincubated for 4 h with t-NAME, the signal reduced to 42 ± 5% of baseline, which was significantly less than control values (t(6) = 11.3; p < 10⁻⁴) and less than with 30 min of incubation in t-NAME (t(14) = 5.3; p < 10⁻⁴). We also found that treating the wild-type mice with...
l-NAME (intraperitoneal injection at 75 mg/kg) for 2 d before preparing the slices, followed by 4 h incubation in l-NAME, further reduced the signal to 24 ± 7% of baseline values (t(22) = 10.2; p < 0.01) (Fig. 5B), confirming that most of the baseline signal could indeed be attributed to NO activity.

We found that BMI/0Mg2+ -evoked NO release was very different in αNOS1 and NOS3 knock-out animals. There was no significant increase in NO production in slices prepared from αNOS1 knock-out mice (increase of 4.5 ± 12% after 4.5 min stimulation) (Fig. 5C). A two-way ANOVA showed a main effect of genotype (F(1,19) = 10.6; p < 0.005), which was due both to lower basal levels of NO (t(4) = 5.7; p < 0.005) and to the absence of BMI/0Mg2+ stimulated release in the NOS3 knock-out mice (t(4) = 0.27; p = 0.79). In contrast, slices taken from NOS3 knock-out mice showed a substantial increase in NO (128 ± 23% of control levels) (Fig. 5D). A two-way ANOVA showed a main effect of BMI/0Mg2+ treatment on NO levels (F(1,19) = 8.2; p < 0.02). Release of NO increased in both wild types and NOS3 knock-outs (t(4) = 3.1, p < 0.05; t(4) = 3.8, p < 0.05, respectively). Basal levels of release were again significantly lower in NOS3 knock-out mice compared with wild types (t(4) = 5.8; p < 0.005). The reason for the larger percentage increase in NO release in NOS3 knock-out mice compared with wild types was due to the lower basal level of NO in these animals (−40 ± 8% of wild-type levels) (Fig. 5D).

These findings therefore provide direct evidence for the idea that tonic NO levels are controlled via both αNOS1 and NOS3 and that phasic release is controlled by NMDA receptor activation of αNOS1 (Hopper and Garthwaite, 2006). By inference, these results imply that NMDA receptor-dependent NO release is involved both in EDP and LTP in the cortex.

Given that the spontaneous bursts of spikes in cortical neurons treated with BMI/0Mg2+ produced NO, and that NO is sufficient for potentiation in the cortex (Hardingham and Fox, 2006), we tested whether the same treatment that evoked NO release also potentiated synapses in the layer IV to II/III cortical pathway. We monitored EPSPs 15 min before and 30 min after application of a solution containing bicuculline and lacking magnesium. Spontaneous bursts of spikes occurred at a similar frequency in layer II/III and layer V cells in the cortex (Table 1) and clearly required NMDA receptors because spike-bursts were abolished by the application of APV (Table 1). However, the spike-bursts were still present at normal frequencies either in wild types treated with l-NAME or in αNOS1 knock-outs (Fig. 6, Table 1), indicating that NO release occurred downstream of spike-bursts and NMDA receptor activation. Following spontaneous bursts of spikes, EPSPs evoked in the layer IV to II/III pathway were potentiated on average by 67 ± 21% (t(7) = 3.15; p < 0.02) (Fig. 6C). Potentiation was largely blocked by preincubating the slices in the NOS antagonist l-NAME (average, 10 ± 20%; t(3) = 0.50; p = 0.64). This confirms that activity capable of producing NMDA-dependent NO release via αNOS1 also simultaneously potentiates evoked EPSPs in the cortex (Fig. 6).

Receptive field structure, somatosensory responsivity, and barrel field morphology are similar in wild types, GluR1 and αNOS1 mutants

One potential problem that arises when studying knock-out mice is that the gene of interest may play a role during development of the brain and thereby indirectly affect plasticity in the adult. To test whether the knock-out mice had developed differently from wild-type animals, we measured the responses of II/III and IV neurons to stimulation of center and surround receptive field whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7), in layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7). In layer II/III, we found that the strength of response from the principal whisker and surround whiskers in adult animals (Fig. 7).
synchonry of discharge within layer IV due to principal whisker stimulation is similar across genotypes.

