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Multiple Roles for Synaptic Plasticity in Pavlovian Fear Conditioning

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Summary

Long-term potentiation (LTP) is a form of synaptic plasticity that has been proposed to mediate certain forms of learning and memory. In this chapter, it is argued that LTP in the hippocampus and amygdala plays a crucial role in the acquisition of a simple form of emotional learning and memory: Pavlovian fear conditioning. The distinct roles for hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP and the roles for short-term synaptic plasticity mechanisms in the acquisition of learned fear responses are discussed.

I would have you imagine, then, that there exists in the mind of man a block of wax, which is of different sizes in different men; harder, moister, and having more or less purity in one than another, and in some an intermediate quality. Let us say that this tablet is a gift of Memory, the mother of the Muses, and that when we wish to remember anything which we have seen, or heard, or thought in our own minds, we hold the wax to the perceptions and thoughts, and in that material receive the impression of them as from the seal of a ring; but when the image is effaced, or cannot be taken, then we forget and do not know.

Plato, ca. 400 B.C.

Throughout history, humans have been fascinated by the nature of memory, the permanent storehouse of the mind's experience. The foregoing passage excerpted from Plato's *Theaetetus* (ca. 400 B.C.) represents an early attempt to describe the process of memory formation in the human brain. In this passage, Plato envisions that memories are established in the brain when perceptions or thoughts render lasting impressions in the mnemonic wax of the mind. He implies that memories, once impressed in this way, are permanent, unless their trace in the mental 'wax' is erased. Despite the figurative nature of Plato's 'wax tablet hypothesis', the notion of a pliable or plastic substrate for memory storage continues to be a central tenet of nearly all current neurobiological models of memory formation. And although our comparatively enlightened understanding of brain function has taken the analysis of the neurobiological mechanisms of learning and memory to a molecular level, the question remains: What is the nature of the 'waxy' neural substrate for memory and how does it retain a mnemonic 'impression'?

Since the turn of the century, there has been a general consensus among psychologists, neurobiologists, and even philosophers that memories are represented in the brain as enduring changes in the brain's neuronal circuitry--the 'wiring' that interconnects

individual nerve cells. In the last twenty-five years, this view has been extensively elaborated. Indeed, it is now generally believed that synapses, which are the sites for chemical communication between interconnected neurons, are the pliable substrate for memory traces to make their impression.

The involvement of synapses in memory formation has received considerable empirical support from the discovery of a long-lasting change in synaptic function in the mammalian brain. In the early 1970s, a pair of papers was published that described a long-lasting enhancement of synaptic transmission following high-frequency stimulation of excitatory synapses in the brain (Bliss and Gardner-Medwin, 1973; Bliss and Lomo, 1973). This form of synaptic plasticity was discovered in the hippocampus, a seahorse-shaped structure known to be crucial for memory in humans (e.g., Squire and Zola-Morgan, 1991). Bliss, Lomo, and Gardner-Medwin termed the phenomenon long-lasting or long-term potentiation (LTP), because it was considerably more enduring than any previously described form of synaptic enhancement, which typically lasted only minutes. Although it was not evident at the time, the discovery of LTP heralded a new era for the study of the neural mechanisms of learning and memory.

In the years after the discovery of hippocampal LTP, a massive research effort has revealed that it exhibits many properties typical of memory and occurs in brain structures known to be important for learning and memory (Bliss and Collingridge, 1993; Maren and Baudry, 1995). For these and other reasons, there has been great interest in the possibility that LTP serves as a cellular mechanism for learning and memory. Indeed, LTP has served as the primary experimental model for learning and memory in the mammalian brain in the last decade. However, questions have recently been raised concerning the utility of using LTP as an experimental model for the neurobiology of

learning and memory (Diamond and Rose, 1994; Shors and Matzel, 1997). For example, the involvement of hippocampal LTP in rodent spatial learning, which has been the preferred behavioral paradigm for examining the LTP-learning connection, has come into question (e.g., Cain, 1997). This confusion may be due, at least in part, to the complicated and multiply determined nature of spatial learning tasks.

To circumvent this problem, a number of laboratories are now exploring the role for LTP in less complicated associative learning paradigms in which the experimenter has exquisite control over the behavioral contingencies. One paradigm that is becoming increasingly popular in this regard is Pavlovian fear conditioning, a robust and rapidly acquired form of emotional learning and memory that is exhibited by mammals throughout the animal kingdom (e.g., Fanselow, 1984). The neurobiological analysis of Pavlovian fear conditioning has revealed exciting insight into the involvement of LTP in learning and memory (Davis et al., 1994; Maren, in press; Maren and Fanselow, 1996; Rogan and LeDoux, 1996). This is particularly true insofar as the analysis of LTP has moved beyond the hippocampus into the amygdala, an almond-shaped temporal lobe structure that is crucial for fear conditioning (Davis, 1992; Fanselow, 1994; LeDoux, 1998; Maren, 1996). The aim of this chapter is to describe the considerable progress that has been made in elucidating the roles for hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP in Pavlovian fear conditioning. It will be argued that LTP in the hippocampus and amygdala play complimentary, but distinct, roles in mediating different aspects of Pavlovian fear conditioning.

Pavlovian fear conditioning in rodents : A model system for exploring the LTP-learning connection

After the discovery of LTP in the hippocampus and the realization that it exhibits properties that are expected of a cellular learning mechanism, considerable interest emerged in the role hippocampal LTP might play in behavioral learning and memory. It is not surprising then that the earliest empirical approaches to this issue sought to determine whether forms of learning that were known to require the hippocampus, such as spatial learning in the Morris water maze, also required hippocampal LTP (Morris et al., 1986). As a result of this work, a substantial body of evidence has emerged that implicates hippocampal LTP in spatial learning (Elgersma and Silva, 1999; Morris et al., 1990). However, there are a number of recent studies that have cast doubt on an essential role for LTP in spatial learning (Bannerman et al., 1995; Cain, 1997; Saucier and Cain, 1995). For example, there are several recent reports that genetic mutants which exhibit impaired hippocampal LTP do not exhibit deficits in spatial learning and memory (Meiri et al., 1998; Zamanillo et al., 1999). These disparate results may be due to a number of factors, not the least of which is the fact that successful performance in spatial learning tasks involves acquiring several types of information, only some of which involves the hippocampal system.

