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1 **Astroglial CB₁ receptors determine synaptic D-serine**
2 **availability to enable recognition memory**

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Bidirectional communication between neurons and astrocytes shapes**
3 **synaptic plasticity and behavior. D-serine is a necessary co-agonist of synaptic**
4 **N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors (NMDAR), but the physiological factors**
5 **regulating its impact on memory processes are not known. This study shows**
6 **that astroglial CB₁ receptors are key determinants of object recognition**
7 **memory by determining the synaptic availability of D-serine in the**
8 **hippocampus. Mutant mice lacking CB₁ receptors from astroglial cells (GFAP-**
9 **CB₁-KO) displayed impaired object recognition memory and decreased *in vivo***
10 **and *in vitro* long-term potentiation (LTP) at CA3-CA1 hippocampal synapses.**
11 **Activation of CB₁ receptors increased intracellular astroglial Ca²⁺ levels and**
12 **extracellular levels of D-serine in hippocampal slices. Accordingly, GFAP-CB₁-**
13 **KO displayed lower occupancy of the co-agonist binding-site of synaptic**
14 **hippocampal NMDARs. Finally, elevation of D-serine levels fully rescued LTP**
15 **and memory impairments of GFAP-CB₁-KO mice. These data reveal a novel**
16 **mechanism of *in vivo* astroglial control of memory and synaptic plasticity *via***
17 **the D-serine-dependent control of NMDARs.**

18 **Introduction**

19 The endocannabinoid system is an important modulator of physiological
20 functions. It is composed of cannabinoid receptors, their endogenous ligands (*i.e.*
21 endocannabinoids, eCB) and the enzymatic machinery responsible for their synthesis
22 and degradation (Busquets-Garcia et al., 2018; Piomelli, 2003). The presence of
23 type-1 cannabinoid receptors (CB₁) and the activity-dependent mobilization of
24 endocannabinoids in different brain regions, including the hippocampus, are
25 particularly involved in the modulation of several types of memory and associated
26 cellular processes (Kano et al., 2009; Marsicano and Lafenetre, 2009). Moreover,
27 brain CB₁ receptors are expressed in different neuronal types, including inhibitory
28 gamma-Aminobutyric acid(GABA)ergic and excitatory glutamatergic neurons, where
29 their stimulation negatively regulates the release of neurotransmitters (Kano et al.,
30 2009).

1 CB₁ receptors are also expressed in glial cells, particularly astrocytes (Andrade-
2 Talavera et al., 2016; Han et al., 2012; Min and Nevian, 2012; Navarrete and Araque,
3 2008; Rasooli-Nejad et al., 2014). Astrocytes were thought for more than a century to
4 play an important supportive and nutritive role for neurons, without actively
5 participating in brain information processing (Allaman et al., 2011; Araque et al.,
6 2014). However, it is now known that peri-synaptic astroglial processes surrounding
7 pre- and post-synaptic neuronal elements form the so-called “tripartite synapse”,
8 where astrocytes actively contribute to information processing (Araque et al., 2014;
9 Perea et al., 2009).

10 *In vivo* and *in vitro* studies showed that astroglial CB₁ receptor signaling
11 indirectly modulates glutamatergic transmission onto hippocampal pyramidal neurons
12 (Han et al., 2012; Metna-Laurent and Marsicano, 2015; Navarrete and Araque, 2010;
13 Oliveira da Cruz et al., 2016). For instance, the disruptive effect of exogenous
14 cannabinoids on short-term spatial working memory is mediated by astroglial CB₁
15 receptors through a NMDAR-dependent mechanism in the hippocampus (Han et al.,
16 2012). Yet, the role of astroglial CB₁ receptors in physiological long-term memory
17 processes and the precise mechanisms involved are still unknown (Metna-Laurent
18 and Marsicano, 2015).

19 D-serine is the co-agonist of synaptic NMDARs and its action is required to
20 induce different forms of synaptic plasticity (Henneberger et al., 2010; Panatier and
21 Oliet, 2006; Panatier et al., 2006; Papouin et al., 2017b; Papouin et al., 2012;
22 Shigetomi et al., 2013; Sultan et al., 2015). Although the direct source of the amino
23 acid is still under debate (Araque et al., 2014; Papouin et al., 2017c; Wolosker et al.,
24 2016), there is convergent consensus that its supply to synapses requires Ca²⁺-
25 dependent astrocyte activity (Araque et al., 2014; Papouin et al., 2017c; Wolosker et
26 al., 2016). However, whether astroglial CB₁ receptors control the synaptic availability
27 of D-serine during memory processing is not known.

28 Using genetic, behavioral, electrophysiological, imaging and biochemical
29 experimental approaches, in this study we asked whether the physiological activity of
30 astroglial CB₁ receptors is involved in long-term object recognition memory, and
31 whether the mechanisms involved imply the regulation of glial-neuronal interactions.
32 The results show that physiological activation of astroglial CB₁ receptors in the

1 hippocampus is necessary for long-term object recognition memory consolidation *via*
2 a mechanism involving the supply of D-serine to synaptic NMDARs and,
3 consequently, the regulation of hippocampal synaptic plasticity. Thus, astroglial CB₁
4 receptors contribute to the time- and space-specific synaptic actions of astrocytes to
5 promote memory formation.
6

1 **Results**

2 ***Hippocampal astroglial CB₁ receptors deletion impairs object recognition*** 3 ***memory and in vivo NMDAR-dependent LTP***

4 To study the physiological role of astroglial CB₁ receptors in memory, we tested
5 conditional mutant mice lacking CB₁ receptors in glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)-
6 positive cells (GFAP-CB₁-KO mice) (Han et al., 2012) in a long-term novel object
7 recognition memory task in an L-maze (NOR) (Busquets-Garcia et al., 2011;
8 Puighermanal et al., 2013; Puighermanal et al., 2009). GFAP-CB₁-KO mice displayed
9 a significant memory deficit as compared to their control littermates (**Figure 1A**, see
10 also **Figure S1A**), with no alteration in total object exploration time (**Figure S1B**).
11 Hippocampal NMDARs-dependent transmission is involved in many forms of memory
12 (Kandel, 2002; Puighermanal et al., 2009; Warburton et al., 2013), yet the
13 involvement of hippocampal NMDARs on NOR memory is still under debate, as it
14 seems to depend on specific experimental conditions (Balderas et al., 2015;
15 Warburton and Brown, 2015). To clarify this issue, we set to investigate where these
16 receptors are required for NOR memory formation in our behavioral paradigm. Intra-
17 hippocampal administration of the NMDARs antagonist D-AP5 (15 µg/side, **Figure**
18 **S1C**) fully abolished memory performance in wild-type (WT) mice when injected
19 immediately after acquisition (**Figure 1B**, see also **Figure S1D**), but not 6 hours later
20 (**Figure S1F-H**), with no alteration in total exploration time (**Figure S1E**). Thus,
21 consolidation of long-term object recognition memory in the NOR task specifically
22 requires astroglial CB₁ receptors and hippocampal NMDARs signaling.

23 Activity-dependent plastic changes of synaptic strength, such as NMDARs-
24 dependent long-term potentiation (LTP), are considered cellular correlates of memory
25 formation (Kandel, 2002; Whitlock et al., 2006). To study astroglial CB₁ receptor
26 involvement in LTP, we recorded *in vivo* evoked field excitatory postsynaptic
27 potentials (fEPSPs) in the hippocampal CA3-CA1 pathway of anesthetized wild-type
28 and mutant mice. High-frequency stimulation (HFS) induced LTP in wild-type
29 C57BL/6-N mice (**Figure 1C,D**). The systemic administration of the NMDAR
30 antagonist MK-801 (3 mg/kg, i.p.), which did not alter basal evoked fEPSPs (**Figure**
31 **S1I-K**), fully blocked the induction of LTP (**Figure 1C,D** and **Figure S1I-K**),
32 confirming its NMDAR dependency. Notably, this form of plasticity was abolished in

1 GFAP-*CB₁*-KO mice as compared to their wild-type littermates (**Figure 1E,F**),
2 showing that *CB₁* receptors expressed in GFAP-positive cells are necessary for *in*
3 *vivo* hippocampal NMDAR-dependent LTP induction. Altogether, these data
4 demonstrate that astroglial *CB₁* receptors are essential for hippocampal NMDAR-
5 dependent object recognition memory and LTP.

6 ***Activation of *CB₁* receptors increases astroglial *Ca²⁺* levels and*** 7 ***extracellular D-serine***

8 Increase of astroglial intracellular *Ca²⁺* modulates synaptic glutamatergic activity
9 and plasticity *via* the release of gliotransmitters, whose identity likely depend on the
10 brain region and the type of plasticity involved (Araque et al., 2014; Sherwood et al.,
11 2017). Because activation of *CB₁* receptors generate *Ca²⁺* signals in astrocytes
12 (Araque et al., 2014; Metna-Laurent and Marsicano, 2015; Oliveira da Cruz et al.,
13 2016), the impaired object recognition memory and synaptic plasticity in GFAP-*CB₁*-
14 KO mice might result from alterations of astroglial *Ca²⁺* regulation of specific
15 hippocampal gliotransmitters.

16 First, we tested whether the *CB₁* receptor-dependent modulation of intracellular
17 *Ca²⁺* levels (Gomez-Gonzalo et al., 2015; Min and Nevian, 2012; Navarrete and
18 Araque, 2008, 2010) depends on direct activation of astroglial *CB₁* receptors. Local
19 pressure application of the *CB₁* receptor agonist WIN55,212-2 (WIN) induced a
20 reliable increase of *Ca²⁺* levels in somas and principal processes of hippocampal
21 astrocytes in slices from GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice (**Figure 2A-E**). As expected (Gomez-
22 Gonzalo et al., 2015; Min and Nevian, 2012; Navarrete and Araque, 2008, 2010), this
23 effect was fully blocked by the *CB₁* receptor antagonist AM251 (2 μ M, **Figure 2B-E**).
24 Notably, WIN had no effect in slices from GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates (**Figure 2B-E**),
25 clearly indicating the direct impact of astroglial *CB₁* receptor activation on intracellular
26 *Ca²⁺* levels.

27 *Via* *Ca²⁺*-dependent mechanisms, astrocytes can promote the synaptic release
28 of several signaling molecules known as gliotransmitters (Araque et al., 2014). One
29 of them is D-serine, which plays a key role in NMDAR signaling (Araque et al., 2014).
30 Therefore, we asked whether activation of *CB₁* receptors might modulate the release
31 of this amino acid. Application of WIN (5 μ M) to hippocampal slices did not alter the

1 tissue levels of several amino acids (**Figure S2A-D**). However, the same treatment
2 slightly, but specifically increased the extracellular levels of D-serine (**Figure 2F-I**),
3 indicating that activation of astroglial CB₁ receptors can control the release of this
4 signaling amino acid, a process that depends on intracellular Ca²⁺ signaling
5 (Bohmbach et al., 2017; Henneberger et al., 2010).

6 ***Astroglial CB₁ receptor-mediated D-serine supply is required for*** 7 ***hippocampal LTP***

8 D-serine is the co-agonist of hippocampal synaptic NMDARs and its presence is
9 necessary for LTP induction (Bohmbach et al., 2017; Henneberger et al., 2010;
10 Papouin et al., 2012). Thus, astroglial CB₁ receptors might control the activity of
11 NMDARs and hippocampal LTP by regulating the synaptic levels of D-serine.
12 Measurements of bulk extracellular amino acids as performed in **Figure 2F-I** do not
13 specifically address whether D-serine levels impact synaptic function. A direct way to
14 evaluate the levels and functions of synaptic D-serine is to perform
15 electrophysiological measurements to assess the occupancy of the NMDAR co-
16 agonist binding sites at CA3-CA1 synapses (Papouin et al., 2012). Thus, we
17 measured the impact of exogenous applications of the D-serine on NMDAR-mediated
18 fEPSPs at CA3-CA1 synapses in acute hippocampal slices (Papouin et al., 2012).
19 Bath application of D-serine (50 μM) increased NMDAR-dependent synaptic
20 responses in both GFAP-CB₁-WT and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (**Figure 3A,B**). Strikingly,
21 the effect of D-serine was twice more pronounced in the absence of astroglial CB₁
22 receptors (**Figure 3A,B**), indicating that these receptors are necessary to maintain
23 appropriate concentrations of D-serine within the synaptic cleft and consequently
24 ensuring a proper level of occupancy of NMDAR co-agonist binding site.

25 Next, we asked whether astroglial CB₁ receptor-dependent release of D-serine
26 controls synaptic plasticity by regulating NMDAR activity. First, *in vitro*
27 electrophysiological recordings of fEPSPs at CA3-CA1 synapses in hippocampal
28 slices revealed that GFAP-CB₁-WT and GFAP-CB₁-KO have comparable input-out
29 relationships (**Figure S3A**), indicating that the deletion of astroglial CB₁ receptors did
30 not alter basal glutamatergic synaptic transmission. HFS is known to induce
31 endocannabinoid mobilization through the activation of mGluR1/5 receptors,
32 eventually leading to long-term depression of inhibitory transmission (I-LTD) in the

1 hippocampus (Castillo et al., 2012; Chevaleyre and Castillo, 2003). Therefore, we
2 asked whether mGluR1/5 receptors could be involved in HFS-induced LTP.
3 Application of the mGluR1/5 antagonists LY367385 and MTEP respectively did not
4 alter LTP (**Figure S3B,C**), suggesting that mGluR1/5 receptors are not involved in
5 this process. Similarly to *in vivo* electrophysiological results, HFS-induced LTP was
6 significantly reduced in GFAP-*CB*₁-KO mice as compared to GFAP-*CB*₁-WT (**Figure**
7 **3C**). Whereas the exogenous application of D-serine (50 μM) had no effect in slices
8 from GFAP-*CB*₁-WT mice, it fully rescued *in vitro* LTP in GFAP-*CB*₁-KO littermates
9 (**Figure 3D,E**). Importantly, the lack of *in vivo* LTP observed in GFAP-*CB*₁-KO was
10 fully restored by the systemic administration of D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p., **Figure 3F-**
11 **H**).

