

1 **THE NMDA RECEPTOR SUBUNIT (GLUN1 AND GLUN2A) MODULATION**  
2 **FOLLOWING DIFFERENT CONDITIONS OF COCAINE ABSTINENCE IN RAT**  
3 **BRAIN STRUCTURES**

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5 **Irena Smaga<sup>a\*</sup>, Karolina Wydra<sup>a</sup>, Agata Suder<sup>a</sup>, Małgorzata Frankowska<sup>a</sup>, Marek**  
6 **Sanak<sup>b</sup>, Lucia Caffino<sup>c</sup>, Fabio Fumagalli<sup>c</sup>, Małgorzata Filip<sup>a</sup>**

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8 <sup>a</sup>Maj Institute of Pharmacology Polish Academy of Sciences, Department of Drug  
9 Addiction Pharmacology, Smętna 12, PL 31-343 Kraków, Poland

10 <sup>b</sup>Department of Internal Medicine, Jagiellonian University Medical College, Skawińska  
11 8, PL 31-066 Kraków, Poland

12 <sup>c</sup>Department of Pharmacological and Biomolecular Sciences, Università degli Studi di  
13 Milano Via Balzaretti 9, 20133 Milano, Italy.

14  
15 \* Corresponding author.

16 E-mail address: [smaga@if-pan.krakow.pl](mailto:smaga@if-pan.krakow.pl)

17 Tel.: +48 12 6623268, Fax: +48 12 6374500

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1 **Abstract**

2 Different neuronal alterations within glutamatergic system seem to be crucial for developing of  
3 cocaine-seeking behavior. Cocaine exposure provokes a modulation of the NMDA receptor  
4 subunit expression in rodents, which probably contributes to cocaine-induced behavioral  
5 alterations. The aim of this study was to examine the composition of the NMDA receptor  
6 subunits in the brain structures in rats with the history of cocaine self-administration after  
7 cocaine abstinence i) in an enriched environment, ii) in an isolated condition, iii) with extinction  
8 training or iv) without instrumental task, as well as the *Grin1* (encoding GluN1) and *Grin2A*  
9 (encoding GluN2A) gene expression were evaluated after 10-day extinction training in rat brain  
10 structures. In the present study, we observed changes only following cocaine abstinence with  
11 extinction training, when increased the GluN2A subunit levels were seen in the postsynaptic  
12 density fraction (not in the whole homogenate) in the prelimbic cortex (PLC) and dorsal  
13 hippocampus (dHIP) in rats previously self-administered cocaine. At the same time, 10 days of  
14 extinction training did not change the *Grin1* and *Grin2A* gene expression in these structures. In  
15 conclusion, NMDA receptor subunit modulation observed following cocaine abstinence with  
16 extinction training may represent a potential target in cocaine-seeking behavior.

17

18 **Keywords**

19 cocaine abstinence, cocaine self-administration, NMDA receptor subunit

20

21 **Abbreviations**

22 BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; dHIP, dorsal hippocampus; dSTR, dorsal striatum;  
23 ILC, infralimbic cortex; LTD, long-term depression; LTP, long-term potentiation; NMDA, N-  
24 methyl-D-aspartate; PLC, prelimbic cortex; vHIP- ventral hippocampus; vSTR, ventral  
25 striatum.

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## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Cocaine exposure causes structural and functional adaptations within the neural reward  
3 circuitry, which seem to be at the core of cocaine use disorder. These neurobiological  
4 adaptations in the brain promote a craving for cocaine, while dysfunction of reward motivation  
5 induces frequent drug-taking. Different neuronal alterations within glutamate signaling  
6 (glutamate levels, receptors, and transporters) may be involved in the development of drug  
7 craving by enhancing the incentive motivational value of cocaine (1). NMDA receptors play a  
8 significant role in several physiological processes, as well as are involved in the pathogenesis  
9 of different brain disorders including substance use disorders (2). NMDA receptors are  
10 tetrameric protein complexes composed of two obligatory GluN1 subunits and two GluN2 (A-  
11 D) subunits. NMDA receptors require the membrane depolarization and binding of both  
12 endogenous glutamate via the GluN2 subunit and the coagonist glycine via the GluN1 subunit,  
13 which results in the opening of channel pores permeable to several ions (3).

