Parallel formation of opposing memories tunes online and pre-emptive

control of learned behavior in eyeblink conditioning

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Abstract

Animals change their behavior and adapt to the environments through associating patterns of sensory experiences, making memories to acquire and/or cease actions. However, it remains to be clarified how distinct memories are formed and interact in response to altered sensory inputs. Here we studied this issue using contrasting paradigms for eyeblink conditioning in mice, and demonstrated a fundamental mechanism of memory counteraction to fine-tune the adaptive change of animal behavior. Excessive neutral sensory stimulation intermingled with the paired presentation of two sensory stimuli did not disturb the acquisition of conditioned responses, but gradually suppressed the occurrence of learned behavior during individual daily sessions. Modeling of acquisition and extinction processes, coupled with experimental validation of a model prediction, unveiled independent and parallel formation of long-term opposing memories for execution of eyeblink and its suppression irrespective of the temporal order: the memory to suppress the conditioned response can, surprisingly, be formed even before its acquisition. Consequently, the negative memory formed either online or pre-emptively calibrates the acquired behavior, optimizing motor performance reflecting both positive and negative sensory histories.

Introduction

Animals adapt to changing environments by learning from experience, whose richness has been thought to affect the efficiency of adaptive behavior (Grant & Shipper, 1952; Thomas & Wagner, 1964). Notably, animals need to adaptively change the behavior even through a survival-related critical, but rare, experience in the natural environment. Such an acquired behavior can also be modulated by the later experience as evident in the memory extinction through repetitive activation of one sensory pathway to unrelate it from another sensory experience (Robleto et al., 2004; Delamater, 2004; Bouton, 2004; Rescorla, 2004; Thanellou & Green, 2011). Critically, it remains enigmatic how the brain reconciles conflicting sensory experiences such as the coincidental and independent occurrences of stimuli to calibrate behavioral outputs. Specifically, whether excitatory and inhibitory memories develop through a common associative process or emerge as independent, parallel traces remains a fundamental question in systems neuroscience. Here we studied this issue using classical eyeblink conditioning in mice, which has been extensively studied for a century to assess learning ability and the underlying neural circuits in a variety of species including humans (Cason, 1922; Christian & Thompson, 2003; Heiney et al., 2014).

Repeated presentation of conditioned stimulus (CS; e.g., tone or light) coupled with eyelid reflex-inducing unconditioned stimulus (US; e.g., air puff to cornea) typically at a high probability (~90%) makes animals learn to blink in response to the initially neutral CS. Such acquired responses through training are called conditioned responses (CRs). Previous studies demonstrated that the even halved pairing of sensory inputs is effective to establish CRs (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Leonard & Theios, 1967; Gormezano & Coleman, 1975; Buchanan et al., 1997; Kehoe et al., 2008), but it remains unclear how the learning is affected by mingling of frequent neutral sensory stimulation which possibly leads to extinction. Increasing neutral CS-alone has

been associated with memory erasure/extinction, and latent inhibition, the lowered efficiency of

subsequent memory acquisition (Lubow & Moore, 1959; Schmajul et al., 1994; Nicholson &

Freeman, 2002), although these have been regarded as distinct phenomena. Recent elegant

experiments in diverse species from fly to mammals have suggested that memory extinction relies

on the experience-dependent formation of another memory to counteract the original memory

encoding an action (Kim et al., 2020; Felsenberg et al., 2018). However, the nature and the way

of this suppressing memory to counteract the learned behavior is totally unclear in terms of

cellular and circuit-level of plasticity in the mammalian cerebellar circuits. In this study, by

systematically changing the enrichment of sensory pairings, we quantitatively investigated the

acquisition and extinction of associative eyeblink learning. Counter-intuitively, we found that a

much less or lower density of associative experience is not only sufficient but substantially more

efficient per trial for the establishment of well-timed eyelid closure. Our detailed analysis of

experimental data yielded a computational model demonstrating that learned behavior is

established by the parallel formation of two opposing long-term memories: one for execution of

eyeblink and the other for suppression. The model predicted that the suppressive memory can be

pre-emptively established even before acquisition, which was experimentally validated, leading

to the conclusion that the adaptive behavior is the outcome of counteraction between two

opposing long-term memories.

Results

Eyeblink conditioning with limited paired sensory stimuli

To obtain insights into the formation and interaction of memories controlling animals' behavior

in response to distinct patterns of sensory experience, we first examined the effect of altered ratio

of two sensory stimuli: tone (290 ms) and air puff (to a cornea, 40 ms) as CS and US, respectively

(Fig. 1A, B). Mice were head-fixed on a treadmill during experiments (Fig. 1C) and their eyelid

movements were recorded with a monochrome camera, and the eyelid closure level was

quantitated by calculating the area size of an eyeball (Fig. 1D; Heiney et al., 2014; for details see

Materials & Methods). Air puff delivered via a glass tube or a needle elicited quick eyeblink

responses (unconditioned responses, URs), whereas tone did not affect the eyelid (Fig. 1D, before).

For association of two sensory events in mice, combined and co-terminating sensory inputs of CS

and US in time series are provided typically at a high ratio: 90 paired & 10 CS-alone trials ($90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$,

Fig. 1A). In line with previous studies (Heiney et al., 2014; Fiocchi et al., 2022), CRs were

evident in ~10 out of 100 trials on average even on the 1st day, gradually becoming frequent (~

50%) and larger by ~ day4, which remained nearly constant till day10 (Fig. 1E, F), although

showing variable time courses in individual mice (Fig. S1A). On the other hand, unexpectedly,

even when the pairing of CS and US was lowered to 10% (i.e., 10 paired & 90 CS-alone per day:

$10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, Fig. 1A), mice acquired CRs during 10 days training (Fig. 1E, middle) although hitting

a plateau around 30% on day6 (Fig. 1F). Thus, even 9 times less association of CS and US inputs

succeeded in the establishment of eyeblink conditioning, while the final probability for the CR

triggering was apparently lower with a tiny delay in reaching equilibrium (Thomas & Wagner,

1964; Leonard & Theios, 1967; Gormezano & Coleman, 1975; Buchanan et al., 1997; Kehoe et

al., 1983). Notably, the number of paired trials required for CR acquisition was significantly lower

in the sparse pairing groups, indicating that frequent CS-alone trials do not interfere with, but

rather highlight, an underlying high-efficiency learning mechanism.