12 Considering that activation of astroglial *CB*₁ receptors increases Ca²⁺ in
13 astrocytes, we asked whether this subpopulation of cannabinoid receptors is involved
14 in the HFS-induced regulation of astroglial Ca²⁺ dynamics (Perea and Araque, 2005;
15 Porter and McCarthy, 1996; Sherwood et al., 2017). While the Ca²⁺ activity evoked in
16 both soma and large processes of astrocytes during the HFS was the same, GFAP-
17 *CB*₁-KO astrocytes displayed a reduction in the Ca²⁺ event probability after the HFS
18 as compared to wild-type littermates (**Figure S3D-J**). Altogether, these results show
19 that astroglial *CB*₁ receptors regulate Ca²⁺ dynamics in astrocytes and determine the
20 synaptic levels of the NMDAR co-agonist D-serine necessary for NMDAR-dependent
21 *in vitro* and *in vivo* LTP.

22 ***Astroglial CB₁ receptors determine NOR memory via D-serine***

23 If, as shown above, astroglial *CB*₁ receptors determine the activity of NMDARs
24 *via* the control of synaptic D-serine levels, this mechanism might underlie the
25 processing of NOR memory. Strikingly, a sub-effective dose of D-serine (*i.e.* having
26 no effect on memory performance *per se*, 50 mg/kg, i.p.; **Figure S4A**) reverted the
27 memory impairment of GFAP-*CB*₁-KO mice (**Figure 4A** see also **Figure S4B,C**). This
28 effect of D-serine in GFAP-*CB*₁-KO mice was not present when the injection occurred
29 1-hour after acquisition or immediately before test (**Figure S4D,E**), indicating that
30 only the initial phase of NOR memory consolidation is altered in the mutant mice.
31 Notably, administration of a sub-effective dose (**Figure S4F**) of the inhibitor of D-
32 amino acid-oxidase AS057278 (50 mg/kg, i.p.), which increases endogenous D-

1 serine levels *in vivo* (Adage et al., 2008), also rescued the phenotype of GFAP- CB_1 -
2 KO mice (**Figure 4B**, see also **Figure S4G,H**). Moreover, post-acquisition (*i.e.* after
3 training phase) intra-hippocampal injections of D-serine (sub-effective dose of 25
4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{side}$; **Figure S4I**) also restored NOR memory performance in GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice
5 (**Figure 4C**, see also **Figure S4J,K**). This suggests that the hippocampus is the brain
6 region where astroglial CB_1 receptors control NMDAR-dependent memory formation
7 *via* D-serine signaling. GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice, however, carry a deletion of the CB_1
8 gene in GFAP-positive cells in different brain regions (Bosier et al., 2013; Han et al.,
9 2012), leaving the possibility that D-serine signaling in the hippocampus is remotely
10 altered by deletion of astroglial CB_1 receptors elsewhere. To specifically delete the
11 CB_1 gene in hippocampal astrocytes, we injected an adeno-associated virus
12 expressing the CRE recombinase under the control of the GFAP promoter (AAV-
13 GFAP-CRE/mCherry) or a control AAV-GFAP-GFP into the hippocampi of mice
14 carrying the “floxed” CB_1 receptor gene (Marsicano et al., 2003) (**Figure 4D**). Mice
15 injected with the CRE recombinase were impaired in NOR memory performance
16 (**Figure 4E**, see also **Figure S4L,M**) and, notably, the systemic injection of D-serine
17 (50 mg/kg, i.p.) fully reversed this phenotype (**Figure 1E**, see also **Figure S4L,M**).
18 Thus, hippocampal astroglial CB_1 receptors are required for NOR memory
19 performance, *via* the control of D-serine signaling during the initial phase of memory
20 consolidation.

21

1 **Discussion**

2 These results show that astroglial CB₁ receptors are key determinants of
3 physiological consolidation of object recognition memory in the hippocampus. *Via*
4 Ca²⁺-dependent mechanisms, they provide the synaptic D-serine levels required to
5 functionally activate NMDARs and to induce LTP in the hippocampal CA1 region. In
6 turn, this process is necessary upon learning to consolidate long-term object
7 recognition memory (**Figure S5**). By causally linking the functions of a specific
8 subpopulation of CB₁ receptors, astroglial control of NMDAR activity *via* the
9 gliotransmitter D-serine and synaptic plasticity, these data provide an unforeseen
10 physiological mechanism underlying memory formation.

11 By showing that astroglial CB₁ receptors play a key role in the maintenance of
12 the basal levels of D-serine in the synaptic cleft and thus in the control of NMDAR
13 activity, these data shed light onto the pathway underpinning D-serine availability at
14 synapses. Interestingly, it has been recently demonstrated that the amount of D-
15 serine available during wakefulness depends on the activity of cholinergic fibers from
16 the medial septum (Papouin et al., 2017b). Thus, synaptic D-serine levels are under
17 the control of at least two sets of astroglial receptors, namely CB₁ (present data) and
18 α7-nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (Papouin et al., 2017b).

19 Astrocytes occupy non-overlapping domains of the neuropil where they survey
20 the activity of thousands of synapses (Bushong et al., 2002; Pannasch and Rouach,
21 2013; Papouin et al., 2017a). On the other hand, endocannabinoids are locally
22 mobilized at synapses in an activity-dependent manner and their actions are rather
23 limited in space and time (Castillo et al., 2012; Kano et al., 2009; Piomelli, 2003).
24 Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that astroglial CB₁ receptors may act as sensors
25 integrating the overall intensity of local synaptic activity within the territory of specific
26 astrocytes and this information may then be used to adjust the availability of D-serine
27 and the activity of NMDARs. In this context, we propose that the astroglial CB₁-
28 dependent regulation of D-serine supply is a major mechanism determining how
29 much D-serine each astrocyte contributes to NMDARs as a function of neuronal
30 activity within its territory.

31 Astroglial CB₁ receptors have been so far described to impact synaptic plasticity
32 in different ways. For instance, their activation by exogenous cannabinoids can

1 promote NMDAR-dependent hippocampal LTD (Han et al., 2012), whereas their
2 endogenous stimulation can, depending on experimental conditions, lead to
3 heterosynaptic potentiation in the hippocampus, amygdala, and striatum (Martin et
4 al., 2015; Martin-Fernandez et al., 2017; Navarrete and Araque, 2008, 2010); spike-
5 timing depression in the neocortex (Min and Nevian, 2012); or hippocampal LTP
6 (present results). The conditions through which the activation of astroglial CB₁
7 receptors might lead to different synaptic effects are currently not known (Araque et
8 al., 2017; Metna-Laurent and Marsicano, 2015; Oliveira da Cruz et al., 2016). Future
9 studies will surely reveal novel functions of astroglial CB₁ receptors and will hopefully
10 determine the physiological conditions and the cellular mechanisms leading to
11 different forms of synaptic plasticity. In this context, the present data extend the value
12 of astroglial CB₁ receptors to the processing of object recognition memory through
13 the regulation of D-serine, a key astrocyte-dependent modulator of synaptic
14 functions.

15 The direct release of D-serine by astrocytes has been recently questioned,
16 suggesting that astrocytes release L-serine, which, in turn, shuttles to neurons to fuel
17 the neuronal synthesis of D-serine (Wolosker et al., 2016). Our data do not directly
18 address this issue, but they support the idea that astrocyte functions and synaptic D-
19 serine actions are required for hippocampal LTP (Henneberger et al., 2010; Papouin
20 et al., 2017b; Papouin et al., 2017c; Sherwood et al., 2017; Wolosker et al., 2016).
21 Activation of hippocampal CB₁ receptors by the agonist WIN induces a slight but
22 significant increase of extracellular D-serine levels, which is specific amongst
23 different amino acids. No clear evidence is currently present to explain the relative
24 low amplitude of this pharmacological effect. However, it is possible that bulk
25 measurement of amino acids lacks the power to detect specific changes at synaptic
26 level. Unfortunately, it is currently technically impossible to obtain synaptic
27 extracellular samples to directly measure amino acids in these tiny volumes. For this
28 reason, we implemented another direct and reliable measure of synaptic D-serine
29 levels by assessing the occupancy of synaptic NMDAR co-agonist sites
30 (Henneberger et al., 2010; Papouin et al., 2012). The results clearly show that the
31 occupancy of synaptic NMDAR co-agonist sites by D-Serine is strongly reduced
32 (more than 50%) in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice. High-frequency stimulation-induced LTP is
33 fully abolished in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice *in vivo*, but only partially reduced in *ex vivo*

1 hippocampal slices. These slight discrepancies are likely due to uncontrollable
2 factors that are necessarily different between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* experimental
3 conditions (Andersen, 2007; Windels, 2006). Importantly, however, the exogenous
4 application of D-serine at the same doses respectively restoring learning *in vivo* and
5 revealing the decrease of NMDAR occupancy in slices rescues LTP in both
6 experimental settings. Thus, independently of their direct source, synaptic D-serine
7 levels are under the control of CB₁ receptors specifically expressed in astrocytes,
8 whose activation increases astroglial Ca²⁺ levels and promotes D-serine occupancy
9 of synaptic NMDARs, eventually controlling specific forms of *in vivo* and *in vitro* LTP
10 and object recognition memory.

11 Generalized activation or inhibition of CB₁ receptors does not reliably reflect the
12 highly temporally- and spatially-specific physiological functions of the
13 endocannabinoid system (Busquets-Garcia et al., 2018). Indeed, previous data
14 showed that deletion of astroglial CB₁ receptors abolishes the impairment of
15 hippocampal working memory by cannabinoid agonists, but it does not alter this form
16 of short-term memory *per se* (Han et al., 2012), thereby leaving open the question of
17 the physiological roles of astroglial CB₁ receptors in the hippocampus (Metna-Laurent
18 and Marsicano, 2015; Oliveira da Cruz et al., 2016). This question could not be
19 addressed using global genetic or pharmacological inactivation of CB₁ receptors,
20 because it is known that CB₁ receptors expressed in different cellular subpopulations
21 have often very diverse and even opposite impact on brain functions (Busquets
22 Garcia et al., 2016; Busquets-Garcia et al., 2018; Busquets-Garcia et al., 2015), and
23 this is particularly true between neurons and astroglial cells (Busquets-Garcia et al.,
24 2018; Metna-Laurent and Marsicano, 2015; Oliveira da Cruz et al., 2016). Indeed,
25 global pharmacological activation, blockade and genetic deletion of CB₁ receptors
26 are not able to catch subtle but important effects of endocannabinoid signaling. For
27 instance, recent data show that deletion of the *CB₁* gene in hippocampal GABAergic
28 or glutamatergic neurons induces decreased and increased *in vitro* LTP, respectively,
29 as compared to WT mice (Monory et al., 2015), suggesting that results obtained by
30 global receptor manipulation might be confounded by contrary physiological functions
31 of cell-type specific subpopulations of CB₁ receptors. Thus, the present results
32 determine an unforeseen link between endogenous activation of astroglial CB₁
33 receptor signaling and long-term memory consolidation. Moreover, by showing the

1 involvement of D-serine and NMDAR in these processes, our data provide an
2 unexpected synaptic mechanism for this physiological function.

3 The deletion of the CB_1 gene in our study is induced in adult mice by tamoxifen
4 treatment of GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice or local injection of AAV-Cre under the control of a
5 GFAP promoter into the hippocampus of CB_1 -flox mice. These procedures occur few
6 weeks before testing, excluding potential compensatory confounding events during
7 pre- and post-natal development. Moreover, the phenotypes of GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice
8 in NOR and LTP are rescued by increasing D-serine-dependent NMDAR signaling at
9 the moment of memory acquisition/early consolidation or electrophysiological
10 analysis. In particular, the behavioral effects of D-serine were present when it was
11 administered systemically or locally immediately after task acquisition, but not 1 hour
12 later or at recall. Thus, considering pharmacokinetic studies showing that the
13 extracellular levels D-serine are increased after exogenous administration for about
14 100 min in the brain (Fukushima et al., 2004), it is reasonable to conclude that the
15 control of synaptic NMDAR plasticity and of NOR memory by astroglial CB_1 receptors
16 is due to acute alterations of hippocampal circuitries during memory formation and
17 LTP induction. An additional potential confounding factor is the role played by both D-
18 serine (Sultan et al., 2015) and CB_1 receptors (Galve-Roperh et al., 2007) on adult
19 neurogenesis. Due to the expression of GFAP in precursor neurons, we cannot fully
20 exclude that neurogenesis might play a role in the mechanisms described. However,
21 CB_1 receptors expressed in GFAP-positive cells are necessary for LTP at CA3-CA1
22 hippocampal synapses that are likely not influenced by neurogenesis events, which
23 are known to specifically impact dentate gyrus circuits (Massa et al., 2011).

24 The role of CB_1 receptors expressed in GFAP-positive cells in NOR appears to
25 be limited to the early phases of memory processing, namely early consolidation.
26 Indeed, whereas the injection of D-serine immediately after memory acquisition fully
27 rescues the phenotype of GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice in NOR, the same treatment as soon
28 as 1-hour after or just before memory retrieval has no effect. This is notable, because
29 it indicates a very early engagement of astrocyte signaling in memory processing,
30 underlying the importance of glial-neuronal interactions at crucial phases of cognitive
31 processes.

1 In conclusion, our data provide a novel neurobiological frame, where the tight
2 interaction between astrocytes and neurons required for the formation of object
3 recognition memory is under the control of astroglial CB₁ receptors. Thus, by
4 determining the physiological availability of D-serine at NMDARs, astroglial CB₁
5 receptors are key causal elements of spatial and temporal regulation of glia-neuron
6 interactions underlying synaptic plasticity and cognitive processes in the brain.