14 Over the past decade, most research has suggested that the development of substance  
15 use disorder is related with cocaine-induced plasticity in the glutamatergic transmission (1),  
16 while changes in the NMDA receptor subunit composition may represent a potential cellular  
17 mechanism leading to cocaine-seeking behavior. The transition from cocaine abuse to  
18 dependence, as well as the transition from cocaine dependence to cocaine abstinence, may be  
19 provoked by changes in the NMDA receptor subunit composition (2). After contingent-drug  
20 delivery in drug self-administration, animals typically undergo drug forced abstinence under  
21 either extinction training or withdrawal conditions. Withdrawal usually occurs outside the  
22 experimental chambers (in a home cage or in an enriched environment), while extinction  
23 training in the experimental chambers produces reduction (extinction) of the behavioral  
24 response (e.g., decreases in active lever pressing that no longer results in drug delivery) (4).  
25 Little is known about the changes within the NMDA receptor subunit composition in different  
26 condition of drug-free period. Recently, we have shown the increased levels of GluN1 and  
27 GluN2A subunit expression in the nucleus accumbens following cocaine self-administration  
28 (5). Increased accumbal GluN1 levels were maintained after 10-day cocaine abstinence with  
29 extinction training, while cocaine abstinence in other conditions (isolation, enriched  
30 environment, experimental cage without instrumental task) normalized the GluN1 levels  
31 observed in rats previously self-administering cocaine (5). Therefore, these receptors and the  
32 composition of the receptor subunit are of major interest in their role in the cocaine use disorder,  
33 as well as the role of the NMDA receptor subunit seems to be critical in drug-free periods in  
34 different conditions of abstinence.

1           The aim of this study was determination of the composition of the NMDA receptor  
2 subunits – GluN1 and GluN2A - in the total homogenate and post-synaptic density (PSD)  
3 fraction of the dorsal (dHIP) and ventral (vHIP) hippocampus, dorsal (dSTR) and ventral  
4 (vSTR) striatum, infralimbic (ILC) and prelimbic (PLC) cortex, and basolateral amygdala  
5 (BLA) in abstinent rats following a history of cocaine self-administration. Furthermore, the  
6 *Grin1* (encoding GluN1 subunit) and *Grin2A* (encoding GluN2A subunit) gene expression were  
7 determined using microarray analysis to evaluate the changes in the rat brain structures after  
8 cocaine abstinence with extinction training. Cocaine forced abstinence was performed in an  
9 enriched environment (in big home cages with social influence and toys without any influence  
10 of cocaine or the drug-associated conditioned stimulus), in an isolated condition (home cages  
11 without any influence of cocaine or drug-associated conditioned stimulus), under extinction  
12 training (daily sessions with no delivery of cocaine nor the presentation of the conditioned  
13 stimulus - tone + light associated with cocaine delivery), or exposure to experimental chambers  
14 without access to accomplish instrumental response (levers removed).

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## 16 **2. Materials and methods**

### 17 *2.1. Animals*

18 Male Wistar rats (225-250 g; Charles River, Sulzfeld, Germany) were housed in collective cages  
19 in a room maintained at  $22 \pm 2^\circ \text{C}$  and  $55 \pm 10\%$  humidity under a 12-h light–dark cycle (between  
20 6.00 a.m. and 6.00 p.m.). Rats have free access to water and standard animal food (VRF1  
21 pellets, UK) except for the initial training to lever presses and the first three days of self-  
22 administration procedure (see below). All the experiment procedures were carried out in  
23 accordance with EU directive 2010/63/EU and with approval of the Local Ethics Commission  
24 at the Maj Institute of Pharmacology Polish Academy of Sciences in Krakow, Poland  
25 (1235/2015). The experimental protocol steps are presented in Fig. 1.

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### 27 *2.2. Drugs*

28 Cocaine hydrochloride (Toronto Research Chemicals, Canada) was dissolved in sterile 0.9%  
29 NaCl and given intravenously in a volume of 0.1 ml per infusion.

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### 31 *2.3. Intravenous catheter implantation*

32 Rats were anesthetized (ketamine hydrochloride, 75 mg/kg, i.m. and xylazine, 5 mg/kg, i.m.;  
33 Biowet, Poland) and implanted with a silastic catheter in the external right jugular vein, as  
34 described previously (6). Meloxicam (Metacam, Boehringer Ingelheim; 5 mg/kg, s.c.) was

1 used to reduce post-operative pain during 3 days after surgery. Catheters were flushed daily  
2 with 0.2 ml of saline solution containing cephalosporin (100 mg/ml; Biochemie GmbH, Austria)  
3 and heparin (100 U/ml; Biochemie GmbH, Austria) to prevent catheter non-patency as a result  
4 of blood clotting during the recovery period (7 days).

