Strong Aversive Conditioning Triggers a Long-Lasting Generalized Aversion

Raul Ramos[1][†], Chi-Hong Wu[1][†], Gina G. Turrigiano [1*]

[1]Department of Biology, Brandeis University, Waltham, MA 02453, USA

[†] These authors have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship

* Correspondence:

Gina Turrigiano

turrigiano@brandeis.edu

Keywords: Conditioned Taste Aversion, Learning, Memory, Generalization, Synaptic

Plasticity, Gustatory Cortex

Abstract

Generalization is an adaptive mnemonic process in which an animal can leverage past learning

experiences to navigate future scenarios, but overgeneralization is a hallmark feature of anxiety

disorders. Therefore, understanding the synaptic plasticity mechanisms that govern memory

generalization and its persistence is an important goal. Here, we demonstrate that strong CTA

conditioning results in a long-lasting generalized aversion that persists for at least two weeks. Using

brain slice electrophysiology and activity-dependent labeling of the conditioning-active neuronal

ensemble within the gustatory cortex, we find that strong CTA conditioning induces a long-lasting

increase in synaptic strengths that occurs uniformly across superficial and deep layers of GC.

Repeated exposure to salt, the generalized tastant, causes a rapid attenuation of the generalized

aversion that correlates with a reversal of the CTA-induced increases in synaptic strength. Unlike the

uniform strengthening that happens across layers, reversal of the generalized aversion results in a

more pronounced depression of synaptic strengths in superficial layers. Finally, the generalized

aversion and its reversal do not impact the acquisition and maintenance of the aversion to the

conditioned tastant (saccharin). The strong correlation between the generalized aversion and synaptic

strengthening, and the reversal of both in superficial layers by repeated salt exposure, strongly

suggests that the synaptic changes in superficial layers contribute to the formation and reversal of the

generalized aversion. In contrast, the persistence of synaptic strengthening in deep layers correlates

with the persistence of CTA. Taken together, our data suggest that layer-specific synaptic plasticity

mechanisms separately govern the persistence and generalization of CTA memory.

1   Introduction

The cellular and synaptic physiology underlying the formation, storage, and retrieval of memories

has been extensively studied (Kandel et al., 2013; Kandel, Dudai, & Mayford, 2014; Josselyn &

Tonegawa, 2020), but comparatively less research has focused on the synaptic plasticity mechanisms

that govern the generalization of memories (Asok, Kandel, & Rayman, 2019). Generalization is an

adaptive memory process by which an animal is able to extend its learning, garnered from past

experiences, to future similar scenarios (Shepard, 1987; Asok, Kandel, & Rayman, 2019). In this

way, generalization endows organisms with greater cognitive flexibility and makes them more savvy

survivors. However, generalization can also be maladaptive, and overgeneralization of aversive

memories has been implicated in post-traumatic stress disorder and anxiety disorders (Kheirbek et

al., 2012; Mahan & Ressler, 2012; Dunsmoor & Paz, 2015). Thus, expanding our understanding of

the synaptic plasticity mechanisms that shape memory generalization and its persistence is of great

importance.

Conditioned Taste Aversion (CTA) learning is an ethologically relevant form of associative learning

in which experience with a novel tastant (CS) is paired with LiCl induced gastric malaise (US) to

produce a learned aversion (Bures, Bermúdez-Rattoni, & Yamamoto, 1998; Reilly & Schachtman,

2008). Unlike other associative learning paradigms that require multiple CS-US pairings, CTA

results in robust and rapid learning following one conditioning trial (Bures, Bermúdez-Rattoni, &

Yamamoto, 1998; Reilly & Schachtman, 2008). This feature of CTA learning makes it an ideal

paradigm to explore how differences in conditioning strength might alter the temporal dynamics of

memory generalization. The generalized aversion resulting from CTA conditioning is a well-

documented phenomenon (Domjan, 1975; Parker & Revusky, 1982; Richardson, Williams, & Riccio,

1984; Smith & Theodore, 1984; Frank & Nowlis, 1989; Chotro & Alonso, 1999; Heyer et al., 2003;

Baird, St. John, & Nguyen, 2005; Smith et al., 2012; Angulo, 2018; Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021), but it

is unclear how long this generalization can persist, which factors impact its duration, and the cellular

basis of this persistence.

Previously, we found that moderate conditioning (using a lower concentration of LiCl) induced a

generalized aversion that reversed within 24 hours, while strong conditioning (using a higher

concentration of LiCl) produced a generalized aversion that was still present at the 24 hours' time

point (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Here, we explored this more persistent generalized aversion to

determine how long it lasts, and the cellular basis of its persistence. We discovered that strong

aversive conditioning results in a long-lasting generalized aversion that persisted for up to two-weeks

and only reversed after experience with the generalized tastant. Next, we sought to characterize the

cellular basis of its expression. We utilized the robust activity marking (RAM; Sørensen et al., 2016)

system to label ensembles of neurons within gustatory cortex (GC) that were active during

conditioning, and then performed *ex-vivo* whole-cell brain slice electrophysiology to measure

excitatory postsynaptic strengths. Previous work has demonstrated the importance of the GC in CTA

memory generalization (Kiefer & Braun, 1977; Kiefer & Braun, 1979; Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Our

experiments revealed a potentiation of synaptic strengths occurring uniformly across the superficial

and deep layers of GC in animals that had undergone strong CTA conditioning. Moreover, reversal

of the long-lasting generalized aversion correlated with a reversal of the increases in synaptic

strength. Unlike the CTA-induced potentiation that was observed uniformly across layers of GC, the

exposure-induced reversal of synaptic potentiation occurred selectively in the superficial layers of

GC. Together these findings illuminate the synaptic plasticity mechanisms that support a persistent

long-lasting generalized aversion.

2   Materials and Methods

2.1   Experimental subject details

All experimental procedures were approved by Brandeis University Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee and followed the National Institute of Health guidelines for the Care and Use of

Laboratory Animals. Young Long-Evans rats p28-p34 of both sexes were used in these experiments.

Timed pregnant rats were obtained from Charles River Laboratories, and the progeny were

maintained in the Foster Biomedical Research Labs at Brandeis University. After weaning at p21,

littermates were individually housed in a humidity- and temperature-controlled environment and

entrained to a 12-hour light–dark cycle (light phase from 7:00-7:00) with *ad libitum* access to food

and water unless described otherwise. All subjects selected for electrophysiology experiments were

age matched to animals selected for behavioral experiments.