As a test of whether the topography had developed normally in the knock-out animals, we also measured the size of the barrels and their spacing within the barrel field. The characteristic barrel field pattern was present in all the knock-out animals studied (Fig. 8). The individual barrel sizes were found to be similar for all genotypes as were the distances between barrels, indicating that a similar overall area of cortex was covered by the barrel field (for statistics, see Fig. 8). As a measure of the finer scale topography, we measured short-latency responses to principal whisker input from thalamic axons and in wild-type mice are largely cen-
mice had receptive field sizes that were different from wild-type
Brumberg et al., 1999). We found that none of the knock-out
cells are generated by intracortical transmission (Fox, 1994;

in the barrel cortex, surround receptive fields of layer II/III
whiskers comprising the surround receptive fields in each geno-
type between columns in layer II/III, we analyzed the number of
types and each of the knock-outs studied here.

0.05). These findings indicate that the somatotopic focus of the
response strength and genotype terms (Table IV). A twoweight ANOVA was conducted using the factors of response strength
and genotype (from PW to S8) and genotype. There was no significant main effect of genotype (F(1,7) = 0.18; p > 0.05) (D), and GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs (E). Note that barrel morphology and size are similar between all genotypes. The arrow in B indicates the location of a microlesion made to record the position of the electrode penetration. Scale bar: (in E) 250 μm. F. The distance between the far edges of the barrels on a line passing through the center of the barrels was measured to investigate if the spacing between barrels was similar between genotypes. As shown in the histogram, the distances are all very similar to one another and statistically indistinguishable (one-way ANOVA; F(4,36) = 1.45; p > 0.05). G. Cross-section areas through individual barrels were very similar and sizes of barrels were statistically indistinguishable between all five genotypes. A two-way ANOVA revealed there to be no significant main effect of genotype (F(16,144) = 1.44; p > 0.05), and genotype did not influence the area of the barrels (F(16,144) = 1.44; p > 0.05). Error bars indicate SEM.

Figure 8. Barrel morphology in GluR1, αNOS1, GluR1/αNOS1, and GluR1/NOS3 knock-out mice. Examples of barrel field sections cut through layer IV and stained for cytochrome oxidase in wild types (A), GluR1 knock-outs (B), αNOS1 knock-outs (C), GluR1/αNOS1 double knock-outs (D), and GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs (E). NOS1 knock-outs; blue, GluR1/αNOS1 knock-outs; red, GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs; green, GluR1 knock-outs; black, wild types; white, GluR1/NOS1 knock-outs; purple, GluR1/NOS1 double knock-outs; orange, GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs; magenta, GluR1/αNOS1 double knock-outs. Responses to stimulation of the principal whisker (PW) and surround whiskers (S1–S8) are shown for layer II/III (A), layer III (B) and layer IV (C) cells in undeprived mutant animals (black, wild types; white, GluR1 knock-outs; green, αNOS1 knock-outs; blue, GluR1/αNOS1 double knock-outs; red, GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs). Surround receptive field responses were ranked by magnitude for each cell and then averaged across cells. A two-way ANOVA was conducted using the factors of response strength (from PW to S8) and genotype. There was no significant main effect of genotype (F(1,110) = 2.68; p > 0.05), nor did the genotype affect the response strength within the receptive field (FR(max) < 1; p > 0.05). B. As for A, but for layer IV cells. A two-way ANOVA did not reveal a significant main effect of genotype (F(1,110) < 1; p > 0.05) nor interactions between the response strength and genotype terms (FS(max) < 1; p > 0.05). Error bars indicate SEM. C. Cumulative distribution functions are plotted for the latency of response (time to first spike) to stimulation of the principal whisker. The GluR1 knock-out mice show similar response latencies to wild types (two-sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov test; Δmax = 0.13; p > 0.05) as was also the case for αNOS1 knock-out mice (Δmax = 0.18; p > 0.05) (D). GluR1/αNOS1 double knock-out mice (Δmax = 0.18; p > 0.05) (E), and GluR1/αNOS1 double knock-outs (Δmax = 0.074; p > 0.05) (F).
vents a form of experience-dependent potentiation produced by increased exposure to a stimulus of a particular orientation during development (P26–P30) (Frenkel et al., 2006). In contrast, in this study, we have evaluated for the first time the GluR1 dependence of experience-dependent potentiation in much older animals (average age, 5 months) and found that, while GluR1 is responsible for a component of experience-dependent potentiation, it cannot account for the whole process. This is consistent with several studies that show that the GluR1 dependence of plasticity is developmentally regulated (Grosshans et al., 2002; Jensen et al., 2003). One reason for the decreased dependence of potentiation on GluR1 insertion in barrel cortex of older animals may relate to the decrease in spine turnover with age. New spines are thought to mature by AMPA receptor insertion (Takahashi et al., 2009). In barrel cortex, the density of transient spines (lasting <4 d) that might develop to form new synapses is far lower at 6 months of age than at P16–P24 (Holtmaat et al., 2005).