7

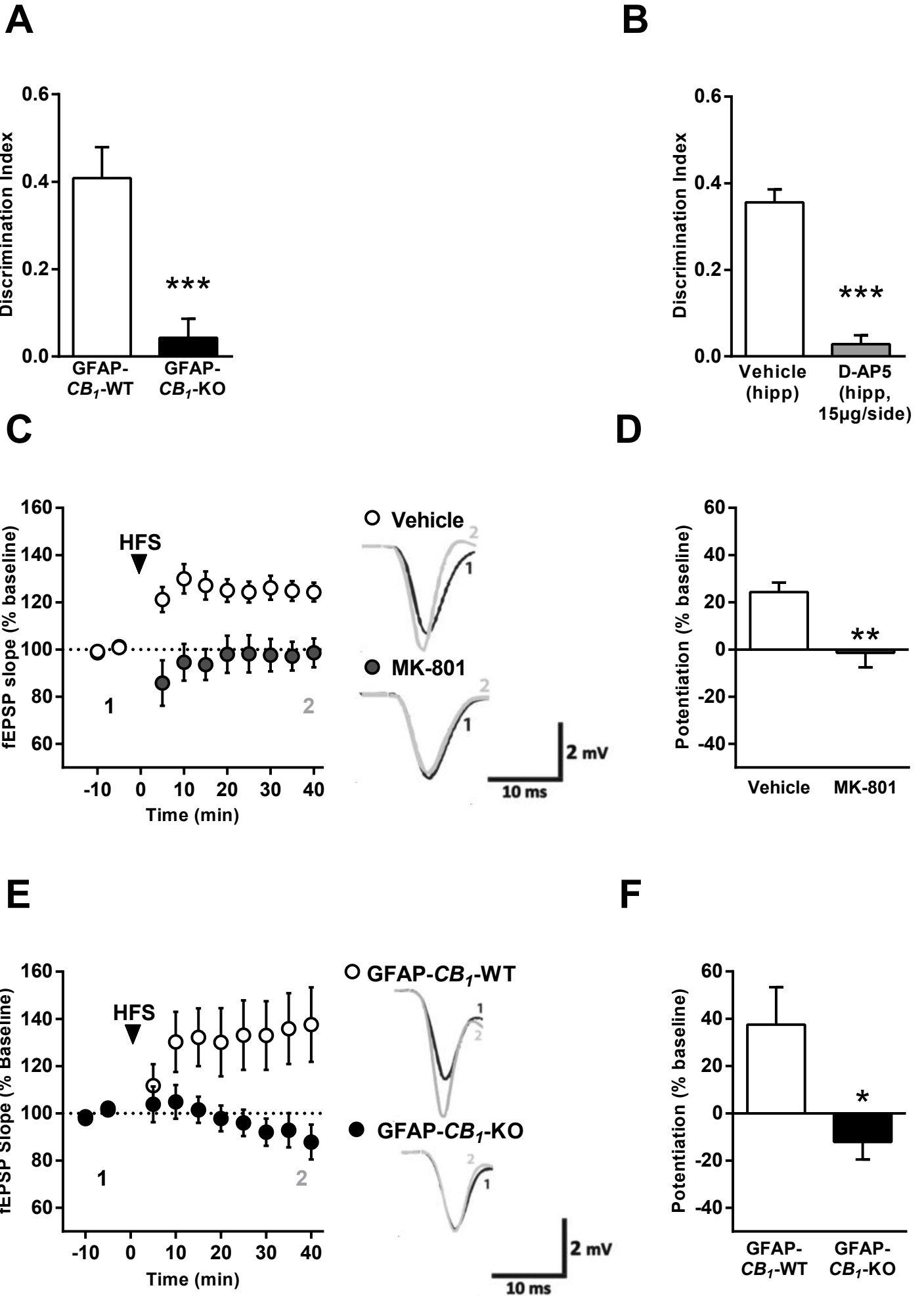
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2
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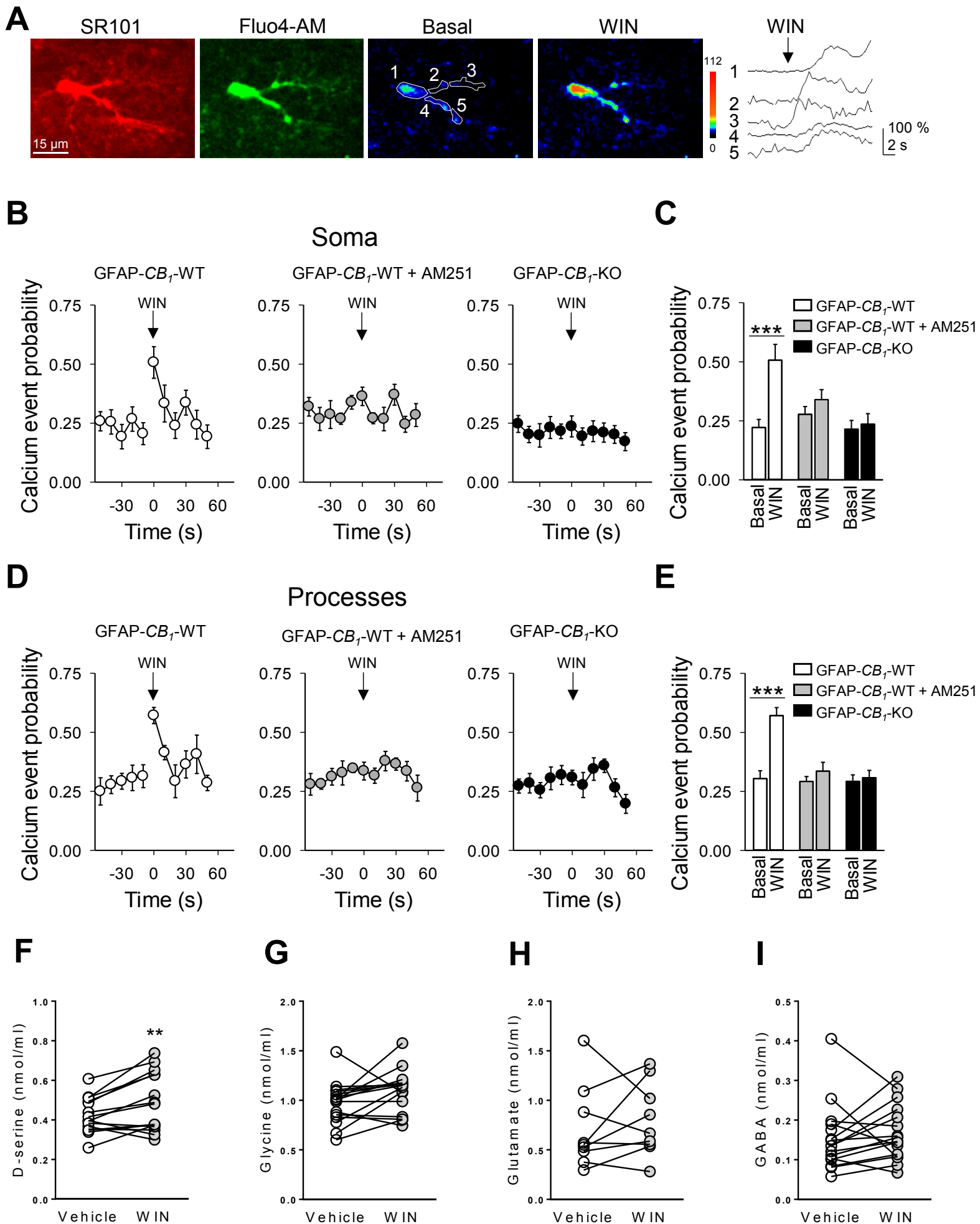
19 20 **Author Contributions**

21 LMR, JFOdC and VCL performed behavioral, *in vivo* electrophysiology and *in*
22 *vitro* electrophysiology experiments, respectively, and wrote the manuscript. MM-L,
23 AB-G, LB, MV and ES-G contributed to behavioral experiments. AA and MMF
24 provided calcium measurements. BB, IS, AVE, IM, GB and IB contributed to the
25 measurements of amino acids. FD supervised part of the work. TP and MWS helped
26 with *in vitro* electrophysiology. FG supervised *in vivo* electrophysiology. AP and
27 SHRO supervised *in vitro* electrophysiology. GM conceived and supervised the whole
28 project and wrote the manuscript. All authors edited and approved the manuscript.

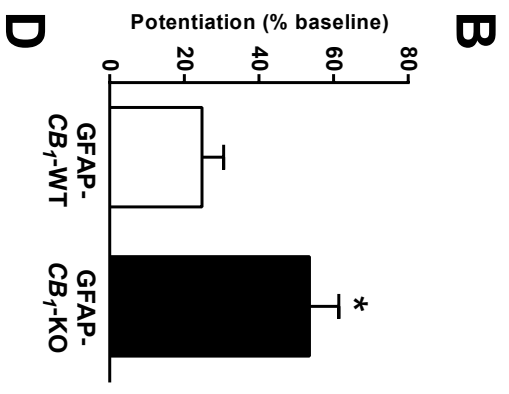
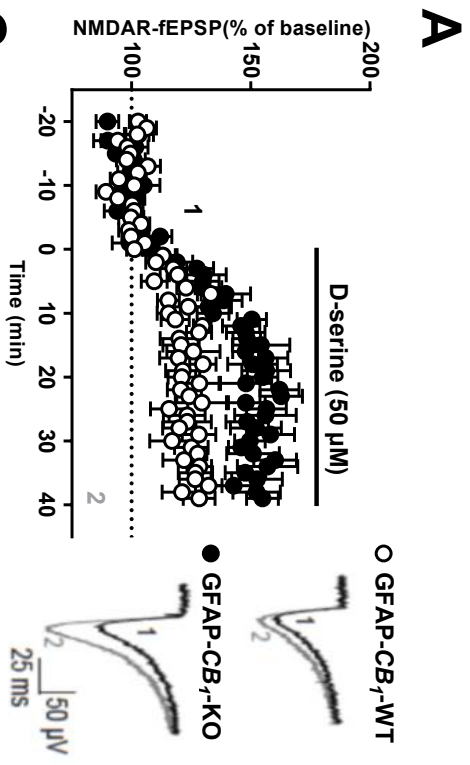
Robin et al. Figure 1



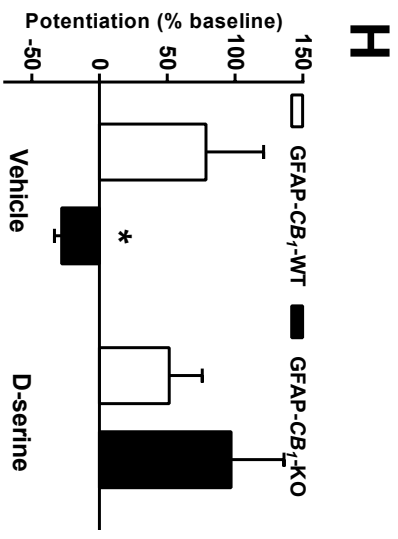
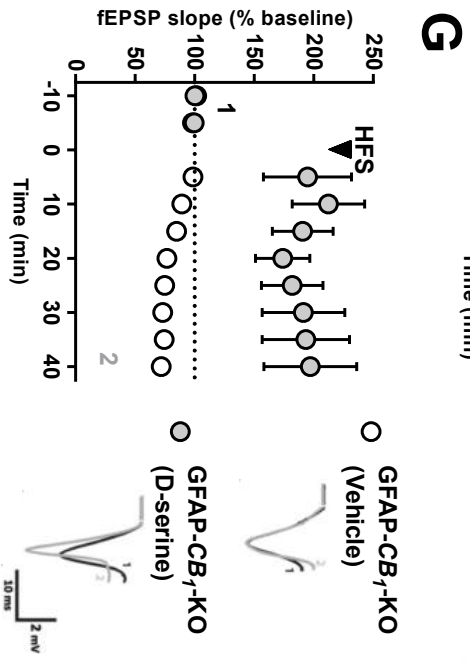
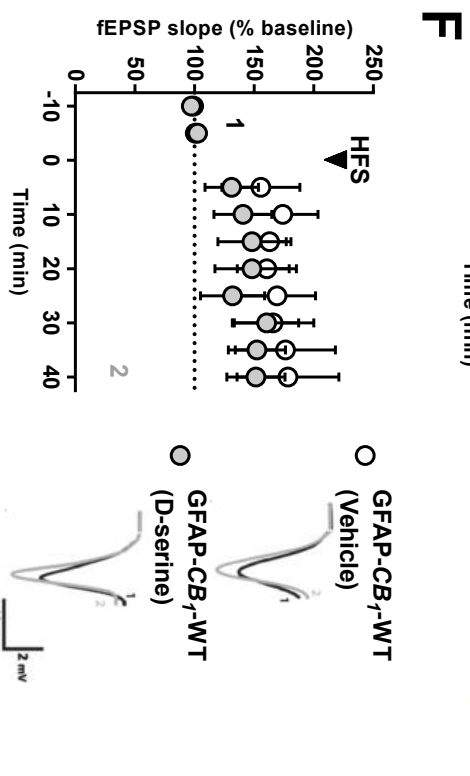
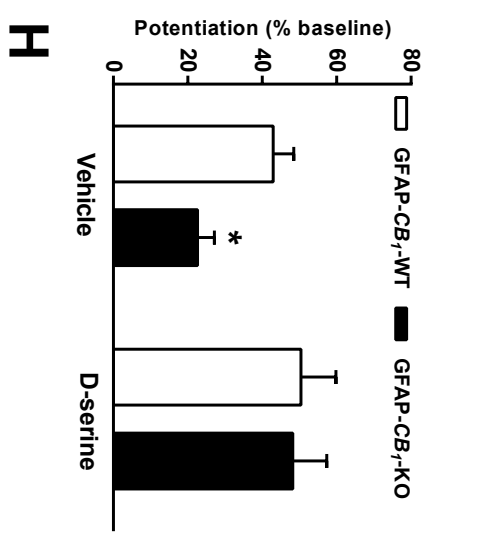
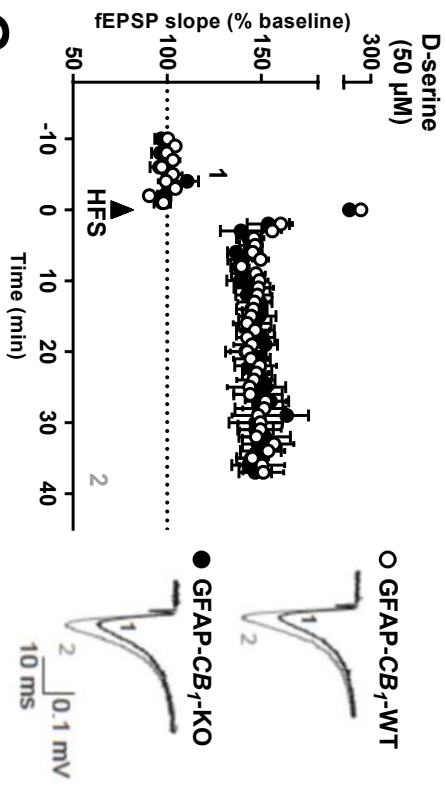
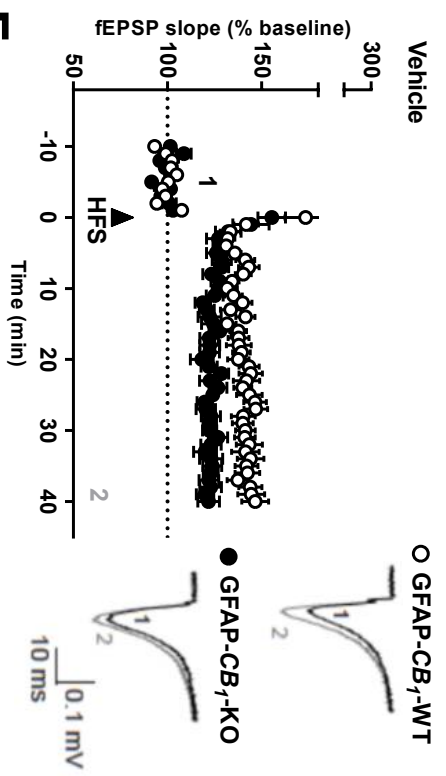
1 **Figure 1.** Hippocampal astroglial CB₁ receptors are necessary for NMDAR-
2 dependent object recognition memory and *in vivo* LTP. **(A)** Memory performance of
3 GFAP-CB₁-WT mice (n=10) and GFAP-CB₁-KO littermates (n=11) in the NOR task.
4 **(B)** Effects of intra-hippocampal infusions of vehicle (n=10) or D-AP5 (15 µg/side;
5 n=8) on NOR performance. **(C,D)** High frequency stimulation in the CA3 area of
6 hippocampus induces NMDAR-dependent LTP in CA1 stratum radiatum. **(C)**
7 Summary plots of normalized fEPSPs in anesthetized mice under vehicle (n=6) or
8 MK-801 treatment (3 mg/kg; i.p.; n=5). **(D)** Bar histograms of normalized fEPSPs
9 from experiment **(C)**, 40 minutes after HFS. **(E,F)** *In vivo* LTP is absent in GFAP-CB₁-
10 KO mice. **(E)** Summary plots of normalized fEPSPs in GFAP-CB₁-WT (n=9) and
11 GFAP-CB₁-KO littermates (n=6). **(F)** Bar histograms of normalized fEPSPs from
12 experiment **(E)**, in 40 minutes after HFS. Traces on the right side of the summary
13 plots **(C, E)** represent 150 superimposed evoked fEPSPs before (1, black) and after
14 (2, grey) HFS. Data, mean ± SEM. *, P<0.05, **, P<0.01, ***, P<0.001. See **Tables**
15 **S1 and S2** for detailed statistics.
16