As an alternative to spatial learning tasks, a number of laboratories have begun to examine the LTP-learning connection in well characterized and simple associative learning paradigms. The prototypical task of this sort is a Pavlovian (or classical) fear conditioning task, in which rats or mice learn that certain innocuous stimuli (conditional stimuli or CSs), such as tones, lights, or places, are predictive of aversive events (unconditional stimuli or USs), such as electric footshocks. When re-exposed to the CSs that were associated with the aversive event, animals exhibit learned or conditional fear responses (CRs), such as freezing (immobility except movement associated with

breathing), enhanced acoustic startle, increased heart rate and blood pressure, pupillary dilation, and defecation. This type of learning is not unique to rodents, but has been described in animals ranging from sea slugs to humans. The ubiquity of fear conditioning is not surprising. It allows animals to encode and remember experiences that are a threat to their survival, and as a result, to engage defensive systems when stimuli predictive of these aversive events are re-encountered (Fanselow, 1984).

Pavlovian fear conditioning is an outstanding model system for the study of the neurobiological substrates of learning and memory for a number of reasons. First, the psychological processes underlying Pavlovian fear conditioning have been well characterized. Indeed, it is from this behavioral task that much of the behavioral data forming the core of modern associative learning theory has emerged. Second, Pavlovian fear conditioning is rapidly acquired (with as little training as a single trial) and extremely long-lasting. This makes it an ideal task for studying time-dependent memory processes, such as consolidation. Moreover, because the fear conditioning procedure takes little time to administer, experimental variance can be greatly reduced by running large numbers of animals in parallel. Third, the neural circuitry underlying fear conditioning has been described in some detail. Importantly, the essential locus for CS-US association formation has been identified and many of the sensory pathways that transmit information to this learning center have been mapped (LeDoux, 1998).

Neural circuitry of fear conditioning

It has been recognized for decades that the amygdala is involved in emotional processes, including aversively motivated learning (see Fendt and Fanselow, 1999 for an excellent review). The major amygdaloid nuclei and projections have been well

characterized (see (Swanson and Petrovich, 1998 for a review of amygdaloid anatomy). Recent anatomical and behavioral evidence indicates that there are at least two distinct subsystems within the amygdala that are important for Pavlovian fear conditioning. The first subsystem of the amygdala consists of the lateral, basolateral and basomedial nuclei. These nuclei, which are collectively referred to as the basolateral amygdaloid complex (BLA), are the primary sensory interface of the amygdala. Thus, the BLA receives synaptic input from many primary sensory structures, and lesions in these structures yield deficits in Pavlovian fear conditioning. For example, projections from the auditory thalamus and auditory cortex to the BLA are essential for conditioning to auditory CSs (Campeau and Davis, 1995a; Romanski and LeDoux, 1992), projections from the hippocampal formation to the BLA appear to underlie conditioning to contextual CSs (Kim and Fanselow, 1992; Maren and Fanselow, 1997; Phillips and LeDoux, 1992), and projections from the perirhinal cortex transmit visual CS information to the BLA (Campeau and Davis, 1995a; Rosen et al., 1992). Information about the aversive footshock US might reach the BLA via parallel thalamic and cortical pathways (Shi and Davis, 1999). Consistent with this anatomy, single neurons in the BLA respond to auditory, visual and somatic (shock) stimuli (Romanski et al., 1993), which indicates that the amygdala is a locus of convergence for information about CSs and USs. Thus, the BLA is anatomically situated to integrate information from a variety of sensory domains.

The information processed by the BLA is either relayed back to afferent structures or sent to the second major subsystem of the amygdala, the central nucleus of the amygdala (CEA). The CEA projects to many brainstem targets and is the amygdala's interface with the fear-response systems. For example, the CEA projects to nuclei in the hypothalamus, midbrain and medulla that control a variety of defensive responses, including freezing and

acoustic startle. Electrical stimulation of the CEA produces responses that are similar to those elicited by stimuli paired with shock, and lesions of the CEA also produce profound deficits in both the acquisition and expression of conditional fear (Hitchcock and Davis, 1986; Iwata et al., 1987). Moreover, lesions placed in structures that are efferent to the CEA, such as the lateral hypothalamus or periaqueductal grey, produce selective deficits in either cardiovascular or somatic conditional fear responses, respectively (LeDoux et al., 1988). This suggests that the CEA is the final common pathway for the generation of learned fear responses. Thus, the amygdala contains two distinct subsystems that represent areas of either sensory convergence (BLA) or response divergence (CEA).

Much evidence indicates that the BLA is the crucial neural locus for the formation and storage of fear memories. Selective lesions of the BLA abolish both acquisition and expression of conditional fear in several behavioral paradigms (Campeau and Davis, 1995b; Helmstetter, 1992; Maren, 1998b; Maren et al., 1996a; Sananes and Davis, 1992). In addition, BLA lesions yield deficits in conditional fear when they are made up to one month after training (Cousens and Otto, 1998; Lee et al., 1996; Maren et al., 1996a) or after extensive overtraining (Maren, 1998b). Moreover, manipulations that temporarily disable amygdaloid neurons prevent both the acquisition and expression of fear conditioning (Helmstetter and Bellgowan, 1994; Muller et al., 1997). Fear-conditioning deficits are associative in nature, because rats with BLA lesions can perform the freezing response under some conditions (Maren, 1998a; Maren, in press).

The view that the BLA is a locus of plasticity during aversive learning is further supported by electrophysiological studies of neuronal activity in the amygdala during auditory fear conditioning. For example, neurons in the amygdala exhibit short-latency, CS-elicited firing during aversive learning (Maren et al., 1991; Quirk et al., 1995).