#### 5 6 *2.4. Initial training*

7 Rats were trained to press lever for food pellets (VRF1 pellets, UK) under a fixed ratio (FR)  
8 from 1 to 5 reinforcement schedule from 2 to 3 days for 2 h daily in a sound attenuated, standard  
9 operant conditioning chambers (Med-Associates, St. Albans, VT, USA). Starting 24 h prior to  
10 the food training session, rats received rations of ~20 g of chow daily. Each chamber was  
11 equipped with reward feeder presses on active lever resulted in the delivery of 0.1 ml of  
12 sweetened milk and continued until rats reached a criterion of 100 active lever presses, while  
13 the inactive lever was not programmed.

#### 14 15 *2.5. Cocaine self-administration*

16 Following food training period, rats began the self-administration procedures using the same  
17 standard operant chambers. During cocaine self-administration (0.5 mg/kg/infusion, 2 h/day,  
18 14 days) rats obtained a minimum of 10 infusions per day. Active lever presses during cocaine  
19 self-administration resulted in delivery dose of cocaine, as well as the stimulus light  
20 illumination (24-V) above the active lever and a tone presentation (2000 Hz; 15 dB),  
21 simultaneously for a programmed duration of 5 sec. A 20-sec timeout followed the delivery of  
22 each infusion during which time active lever presses were recorded but had no consequences.  
23 Presses on the inactive lever were recorded, but not reinforced. Acquisition of the conditioned  
24 operant response lasted until subjects met a stable average of three consecutive days (a standard  
25 deviation within those days of <10% of the average) (7).

26 Rats were tested simultaneously in groups with rats serving as yoked controls that  
27 received an injection of saline (yoked saline) or cocaine (yoked cocaine), which was not  
28 contingent on the response, and each time a response-contingent injection of 0.5 mg/kg cocaine  
29 was self-administered by the paired rat. Unlike self-administering rats, lever pressing by the  
30 yoked rats was recorded but had no programmed consequence. After the 14th (2-h) self-  
31 administration session all animals, which met the maintenance criterion, were separated to  
32 undergo 10 days of cocaine abstinence in four housing conditions: i) cocaine abstinence in an  
33 enriched environment; ii) cocaine abstinence in an isolated condition; iii) cocaine abstinence  
34 with extinction training and iv) cocaine abstinence without the instrumental task.

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*2.6. Yoked self-administration procedure*

To distinguish the pharmacological effects of cocaine from those related to motivation we used the yoked procedure. Briefly, the yoked cocaine rats received an infusion of cocaine at the same dose and rate as the self-administration group, while yoked saline rats received an infusion of saline. The levers pressed by the yoked rats were recorded but had no programmed consequences.

*2.7. Cocaine abstinence procedures*

*2.7.1. Cocaine abstinence in an enriched environment*

During abstinence in an enriched environment rats (N=8 rats/group) lived in standard large cages that housed four animals. These rats were handled several times per day in cages contained bedding, two water bottles, short or long PVC pipes, pieces of cotton material mounted to the top of the cage, and small plastic and/or wood toys. Toys, cotton material, and PVC pipes were changed 3 times per week to maintain novelty.

*2.7.2. Cocaine abstinence in an isolated condition*

During abstinence rats were in the social isolation. The animals (N=7 rats/group) lived individually in the plastic cage with white walls (isolation cage) in a room to which only the experimenter had access to reduce social interactions. Animals were handled once per week.

*2.7.3. Cocaine abstinence with extinction training*

The rats (N=8 rats/group) following the last cocaine self-administration session underwent an extinction training. During extinction, all animals at 2-h daily training sessions had no delivery of cocaine or the presentation of the conditioned stimulus. Animals that met the extinction criterion (i.e., responses on the active lever fell to <10% of the responses at the active lever reached during self-administration of cocaine) were sacrificed immediately following the last (10<sup>th</sup>) session of extinction training for Western blot analyses. Separated three groups of animals (N=8 rats/group) were sacrificed following the last (10<sup>th</sup>) session of extinction training for microarray analyses; these animals were the same as in our previous study (8).