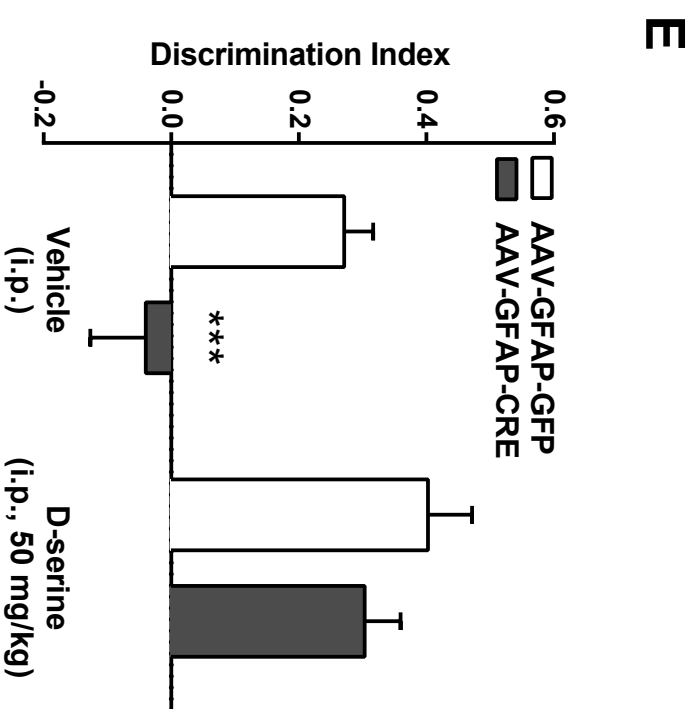
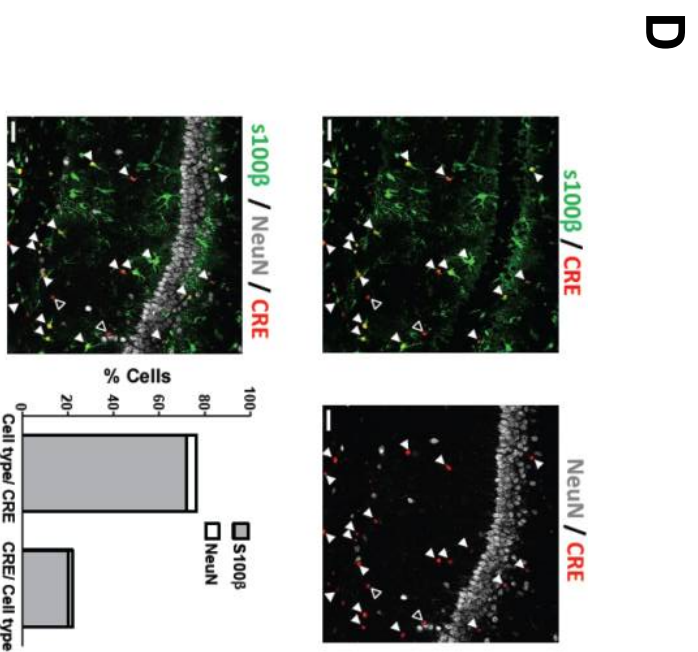
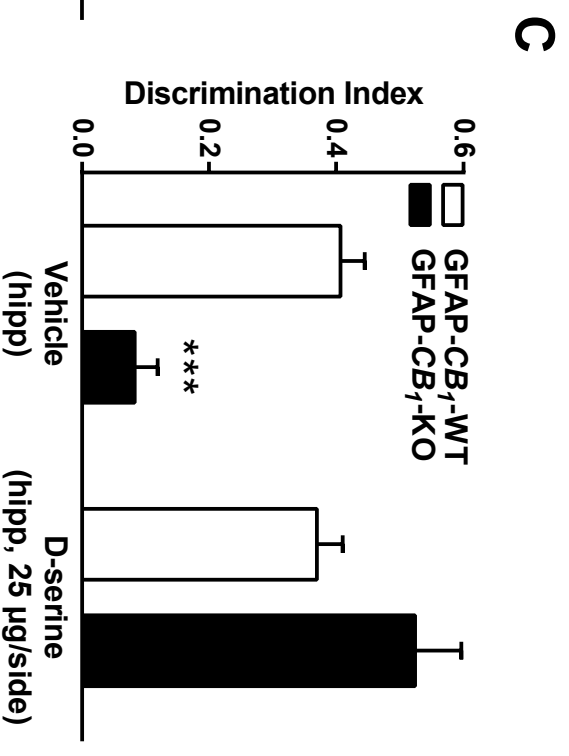
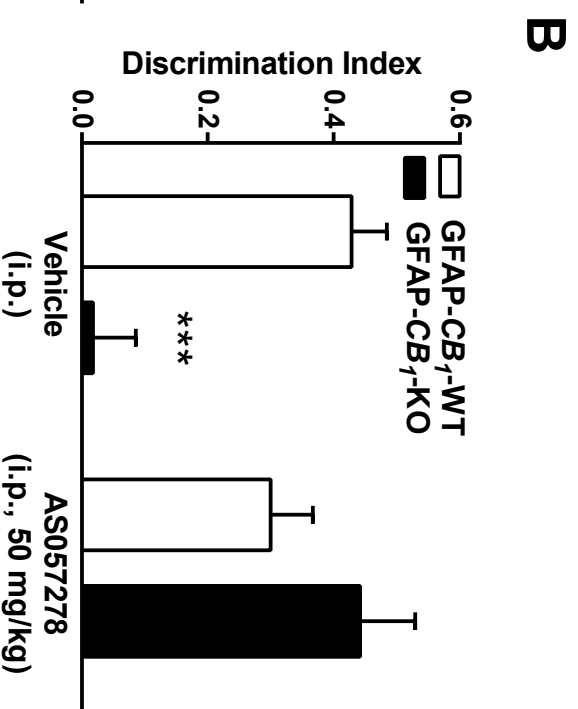
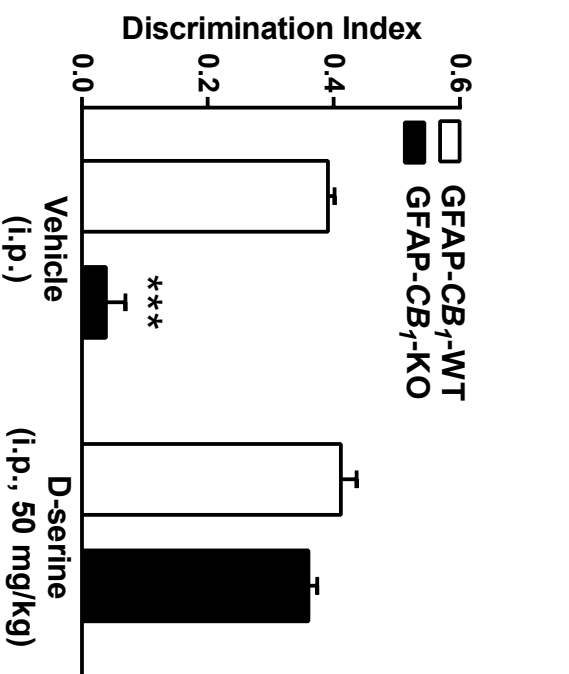
1 **Figure 2.** Activation of astroglial CB₁ receptors enhances intracellular Ca²⁺
2 levels in astrocytes and extracellular D-serine. **(A)** Representative image of a
3 hippocampal astrocyte stained with SR101 and Fluo4, and pseudocolor images
4 representing fluorescence intensities before and after WIN 515,212-2 (WIN)
5 application, with the correspondent Ca²⁺ traces (numbers refer to different subcellular
6 locations on the astrocyte). **(B)** Somatic calcium event probability before and after
7 WIN (at time=0) in GFAP-CB₁-WT in control conditions (white) and in the presence of
8 AM251 (2 μM; grey), and in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (black). **(C)** Somatic calcium event
9 probability before and after WIN in GFAP-CB₁-WT in control conditions (white; n=9
10 slices and 79 somas) and in the presence of AM251 (grey; n=12 slices and 159
11 somas), and in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (black; n=16 slices and 145 somas). **(D)**
12 Calcium event probability in the processes before and after WIN (at time=0) in GFAP-
13 CB₁-WT in control conditions (white) and in the presence of AM251 (2 μM; grey), and
14 in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (black). **(E)** Calcium event probability in the processes before
15 and after WIN in GFAP-CB₁-WT in control conditions (white; n=8 slices and 171
16 processes) and in the presence of AM251 (grey; n=8 slices and 140 processes), and
17 in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (black; n=10 slices and 189 processes). **(F-I)** Determination of
18 D-serine **(F)**, glycine **(G)**, glutamate **(H)** and GABA **(I)** as measured by capillary
19 electrophoresis in extracellular solutions of acute mouse hippocampal slices treated
20 with vehicle or WIN. +Data, mean ± SEM. *, P<0.05, **, P<0.01, ***, P<0.001. See
21 **Tables S1 and S2** for detailed statistics.
22



E



1 **Figure 3.** Astroglial CB₁ receptors control LTP induction through D-serine. **(A)**
2 Summary plots showing the effect of D-serine application on NMDAR co-agonist
3 binding site occupancy in slices from GFAP-CB₁-WT mice and GFAP-CB₁-KO
4 littermates. Traces represent 60 superimposed NMDAR-fEPSPs before (1, black)
5 and after (2, grey) D-serine application. **(B)** Bar histograms of normalized NMDAR-
6 fEPSPs from experiment **(A)** measured 20-40 min after D-serine application. **(C)** *In*
7 *vitro* LTP is impaired in GFAP-CB₁-KO mice. Summary plots of normalized fEPSPs in
8 slices from GFAP-CB₁-WT (n=16) and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice (n=12) before (1) and
9 after (2) high frequency stimulation (HFS). **(D)** D-serine application rescues LTP in
10 slices from GFAP-CB₁-KO mice. Summary plots of fEPSPs showing the effect of D-
11 serine (50 μM) on LTP in slices from GFAP-CB₁-WT (n=8) and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice
12 (n=7). In **(C)** and **(D)**, traces represent 30 superimposed successive fEPSPs before
13 (1, black) and after (2, grey) the HFS stimulation (arrow). **(E)** Bar histograms of
14 fEPSPs from experiments **(C,D)** measured 30-40 min after HFS. **(F,G)** Summary
15 plots of normalized fEPSPs in GFAP-CB₁-WT **(F)** and GFAP-CB₁-KO littermates **(G)**
16 treated with vehicle (GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=4; GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=7) or D-serine (GFAP-
17 CB₁-WT, n=6; GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=5). **(H)** Bar histograms of normalized fEPSPs from
18 experiment **(F and G)**, 40 minutes after HFS. In **(F)** and **(G)**, traces represent 150
19 superimposed successive fEPSPs before (1, black) and after (2, grey) the HFS
20 stimulation (arrow). Data, mean ± SEM. *, P<0.05. See **Tables S1 and S2** for
21 detailed statistics.
22



1 **Figure 4.** Hippocampal astroglial CB₁ receptors are necessary for object
2 recognition memory through D-serine. **(A)** Memory performance of GFAP-CB₁-WT
3 and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice injected with vehicle (n=5 both groups) or D-serine (50
4 mg/kg; i.p; GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=4; GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=5). **(B)** Memory performance of
5 GFAP-CB₁-WT and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice injected with vehicle (GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=8;
6 GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=9) or AS057278 (50 mg/kg; i.p; GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=9; GFAP-CB₁-
7 KO, n=8). **(C)** Memory performance of GFAP-CB₁-WT and GFAP-CB₁-KO mice intra-
8 hippocampally injected with vehicle (GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=5; GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=7) or D-
9 serine (25 µg/side; GFAP-CB₁-WT, n=5; GFAP-CB₁-KO, n=7). **(D)**
10 Immunofluorescence for s100β (green) and NeuN (white) in the hippocampus of mice
11 injected with AAV-GFAP-CRE-mCherry (red). Filled arrows, cells co-expressing
12 s100β and Cre. Empty arrows, cells expressing only Cre. Scale bar: 50µM. Bottom
13 right, quantification of co-expression indicating the percentage of neurons (NeuN-
14 positive) and astrocytes (S100β positive) containing Cre recombinase over the total
15 Cre-positive cells (left superposed bars) and the percentage of Cre-positive cells over
16 the whole population of neurons and astrocytes (right superposed bars). Data are
17 from 2-3 sections per animal from 8 mice injected with AAV-GFAP-CRE. **(E)** Memory
18 performance of CB₁-flox mice intrahippocampally injected with either an AAV-GFAP-
19 GFP or a AAV-GFAP-CRE and treated with vehicle (AAV-GFAP-GFP, n=6; AAV-
20 GFAP-CRE, n=8) or D-serine (50 mg/kg; i.p; AAV-GFAP-GFP, n=7; AAV-GFAP-
21 CRE, n=8). Data, mean ± SEM. ***, P<0.001. See **Tables S1 and S2** for detailed
22 statistics.

