MOLECULAR CORRELATE of MOUSE EXECUTIVE FUNCTION. TOP-DOWN and BOTTOM-UP COMPLEMENTATIONS by PRESYNAPTIC VERTEBRATE-SPECIFIC GENE PARALOGS

Pavel Prosselkov[1,2]*, Qi Zhang[1], Goto Hiromichi[1], Denis Polygalov[3], Thomas J. McHugh[3] and Shigeyoshi Itohara[1]*

[1]Laboratory for Behavioral Genetics, and [3]Laboratory for Circuit and Behavior Physiology, RIKEN Brain Science Institute, 351-0198 Saitama, Japan

[2]Department of Physiology, Faculty of Medicine, Saitama Medical University, Saitama 350-0495, Japan

*corresponding authors:

prosselkov@brain.riken.jp   sitohara@brain.riken.jp

Keywords: executive function, attention and impulsivity, working memory, learning, gene duplication, cognitive complement

ABSTRACT

Executive function (EF) is a regulatory construct of learning and a correlate of general cognitive abilities. Genetic variations underlying the architecture of cognitive phenotypes are likely to affect EF and associated behaviors. We have approached the behavioral variability of knockout mice, as a measure of EF distortion, to calculate a proportion of a gene-specific variance explained, contributing to the phenotype. Mice lacking one of *Ntng* gene paralogs, encoding the vertebrate brain-specific presynaptic Netrin-G proteins, exhibit prominent deficits in the EF control. Brain areas responsible for gating the bottom-up and top-down information flows differentially express *Ntng1* and *Ntng2,* distinguishing neuronal circuits involved in perception and cognition. As a result, high and low cognitive demand tasks (HCD and LCD, respectively) modulate *Ntng1* and *Ntng2* associations either with attention and impulsivity (AI) or working memory (WM), in a complementary manner. During the LCD *Ntng2*-supported neuronal gating of AI and WM dominates over the *Ntng1*-associated circuits. This is reversed during the HCD, when the EF requires a larger contribution of cognitive control, supported by *Ntng1*, over the *Ntng2* pathways. Since human *NTNG* orthologs have been reported to affect human IQ (1), and an array of neurological disorders (2), we believe that mouse *Ntng* gene paralogs serve an analogous role but influencing brain executive function.

INTRODUCTION

Executive function (EF) is a heterogeneous construct that can be viewed as a set of processes executively supervising cognitive behaviors (3). EF is an umbrella term for working memory (WM), attention and impulsivity (AI), and response inhibition, and is thought to account for the variance in cognitive performance (4). WM, due to its storage and processing components, is viewed as a bimodal flexible system of a limited capacity. Since WM maintains current information and simultaneously supports its execution, as a latent factor underlying intelligence (5), it has been termed as "the central executive" (6) attention-controlling system dependent on consciousness (7). However an awareness-independent model has been also proposed (8,9). General learning (Ln) ability depends on attention and WM interaction (10) as well as perception, the causal and informational ground for the higher cognitive functions (11). Perception guides our thinking about and acting upon the world and serves as an input to cognition, via a short-term memory mediated interactions (12). A possible mechanism linking perception and cognition would be attention (13).

Perception (bottom-up) and cognition (top-down) have been historically viewed as independently operating encapsulating domains. Such embodiment has paved a ground for the view that perceptual experiences can be influenced by cognitive state (for references see 14), consequently elaborated into the brain predictive coding approach currently dominating cognitive neuroscience (15), and positing that attention is a property of brain computation network (16). However this has been challenged by the opposite opinion that "Cognition does not affect perception" (17). Regardless whether or not such a cognitive-sensory dichotomy exists, herein we view perception and cognition as two main information streams the EF exerts its actions upon, possibly through active association.

We have previously described the function of two vertebrate-specific brain-expressed presynaptic gene paralogs, *NTNG1* and *NTNG2*, complementary affecting verbal comprehension and WM in human subjects, which underwent an accelerated evolution in primates and extinct hominins (1). This pair of genes is also implicated in the phenomena of antagonistic pleiotropy, a trade-off between the evolution-driven cognitive function elaboration and an array of concomitant neuropathologies, rendering the human brain phenotypically fragile (2). *Ntngs* also complementary diversify the mouse behavior (18).

Despite the fact that EF abrogation is a major determinant of problem behavior and disability in neuropsychiatric disorders (19), the genetics underlying EF remains elusive with no causative vector agents (e.g. genes) have yet been reported. Herein we show that *NTNG* paralogs affecting human IQ also affect mouse learning and brain executive functioning.

RESULTS

Randomizing mouse genotypes to search for causal behavioral interactions. We used a

novel non-parametric data analysis approach for two distinct behavioral paradigms: 5-choice

serial reaction time task (5-CSRTT, 20), and radial arm maze (RAM), measuring selective

attention and impulsivity (AI), and spatial working memory (WM), respectively, in $Ntng1^{-/-}$

and $Ntng2^{-/-}$ mice. We calculated mouse genotype-independent ranking (as for a mixed

population), and the rank variance (as a proportion of variance explained, PVE) for each

behavioral parameter and for both paradigms. This approach allowed us to avoid common in

literature a genotype-attributed single parameter reporting bias (Supplementary Figures 1

(SF1) and 2 (SF2)), and permitted us to compare observed phenotypes between the both

paradigms for the genetically independent groups of mice, simultaneously searching for

potential interactions among them. We were able to follow the dynamics of behavioral

heterogeneity and to deduce a causal inference between the mouse phenotypic and genotypic

traits interaction affecting executive function (EF).