Two factors could underlie the lower percentage of CRs (%CR) in the $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group:

insufficient paired sensory experience or excessive presentation of unpaired tone. To discriminate

these, another paradigm "11 trials" was examined (10 paired & 1 CS-alone per day), where the

limited paired sensory experience was the same as the $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, but the excessive tone-alone

stimulation was omitted (Fig. 1A, B). As shown in Fig. 1E, F and S1A, even the daily 10 CS-US

pairings effectively established CRs reaching ~50% in 6 days training, similarly to the daily 100

trials in the $90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, although slight delay in reaching plateau. Success rate of learning in

individual mice in three groups was similar, although slightly low in the $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group (Fig.

S1B). These results altogether indicate that small number of paired sensory stimuli (10 pairings

per day) are sufficient for the CR acquisition, while additional massive tone-alone events only

lowered final probability of learned behavior. Notably, considering that the probability of air puff

was just 10% out of total tone presentations in the $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, the final %CR as ~30% could be

rather regarded as exaggerated occurrence of acquired behavior.

While the 10% CS-US group exhibited a slower increase in daily %CR compared to the

90% group, a strikingly different picture emerged when the data were normalized by the number

of paired trials. When the averaged %CR was plotted as a function of total CS-US pairings,

surprisingly, the $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ and the 11 trials groups exhibited very quick establishment of CRs

compared to the conventional $90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group (Fig. 1G). The courses of increase in %CR were

fitted by the following equation:

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$$\%CR = P_{max} * \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{L_{50}}{N_{paired}})^n}$$

, where P_{max}, L_{50}, n, and N_{paired} represent the maximal %CR, the number of paired stimuli

for the half-maximal learning, the steepness of learning, and the number of given paired trials. In

sharp contrast to the similar n in three groups, L_{50} reflecting the number of sensory inputs needed

for learning was ~6 folds higher in the $90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group. Thus, the sparse pairing protocol achieved

superior learning efficiency, reaching the L_{50} with nearly six-fold fewer pairings, in contrast to

previous findings in rabbits (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Leonard & Theios, 1967; Gormezano &

Coleman, 1975). Step-by-step pattern of %CR increases were evident in the 90%$_{CS-US}$ group

during initial 4 days, implying some daily upper limit for learning such as a gradual attenuation

of its efficiency during repetitive training (Tait et al., 1983; Kehoe & White, 2002). Intriguingly,

the %CR in the 10%CS-US group was initially compatible at the beginning of each daily trials to

the 90%CS-US and the 11 trials groups, but selectively exhibited a gradual decline during daily

sessions (Fig. 1G, inset). Thus, tone-alone trials do not disturb the acquisition, but distract the

expression of learned CRs. Furthermore, taking into consideration that the total trial number is

identical in 10%- and 90% CS-US groups, the "within-session decline" of %CR evident only in

the 10% group implies a gradually emerging process to actively suppress the CR occurrence.

The acquired eyeblink responses were similarly sophisticated in timing and amplitude

although the averaged eyelid closures in the 10%$_{CS-US}$ group were apparently smaller because of

larger variability of peak timing (Fig. 2A-C). The CR amplitude grew up gradually during days

of training and showed faster saturation in the 10%$_{CS-US}$ and the 11 trials groups in relation to the

number of paired trials, while onset/peak timings got quickly optimized in all groups (Fig. S2A-

E) (Heiney et al., 2014; Kehoe et al., 2008; Fiocchi et al., 2022; Balsam et al., 2002; Ohyama &

Mauk, 2001; Kehoe et al., 2014). With a closer look, the 10%$_{CS-US}$ group occasionally exhibited

rapid and complete eyelid closure (RCEC), reaching 98% eyelid closure during 80-180 ms from

the tone onset, which looked similar to that of spontaneous eye blinking (Fig. S3A-C). As a result

of more RCEC occurrence, well-timed blinking relative to the timing of air puff, which was

regarded to be cerebellum-dependent CRs, was slightly rarer in the 10%$_{CS-US}$ group (Fig. S3D),

while total probability of eyeblink responses including CRs and RCEC was almost compatible in

three groups (Fig. S3E).

Critical role of DCN in CR expression

Deep cerebellar nuclei (DCN) plays an important role in expression of CRs in rabbits (Christian & Thompson, 2003; McCormick & Thompson, 1984; Yeo et al., 1985) and mice (Heiney et al., 2014; Sakamoto & Endo, 2008). To examine whether the CRs acquired with $10\%_{CS-US}$ also rely on DCN, we pharmacologically inhibited neuronal activity by infusing muscimol, a selective $GABA_A$ receptor agonist, to the anterior interpositus part of DCN through a cannula implanted in the already CR-acquired mice (Fig. 3A). As shown in Fig. 3B, cannula position and estimated area for diffusion of muscimol were similar in the two groups (90% and 10% CS-US pairing groups). Muscimol administration (evaluated by at least 30 trials given before and after its infusion) potently abolished the CR expression in both the 90% and 10% CS-US pairing groups, followed by almost complete recovery on the next day (Fig. 3C). Averaged traces for eyelid closure indicated marked abolishment of CRs by muscimol, but not by artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF), without affecting the URs upon air puff (Fig 3C-F). Taken these results together, it was revealed that CR is expressed depending on the DCN activity irrespective of the altered enrichment of paired sensory experience.

Scatter plots of averaged eyelid closure amplitude against %CR exhibited a tendency of the $90\%_{CS-US}$ showing positive relation between them (Fig. S4A, left), which was preserved even after the DCN inactivation. In contrast, the $10\%_{CS-US}$ group showed less correlation between %CR and eyelid closure amplitude, sometimes exhibiting unaltered amplitude even after the DCN inactivation (Fig. S4A, right). Furthermore, RCEC sometimes evident in the $10\%_{CS-US}$ group tended to resist to the DCN inactivation (Fig. S4B). Thus, limited experience and disturbance by lots of CS-alone inputs in the $10\%_{CS-US}$ group might be partly compensated by recruiting neural circuits other than the cerebellar circuit for eliciting eyelid closure (Kaminer et al., 2011; Kaminer et al., 2015; Bologna et al, 2024). Nevertheless, the similar impact of DCN inactivation on CR execution, irrespective of altered enrichment of sensory pairings, indicates that the occurrence of

learned behavior is primarily governed by the DCN, probably with slight difference in experience-

dependent circuits modulation mainly in the cerebellum.