2.2   Behavior

2.2.1 Two-bottle paradigm

This CTA behavioral paradigm was conducted as previously described (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021).

Animals were transferred into individual home cages at p21 and habituated to two bottles with *ad*

libitum access to water for three days. Next, the animals underwent water restriction for an additional

three days, during which the access to water was limited to two hours. On the fourth day of

restriction, rats were subjected to CTA conditioning. They received two bottles that contained the

conditioned stimulus (CS, 10 mM saccharin), for thirty minutes, followed by an intraperitoneal

injection of the unconditioned stimulus (US, LiCl). For moderate conditioning we used 0.15 M LiCl

and for strong conditioning we used 0.30 M LiCl, dosed at 1ml/100g body weight (1% body weight).

After conditioning, the water restriction schedule was continued until testing. For the two-bottle test,

rats were given one bottle of tastant and one bottle of water, for thirty minutes. The location of the

two bottles was counterbalanced across presentations to prevent any positional biases. The results

were quantified using a tastant preference score (TPS):

99
$$TPS = \frac{total\ tastant\ consumed}{total\ consumed} \ x\ 100$$

To test for a generalized aversion (Gen. test), salt (150 mM NaCl) was used as a tastant. To measure

the reversal and attenuation of the generalized aversion, Gen. tests were conducted daily for three

days. After Gen. testing was complete, rats were given a CTA test to ensure that they had indeed

learned an aversion to the CS. All consumption was documented throughout the course of this

behavior to ensure that daily fluid intake was stable. No rats were excluded.

2.3   RAM labeling of conditioning-active neurons

2.3.1 Viral vector

RAM-dtTA-TRE-tdTomato was packaged in AAV serotype 9 by Duke Viral Vector Core.

2.3.2 Virus surgery

Rats were anesthetized via intraperitoneal infusion of a cocktail containing ketamine (70 mg/kg),

xylazine hydrochloride (3.5 mg/kg), and acepromazine maleate (0.7 mg/kg), and placed onto a

stereotaxic apparatus. The stereotaxic apparatus was localized over a heating pad to maintain the

animals body temperature. The skull was exposed and craniotomies were made above gustatory

cortex (GC) using the following coordinates: anterior-posterior with reference to bregma: 1.0 mm;

medial-lateral: ± 4.7 mm; dorsal-ventral with reference to the brain surface: 3.6 mm. RAM virus (400

nL) was unilaterally microinjected into GC through a glass micropipette connected to a

micromanipulator (Narishige, MO-10), at a rate of approximately 200 nl/min. To allow adequate

diffusion of virus particles, the pipet remained in place for additional 3 minutes after injection and

was slowly withdrawn from the site. Injections were counterbalanced across hemispheres and both

hemispheres are equally represented in the data.

2.3.3 Labeling of conditioning-active neurons

Customized chow containing low-dose doxycycline (40 ppm, ScottPharma) was added to the home

cage one day before virus surgery, and rats were maintained on doxycycline until CTA conditioning.

The doxycycline-containing chow was removed and replaced with regular chow one day before the

conditioning trial to allow adequate RAM induction. Two hours after the conditioning trial, rats were

placed back on the doxycycline diet to prevent further RAM activation. Acute brain slices were

collected 3 days after conditioning.

2.4   Electrophysiology

2.4.1 *Ex-vivo* acute brain-slice preparation

Brain slices were produced following our previously documented protocols (Miska et al., 2018; Cary

& Turrigiano, 2021; Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Briefly, rats (p28-p34) were anesthetized with

isoflurane, decapitated, and the brain was swiftly dissected out into ice cold carbogenated (95% O_2,

5% CO_2) standard ACSF (in mM: 126NaCl, 25 NaHCO3, 3 KCl, 2 CaCl2, 2 MgSO4, 1 NaH2PO4,

0.5 Na-Ascorbate, osmolarity adjusted to 310-315 mOsm with dextrose, pH 7.35). Coronal brain

slices (300mm) containing GC were obtained from virus injected hemispheres using a vibratome

(LeicaVT1000). The slices were immediately transferred to a warm (34°C) chamber filled with a

continuously carbogenated 'protective recovery' choline-based solution (in mM: 110 Choline-Cl, 25

NaHCO3, 11.6 Na-Ascorbate, 7 MgCl2, 3.1 Na-Pyruvate, 2.5 KCl, 1.25NaH2PO4, and 0.5 CaCl2,

osmolarity 310-315 mOsm, pH 7.35) for 10 minutes (Ting et al., 2014). After incubation in choline,

the slices were transferred back to warm (34°C) carbogenated standard ACSF and incubated another

45 minutes. Brain slices were used for electrophysiology experiments between 1 – 7 hours post-

slicing.

2.4.2 Whole-cell patch clamp recording

Slices were visualized on an Olympus upright epifluorescence microscope using a 10x air (0.13

numerical aperture) and 40x water-immersion objective (0.8 numerical aperture) with infrared-

differential interference contrast optics and an infrared CCD camera. Gustatory cortex was identified

in acute slices using the shape and morphology of the corpus callosum, piriform cortex and the lateral

ventricle as a reference. The borders of GC were determined by comparing the aforementioned

landmarks in slice to the Paxinos and Watson rat brain atlas. Pyramidal neurons from superficial and

deep layers across the dorsal-ventral axis of GC were visually targeted and identified by the presence

of an apical dendrite and teardrop shaped soma. In experiments involving the expression of a viral

construct, such as RAM, fluorophore expression was used to visually target pyramidal neurons. Virus

expression was consistent across layers (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Pyramidal morphology was

confirmed by post hoc reconstruction of biocytin fills. Borosilicate glass recording pipettes were

pulled using a Sutter P-97 micropipette puller, with acceptable tip resistances ranging from 3 to 6

$M\Omega$. All recordings were performed on submerged slices, continuously perfused with carbogenated

35°C recording solution. Data were low-pass filtered at 10 kHz and acquired at 10 kHz with

Axopatch 700B amplifiers and CV-7B headstages (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale CA). Data were

acquired using WaveSurfer v0.953 (Janelia Research Campus), and all post hoc data analysis was

performed using in-house scripts written in MATLAB (Mathworks, Natick MA).