Affected AI for both *Ntng* paralogs, and WM for the *Ntng2* gene, modulated by the

cognitive demand. Analysis of the 5-CSRTT data (ST1-1) has revealed that $Ntng1^{-/-}$

population of mice is characterised by an extreme span of its rank distribution (PVE>90%)

occupying not only bottom 4 but also top 4 rank positions and outcompeting their wild type

littermates (Fig.1(A-D)-1). *Ntng1* ablation generates mice with both strong proficit and

deficit of AI, extending far beyond a single affected parameter estimate (Fig.1C,G), but with

the averaged rank per a genotype undistinguishable of that of their wild type littermates, and

more than 90% of variance attributable to the $Ntng1^{-/-}$ genotype (Fig.1A-1). A higher

cognitive demand task phase (HCD) reduces the rank variance down to 76% but at the

expense of a lower rank (Fig.1E-1), similarly to $Ntng2^{-/-}$ mice (Fig.1E-2). During the low

cognitive demand task phase (LCD), contrary to $Ntng1^{-/-}$ mice, $Ntng2^{-/-}$ subjects' rank is

twice lower comparing to their genetically unmodified siblings but the rank variances are the

same (Fig.1(A-D)-2), and this is the main difference in the AI phenotype between the *Ntng*

paralog knockouts, attributable to the magnitude of the demand.

Robustness of the WM deficit upon *Ntng2* deletion in mice is the most prominently

evidenced by the bottom 4 mouse ranks, 13/12 out of 16 are occupied by the knockout mice

(Fig.2(A-G)-2) and by low behavioral consistency across the sessions and parameters cross-

correlations (Fig.2H-2) during the HCD. At the same time, the absence of *Ntng1* in mice

affected only the LCD sessions performance (Fig.2(A-D)-1) but did not render them

 behaviorally distinguishable from the wild type littermates during the HCD ([Fig.2(E-H)-1](#)).

Figure 1. 5-choice serial reaction time task (5-CSRTT) for *Ntng1*^{-/-} and *Ntng2*^{-/-} mice. See figure legend overleaf.

Proficit and deficit in learning associated with the *Ntng*^{-/-} genotypes. The intricate segregation of the *Ntng*^{-/-} gene paralogs-associated behavioral phenotypes within the distinct modules of EF ([Fig.3](#)) has prompted us to analyse the operant conditioning learning (Ln) by

Figures 1,2. Attention and Impulsivity (AI) and working memory (WM) estimate and the effect of cognitive demand produced by the analysis of rank and its variance for *Ntng1*$^{-/-}$ and *Ntng2*$^{-/-}$ mice. **A,E.** Mice ranks and rank PVE (proportion of variance explained) based on four parameter rank measures (SF1,2) as detailed in ST1-1,2-1 (for *Ntng1*$^{-/-}$) and ST1-2,2-2 (for *Ntng2*$^{-/-}$). The rank sorting was done in a genotype-independent manner. Ranking for each out of four parameters was done independently of other parameters with a final re-ranking of the ranks sum to generate the final rank (shown). In case of an equal sum of the ranks, the mice were given identical ranks. PVE was calculated as a square of within genotype rank variance divided on the sum of each genotype variances squares multiplied on 100%. **B,F**. Mice rank distribution across one-to-four parameters as top 4 and bottom 4 performers. **C,G.** Genotype-specific rank placing among the mice. **D,H.** Behavioral consistency of mice across the sessions (*y* axis, sum of r^2 correlations of a single session ranks *vs.* final ranks for each mouse across the sessions) and behavioral parameter cross-correlations (*x* axis, the r^2 correlation of a parameter final ranking *vs.* final ranking for all 4 parameters). The gene ablation-specific phenotype severity can be assessed visually by matching each parameter-corresponding vertexes of the obtained quadruples. *p* value represents a Wilcoxon rank sum test. See SM for further details.

mice, assuming that AI and WM may there interact. And indeed, *Ntng1*$^{-/-}$ mice outperform their control group learning faster during the LCD (Fig.4(A,B)-1, LCD) but are unable to sustainably cope with the growing cognitive demand (Fig.4(A,B)-1, HCD). At the same time, *Ntng2*$^{-/-}$ mice display a prominent deficit of Ln (Fig.4(A,B)-2, LCD), which is becoming stronger with the growing demand to succeed (Fig.4(A,B)-2, HCD). In overall, the pattern of Ln behavior caused by the genetic ablation of both *Ntngs* completely matches that of WM testing on the RAM (Fig.2), summarised in Fig.3**.** The contribution of AI to the Ln deficit is further demonstrated by the rank correlations of Ln *vs.* AI (from Fig.1**)** which is stronger during the HCD for both genetically distinct mouse populations (Fig.4C-1,2).

Complementary expression of *Ntng* paralogs in the brain and their interaction. The robust phenotype of the abrogated EF for both *Ntng* gene paralogs affecting either AI or WM, or both, is supported by the predominant expression of both genes within the heavily loaded with the information processing brain areas, complementary sequestering them within bottom-up (for *Ntng1*) and top-down (for *Ntng2*) neuronal pathways (Fig.5A-C). The presented hierarchy for the *Ntng* paralogs brain distribution is supported by two times lower level of the *Ntng2* expression in *Ntng1*$^{-/-}$ background after the life-long cognitive training in

 senile mice (Fig.5D-2), with no effect on *Ntng1* expression when *Ntng2* is absent (Fig.5D-1).

