Dnmt3a1 regulates hippocampus-dependent memory via the downstream target Nrp1

Janina Kupke[1,2], Julien Klimmt[1,3,#], Franziska Mudlaff[1,4,#], Maximilian Schwab[1,5], Pavlo

Lutsik[6,7], Christoph Plass[6], Carsten Sticht[8] and Ana M.M. Oliveira[1,9,*]

[1]Department of Neurobiology, Interdisciplinary Center for Neurosciences (IZN), Heidelberg

University, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

[2]Present address: Department of Molecular and Cellular Neurobiology, Center for

Neurogenomics and Cognitive Research, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, 1081 HV, Netherlands

[3]Present address: Institute for Stroke and Dementia Research, University Hospital, Ludwig-

Maximilians-University Munich, 81377 Munich, Germany

[4]Present address: Integrated Program in Neuroscience, McGill University, Montreal, QC H3A

2B4, Canada; Centre for Research in Neuroscience, Research Institute of the McGill

University Health Centre, Montreal QC, H3G 1A4, Canada

[5]Present address: Department of Medical Oncology, National Center for Tumor Diseases

(NCT) Heidelberg, University Hospital Heidelberg, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

[6]Division of Cancer Epigenomics, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), 69120

Heidelberg, Germany

[7]Department of Oncology, KU Leuven, 3000 Leuven, Belgium

[8]Next Generation Sequencing Core Facility, Medical Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg

University, 68167, Mannheim, Germany

[9]Department of Molecular and Cellular Cognition Research, Central Institute of Mental Health,

Medical Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg University, 68159 Mannheim, Germany

[#]equal contribution

*Ana M.M. Oliveira. Department of Molecular and Cellular Cognition Research, Central

Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg University, 68159

Mannheim, Germany. Phone: +49(0)62215416510. Email: oliveira@nbio.uni-heidelberg.de,

ana.oliveira@zi-manheim.de

Abstract

Epigenetic factors are well established players in memory formation. Specifically, DNA
methylation is necessary for the formation of long-term memory in multiple brain regions
including the hippocampus. Despite the demonstrated role for DNA methyltransferases
(Dnmts) in memory formation, it is unclear whether individual Dnmts have unique or redundant
functions in long-term memory formation. Furthermore, the downstream processes controlled
by Dnmts during memory consolidation have not been investigated. In this study, we
demonstrated that Dnmt3a1, the predominant Dnmt in the adult brain, is required for long-
term spatial object recognition and contextual fear memory. Using RNA-sequencing, we
identified an activity-regulated Dnmt3a1-dependent genomic program in which several genes
were associated with functional and structural plasticity. Furthermore, we found that some of
the identified genes are selectively dependent on Dnmt3a1, but not its isoform Dnmt3a2.
Specifically, we identified Neuropilin 1 (Nrp1) as a downstream target of Dnmt3a1 and further
demonstrated the involvement of Nrp1 in hippocampus-dependent memory formation.
Importantly, we found that Dnmt3a1 regulates hippocampus-dependent memory via Nrp1. In
contrast, Nrp1 overexpression did not rescue memory impairments triggered by reduced
Dnmt3a2 levels. Taken together, our study uncovered a Dnmt3a-isoform-specific mechanism
in memory formation, identified a novel regulator of memory, and further highlighted the
complex and highly regulated functions of distinct epigenetic regulators in brain function.

Introduction

Precise control of gene transcription is required for the functional and structural neuronal remodelling that underlies memory formation and maintenance[1–3]. Gene transcription is orchestrated by the activity of transcription factors[4,5], epigenetic factors, and 3D-genomic factors such as chromatin structure or nuclear organization[6–9]. Indeed, epigenetic mechanisms such as DNA methylation have emerged as important regulators of cognitive processes[8].

DNA methylation has traditionally been viewed as a static mechanism with important roles in transcription repression, cell fate determination, imprinting and silencing of transposons during early development [10]. However, it is now well accepted that DNA methylation plays a critical role in the regulation of genomic responses in mature neurons. Several lines of evidence demonstrated dynamic and quick changes in DNA methylation in response to neuronal activity[11,12] and pharmacological and genetic studies established a causal link between DNA methyltransferase (Dnmt) activity and memory formation. Specifically, the *de novo* DNA methyltransferase, Dnmt3a, plays a documented function in cognitive abilities[13–17]. Furthermore, it has recently been shown that *DNMT3A* variants are the underlying cause of the neurodevelopmental disorder Tatton-Brown-Rahman syndrome, which is characterized by intellectual disability[18,19]. Despite this evidence, the downstream processes regulated by Dnmt3a that contribute to memory formation are unknown. Moreover, the genomic program regulated by Dnmt3a and required for the formation of long-term memory remains uncovered.

The Dnmt3a genomic locus gives rise to two isoforms, Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2[20], that exhibit different genomic binding[21] and expression regulation in response to neuronal activity. Dnmt3a2 is transcribed from an intronic promoter and behaves like an immediate early gene, whereas the expression of Dnmt3a1 is not regulated at the level of transcription by neuronal activity[22–24]. The requirement for Dnmt3a2 in memory formation has been demonstrated[23–25]; however, the contribution of Dnmt3a1, despite its high abundance in

the adult brain(26–28) has not been investigated. The differential regulation of expression of

the two isoforms by neuronal activity and the studies that showed that normal Dnmt3a1

expression levels do not compensate the memory impairments found in Dnmt3a2 knockdown

mice (23,24,29,30), suggest nonredundant functions by the two isoforms. However, whether

the two enzymes are differentially required for and regulate distinct downstream processes

during memory formation remains to be investigated.

In this study, we demonstrated that Dnmt3a1 is crucial for memory formation and for

controlling an activity-regulated genomic program. We found that acute hippocampal reduction

of Dnmt3a1 led to memory impairments in adult mice in the spatial object recognition test and

contextual fear conditioning tasks without affecting hippocampus-independent tasks.

Moreover, using RNA Sequencing analysis, we identified activity-regulated genes dependent

on Dnmt3a1 levels. Intriguingly, we found that some of the identified genes are selectively

dependent on Dnmt3a1, but not Dnmt3a2. Among these genes was Neuropilin-1 (Nrp1), a

member of the semaphorin complex with an established function in synaptic plasticity(31,32).