Distinct extinction dynamics of CRs acquired with altered enrichment of sensory experience

In order to evaluate the qualitative identity of CR-memories acquired by different patterns of

experience, we examined memory-extinction paradigm. Following 10 days of acquisition training,

100 tone-alone (i.e. 100 CS-alone) trials were daily applied for 4 days. CR occurrence gradually

decreased during the extinction session with clearly different kinetics according to the distinct

pattern of acquisition (Fig. 4A-C). Looking at gradual changes during daily sessions, %CR

substantially recovered at the beginning of individual daily sessions (Fig. 4B), known as

spontaneous recovery (Robleto et al., 2004; Delamater, 2004; Bouton, 2004; Rescorla, 2004;

Thanellou & Green, 2011). The CR extinction profiles (Fig. 4C) could be fitted to single

exponential curves, as characterized by the following equation:

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$$\%CR = P_{ext} * \exp\left(-\frac{N_{CS}}{\tau_{ext}}\right)$$

, where P_{ext}, τ_{ext} and N_{CS} represent the initial value of %CR, the factor for resistance of

CR to be extinct, and the number of CS-alone trials during each day, respectively. The CRs

established by rich paired stimuli seem to exhibit ~4 times greater resistance to extinction in mice,

which is distinct from humans showing higher resistance in partial reinforcement-acquired CRs

(Grant & Schipper, 1952; Humphreys, 1939; Grant & Hake, 1951; Moore & Gormezano, 1963)

and also rabbits with almost similar resistance irrespective of sensory enrichment during

acquisition (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Gormezano & Coleman, 1975). In clear contrast to

the %CR attenuation (i.e., reduction in percentage of occurrence), eyelid closure amplitude, if

occurred, was kept high during the extinction sessions in all groups, although the 11 trials group

showed slight decline (Fig. 4D, E). Furthermore, interestingly, eye blinking like spontaneous

responses tended to be frequently observed during extinction (Fig. S3C, 4F, G). As for the timing

control, response onset showed delay during extinction although peak latency exhibited large

variabilities among individuals (Fig. 4H), as previously reported (Kehoe et al., 2014; Medina et

al., 2002). Taken together, eyeblink extinction learning is expressed as purely decreased

probability, without changing the behavior dynamics, of blinking in response to the repetitive

tone-alone experience, implying the preserved memory for well-timed blinking in the neuronal

circuit, in line with the idea that the CR extinction is mediated by formation of new memory to

counteract the CR occurrence (Kim et al., 2020).

Modeling CR acquisition and extinction through integrating total history of sensory inputs

To shed light on the underlying mechanisms of distinct dynamics of CR acquisition and extinction

with altered pairings of sensory stimuli, we attempted to develop a model that explains our

observations (see Figs. 1 and 4). Several lines of evidences in our experiments, such as the

apparent differences in rate of acquisition, saturated level, but preserved eyeblink dynamics and

the daily spontaneous recovery during extinction (see Fig. 4), indicated interaction of

independently established two memory components for CR, one encoding execution and the other

suppression, as previously suggested (Robleto et al., 2004; Delamater, 2004; Bouton, 2004;

Rescorla, 2004; Felsenberg et al., 2018). Thus, we built a model assuming parallel formation of

counteracting memories for CRs, as follows (here, in modeling section, we denote %CR as

CR_{ratio}):

$$CR_{ratio} = v1_{2nd} + v1_{1st} * (1 - g * v2)$$

$$v1 = v1_{1st} + v1_{2nd}$$

, where $v1$ is the memory for CR execution consisting of two components, $v1_{1st}$ and $v1_{2nd}$

with distinct susceptivity to the CR suppressing memory, $v2$. g represents a gate for $v2$, increasing

as a function of total amount of CS inputs (i.e. total trial number) (Fig. 5A; for details see

Materials and Methods). The larger $v1$ results in higher CR_{ratio}, while the larger $v2$ leads to smaller

CR_{ratio}. $v1_{1st}$, $v1_{2nd}$ and $v2$ were assumed to build up trial by trial based on the Rescorla and Wagner

model (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972) with some modification, defined as follows:

$$\Delta v1_{1st} = \alpha1_{1st} * \beta * (\lambda1 - v1) - \alpha1_{2nd} * v1_{1st} \qquad \text{[upon CS-US]}$$

$$\Delta v1_{2nd} = \alpha1_{2nd} * v1_{1st} \qquad \text{[upon CS-US]}$$

$$\Delta v2 = \alpha2 * (\lambda2 - v2) \qquad \text{[upon CS-alone]}$$

, where $\alpha1_{1st}$, $\alpha1_{2nd}$ and $\alpha2$ represent rate constants for formation of memories $v1_{1st}$, $v1_{2nd}$

and $v2$, respectively. $v1_{1st}$ was assumed to be formed upon the CS-US pairings at a rate $\alpha1_{1st}$

multiplied by an efficiency factor β, and to be gradually turned into the extinction-resistant $v1_{2nd}$

at a rate $\alpha1_{2nd}$. Stronger resistance of CR to extinction in the 90%$_{CS-US}$ was made possible by this

scheme (see Fig. 4C). Daily upper limit of learning, inferred from Fig. 1G, was implemented in

the model by gradual decline of the $\alpha1_{1st}$ efficiency factor β as total paired trials increase within

a session (Fig. S5A).

Both the acquisition and extinction processes of CR_{ratio} were simulated in the model,

and distinct dynamics for three experimentally-tested patterns were nicely reproduced (Fig. 5B-

F). The 90%$_{CS-US}$ group hit daily plateau of CR acquisition, whereas the 11 trials group showed

more efficient learning as observed in experiments. In the 10%$_{CS-US}$ group, even after reaching

apparent saturation, CR_{ratio} exhibited daily quick increase and following "within-session decline"

because of gradual gating of slowly summating $v2$ to counteract $v1_{1st}$ via activation of g by

repeated trials (Fig. 5B, E, F).