2.4.3 mEPSC recordings

Cs+ Methanesulfonate-based internal recording solution was used as previously reported (Miska et

al., 2018; Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). This Cs+ internal contained (in mM) 115 Cs-Methanesulfonate,

10 HEPES, 10 BAPTA•4Cs, 5.37 Biocytin, 2 QX314 Cl, 1.5MgCl2, 1 EGTA, 10 Na2-

Phosphocreatine, 4 ATP-Mg, and 0.3 GTP-Na, with sucrose added to bring osmolarity to 295 mOsm,

and CsOH added to bring pH to 7.35. For these recordings, pyramidal neurons were voltage clamped

to -70 mV in standard ACSF containing a drug cocktail of TTX (0.2mM), APV (50mM), PTX

(25mM). Traces of 10 s were acquired over a period of ~10-15 minutes allowing for the cell to fill for

later morphological verification. Neurons were excluded from analysis if Rs > 25 $M\Omega$ or if was Rin >

2σ above the mean.

2.4.4 mEPSC analysis

To reliably detect mEPSC events and limit selection bias, we used in-house software that employs a

semi-automated template-based detection method (Miska et al., 2018; Cary & Turrigiano, 2021).

Event inclusion criteria included amplitudes greater than 5 pA and rise times less than 3 ms. The

resulting events detected by our software were visually assessed posthoc and a subset of artefactual

events were excluded. The experimenter was blinded to experimental condition and treatment until

after the analysis was complete.

2.4.5 Recording from the conditioning-active ensemble

Slices were collected exactly 3-days post-conditioning using the methods described above. mEPSCs

were recorded using the method described above. Fluorescent RAM$^+$ (tdTomato$^+$) cells were targeted

in both superficial and deep layers, where expression was equally robust (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021).

The expression, or lack of, tdTomato was confirmed post hoc through immunostaining of the cells

using antibodies described in the immunohistochemistry section.

2.5   Immunohistochemistry

2.5.1 Immunostaining of biocytin-filled cells

After recording, slices were incubated in cold 4% PFA for two days to fix the tissue. Following

fixation, slices were washed six times with PBS, preincubated with blocking buffer (5% goat serum,

3%BSA, 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS) for three hours at room temperature, and then incubated with

primary antibodies diluted in diluent buffer (5% goat serum, 3%BSA in PBS) at 4°C overnight. RAM

expression was verified using rabbit polyclonal anti-RFP (1:1000; Rockland 600-401-379). Slices

were counterstained with mouse monoclonal anti-NeuN (1:500; Millipore MAB-377). Following

incubation with primary antibodies, slices were washed six times with PBS and then incubated at 4°C

overnight with secondary antibodies diluted in diluent buffer. The secondary antibodies used for

these experiments were goat polyclonal anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 568 (1:500; Thermo-Fisher, A-

11036) and goat polyclonal anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 647 (1:500; Thermo-Fisher, A-21236). Biocytin

fills were recovered by staining with streptavidin Alexa Fluor 488 (1:350; Thermo-Fisher, S-11223).

After incubation with secondary antibodies, slices were washed and mounted for imaging. Images

were acquired using the Leica SP5Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope.

2.6   Quantification and statistics

For all experiments including behavior and electrophysiology, individual experimental distributions

were tested for normality using the Anderson-Darling test. All experimental conditions passed the

normality test. A one sample, or two sample t test, or one-way ANOVA were used where

appropriate. Significant ANOVA tests were followed by Tukey-Kramer post hoc comparisons.

Results of all statistical tests can be found in the figure legends. For behavior experiments n =

number of animals, while for electrophysiology experiments n = number of cells. Electrophysiology

data were collected from at least 4 animals for each condition. Scatterplots were generated using

publicly available MATLAB code (Ramirez, 2020).

3   Results

3.1   Strong aversive conditioning triggers a long-lasting generalized aversion

We previously demonstrated that strong CTA conditioning results in a generalized aversion that

could be observed at 24 hours post-conditioning (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021), but it was unclear

whether this generalized aversion persists beyond this time point. Therefore, we first sought to

delineate how long the generalized aversion induced by strong CTA persists. We took animals

through strong CTA conditioning (strong CTA, 0.30M LiCl) or, as a control, a more moderate

conditioning regime (moderate CTA, 0.15M LiCl) which only induces a transient generalized

aversion that subsides within the first 24 hours post-conditioning (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). We then

tested for a generalized aversion 3 days post-conditioning (**Figure 1A**). We found that strong CTA

training resulted in a significant generalized aversion to salt at 3 days post-conditioning compared to

moderate CTA controls (**Figure 1B**). Repeated presentations of salt in the strong CTA group rapidly

reversed the generalized aversion, attenuating after just one presentation (**Figure 1C**). By contrast, in

the moderate CTA group which does not exhibit a long-lasting generalized aversion, repeated

presentation of salt caused no significant change in tastant preference score (**Figure 1D**). The

expression of the generalized aversion, as well as its reversal, did not impact the specific taste

aversion to the conditioned tastant, as animals still showed a strong aversion to saccharin after

generalization tests were completed (**Figure 1E**). These findings are consistent with our previous

results at the 24-hour time point for both experimental conditions (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021).

Subsequent experiments revealed the long-lasting nature of the generalized aversion. We found that

we could observe a generalized aversion resulting from strong CTA conditioning at 7-, 10-, and 14-

days post-conditioning (**Figure 2A & 2B**). In all instances, the generalized aversion reversed after

one trial with the generalized tastant without impacting the specific taste aversion to saccharine

(**Figure 2B & 2C**). Together, these results demonstrate that increasing the strength of conditioning

with a higher concentration of LiCl triggers a long-lasting generalized aversion that persists up to two

weeks post-conditioning and only reverses after experience with the generalized tastant.

3.2 Strong aversive conditioning drives a long-lasting increase in postsynaptic strength

We next endeavored to find an electrophysiological correlate for this long-lasting generalized

aversion within the gustatory cortex. Previously, we found that in the conditioning-active GC

neurons, moderate CTA conditioning produced a transient increase in postsynaptic strengths that was

homeostatically scaled down, while strong CTA conditioning resulted in a more sustained increase of

postsynaptic strengths (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Notably, the presence or absence of this increase in

postsynaptic strengths correlated with the presence or absence of the generalized aversion. We thus

hypothesized that a long-lasting increase in postsynaptic strengths could support the long-lasting

generalized aversion induced by strong CTA conditioning. To test this, we virally expressed the

robust activity marking (RAM) system in GC to label the conditioning-activated neuronal ensemble

through the activity dependent expression of tdTomato (Sørensen et al., 2016; Wu, Ramos, et al.,

2021). RAM labeling is inhibited by doxycycline (Dox); by removing Dox we could restrict labeling

to a small window during which animals underwent either strong or moderate CTA conditioning.