In a next step, we demonstrated the involvement of Nrp1 in long-term spatial object recognition

and contextual fear memories. Furthermore, we showed that Dnmt3a1 regulates

hippocampus-dependent memory via Nrp1. In contrast, Nrp1 overexpression did not rescue

memory impairments triggered by reduced Dnmt3a2 levels, suggesting an isoform-specific

mechanism for memory processes. Taken together these findings uncovered a Dnmt3a1-

dependent genomic program and identified a downstream effector during memory formation.

Materials and Methods

Animals.

3-month-old C57BL/6N male mice (Charles River, Sulzfeld, Germany) were used and housed

2-3 per cage (except during severe fighting) with *ad libitum* access to water and food, under

a 12h light/dark cycle at 22 ± 1°C and 55 ± 10% relative humidity. Behavioural experiments

were conducted during the light phase. Mice that were sick or injured were excluded. Uninjured

cage mates were kept in the study. Performance exclusion criteria were applied to the spatial

object recognition task as described below. Animals were randomly assigned to experimental

groups and analysis was conducted blindly. Procedures complied with German animal care

guidelines and European Community Council Directive 86/609/EEC.

Recombinant Adeno Associated Virus (rAAV) production.

Viral particles were produced and purified as described previously(33) with minor

modifications. Specifically, AAV-293 cells (Stratagene #240073, California, USA) were used

for co-transfection of target AAV plasmid and helper plasmids (pFΔ6, pRV1, and pH21). Viral

particles in media were concentrated by incubation with 40% Polyethylene glycol (PEG)

solution (pH 7,4) for 3h at 4°C and centrifugation. The viral pellet was added to lysed HEK

cells prior to purification and concentration. For expression of shRNAs, we used a vector

containing the U6 promoter upstream of the shRNA sequence and a chicken β-actin promoter

to drive GFP expression. The sequences are as following: Dnmt3a1-shRNA1:

GCAGACCAACATCGAATCCAT;   Dnmt3a1-shRNA2:

GGGAGGATGATCGAAAGGAAGGAGA;   Dnmt3a2-shRNA:

ACGGGCAGCTATTTACAGAGC; Nrp1-shRNA1: GGAAACCAAGAAGAAATATTA; Nrp1-

shRNA2: GGGAGAGGAAATCGGAGCTAA; Control-shRNA: ACTACCGTTGTTATAGGTG.

For temporally controlled knockdown of Dnmt3a1, we used a dual-component TetON-based

system. The driver plasmid contained a neuron-specific promoter (hSynapsin) controlling the

transactivator (rtTA), the tetracycline repressor (TetR) and Kusabira Orange (KO). The second

construct contained GFP and a miR30-based shRNA targeting Dnmt3a1 controlled by the

tetracycline-responsive promoter (TRE). This vector was generated using the plasmids

pPRIME-CMV-GFP-FF3(34) (a gift from Stephen Elledge (Addgene plasmid # 11663;

http://n2t.net/addgene:11663;   RRID:Addgene_11663))   and   pAAV-PTRE-tight-hM3Dg-

mCherry(35) (a gift from William Wisden [Addgene plasmid # 66795;

http://n2t.net/addgene:66795; RRID:Addgene_66795]). Specifically, the Dnmt3a1-shRNA1

sequence was inserted into the pPRIME vector and subsequently, the GFP-miR30-Dnmt3a1-

shRNA expression cassette was subcloned into the vector containing the Tet-inducible

promoter by replacement of the hM3Dq-mCherry insert. The overexpression of Nrp1-HA or a

control gene, was achieved by placing HA-tagged Nrp1 or LacZ under the control of hSynapsin

promoter, respectively. The infection rate, toxicity, viral titer, and knockdown efficiency for

each batch of generated viruses were evaluated. The final titer was around 1-2 x10^{12} viral

particles/ml.

Fluorescent labelling.

Sedated mice underwent intracardial perfusion with ice-cold PBS followed by 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA, Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany). Brains were post-fixed overnight

with 4% PFA solution at 4°C and subsequently transferred to 30% sucrose (in PBS). 30 µm

slices were cut using a cryotome (CM1950, Leica), and incubated in Hoechst 33258 (2 µg/ml,

Serva, Heidelberg, Germany) for 5 min. Slices were imaged using a 20x oil objective on a TCS

SP8 confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems, Oberkochen, Germany).

Stereotaxic surgery.

rAAVs were injected into the dorsal hippocampus (dHPC) at the following coordinates relative

to the bregma: -2 mm anteroposterior, ± 1.5 mm mediolateral, -1.7, -1.9, and -2.1 mm

dorsoventral from bregma. Each spot received 500 nl of viral solution injected at a speed of

200 nl/min through a 33G needle. After injections at each site, the needle was left in place for

60 s. During behavioural experiments, the experimenter was blinded to the virus injected into

each mouse. Behavioural testing commenced 3 weeks after rAAV delivery.

Behavioural testing.

Before behavioural testing, mice were habituated to the experimenter and behavioural room

by handling for 3 consecutive days, 1 min/mouse. Different mouse cohorts were used for

testing short-term (1h) or long-term memory (24h). The spatial object recognition (SOR) test

and contextual fear conditioning (CFC) were performed as previously described(3). In SOR,

mice were habituated (6 min) to an arena (50 cm × 50 cm × 50 cm) with a visual cue placed

on the arena wall, followed by a training session that consisted of three 6 min-exposures (3

min intertrial interval) to two objects. In the testing session (1h or 24h later) one object was

moved to a new location and object exploration was scored for 6 min. If in one experimental

batch during the SOR test control animals did not show a preference, due to day effects, the

whole set of animals was excluded from this analysis but was still included in contextual fear

conditioning data. Further, an animal was excluded if total exploration time during testing was

inferior to 2 seconds. One week later, CFC was performed in which mice were allowed to

explore the conditioning chamber (23 × 23 × 35 cm, TSE, Bad Homburg, Germany) for 148 s

followed by a 2 s foot shock (0.5 mA). They remained 30 s in the conditioning chamber before

returning to their home cage (HC). During testing, mice were exposed 5 mins to the

conditioning chamber. Where applicable, mice received intraperitoneal doxycycline hyclate

(2.5 mg in 500 μL saline solution, 100mg/kg, Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) 3 days prior

to CFC.

