

The Vulnerability of the Developing Brain: Analysis of Highly Expressed Genes in Infant C57BL/6 Mouse Hippocampus in Relation to Phenotypic Annotation Derived From Mutational Studies

Bioinformatics and Biology Insights
Volume 16: 1–13
© The Author(s) 2022
DOI: 10.1177/11779322211062722



Angelica Lindlöf 

School of Bioscience, University of Skövde, Skövde, Sweden.

ABSTRACT: The hippocampus has been shown to have a major role in learning and memory, but also to participate in the regulation of emotions. However, its specific role(s) in memory is still unclear. Hippocampal damage or dysfunction mainly results in memory issues, especially in the declarative memory but, in animal studies, has also shown to lead to hyperactivity and difficulty in inhibiting responses previously taught. The brain structure is affected in neuropathological disorders, such as Alzheimer's, epilepsy, and schizophrenia, and also by depression and stress. The hippocampus structure is far from mature at birth and undergoes substantial development throughout infant and juvenile life. The aim of this study was to survey genes highly expressed throughout the postnatal period in mouse hippocampus and which have also been linked to an abnormal phenotype through mutational studies to achieve a greater understanding about hippocampal functions during postnatal development. Publicly available gene expression data from C57BL/6 mouse hippocampus was analyzed; from a total of 5 time points (at postnatal day 1, 10, 15, 21, and 30), 547 genes highly expressed in all of these time points were selected for analysis. Highly expressed genes are considered to be of potential biological importance and appear to be multifunctional, and hence any dysfunction in such a gene will most likely have a large impact on the development of abilities during the postnatal and juvenile period. Phenotypic annotation data downloaded from Mouse Genomic Informatics database were analyzed for these genes, and the results showed that many of them are important for proper embryo development and infant survival, proper growth, and increase in body size, as well as for voluntary movement functions, motor coordination, and balance. The results also indicated an association with seizures that have primarily been characterized by uncontrolled motor activity and the development of proper grooming abilities. The complete list of genes and their phenotypic annotation data have been compiled in a file for easy access.

KEYWORDS: Hippocampus, postnatal development, infant, phenotypic annotation, mutational studies, mouse

RECEIVED: June 22, 2021. **ACCEPTED:** November 3, 2021.

TYPE: Original Research

FUNDING: The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS: The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Angelica Lindlöf, School of Bioscience, University of Skövde, Box 408, Skövde 541 28, Sweden. Email: angelica.lindlof@his.se

Introduction

The hippocampus has been shown to be important for learning, long-term memory formation and spatial navigation. Moreover, being a part of the limbic system, it has also been shown to participate in the regulation of emotions, by attaching experienced emotions and senses to the memories.^{1–3} However, its specific role(s) in memory is still unclear.⁴ Hippocampus is physically connected to other brain structures,⁵ for example, the neocortex⁶—important for sensory perception, spatial reasoning, and language; the amygdala⁷—which regulates emotional behavior; and the thalamus—responsible for relaying motor and sensory signals to cerebral cortex, but is also involved in the regulation of sleep, alertness, and arousal mechanisms.⁸ Through these connections, the brain structures stimulate each other in an intricate manner to execute cognitive processes.^{1,2,9–17} A damage or dysfunction in one structure can heavily affect the function of another.

Hippocampal damage or dysfunction mainly results in memory issues, especially in the declarative memory, and in severe cases amnesia, but has in animal studies also shown to lead to hyperactivity and difficulty in inhibiting responses previously taught.^{18–27} The brain structure is affected in neuropathological disorders such as Alzheimer's, epilepsy, and schizophrenia but also by depression and stress.^{12,14,25,27–39}

The hippocampus structure is far from mature at birth and undergoes substantial development throughout infant and juvenile life, with gross morphological changes.^{40–47} The major neurogenesis of the structure has, however, been established to occur prenatally; although there is evidence that vital production of new neurons also occurs postnatal.⁴⁸ More importantly, abnormalities in postnatal development of the hippocampus are thought to contribute to neurodevelopmental disorders, such as autism.^{49–52}

The aim of this study was to survey genes highly expressed throughout the postnatal period in hippocampus and which have also been linked to an abnormal phenotype through mutational studies, to achieve a greater understanding about hippocampal functions during postnatal development. In this study, previously produced gene expression data from *C57BL/6 mouse hippocampus* was used and analyzed.