*2.7.4. Cocaine abstinence without the instrumental task*

The animals (N=8 rats/group) following the last cocaine self-administration session underwent a 10-day training in self-administered operant chambers, where the rats had no presentation of

1 the conditioned stimulus and levers (only home light) during 2-h daily sessions.

## 2 3 *2.8. Brain structures isolation*

4 All animals were decapitated in the 10<sup>th</sup> cocaine abstinence day. Rat brains were rapidly  
5 removed on ice-chilled surface. Selected brain structures (i.e., ILC, PLC, dHIP, vHIP, dSTR,  
6 vSTR, BLA) were isolated according to The Rat Brain Atlas (9) immediately frozen on dry ice  
7 and stored at -80°C for Western blot analyses. Separated groups of animals were decapitated  
8 following the last (10<sup>th</sup>) session of extinction training (these animals were the same as in our  
9 previous study (8)), and prefrontal cortex (PFCTX), dSTR and HIP were isolated according to  
10 The Rat Brain Atlas (9) immediately frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C for microarray  
11 analyses.

## 12 13 *2.9. Biochemical analyses*

### 14 *2.9.1. Western blot*

15 Brain structures were homogenized in a teflon-glass potter in a cold buffer (0.32 M  
16 sucrose buffer pH 7.4 containing 1 mM HEPES, 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and 0.1 mM  
17 PMSF, a cocktail of protease and phosphatase inhibitors). The homogenate was centrifuged at  
18 1000 × g for 10 min obtaining a pellet (P1, the nuclear fraction). The supernatant (S1) was then  
19 centrifuged at 9000 × g for 15 min to obtain a fraction S2, cytosolic proteins and a pellet P2, a  
20 crude membrane fraction. Then P2 was resuspended in 1 mM HEPES with protease and  
21 phosphatase inhibitors and centrifuged at 100000 × g for 1 h. The pellet (P3) was resuspended  
22 in a buffer (75 mM KCl and 1% Triton X-100) in a glass-glass potter and centrifuged at 100000  
23 × g for 1 h obtaining supernatant (S4, Triton X-100 soluble fraction) and the pellet (P4, PSD or  
24 Triton X-100 insoluble fraction (TIF)). The pellet (P4) was homogenized in a glass-glass potter  
25 in 20 mM HEPES with protease and phosphatase inhibitors and stored at -20 °C at the presence  
26 of glycerol 30%. For protein determination, a bicinchoninic acid assay (BCA) protein assay kit  
27 (Serva, Germany) was used.

28 Homogenate (10 µg of proteins) and PSD fraction (5 µg of proteins) were then denatured  
29 in SDS-PAGE sample buffer (62.5 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 10% glycerol, 2% SDS, and 0.001%  
30 bromophenol blue) containing 5% β-mercaptoethanol for 2 min at 85° C, next chilled 2 min in  
31 ice, heated 5 min at 85° C, and finally chilled 2 min in ice. Protein samples were resolved by  
32 electrophoresis in 4–15% gradient precast polyacrylamide gels (Bio-Rad, Poland) and  
33 transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane. Membranes were blocked in 3%  
34 non-fat dry milk, and separate sets of membranes were probed with mouse anti-GluN1

1 monoclonal antibody (1:1000; 32-0500, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and rabbit anti-  
2 GluN2A polyclonal antibody (1:1000; A-6473; Molecular Probes, The Netherlands). The  
3 expression of NMDA receptor subunits was evaluated relative to that of  $\beta$ -actin control protein  
4 using mouse monoclonal antibody at dilution of 1:1000 (A5441; Sigma-Aldrich, USA). Blots  
5 were washed and incubated with goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody (1:6000; 926- 68071; Li-  
6 cor, USA) or goat anti-mouse (1:6000; 926-32210; Li-cor, USA) and visualized with a  
7 fluorescence detection Odyssey Clx (Li-cor, USA). Analysis was performed using Image Studio  
8 v.2.1. All data were expressed as % of control.