Congruent with the behavioral measurements in **Figure 1**, brain slices were prepared 3 days after

CTA induction for electrophysiological recording (**Figure 3A**). We then targeted either RAM$^+$

(tdTomato$^+$) or nearby RAM$^-$ (tdTomato$^-$) pyramidal neurons for whole-cell electrophysiological

recordings (**Figure 3B**) and measured miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) to

quantify postsynaptic strength (**Figure 3C**). We found that strong CTA conditioning produced a

significant increase in mEPSC amplitude in RAM$^+$ neurons; more surprisingly, a similar increase was

observed in RAM$^-$ neurons when compared to neurons recorded from moderate CTA animals

(**Figure 3D & 3E**). Other studies have similarly documented changes in synaptic strength in GC

neurons using whole-cell physiology following CTA learning without an activity-dependent labeling

scheme, suggesting that synaptic plasticity occurs across a large population of cells in GC (Haley et

al., 2020). These findings reveal that strong CTA conditioning produces a long-lasting increase in

postsynaptic strengths that parallels the long-lasting generalized aversion and suggest a possible GC-

wide induction of synaptic plasticity. Because neurons can be RAM$^-$ either because they did not

express the virus, or because they did but were not active during conditioning, for the remainder of

our experiments we focused solely on RAM$^+$ neurons to ensure we recorded from a more

homogenous population of cells.

3.3 Experience with salt rapidly reverses increases in postsynaptic strength

If the increase in postsynaptic strength contributes to the expression of the long-lasting generalized

aversion, then reversal of the generalized aversion by salt exposure should also reverse the increases

in mEPSC amplitude in conditioning-active GC neurons. To test this hypothesis, animals were

exposed to salt and then 2- or 24-hours following salt exposure, slices were made for

electrophysiological recordings (**Figure 4A**). As in the previous experiments, at the time of

recording, 3 days had elapsed post-conditioning. These experiments revealed that, when compared to

the average baseline amplitude following strong CTA conditioning in **Figure 3** (green dashed line),

experience with the generalized tastant (salt) rapidly decreased mEPSC amplitude. This depression

was evident as early as 2 hours following salt presentation and was greater in magnitude after 24

hours (**Figure 4B**). In contrast, when compared to the average baseline amplitude following moderate

CTA conditioning in **Figure 3** (green dashed line), animals in the moderate CTA group showed no

changes at 2- or 24-hours post-salt exposure (**Figure 4C**). These findings reveal a strong correlation

between postsynaptic strength and memory generalization within the conditioning-active ensemble.

Furthermore, they suggest an important contribution from forms of synaptic depression that operate

over a time scale of hours.

3.4   CTA-induced increase in postsynaptic strength occurs uniformly across superficial and

deep layers of GC

It is known that superficial (layers II/III) and deep (layers V/VI) layers of the gustatory cortex are

innervated differentially by structures important for CTA learning (Allen et al., 1991; Nakashima et

al., 2000; Maffei, Haley, & Fontanini, 2012; Haley, Fontanini, & Maffei, 2016). This raised the

question of whether synaptic strengthening following CTA learning is uniformly expressed across the

different layers of gustatory cortex. The recordings presented in **Figure 3** were performed across

superficial and deep layers of the GC (**Figure 5A**). When we sorted these data based on layers, we

found that strong CTA conditioning indeed increased mEPSC amplitude (compared to moderate

CTA controls) in both superficial and deep layers (**Figure 5B**). Thus, while these different layers are

distinctly innervated, strong CTA induces widespread and uniform changes in synaptic plasticity

across the cortical layers of GC.

3.5   Reversal is more pronounced in superficial layers of GC

We next asked if the reversal of postsynaptic strengths after salt exposure also occurred uniformly

across superficial and deep layers. We sorted the dataset in **Figure 4** by layers and normalized each

group after salt exposure to the corresponding average amplitude without salt exposure (green dashed

line). This revealed that neurons in the superficial layers of gustatory cortex exhibited a reversal of

mEPSC amplitude after salt exposure (**Figure 5C**). In contrast, although strong CTA induced an

increase in mEPSC amplitude across both superficial and deep layers, the reduction in mEPSC

amplitude after salt exposure was less pronounced in the deep layers and did not reach statistical

significance (**Figure 5D**). In animals that underwent moderate CTA conditioning, there were little-to-

no changes in mEPSC amplitude. In the superficial layers, there was a reduction at 2 hours that was

gone at 24 hours, and in the deep layers there was no change at either time point (**Figure 5E & 5F**).

Together these results indicate that reversal of postsynaptic strengths induced by salt exposure is a

layer-specific process that primarily occurs within the superficial layers of GC.

4   Discussion

Understanding the cellular basis of memory generalization can yield important insights into the

maladaptive, persistent overgeneralization that is characteristic of anxiety disorders. Here we took

advantage of CTA learning's one trial nature to study a long-lasting generalized aversion resulting

from a single strong conditioning event. In doing so, we uncovered changes in postsynaptic strength

occurring in a layer specific manner within the gustatory cortex that correlated with many of our

behavioral observations. Our experiments revealed that postsynaptic strength in the superficial layers

of GC seems to increase, then decrease, with the presence and then reversal of the long-lasting

generalized aversion, respectively. Interestingly, postsynaptic strength in the deep layers of GC also

increases after CTA learning, but does not significantly change as the generalized aversion reverses,

but instead persists much like the specific taste aversion to saccharin. These data suggest that rather

than being functionally homogenous, neurons within the conditioning active ensemble in GC

subserve different memory functions depending on what layer they are found in. These results are in

line with the functionally distinct engram ensembles found in the hippocampus that govern the

balance between memory generalization and specificity (Sun et al., 2020). Future experiments are

needed to identify exactly what form of synaptic plasticity is responsible for the CTA-induced

strengthening, the synaptic depression induced by exposure to the generalized tastant, and whether

these forms of synaptic plasticity are causally involved in this behavior.