Despite the deficiencies in plasticity in the adult mutants, as far as we could tell from our measures, development of the barrel cortex was normal. For the single knock-outs, one could propose that GluR1 compensated during development in the αNOS1 knock-outs and αNOS1 compensated in the GluR1 knock-outs. However, as neither was present in the double knock-outs, at least one other form of plasticity must be involved. GluR4 is functionally similar to GluR1, is present in early development, and may be able to compensate for a lack of GluR1 during development but not in adults (Ritter et al., 2002; Esteban et al., 2003). Other plasticity mechanisms also occur during development that have a critical period and may not be available in the adult cortex. For example, in the visual cortex, ocular dominance plasticity consists of a strong depression of the response to the deprived eye and a potentiation of the response to the open eye. The depression component has a critical period and relies on a GluR2-dependent mechanism in layer IV (Yoon et al., 2009). The potentiation component of ocular dominance plasticity during the critical period appears most likely to involve a homeostatic response to depression of the closed eye (Mrsic-Flogel et al., 2007; Kaneko et al., 2008; Gamey et al., 2009; Toyozumi and Miller, 2009; McCurry et al., 2010) and requires TNFα (Kaneko et al., 2008). It is plausible that the small changes in firing rate associated with whisker deprivation may not be sufficient to trigger this homeostatic mechanism in barrel cortex (Celikel et al., 2004) but may compensate for other plasticity mechanisms during development in the double knock-outs.

Previous studies have concluded that EDP in cat visual cortex does not depend on NO (Reid et al., 1996; Ruthazer et al., 1996). It may be simply that the mechanisms of critical period visual cortex plasticity and somatosensory adult plasticity differ. However, if NO is involved in visual cortex plasticity in the same way as in somatosensory cortex, the previous studies would have been unlikely to have revealed an NO component. Only a subcomponent of cortical potentiation depends on NO and blocking it still leaves the GluR1 mechanism present. In the current study, we were able to observe the NO component of potentiation more clearly by studying animals lacking the GluR1-dependent component (Fig. 2), which was not feasible in the earlier studies (Reid et al., 1996; Ruthazer et al., 1996). Furthermore, the visual cortex studies did not distinguish between potentiation and depression components of ocular dominance plasticity. Since ocular dominance plasticity is governed largely by depression of the deprived eye input, it is likely that an ocular dominance shift would still have occurred even if potentiation was significantly reduced by blockade of NOS.

Our studies show that, once the GluR1 component of LTP is removed, the residual plasticity can be entirely blocked by pharmacological antagonism of NO or by αNOS1 knock-out. In contrast, significant potentiation is still observed in the GluR1/NOS3 double-knock-out mice that is again largely NO dependent because it is completely abolished in vitro by t-NNa (and therefore also most probably requires αNOS1). In further support of the idea that there are dual GluR1 and NO components to potentiation, we note that vibrissae dominance plasticity still occurs in αNOS1 single knock-out animals, most likely by the intact GluR1 mechanism of potentiation (Fig. 3).