Mouse is one of the most commonly used models for human biology, and the C57BL/6 mouse strain is one of the most widely used inbred strain for genetic studies.^{53,54} This strain is the preferred choice as background for genetically modified mice, due to its availability of congenic strains, easiness to breed, being genetically stable, and having a low susceptibility to developing tumors. However, the strain has also less-attractive characteristics, such as a high susceptibility to diet-induced



Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) which permits any use, reproduction and distribution of the work without further permission provided the original work is attributed as specified on the SAGE and Open Access pages (<https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/open-access-at-sage>).

obesity and diabetes, sensitivity to pain and loud noise, having a tendency to bite, and susceptibility to morphine addiction. Nonetheless, the strain has been appreciated for behavioral studies, as it is physically active, a good learner, has a relatively high level of social exploration and is relatively stress-resistant. Due to its popularity, there is a substantial amount of gene expression data available for the *C57BL/6* strain and which are also easy to access.

Commonly when conducting genome-wide gene expression studies, differentially expressed genes between different conditions are identified and analyzed. However, in this study, another approach was chosen, by focusing on the most highly expressed genes throughout the postnatal period and the phenotypes that can be linked to these genes. Highly expressed genes are considered to be of potential biological importance and appear to be multifunctional, and hence, any dysfunction in such a gene will most likely have a large impact on the development of abilities during the postnatal and juvenile period.⁵⁵⁻⁶³ Phenotypes derived from mutational studies of these genes can contribute to more knowledge regarding the functions of hippocampus.

The study was limited to gene expression data derived using the Affymetrix GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0, as an attempt to avoid deviations between different platforms as well as arrays having a smaller number of represented genes.

In total, 5 time points, at postnatal day (PD) 1, 10, 15, 21 and 30, covering 15 samples from 3 different studies were selected to be included in the analyses.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶ The most highly expressed genes in all of these time points were derived and analyzed. Phenotypic annotation data were derived from Mouse Genomic Informatics (MGI) database and limited to include only hetero- or homozygous/wild-type gene mutational studies.⁶⁷

Materials and Methods

Gene expression data

Gene expression data were downloaded from ArrayExpress^{68,69} using the following criteria: mouse strain *C57BL/6* or any sub-strain, Affymetrix GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0, hippocampus tissue, time point(s) ≤ 30 PDs and at least 2 biological replicates. A quality control of each microarray/sample was performed using *R* and the package *simpleaffy*.⁷⁰ Microarrays meeting the following criteria were excluded from the analyses: background quality > 90 , beta actin ratio $> |3|$ and GADPH ratio $> |1|$. This resulted in the following experiments to be included in the analyses: E-GEOD-21137 (PD ~21; 2 biological replicates), E-GEOD-49050 (PD 1, 15, and 30; 3 biological replicates per time point) and E-GEOD-48911 (PD 10; 4 biological replicates).

Gene expression values were derived for all probes using *R* and *simpleaffy*,⁷⁰ with robust multiarray average (RMA) as normalization method. Microarrays for each experiment with chosen time points were normalized separately.

Highly expressed genes

For each time point and biological replicate/sample, the 1500 most highly expressed probes were obtained, by ranking the probes according to derived normalized expression value. Thereafter, only probes being among the most highly expressed in all samples, except for the 3 samples from PD 1, were included in further analyses. From this subset, probes not annotated as protein coding in the MGI database⁶⁷ were excluded. More specifically, a list of the probes' Affymetrix microarray IDs was submitted to MGI's Batch Query tool (MGI Batch Query [jax.org]), to retrieve gene annotation data; those probes not annotated with the Feature Type term "protein coding gene" were removed. From this batch query, MGI Gene/Marker ID for each probe was also extracted. Thereafter, redundant probes referring to the same gene name and MGI ID were removed, so that only one unique gene name/MGI ID was kept for subsequent analyses. The final set of genes was termed Unique Highly Expressed Genes (UHEGs).

Gene annotation data

Phenotypic annotation data were downloaded from MGI's webpage, using the MGI Data and Statistical reports page (MGI Data and Statistical Reports [jax.org]) and the file "List of all mouse phenotypic alleles." From this list, only annotation derived from hetero- or homozygous/wild-type mutational studies were included. To note, these studies include other strains in addition to *C57BL/6*. Subsequently, from this list, only annotations for the UHEGs were extracted in the form of Mammalian Phenotype IDs.

The Mammalian Phenotype ID refers to a term in the hierarchically structured Mammalian Phenotype Ontology (MPO)⁷¹ and is used for annotating genes. In this study, all terms for all genes were downloaded as well as each term's parental terms. Redundant terms were removed for each gene, and the terms "normal phenotype" and "no phenotypic analysis" as well as their child terms were excluded from subsequent analyses. Subsequently, terms down to child level 4 in the hierarchical structure were included in the study.