23

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Supplemental Material for

Astroglial CB₁ receptors determine synaptic D-serine availability to enable recognition memory

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SUPPLEMENTARY ONLINE METHODS

Animals

All experiments were conducted in strict compliance with the European Union recommendations (2010/63/EU) and were approved by the French Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries (authorization number 3306369) and the local ethical committee (authorization number A50120118). Two to three months-old naïve male C57BL/6N (JANVIER, France), CB_1 flox (mice carrying the “floxed” CB_1 gene ($CB_1^{f/f}$)) and male GFAP- CB_1 -KO mutant mice and GFAP- CB_1 -WT littermates were used. Animals were housed in groups under standard conditions in a day/night cycle of 12/12 hours (light on at 7 am). Behavioral experiments were conducted between 2 and 5 pm. *In vivo* electrophysiological experiments were conducted during the light phase. Mice undergoing surgery were housed individually after the operation.

GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice were generated using the Cre/loxP system as previously described (Han et al., 2012). Mice carrying the “floxed” CB_1 gene ($CB_1^{f/f}$) (Marsicano et al., 2003) were crossed with GFAP-CreERT2 mice (Hirrlinger et al., 2006), using a three-step backcrossing procedure to obtain $CB_1^{f/f;GFAP-CreERT2}$ and $CB_1^{f/f}$ littermates, called GFAP- CB_1 -KO and GFAP- CB_1 -WT, respectively. As CreERT2 protein is inactive in the absence of tamoxifen treatment (Hirrlinger et al., 2006), deletion of the CB_1 gene was obtained in adult mice (7-9 weeks-old) by daily i.p. injections of tamoxifen (1 mg dissolved at 10 mg/ml in 90% sesame oil, 10% ethanol, Sigma-Aldrich, St Quentin, France) for 8 days. Mice were used 3-5 weeks after the last tamoxifen injection (Han et al., 2012).

Drug preparation and administration

For behavioral experiments, D-serine (Ascent Scientific, United Kingdom) was dissolved either in 0.9% saline for systemic injections in order to inject 10 ml/kg of body weight in each mouse. For intra-hippocampal infusions, D-serine was dissolved in artificial cerebro-spinal fluid (aCSF). AS057278 (Sigma-Aldrich, France) was dissolved in 0.9 % saline added with 2% DMSO, 10% ethanol. D-AP5 (Sigma-Aldrich, France) was dissolved in aCSF. All vehicles contained the same amounts of

solvents. All drugs were prepared freshly before the experiments. All drugs were injected either intraperitoneally (i.p.) or intra-hippocampally immediately after the acquisition phase of the NOR task (see below for exceptions), except for AS057278, which was injected 2 hours before, based on published data indicating the peak of endogenous D-serine at this time point (Adage et al., 2008). D-serine was also intraperitoneally injected 1 hour after the acquisition and right before the test session. D-AP5 was also injected intra-hippocampally 6 hours after the acquisition.

Intra-hippocampal drug infusions (see below) were performed with the aid of 30-gauge injectors protruding 1.0 mm from the end of the cannulae. The volume infused was: 0.3 μ l at a rate of 0.3 μ l/min. After infusion, injectors were kept in place for 60s to prevent outflow of injected solutions.

Intra-hippocampal drugs and virus delivery

Mice (8-12 weeks of age) were anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of a mixture of ketamine (100mg/kg, Imalgene 500®, Merial) and Xylazine (10mg/kg, Rompun, Bayer) and placed into a stereotaxic apparatus (David Kopf Instruments, CA, USA) with mouse adapter and lateral ear bars. For intra-hippocampal infusions of drugs, mice were bilaterally implanted with 23-gauge stainless steel guide cannulae (Bilaney, Germany) following stereotaxic coordinates (Paxinos and Franklin, 2001) aiming at the dorsal hippocampus (AP -1.8, ML \pm 1, DV -1.3 mm), guide cannulae were secured with cement anchored to the skull by screws. Mice were allowed to recover for at least one week in individual cages before the beginning of the experiments. During the recovery period, mice were handled daily.

For viral intra-HPC AAV delivery, mice were submitted to stereotaxic surgery (as above) and AAV vectors were injected with the help of a microsyringe (0.25 ml Hamilton syringe with a 30-gauge beveled needle) attached to a pump (UMP3-1, World Precision Instruments, FL, USA). Mice were injected directly into the hippocampus (HPC) (0.5 μ l per injection site at a rate of 0.5 μ l per min), with the following coordinates: dorsal HPC, AP -1.8; ML \pm 1; DV -2.0 and -1.5; ventral HPC: AP -3.5; ML \pm 2.7; DV -4 and -3. Following virus delivery, the syringe was left in place for 1 minute before being slowly withdrawn from the brain. $CB_1^{flox/flox}$ mice were injected with AAV-GFAP-GFP (control) or AAV-GFAP-CRE (fused to mCherry,

serotype 9, UNC Vector Core, USA) to induce deletion of the *CB₁* gene in hippocampal astroglial cells. Animals were used for experiments 4-5 weeks after injections. Mice were weighed daily and individuals that failed to regain the pre-surgery body weight were excluded from the following experiments. To verify the correct pattern of CRE expression and localization, mice were transcardially perfused with paraformaldehyde and their brains were sliced with a vibratome. 40µm hippocampal sections incubated with primary antibody directed against S100β (Rabbit polyclonal, Sigma Aldrich, France) and NeuN (Mouse monoclonal, Millipore, France). Secondary antibodies incubation was performed in order to detect S100β with Alexa488 (Thermo Scientific, France) and NeuN with Alexa647 (Thermo Scientific, France). Single plane confocal images were acquired with an SP8 confocal microscope (Leica, France) and minimally processed with ImageJ software. Automatic quantification of mCherry (CRE positive), s100β and NeuN expressing cells was performed with ImageJ software as previously described (REF Bolte S et al., Journal of Microscopy 224 (3) December 2006). Briefly, after threshold subtraction and crosstalk correction, the number of cells co-expressing mCherry/S100β or mCherry/NeuN was automatically obtained by the “particle analysis” tool of the same software. mCherry/S100β co-expressing cells were expressed in percentage of CRE positive cells as well as percentage of total S100 cells. On the other hand, mCherryNeuN co-expressing cells were reported as percentage of CRE positive cells as well as percentage of total NeuN cells.

Novel object-recognition memory task

We used the novel object recognition memory task in a L-maze (NOR) (Busquets-Garcia et al., 2013; Busquets-Garcia et al., 2011; Puighermanal et al., 2013; Puighermanal et al., 2009). As compared to other hippocampal-dependent memory tasks, this test presents several advantages for the aims of the present study: (i) the acquisition of NOR occurs in one step and previous studies revealed that the consolidation of this type of memory is deeply altered by acute immediate post-training administration of cannabinoids via hippocampal *CB₁* receptors (Puighermanal et al., 2013; Puighermanal et al., 2009); (ii) the NOR test performed in a L-maze decrease variability and give strong and replicable results; (ii) this test allows repeated independent measurements of memory performance in individual

animals (Puighermanal et al., 2013), thereby allowing within-subject comparisons, eventually excluding potential individual differences in viral infection.

The task took place in a L-shaped maze made of dark grey polyvinyl chloride shaped by two identical perpendicular arms (35 cm and 30 cm long respectively for external and internal L walls, 4.5 cm wide and 15 cm high walls) placed on a white background (Busquets-Garcia et al., 2011; Puighermanal et al., 2009). The task occurred in a room adjacent to the animal house with a light intensity fixed at 50 lux. The maze was overhung by a video camera allowing the detection and scoring offline of animal's behavior.

The task consisted of 3 sequential daily trials of 9 minutes each. During the habituation session (day 1), mice were placed in the center of the maze and allowed to freely explore the arms in the absence of any objects. The acquisition session (day 2) consisted in placing the mice again in the corner of the maze in the presence of two identical objects positioned at the extremities of each arm and left to freely explore the maze and the objects. The memory test occurred 24 hours later (day 3): one of the familiar objects was replaced by a novel object different in its shape, color and texture and mice were left to explore both objects.

The position of the novel object and the associations of novel and familiar were randomized. All objects were previously tested to avoid biased preference.

The apparatus as well as objects were cleaned with EtOH (70 %) before experimental use and between each animal testing.

Memory performance was assessed by the discrimination index (DI). The DI was calculated as the difference between the time spent exploring the novel (TN) and the familiar object (TF) divided by the total exploration time (TN+TF): $DI = \frac{TN - TF}{TN + TF}$. Memory was also evaluated by directly comparing the exploration time of novel and familiar objects, respectively.

Object exploration was defined as the orientation of the nose to the object at a distance of less than 2 cm. Experienced investigators evaluating the exploration were blind to the treatment and/or genotype of the animals.

***In vivo* electrophysiology**

GFAP-*CB₁*-KO and WT littermate mice were anesthetized in a box containing 5% Isoflurane (VIRBAC, France) before being placed in a stereotaxic frame (model SR-6M-HT, Narishige International, London, UK) in which 1.0% to 1,5% of Isoflurane was continuously supplied via an anesthetic mask during the complete duration of the experiment. The body temperature was maintained at 37°C using a homeothermic system (model 50-7087-F, Harvard Apparatus, MA, USA) and the complete state of anesthesia was assured through a mild tail pinch. Before surgery, 100 µl of the local anesthetic Lurocaine® (Vetoquinol, Lure, France) was injected in the scalp region. Surgical procedure started with a longitudinal incision of 1.5 cm in length aimed to expose Bregma and Lambda. After ensuring correct alignment of the head, two holes were drilled in the skull to place: a glass recording electrode, inserted in the CA1 *stratum radiatum*, and one concentric bipolar electrode (Model NE-100, KOPF Instruments, Tujunga, CA, USA) in the CA3 region using the following coordinates: 1) CA1 *stratum radiatum*: A/P -1.5 mm, M/L -1.0 mm, DV 1.20 mm; CA3: A/P -2.5 mm, M/L -2.8, D/V -2.0 mm. The recording electrode (tip diameter = 1–2 µm, 4–6 MΩ) was filled with a 2% pontamine sky blue solution in 0.5M sodium acetate. At first the recording electrode was placed by hand until it reached the surface of the brain and then to the final depth using an automatic micropositioner (MIM100-2, M2E, France). The stimulation electrode was placed in the correct area using a micromanipulator (UNI-Z, M2E, France). Both electrodes were adjusted to find the area with maximum response. *In vivo* recordings of evoked field excitatory postsynaptic potentials (fEPSPs) were amplified 10 times by Axoclamp 900A amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) before being further amplified 100 times and filtered (low pass at 1 Hz and high-pass at 5000Hz) *via* a differential AC amplifier (model 1700; A-M Systems, Sequim, WA, USA). fEPSPs were digitized and collected on-line using a laboratory interface and software (CED 1401, SPIKE 2; Cambridge Electronic Design, Cambridge, UK). Test pulses were generated through an Isolated Constant Current Stimulator (DS3, Digitimer, Hertfordshire, UK) triggered by the SPIKE 2 output sequencer *via* CED 1401 and collected every 2 s at a 10 kHz sampling frequency and then averaged every 300 sec. Test pulse intensities were typically between 50-250 µA with a duration of 500 µs. Basal stimulation intensity was adjusted to 30-40% of the current intensity that evoked a maximum field response.

All responses were expressed as percent from the average responses recorded during the 10 min before high frequency stimulation (HFS). HFS was induced by applying 3 trains of 100 Hz (1 sec each), separated by 20 seconds interval. fEPSP were then recorded for a period of 40 minutes. In the specific group of mice the following treatments were applied: 1) MK-801 (Abcam, Cambridge, UK; 3 mg/kg, i.p., dissolved in saline, approx. 60 min before HFS) or vehicle (saline, i.p., approx. 60 min before HFS) 2) D-serine (Abcam, Cambridge, UK; 50 mg/kg, i.p., dissolved in saline) approx. 2 hours before HFS or vehicle (saline, i.p.). At the end of each experiment, the position of the electrodes was marked by iontophoretic infusion of the recording solution during 180s at -20 μ A and continuous current discharge over 20 seconds at +20 μ A for recording and stimulation areas, respectively. Histological verification was performed *ex vivo*.