These studies raise the question of why NO is important for EDP. It is unlikely that αNOS1 acts by altering connectivity or cortical circuitry during development because measures of barrel field morphology and receptive field structure were normal in the knock-outs used in this study (Figs. 7, 8). It is also unlikely that αNOS1 acts by affecting dynamic blood flow (and hence in vivo cortical activity) as the hemodynamic response is normal in αNOS1 KOs (Ma et al., 1996) as is in vivo cortical activity (Fig. 7). Instead, the hemodynamic response appears to be controlled by astrocytes acting via the 20-HETE (20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid), arachidonic acid pathway (Liu et al., 2008). The vascular location of NOS3 (Blackshaw et al., 2003) suggests that it plays a role in control of blood flow. However, a lack of NOS3 in the GluR1/NOS3 knock-outs did not decrease plasticity to levels below that expected in GluR1 single knock-outs.

It is known that αNOS1 is localized within pyramidal neurons and interneurons (Blackshaw et al., 2003) and is located in neocortical spines associated with NMDA receptors (Aoki et al., 1997; Husi et al., 2000; Valtchanov and Weinberg, 2001). Therefore, αNOS1 is in an effective position to control NO release in response to synaptic activity. It has been suggested that NOS3 could produce a tonic level of NO that also affects plasticity (Hopper and Garthwaite, 2006). The finding that both GluR1/NOS1 and GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs strongly reduce LTP in the hippocampus supports the idea (Phillips et al., 2008) as does our present finding that NOS3 partly controls basal levels of NO release in the cortex (Fig. 5D). However, NOS3 did not appear to affect plasticity in the barrel cortex and this might represent a mechanistic difference between the two brain regions.

One of the major targets for NO is soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) via its heme-NO binding domain. Both isoforms of sGC are required for LTP in the hippocampus and visual cortex, suggesting NO acts simultaneously through two signaling pathways (Haghiika et al., 2007; Taqtqeh et al., 2009). It has been demonstrated that NO can increase CREB phosphorylation via PKG (cGMP-dependent protein kinase) in the hippocampus (Lu et al., 1999), and therefore, since CREB is known to play a partial role in plasticity in the barrel cortex (Glazewski et al., 1999; Barth et al., 2000), it may play a role in the in vivo plasticity described here. However, CREB phosphorylation probably acts over too long a time span to explain the NO dependence of LTP seen in the in vitro studies.

Theoretically, there are three non-mutually exclusive synaptic mechanisms by which NO might act. First, NO acting via sGC and cGKII can increases GluR1 insertion (Serulle et al., 2007); however, although this mechanism could work in wild types, it cannot account for the remaining plasticity in the GluR1 single and GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs. Second, NO increases GluR2 heteromer insertion by direct nitrosylation of NSF (N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive factor) (Huang et al., 2005), but again this mechanism is unlikely to explain the results observed in the GluR1 single and GluR1/NOS3 double knock-outs since...
experience-dependent plasticity is directed by excitatory synaptic activity (Wallace et al., 2001) and synaptic insertion of GluR2-containing AMPA receptors occurs independent of synaptic activity (Zhu, 2009). Third, NO may act as a retrograde messenger to increase release probability, and there is certainly evidence for this mechanism in the neocortex (Volgushev et al., 2000; Hardingham and Fox, 2006; Sjöström et al., 2007). In addition, NO signaling via NOS1 causes presynaptic structural plasticity, including differentiation of axons into varicosities and formation of multinnervated spines (Nikonenko et al., 2008). The balance of evidence therefore favors a presynaptic site of action for NO. However, the fact that NO could simultaneously affect postsynaptic receptor insertion of GluR1 and/or GluR2 in wild-type animals means that αNOS1 is in an excellent position to coordinate presynaptic and postsynaptic function during plasticity.

References


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