In these experiments we leveraged of our ability to manipulate the strength of the learned aversion by

changing the concentration of LiCl and taking animals through a strong aversive conditioning

scheme (0.30M LiCl, 1% b.w.). This concentration and dosage of LiCl has been previously

demonstrated to result in a maximum aversion to the CS (Nachman & Ashe, 1973). Using this

approach, we found that after a single conditioning trial, animals can form a long-lasting generalized

aversion that persists up to two weeks post-CTA training. This persistence, to our knowledge, is

longer than any reported thus far in the CTA literature on generalization (Domjan, 1975; Parker &

Revusky, 1982; Richardson, Williams, & Riccio, 1984; Smith & Theodore, 1984; Frank & Nowlis,

1989; Chotro & Alonso, 1999; Heyer et al., 2003; Baird, St. John, & Nguyen, 2005; Smith et al.,

2012; Angulo, 2018). The ethological significance of this behavior and the mechanism by which this

generalization is occurring remain to be worked out. One possibility is that strong aversive

conditioning results in a state of long-lasting enhanced caution towards novel stimuli to protect the

animal from further toxicosis. This may reflect toxicosis induced enhanced neophobia, where CTA

produces enhancement to an already decreased intake of unfamiliar, novel stimuli (Domjan, 1975;

Reilly & Schachtman, 2008; Lin et al., 2012). In the context of associative learning, generalization is

thought to occur more easily across stimuli that share "elements" with each other (McLaren &

Mackintosh, 2002). But what these elementary features are with respect to tastants and CTA is

unknown. In addition to basic taste modality (sweet, sour, salty, etc.…) the GC has been shown to

encode other taste features such as identity, palatability, and novelty/familiarity, all of which are

elements to potentially evaluate taste stimuli by (Gallo, Roldan, & Bures, 1992; Lin et al., 2012;

Flores et al., 2018; Mukherjee, Wachutka, & Katz, 2019). In our study, what elementary features are

shared by salt, the generalized tastant, and saccharin, the conditioned stimulus, remain to be

identified. The results of future experiments will further our understanding regarding whether this is

truly stimulus generalization between saccharin and salt, or an avoidance like behavior similar to

enhanced neophobia.

Our electrophysiology experiments found that the long-lasting generalized aversion resulting from

strong CTA correlated with a similarly persistent increase in postsynaptic strengths in both RAM$^+$

and RAM$^-$ cells. There are several possible interpretations regarding why RAM$^-$ cells, many of which

are presumably not activated during conditioning, also exhibit an increase in postsynaptic strengths

post-conditioning. One possibility is that these cells could be infected with RAM virus, but

expression of tdTomato is below the threshold required for detection during live-cell recording. This

is unlikely because in all our experiments, cells were recovered post-hoc using biocytin fills and

stained against tdTomato, which would amplify the signal and allow us to detect even very low levels

of RAM expression. Another possibility is that these cells are not transfected with the virally

expressed RAM system and are activated by conditioning. We cannot exclude this possibility using

our current methodology. However, it is unlikely that all RAM⁻ neurons fall into this category, given

that our recordings were performed on neighboring RAM⁺ and RAM⁻ neurons within cortical areas

showing high tdTomato expression. The last possibility is that these are cells infected with RAM

virus, but not activated during conditioning (true RAM⁻). It is possible that RAM⁻ cells are later

recruited during memory consolidation, thereby manifesting changes in synaptic strength. CTA

conditioning is known to induce dynamic changes in firing rate within GC, which may suggest that

different neuronal populations may undergo changes in synaptic plasticity on distinct time scales

post-conditioning and this temporal activation facilitates the formation of an aversive memory

(Moran & Katz, 2014; Arieli, Younis, & Moran, 2021). Additionally, previous studies have

documented changes in synaptic strength in GC neurons following CTA training without an activity

dependent labeling scheme, suggesting that synaptic plasticity occurs across a large population of

cells in GC (Haley et al., 2020). Taken together, these findings hint at the possibility of GC-wide

induction of synaptic plasticity following CTA conditioning. The strong correlation between

generalized aversion and this strengthening, including the ability to reverse both by salt exposure,

suggests that this strengthening could be causally involved in the expression of the generalized

aversion, but more experiments are needed to establish causality.

Our previous experiments revealed that synaptic downscaling of postsynaptic strengths was

important for reversing the transient generalized aversion resulting from moderate CTA training, and

establishing CTA specificity (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Whether a similar mechanism is involved in

the experience dependent reversal of the long-lasting generalized aversion is unknown. The

experiments presented in **Figure 4** demonstrate that as soon as 2 hours following salt exposure,

mEPSC amplitudes are significantly decreased. The decrease in mEPSC amplitude is more

pronounced 24 hours after salt exposure, suggesting that this depotentiation of postsynaptic strengths

is initiated rapidly and continues to unfold slowly over the course of 24 hours. No changes were

observed following salt exposure in animals that underwent moderate CTA conditioning. These data

reveal a strong correlation between the experience dependent reversal of the long-lasting generalized

aversion and reversal of the increases in postsynaptic strength following salt exposure. Several forms

of synaptic plasticity could potentially drive this decrease in postsynaptic strength. First, previous

research has demonstrated that LTD is involved in the extinction of CTA (Li et al., 2016), and salt

exposure may induce LTD in a similar fashion during reversal of the generalized aversion.

Alternatively, strong CTA conditioning may induce cellular mechanisms that over-power

homeostatic synaptic scaling and prevent the transition from generalized to specific taste aversion. In

this scenario, downscaling becomes "gated" by future tastant experiences. Recent research on the

behavioral-state gating of homeostatic plasticity supports this possibility (Hengen et al., 2016;

Torrado Pacheco et al., 2021). Future experiments that use antagonists targeting specific forms of

synaptic plasticity will clarify the mechanisms that drive the reversal of postsynaptic strengths after

salt exposure and could reveal important insights into how we can reverse or weaken more persistent

forms of memory generalization.

GC consists of superficial and deep layers that receive distinct projections from sub-cortical nuclei

important for CTA learning. For example, inputs from the gustatory thalamus have been shown to be

uniformly diffused across the GC, with a slight bias for the granular layer (layer IV) and layer V

(Allen et al., 1991; Nakashima et al., 2000; Maffei, Haley, & Fontanini, 2012). In contrast, the

amygdala projects to both superficial and deep layers of GC, but the magnitude of these inputs is

larger in the superficial layers (Haley, Fontanini, & Maffei, 2016). Compared to other sensory

cortices, such as visual cortex, little work has been done to characterize the synaptic properties of

distinct inputs into distinct layers of GC (Maffei, Haley, & Fontanini, 2012). Even less is known

about how these different inputs are modulated by CTA learning and whether there exist layer

specific motifs. Our finding that strong CTA conditioning produces increases in postsynaptic

strengths in RAM$^+$ and RAM$^-$ neurons in both superficial and deep layers further supports the notion

that CTA results in a GC-wide induction of synaptic plasticity. During reversal, the reduction in

postsynaptic strength is more pronounced in superficial layers of GC. In comparison, little to no

change was observed across layers in the moderate CTA animals following salt exposure. Altogether,

these data suggest that while CTA learning induces region-wide changes in postsynaptic strengths, a

layer specific plasticity mechanism may be responsible for the establishment and reversal of the

generalized aversion. Given that superficial layers receive inputs from multiple subcortical nuclei, it

will require further experiments to isolate specific populations of synaptic inputs in which the

generalized tastant-induced changes in synaptic plasticity occur.