The accelerating rotarod and cued fear conditioning were performed in an independent animal

cohort. The rotarod apparatus (Ugo Basile, Italy) had a 3-cm diameter rod with speed

increasing from 4 to 40 r.p.m. over 5 min. Testing occurred 3 times daily with 1-hour intervals

over 3 days. Trials began at the same time of the day and ended either with mice falling off or

after 300 s. In cued fear conditioning, mice were put into a chamber (23 × 23 × 35 cm, TSE,

Germany). A white noise cue (75dB) played from 2 to 2.5 minutes after placement, followed

by a 0.7 mA foot shock in the last 2 seconds of the cue. Mice stayed in the chamber for an

extra 30 seconds before returning to their cage. During testing, mice experienced a new

context for 6 minutes (different chamber, smooth flat floor, altered dimensions, and a novel

odor). The cue started 3 minutes after placing the mice in the chamber and lasted for 3

minutes.

Primary hippocampal cultures and pharmacological treatments.

Hippocampal cultures from newborn C57Bl/6N mice (Charles River, Sulzfeld, Germany) were

prepared and maintained as previously described(3). In brief, mice hippocampi were

dissociated at P0 by papain digestion and plated onto tissue culture dishes coated with poly-

D-lysine and laminin (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany). The primary cultures were

maintained for 8 days in Neurobasal-A medium (Gibco™) supplemented with 1% rat serum

(Biowest), 0.5 mM L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) and B27 (Gibco™),

followed by incubation in transfection media: salt-glucose-glycine solution (10 mM HEPES, pH

7.4, 114 mM NaCl, 26.1 mM NaHCO3, 5.3 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl2, 2 mM CaCl2, 30 mM

glucose, 1 mM glycine, 0.5 mM C3H3NaO3, and 0.001% phenol red) and phosphate-free

Eagle's minimum essential medium (9:1 v/v), supplemented with insulin (7.5 µg/ml), transferrin

(7.5 µg/ml), and sodium selenite (7.5 ng/ml) (ITS Liquid Media Supplement, Sigma-Aldrich,

Munich, Germany) and penicillin-streptomycin. rAAV infection occurred on day in vitro (DIV)

4. Experiments were performed on DIV 9-11. To induce action potential bursting, cultures were

treated with 50 µM bicuculline (Alexis Biochemicals, Farmingdale, NY, USA). DNA transfection

was performed on DIV 8 using Invitrogen Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, CA, USA). The DNA

(µg): Lipofectamine (µl) ratio was 1.6:5 in 1 ml of medium. The Lipofectamine/DNA mixture

was left on the cells for 3 h before it was replaced with a transfection medium. Doxycycline

hyclate (25 µM, Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) was introduced in the medium at DIV 8. To

monitor doxycycline dependency, images of infected primary neurons with the TetOn-based

miR30 system were acquired (Axio Vert.A1, Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

qRT-PCR primer design.

The quantitative reverse-transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) primers were designed with Primer3

(https://primer3.ut.ee/) using either the RefSeq curated annotation or the GENCODE VM23

comprehensive transcript annotation, along with the GRCm38/mm10 mouse genome

assembly. The specificity and amplicon product size of the primers were verified by BLAST

search and *in silico* PCR (UCSC Genome Browser, mm10). Primer pair efficiencies and

product melting curves were validated by qRT-PCR on serially diluted complementary DNA

(cDNA) from primary mouse hippocampal cultures (refer to the "qRT-PCR" section). The list

of all primers used in the study is provided in Sup Table 1.

qRT-PCR.

RNA from hippocampal cultures or tissue was extracted using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit

(Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with extra DNase I digestion on the column, following the

manufacturer's instructions. For extraction from mouse tissue, the infected region (identified

by GFP expression) was quickly dissected. RNA was transcribed into cDNA using the High-

Capacity cDNA reverse-transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). qRT-

PCR was performed on Step One Plus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster

City, CA, USA) using TaqMan gene expression assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA,

USA) or the Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) assays. The following

TaqMan gene expression assays were used: Dnmt1 (Mm00599763_m1), Dnmt3a1

(Mm00432870_m1), Dnmt3a2 (Mm00463987_m1), Dnmt3b (Mm00599800_m1) and the

housekeeping gene Gusb (Mm00446953_m1). Power SYBR Green PCR Master mix was

used for the remaining target genes. PCR reactions were run as technical triplicates in 10 µL

reactions (96-well format) using 0.5 µM of each primer. 2 µL of diluted cDNA (about 1.25 ng)

was added to each reaction. The thermal cycling was conducted with the following settings: a

10-minute incubation at 95 °C, 40 cycles of 10 seconds each at 95 °C, 60 °C, and 72 °C,

followed by a 15-second incubation at 95 °C. Melt curves were generated by heating from 60

°C to 90 °C at a ramp rate of 0.6 °C/min. Relative expression levels of each target transcript

were determined by the ΔΔCt method using beta-Actin mRNA levels as a reference(36).

Western Blotting.

Primary hippocampal neurons infected on DIV 4 were lysed on DIV 10 in boiling SDS sample

buffer (160 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 4% SDS, 30% glycerol, 10 mM dithiothreitol, and 0.02%

bromophenol blue). In the case of western blotting of tissue samples, dHPC was quickly

dissected in ice-cold PBS and homogenized in RIPA buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100,

0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 50 mM Tris, pH 8.0) supplemented with 1% protease

inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany). Protein concentration was measured by

Bradford assay and 20 μg of denatured protein (in Laemmli buffer at 95°C for 5 min) was

loaded in a 7.5% polyacrylamide gel and blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane (GE

Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK). The membranes were blocked in 5% milk in PBS with

0.01% Tween (PBST) and probed with the following antibodies (diluted in 5% milk in PBST)

overnight at 4 °C: α-Tubulin (1:400000, Sigma t9026), α-Dnmt3a (1:5000, H-295, Santa Cruz,

SC-20703), α-HA-tag (1:7500, Covance, MMS101R). The next day, membranes were

incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (1:5000 diluted in

5% milk in PBST) for 1h at room temperature. Finally, they were analysed using ChemiDoc™

Imaging System (Bio-Rad, California, USA).

Immunocytochemistry.