### 9 10 2.9.2. RNA isolation

11 The isolation of DNA and RNA was performed using the RNA/DNA/PROTEIN Purification  
12 Plus Kit (Norgen Biotek, Canada). Briefly, the brain structures (PFCTX, HIP and dSTR) from  
13 rats underwent cocaine abstinence with extinction training were homogenized (30 s at 3000  
14 rpm, then 2  $\times$  30 s at 2500 rpm; Bioprep-24 Homogenizer (Aosheng, China)) with ceramic  
15 beads and lysis buffer. RNA samples were eluted in nuclease-free water preheated to 60 °C and  
16 purified from DNA (RNA Clean-Up kit; Syngen, Poland). The quantity and quality of the  
17 isolated RNA samples were determined using a NanoDrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer  
18 (Thermo Scientific, USA) and agarose gel electrophoresis, as well as the RNA integrity was  
19 checked using chip-based capillary electrophoresis with an RNA 6000 Nano Chip Kit and an  
20 Agilent Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, USA).

### 21 22 2.9.3. Microarray Analysis

23 *Grin1* and *Grin2A* gene expression was performed using the Rat 4x44K Gene Expression Array  
24 v2 (Agilent Technologies, USA) in rat brain structures. Sample labeling and hybridization were  
25 performed according to the Agilent One-Color Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis  
26 protocol. Four pools of RNA per group (RNA from two rats at equal concentrations; 2  $\mu$ g of  
27 total RNA) were converted to complementary DNA (cDNA) and transcribed into  
28 complementary RNA (cRNA) in the presence of cyanine 3-UTP. Then, the labeled cRNAs (1  
29  $\mu$ g) were fragmented and hybridized to the array for 17 h at 65 °C with rotation and washed to  
30 remove nonspecific hybridization. The Agilent Microarray Scanner and Feature Extraction  
31 software (v 11.0.1.1) (Agilent Technologies, USA) was used to image acquisition and feature  
32 extraction for the array. Subsequent quantile normalization and data processing were carried  
33 out using the GeneSpring GX software, v. 12.1 (Agilent Technologies, USA).

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1 *2.10. Statistical analyses*

2 All data were expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM. In behavioral experiments, the number of  
3 responses on the “active” and “inactive” lever and number of infusions were analyzed using an  
4 one- or multi-way analysis of variance (ANOVAs) for repeated measurements, the latter  
5 analysis followed by post-hoc Newman-Keuls test. In neurochemical studies, statistical  
6 analyses were performed with an one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett’s test to analyze  
7 differences between group means. An one-way ANOVA followed by a Bonferroni post hoc test  
8 for gene expression data was used.  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

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10 **3. Results**

11 *3.1. Behavioral effects*

12 *3.1.1. Cocaine self-administration*

13 All rats acquired cocaine self-administration (i.e., they received  $>23$  infusion/2-h under 0.5  
14 mg/kg/infusion) and displayed  $<10\%$  variation in the number of cocaine infusions in 14 daily  
15 sessions rats. The mean number of cocaine infusions per day during the last 3 self-  
16 administration days varied from 22 to 28. The mean of total cocaine intake during 14 days for  
17 four cocaine self-administered groups ranged from  $157 \pm 7$  to  $186 \pm 24$  mg/rat. Animals were  
18 divided in 4 groups that underwent cocaine abstinence in an enriched environment, in an  
19 isolated condition, extinction training or abstinence in the experimental cage without the  
20 instrumental task. During the 3 last cocaine self-administration sessions behavioral responding  
21 in four analyzed groups was stable (day  $\times$  group  $\times$  lever ( $F(6, 108)=0.827$ ;  $p=0.551$ ), groups  
22  $F(3, 54)=0.788$ ;  $p=0.505$ ), readily discriminated between the inactive and active lever ( $F(1,$   
23  $54)=96.74$ ;  $p<0.000$ ). Similarly, daily cocaine intake between four groups self-administered  
24 cocaine did not differ (day  $\times$  groups  $F(6, 54)=0.973$ ,  $p=0.452$ ). During the 3 last training  
25 sessions the responding in the yoked cocaine (day  $\times$  group  $\times$  lever  $F(6, 108)=1.187$ ;  $p=0.318$ )  
26 and the yoked saline (day  $\times$  group  $\times$  lever  $F(6, 108)=1.405$ ;  $p=0.218$ ) was comparable in four  
27 analyzed groups (Fig. 2).

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29 *3.2. Biochemical analyses*

30 *3.2.1. Expression of GluN1 subunit*

31 Cocaine forced abstinence did not produce changes in the GluN1 expression levels in  
32 rats after 10-day cocaine abstinence in different conditions (Table 1).