Experiments on short- and long-term memory have previously revealed that these different types of

memory, operating over distinct time scales, produce short- and long-term changes in synaptic

efficacy, respectively (Kandel et al., 2013; Kandel, Dudai, & Mayford, 2014). Whether similar

mechanisms are at work in the context of memory generalization remained unknown. Our previous

experiments using moderate CTA conditioning revealed that a transient generalized aversion was

correlated with transient changes in synaptic strength, analogous to the short-term changes observed

during short-term memory (Wu, Ramos, et al., 2021). Here, we found that the long-lasting

generalized aversion resulting from strong CTA correlated with a similarly long-lasting increase in

postsynaptic strengths, analogous to changes seen in long-term memory formation (Kandel, 2012;

Kandel, Dudai, & Mayford, 2014; Takeuchi, Duszkiewicz, & Morris, 2014). Finally, exposure to salt

rapidly reversed the generalized aversion without impacting the retrieval of CTA memory at later

time points, suggesting that the encoding of CTA and the generalized aversion either use distinct

mechanisms or occur in distinct populations of cells. Our data provides evidence for the latter and

suggests that the different layers of GC play functionally distinct roles in CTA memory. These

findings suggest an interesting hypothesis: that changes within the conditioning-active ensemble are

important for the initial acquisition of CTA memory, but after acquisition, the CTA conditioning-

active neuronal ensemble functionally diverges, and cells in the superficial layers instead work to

support the generalized aversion while cells in the deep layers are dedicated to the specific taste

aversion learned against the CS. This hypothesis is supported by evidence from studies in the

hippocampus where it was found that within an engram ensemble there exists functionally

heterogeneous populations of neurons that work to govern the balance of memory generalization and

specificity (Sun et al., 2020). Furthermore, these functionally distinct ensembles are genetically

defined based on their immediate early gene expression profile, either *Npas4* or *Fos*, both of which

are transcriptional pathways labeled by our RAM system (Sørensen et al., 2016). If this hypothesis is

correct, it will yield a new perspective regarding the CTA-conditioning active ensemble, CTA-

memory retrieval, and memory generalization.

5   Data Availability Statement

All data generated from these experiments are included in the figures and supplemental figures. Raw

data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors upon request.

Custom MATLAB scripts used for the analyses of electrophysiology data can be found at

https://github.com/BrianAndCary/papers/tree/master/bcary2020_paper/mini_FI_GUI.

6   Author Contributions

These experiments were conceptualized by RR, CHW, and GGT. The behavior experiments were

carried out by RR and CHW. RR performed the electrophysiology experiments, immunofluorescence

staining, and analysis. RR wrote the original draft of this manuscript. RR, CHW, and GGT reviewed

and edited the manuscript together.

7   Funding

This work was funded by NIH grant R35NS 111562 (GGT) and NS108506 (RR).

8   Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

9   Acknowledgments

We thank Don Katz, Bradly Stone, Jian-You Lin and members of the Turrigiano Lab for critical
feedback on these experiments. Additionally, we thank Arianna Maffei for constructive feedback on
an earlier draft of this manuscript.

10   References

459   Allen, G. V., Saper, C. B., Hurley, K. M., & Cechetto, D. F. (1991). Organization of visceral and
460   limbic connections in the insular cortex of the rat. The Journal of Comparative Neurology, 311(1), 1–
461   16.
462
463   Angulo, R. (2018). Pre-exposure Schedule Effects on Generalization of Taste Aversion and
464   Palatability for Thirsty and Not Thirsty Rats. Frontiers in Psychology, 9, 878.
465
466   Arieli, E., Younis, N., & Moran, A. (2021). Distinct progressions of neuronal activity changes
467   underlie the formation and consolidation of a gustatory associative memory. The Journal of
468   Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for Neuroscience.
469   https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1599-21.2021
470
471   Asok, A., Kandel, E. R., & Rayman, J. B. (2019). The Neurobiology of Fear Generalization.
472   Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience, 12, 329.
473
474   Avenet, P., & Lindemann, B. (1988). Amiloride-blockable sodium currents in isolated taste receptor
475   cells. In The Journal of Membrane Biology (Vol. 105, Issue 3, pp. 245–255).
476   https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01871001
477
478   Baird, J.-P., St John, S. J., & Nguyen, E. A.-N. (2005). Temporal and qualitative dynamics of
479   conditioned taste aversion processing: combined generalization testing and licking microstructure
480   analysis. Behavioral Neuroscience, 119(4), 983–1003.
481
482   Bures, J., Bermúdez-Rattoni, F., & Yamamoto, T. (1998). Conditioned taste aversion: Memory of a
483   special kind. Oxford Psychology Series No. 31., 178.
484
485   Cary, B. A., & Turrigiano, G. G. (2021). Stability of neocortical synapses across sleep and wake
486   states during the critical period in rats. eLife, 10. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.66304
487
Chotro, M. G., & Alonso, G. (1999). Effects of stimulus preexposure on the generalization of
conditioned taste aversions in infant rats. Developmental Psychobiology, 35(4), 304–317.

Domjan, M. (1975). Poison-induced neophobia in rats: Role of stimulus generalization of

conditioned taste aversions. Animal Learning & Behavior, 3(3), 205–211.

Dunsmoor, J. E., & Paz, R. (2015). Fear Generalization and Anxiety: Behavioral and Neural

Mechanisms. Biological Psychiatry, 78(5), 336–343.

Flores, V. L., Parmet, T., Mukherjee, N., Nelson, S., Katz, D. B., & Levitan, D. (2018). The role of

the gustatory cortex in incidental experience-evoked enhancement of later taste learning. Learning &

Memory, 25(11), 587–600.

Frank, M. E., & Nowlis, G. H. (1989). Learned aversions and taste qualities in hamsters. Chemical

Senses, 14(3), 379–394.

Gallo, M., Roldan, G., & Bures, J. (1992). Differential involvement of gustatory insular cortex and

amygdala in the acquisition and retrieval of conditioned taste aversion in rats. Behavioural Brain

Research, 52(1), 91–97.