Primary hippocampal neurons plated on coverslips were rinsed with PBS and fixed with a

prewarmed solution of 4% PFA and 4% sucrose for 15 min at room temperature. After

permeabilizing the cells in ice-cold methanol for 6 min, blocking was performed with 10%

normal goat serum in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. Next, cells were incubated with primary

antibody α-Dnmt3a (1:500, H-295, Santa Cruz, SC-20703diluted in PBS containing 2% BSA,

0,1% Triton X-100) overnight at 4 °C, which continued with secondary antibody incubation

(1:500 goat anti-mouse Alexa488 [Life Technologies, Eugene, OR, USA]) diluted in PBS

containing 2% BSA, 0,1% Triton X-100) for 1 h at room temperature. Finally, coverslips were

treated with Hoechst 33258 (2 µg/ml, Serva, Heidelberg, Germany) for 5 min and mounted on

glass slides. Images were acquired with a 40x oil objective on a fluorescence microscope

(Leica Microsystems, Oberkochen, Germany).

Bulk RNA Sequencing.

Total RNA from mouse hippocampal cultures was isolated as above described and 500 ng of

total RNA was used for bulk RNA-sequencing. Libraries were sequenced as 100bp paired-

end reads, amounting to approximately 61 million reads per sample. Data processing was

performed with R (version 3.6.3) and bioconductor (version 3.9) in Rstudio (version 1.1.463).

Quality control of clean sequencing reads was performed using FastQC (Babraham

Bioinformatics). Low-quality reads were removed using trim_galore (version 0.6.4). The

resulting reads were aligned to the mouse genome version GRCm38.p6 and counted using

kallisto version 0.46.1 (37). The count data were transformed to log2-counts per million

(logCPM) using the voom-function from the limma package(38). Differential expression

analysis was performed using the limma package in R. A false positive rate of α= 0.05 with

FDR correction was taken as the level of significance. Volcano plots and heatmaps were

created using ggplot2 package (version 2.2.1) and the complexHeatmap package (version

2.0.0)(39). For enrichment analysis, we used the fgsea(40), the enrichmentbrowser(41), and

the Enrichr packages(42).

Statistical analysis.

Each data set was subjected to a normality test prior to further comparisons (Shapiro-Wilk

normality test; alpha = 0.05). For normally distributed data sets, a two-tailed unpaired

Student's t-test was performed to compare two groups. If more than two groups were analyzed

simultaneously, a one-way ANOVA was used followed by appropriate multiple comparison

post hoc tests to control for multiple comparisons as specified. In case of a non-Gaussian

distribution, two-tailed Mann-Whitney tests were used to compare two distinct groups, or a

Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn´s *post hoc* test to compare more than two groups. The

sample size was determined based on similar experiments carried out in the past and the

literature. All plotted data represent mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using

GraphPad Prism 7 (GraphPad Software). All behavioural sessions were video recorded and

manually scored to determine the exploration of objects during training and testing phases or

freezing behaviour by an experimenter blind to the group identity. The TSE Systems Fear

Conditioning program was used to score the mean velocity during the training for CFC.

Results

Dnmt3a1 is required for long-term memory formation

In this study, we sought to investigate the role of DNA methyltransferase 3a1 (Dnmt3a1) in

neuronal function and memory formation. We employed stereotaxic surgery and recombinant

adeno-associated viruses (rAAVs) to deliver a control shRNA sequence (Control-shRNA)(3)

or two independent shRNAs to knockdown Dnmt3a1 into the adult (8 weeks) dorsal

hippocampus (dHPC) of mice (Figure 1A, B). We used the rAAV1/2 serotype given its well

established neuronal tropism(43). To monitor viral expression upon infection, the viral

constructs contained a GFP cassette under the control of the chicken-beta-actin promoter

(Figure 1A, B). We confirmed knockdown efficiency of our shRNAs by transfection of primary

hippocampal neurons *in vitro* and immunostaining against endogenous Dnmt3a1 (Sup Figure

1A). To further validate the knockdown efficiency *in vivo*, we performed qRT-PCR and western

blot analysis of dHPC of mice infected with the viral constructs (Sup Figure 1B-G). We

confirmed that both sequences selectively knockdown Dnmt3a1 without affecting other *Dnmts*.

shRNA1 and shRNA2 sequences effectively reduced Dnmt3a1 expression at both the mRNA

(Sup Figure 1B; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; *Dnmt3a1*: $t_{(6)}$=6.28; *Dnmt3a2*: $t_{(6)}$=0.48; *Dnmt1*:

$t_{(6)}$=0.81; *Dnmt3b*: $t_{(6)}$=0.09; C; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; *Dnmt3a1*: $t_{(8)}$=5.94; *Dnmt3a2*:

$t_{(7)}$=1.07; *Dnmt1*: $t_{(8)}$=0.52; *Dnmt3b*: $t_{(8)}$=1.17;) and protein (Sup Figure 1D-G; two-tailed,

unpaired t-test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(6)}$=6.15; Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: $t_{(7)}$=3.16) levels. To evaluate

a requirement for Dnmt3a1 in memory performance, we conducted hippocampus-dependent

memory tests on mice three weeks after stereotaxic surgery (Figure 1C). We found that, when

tested 24 hours after training in the spatial object recognition test, mice injected with either

Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 or -shRNA2 exhibited no preference for the displaced object (Figure 1D;

two-tailed, unpaired t-test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(17)}$=2.43; Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: $t_{(22)}$=3.15).

However, when evaluated 1 hour after training, mice in shRNA groups explored the displaced

object for a length of time comparable to the control group (Figure 1E; two-tailed, unpaired t-

test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(10)}$=2.04; Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: $t_{(18)}$=0.64). Importantly, Dnmt3a1

knockdown did not affect the overall amount of time that mice spent exploring the objects

during training (Sup Figure 1H, I; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(17)}$=0.92;

Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: $t_{(22)}$=0.35). To assess further the role of hippocampal Dnmt3a1 in memory

formation, we trained mice in contextual fear conditioning. Knockdown of Dnmt3a1 with either

shRNA1 or shRNA2 impaired contextual fear memory response 24 hours after training (Figure

1F; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(20)}$=2.60; Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: $t_{(20)}$=2.54)

without decreasing freezing levels compared to the Control-shRNA when tested 1 hour after

training (Figure 1G; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; Dnmt3a1-shRNA1: $t_{(15)}$=0.04; Dnmt3a1-

shRNA2: $t_{(22)}$=0.90). This decrease in freezing was not due to altered responsiveness to the

shock administration during the training session (Sup Figure 1 J, K; two-tailed, unpaired t-test;