We also conceived another model in which the suppressing memory, $v2$ was short-lived

and refreshed by the next session, rather than long-lasting (compare Fig. S6B with Fig. 5E). As

shown in Fig. S6A, this model also succeeded in reproducing experimental observations. In this

version, notably, daily spontaneous recovery during extinction sessions can be explained just by

the complete refreshment of $v2$ irrespective of the inclusion of a gating mechanism of $v2$ (Fig.

S6B, C). However, the "within-session decline" during acquisition in the $10\%_{CS-US}$ was still

strongly dependent on the gating mechanism: eliminating the gate made the "within-session

decline" more rapid and potent than actual experimental data (Fig. S6C). Thus, in any cases, the

memory $v2$ to suppress CRs are to be adequately controlled by the online experience of sensory

inputs, as has been suggested in a previous study showing that the decline of %CR speeded down

with occasional paired sensory inputs during the extinction session (Gibbs et al., 1978).

Model-driven discovery of prior-formed suppression memory

To evaluate the qualitative difference of learning dynamics generated by two $v2$, characterized

with distinct temporal lifetime, long- or short-lasting one, we attempted to obtain a prediction

from the two models. Repetitive CS-alone trials presented for days in prior suppressed the later

CR_{ratio} increase in the model with long-lasting $v2$, but not in the model assuming short-lasting $v2$

(Fig. 6A). Thus, the modeling analysis yielded a prediction: if long-lasting, the suppressing

memory $v2$ can be formed in prior to the start of CR acquisition. This prediction was tested by

behavioral experiments presenting 100 CS-alone trials for 4 days prior to the start of 90% CS-US

pairing paradigm (the Pre group). Strikingly consistent with the model prediction, as shown in

Fig. 6A and B, the Pre CS-alone trials potently inhibited the initial growth of CRs, which has also

been known as latent inhibition (Lubow & Moore, 1959; Schmajuk et al., 1994; Nicholson &

Freeman, 2002), without affecting the dynamics of acquired eyelid closure (Fig. 6C). Furthermore,

despite the later training paradigm by itself was the 90% pairing of CS and US, surprisingly, the

increase of %CR in the Pre-group showed quite similar pattern to that in the $10\%_{CS-US}$ groups

rather than the $90\%_{CS-US}$ (Fig. 6B), characterized by "within-session decline" (Fig. 6D).

Accordingly, the zig-zag pattern in CR_{ratio} dynamics was more evident in the model with long-

lasting *v2* (Fig. 6A). Thus, the prediction of model assuming long-lasting v2 was validated by the

animal behavior experiments, and amazingly it was revealed that even before the acquisition of

CRs, the prior experience of CS-alone inputs forms negative counteracting memory for not only

the later acquisition but also the execution probability of CRs after acquisition, as if the CR

memory was established through the limited pairings. Collectively, we conclude that the

association of CS and US forms a memory to execute CRs, while CS-alone experience forms a

counteracting long-term memory to suppress CRs in parallel and independently from the situation

of the target positive memory.

Discussion

Changing the training paradigm of cerebellum-dependent eyeblink conditioning, here we

demonstrated that the learning efficiency is paradoxically facilitated by restricting the number of

daily trainings. Distinct occurrence profiles of the learned behavior without changes in blinking

dynamics during the acquisition and extinction highlighted the sensory experience-dependent

parallel formation of long-term memories for the CR execution and its suppression. The different

counteraction of the two memories explained patterns of acquired behavior occurrence with

distinct sensory experience in acquisition, extinction, and even latent inhibition. Thus, our present

study provides a previously unprecedented simple framework for learning assuming only two

memories, by which distinct sensory experiences in combination and timeline can be integrated

in animals brain.

CR acquisition with partial reinforcement

Eyeblink conditioning is conserved widely in mammals, showing specie-dependent different

relations between the training patterns and the learning dynamics. Humans show %CR closely

related to the ratio of pairings (Grant & Schipper, 1952; Grant & Hake, 1951; Moore &

Gormezano, 1963; Ross, 1959), while rabbits supra-linearly exhibit CRs upon training with

smaller possibility of sensory pairings (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Leonard & Theios, 1967;

Gormezano & Coleman, 1975; Buchanan et al., 1997). As demonstrated here, even much smaller

10% pairing is sufficient for the CR acquisition in mice (see Fig. 1F), showing rather inversed

relationship between the enrichment of associative experience and the learning efficiency (see

Fig. 1G), which contrasts to the previous findings in rabbits typically showing equal or less

efficiency with partial reinforcement (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Leonard & Theios, 1967;

Gormezano & Coleman, 1975). Apparent slower growth of %CR in mice than in rabbits during

days of trainings (Thomas & Wagner, 1964; Heiney et al., 2014; Leonard & Theios, 1967;

Gormezano & Coleman, 1975; Fiocchi et al., 2022), implies more potent upper limit of learning

during a certain period in mice, spoiling surplus reinforcement experience. This could be

responsible for the apparent higher learning efficiency upon limited reinforcement. Indeed,

learning efficiency can be estimated higher also in rabbits with smaller density of training, when

compared with a training paradigm accompanied with daily saturation or decline of %CR (Tait et

al., 1983; Kehoe & White, 2002).

Candidates for neural circuits generating distinct profiles in CR execution

We demonstrated a critical role of cerebellar circuit in expression of learned eyeblink irrespective

of the enrichment of reinforcement (Fig. 3; Christian & Thompson, 2003; Yeo et al., 1985;

McCormick et al., 1982; Krupa et al., 1993). Long-term depression (LTD) at parallel fiber (PF)

synapses on a Purkinje cell (PC) has been focused as a substrate of memory formation for CRs

(Koekkoek et al., 2003). In addition, plasticity at mossy fiber (MF) synapses on neurons in DCN also plays a role, contributing to higher resistance to extinction presumably requiring more experience for its establishment compared to PF-PC LTD (Garcia & Mauk, 1998; Medina et al., 2001; Ohyama et al., 2006; Antonietti et al., 2016; Antonietti et al., 2017; Broersen et al., 2023). Given these findings, the PF-PC LTD and plasticity at MF-DCN synapses might correspond to the extinction-sensitive ($v1_{1st}$) and -resistant ($v1_{2nd}$) memories for CRs in our hypothetical model (see Fig. 5A).