Haley, M., Bruno, S., Fontanini, A., & Maffei, A. (2020). LTD at amygdalocortical synapses as a

novel mechanism for hedonic learning. eLife.

Haley, M. S., Fontanini, A., & Maffei, A. (2016). Laminar- and Target-Specific Amygdalar Inputs in

Rat Primary Gustatory Cortex. The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for

Neuroscience, 36(9), 2623–2637.

Heck, G. L., Mierson, S., & DeSimone, J. A. (1984). Salt taste transduction occurs through an

amiloride-sensitive sodium transport pathway. Science, 223(4634), 403–405.

Hengen, K. B., Torrado Pacheco, A., McGregor, J. N., Van Hooser, S. D., & Turrigiano, G. G.

(2016). Neuronal Firing Rate Homeostasis Is Inhibited by Sleep and Promoted by Wake. Cell,

165(1), 180–191.

Heyer, B. R., Taylor-Burds, C. C., Tran, L. H., & Delay, E. R. (2003). Monosodium glutamate and

sweet taste: generalization of conditioned taste aversion between glutamate and sweet stimuli in rats.

Chemical Senses, 28(7), 631–641.

Josselyn, S. A., & Tonegawa, S. (2020). Memory engrams: Recalling the past and imagining the

future. Science, 367(6473).

Kandel, E. R. (2012). The molecular biology of memory: cAMP, PKA, CRE, CREB-1, CREB-2, and

CPEB. Molecular Brain, 5, 14.

Kandel, E. R., Dudai, Y., & Mayford, M. R. (2014). The molecular and systems biology of memory.

Cell, 157(1), 163–186.

Kandel, E. R., Schwartz, J. H., Jessell, T. M., Siegelbaum, S. A., & Hudspeth, A. J. (2013).

Principles of Neural Science, Fifth Edition. McGraw Hill Professional.

Kheirbek, M. A., Klemenhagen, K. C., Sahay, A., & Hen, R. (2012). Neurogenesis and

generalization: a new approach to stratify and treat anxiety disorders. Nature Neuroscience, 15(12),

1613–1620.

Kiefer, S. W., & Braun, J. J. (1977). Absence of differential associative responses to novel and

familiar taste stimuli in rats lacking gustatory neocortex. Journal of Comparative and Physiological

Psychology, 91(3), 498–507.

Kiefer, S. W., & Braun, J. J. (1979). Acquisition of taste avoidance habits in rats lacking gustatory

neocortex. Physiological Psychology, 7(3), 245–250.

Li, W.-G., Liu, M.-G., Deng, S., Liu, Y.-M., Shang, L., Ding, J., Hsu, T.-T., Jiang, Q., Li, Y., Li, F.,

Zhu, M. X., & Xu, T.-L. (2016). ASIC1a regulates insular long-term depression and is required for

the extinction of conditioned taste aversion. Nature Communications, 7, 13770.

Lin, J.-Y., Roman, C., Arthurs, J., & Reilly, S. (2012). Taste neophobia and c-Fos expression in the

rat brain. Brain Research, 1448, 82–88.

Maffei, A., Haley, M., & Fontanini, A. (2012). Neural processing of gustatory information in insular

circuits. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 22(4), 709–716.

Mahan, A. L., & Ressler, K. J. (2012). Fear conditioning, synaptic plasticity and the amygdala:

implications for posttraumatic stress disorder. Trends in Neurosciences, 35(1), 24–35.

McLaren, I. P. L., & Mackintosh, N. J. (2002). Associative learning and elemental representation: II.

Generalization and discrimination. Animal Learning & Behavior, 30(3), 177–200.

Miska, N. J., Richter, L. M., Cary, B. A., Gjorgjieva, J., & Turrigiano, G. G. (2018). Sensory

experience inversely regulates feedforward and feedback excitation-inhibition ratio in rodent visual

cortex. eLife, 7. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.38846

Moran, A., & Katz, D. B. (2014). Sensory cortical population dynamics uniquely track behavior

across learning and extinction. The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the Society for

Neuroscience, 34(4), 1248–1257.

Mukherjee, N., Wachutka, J., & Katz, D. B. (2019). Impact of precisely-timed inhibition of gustatory

cortex on taste behavior depends on single-trial ensemble dynamics. eLife, 8.

Nachman, M., & Ashe, J. H. (1973). Learned taste aversions in rats as a function of dosage,

concentration, and route of administration of LiCl. Physiology & Behavior, 10(1), 73–78.

Nakashima, M., Uemura, M., Yasui, K., Ozaki, H. S., Tabata, S., & Taen, A. (2000). An anterograde

and retrograde tract-tracing study on the projections from the thalamic gustatory area in the rat:

distribution of neurons projecting to the insular cortex and amygdaloid complex. In Neuroscience

Research (Vol. 36, Issue 4, pp. 297–309). https://doi.org/10.1016/s0168-0102(99)00129-7

Parker, L. A., & Revusky, S. (1982). Generalized conditioned flavor aversions: Effects of toxicosis

training with one flavor on the preference for different novel flavors. Animal Learning & Behavior,

10(4), 505–510.

Ramirez, M.L. (2020). UnivarScatter.https://github.com/manulera/UnivarScatter.

Reilly, S., & Schachtman, T. R. (2008). Conditioned Taste Aversion: Neural and Behavioral

Processes. Oxford University Press.

Richardson, R., Williams, C., & Riccio, D. C. (1984). Stimulus generalization of conditioned taste

aversion in rats. Behavioral and Neural Biology, 41(1), 41–53.

Shepard, R. N. (1987). Toward a universal law of generalization for psychological science. Science,

237(4820), 1317–1323.

Smith, D. V., & Theodore, R. M. (1984). Conditioned taste aversions: generalization to taste

mixtures. Physiology & Behavior, 32(6), 983–989.

Smith, K. R., Treesukosol, Y., Paedae, A. B., Contreras, R. J., & Spector, A. C. (2012). Contribution

of the TRPV1 channel to salt taste quality in mice as assessed by conditioned taste aversion

generalization and chorda tympani nerve responses. American Journal of Physiology. Regulatory,

Integrative and Comparative Physiology, 303(11), R1195–R1205.