 Figure 2. Radial arm maze (RAM) for *Ntng1*^{-/-} and *Ntng2*^{-/-} mice. See figure legend overleaf.

Robust genotype prediction based on the phenotype input, the rank. To assess the causal

inference of the genes perturbations on behavioral output we have calculated the probability

clustering for each genotype based only on the ranking data input, in genotype-blind manner

(Fig.6A). The obtained pattern corroborates the causal relationship between the genotypes
and associated with them phenotypes of the affected EF (Fig.3) closely resembling the
experimental data (Fig.1.2).

Figure 3. Summary of the EF behavioral phenotypes associated with either *Ntng1*^{-/-} or *Ntng2*^{-/-} gene paralogs ablation.

Mouse behavioral phenotypic proximity assessment. To calculate a phenotypic distance
between the genotypes comprising a single mixed population we used the obtained ranks and
plotted them against the relted PVE for each behavioral parameter, generating two linear
plots (Fig.6B), each representing a single contributing genotype. This let us further to
calculate the phenotypic distance (using the classical Euclidean geometry) between the
genotypes as the shortest distance between two parallel lines. The obtained geometrical plots
are in a full agreement with the experimentally observed behaviors (Figs.1-3) but
additionally pinpoin the contribution of each individual parameter sometimes located outside
of the main cluster with others, e.g. PreP for the *Ntng1*^{-/-} (Fig.6B-1, AI-LCD), OE for the
Ntng1^{-/-} (Fig.6B-2, AI-HCD), and CN for the *Ntng2*^{-/-} (Fig.6B-2, WM-LCD). Using the Ln
rank and its PVE from Fig.4 as (*x,y*) coordinates we have assessed the phenotypic proximity
of the *Ntng1*^{-/-} and *Ntng2*^{-/-} mouse AI and WM phenotypes to the Ln deficit.

Task learning (Ln) as an outcome of AI and MW interactions. With the assumption that
shorter distance from the Ln coordinates to the genotype-specific linear plot generates higher
likelihood that the given genotype contributes to the Ln associated behavior, we were able to
build a relationship graph among the Ln, AI and WM interactions modulated by the
cognitive demand (Fig.7A). The dynamics of the *Ntng* gene paralogs hierarchy interaction is
presented on Fig.7B, calculated by the reciprocal plug-in of the rank and its PVE for one
gene paralog into the linear plot for the other one (ST7).

DISCUSSION

Inferring causal relationship for the *Ntng* paralogs ablation caused perturbations with
the EF abrogation phenotypes. The hierarchy of WM and selective attention interplay has
been always a point of fierce debate (21). In the present study we look at this interaction
through the prism of mouse operant conditioning learning ability, perturbated by either of

Figure 4. Operant conditioning (5-CSRTT) Learning (Ln) by *Ntng1*^{-/-} and *Ntng2*^{-/-} mice. **A.** Learning curves for the operant conditioning learning (reward collection) over the training period (spatial 1 of 5-CSRTT) with averaged performance behavior for the days (1-7) and (8-14), middle panel, defined as low cognitive demand (LCD) and high cognitive demand (HCD) sessions, respectively. One and two-way ANOVA was used for the statistics. **B.** Ranks and PVE comparisons over the LCD and HCD. The rank sorting was done in a genotype-independent manner, similar to Fig.1 and Fig.2, but using only one parameter, success (Sc), see ST4-1 and ST4-2. Rank statistics was by Wilcoxon rank sum test. **C.** Learning (Ln) *vs.* attention and impulsivity (AI) rank correlations (from Fig.1A-1,2).

Ntng gene paralogs ablation (Fig.4). Since it is known that averaging animal behavior across

individual subjects (SF1-1,1-2) may smear out control variables (22), we used rank instead

of classical data mean (Figs.1-3) approach and the rank variance (proportion of variance

explained, PVE) per genotype, as a measure of difference (23:p.16), to assess the behavioral

variability caused by the genetic variations interacting with the experimental demand. To

proof causal inferences between the behavior of *Ntng*^{-/-} mice and the gene ablation, we used

mouse rank as a randomized dependent variable of the mixed population noting that any

other non-randomized variables would be only correlational (24). That is, we have presented

the mouse behavioral rank distribution as a function of genotype, when one of the *Ntng*

Figure 5. Complementary expression and transcription of *Ntng* paralogs in the mouse brain. (A) *In situ* hybridization of *Ntng1* (left) and *Ntng2* (right) in the mouse brain. From Allen Brain Atlas, accession numbers are RP_050607_01_H05 and RP_050810_04_D08, respectively. The expression colors are inverted. (B) qRT-PCR of total mRNA for *Ntng* paralogs in rough brain fractions of adult naïve male mice (7-8 months old): OB = olfactory bulb; MFB = mid- and front brain; HBC = hindbrain and cerebellum, n=6 mice (ST5-1). (C) Total level of *Ntng* mRNA expression calculated based on RNA-seq of the mouse brain cortical layers reconstructed for *Ntng* paralogs expression from GSE27243 generated by Belgard et al. (51). See Supplementary Methods (SM) for the details of data processing, ST5-2, ST5-2_Cuff and ST5-2_iReck (zipped) for the trascriptome assembly. (D) Effect of genetic background on *Ntng* paralogs expression level in MFB as detected by qRT-PCR (ST5-3). Senile (20-21 months old) life-long cognitively trained mice have been used (from Fig.1). One-way ANOVA was used for the statistics.