While classical Rescorla-Wagner models account for the net associative strength, our findings necessitate a model with dual, independent components to explain the dissociable kinetics of CR acquisition and its within-session suppression, as previously suggested as independent memory formation for extinction of learned behavior (Robleto et al, 2004; Delamater, 2004; Bouton, 2004; Rescorla, 2004; Felsenberg et al., 2018). Accordingly, our experiments and modeling together highlighted an importance of the memory counteracting CR execution, not only for the extinction, but also for the fine-tuned probability to execute learned eyelid closure. In addition, surprisingly, our data suggest that the inhibitory memory trace ($v2$) can be somehow long-lasting and formed even prior to the formation of positive memory to execute eyeblink. Crucially, our model's prediction that the inhibitory memory trace can be surreptitiously established even in the absence of behavioral CR was empirically validated. Thus, $v2$ seems to practically underlie the lowered efficiency in acquisition after the prior CS presentations, known as latent inhibition (Lubow & Moore, 1959; Schmajul et al., 1994; Nicholson & Freeman, 2002). Recently, it was demonstrated in *Drosophila* that odor pre-exposure forms an independent aversive memory that competes with subsequent learning, providing a mechanistic basis for latent inhibition and also extinction learning (Jacob et al., 2021). Our results extend this concept to the mammalian cerebellum, demonstrating that such "pre-emptive" inhibitory memories are not only

formed prior to acquisition but also dynamically interact with excitatory traces to fine-tune motor

outputs on a trial-by-trial basis.

One candidate mechanism of the inhibitory memory trace in the cerebellum is long-term

potentiation (LTP) between PF and PC in cerebellum (Kim et al., 2020; De Zeeuw, 2021;

Kostadinov & Häusser, 2022). Cerebellar extinction was shown to involve a reversal of synaptic

plasticity, such as the transition from LTD to LTP at PF-PC synapses, driven by the deprivation

of climbing fiber signals (Medina et al., 2002). Our present study presented another suppressing

process for the memory under conditions of sparse reinforcement: independent inhibitory memory

($v2$) tunes the behavior while keeping robust excitatory memories ($v1$). It is conceivable that LTD

and LTP at PF-PC synapses are formed at distinct micro-zones (De Zeeuw, 2021; Kostadinov &

Häusser, 2022), and outputs from these PCs counteract at identical DCN neurons. This

bidirectional control of learning gain resonates with the cellular mechanisms proposed for

vestibulo-ocular reflex (VOR) adaptation, where the balance between LTD and LTP at PF-PC

synapses mediates the up- and down-regulation of motor gain (Raymond and Lisberger, 1998;

Boyden and Raymond, 2003). While VOR adaptation is often explained by the shifting balance

of these opposing plasticities within a single pathway, our findings in eyeblink conditioning

extend this concept by demonstrating that 'gain' can also be regulated through the parallel

accumulation of an independent inhibitory memory. In our model, the '10% reinforcement'

advantage is not merely a result of less synaptic saturation, but an manifestation of an optimized

gain control where the inhibitory memory ($v2$) prevents excessive responding without erasing the

excitatory trace. This suggests a universal principle in cerebellar computation: whether through

bidirectional plasticity at a single synapse or through the parallel recruitment of opposing memory

pathways, the cerebellum actively calibrates its output gain to match the statistical structure of

environmental feedback. Alternatively, the suppression of CR-executing processing might be

enabled in the cerebellar circuit by dynamic plasticity at GABAergic synapses, for example

between molecular layer interneurons and PCs (Kawaguchi & Hirano, 2000) and/or those between

PCs and neurons in DCN (Aizenman et al., 1998). In addition, outside of cerebellum, CR

extinction-related hippocampus (Schmaltz & Theios, 1972; Akase et al., 1989), or dopaminergic

signals from ventral tegmental area (VTA) to nucleus accumbens (Kutlu et al., 2022) and posterior

part of striatum (Menegas et al., 2017) related to latent inhibition might affect plasticity at various

synapses in the cerebellar cortex and nuclei.

Our present data demonstrated that negative effects on CR execution in the latent

inhibition, extinction, and "within-session decline", could be integrated into the sole inhibitory

memory trace *v2* in the simple framework (see Fig. 5A), which corresponds to mechanistic

clarification of the nature of a century debate on the latent inhibition, primarily explained as the

lowered attention. Gating of such an inhibitory memory across past, online, and ongoing sensory

events highlights that the cerebellum constantly integrates sensory history to calibrate future

motor outputs. Taken all these findings together, by shedding light on the counteractions of

opposite memories integrating distinct sensory inputs, the present study opens a door to clarify

the key neuronal mechanism to fine-tune the learned behavior reflecting the whole history of

experience, not only for eyeblink conditioning but also for other associative learning paradigms

like fear conditioning and reward-related reinforced learning.

Materials & Methods

Animal usages

Adult male FVB/NJcl mice, $\geq$ 8 weeks old, were used in all experiments (n = 86). Mice were housed singly with *ad libtum* access to food and water in a room with 12 hours of light/dark cycle. All animal procedures were performed by the same experimenter in accordance with guidelines on animal experimentation in Kyoto University and approved by the local committee in Graduate School of Science, Kyoto University.

Surgery

Custom-made aluminum head-plates were mounted on mice before experiments. Mice were anesthetized with intraperitoneal injection (0.2-0.3 ml/mouse) of mixture of 0.9% ketamine (Daiichisankyo) and 0.2% xylazine (Bayer). The scalp was cut off to expose the skull and mice were stereotaxically fixed on an operating table (Narishige). The underlying membranous tissue was removed with cotton swabs and small holes were made around bregma using a drill. Screws were loosely tightened to the holes. The head plate was placed on the skull surface and fixed to the screws and the skull with dental cement (UNIFAST Trad, GC). Mice had at least 30 hours of recovery period before experiments started.

To pharmacologically inactivate DCN, a guide cannula (RWD Life Science) was implanted for some mice (n = 12) together with a head plate (see Fig. 3A). A small hole (~6.0 mm posterior, ~2.0 mm lateral from bregma; Paxinos & Franklin, 2008) was drilled and the cannula tip was approached to the brain surface using a stereotaxic micromanipulator. The cannula was inserted 1.8-2.3 mm vertically and fixed with dental cement. An internal dummy cannula was inserted to the guide cannula to prevent clogging.