Sørensen, A. T., Cooper, Y. A., Baratta, M. V., Weng, F.-J., Zhang, Y., Ramamoorthi, K., Fropf, R.,

LaVerriere, E., Xue, J., Young, A., Schneider, C., Gøtzsche, C. R., Hemberg, M., Yin, J. C., Maier,

S. F., & Lin, Y. (2016). A robust activity marking system for exploring active neuronal ensembles.

eLife, 5. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.13918

Sun, X., Bernstein, M. J., Meng, M., Rao, S., Sørensen, A. T., Yao, L., Zhang, X., Anikeeva, P. O., &

Lin, Y. (2020). Functionally Distinct Neuronal Ensembles within the Memory Engram. Cell, 181(2),

410–423.e17.

Takeuchi, T., Duszkiewicz, A. J., & Morris, R. G. M. (2014). The synaptic plasticity and memory

hypothesis: encoding, storage and persistence. In Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B:

Biological Sciences (Vol. 369, Issue 1633, p. 20130288). https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2013.0288

Ting, J. T., Daigle, T. L., Chen, Q., & Feng, G. (2014). Acute Brain Slice Methods for Adult and

Aging Animals: Application of Targeted Patch Clamp Analysis and Optogenetics. In M. Martina &

S. Taverna (Eds.), Patch-Clamp Methods and Protocols (pp. 221–242). Springer New York.

Torrado Pacheco, A., Bottorff, J., Gao, Y., & Turrigiano, G. G. (2021). Sleep Promotes Downward

Firing Rate Homeostasis. Neuron, 109(3), 530–544.e6.

Wu, C.-H., Ramos, R., Katz, D. B., & Turrigiano, G. G. (2021). Homeostatic synaptic scaling

establishes the specificity of an associative memory. Current Biology: CB, 31(11), 2274–2285.e5.

11   Figure Captions

Figure 1. Strong aversive conditioning triggers a long-lasting generalized aversion. (**A**) Two-bottle

CTA learning paradigm for testing the persistence of the generalized aversion. (**B**) Gen. test; preference

score for salt tested 3 days post-conditioning (two-sample t test, p = 0.0220). (**C**) SCTA repeated Gen.

test; preference for salt tested at 3-, 4-, and 5-days post-conditioning (One-way ANOVA, p = 0.0036;

Tukey-Kramer post-hoc tests, day 3 vs day 4, p = 0.0184; day3 vs day 5, p = 0.0047; day 4 vs day 5, p

= 0.8430). (**D**) MCTA repeated Gen. test; preference for salt tested at 3-, 4-, and 5-days post-

conditioning (One-way ANOVA, p = 0.0716). (**E**) CTA test; preference score for saccharin of 3-day

experimental conditions (two-sample t test, p = 0.4387).

Figure 2. Strong CTA-induced generalized aversion can be observed up to two-weeks post-

conditioning (**A**) Two-bottle CTA learning paradigm for testing the persistence of the generalized

aversion at 7-, 10-, and 14-days post-conditioning. (**B**) Repeated Gen. test; preference score for NaCl

tested 7-, 10-, and 14-days experimental conditions. Each test is separated by a 24-hour interval. (**C**)

CTA test; preference score for saccharin of long-duration experimental conditions.

Figure 3. Strong aversive conditioning drives a long-lasting increase in postsynaptic strength. (**A**)

Experimental design. (**B**) Biocytin fills (cyan) of RAM$^+$ (magenta; white arrows) and RAM$^-$ (yellow

arrows) pyramidal cells in gustatory cortex. (**C**) Representative mEPSC recordings. (**D**) Cell-average

mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells 3 days post-conditioning (two-sample t test, p = 0.0035). (**E**) Cell-

average mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^-$ cells 3 days post-conditioning (two-sample t test, p = 0.0224).

Figure 4. Experience with salt rapidly reverses increases in postsynaptic strength. (**A**) Experimental

design. (**B**) SCTA cell-average mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells 2- and 24-hours post-salt exposure.

Green dashed line represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells in SCTA no-salt exposure

conditions (**Figure 3D**; one-sample t test against hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.0018, 24 hours, p

= 5.5750e-06). (**C**) MCTA cell-average mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells 2- and 24-hours post-salt

exposure. Green dashed line represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells in MCTA no-salt

exposure conditions (**Figure 3D**; one-sample t test against hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.0857, 24

hours, p = 0.7945).

Figure 5. Distinct layer processes govern the induction and reversal of generalization. (**A**) Biocytin

fills (cyan) of cells recorded from the superficial and deep layers of gustatory cortex. (**B**) Cell-average

mEPSC amplitudes of pooled RAM$^+$ and RAM$^-$ cells 3 days post-conditioning sorted by superficial

and deep layers (superficial layers, two-sample t test, p = 0.0104; deep layers, two-sample t test, p =

0.0498). (**C**) SCTA cell-average mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells from superficial layers 2- and 24-

hours post-salt exposure. Green dashed line represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells

from superficial layers in SCTA no-salt exposure conditions (**Figure 5B**; one-sample t test against

hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.0355, 24 hours, p = 2.7205e-05). (**D**) SCTA cell-average mEPSC

amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells from deep layers 2- and 24-hours post-salt exposure. Green dashed line

represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells from deep layers in SCTA no-salt exposure

conditions (**Figure 5B**; one-sample t test against hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.1929, 24 hours, p

= 0.2087). (**E**) MCTA cell-average mEPSC amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells from superficial layers 2- and

24-hours post-salt exposure. Green dashed line represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells

from superficial layers in MCTA no-salt exposure conditions (**Figure 5B**; one-sample t test against

hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.0166, 24 hours, p = 0.7606). (**F**) MCTA cell-average mEPSC

amplitudes of RAM$^+$ cells from deep layers 2- and 24-hours post-salt exposure. Green dashed line

represents average mEPSC amplitude from RAM$^+$ cells from deep layers in MCTA no-salt exposure

conditions (**Figure 5B**; one-sample t test against hypothesized mean, 2 hours, p = 0.7262, 24 hours, p

= 0.5056).

A

B

Gen. Tests

○ 7 Days
◑ 10 Days
● 14 Days

Tastant Preference Score

Gen. Tests

C

CTA Test

Tastant Preference Score

7 Days   10 Days   14 Days

A Virus Injection 1 Week | CTA Conditioning 24 Hrs 2 Hrs 3Days → Recording

DOX ON | DOX OFF | DOX ON

B RAM / Biocytin / Merge — 50um

C MCTA(RAM+) / SCTA(RAM+) / MCTA(RAM-) / SCTA(RAM-) — 20pA 500mS

D mEPSC Amplitude (pA) — MCTA vs SCTA — ** — RAM+

E mEPSC Amplitude (pA) — MCTA vs SCTA — * — RAM-

Figure 5