196   paralogs has been genetically ablated. At the same time, we have tried to elaborate on the

197   statement that the structure of genotype−phenotype map is the matter and not the variance

198   components of the population itself (25). The open question in such genotype-phenotype

Figure 6. Behavioral phenotypic proximity assessment for the *Ntng1-/-* and *Ntng2-/-* genotypes and their wild type littermates by two approaches: genotype predictions by *C*-means fuzzy clustering (**A**), and by linear regression plot of genotype-specific rank PVE *vs.* rank (**B**). **A.** Casual genotype-phenotype relationship evidence. *C*-means fuzzy clustering (Euclidean *C*-means) was done in a genotype-blind manner as described in SM. See ST6-1 and ST6-2 for the exact values of clustering probabilities. **B.** Descriptive proximity of the operant conditioning learning explained by the AI and WM phenotypes for *Ntng-/-* paralogs mice. Distance between the genotypes (d', dashed line), presented geometrically by the linear equation, was calculated as d'=|c_2-c_1|, where ax+by+c=0 (Euclidean geometry). Distance from the learning coordinates (Ln) to the genotype-describing line was calculated as d=|c-(y_{Ln}-ax_{Ln})|. Rank (*x* coordinates) and PVE values (*y* coordinates) are from Fig. 1A,E (AI); Fig.2A,E (WM); and Fig.4B (Ln), ST7. Data for the *Ntng1-/-*/wt population (RAM) are likely to incorporate 7.69% error since they were not normalised to the total number of animals as for the other populations (n=26 *vs.* n=24 mice).

interaction paradigm is to what degree a genetic variability is capacitive enough to explain
the phenotypic variance and the strength of such causal interaction. More specifically, how
far the behavioral (whole organism) variability (under the pressure of the growing cognitive
demand) represents the neuronal (cellular) variability caused by a gene knockout exerted
perturbations.

Cognitive phenotypes of the *Ntng$^{-/-}$* mice. None of the vertebrate brain specific
presynaptically expressed *Ntng1$^{-/-}$* nor *Ntng2$^{-/-}$* mice exhibit gross anatomical or
developmental abnormalities (26) rendering them unique models to study the brain cognitive
functions in the absence of any "house-keeping" functional distortions and avoiding gene-
manipulations-exerted non-causal confounders. Noteworthy the resemblance of *Ntng1$^{-/-}$* and
Ntng2$^{-/-}$ mice behavioral phenotypes with the human schizophrenia subjects behavioral
etiology (characterised by the EF control pathologies), both genes have been reportedly
associated with (1,2). Two different populations of mice were used for two different
behavioral paradigms to avoid the phenomena of learning transfer between the behavioral
tests, and, at the same time, to check for the genotype induced phenotypic stability across the
different paradigms but sharing the principal underlying component of WM testing. And
indeed, slow operant conditioning learning (5-CSRTT) for *Ntng2$^{-/-}$* mice has been recorded
(Fig.4A,B-2) and is explainable by the dysfunction of procedural (working) memory robustly
affecting the RAM performance (Fig.2A-H-2).

Behavior consistency assessment using rank. We have also characterised the behavior of
mice as a heterogeneously randomized population through the assessment of rank
consistency across the sessions and relative to other parameters (Figs.1-2D,H). Parameters
cross-correlation coefficients (r^2, *x* axis) indicate a probability value of how much the rank
of a mouse for a certain parameter contributes to the global (total) ranking comprised of all
four parameters. If a mouse fails to keep its performance consistent either over the multiple
sessions or a parameter, its rank is instantly occupied either by the same or by a different
genotype littermate, and such event would be dynamically reflected in the r^2. But ranks
changes and their permutations may not necessary have any dramatic consequences in the
total rank calculations as soon the rank fluctuations are taking place within the same
genotype-specific variance boundaries. But they are more reflective of a behavior
inconsistency of an individual mouse reflected in the sum of the correlation variances per
spatial or session (*y* axis).

WM deficit driven optimal strategy deprivation for the *Ntng2-/-* mice. The global spatial
WM deficit for the *Ntng2-/-* mice has been found robustly expressed across the three RAM
parameters (Fig.2A-H-2) except for CN (arm choice number during the first 8 arm entries).
This parameter represents a strategy development (during LCD) and its optimisation (during
HCD) for the maximum reward collection efficiency, akin predictive type behavior of the
likelihood of potential success. The fact that the *Ntng2-/-* mice outperform their wt littermates
in CN (but during the LCD only, Fig.2C-2) reflects the chosen strategy (or a complete lack
of any) of a pure random choice of a baited arm to visit, corroborating the global WM deficit
(inability for strategic thinking) for the knockouts (evident from the other parameters) but
with an opposite valence.