Dnmt3a1-shRNA1; Pre-Shock: $t_{(20)}$=0.16; Shock: $t_{(20)}$=0.25; Dnmt3a1-shRNA2: Pre-Shock:

$t_{(21)}$=1.06; Shock: $t_{(21)}$=0.36). These results show that Dnmt3a1 knockdown impairs long-term

memory formation without affecting short-term memory. Next, we investigated whether the

memory deficits are specific to hippocampus-dependent tasks. We assessed the performance

of mice injected with Control-shRNA, Dnmt3a1-shRNA-1 or Dnmt3a1-shRNA-2 in the auditory

cue fear conditioning (Sup Figure 1L) and accelerating rotarod (Sup Figure 1M), two tasks

that do not require hippocampal function(44,45). We found that hippocampal Dnmt3a1

knockdown did not affect cued long-term fear memory (Sup Figure 1L; one-way ANOVA test

followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test; $F_{(2,32)}=0.18$, $p=0.84$) or motor skill learning

(Sup Figure 1M; two-way repeated measures ANOVA; effect of training day $F_{(1.661,53.15)}=11.76$;

effect of virus $F_{(2,32)}=0.51$), indicating region-specific deficits.

The behavioural testing in this series of experiments was carried out three weeks following

stereotaxic delivery of rAAVs to achieve high viral expression and, as a result, high knockdown

efficiency. However, the persistent reduction of Dnmt3a1 levels may lead to network-wide

changes that could impact learning and memory. Consequently, in order to more directly

assign a role for Dnmt3a1 in mature neurons during the process of memory formation, we

adopted a temporally controlled method that limited Dnmt3a1 knockdown to the time of

behavioural testing. We used a TetON-based system that consisted of two components: for

tight control of Tet-dependent transgene expression in neurons, one viral construct contained

the human synapsin (hSyn) promoter controlling the expression of the reverse tetracycline-

controlled transactivator (rtTA) together with the Tet repressor (TetR) and the fluorescent

protein Kusabira Orange (KO) that serves as an infection marker(46,47). In the second

construct, the Dnmt3a1-specific shRNA sequence 1 or the Control-shRNA was embedded in

a microRNA-30-based expression cassette(34), which is under the control of the tetracycline

responsive promoter (TRE) (Figure 2A-B). In the absence of doxycycline, TetR is bound to

TRE inhibiting its activity. Upon doxycycline administration, TetR releases from the TRE

promoter allowing the binding of the activator rtTA. Administration of doxycycline to

hippocampal primary cultures verified tight control of transgene expression via the Tet-On

system (Sup Figure 2 A-D). The expression of GFP after doxycycline administration increased

over a time course of 72 hours (Sup Figure 2B). Western blot analysis of Dnmt3a1 at the same

time points revealed a significant knockdown of Dnmt3a1 protein levels at 72 hours (Sup

Figure 2C, D; two-tailed, unpaired t-test; 0h: $t_{(10)}=1.03$; 48h: $t_{(10)}=1.86$; 72h: $t_{(10)}=3.06$; Mann-

Whitney test; 24h: U=10). Thus, doxycycline was injected intraperitoneally 72 hours before

behavioural testing (Figure 2C). We found that knocking down hippocampal Dnmt3a1 around

the time of fear conditioning reduced freezing levels when mice were tested 24 hours after

training (Figure 2D; two-tailed, unpaired t-test: $t_{(27)}=2.99$); however, mice froze to a similar

extent than the control mice when testing occurred 1 hour after training (Figure 2E; two-tailed,

unpaired t-test: $t_{(18)}=0.32$). The responsiveness to the shock administration during the training

session did not cause this decrease in freezing (Sup Figure 2E; two-tailed, unpaired t-test;

Pre-Shock: $t_{(14)}=0.47$; Shock: $t_{(14)}=0.80$). Taken together, these findings further support a

function of Dnmt3a1 during long-term memory formation and suggest that Dnmt3a1

participates in the regulation of learning-dependent gene expression required for long-term

memory.

Dnmt3a1 regulates the expression of activity-dependent genes involved in synaptic

plasticity

Next, to elucidate the molecular mechanism by which Dnmt3a1 regulates memory

consolidation we sought to identify activity-dependent genes regulated by Dnmt3a1. To this

end, we performed RNA sequencing of hippocampal neurons infected with Dnmt3a1-shRNA2

or a Control-shRNA after inducing neuronal activity by bicuculline treatment (Figure 3A, B,

Sup Figure 3A, B). In control conditions, we found that neuronal activity leads to the

downregulation of 1981 genes and upregulation of 1935 genes including established activity-

regulated genes, e.g., Arc, Fos, Npas4 (Figure 3C, Sup File 1).

To identify genes dependent on Dnmt3a1, we focused on genes that are differentially

expressed in Dnmt3a1 knockdown versus control conditions in basal (Figure 3D, Sup File 2)

and/or upon bicuculline treatment (Figure 3D, Sup File 2). Notably, the expression of classical

immediate early genes, such as Arc, Fos, Npas4 was not altered in Dnmt3a1-shRNA

conditions (Figure 3D, Sup File 2), suggesting that the identified changes are not a result of

an overall disruption of neuronal responses. We hypothesised that Dnmt3a1-regulated genes

that are involved in memory formation should be a) differentially expressed in response to

Dnmt3a1 reduction and b) activity-regulated. Thus, we overlapped the activity-regulated

(Figure 3C, Sup File 1) and the Dnmt3a1-regulated gene sets (Figure 3D, Sup File 2) in order

to find potential activity-regulated Dnmt3a1 target genes. This intersection identified 491

candidates (Sup Figure 3B,C, Sup File 3). Gene ontology (GO) analysis of the 491 genes

yielded a strong enrichment for terms related to structural and functional plasticity, namely

"Neuropeptide signaling pathway", *"Regulation of signaling receptor activity"* and *"Regulation*

of cell-substrate adhesion" (Figure 3E, Sup File 3). This suggests that genes downstream of

Dnmt3a1 may play an important role in synaptic plasticity and learning and memory. We

confirmed some of the identified Dnmt3a1 target genes in independent biological samples

using qRT-PCR (Figure 3F, G). To further rule out the possibility of off-target effects, this

validation was performed using the two independent shRNA sequences. We confirmed that

the expression of *Alkal2*, *Cacng5*, *Nrp1, Crhbp, Npy and Trpc6* is activity-regulated (Figure

3F,G; one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test: *Alkal2*:

$F_{(6,56)}$=78.46, p<0.0001; *Cacng5*: $F_{(6,56)}$=16.67, p<0.001; *Nrp1*: $F_{(6,49)}$=46.53, p<0.0001; *Crhbp*:

$F_{(6,42)}$=13.60, p<0.0001; *Npy*: $F_{(6,56)}$=15.66, p<0.001; *Trpc6*: $F_{(6,49)}$=5.373, p=0.003). The

expression of the Control-shRNA sequence appeared to cause a mild effect on the expression

of Nrp1, but not of the other genes (comparison to uninfected control). However, this was not

replicated across independent experiments (see Sup Figure 3F). Furthermore, we found that

the expression of *Alkal2*, *Cacng5*, and *Nrp1* is reduced upon Dnmt3a1 depletion achieved by

shRNA1 or shRNA2 (Figure 3F), whereas *Crhbp, Npy and Trpc6* failed to show a significant

effect with one of the shRNA sequences (Figure 3G).

Dnmt3a encodes for two distinct isoforms Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2, which are differentially

regulated by neuronal activity(22,23). We further investigated whether the two isoforms

regulate distinct targets. To test this, we infected primary hippocampal cultures with a

previously validated shRNA to reduce Dnmt3a2 levels(23,24) (Sup Figure 3D) and

investigated the impact of this manipulation on the expression of the identified Dnmt3a1-

regulated genes. Reduction of Dnmt3a2 did not change the expression of *Alkal2*, *Cacng5* or

Nrp1 neither in basal conditions nor upon neuronal activity (Sup Figure 3E; one-way ANOVA

test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test: *Alkal2*: $F_{(5,25)}$=49.04, p<0.0001; *Cacng5*:

$F_{((5,25)}$=4.96, p=0.0044; *Nrp1*: $F_{(4,25)}$= 4.96, p=0.0044). Taken together these findings

demonstrate that Dnmt3a1 is required for the regulation of a synaptic plasticity-related

transcriptional program and further suggest that the Dnmt3a2 isoform may regulate a distinct

gene pool.

Neuropilin-1 is a Dnmt3a1 downstream target required for memory formation

Next, we aimed at investigating whether Dnmt3a1 role in memory consolidation requires the

activity of identified target genes. Among the genes whose expression is controlled by

Dnmt3a1, we focused on neuronal genes which have been identified to be regulated by novel

environment exposure in the mouse hippocampus(48). These included, among others, the

previously validated gene Neuropilin-1 (*Nrp1)* (Figure 3G, H). Nrp1 is known to build a complex

with Semaphorin 3a (Sema3A) and Plexin A4 and is implicated in signalling pathways

regulating neuronal morphology(31,49). Although it has been demonstrated that this complex

is important for AMPA receptor trafficking(50), is still unknown whether Nrp1 plays a role in

hippocampus-dependent memory formation. We performed a shRNA-mediated loss-of-

function approach to assess the role of Nrp1 in memory formation. We generated two

independent shRNA constructs to reduce the expression of *Nrp1* (Figure 4A) and validated

their knockdown efficiency *in vivo* after stereotaxic delivery of the viral constructs or a Control-

shRNA into the dHPC. We confirmed that Nrp1-shRNA1 and -shRNA2 sequences led to a

robust reduction of Nrp1 mRNA levels (Sup Figure 4A, B; two-tailed, unpaired t-test: Nrp1-

shRNA1: $t_{(10)}$=5.28; Nrp1-shRNA2: $t_{(16)}$=7.25). Mice were subjected to a hippocampus-

dependent behavioural memory task three weeks after viral delivery (Figure 4B). Knockdown

of Nrp1 with either shRNA resulted in exploration of the displaced object at chance levels

(Figure 4C; one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(2,29)}$=4.46, p=0.0204), as well as in decreased freezing responses in the contextual fear conditioning test compared to mice injected with the Control-shRNA (Figure 4D; one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(2,30)}$=6.13, p=0.0059). Notably, Nrp1 knockdown did not affect the overall object exploration time (Sup Figure 4C; one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(2,32)}$=0.80, p=0.4584) or the responsiveness to the shock administration (Sup Figure 4D; one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(5,62)}$=83.97, p<0.0001). In conclusion, this set of experiments uncovered a novel function for Nrp1 in long-term memory formation.

Dnmt3a1, but not Dnmt3a2, regulates long-term memory formation via its downstream target Nrp1

To evaluate a function of Nrp1 as a downstream effector of Dnmt3a1 during memory formation, we performed a rescue experiment. To this end, we overexpressed HA-tagged Nrp1 or a control protein (LacZ) under the regulation of hSyn promoter together with either Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 or Control-shRNA sequences in the mouse hippocampus (Figure 5A, B). We first confirmed successful overexpression of Nrp1 in the dHPC by western blot analysis (Sup Figure 5A, B). After stereotaxic delivery of the constructs, mice underwent the spatial object recognition task (Figure 5B). The different groups did not exhibit differences in the time spent exploring the objects during the training session (Sup Figure 5C; one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(3,48)}$=0.12, p=0.9477). As shown above, the reduction of Dnmt3a1 levels caused memory impairments which are manifested by the decreased preference for the displaced object (Figure 1D). Strikingly, this impairment was rescued upon Nrp1 overexpression (Figure 5C; one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test: $F_{(3,46)}$=7.39, p=0.004). Mice that overexpressed Nrp1 and expressed a control shRNA sequence showed memory performance similar to the control group (Figure 5C). Taken together, these results demonstrate that Nrp1 acts downstream of

Dnmt3a1, is required for memory formation and can per se rescue Dnmt3a1-dependent

memory impairments. Thus, indicating that Dnmt3a1 regulates memory formation, at least in

part, via its downstream target Nrp1.

Our gene expression analysis suggested that the isoforms Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2 regulate

distinct genes. Specifically, we showed that Nrp1 expression is regulated by Dnmt3a1, but it

is not altered upon knockdown of Dnmt3a2 (Sup Figure 3D). Next, to investigate a specific

functional link between Dnmt3a1, Nrp1 and memory formation, we tested if Nrp1

overexpression rescues Dnmt3a2-knockdown-dependent memory impairments. We

overexpressed HA-tagged Nrp1 with a Dnmt3a2-specific shRNA sequence in the mouse

dorsal hippocampus and performed the spatial object recognition task in mice (Figure 5D, E).