In vitro Electrophysiology

Coronal hippocampal slices (350 μ m) were prepared from adult GFAP-*CB₁*-WT or GFAP-*CB₁*-KO mice as described previously (Papouin et al., 2012). Briefly, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and then decapitated. The brain was quickly extracted and placed in aCSF saturated with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂. ACSF contained (in mM): 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1 Na₂HPO₄, 1.2 MgCl₂, 0.6 CaCl₂, 26 NaHCO₃ and 11 mM glucose (pH 7.4; 300 mosmol/kg). Coronal slices were cut from a block of tissue containing the hippocampus using a vibratome (Microm HM 650V). Slices were hemisected and maintained at 33°C during 30 min in ACSF containing 2 mM MgCl₂ and 1 mM CaCl₂. Then, they were allowed to recover at room temperature for at least 1h.

Slices were transferred into a recording chamber perfused with ACSF (2.8 ml/min) containing 1.3 mM MgCl₂ and 2.5 mM CaCl₂, and maintained at 30°C. Field excitatory postsynaptic potentials (fEPSPs) slope were recorded with a Multiclamp 700A amplifier (Axon Instruments, Inc.) using pipettes (2-3 M Ω) filled with ACSF and placed in the *stratum radiatum* of CA1 area. Synaptic responses were evoked at 0.05 Hz by orthodromic stimulation (100 μ s duration) of Schaffer collaterals using a concentric bipolar tungsten electrode placed >200 μ m away from the recording electrodes. For LTP experiments, stimulation intensity was set to 35% of that triggering population spikes. After a stable baseline of at least 10 minutes, LTP was induced by applying a high-frequency stimulation (HFS) protocol consisting of a 100

Hz train of stimuli for 1 s repeated three times at 20 s intervals. MTEP (500 nM; 500 μ M stock in dH₂O; Tocris) and LY367385 (100 μ M; 100 mM stock in 1.1eq NaOH; abcam), or the vehicle control, were perfused after a stable baseline of at least 10 minutes. To inhibit mGluR1/5 during LTP induction, MTEP and LY367385 were perfused for 20 minutes prior to LTP induction and removed 2 minutes post LTP induction. NMDAR-fEPSPs were recorded in low Mg²⁺ ACSF (0.2 mM) with 2,3-dihydroxy-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzo[f]quinoxaline-2,3-dione (NBQX; 10 μ M) to block AMPA/kainate receptors. At the end of each experiment, D-AP5 (50 μ M), was applied to isolate the remaining GABAergic component which was then subtracted from the responses to obtain pure NMDAR-fEPSPs. Average fEPSP and NMDAR-fEPSP traces correspond to 10 min and 20 min of stable recording, respectively. For clarity the stimulation artifact was deleted.

Signals were filtered at 2 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz. Data were collected and analyzed using pClamp9 software (Axon Instruments, Inc.).

Ca²⁺ Imaging

Ca²⁺ levels in astrocytes located in the stratum radiatum of the CA1 region of the hippocampus were monitored by fluorescence microscopy using the Ca²⁺ indicator fluo-4 AM (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Slices were incubated with fluo-4 AM (2 μ l of 2 mM dye were dropped over the hippocampus, attaining a final concentration of 2 μ M and 0.01 % of pluronic for 20-30 min at room temperature. In these conditions, most of the cells loaded were astrocytes, as confirmed by their electrophysiological properties and SR101 staining. Astrocytes were imaged using a Leica SP5 multiphoton microscope and images were acquired at 1 to 2 Hz. Intracellular Ca²⁺ signals were monitored from astrocytic somas and processes and the signal was measured as fluorescence over baseline [(Fluorescence_t - Background fluorescence_t) - (Fluorescence₀ - Background fluorescence₀)] / (Fluorescence₀ - Background fluorescence₀) and cells were considered to display a Ca²⁺ event when the calcium signal increased three times the standard deviation of the baseline.

The astrocyte Ca²⁺ signal was quantified as the probability of occurrence of a Ca²⁺ event (calcium event probability). The Ca²⁺ event probability was calculated as the number of somas or processes starting a calcium event per time bin in a field of view, divided by the number of somas or processes in that field of view (8-12 somas and 15-20 processes in each field of view). Events were grouped in 10 s time bins. The

time of occurrence of an event was considered to be at the onset of the Ca^{2+} event. The calcium event probability during 20 seconds before the WIN 515,212-2 (WIN, Sigma-Aldrich) application (200 μM , 3 s, 10 psi) was compared with the calcium event probability in the time bin after the WIN application. WIN was dissolved in DMSO and then 36 μl of the DMSO-WIN solution was diluted in 1 ml of ACSF, obtaining a final concentration of 200 μM used in the pressure-pulse pipette. We estimate, based on quantifications of Alexa 594 fluorescence, that the WIN concentration becomes further diluted after being pressure ejected in the bath ACSF to approximately 1-10 μM around the recorded cells (Navarrete and Araque, 2008). In some cases, experiments were performed in the presence of the CB_1 antagonist AM251 (2 μM). Mean values were obtained from at least 5 slices and 2 mice in each condition.

Measurement of aminoacids in hippocampal slices.

For the simultaneous measurement of D-serine, glutamate, glycine and GABA, a capillary electrophoresis-laser induced fluorescence detection method was used.

Five hippocampi from adult C57Bl/6N mice (10-12 weeks old) were isolated from 350 μm slices and incubated in 350 μl oxygenated ACSF containing 0.5 μM TTX with either vehicle (1/4000 DMSO) or WIN 55,212-2 (5 μM in DMSO) during 30 min at 31°C. Extracellular medium was quickly removed, frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Extracellular levels of D-serine, glutamate, glycine and GABA were then determined. Briefly, pooled slices were deproteinized by addition of cold trichloroacetic acid (TCA) to a 4% final concentration. The suspension was centrifuged at 16,800 g for 10 min, the TCA was extracted from the supernatant with water-saturated diethyl ether and stored at -80°C. Samples were analyzed with a commercial laser-induced fluorescence capillary electrophoresis (CE-LIF) (CE: Beckman Coulter (Brea, California, US), P/ACE MDQ; LIF: Picometrics (Labège, France), LIF-UV-02, 410 nm 20 mW) as following: samples were processed for micellar CE-LIF and were fluorescently derivatized at RT for 60 min with naphthalene-2,3-dicarboxaldehyde (NDA) before being analyzed by CE using a hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin (HP-b-CD) based chiral separation buffer. All electropherograms data were collected and analyzed using Karat 32 software v8.0 (Beckman Coulter, France). The tissue amounts of D-serine, glutamate, glycine and GABA were normalized to the protein content determined from pooled hippocampal slices by the

Lowry method using the BCA protein Pierce (ThermoScientific, CA, USA) assay with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standards. The quantity of D-serine, glutamate, glycine and GABA in the samples was determined from a standardized curve while peak identification was made by spiking the fraction with the amino acid.

Statistical analyses

Data were expressed as mean \pm SEM or single data points and were analyzed with Prism 6.0 (Graphpad Software), using *t*-test (paired or unpaired), Mann Whitney test or ANOVA (One- or Two-Way), where appropriate. Dunnet's, Holm-sidak (One-Way ANOVA) or Bonferroni's (Two-Way ANOVA) *post-hoc* tests were used. Statistical details for each quantitative experiment are illustrated in **Table S1** (for main figures) and **Table S2** (for supplemental figures).

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Robin et al. Supplemental Figure 1

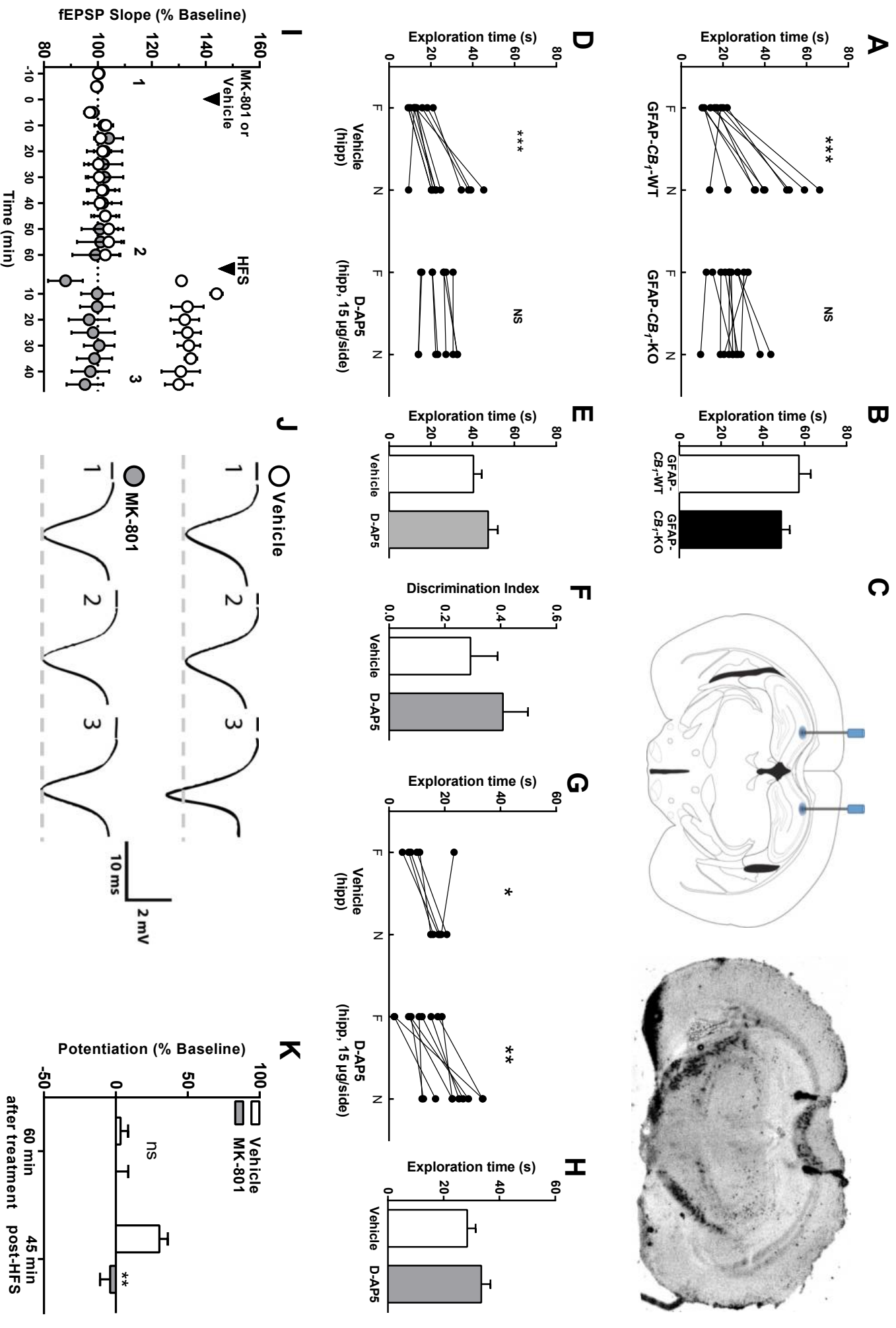


Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. (A) Exploration time of the familiar (F) and the novel object (N) of GFAP- CB_1 -WT mice and GFAP- CB_1 -KO littermates. (B) Total exploration time of GFAP- CB_1 -WT mice and GFAP- CB_1 -KO littermates. (C) Schematic drawing of local hippocampal injection (left) and representative image of injection sites (right). (D) Exploration time of the familiar (F) and the novel object (N) of C57BL/6-N and GFAP- CB_1 -WT mice intra-hippocampally injected with vehicle or D-AP5 (15 μ g/side) in the NOR task. (E) Total exploration time of C57BL/6-N and GFAP- CB_1 -WT mice intra-hippocampally injected with vehicle or D-AP5 (15 μ g/side). (F) Memory performance of wild-type mice treated with intra-hippocampal infusions of vehicle or D-AP5 6 hours post-acquisition. (G) Exploration time of the familiar (F) vs the novel object (N) and (H) total exploration time of wild-type mice intra-hippocampally injected with vehicle or D-AP5 6 hours post-acquisition. (I) Summary plots of normalized fEPSPs of WT-mice treated with MK-801 or vehicle 60 minutes before LTP induction by HFS. (J) Superimposed, representative traces of baseline (1), 60 minutes post-vehicle (top) or MK-801 (3 mg/kg; i.p., bottom) injection and 45 minutes post-HFS (3). (K) Bar histograms of normalized fEPSPs from experiment (I). Data, mean \pm SEM. *, $P < 0.05$, **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$, NS, not significant. See **Table S2** for detailed statistics.