Figure 7. *Ntng* paralogs interaction as a molecular correlate of AI and WM modalities during learning. A.
AI and WM interactions modulated by the cognitive demand during the operant conditioning earning
(Ln), complementary contributed by the differentially expressed *Ntng* paralogs (see Fig.5 and (52)). B.
Dynamicity of *Ntng* paralogs hierarchy interactions under LCD and HCD contributing to AI and WM. Each
arrow base width (the scale bar is shown) is expressed in AU and corresponds to (1/d*100) value from
Fig.6B (for Ln=X), see ST7. Out of scale arrows (AI-*Ntng1*-LCD and AI-*Ntng2*-HCD) are not shown.

Paralogs brain expression supporting the behavioral phenotypes. The phenotypic

complementarities among the *Ntng1*^{-/-} and *Ntng2*^{-/-} mice, associated either with the abrogated

AI or WM, or both (Fig.3), are supported by the complementary brain expression pattern of

these gene paralogs (Fig.5A). If *Ntng1* is expressed mostly in the primary somatosensory

gating areas (e.g. OB, thalamus and hypothalamus nuclei, midbrain and medulla, Fig.5A,B-

1), *Ntng2* dominates within the cortex (with the skewed expression saturation towards the

lateral cortex), hippocampus (HPC), amygdala and claustrum, endopiriform and reticular

nuclei, Fig5A-2), pointing the gene role of parsing top-down signals. If the sensory

perception, as an entry point into the attentional state, is determined by the strength of the

subcortical thalamus-PFC (pre-frontal cortex) pathways (27), the reciprocal interactions

between mPFC and HPC are pivotal for the WM functioning (28,29), with the HPC known

to encode perceptual representations into memories through the correct attentional states

(30). Complementing this, thalamocortical projections are vital for mediating sensation,

perception, and consciousness (31-33). It is assumed that WM, despite its distributed nature

(34), consists of an executive component spread over the frontal lobes and sensory cortices

and interacted by the attention (7,35).

Brain lamina-specific enrichment and EF control contribution by the *Ntng* paralogs.

The emergence of a six-layered neocortex is a known hallmark of the mammalian brain

specialization devoted to the EF control (36,37). Both *Ntng* gene paralogs are extensively

expressed and mutually sequestered among the separate layers of the cortex (Fig.5C). *Ntng1*

is predominantly located in layers 4/5 (Fig.5C-1), probably supporting the arrival of the

bottom-up signals (38), while *Ntng2* is located in the superficial layers 2/3 and deeper layers

5/6 (Fig.5C-2), reported as a source of top-down inputs in attention and WM demanding

tasks (39). Besides that, *Ntng2* has been also marked as a gene classifier for the granule

neurons enriched in the cortex layer 6 (40). In overall, the complementary patterning of the

Ntng gene paralogs expression supports the laminar-specific distribution of the attention-

directed modalities.

Evidence for the cognitive control taking over the perceptual load. Analysing AI and

WM interaction during the task learning (Fig.7A), we have revealed that HCD recruits more

Ntng1 (bottom-up) expressing circuitry comparing to LCD, both by WM and AI, reciprocally

replacing the preceding *Ntng2* (top-down) contribution. This potentially points to an

augmented peripheral sensory control by upregulating the bottom-up information stream.

How to explain such intricacy? Attention exploits a conserved circuitry motif predating the

neocortex emergence (41) and WM probably exapts the motor control of forward action

modeling also elaborated since ancient times (42). The archaic origin of both modalities

limits the fundamental brain resource and constrains information processing, forcing trade-

offs among the objects of targeted attention through the top-down control and, possibly,

causing a competition between the sensory inputs (43,44) by driving attention at

representations in sensory areas where the latter gains entry into WM (7). A model has been

proposed that selective attention control is directly linked to the executive control part of the

WM system (45) corroborating the statement that attention and WM should no longer be

regarded as two separate concepts, see (46) for references. The top-down control of primary

sensory processing by higher cortical areas (through the recurrent inputs) has an essential

role in sensory perception, as we have just demonstrated. The pervasive penetration of the

cognitive control, supported by *Ntng2,* affects the sensory inputs, provided by the *Ntng1*

expression.

An IQ for mice. The EF control variance attributes to the cognitive performance variance

and does not exist independently of general intelligence (47) as a critical determinant of

human cognition (48). It is no wonder then that, in our hands, the genes affecting WM and

attention in mice are the same ones affecting IQ in humans (1) and also associated with a

variety of devastating neurological disorders (2) representing a strong case of antagonistic

functional pleiotropy. The open challenge is to find out to what degree, using *Ntng* gene

paralogs as benchmarks, we would be able to conclusively draw on either domain specific or

domain general cognitive abilities of mice, or any other non-human animal subjects

behavioral intelligence.

Conclusively, *Ntng1* participates in bottom-up, and *Ntng2* in top-down brain

information flows support, representing an integrative complementary agreement between

perception and cognition as two interacting functions of the brain.