Eyeblink conditioning, acquisition and extinction

The basic apparatus was composed of a self-made treadmill on which mice were head-fixed

during experiments, a camera (CS135MU, Thorlabs) for eyelid closure recording, a speaker for

tone stimuli, a solenoid for air stimuli, and a PC (XPS8940, Dell) for recording and stimuli control

(Fig. S7A; Heiney et al., 2014). The treadmill was composed of cylindrical rotating rods and

rubber sheet. The implanted head-plate was fixed to a manipulator (SM-19, Narishige) ~2 cm

above the treadmill with a screw (Fig. 1C). The camera was mounted on a metal rod to monitor a

left eye. Mice were illuminated by white LED light and eyelid movements were recorded with

100 frames/sec. The speaker was placed back left side of mice. A gas cylinder was connected to

the solenoid and air was delivered to a left cornea when the solenoid opened. The camera, speaker

and solenoid were controlled in timing with Python through an AD/DA converter (DIO-8/8B-

UBT, Y2 Corporation).

Mice were randomly divided into three groups with distinct trainings ($90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, n = 22;

$10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$, n = 20; 11 trials, n = 22), as follows (see Fig. 1A): $90\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group, 10 blocks of 10

trials per day, with each block composed of 9 paired & 1 CS-alone trials; $10\%_{CS\text{-}US}$ group, 10

blocks of 1 paired & 9 CS-alone trials; 11 trials group, 10 paired & 1 CS-alone trials per day. Each

mouse had at least 6 days of training. Mice had habituation period without recording and stimuli

delivery for $\geq$ 15minutes on the treadmill before training each day. The CS (tone, 3.5 kHz, 75

dB, 290 ms) was co-terminated with the US (air puff, 15-30 psi, 40 ms) in CS-US paired trials;

on the other hand, the tone CS was given without the US presentation in CS-alone trials (Fig. 1A).

The US was delivered via a glass tube (i.d. = 0.5 mm) or a 21 gauge needle placed ~2 mm away

from a mouse cornea (Fig. 1C) and given in an almost identical manner through experiments

except for gradual increase in pressure as days of training proceeded (Fig. S7B). The order of

paired and CS-only trials was randomly determined in each block. The inter-trial interval was set

to 10-24 sec randomly for each trial.

Some mice (90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 8; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 9; 11 trials, n = 7) had 4 consecutive days of

extinction paradigm, 100 CS-alone trials/day, following the 10 consecutive days of acquisition.

Other mice (n = 8) had exposure to daily 100 CS-alone trials for 4 consecutive days prior to the

90%$_{CS-US}$ trainings (Pre group). When training was accidentally interrupted in the first block

because of system's error, although very rare, daily traning was started over again.

Data analysis

Recorded videos for eyelid movements were converted into numerical trace by calculating the

area of an eyeball in individual frames (Fig. 1D; Heiney et al., 2014). Full eyelid open/close

corresponded to 0/100% respectively. Reflection of light and infiltration of whisker were

approximately calibrated. Trials were omitted from analysis when significant activities other than

eyelid closures were observed, or recording or saving of eyelid movements was not performed

properly. Eyelid closure amplitude was obtained by subtraction of pre-CS baseline from the

maximal eyelid closure during 80-250 ms after the CS onset (for CS-US paired trials) or 80-470

ms (for CS-alone trials). When the amplitude was $\geq$ 15%, this trial was regarded as one with a

response and further analysis was conducted. Onset of eyelid closure was visually identified. The

α-startle, a startle reflex to tone, was carefully removed from the analysis by visual identification.

The responses with averaged eyelid closure amplitude during 220-250 ms $\geq$ 15% and larger than

that during 120-150 ms, were regarded as CRs.

Pharmacological inactivation of DCN neurons

DCN neurons in CR-learned mice (90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 6; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 6) were inactivated by

muscimol (1 or 5 mM, Nakalai Tesque) administration through an implanted guide cannula (see

Surgery). Muscimol was diluted in aCSF (NaCl, 125 mM, NaHCO$_3$, 25 mM, NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 1.25 mM,

KCl, 2.5 mM, D-glucose, 10 mM, CaCl$_2$·2H$_2$O, 2 mM, MgCl$_2$·6H$_2$O, 2 mM, adjusted to pH ~7.4

and ~300 mOsm). An internal cannula connected to a microsyringe (701N 10 μl, Hamilton)

through silicon tube was inserted into the implanted guide cannula and muscimol (0.5-5 μl) was

infused (~1 μl/min). The internal cannula was removed carefully and the examination of eyelid

movements resumed within 15 mins. Mice were imposed ≥ 30 trials before/after the infusion.

In some mice (90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 3; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 3), aCSF was infused without muscimol on another

day for negative control. The session was omitted from analysis when UR or ordinal behavior

significantly changed after the infusion.

Muscimol diffused area and the cannula position were confirmed in individual mice.

Acriflavine, a fluorescent dye, (0.5-5 μl, 0.01%, Wako), was infused in the same way as the

muscimol infusion (90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 5; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 6) after pharmacological inactivation

experiments. Mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation and the head plates were detached

from the skulls. Whole brains were carefully removed and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS

(paraformaldehyde: Nakalai Tesque; PBS: Takara Bio) overnight and soaked for >12 hours in

~20% sucrose for cryoprotection. Horizontal sections were prepared at ~50 μm thickness using a

cryostat (SM2000R, Leica). These sections were immediately mounted (VECTARSHIELD

Mounting Medium, Funakoshi) and imaged with a confocal fluorescent microscope (FV1000,

Olympus). The area of muscimol diffusion was estimated from the acriflavine fluorescence. The

position of small holes in the sections was regarded as the positions of cannula.