Associative neuronal firing in the BLA precedes the development of both behavioral CRs and associative firing in other brain structures, including the auditory cortex (Quirk et al., 1997). Moreover, an intact amygdala is required for the acquisition of at least some forms of neuronal plasticity in the auditory cortex (Armony et al., 1998). Because of its essential role in forming and storing fear memories, the BLA serves as an ideal anatomical substrate for analyzing the relationship of synaptic plasticity mechanisms, such as LTP, to behavior.

NMDA receptor antagonists and Pavlovian fear conditioning

An important breakthrough in understanding the role LTP plays in behavior came with the discovery that some forms of LTP induction require activation of the NMDA subclass of glutamate receptors. Hence, a typical strategy for investigating the role for LTP in learning involves administering NMDA receptor antagonists to animals prior to a learning episode. Methods for delivering NMDA receptor antagonists range from systemic administration of drugs that permeate the blood-brain barrier to discrete intracranial infusion of antagonists into small brain areas. Insofar as some forms of LTP require NMDA receptor activation, the assumption is that learning tasks that are sensitive to NMDA receptor antagonists may also require NMDA receptor-dependent LTP. Of course, NMDA receptors mediate other cellular functions in addition to LTP (Leung and Desborough, 1988; Sah et al., 1989). So, the fact that a learning task is sensitive to NMDA receptor antagonists is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for involvement of NMDA receptor-dependent LTP in the task.

Studies that have examined the contribution of NMDA receptors to fear conditioning have used both intracerebroventricular (ICV) infusion of NMDA receptor antagonists into the lateral ventricles and local drug infusions into discrete brain areas. Collectively,

the data reveal an important role for NMDA receptors in the acquisition, and, in some cases, the expression of learned fear. For example, Fanselow and colleagues have performed an extensive examination of the effects of ICV administration of the NMDA receptor antagonist, APV, on the acquisition and expression of conditional freezing to contextual stimuli in rats (Fanselow et al., 1994; Kim et al., 1991; Kim et al., 1992). This work indicates that pretraining infusions of APV eliminate the acquisition of conditional freezing to the contextual cues associated with footshock without affecting either footshock sensitivity or the performance of the freezing response (Kim et al., 1991). The disruption of fear conditioning by APV was dose-dependent and stereospecific (i.e., only D-APV blocked conditioning). Moreover, the conditional freezing impairments were not state-dependent, insofar as rats both trained and tested after APV infusion exhibited equally robust deficits in conditional freezing. The impairment in fear acquisition was complete insofar as there was no evidence of savings (learning that is not reflected in performance) following reacquisition training in a drug-free state (Kim et al., 1992). Importantly, APV was only effective in preventing acquisition of conditional freezing if it was present during or before training--immediate posttraining administration of APV did not impair the acquisition of freezing.

In subsequent studies, Fanselow and colleagues examined whether the memory impairments produced by ICV APV were time-limited and/or modality-specific. It was found that rats treated with APV did in fact exhibit conditional freezing immediately following footshock, so-called immediate postshock freezing (Kim et al., 1992). This indicates that APV did not effect the encoding of a short-term memory for the context-shock association. However, APV did interfere with the establishment of a long-term memory for this association. In an effort to determine the extent of fear conditioning

deficits after APV infusion, Fanselow and colleagues next examined whether fear conditioning to an auditory CS would be impacted by ICV APV infusion. In these experiments, footshock was always signaled by a tone CS during training. For fear testing, conditional freezing to the contextual CS was assessed in the training chamber, and conditional freezing to the tone CS was assessed in a novel context. These experiments revealed that APV infusion before training only disrupted the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning; auditory fear conditioning was only minimally affected by APV infusion (Fanselow et al., 1994). Unfortunately, ICV methodology does not allow one to determine the locus upon which the APV was exerting its effects. However, the selective effect of APV on contextual fear conditioning suggests that APV was affecting the hippocampus, because hippocampal lesions typically yield deficits in contextual, but not auditory, fear conditioning (Kim and Fanselow, 1992; Phillips and LeDoux, 1992) but see (Maren et al., 1997). Therefore, these studies indicate that NMDA receptor activation is required for contextual fear conditioning, and they implicate NMDA receptor-dependent LTP in the hippocampus in this form of learning.

In addition to the ICV experiments, a number of studies have examined the effects of local administration of APV into discrete brain areas. In the first study of its kind, Davis and colleagues demonstrated that infusion of APV into the basolateral amygdala prevents the acquisition of conditional fear to a visual CS in a fear-potentiated startle paradigm (Miserendino et al., 1990). This effect was dose-dependent and was not due to an APV-induced shift in footshock sensitivity. Importantly, APV infusion into the amygdala before testing did not affect the expression or performance of an already-learned CR. Furthermore, APV infusion into the cerebellar interpositus nucleus, a brain structure that is not required for fear conditioning, did not affect acquisition of fear-potentiated startle.

Subsequent work has demonstrated that intra-amygdala APV also blocks the acquisition, but not expression of fear-potentiated startle to acoustic CSs (Campeau et al., 1992). The deleterious effect of APV on fear-potentiated startle acquisition has also been demonstrated in second-order conditioning, in which a CS (CS1) that has previously been paired with shock serves as the reinforcer for a novel CS (CS2) in a second phase of training. Under these conditions, conditional fear accrues to CS2 despite the fact that CS2 itself is never paired with the US. APV infusion into the amygdala prior to second-order conditioning does not affect expression of conditional fear to CS1, but does affect the acquisition of the second-order CR to CS2 (Gewirtz and Davis, 1997). This suggests that APV impairs fear conditioning by attenuating an associative mechanism, rather than affecting CS or US processing *per se*.

In addition to blocking the original acquisition of fear-potentiated startle, intra-amygdala APV infusions also prevent the extinction of this conditional fear response (Falls et al., 1992). Lee and Kim (1998) have also demonstrated that intra-amygdala APV blocks the extinction of a conditional freezing response (Lee and Kim, 1998). Because extinction appears to represent the acquisition of a new inhibitory CS-'no US' association (as opposed to the erasure of the original CS-US association), these data extend the role for NMDA receptors in the amygdala to inhibitory forms of learning. It would be of interest to examine whether APV effects the acquisition of other inhibitory associations, such as those acquired during conditioned inhibition training.