CONCLUSION

The view of Brain (and Mind) as a modular (domain) system is appealing to evolutionary

thinking (49) but is strongly biased towards "the prominence of neural reductionism" (22)

dominating the modern neuroscience. There is no strict definition of what a cognitive domain

is but it can be viewed as a product of interaction between the top-down and bottom-up

underlying neuronal circuits forming bidirectional feedback loops for the executively

decisive and sensory information flows controlling its own self. Genes selectively expressed

within such circuits via a non-overlapping pattern represent a tantalizing target to study the cognitive domain make-up and its evolution. An ancient *Ntng* gene duplication (>500 million years ago, preceding the Cambrian explosion) and subsequent co-evolution within the vertebrate genomes made *Ntng* gene paralogs to segregate within the top-down and bottom-up evolving information paths, presumably via subfunctionalisation, under the growing ecological demand (first land/water fish met) but different epistatic environment, both gene paralogs are embedded into. Perception and cognition interplay had eventually culminated in a reflectively subjective representation of the external world, also called consciousness, and explicitly controlled by the EF. Unrevealing molecular correlates of the domain-specific cognitive abilities would help us better understand behavior, e.g. to clearly dissect it on actions (as self-generated thoughts) and responses (cue-induced actions), as a decomposable conjunction supporting the robust functioning of the Brain holistic state.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and behavioral set-ups. Animal rearing and handling experimental procedures were performed in accordance with the guidelines of RIKEN Institutional Animal Care and Experimentation Committee. The original behavioral datasets have been partially published by us in (18). All raw data are provided in ST1-ST4 and SF1,2. Knockout animals generation and the behavioral set-ups are described in (18).

Data analysis. All raw data including their ranks and PVE calculations with all formulas and graphs are presented in ST1-ST4**.** The dynamics of the rank change for a specific parameter over the course of study and its congruence with other parameters is depicted on Figs.1-2D,H. No robustness calculations of the rank distribution pattern resistance to a sequential removal of a single behavioral subject were done; neither estimate for the minimal number of the top/bottom ranks representing the obtained pattern, it was empirically decided to be equal to top and bottom four (Figs.1-2).

Definition of LCD and HCD. During the 5-CSRTT the cognitive demand was incremented by a shorter cue duration and longer inter-trial intervals, as specified in (18). As for the RAM, the second week of testing (sessions 8-14) was done with half-closed/half-opened doors under the gradually building cognitive demand, internally driven by the behavior optimisation strategy for the maximum likelihood of reward collection, top–down executive–attentional pressure to optimise the behavioral performance outcome, contextually similar to

the operant conditioning learning (Ln) of spatial 1 of the 5-CSRTT (Fig.4).

Real-time qPCR (qRT-PCR). Primers specifically targeting beginning of each *Ntng* gene

paralogs   full-length   transcripts   were   designed   using   Primer3Plus:

http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi. Frozen brains RNA was

isolated from the MFB using RNeasy Plus Minikit (Qiagen) and the cDNA was synthesised

by the QuantiTect® Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen) using a mix of the random hexamers

and oligodT primers. cDNA synthesised from 1 ng of total RNA was used per a single qRT-

PCR reaction. The lack of genomic DNA and the absence of external contamination were

confirmed by the RT-minus reactions. Neuronal-specific *tubb3* transcript (β-tubulinIII) was

used as an internal normaliser during the qRT-PCR co-amplifications. The C_t values were

collected at the threshold value of 0.4 and the arbitrary units (AU) were calculated as:

$$2^{-(Ct\ (amplicon)\ -\ Ct\ (normalizer))} *10,000$$

RNA-seq cortical layers *Ntng* transcriptome reconstruction. See SM for the details.

Fuzzy *C*-Means Clustering. Represents a type of a sequential competitive learning

algorithm exhibiting the stochastic approximation problem (50). Was used for the genotype

predictions based on the behavioral ranks input under the genotype-blind input conditions.

The details are described in the SM.

Statistics. Correlation coefficients (r^2) were obtained with Excel. One and two-way

ANOVA was calculated using StatPlus (AnalystSoft Inc.). Wilcoxon rank sum test was done

by Matlab (v.7.9.0 2009b) by the function *ranksum*.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS (SM)

Contain Supplementary Figures (SF1-2), Tables (ST1-7), Methods and References. ST1-ST5

are provided as Excel files.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was in part supported by the "Funding Program for World-Leading Innovative

R&D on Science and Technology (FIRST Program)" initiated by the Council for Science

and Technology Policy (CSTP), and KAKENHI 15H04290 from the Japan Society for the

Promotion of Science (JSPS).

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors would like to express a lack of any competing interests associated with the work.

REFERENCES

1. Prosselkov P, Hashimoto R, Polygalov D, Ohi K, Zhang Q, McHugh JT, Takeda M, and
Itohara, S. (2016) Cognitive endophenotypes of modern and extinct hominins associated
with *NTNG* gene paralogs. *Biomedical Genetics and Genomics*, **1**(1): 5–13.
http://doi.org/10.15761/BGG.1000103

2. Prosselkov P, Polygalov D, Zhang Q, McHugh JT and Itohara S. (2016) Cognitive domains
function complementation by *NTNG* gene paralogs. *Biomedical Genetics and Genomics*,
1(1): 24–33. http://doi.org/10.15761/BGG.1000105

3. Mar AC, Horner AE, Nilsson SRO, Alsio J, Kent BA, Kim CH, Holmes A, Saksida LM,
Bussey TJ. (2013) The touchscreen operant platform for assessing executive function in
rats and mice. *Nature Protocols*, **8**(10): 1985–2005. http://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2013.123

4. Mandelman SD and Grigorenko EI (2011) "Intelligence". In *The Cambridge Handbook of*
Intelligence. Edited by Sternberg RJ and Kaufmann SB. Cambridge University Press.
ISBN: 052173911X.