Importantly, none of the conditions showed differences in overall time exploring the objects

during training (Sup Figure 5D; one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple

comparisons test: $F_{(2,32)}$=1.92, p=0.1633). As previously described(23), knockdown of

Dnmt3a2 impaired spatial object recognition memory and remarkably, this impairment was not

rescued upon Nrp1 overexpression (Figure 5F; one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's

multiple comparisons test: $F_{(2,32)}$=10, p=0.0002). This finding shows that the rescue obtained

in response to Nrp1 overexpression is not a result of a generalized memory enhancement

effect and further supports that Nrp1 acts downstream of Dnmt3a1 but not Dnmt3a2. Thus,

this data uncovers a *Dnmt3a* isoform specific mechanism in memory formation.

Discussion

In this study we demonstrated a critical role for Dnmt3a1 in long-term memory formation by

showing that acute knockdown of Dnmt3a1 in the adult hippocampus selectively impairs long-

term memory formation and further identified activity-dependent genes regulated by Dnmt3a1

levels. Furthermore, our data suggests that despite a requirement for both Dnmt3a1 and

Dnmt3a2 for memory formation, the two isoforms regulate this process via distinct

mechanisms; Nrp1 overexpression rescued Dnmt3a1, but not Dnmt3a2, knockdown-driven

impairments in memory formation. Taken together these findings have advanced our

understanding of the requirement for distinct Dnmts in mnemonic processes as well as of the

identity of downstream effector molecules.

Most studies that aimed at investigating the role of Dnmt3a in adult brain cognition have

utilized heterozygous constitutive(51) or conditional knock-out mice(15,16,52). These models

delete *Dnmt3a* during critical prenatal and postnatal neurodevelopmental phases, which may

confound the interpretation of the function of *Dnmt3a*-coded proteins in memory formation in

the adult. Mitchnick and colleagues (2015) used small interfering RNAs to acutely disrupt

Dnmt3a expression in the adult hippocampus and provided compelling evidence for a role of

Dnmt3a-coding genes in long-term hippocampal memory formation(14). In addition, our

present and previous studies(23–25) have corroborated these findings and demonstrated that

both Dnmt3a isoforms, Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2, are required for memory formation in adult

mature neurons. This study has further identified for the first time an activity-regulated

genomic program regulated by Dnmt3a1 levels in hippocampal neurons. We found that the

knockdown of Dnmt3a1 altered the expression of several genes both in baseline as well as

upon neuronal activation. Even if counterintuitive at first, the reduction of Dnmt expression

resulted not only in de-repression of gene expression, but also downregulation. Although

these gene expression changes are likely a combination of direct effects on the altered genes

and indirect mechanisms via the disruption of expression of other transcriptional regulatory

processes, these findings corroborate previous studies in which a link between transcription

activation and DNA methylation has been shown(10,28,53). In our transcriptomic analysis we

found that Dnmt3a1 regulates the expression of several genes with key roles in synaptic

plasticity and memory. Namely, we found changes in the expression of *Npy*, *Cort*, *Trpc6*, which

have been implicated in memory consolidation(54–56). Upon the confirmation with two

independent shRNA sequences, we focused on Nrp1 which has been shown to be regulated

by enriched environment exposure(57) and within dentate gyrus memory engrams(48).

Besides the established function for the semaphorins and their receptors (Nrp and plexin

family members) in neurodevelopment(32,58), only a few lines of evidence demonstrated their

involvement in homeostatic and Hebbian forms of plasticity in the adult

hippocampus(31,50,59,60). Notably, Nrp1 is localised at synapses of the adult rat

hippocampus(60) and secreted semaphorins acting on the sema-Nrp-plexin complex

modulate synaptic connectivity in granule cells of dentate gyrus and pyramidal neurons of

CA1(60) as well as AMPA receptor trafficking in CA3-CA1 synapses(50). The present study

adds to this body of literature by demonstrating that Nrp1 is required for the formation of

hippocampal long-term memory. Intriguingly, we showed that overexpression of hippocampal

Nrp1 rescued Dnmt3a1 knockdown-dependent memory impairments. Thus, our findings

suggest that the regulation of Nrp1-dependent mechanisms during memory consolidation is a

mechanism via which Dnmt3a1 contributes to memory formation.

This study uncovered a dissociation in the downstream processes regulated by the Dnmt3a

isoforms during hippocampal long-term memory formation. Notably, we showed that Nrp1

overexpression selectively rescued memory impairments promoted by the reduction of

Dnmt3a1, but not Dnmt3a2, levels in the adult hippocampus. Our previous work had already

demonstrated differential regulation of the two enzymes upon neuronal activity and learning.

In contrast to Dnmt3a1, Dnmt3a2 mRNA levels are induced in response to action potential

bursting and learning(23), cocaine administration(30) and an inflammatory response(29) in

different regions of the central nervous system. Despite the lack of regulation at the level of

transcription, Dnmt3a1 protein levels appear to be regulated upon neuronal activity(22). It has

also been shown that Dnmt3a isoforms target unique genomic loci(21,61). Collectively, these

findings indicate distinct regulatory functions. Specifically, during the formation of memory,

lack of redundancy is further supported by our studies that showed that impairments in long-

term memory formation promoted by the acute, reduced hippocampal expression of Dnmt3a1

or Dnmt3a2 are not compensated by the other isoform. Thus, the emerging picture is that the

distinct Dnmts are required for cognitive abilities through the regulation of complementary but

non-overlapping processes. The recruitment of Dnmts to DNA is thought to be guided by

chromatin marks, namely histone modifications(62) and non-coding RNA species that direct

gene-specific methylation patterns(63–67). Notably, differential DNA recruitment between

Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2 may be at least in part driven by distinct recognition of histone tail

marks(21,28,68,69). Moreover, the N-terminus unique to Dnmt3a1 has been shown to confer

specific chromatin recognition properties to this isoform(28,69). Future studies should

elucidate the mechanisms that dictate the regulation of distinct downstream targets for

Dnmt3a1 and Dnmt3a2 in response to neuronal activity.

Our findings highlight the complex and highly regulated role of distinct epigenetic regulators

in brain function. The relevance of investigating DNA methylation processes in the nervous

system is further underscored by the multiple lines of evidence that demonstrated that DNA

methylation dysregulation underlies several pathological conditions, such as

neurodevelopmental(70) and neurodegenerative(71) diseases as well as psychiatric

conditions(72,73) and chronic pain(74). Therefore, the elucidation of the regulatory

mechanisms controlled by the various epigenetic factors is required to gain further

understanding of the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying these conditions.