In addition to the fear-potentiated startle paradigm, the effects of intra-amygdala APV have also been examined in the conditional-freezing paradigm (Maren et al., 1996b). In these experiments, we found that intra-amygdala APV administered before training produced a robust impairment in the acquisition of conditional freezing that was not do a

change in footshock sensitivity or motor activity. Intra-amygdala APV only blocked conditioning when it was present in the BLA during training; immediate posttraining infusion of APV did not affect conditional freezing (Maren et al., 1996b). The effects of intra-amygdala APV did not appear to be time-limited, insofar as immediate postshock freezing was impaired by APV infusion. However, another study has not found impairments in immediate postshock freezing after APV infusion (Lee and Kim, 1998). As with ICV infusions, immediate posttraining administration of NMDA receptor antagonists did not affect the acquisition of conditional freezing. However, unlike the results obtained from the fear-potentiated startle paradigm, we found that the effects of intra-amygdala APV were not specific to acquisition; the expression or performance of previously acquired fear CRs was also impaired by intra-amygdala APV (Maren et al., 1996b). This pattern of results has recently been replicated (Lee and Kim, 1998) and may be due to the influence of NMDA receptor antagonists on evoked-potentials in the amygdala (Li et al., 1995; Maren and Fanselow, 1995). Thus, it appears that NMDA receptor activation is generally involved in the acquisition of fear CRs, but selectively involved in the expression of the conditional freezing (see Lee and Kim (1998) for a discussion of this issue). Nonetheless, the evidence implicates NMDA receptor-dependent processes in the amygdala, and possibly amygdaloid LTP, in the acquisition of fear conditioning.

Work in the Morris water maze has revealed that the deficits in learning incurred after administration of NMDA receptor antagonists are often ameliorated by prior familiarization with the task requirements in a drug-free state (Bannerman et al., 1995; Saucier and Cain, 1995). To determine whether this was true for fear conditioning paradigms, Lee and Kim (1998) examined whether the acquisition of a fear CR prior to

APV administration affected the subsequent acquisition of a novel CS-US association under the influence of APV. In contrast to the results obtained in the Morris water maze, rats that received aversive 'pretraining' still exhibited robust deficits in the acquisition of conditional freezing when subsequently trained on a new CS-US association after intra-amygdala APV infusion. These results strongly suggest that intra-amygdala APV attenuates the acquisition of conditional fear associations, rather than having a nonassociative effect on task performance.

The amygdala is not the only brain area to have been targeted in APV infusion experiments. The effects of intra-hippocampal administration of APV on the acquisition of fear conditioning have also been examined. Fanselow and colleagues found that the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning was impaired by pretraining infusions of APV into the dorsal hippocampus (Young et al., 1994). Unlike the effects of intra-amygdala APV infusion, intra-hippocampal APV infusion produces a selective effect on contextual fear conditioning (Stiedl, 1998). Of great importance, these studies indicate that NMDA receptors in the hippocampus and amygdala play different roles in fear conditioning.

It is well documented that NMDA receptor activation is only the first step in a biochemical cascade that ultimately leads to synaptic modification. Activation of intracellular protein kinases, which are stimulated by NMDA receptor activation, is essential for the induction of LTP. Examinations of the role for protein kinases in fear conditioning have just begun, but there is already evidence that various kinases are required for establishing long-term fear memories. For instance, Kandel and colleagues have shown that post-training ICV administration of protein kinase A (PKA) inhibitors impairs memory consolidation for contextual fear conditioning (Bourtchouladze, 1998). Likewise, LeDoux and colleagues have found that posttraining ICV administration of

PKA and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) inhibitors disrupts the memory for contextual and auditory fear conditioning (Schafe et al., 1999). Furthermore, Davis and colleagues have reported that intra-amygdala administration of either PKA or CamKII inhibitors attenuates the acquisition of fear-potentiated startle (Ding et al., 1998).

Although these studies are in an early stage, they seem to indicate that many of the kinases that have already been implicated in LTP have a role in Pavlovian fear conditioning.

Less work has been performed on the influence of AMPA receptor ligands on the acquisition of conditional fear. Davis and colleagues have shown that intra-amygdala infusion of AMPA receptor antagonists impair both the acquisition and expression of fear-potentiated startle (Kim et al., 1993; Walker and Davis, 1997). Additionally, LeDoux and colleagues have shown that AMPA receptor agonists infused into the amygdala prior to training enhance the acquisition of conditional freezing (Rogan et al., 1997a).

Collectively, these data reveal an important role for both NMDA and AMPA receptors in the amygdala in the acquisition and expression of Pavlovian fear conditioning. Insofar as these receptors are essential for the induction and expression of LTP, these data also suggest that both hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP are required for the acquisition of learned fear responses. Importantly, however, these results reveal that NMDA receptors in the amygdala and hippocampus play different roles in the acquisition of fear conditioning. Specifically, hippocampal NMDA receptors are only required for the acquisition of long-term conditional fear memories to contextual CSs, whereas amygdaloid NMDA receptors are required for the acquisition and, in some cases, the expression of short- and long-term fear memories to contextual, visual, and auditory CSs.

The different involvement of amygdaloid and hippocampal NMDA receptors in the acquisition of fear conditioning suggests that LTP in these structures subserves different roles in this form of learning.

Correlations between LTP and Pavlovian fear conditioning

The foregoing studies indicate that both hippocampal and amygdaloid NMDA receptors are involved in the acquisition of Pavlovian fear conditioning in rats. By extension, these results implicate NMDA receptor-dependent LTP in these brain areas in the acquisition of conditional fear. With respect to the involvement of hippocampal LTP in contextual fear conditioning, there are no studies that have attempted to directly measure hippocampal synaptic transmission during the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning. However, a number of studies have used a correlational approach to examine hippocampal LTP, particularly perforant path-dentate granule cell (PP-GC) LTP, in relation to contextual fear conditioning.