5. Matzel LD and Kolata S. (2010) Selective attention, working memory, and animal
intelligence. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, **34**(1): 23–30.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2009.07.002

6. Baddeley A. (1992) Working Memory. *Science*, **255**(5044): 556–559.
http://doi.org/10.1126/science.1736359

7. Carruthers P. (2013) Evolution of working memory. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
of Sciences of the United States of America, **110**(S2): 10371–10378.
http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1301195110

8. Trubutschek D, Marti S, Ojeda A, King J-R, Mi Y, Tsodyks M and Dehaene S. (2016) A
theory of working memory without consciousness or sustained activity. *bioRxiv*.
http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1101/093815

9. Soto D and Silvanto J. (2014) Reappraising the relationship between working memory and
conscious awareness. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **18**(10): 520–525.
http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2014.06.005

10. Leong YC, Radulescu A, Daniel R, DeWoskin V and Niv Y. (2017) Dynamic Interaction
between Reinforcement Learning and Attention in Multidimensional Environments.
Neuron, **93**(2): 451–463. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2016.12.040

11. Cahen A and Tacca MC. (2013) Linking perception and cognition. *Frontiers in*
Psychology, **4**: e144. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00144

12. Potter MC. (2012) Conceptual Short Term Memory in Perception and Thought. *Frontiers*
in Psychology, **3**: e113. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2012.00113

13. Brown H, Friston K and Bestmann S. (2011) Active Inference, Attention, and Motor
Preparation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, **2**: e218. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2011.00218

14. Mroczko-Wąsowicz A. (2016) Editorial: Perception-Cognition Interface and Cross-Modal
Experiences: Insights into Unified Consciousness. *Frontiers in Psychology*, **7**: e1593.
http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01593

15. Clark A. (2013) Whatever next? Predictive brains, situated agents, and the future of
cognitive   science.   *Behavioral   and   Brain   Sciences*,   **36**(3):   181–204.
http://doi.org/10.1017/s0140525x12000477

16. Rosenberg MD, Finn ES, Scheinost D, Constable RT and Chun MM. (2017)
Characterizing Attention with Predictive Network Models. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*,
21(4): 290–302. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2017.01.011

17. Firestone C and Scholl CF. (2015) Cognition does not affect perception: Evaluating the
evidence for "top-down" effects. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, **39**: e229.
http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X15000965

18. Zhang Q, Goto H, Akiyoshi-Nishimura S, Prosselkov P, Sano C, Matsukawa H, Yaguchi
K, Nakashiba T and Itohara S. (2016) Diversification of behavior and postsynaptic
properties by netrin-G presynaptic adhesion family proteins. *Molecular Brain*, **9**(1): e6.
http://doi.org/10.1186/s13041-016-0187-5

19. Royall DR, Lauterbach EC, Cummings JL, Reeve A, Rummans TA, Kaufer DI, LaFrance
CW, Coffey CE. (2002) Executive Control Function: A Review of Its Promise and
Challenges for Clinical Research. *The Journal of Neuropsychiatry and Clinical*
Neurosciences, **14**(4): 377–405. http://doi.org/10.1176/jnp.14.4.377

20. Bari A, Dalley JW and Robbins TW (2008) The application of the 5-choice serial reaction
time task for the assessment of visual attentional processes and impulse control in rats.
Nature Protocols, **3**(5), 759–767. http://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2008.41

21. Abrahamse E, Majerus S, Fias W and Dijck J-P. (2015) Editorial: Turning the Mind's Eye
Inward: The Interplay Between Selective Attention and Working Memory. *Frontiers in*
Human Neuroscience, **9:** (e616). http://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2015.00616

22. Gomez-Marin A and Mainen ZF. (2016) Expanding perspectives on cognition in humans,
animals,   and   machines.   *Current   Opinion   in   Neurobiology*,   **37**:   85–91.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.conb.2016.01.011

23. Laudański LM. (2013) Between Certainty and Uncertainty: Statistics and Probability in
Five Units with Notes on Historical Origins and Illustrative Numerical Examples
(Intelligent Systems Reference Library) Springer. ISBN-13: 978-3642256967.

24. Jazayeri M and Afraz A (2017) Navigating the Neural Space in Search of the Neural Code.
Neuron, **93**(5), 1003–1014. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2017.02.019

25. Paixão T and Barton NH. (2016) The effect of gene interactions on the long-term response
to selection. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **113**(16): 4422–4427.
http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1518830113

26. Nishimura-Akiyoshi S, Niimi K, Nakashiba T and Itohara S. (2007) Axonal netrin-Gs
transneuronally determine lamina-specific subdendritic segments. *Proceedings of the*
National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, **104**(37): 14801–14806.
http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0706919104

27. Wimmer RD, Schmitt LI, Davidson TJ, Nakajima M, Deisseroth K, Halassa MM. (2015)
Thalamic control of sensory selection in divided attention. *Nature*, **526**(7575): 705–709.
http://doi.org/10.1038/nature15398

28. Jin J and Maren S. (2015) Prefrontal-Hippocampal Interactions in Memory and Emotion.
Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience, **9**: e170. http://doi.org/10.3389/fnsys.2015.00170

29. Spellman T, Rigotti M, Ahmari SE, Fusi S, Gogos JA, Gordon JA. (2015) Hippocampal–
prefrontal input supports spatial encoding in working memory. *Nature*, **522**(7556): 309–
314. http://doi.org/10.1038/nature14445