Modeling

Learning model for CR acquisition and extinction was constructed, and the dynamics of

probability of CR occurrence was simulated under the Python programming language (Figs. 5, 6,

Figs. S5, S6). Memories for CR execution (*v1*) and suppression (*v2*) were assumed to be formed

independently. As for *v1*, *v1_{1st}* and *v1_{2nd}* with distinct sensitivity to CR extinction or suppression

were assumed based on the fact that the CRs showed resistance to extinction depending on the

enrichment of paired sensory experiences (see Fig. 4C), together with the previous studies

suggesting two candidate synapses encoding the CR-triggering memory with distinct resistance

for extinction: synapses on cerebellar PCs and those in DCN (Garcia & Mauk, 1998; Medina et

al., 2001; Ohyama et al., 2006; Antonietti et al., 2016; Antonietti et al., 2017; Broersen et al.,

2023). On the other hand, trials-dependent gradual suppression by the memory *v2*, was

implemented by the gate control '*g*', which made the spontaneous recovery possible in the model.

485   Taken together, the *CR_{ratio}* was expressed as a function of three memories, as follows:

486
$$CR_{ratio} = v1_{2nd} + v1_{1st} * (1 - g * v2)$$

487
$$v1 = v1_{1st} + v1_{2nd}$$

488   Three memories, *v1_{1st}*, *v1_{2nd}* and *v2*, changed trial by trial based on Rescorla-Wagner model

489   (Rescorla & Wagner, 1972), as follows:

490
$$\Delta v1_{1st} = \alpha1_{1st} * \beta * (\lambda1 - v1) - \alpha1_{2nd} * v1_{1st} \qquad \text{[upon CS-US]}$$

491
$$\Delta v1_{2nd} = \alpha1_{2nd} * v1_{1st} \qquad \text{[upon CS-US]}$$

492
$$\Delta v2 = \alpha2 * (\lambda2 - v2) \qquad \text{[upon CS-alone]}$$

493   , where *λ1* and *λ2* are saturation levels for *v1* and *v2*, and set to 1 here. *α1_{1st}*, *α1_{2nd}*, and

494   *α2* are rate constants for formation of *v1_{1st}*, *v1_{2nd}* and *v2*, respectively. *β* was assumed here to make

495   the CS-US pair-dependent formation of *v1_{1st}* sensitive to the total number of daily paired trials

496   within a session (*N_{paired}*) (Fig. S5A):

497
$$\beta = \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{N_{paired}}{\tau_\beta})^{n_\beta}}$$

498   , where τ_β and n_β define the steepness of experience-dependent slowing of *v1_{1st}*

499   formation.

500   Gating of suppressing memory $v2$, g, was also implemented as follows:

501
$$g = 1 - \frac{g_0}{1 + (\frac{N_{trial}}{\tau_{gate}})^{n_{gate}}}$$

502   , where N_{trial} is the total trial number in a session. g_0 is a factor to decide the initial gate

503   active at the beginning of each session. τ_{gate} and n_{gate} define the steepness of the trials-dependent

504   gate opening, and the former was defined to change depending on experience as follows (Fig.

505   S5B):

506
$$\tau_{gate} = A_{gate} + B_{gate} * \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{p_\tau}{p(pair)_{exp}}\right)^{n_\tau}}$$

507   , where A_{gate} and B_{gate} are the initial value and the experience-dependent maximal

508   increment of τ_{gate}, respectively. p_τ and n_τ are constants to define the steepness of τ_{gate} change.

509   Expected paring ratio, $p(pair)_{exp}$, was assumed to be updated trial by trial as follows (Fig. S5C):

510
$$\Delta p(pair)_{exp} = \gamma * \left(1 - p(pair)_{exp}\right) \qquad \text{[upon CS-US]}$$

511
$$\Delta p(pair)_{exp} = \gamma * \left(0 - p(pair)_{exp}\right) \qquad \text{[upon CS-alone]}$$

512   , where γ is the rate constant for change of $p(pair)_{exp}$.

513   Individual memories were assumed to fade over time (t) as defined by the following

514   equations:

515
$$\Delta v1_{1st} = -(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon_{v1\_1st}}\right)^{n_{decay}}}) * v1_{1st} + (1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon_{v1\_2nd}}\right)^{n_{decay}}}) * v1_{2nd}$$

516
$$\Delta v1_{2nd} = -(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon_{v1\_2nd}}\right)^{n_{decay}}}) * v1_{2nd}$$

517
$$\Delta v2 = -(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{t}{\varepsilon_{v2}}\right)^{n_{decay}}}) * v2$$

, where ε_{v1_1st}, ε_{v1_2nd}, ε_{v2}, and n_{decay} are time constants of memory decay and their

steepness. Daily decay of each was calculated before each session started in simulation using

1440 min, corresponding to 24 hours, for time t. Other variables, β, g, and $p(pair)_{exp}$ are refreshed

to initial values at the beginning of each day (see Table S1).

Simulation was performed trial by trial, giving CS-US paired or CS-alone trials as in

the experiments. The 2 models assuming long- or short- lasting *v2* suppressing memory, and a

model without gate control were performed by changing corresponding parameters (see Table S1).

Statistics

Data was presented as mean ± SEM unless otherwise stated. Paired t-test and Tukey-Kramer test

were performed with Microsoft Excel or Rstudio (Posit) for statistical analysis. *, $p < 0.05$; **,

$p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$ were regarded as significant. Approximate curves were obtained with

Igor Pro8 (WaveMetrics) using Chi-square method.

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Competing interests

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.

Data and materials availability

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. Program codes for CR

behavior simulation are also available on the website of the corresponding author

(www.nb.biophys.kyoto-u.ac.jp/model).

Supplementary materials

Figs. S1 to S7

Table S1

Fig 1. Eyeblink conditioning with distinct patterns of sensory pairings

(**A**) Schematics of CS (tone)-US (air puff) and CS-alone trials (top) and three training protocols,

90%$_{CS-US}$, 10%$_{CS-US}$, and 11 trials (bottom). (**B**) Total paired trials number plotted against total

trials during 10 days training (90%$_{CS-US}$, black; 10%$_{CS-US}$, red; 11 trials, orange). (**C**) An image of

a head-fixed mouse on a treadmill during experiments. A glass tube put in front of the eyelid is

outlined by white dashed line. (**D**) Representative images and time courses of eyelid closure

before/after the CR acquisition trainings. (**E**) Representative eyelid traces (100 or 11 trials from

a single mouse) for the 90%$_{CS-US}$ (top), 10%$_{CS-US}$ (middle) and 11 trials (bottom) on day1 (left), 4

(middle) and 10 (right). (**F**) Daily changes of %CR established by 10 days training (top) and

averaged %CR during day8-10 (bottom; 90%$_{CS-US}$: $51.1 \pm 5.0\%$, n = 12; 10%$_{CS-US}$: $30.9 \pm 4.9\%$,

n = 11; 11 trials: $53.0 \pm 5.1\%$, n = 16, *, $p < 0.05$ by Tukey-Kramer test), from mice showing CR

establishment (CR $\geq$ 10% in at least 3 days). Individual, open circle; average, filled circle.