In one series of experiments, we attempted to determine whether a behavioral manipulation that was known to enhance acquisition rate in several learning paradigms (e.g., Berry and Swain, 1989) would have facilitatory effects on the induction of hippocampal LTP in anesthetized rats. The behavioral manipulation we chose for this purpose was acute water deprivation, for which access to water was restricted to 1-hour per day for four days. In line with the previously reported facilitatory effects of water deprivation on learning, we found that water deprivation reliably enhanced the magnitude of PP-GC LTP induced by high-frequency stimulation (Maren et al., 1994c). This effect was not due to a change in the properties of baseline synaptic transmission at PP-GC synapses. However, water deprivation did increase the proportion of theta-frequency

activity in the electroencephalogram, which might have favored greater levels of LTP induction (Huerta and Lisman, 1995).

With this LTP enhancing manipulation in hand, we next sought to determine whether water deprivation would affect the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning, a hippocampus-dependent task that others had suggested might be mediated by hippocampal LTP (e.g., Kim et al., 1991). We found that water deprivation prior to fear conditioning significantly enhanced the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning (Maren et al., 1994c). The enhancement in conditional freezing to the contextual CSs was only observed with sub-asymptotic levels of training; therefore water deprivation increased the rate, but not asymptote, of contextual fear conditioning. This effect was not due to enhanced footshock sensitivity. Interestingly, the enhancement of fear conditioning by water deprivation was specific to contextual fear conditioning; water deprivation did not enhance auditory fear conditioning (Maren et al., 1994b). We have also recently reported that this enhancement of contextual fear conditioning is specific to water deprivation. That is, a comparable period of food deprivation does not affect fear conditioning (Maren and Fanselow, 1998). Collectively, these results reveal that water deprivation has a specific effect on the acquisition rate of contextual fear conditioning, a hippocampus-dependent task, and also augments hippocampal LTP induction.

These experiments suggest a role for hippocampal LTP in contextual fear conditioning. To further explore this relationship, we examined whether individual differences in aversive learning correlated with hippocampal LTP induction, insofar as we had previously demonstrated a relationship between hippocampal LTP and individual differences in nonassociative fear responses (Maren et al., 1993; Maren et al., 1994d; Mitchell et al., 1993). To this end, we examined whether well known sex differences in

aversive learning correlate with hippocampal LTP. As a first step, we simply assessed the magnitude of PP-GC LTP in adult male and female rats. Somewhat to our surprise, we found a robust sex difference in the magnitude of PP-GC LTP induced *in vivo*: males exhibited reliably more LTP than females (Maren, 1995; Maren et al., 1994a). Given the sex difference in hippocampal LTP, we hypothesized that male and female rats should exhibit a sex difference in contextual fear conditioning. To test this hypothesis, we simply examined Pavlovian fear conditioning in male and female rats. Consistent with the sex difference in hippocampal LTP, male rats exhibited greater levels of contextual freezing than female rats (Maren et al., 1994a). There was no sex difference in fear conditioning to an auditory CS, consistent with the specific role for hippocampal LTP in contextual fear conditioning. The basis for the sex difference in hippocampal LTP and fear conditioning is not known, although a role for circulating testosterone in adult male rats has been ruled out (Anagnostaras et al., 1998). Preliminary results from our laboratory indicate that the ovarian steroid, estrogen, in adult female rats contributes to these sex differences.

The parallel between deprivation-induced enhancements in hippocampal LTP induction and contextual fear conditioning, and the correlation between sex differences in both hippocampal LTP and contextual fear conditioning provides further evidence for a role for hippocampal LTP in the mediation of contextual fear conditioning. And while these correlations do not necessarily implicate causation with regard to the role for LTP in contextual fear conditioning, they are nevertheless consistent with such a role. Indeed, such correlations are necessary for hypotheses that invoke hippocampal LTP as a mechanism for contextual fear conditioning (Fanselow, 1997; Maren, 1997).

In addition to hippocampal LTP, the role for amygdaloid LTP in Pavlovian fear conditioning has received considerable attention (Maren, in press). Amygdaloid LTP, which has been studied in thalamic (Clugnet and LeDoux, 1990; Rogan and LeDoux, 1995) and hippocampal (Maren and Fanselow, 1995) projections to the amygdala, exhibits several properties that are similar to those exhibited by hippocampal LTP (Maren, 1996). Some forms of amygdaloid LTP are NMDA receptor-dependent (Huang and Kandel, 1998; Maren and Fanselow, 1995), although, as in the hippocampus (Grover and Teyler, 1990), there also are NMDA receptor-independent forms of LTP in the amygdala (Chapman and Bellavance, 1992). Amygdaloid LTP also appears to require the activation of protein kinases, such as PKA (Huang and Kandel, 1998), that are also involved in hippocampal LTP. Thus, while differences between the two mechanisms may exist, we will assume for the purpose of this discussion that they are largely similar.

The first non-pharmacological evidence to link amygdaloid LTP to fear conditioning has emerged from studies in the LeDoux laboratory examining auditory evoked-potentials in the amygdala following either LTP induction or fear conditioning. Rogan and LeDoux (1995) have shown that induction of LTP at thalamoamygdaloid synapses *in vivo* potentiates auditory evoked-potentials in the amygdala that are transmitted through the thalamus. This suggests that experimental induction of LTP at thalamoamygdaloid synapses has functional consequences for the processing of acoustic stimuli that use these synapses. In a related study, LeDoux and colleagues have recently demonstrated that auditory evoked-potentials in the thalamoamygdaloid pathway are also augmented during the acquisition of auditory fear conditioning (Rogan et al., 1997b). The increase in the amplitude of auditory evoked-potentials in the amygdala was only observed in rats received paired CS and US presentations. Moreover, the change in the evoked-potentials

was uncoupled from freezing behavior, insofar as rats receiving unpaired training exhibited similar levels of freezing behavior during training, but did not exhibit an increase in the amplitude of auditory evoked-potentials. The similar increases in auditory evoked-potentials in the amygdala following both tetanic LTP induction and fear conditioning suggests that LTP-like increases in thalamoamygdaloid synaptic transmission contribute to the acquisition of auditory fear conditioning.