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34 *3.2.2. Expression of GluN2A subunit*

1 Cocaine forced abstinence did not produce changes in the GluN2A expression levels in  
2 rats housing in an enriched environment (Fig. 2A; 3A) and in an isolated condition (Fig. 2B;  
3 3B) previously self-administering cocaine, as well as in rats following abstinence without the  
4 instrumental task (Fig. 2D; 3D). Ten-days of extinction training increased the expression of the  
5 GluN2A subunit in the in the PLC ( $F(2, 21)=5.517$ ;  $p=0.012$ ) and in the dHIP in the PSD  
6 fraction ( $F(2, 21)=3.507$ ;  $p=0.048$ ) (Fig. 3C), while the expression of this subunit did not change  
7 in the whole homogenate (Fig. 2C).

### 8 9 3.2.3. Gene expression

10 The *Grin1* and *Grin2A* gene expression did not change after 10 days of extinction  
11 training in the rat brain structures in rats previously self-administered cocaine vs. yoked saline  
12 and yoked cocaine group (Table 2). A decrease in *Grin2A* gene expression was shown in the  
13 PFCTX in rats passively administered cocaine (yoked cocaine) vs. cocaine self-administration  
14 group ( $F(2, 9)=7.28$ ;  $p=0.013$ ) (Table 2).

## 15 16 4. Discussion

17 In the present study, we examined the expression of the NMDA receptor subunits in  
18 selected rat brain structures during different conditions of cocaine abstinence. We show that 10  
19 days of cocaine abstinence with extinction training evoked an increase in the GluN2A subunit  
20 levels in the PSD fraction of the PLC and dHIP in rats previously self-administered cocaine,  
21 without the effect on the *Grin2A* gene expression.

22 The level of GluN2A subunit increased in the dHIP after cocaine abstinence with  
23 extinction training in animals previously self-administered cocaine only in the PSD fraction,  
24 but not in the whole homogenate. Additionally, it should be noted that the expression of gene  
25 *Grin2A* encoding the GluN2A subunit did not change in rats following the 10-day drug-free  
26 period, which suggests that changes seen in the PSD fraction revealed the trafficking of these  
27 subunits into the synapse surface rather than increased synthesis of GluN2A. Higher level of  
28 GluN2A subunit expression in the dHIP is characteristic only for the extinction training. In fact,  
29 it was shown that dHIP plays a principal role in the regulation of the reconsolidation of  
30 contextual cocaine memories that direct instrumental cocaine-seeking behavior (10). Src family  
31 of tyrosine kinases (SFKs)-dependent phosphorylation of GluN2A subunits promotes synaptic  
32 strengthening and LTP (11), as well as is necessary for context-elicited cocaine-seeking  
33 behaviors (12). Additionally, GluN2A-containing NMDA receptors induce Ras-GRF2-  
34 dependent LTP in hippocampal neurons (13). An increase in the functional GluN2A subunit

1 level in the dHIP seems to be obligatory during memory reconsolidation. In fact, injection into  
2 dHIP PP2 (an ATP-competitive inhibitor of SFKs) administered following exposure to the  
3 cocaine-paired context, but not the home cage, reduced the GluN2A subunit activation, as well  
4 as the subsequent cocaine-seeking behavior (14). Moreover, the injection of NVP-AAM077, a  
5 GluN2A subunit antagonist, directly into dHIP following or in the absence of cocaine-memory  
6 reactivation attenuated subsequent drug context-induced cocaine-seeking behavior in a memory  
7 reactivation-dependent manner (14). Extinction training reduces drug-seeking behavior to the  
8 drug-associated conditioned response by extinguishing contingency between drug seeking and  
9 delivery of the drug reward. It is believed that extinction training is not simply the removal of  
10 a previously formed association, but it involves the generation of a new memory that competes  
11 with the initial memory for control of behavior (15, 16). In fact, after extinction training: (i)  
12 drug-seeking behavior can be reactivated, (ii) the retraining of self-administration after  
13 extinction is considerably less compared to original training, (iii) drug-seeking resumes after  
14 lengthy periods of extinction training indicating that the original drug-memory remains, (iv)  
15 extinction is context-specific, which means that original memory of drug reinforcement is kept  
16 (4, 15). These findings are supported by the study in which increased levels of GluN2A in the  
17 HIP was seen after 10-day extinction training in rats previously self-administered cocaine (17),  
18 however this increase was not observed immediately after cocaine self-administration session  
19 (17).