Robin et al. Supplemental Figure 2

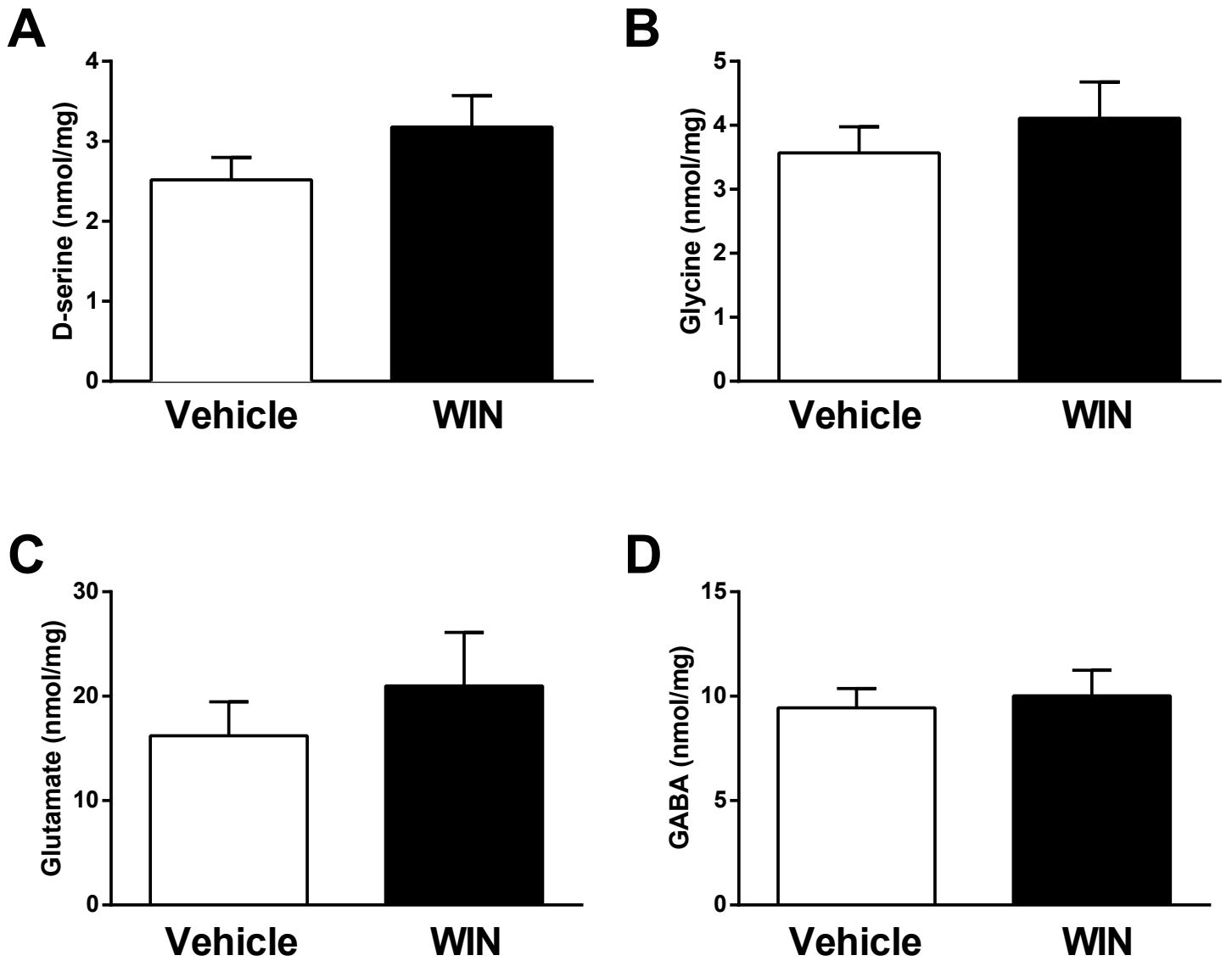


Figure S2. Related to Figure 2. Determination of tissue levels of D-serine (**A**), glycine (**B**), glutamate (**C**) and GABA (**D**) as measured by capillary electrophoresis in mouse hippocampal slices treated with vehicle or WIN (5 μ M). Data, mean \pm SEM
See **Table S2** for detailed statistics.

Robin et al. Supplemental Figure S3

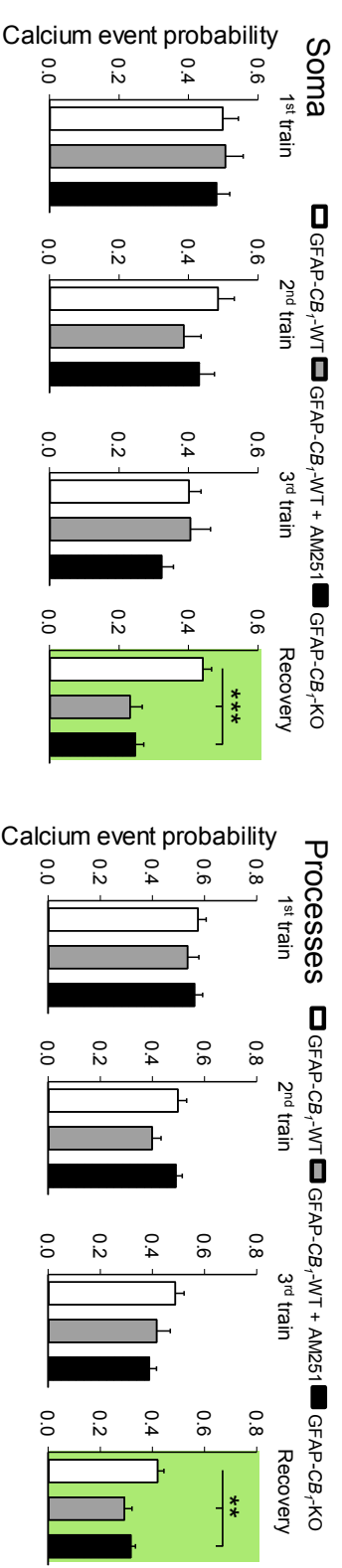
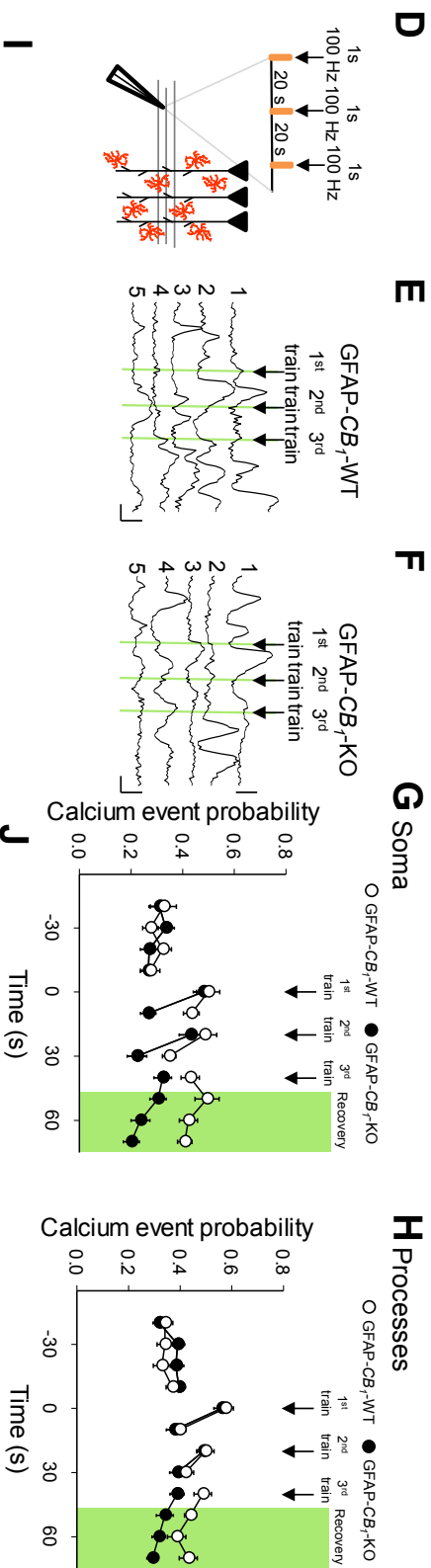
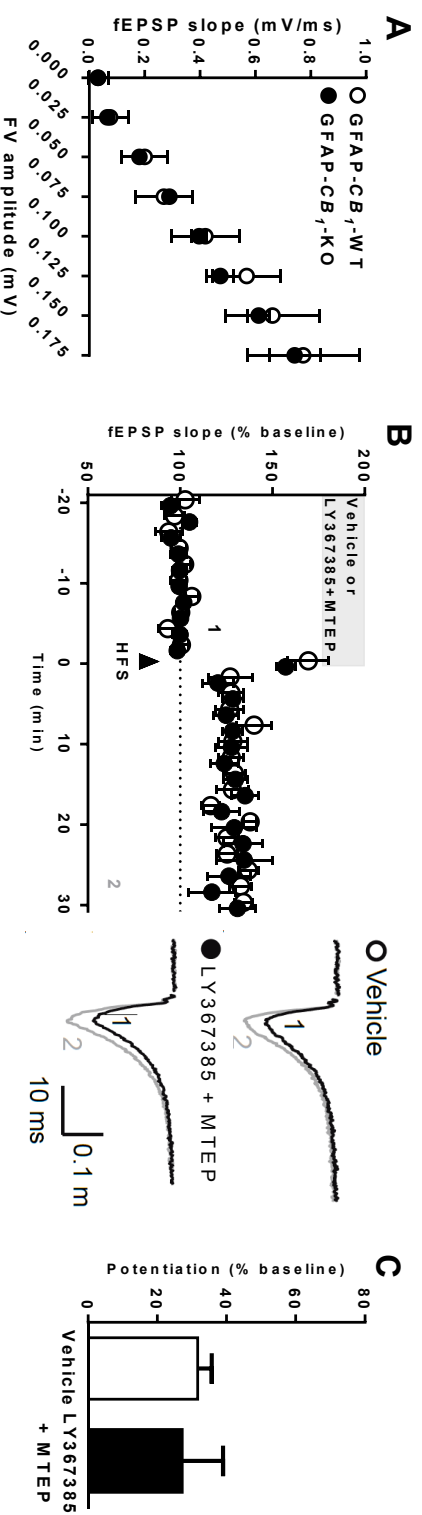


Figure S3. Related to Figure 3. (A) Input-output curves of fEPSPs in GFAP- CB_1 -WT (n=8) and GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice (n=7). (B) Summary plots showing the lack of effect of mGluR1/5 antagonists LY367385 and MTEP on LTP induction. Traces represent 30 superimposed successive fEPSPs before (1, black) and after (2, grey) the HFS stimulation (arrow). (C) Bar histograms of fEPSPs from experiments. Schaffer collateral high frequency stimulation effect on astrocytic calcium. (D) Schematic representation of the experimental design. A stimulation electro was placed in the *stratum radiatum* in CA1 region. The stimulus consist on 3 trains of 100 Hz (1 sec each), separated by 20 seconds interval. Astrocytes in the adjacent field of view were image and their calcium intensities measured. (E) Representative somatic calcium traces of 5 astrocytes of the same field of view before and after Schaffer collaterals stimulations (indicated by arrows and green lines) in GFAP- CB_1 -WT mice. Scale bars: 5% and 10 s. (F) Representative somatic calcium traces of 5 astrocytes of the same field of view before and after Schaffer collaterals stimulations (indicated by arrows and green lines) in GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice. Scale bars: 21% for top trace and 7% for bottom traces and 10 s. (G) Somatic calcium event probability before and after Schaffer collaterals stimulation (at time=0, 20 and 40) in GFAP- CB_1 -WT (white; 163 somas from n=17 slices) and GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice (black; 146 somas from n=21 slices). (H) Processes calcium event probability before and after Schaffer collaterals stimulation (at time=0, 20 and 40) in GFAP- CB_1 -WT (white; 319 processes from n=17 slices) and GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice (black; 320 processes from n=21 slices). (I) Somatic calcium event probability in GFAP- CB_1 -WT in control conditions (white, n=17) and in the presence of AM 251 (grey, n=10) and in GFAP- CB_1 -KO mice (black, n=21). Data, mean \pm SEM. **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001. See **Table S2** for detailed statistics.