In a related study, McKernan and Shinnick-Gallagher (1997) have shown that fear-potentiated startle training enhances the amplitude of synaptic currents in amygdaloid neurons *in vitro*. In these experiments, rats were first trained in the fear-potentiated startle task, and then sacrificed for *in vitro* electrophysiological experiments.

Intracellular recordings were obtained from lateral amygdaloid neurons, and currents in these cells were evoked by electrical stimulation of axons presumed to originate from the auditory thalamus. Rats receiving paired CS-US trials, but not those receiving unpaired trials, exhibited a marked increase in stimulus-evoked currents in amygdaloid neurons, and this effect appeared to be limited to synaptic currents derived from the AMPA subclass of glutamate receptors. Fear conditioning also reduced paired-pulse facilitation, in which the evoked response to the second stimulus of a pair is larger than that to the first stimulus. This indicates that fear-potentiated startle training had increased neurotransmitter release in the thalamoamygdaloid pathway. Synaptic transmission in the endopyriform nucleus, which is not believed to play a role in fear conditioning, was not altered by the conditioning procedures. Insofar as tetanus-induced amygdaloid LTP is associated with increased evoked responses and enhanced neurotransmitter release (Huang and Kandel, 1998; Maren and Fanselow, 1995), it would appear that fear-potentiated startle training induced a form of 'behavioral' LTP. These results provide

strong support for a role for amygdaloid LTP in the acquisition of fear conditioning. Of course, it would be of interest to determine whether these conditioning-related changes in amygdaloid synaptic transmission are blocked by NMDA receptor antagonist administration during training.

Gene targeting, LTP, and fear conditioning

A more direct test of the role for hippocampal LTP in fear conditioning has been provided by several recent studies that have taken advantage of genetically modified mice, which have been engineered with genetic manipulations that either disable or eliminate key proteins in the intracellular biochemical cascades that mediate LTP. Although this technique is clearly a powerful and exciting approach to studying the neural substrates of learning and memory, it must be kept in mind that these studies have several caveats. For instance, the irreversible nature of the mutations, the opportunity for developmental compensation, and the inability to localize the mutations within discrete neural subregions need to be considered when interpreting the results from these studies.

The first study to examine the relationship between hippocampal LTP and Pavlovian fear conditioning involved the use of mice that lacked the α isoform of protein kinase C (PKC), an enzyme that has been implicated in both LTP and learning and memory. Mice that lack PKC α exhibited mild deficits in contextual, but not auditory, fear conditioning (Abeliovich et al., 1993b). In contrast, they exhibited normal immediate postshock freezing, suggesting that their short-term memory for contextual fear was intact. The normal level of freezing to the auditory CS indicates that the deficits in contextual freezing were not due to an inability to perform the freezing response. The selective deficit in contextual conditioning is interesting insofar as the mice also exhibited

impairments in the induction of hippocampal LTP in area CA1 *in vitro* (Abeliovich et al., 1993a). There were no deficits in either baseline synaptic transmission or paired-pulse facilitation and post-tetanic potentiation (PTP), which are measures of presynaptic neurotransmitter release. Interestingly, the deficits in hippocampal LTP induction could be overcome with low-frequency priming stimulation. The fact that some capacity to exhibit LTP was evident in these mice might explain the incomplete nature of the contextual freezing deficits. Unfortunately, amygdaloid LTP was not examined in these animals, although the pattern of behavioral results suggests that it would be normal. Together, these data suggest that hippocampal LTP is involved in establishing memories for long-term contextual fear.

A more recent study has examined the influence of a targeted mutation of the cAMP-responsive element-binding (CREB) protein, which is a transcription factor thought to play an important role in establishing long-term memories, on both fear conditioning and hippocampal LTP. Mice with a disruption of the α and β isoforms of CREB were found to exhibit robust impairments in both contextual and auditory fear conditioning (Bourtchuladze et al., 1994). These impairments were time-dependent insofar as freezing to both contexts and tones was found to be intact when measured within 30 or 60 minutes of training, respectively. However, conditional freezing was nearly absent at long (24 hour) retention intervals. Thus, the sparing of short-term fear memories reveals that the CREB mutants were capable of normal freezing under some conditions. Moreover, the time-dependent loss of conditional freezing over long retention intervals indicates that CREB is essential for consolidating long-term fear memories. Paralleling the time-dependency of fear conditioning, mice that lack CREB also exhibited impairments in hippocampal LTP in area CA1 *in vitro* (Bourtchuladze et al., 1994). While CREB

mutants exhibited normal paired-pulse facilitation and PTP, they showed a marked deficit in LTP. This was manifest as a more rapid decay of the potentiation over a 2-hour period. Interestingly, the time period over which LTP decayed appeared to parallel the time period over which fear memories are lost in CREB mutants. A similar pattern of results has been obtained in mice that express an inhibitory form of the regulatory subunit for PKA, an enzyme known to play a role on LTP (Abel et al., 1997). In this case mice also exhibited long-term, but not short-term, impairments in both contextual and auditory fear conditioning. Although neither group of investigators has measured amygdaloid LTP in these mice, the behavioral data would suggest that it should be impaired in CREB mutants. In agreement with the role for CREB in fear conditioning, it has recently been reported that both contextual and auditory fear conditioning rapidly induce CREB in the hippocampus and amygdala (Impey et al., 1998).

In yet another series of studies, Kandel and colleagues have examined mice that overexpress a mutant form of Ca^{2+} -calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CamKII) in the amygdala, hippocampus and striatum (Mayford et al., 1996). In the hippocampus, CamKII is activated by Ca^{2+} -influx through the NMDA-receptor. It interacts with a number of substrates within neurons, including CREB. Not surprisingly, CamKII has been demonstrated to have a role in LTP induction and mice that overexpress the transgene for this protein do not exhibit LTP in the hippocampus following theta-frequency stimulation, for example (Mayford et al., 1996). Interestingly, these transgenic mice (Mayford et al., 1996), as well as mice that lack CamKII (Chen et al., 1994), also exhibit impairments in Pavlovian fear conditioning to both contextual and auditory cues. The global impairment in conditional fear to both contextual and auditory cues suggests the existence of amygdala dysfunction in these genetically modified mice. And although

the nature of this dysfunction is not yet known, it is tempting to speculate that it will take the form of impaired amygdaloid LTP.