(**G**) %CR averaged from each 10 or 11 trials plotted against the number of total paired trials

(90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 18; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 13; 11 trials, n = 17). Fitted curves are also shown.

Fig 2. Learned eyelid responses

(**A**) Time courses of averaged eyelid closure for each day ($90\%_{CS-US}$: n = 18 obtained from CS-

alone trials; $10\%_{CS-US}$: n = 13 from CS-alone trials; 11 trials: n = 17 from paired & CS-alone trials).

For 11 trials, a black trace obtained from averaging eyelid closures in CS-alone trials during 10

days is also shown. For averaging, only eyelid traces showing responses were used. Baseline level

before CS was aligned to 0% for each. (**B**, **C**) Averaged amplitude (left), onset latency (middle)

and peak latency (right) of eyeblink responses (B), and coefficient of variance for peak latency

(C) obtained from all trials with responses. Individual, open circle; average, filled circle. Tukey-

Kramer test.

Fig 3. Critical role of DCN activity for occurrence of established CRs

(A, B) Schematics of pharmacological inactivation by muscimol (A) and the target location (B) in the cerebellum. Muscimol or aCSF was infused through an implanted guide cannula (top). Mice had at least 30 trials before/after muscimol or aCSF infusion (middle). Area for muscimol diffusion identified from fluorescence on a horizontal cryosection is shown in A, bottom (white dashed line), and summarized in B ($90\%_{CS-US}$, n = 5; $10\%_{CS-US}$, n = 5). Cannula tip positions are also shown in B, top ($90\%_{CS-US}$, n = 4; $10\%_{CS-US}$, n = 5). The distance of each average cannula position was less than 150 μm and the diameter of muscimol diffused area was 1.45 ± 0.19 mm for $90\%_{CS-US}$; 1.50 ± 0.12 mm for $10\%_{CS-US}$. **(C)** Representative eyelid traces from a single mouse in $90\%_{CS-US}$ (top) and $10\%_{CS-US}$ (bottom) before, after and the next day of muscimol infusion. **(D, E)** Averaged eyelid traces before/after muscimol (top) or aCSF (bottom) infusion in $90\%_{CS-US}$ (D,

836 n = 6) and $10\%_{CS-US}$ (E, n = 6). Eyelid traces from all acceptable trials were used for averaging.

837 (**F**) %CR changes before/after infusion of muscimol (top) and aCSF (bottom). ***, $p < 0.001$ by

838 paired t-test.

Fig 4. Dynamics of CR probability and eyelid closures during memory extinction

(**A**, **B**) Daily %CR changes during 14 days of training consisting of acquisition and extinction sessions (A) and %CR averaged from each 10 trial during 4 days extinction (B). 90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 8; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 9; 11 trials, n = 7. (**C**) Averaged %CR changes of every 10 trials from the beginning of extinction day1-4 were plotted against the number of CS-alone trials with fitting to single exponential curves. (**D**, **E**) Averaged eyelid closure traces on acquisition day2, 5, 7, 10 and

extinction day1-4 (D), indicated by different colors, and daily changes of averaged amplitude of

eyelid closure (E) during acquisition and extinction paradigms. For $90\%_{CS-US}$ and $10\%_{CS-US}$, from

CS-alone trials; for 11 trials, from both paired & CS-alone trials. The baseline level before CS

was aligned to 0% for each. (**F**) Example eyelid traces for responses like spontaneous eyeblink (>

90% of eyelid closure with half-width < 150 ms). (**G**) Ratio of spontaneous eyeblink-like ones to

all responses. Acquisition, ac; extinction, ex. *, $p < 0.05$ by paired t-test. (**H**) Onset latency (left)

and peak latency (right) during acquisition and extinction training. *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***,

$p < 0.001$ by paired t-test.

Fig 5. Modeling of formation of counteracting memories for CRs

(**A**) Model scheme for input-dependent memory formation for CR execution and its suppression.

(**B**) Simulated CR_{ratio} plotted as lines against total trial number during acquisition (left) and

extinction (right) paradigms, together with %CR averaged from each 10 or 11 trial recorded in

experiments (dots, 90%$_{CS-US}$, n = 12; 10%$_{CS-US}$, n = 11; 11 trials, n = 16). (**C-F**) Two components

for memory to execute CR, $v1_{1st}$ (C) and $v1_{2nd}$ (D), the counteracting memory to suppress CR, $v2$

(E), and its gate g (F) are plotted against total trial number during acquisition (left) and extinction

(right) in simulation.

Fig 6. Prediction and validation of long- or short-lasting suppression memory model

(**A**) Prediction of CR_{ratio} changes during acquisition by 90%$_{CS-US}$ following the 4 days CS-alone

exposure (Pre) in models assuming long (solid line)- or short (dotted line)-lasting $v2$. Actual

experimental results of CR ratio averaged from each 10 trial (n = 8, dot) are also shown to

evaluate the model prediction. Training protocols for the Pre group is also shown as inset. (**B**)

Daily %CR changes during 10 days of acquisition training. Pre, n = 8. Data for the 90%$_{CS-US}$ (n

= 12), 10%$_{CS-US}$ (n = 11), and 11 trials (n = 16) shown in Fig. 1F are also superimposed for

comparison. (**C**) Averaged eyelid closures observed in CS-alone trials on day2, 4, 6, 8, 10 in the

Pre group mice which were given CS-alone trials for 4 days in prior to the 90% CS-US pairing.

(**D**) Averaged %CR for every 10 trials on day7-10 were plotted against trials number (left).

Comparison of averaged %CR in 1-10 and 91-100 trials (right). *, p < 0.05 by paired t-test.