30. Aly M and Turk-Browne NB (2016) Attention promotes episodic encoding by stabilizing
hippocampal representations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
United States of America, **113**(4): E420-429. http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1518931113

31. Riga D, Matos MR, Glas A, Smit AB, Spijker S and Oever MCV. (2014) Optogenetic
dissection of medial prefrontal cortex circuitry. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, **8**:
E230. http://doi.org/10.3389/fnsys.2014.00230

32. John ER. (2002) The neurophysics of consciousness. *Brain Research Reviews*, **39**(1): 1–
28. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0165-0173(02)00142-X

33. Alitto HJ and Usrey WM. (2003) Corticothalamic feedback and sensory processing.
Current Opinion in Neurobiol., **13**(4): 440–445. http://10.1016/S0959-4388(03)00096-5

34. Christophel TB, Klink PC, Spitzer B, Roelfsema PR and Haynes J-D. (2017) The
Distributed Nature of Working Memory. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, **21**(2): 111–124.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2016.12.007

35. Postle BR. (2006) Working memory as an emergent property of the mind and brain.
Neuroscience, **139**(1): 23–38. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2005.06.005

36. Smaers JB, Gómez-Robles A, Parks AN and Sherwood CC. (2017) Exceptional
Evolutionary Expansion of Prefrontal Cortex in Great Apes and Humans. *Current*
Biology, **27**(5): 714-720. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.01.020

37. Hardung S, Epple R, Jäckel Z, Eriksson D, Uran C, Senn V, Gibor L, Yiezhar O, Diester
I. (2017) A Functional Gradient in the Rodent Prefrontal Cortex Supports Behavioral
Inhibition. *Current Biology,* **27**(4): 549–555. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2016.12.052

38. Nandy AS, Nassi JJ and Reynolds JH. (2017) Laminar Organization of Attentional
Modulation in Macaque Visual Area V4. *Neuron*, **93**(1): 235–246.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2016.11.029

39. Kerkoerle T, Self MW and Roelfsema PR. (2017) Layer-specificity in the effects of
attention and working memory on activity in primary visual cortex. *Nature*
Communications, *8*: e13804. http://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms13804

40. Lake BB, Ai R, Kaeser GE, Salathia NS, Yung YC, Liu R, Wildberg A, Gao D, Fung H-L,
Chen S, Vijayaraghavan R, Wong J, Chen A, Sheng X, Kaper F, Shen R, Ronaghi M, Fan
J-B, Wang W, Chun J, Zhang, K. (2016) Neuronal subtypes and diversity revealed by
single-nucleus RNA sequencing of the human brain. *Science*, **352**(6293): 1586–1590.
http://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf1204

41. Krauzlis RJ, Bollimunta A, Arcizet F, Wang L. (2014) Attention as an effect not a cause.
Trend Cog Sci, **18**(9): 457–464. http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2014.05.008

42. Jeannerod M. (2006) *Motor Cognition*. Oxford University Press. ISBN: 0198569653

43. Koch C and Tsuchiya N. (2007) Attention and consciousness: two distinct brain processes.
Trends in Cognitive Sciences, **11**(1): 16–22. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2006.10.012

44. Boxtel JJA, Tsuchiya N and Koch C. (2010) Consciousness and attention: on sufficiency
and necessity. *Frontiers in Psychology*, **1**: e217. http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2010.00217

45. Vandierendonck A. (2014) Symbiosis of executive and selective attention in working
memory. *Frontiers in Hum Neurosci*, **8**: E588. http://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2014.00588

46. Quak M, London RE and Talsma D. (2015) A multisensory perspective of working
memory. *Frontiers in Hum Neurosci*, **9**: E197. http://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2015.00197

47. Royall DR and Palmer RF. (2014) "Executive functions" cannot be distinguished from
general intelligence: two variations on a single theme within a symphony of latent
variance. *Frontiers in Behav Neurosci*, **8**: E369. http://doi.org/10.3389/fnbeh.2014.00369

48. Lucenet J and Blaye A. (2014) Age-related changes in the temporal dynamics of executive
control: a study in 5- and 6-year-old children. *Frontiers in Psychology*, **5**: E831.
http://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00831

49. Burkart JM, Schubiger MN and Schaik CP. (2016) The evolution of general intelligence.
Behavioral and Brain Sci, **Jul 28:** 1–65. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X16000959

50. Pal NR, Bezdek JC, and Hathaway RJ. (1996) Sequential Competitive Learning and the
Fuzzy *c*-Means Clustering Algorithms. *Neural Networks,* **9**(5): 787–796.

51. Belgard TG, Marques AC, Oliver PL, Abaan HO, Sirey TM, Hoerder-Suabedissen A,
García-Moreno F, Molnár Z, Margulies EH, Ponting CP. (2011) A Transcriptomic Atlas
of Mouse Neocortical Layers. *Neuron*, **71**(4): 605–616.
http://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2011.06.039

52. Yaguchi K, Nishimura-Akiyoshi S, Kuroki S, Onodera T, Itohara S. (2014) Identification
of transcriptional regulatory elements for *Ntng1* and *Ntng2* genes in mice. *Molecuar*
Brain, **7**(1): 19. http://doi.org/10.1186/1756-6606-7-19