A more direct demonstration of a specific role for amygdaloid LTP in fear conditioning has come from studies of mice that lack Ras-GRF, a neuron-specific guanine nucleotide releasing factor that is activated by both Ca^{2+} and G-protein-coupled messengers. Electrophysiological recordings from brain slices obtained from mice lacking Ras-GRF has revealed a pronounced deficit in LTP in the basolateral nucleus of the amygdala (Brambilla et al., 1997). Interestingly, these mice also exhibit impairments in consolidating long-term memories for Pavlovian fear conditioning to both contextual and acoustic stimuli. These deficits in LTP and learning were selective for the amygdala and Pavlovian fear conditioning insofar as both hippocampal LTP and spatial learning in Ras-GRF knockouts were normal (Brambilla et al., 1997). Interestingly, Ras-GRF modulates CREB activity through the MAPK pathway. A role for MAPK in fear conditioning has recently been demonstrated (Atkins et al., 1998). Together, these results provide strong support for the view that synaptic LTP in the amygdala is required for the establishment and maintenance of emotional memories.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Differential roles for hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP in Pavlovian fear conditioning

Several lines of study converge upon a role for both hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP in the acquisition of Pavlovian fear conditioning. As we have seen, the LTP-

learning connection for Pavlovian fear conditioning is supported by behavioral, pharmacological, electrophysiological, and molecular experiments. Fear conditioning is 1) prevented by NMDA receptor antagonists, 2) associated with an induction of behavioral LTP, 3) correlated with tetanic LTP, 4) positively modulated by behavioral manipulations that facilitate tetanic LTP and 5) impaired by manipulations that disrupt or eliminate crucial elements of the biochemical cascade underlying LTP. It is also apparent from the studies discussed to this point that LTP in the amygdala and hippocampus play different, yet complementary, roles in fear conditioning. This is an important outcome that deserves further attention. It illustrates that even within a simple learning paradigm, such as Pavlovian fear conditioning, synaptic plasticity mechanisms such as LTP play multiple and distinct roles in the learning process.

The roles for amygdaloid and hippocampal LTP in Pavlovian fear conditioning diverge along at least three dimensions: time, sensory modality, and associative function. With respect to the temporal dimension, there is good evidence that LTP is only required for establishing long-term fear memories (i.e., memories that are at least two hours old). Short-term fear memories (i.e., memories that last only minutes), such as those evidenced by immediate postshock freezing, do not appear to require LTP. Rather, it is more likely that short-term synaptic plasticity mechanisms, such as PTP, mediate these memories. The requirement for LTP in the establishment of long-term memories might be explained by the important role for protein synthesis in Pavlovian fear conditioning. Indeed, it has recently been demonstrated that infusion of protein synthesis inhibitors into the amygdala prior to fear conditioning prevents the establishment of long-term, but not short-term fear memories to both contextual and auditory cues (Bailey et al., 1999). However, the role for LTP in conditional fear that is expressed over very long retention interval (> 30 days)

has not been explored. Recent studies demonstrate a time-limited role for the hippocampus in the expression of contextual fear conditioning (Anagnostaras et al., 1999; Kim and Fanselow, 1992; Maren et al., 1997) and a time-independent role for the amygdala in the expression of contextual and auditory fear conditioning (Kim and Davis, 1993; Lee et al., 1996; Maren et al., 1996a). This suggests that amygdaloid LTP might have a much more temporally enduring role in the consolidation and maintenance of fear memories than hippocampal LTP.

With respect to the sensory dimension, there is strong evidence that hippocampal LTP plays a unique role in fear conditioning to contextual stimuli, whereas amygdaloid LTP has a more general role in fear conditioning to both contextual and discrete CSs, such as tones and lights (see Figure 1). This is supported by the fact that manipulations that selectively interfere with hippocampal LTP disrupt only contextual fear conditioning, whereas manipulations that interfere with amygdaloid LTP disrupt both contextual and auditory fear conditioning. The different roles for hippocampal and amygdaloid LTP in conditioning to contextual and discrete CSs is imposed by the anatomy of the fear conditioning circuit. That is, the hippocampus appears to be part of a sensory pathway that conveys contextual CSs to the amygdala for association with footshock. In contrast, as described above, the amygdala appears to be the essential locus for encoding and storing CS-US associations. The different functional roles for the hippocampus and amygdala in fear conditioning provides the foundation for understanding the unique roles LTP in these structures plays in different aspects of Pavlovian fear conditioning.

The role for the hippocampus in processing contextual CSs has been established in a number of studies. From this work, it appears that the hippocampus plays a unique role in forming contextual representations, that is, the process by which the configure or the

conjunction of the contextual cues present during fear conditioning is encoded (Fanselow, 1986; Rudy and Sutherland, 1995). Good and colleagues have suggested that the hippocampus plays an important role in acquiring incidental information about the conditioning context (Good et al., 1998), which might occur during exploration of the conditioning chamber, for example (Maren et al., 1997). In either case, it does not appear that the hippocampus is important for establishing context-US associations (Cho, 1999; Frankland et al., 1998; Maren et al., 1997; Young et al., 1994) -- this is the domain of the amygdala (e.g., (Maren et al., 1996a). The involvement of the hippocampus in forming contextual representations suggests a unique role for hippocampal LTP in this process (Figure 1). There is at least one line of evidence that is consistent with this proposal. It is well established that manipulations that affect CS processing, such as increasing the salience of CSs, affect the rate at which conditional behavior is acquired, but do not affect the level of asymptotic CR performance (Rescorla, 1988). Insofar as hippocampal LTP has a role in representing contextual CSs, manipulations that modulate hippocampal LTP should affect acquisition rate, but not asymptotic CR performance. This selective rate effect might be obscured by LTP impairing manipulations, unless care is taken to train animals to a behavioral asymptote. To avoid this problem, we have examined the effect on contextual fear conditioning of a manipulation that facilitates hippocampal LTP. As predicted, we found that enhancing hippocampal LTP enhanced the rate, but not asymptote, of contextual fear conditioning (Maren et al., 1994c). This reveals that hippocampal LTP has a special role in contextual CS processing during Pavlovian fear conditioning. More specifically, we have suggested that hippocampal LTP represents the conjunction of contextual stimuli experienced at the time of conditioning, and that contextual CS salience is modulated by the strength and/or the inclusiveness of the

contextual representation (Maren et al., 1994c). Thus, hippocampal LTP is presumed to regulate phenomena such as the facilitatory effects of context preexposure on the acquisition of contextual fear conditioning (Fanselow, 1990; Rudy, 1996).