20 Interestingly, changes in the GluN2A subunit levels were observed in the PLC in the  
21 PSD fraction, where an increase in this protein level was reported in rats previously  
22 administered cocaine after 10-days of extinction training. Neither GluN2A in the whole  
23 homogenate, nor the *Grin2A* expression changed in this structure, suggesting the trafficking of  
24 these subunits into the synapse surface. An increase of the GluN2A subunit has been also  
25 reported previously in the whole homogenate of the PFCTX after 10-day extinction training in  
26 rats previously self-administered cocaine and passively administered cocaine (17). The reasons  
27 for these differences between the present and Pomierny-Chamiolo et al. (2015) results are  
28 probably related to the different conditions used during GluN2A subunit determination, i.e.  
29 antibody specificity, membranes (fresh vs. stripping buffer treated membranes (17)), method of  
30 visualization (fluorescence vs. chemiluminescent detection (17)), brain structure (part of the  
31 PFCTX, PLC, vs. whole PFCTX (17)). It should be noted that an increase in the GluN2A  
32 subunit level was not observed immediately after the last cocaine self-administration session  
33 (17), but this increase was associated with the drug-free period. PLC mediates the action-  
34 outcome learning, while ILC is responsible for stimulus-response, which are two forms of

1 learning to control over instrumental responding (18). The glutamatergic activity in the PLC  
2 afferents to the nucleus accumbens core is necessary to induce reinstatement by cocaine or cues  
3 (19). Pharmacological inactivation of PLC blocked cocaine-induced reinstatement of active  
4 lever pressing (20). It was shown that cocaine self-administration reduced the phospho-GluN2A  
5 levels in the PLC (21) probably by the activation of striatal-enriched tyrosine phosphatase  
6 (STEP) (22). So, increased GluN2A level in the PLC seems to be a compensatory mechanism  
7 that occur after 10-day extinction training. Furthermore, infusion of the GluN2A-containing  
8 NMDA receptor antagonist (3-chloro-4-fluoro-N-[4-[[2-  
9 (phenylcarbonyl)hydrazino]carbonyl]benzyl] benzenesulfonamide) (TCN-201) into the PLC  
10 inhibited the BDNF (brain-derived neurotrophic factor)-mediated increase in phospho-GluN2A  
11 (21). Similarly, PP2, the SFK inhibitor administered during the last session of cocaine self-  
12 administration into the PLC prior to BDNF infusion, also blocked the phosphorylation of the  
13 NMDA receptor subunit mediated by BDNF, as well as attenuated suppressive effect of BDNF  
14 on cue-induced reinstatement in rats previously self-administered cocaine (23).

15         Neither cocaine abstinence in an enriched environment, nor in an isolated condition, nor  
16 abstinence without the instrumental task change the composition of the NMDA receptor  
17 subunit. In line with these observations, recently we have shown increased accumbal levels of  
18 the GluN1 subunit in rats following a drug-free period with extinction training previously self-  
19 administered cocaine, while others conditions of abstinence abolished the higher levels of  
20 GluN1 and GluN2A observed after cocaine self-administration in the nucleus accumbens (5).  
21 It was suggested that environmental conditions may have a critical role in cocaine use disorder.  
22 In fact, the isolation increased the risk of relapse, while enriched environment and behavioral  
23 cue-extinction therapy reduced cocaine-seeking behavior (24, 25). Unfortunately, treatments  
24 based on manipulations of learning and memory processes involved in encoding the  
25 associations non-reinforced exposure to drug-related stimuli or the drugs themselves have  
26 produced disappointing results in human addicts (4).

27

## 28 **5. Conclusions**

29         Our results showed that different conditions of cocaine abstinence did not produce  
30 changes in the GluN1 and GluN2A subunit protein expression, except cocaine abstinence with  
31 extinction training. 10-day drug-free period with extinction training procedure eliminated the  
32 cocaine injections and cue-contingent presentations and provoked reduction in the active lever  
33 pressing. This state was associated with higher level of the GluN2A subunit levels in the PSD  
34 fraction of the PLC and dHIP in rats previously self-administered cocaine, without the effect

1 on the Grin2A gene expression, which suggest that the latter changes was related with cellular  
2 trafficking of these subunit. We conclude that the NMDA receptor subunit modulation observed  
3 following cocaine abstinence with extinction training may represent a potential target in  
4 cocaine-seeking behavior.

## 6 **6. Conflict of interest**

8 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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