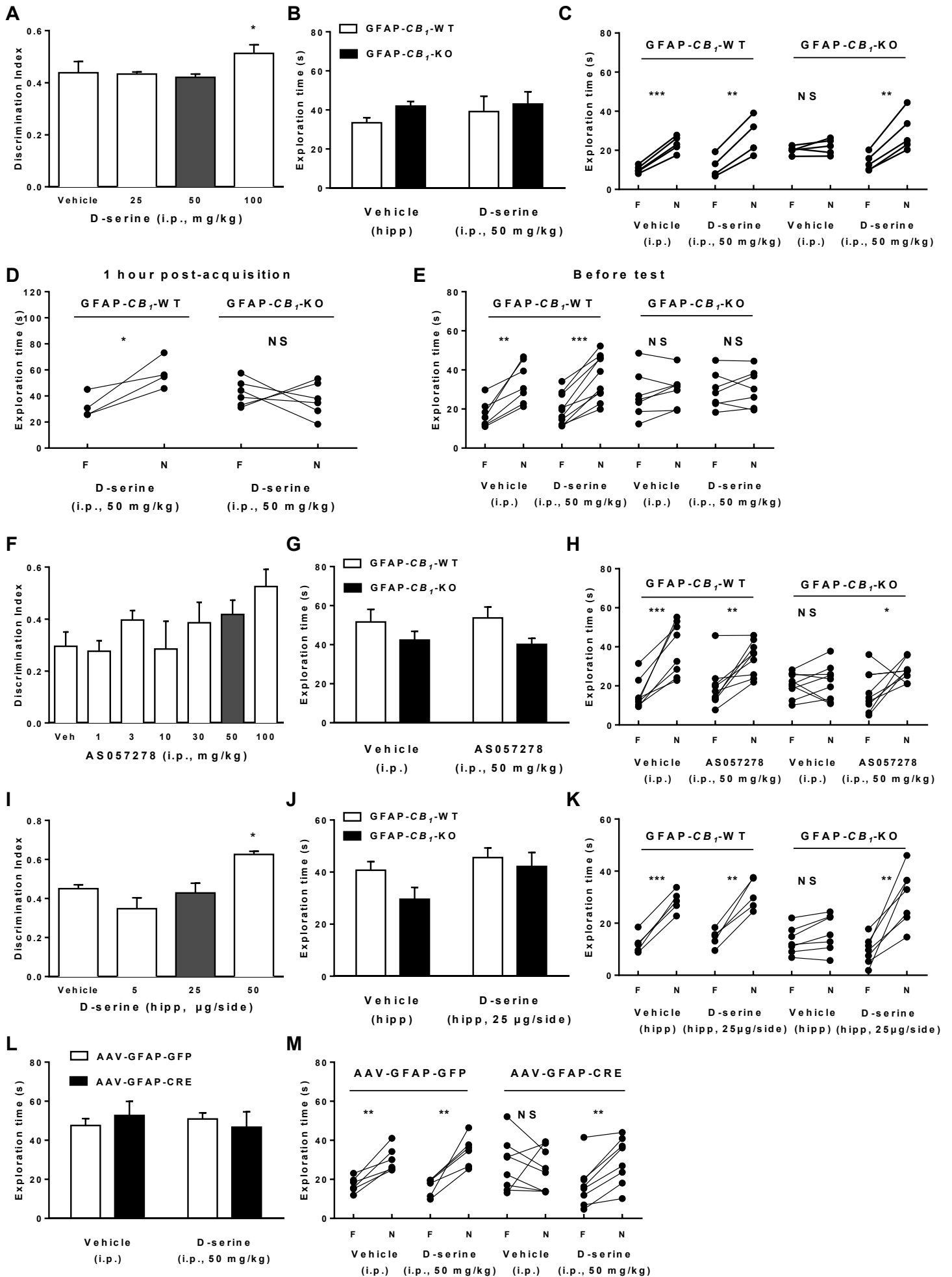


Figure S4. Related to Figure 4. Effects of D-serine and AS057278 on NOR task. **(A)** Effect of vehicle or different doses of D-serine (25, 50 or 100 mg/kg, i.p.) on memory performance in wild-type mice. Grey bar, sub-effective dose used in following experiments. **(B)** Total exploration time of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with vehicle or D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p.). **(C)** Exploration time of the familiar (F) and the novel (N) objects of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with vehicle or D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p.) immediately after acquisition. **(D,E)** Exploration time of the familiar and the novel objects of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p.) 1-hour after acquisition **(D)** and immediately before test **(E)**. **(F)** Effect of vehicle or different doses of AS057278 (1, 3, 10, 30, 50 or 100 mg/kg i.p.) on memory performance of wild-type mice. Grey bar, sub-effective dose used in following experiments. **(G)** Total exploration time of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with vehicle or AS057278 (50 mg/kg, i.p.). **(H)** Exploration time of the familiar and the novel object of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with vehicle or AS057278 (50 mg/kg, i.p.). **(I)** Effect of intra-hippocampal vehicle or different doses of D-serine (5, 25 or 50 μ g/side) on memory performances of wild-type mice. Grey bar, sub-effective dose used in following experiments. **(J)** Total exploration time of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with intra-hippocampal vehicle or D-serine (25 μ g/side). **(K)** Exploration time of the familiar and the novel object of GFAP-*CB₁*-WT mice and GFAP-*CB₁*-KO littermates injected with intra-hippocampal vehicle or D-serine (25 μ g/side). **(L)** Total exploration time of both objects of mice treated with vehicle or D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p.). **(M)** Object exploration time of the familiar and the novel object of *CB₁*-flox mice intra-hippocampally injected with either a AAV-GFAP-GFP or a AAV-GFAP-CRE, and treated with vehicle or D-serine (50 mg/kg, i.p.). Data, mean \pm SEM. *, $P < 0.05$, **, $P < 0.01$, ***, $P < 0.001$, NS, not significant. See **Table S2** for detailed statistics.

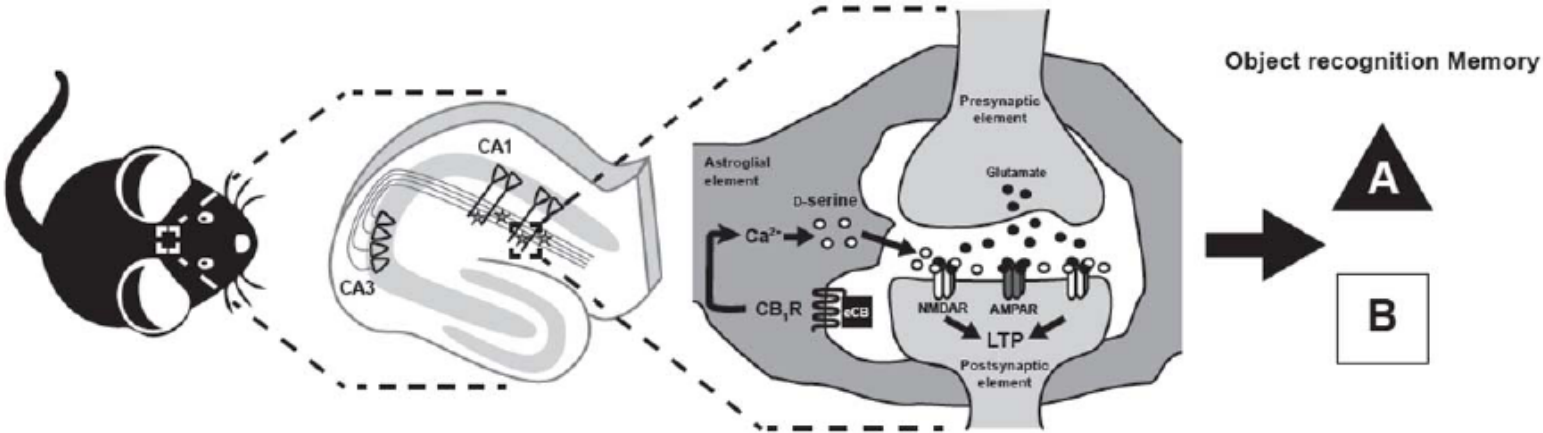


Figure S5. Schematic summary of the results. In adult mice, at the hippocampal CA3-CA1 synapse, astroglial CB₁ receptors regulate cellular Ca²⁺ levels, synaptic D-serine availability and thus D-serine-dependent synaptic NMDAR gating. By this means, astroglial CB₁ receptors control synaptic NMDAR-dependent long-term potentiation (LTP) and object recognition memory. eCB; endocannabinoid.

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Figure	Conditions	"n" (per group)	Analysis (post-hoc test reported in figures)	Factors analyzed	F-ratios	P values
1A	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	10-11	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0002
1B	Vehicle vs D-AP5	8-10	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P < 0.0001
1C	Vehicle vs MK-801 / time	5-6	2-WAY ANOVA	Treatment x Time	Treatment F(1,9) = 12.93	P = 0.0058
					Time F(9,81) = 5.60	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(9,81) = 9.22	P < 0.0001
1D	Vehicle vs MK-801	5-6	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0054
1E	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / time	6-9	2-WAY ANOVA	Genotype x Time	Genotype F(1,113) = 3.87	P = 0.071
					Time F(9,117) = 2.18	P = 0.0282
					Interaction F(9,117) = 4.28	P < 0.0001
1F	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	6-9	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0250
2C	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO basal vs treatment	9-16	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(2,34) = 3.149	P = 0.0556
					Treatment F(1,34) = 31.73	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(2,34) = 12.72	P < 0.0001
2E	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO basal vs treatment	8-10	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(2,22) = 9.836	P = 0.0009
					Treatment F(1,22) = 20.01	P = 0.0002
					Interaction F(2,22) = 10.48	P = 0.0006
2F	Vehicle vs WIN	15	Paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0092
2G	Vehicle vs WIN	16	Paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0639
2H	Vehicle vs WIN	9	Paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.5075
2I	Vehicle vs WIN	16	Paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.4524
3A	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO/Time	7	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Time	Genotype F(1,12) = 8.96	P = 0.0112
					Time F(59,708) = 18.26	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(59,708) = 3.08	P < 0.0001
3B	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	7	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0121
3C	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / Time	12-16	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Time	Genotype F(1,26) = 7.965	P = 0.009
					Time F(50,1300) = 20.79	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(50,1300) = 2.16	P < 0.0001
3D	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / Time	7-8	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Time	Genotype F(1,13) = 0.039	P = 0.8453
					Time F(47,611) = 30.92	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(47,611) = 0.828	P = 0.7859
3E	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO Vehicle vs D-serine	7-16	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,39) = 2.59	P = 0.1153
					Treatment F(1,39) = 5.61	P = 0.023
					Interaction F(1,39) = 1.68	P = 0.2019
3F	Vehicle vs D-serine / time	4-6	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Treatment x Time	Treatment F(1,8) = 0.31	P = 0.5920
					Time F(9,72) = 5.86	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(9,72) = 0.43	P = 0.9163
3G	Vehicle vs D-serine / time	5-7	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Treatment x Time	Treatment F(1,10) = 18.31	P = 0.0016
					Time F(9,90) = 6.44	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(9,90) = 12.72	P < 0.0001
3H	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO Vehicle vs D-serine	4-7	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,18) = 1.23	P = 0.2821
					Treatment F(1,18) = 3.21	P = 0.0901
					Interaction F(1,18) = 7.71	P = 0.0125

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4A	GFAP- CB_1 -WT vs GFAP- CB_1 -KO Vehicle vs D-serine	4-5	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,15) = 88.27	P < 0.0001
					Treatment F(1,15) = 63.23	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(1,15) = 49.07	P < 0.0001
4B	GFAP- CB_1 -WT vs GFAP- CB_1 -KO Vehicle vs AS05278	8-9	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,30) = 3.62	P = 0.0668
					Treatment F(1,30) = 4.39	P = 0.0447
					Interaction F(1,30) = 15.37	P = 0.0005
4C	GFAP- CB_1 -WT vs GFAP- CB_1 -KO Vehicle vs D-serine	5-7	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,20) = 2.48	P = 0.1311
					Treatment F(1,20) = 14.12	P = 0.0012
					Interaction F(1,20) = 19.80	P = 0.0002
4D	Quantification of CRE/S100 β and CRE/NeuN co-expression	16	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Cell-type x CRE	Cell type F(1,60) = 444,4	P < 0.0001
					CRE F(1,60) = 175,3	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(1,60) = 148,7	P < 0.0001
4E	AAV-GFAP-GFP vs AAV-GFAP-CRE Vehicle vs D-serine	6-8	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Virus x Treatment	Virus F(1,25) = 8.74	P = 0.0067
					Treatment F(1,25) = 11.70	P = 0.0022
					Interaction F(1,25) = 2.34	P = 0.1384

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Figure	Conditions	"n" (per group)	Analysis (post-hoc test reported in figures)	Factor analyzed	F ratios	P values
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S1A	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT	10	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0005
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	11	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.2466
S1B	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	10-11	Unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.2306
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S1D	Vehicle	11	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0005
	AP5	8	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.1284
S1E	Vehicle vs AP5	8-11	unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.2637
S1F	Vehicle vs AP5	6-10	unpaired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.4145
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S1G	Vehicle	6	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0439
	AP5	10	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0012
S2A	Vehicle vs WIN	8	Mann-Whitney test			P = 0.1975
S2B	Vehicle vs WIN	7	Mann-Whitney test			P = 0.5350
S2C	Vehicle vs WIN	5	Mann-Whitney test			P = 0.4206
S2D	Vehicle vs WIN	7	Mann-Whitney test			P = 1
S3A	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO fEPSP slope / FV amplitude	11-16	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x FV amplitude	Genotype F(1,24) = 2.63	P = 0.1063
					Fv amplitude F(7,237) = 119.5	P < 0.0001
					Interaction F(7,237) = 0.69	P = 0.6809
S3C	Vehicle vs LY367385 + MTEP	8, 7	Mann-Whitney test (Two-tailed)			P = 0.5358
S3I	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 1st train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,45) = 0.089	P = 0.91
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 2nd train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,45) = 0.9	P = 0.41
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 3rd train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,45) = 2.308	P = 0.11
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO recovery	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,45) = 19.105	P < 0.0001
S3J	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 1st train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,44) = 0.257	P = 0.775
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 2nd train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,44) = 2.267	P = 0.116
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO 3rd train	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,44) = 2.533	P = 0.091
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO recovery	10-21	1-way ANOVA (holm-Sidak)		F(2,44) = 8.265	P < 0.0001
S4A	Dose of D-serine	5	1-way ANOVA (Dunnnett's)		F(3,16) = 2.194	P = 0.0128
S4B	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT vs GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO Vehicle vs D-serine	4-5	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,15) = 1.50	P = 0.2394
					Treatment F(1,15) = 0.46	P = 0.5092
					Interaction F(1,15) = 0.22	P = 0.6455
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S4C	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT / Vehicle	5	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0002
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT / D-serine	4	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0062
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / Vehicle	5	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.2666
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / D-serine	5	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0034
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S4AD	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT	4	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0308
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO	6	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.5701
Exploration Novel object vs familiar						
S4E	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT / Vehicle	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0032
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -WT / D-serine	10	paired <i>t</i> -test			P < 0.0001
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / Vehicle	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.2375
	GFAP- <i>CB₁</i> -KO / D-serine	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.5468

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S4F	Dose of AS057278		5-7	1-way ANOVA (Dunnnett's)		F(6,37) = 2.117	P = 0.0744
S4G	GFAP- CB_1 -WT vs GFAP- CB_1 -KO Vehicle vs AS057278		8-9	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,32) = 5.10	P = 0.0309
						Treatment F(1,32) = 0.00	P = 0.9878
						Interaction F(1,32) = 0.18	P = 0.6771
Exploration Novel object vs familiar							
S4H	GFAP- CB_1 -WT / Vehicle	✓	8	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.001
	GFAP- CB_1 -WT / AS057278	✓	9	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0031
	GFAP- CB_1 -KO / Vehicle	✓	9	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.5975
	GFAP- CB_1 -KO / AS057278	✓	9	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0392
S4I	Dose of D-serine (hipp.)		4-10	1-way ANOVA (Dunnnett's)		F(3,23) = 5.043	P = 0.0079
S4J	GFAP- CB_1 -WT vs GFAP- CB_1 -KO/Vehicle vs D-serine (hipp.)		5-7	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Genotype x Treatment	Genotype F(1,22) = 0.77	P = 0.03887
						Treatment F(1,22) = 2.68	P = 0.01159
						Interaction F(1,22) = 0.23	P = 0.6336
Exploration Novel object vs familiar							
S4K	GFAP- CB_1 -WT / Vehicle	✓	5	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0002
	GFAP- CB_1 -WT / D-serine	✓	5	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0018
	GFAP- CB_1 -KO / Vehicle	✓	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.3847
	GFAP- CB_1 -KO / D-serine	✓	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0017
S4L	AAV-GFAP-GFP vs AAV-GFAP-CRE: Vehicle vs D-serine		6-8	2-WAY ANOVA (Bonferroni)	Virus x Treatment	Virus F(1,25) = 0.01	P = 0.9419
						Treatment F(1,25) = 0.05	P = 0.8325
						Interaction F(1,25) = 0.55	P = 0.4649
Exploration Novel object vs familiar							
S4M	AAV-GFAP-GFP / Vehicle	✓	6	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0036
	AAV-GFAP-GFP / D-serine	✓	7	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0019
	AAV-GFAP-CRE / Vehicle	✓	8	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.6639
	AAV-GFAP-CRE / D-serine	✓	8	paired <i>t</i> -test			P = 0.0013