In contrast to the hippocampus, the amygdala plays a crucial role in associating CSs and USs during fear conditioning. Thus, the amygdala is also involved in representing stimulus conjunctions, but in this case they are the conjunctions between the CS and the US (Figure 1). Therefore, the role for amygdaloid LTP in fear conditioning is quite different from that of hippocampal LTP, insofar as its induction is driven by the US and is expected to occur in CS pathways to the amygdala. The involvement of amygdaloid LTP in CS-US association is demonstrated by the fact that manipulations that impair amygdaloid LTP also disrupt the acquisition of both contextual and auditory fear conditioning. Insofar as amygdaloid LTP is hypothesized to reflect the levels of associative strength that a CS has acquired, it should be highly correlated with CR performance. Unfortunately, studies have not been performed that systematically examine the relationship of amygdaloid LTP to either the rate or asymptote of fear conditioning. One might expect, however, that manipulations that facilitate amygdaloid LTP would enhance both the acquisition rate and asymptotic performance of conditional fear. Further work is required to examine this hypothesis. Nevertheless, the available evidence strongly support the view that amygdaloid LTP is the crucial plasticity underlying formation and storage of CS-US associations acquired during fear conditioning.

Conclusions

In conclusion, there is now an abundance of data reinforcing the view that there are multiple roles for synaptic plasticity in the acquisition of a simple and adaptive form of associative learning: Pavlovian fear conditioning. It has been established that acquisition of long-term fear memories to the contexts in which shock occurs requires LTP in the hippocampus, whereas the acquisition of conditional fear to both contexts and other discrete cues requires LTP in the amygdala. Hippocampal LTP is proposed to play a special role in the acquisition of contextual CS representations, whereas amygdaloid LTP is proposed to underlie the acquisition of CS-US associations during fear conditioning. Short-lasting forms of synaptic plasticity, such as PTP, may play an important role in encoding short-term fear memories, such as those expressed immediately following an aversive event. Considering all of the available evidence, it is concluded that LTP and related forms of synaptic plasticity are viable mechanisms for memory formation and storage during emotional learning and memory.

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Index

- acquisition rate, 18, 19, 30, 31
 AMPA receptor, 16, 22
 amygdala, 4, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16,
 17, 20, 21, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31
 amygdaloid anatomy, 7
 APV, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15
 associative neuronal firing, 9
 asymptotic performance, 31
 auditory fear conditioning, 9, 12, 16, 19,
 21, 24, 28, 29, 31
 auditory thalamus, 7
 'behavioral' LTP, 22
 CamKII, 16, 25
 conditional freezing, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15,
 17, 19, 24
 conditional stimuli, 6
 consolidation, 6, 16, 28
 context preexposure, 30
 contextual fear conditioning, 12, 15, 16,
 18, 19, 20, 28, 30
 contextual representations, 29
 CREB, 24, 25, 26
 CS-US association, 7, 13, 15, 31
 defensive systems, 6
 estrogen, 20
 evoked-potentials, 14, 21
 extinction, 13
 fear-potentiated startle, 12, 13, 14, 16,
 17, 22
 fear-response systems, 8
 footshock sensitivity, 11, 12, 14
 freezing, 6
 genetically modified mice, 23, 26
 high-frequency stimulation, 3, 18
 hippocampal formation, 7
 hippocampus, 3, 4, 5, 12, 15, 17, 18, 21,
 25, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31
 immediate postshock freezing, 11, 14,
 23, 27
 long-term memory, 11, 28
 MAPK, 16, 21, 26
 Morris water maze, 5, 15
 NMDA receptor, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17,
 21, 22, 27
 NMDA receptor antagonists, 10, 14, 15,
 27
 paired-pulse facilitation, 22, 23, 25
 Pavlovian fear conditioning, 6
 perirhinal cortex, 7
 PKA, 16, 21, 25
 PKC, 23
 post-tetanic potentiation, 24, 25, 27
 protein synthesis inhibitors, 28
 PTP, 27, 32
 Ras-GRF, 26
 second-order conditioning, 13
 sex differences, 19, 20
 short-term memory, 11, 23
 spatial learning, 4, 5, 26
 synapses, 3, 18, 21
 synaptic transmission, 3, 18, 22, 23
 testosterone, 20
 theta, 18, 25
 unconditional stimuli, 6
 water deprivation, 18
 wax tablet hypothesis, 2

Figure legends

Figure 1. Schematic diagram illustrating the role for hippocampal and amygdaloid long-term potentiation (LTP) in different associative processes in Pavlovian fear conditioning. Loci of synaptic plasticity are delineated in the figure by the shaded boxes. Hippocampal LTP is posited to play a role in the formation of contextual representations, which are configural or conjunctive representations formed from individual elemental stimuli (A, B, C, D, E). Amygdaloid LTP, on the other hand, is involved in associating conditional and unconditional stimuli (CSs and USs), such as tones and footshocks. The formation of CS-US associations in the amygdala results in the performance of conditional fear responses (CRs), such as freezing or potentiated acoustic startle. As described in the text, amygdaloid LTP is posited to play a role in establishing long-term fear memories for CSs in all modalities, where as hippocampal LTP is involved in establishing long-term memories of the contextual CS.

Figure 1