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AMMO performed experiments; JKupke, JKlimmt, FM, MS, CS, AMMO, PL, CP analyzed and

interpreted data; JKupke, AMMO wrote the paper. All authors edited the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data availability

The RNA-Sequencing data analysed in this study is publicly available at the National Center

for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) with the accession

number GSE232630.

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Figure 1: Reduced hippocampal Dnmt3a1 levels impair memory formation. (**A**) Schematic representation of viral constructs. (**B**) Representative images of the dorsal hippocampus of mice infected with Control-shRNA, Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 or Dnmt3a1-shRNA2. Scale bar: 100 μm. (**C**) Schematic representation of experimental design. (**D, E**) Long-term (D) or short-term (E) spatial object recognition memory of mice expressing Control-shRNA (n=7-12), Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 (n=5-10) or Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 (n=9-12). Dashed lines represent equal preference for either object (chance exploration). *p<0.05, **p<0.01 by two-tailed,

830   unpaired t-test. (**F, G**) Long-term (F) or short-term (G) contextual fear memory of mice

831   expressing Control-shRNA (n=9-11), Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 (n=8-11) or Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 (n=11-

832   13). *p<0.05 by two-tailed, unpaired t-test.

Figure 2: Temporally-restricted Dnmt3a1 knockdown impairs memory consolidation.
(**A**) Schematic representation of the viral constructs encoding the TetON-based system. The driver construct expresses under the hSyn promoter the Tet repressor (TetR), the reverse tetracycline-controlled transactivator (rtTA) and the infection marker Kusabira Orange (mKO). The Tet response element (TRE)-dependent construct contains the TRE promoter driving the miR30-based shRNA cassettes. In the absence of doxycycline, TRE is inhibited by TetR which results in suppression of the miR30 system. In the presence of doxycycline, TetR loses its affinity thus enabling rtTA to bind to TRE and activate the expression of the miR30 system. (**B**) Representative images of the dHPC of mice infected with rAAVs expressing the miR30-Control shRNA or miR30- Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 sequence. Scale bar: 100 μm. (**C**) Schematic representation of experimental design. (**D, E**) Long-term (D) or short-term (E) contextual fear memory of mice expressing miR30-Control shRNA (n=12-17) or miR30-Dnmt3a1 shRNA (n=10-14). *p<0.05, by two-tailed, unpaired t-test.

Figure 3: Dnmt3a1 regulates transcription of genes involved in synaptic plasticity processes. (**A**) Schematic representation of viral constructs. (**B**) Experimental design used to identify activity-regulated genes whose expression is altered upon Dnmt3a1 reduction. DIV: Day *in-vitro*. (**C**) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in control condition (infected with rAAVs expressing Control-shRNA) in response to neuronal activity via Bicuculline treatment; n=4 independent neuronal preparation per condition. Log2 fold change cut-off: ± 0.5; adjusted p-value cut-off: 0.05. (**D**) Volcano plot of DEGs upon infection with

Control-shRNA or Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 in baseline condition or in stimulated condition (4h

bicuculline); n=4 independent neuronal preparation per condition. Log2 fold change cut-off: ±

0.5; adjusted p-value cut-off: 0.05. (**E**) GO-Term analysis of overlapping genes between

activity-regulated and Dnmt3a1-regulated DEGs. Dot plot illustrates Top 15 GO term

enrichment of biological processes. (**F**) qRT-PCR analysis of *Alkal2*, *Cacng5*, *Nrp1* expression

levels in hippocampal cultures infected with Control–shRNA or Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 or -shRNA2

and stimulated 4h with Bicuculline. Expression levels were normalised to the uninfected

control in baseline conditions (dashed line); (n=8-9 independent neuronal cultures). *p<0.05,

***p≤0.001, ****p≤0.0001 by one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons

test(**G**) qRT-PCR analysis of *Crhbp*, *Npy*, *Trpc6* expression levels in hippocampal-cultured

cells infected with Control–shRNA or Dnmt3a1-shRNA1 or -shRNA2 and stimulated 4h with

Bicuculline. Expression levels were normalised to the uninfected control in baseline conditions

(dashed line); (n=7-9 independent neuronal cultures). *p<0.05, **p≤0.01, ns: not significant by

one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test. Control-shRNA 4h

bicuculline versus unstimulated: [+]p<0.05, [++]p<0.01, [+++]p≤0.001, [++++]p≤0.0001 by one-way

ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test.

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Figure 4: Hippocampal Neuropilin-1 is required for memory formation. (**A**) Schematic

representation of viral constructs. (**B**) Schematic representation of experimental design. (**C**)

Long-term spatial object recognition memory of mice expressing Control-shRNA (n=12), Nrp1-

shRNA1 (n=10) or Nrp1-shRNA2 (n=10). Dashed lines represent equal preference for either

object (chance exploration). *$p<0.05$ by one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple

comparisons test. (**D**) Long-term contextual fear memory of mice infected with rAAVs

expressing Control-shRNA (n=11), Nrp1-shRNA1 (n=12) or Nrp11-shRNA2 (n=10). *$p<0.05$

by one-way ANOVA test followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. [##]$p≤0.01$ by Kruskal-

Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 5: Neuropilin-1 rescues Dnmt3a1-, but not Dnmt3a2-, dependent memory impairments. (**A**) Schematic representation of viral constructs. (**B**) Schematic representation of experimental design. (**C**) Long-term spatial object recognition memory of mice expressing Control-shRNA + LacZ (n=13), Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 + LacZ (n=13), Dnmt3a1-shRNA2 + Nrp1-HA (n=12) or Control-shRNA + Nrp1-HA (n=12). Dashed lines represent equal preference for either object (chance exploration). **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001 by one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test. (**D**) Schematic representation of viral constructs. (**E**) Schematic representation of experimental design. (**F**) Long-term spatial object recognition memory mice expressing Control-shRNA + LacZ (n=11), Dnmt3a2-shRNA + LacZ (n=12) or Dnmt3a2-shRNA + Nrp1-HA (n=12). Dashed lines represent equal preference for either object

921   (chance exploration). **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001 by one-way ANOVA test followed by Sidak's

922   multiple comparisons test.