Housekeeping genes

List of housekeeping genes in mouse was downloaded from the HRT Atlas v1.0 database,⁷² and their respective gene names were searched for in the current NetAffx annotation file for Affymetrix GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0 Array (<http://www.affymetrix.com/support/technical/byproduct.affx?product=moe430-20>). Probe IDs for the housekeeping genes that could be identified in the annotation file was extracted, and their normalized (unintegrated) expression values were derived. The extracted probe IDs were subsequently used for identifying which ones of them referred to a UHEG.

Table 1. Genome-wide gene expression experiments evaluated for subsequent gene expression analyses.

EXPERIMENT	STRAIN	ASSAYS		AGE	QUALITY		
		TOTAL	ANAL.		BG	β -ACTIN	GADPH
E-GEOD-21137	C57BL/6J	16	2	3 weeks	0	0	0
E-GEOD-48911	C57BL/6	31	4	10 days	0	0	0
E-GEOD-49050	C57BL/6	72	9	1, 15, 30 days	0	0	0
E-GEOD-61086	C57BL/6	14	3	1 weeks	0	3	3

Experiment, refers to experiment's ArrayExpress ID; Strain, mouse strain used in experiment; Assays Total, total number of samples/individuals used in original experiment; Assays Anal., number of samples/individuals selected for this study (according to appropriate time point); Age, age of the samples/individuals that were selected for this study; Quality, number of samples/individuals with a bad quality values, background > 90, β -actin > |3| and GADPH > |1|.

Statistical data analysis and visualization

Violin plots were generated with BoxPlotR, a web tool for generation of box plots (<http://shiny.chemgrid.org/boxplotr/>).⁷³ Pairwise annotation term combinations were produced using an in-house developed Perl script. Gene networks were visualized with Cytoscape using the Edge-weighted spring-embedded layout with weights as parameter.⁷⁴

Results

Mouse postnatal hippocampus microarray data

In this study, publicly available microarray gene expression data from mouse postnatal hippocampus was used as basis; a search in ArrayExpress using the criteria “C57BL6; Affymetrix GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0; hippocampus” resulted in 35 available experiments. However, 31 of these experiments did not include tissue samples from PDs and were, consequently, excluded from the study. The remaining 4 experiments were subjected to a quality control of the microarray data, using the package *simpleaffy* in R.⁷⁰ Only time points ≤ 30 PDs and from normal hippocampus tissue were included in the study, and each experiment with selected time points were controlled separately. The quality control showed that data from one of the 4 experiments was poor, as it had a *background quality* > 90, *beta actin ratio* > |3| and *GADPH ratio* > |1|. Hence, this data set was excluded from subsequent analyses. The remaining 3 experiments included 5 time points (1, 10, 15, 21 and 30 PDs) and with 2-4 biological replicates each, yielding in total 15 samples (Table 1).

To extract the most highly expressed genes, first, probe expression values were derived using the *simpleaffy* package in R and normalized with the robust multi-array average RMA method (each data set was normalized separately).⁷⁰ Thereafter, probes being among the top 1500 most highly expressed in all replicates for time points 10, 15, 21 and 30 PDs were derived. From this set, only those probes referring to a protein coding gene in the MGI database were included in subsequent analyses, that is, all probes having an MGI Feature Type annotation “protein coding gene.”⁶⁷ Some of these probes referred to the same gene and subsequently redundant probes were removed, so that the final set comprised of only unique genes. This final

set included 547 genes and is the basis of the subsequent annotation analyses. This gene set was termed UHEGs (Supplementary File 2).

UHEGs annotated with an abnormal phenotype

To identify if any of the UHEGs had previously been associated with an abnormal phenotype, annotation was extracted from the MGI's Mammalian Phenotype database.^{67,71} The MPO is a hierarchically structured vocabulary used for standardized annotation of mouse genotypes. Genes (alleles) are annotated with high-level broadly descriptive phenotypic terms down to low-level highly specific ones and where the lower-level more detailed term is a child of a more general descriptive term. In this study, only annotation derived from hetero- or homozygous/wild-type mutational studies was included and not, for example, more complex studies involving more than one gene or allele. The phenotype data include studies on other strains in addition to C57BL6.

For the UHEGs, all MPO terms were extracted for each gene, as well as all parental terms to these ones. Thereafter, terms down to child level 3 (in total 4 levels including top level terms) in the hierarchical structure were included in subsequent analyses, to limit the amount of data to be analyzed. Level 4 in the hierarchical tree of the MPO will give sufficiently detailed annotation. Since the ontology is based on a hierarchical structure and a gene could have been associated with more than one phenotype, this procedure results in redundancy and therefore, subsequently, all redundant terms were removed for each gene. In addition, the terms “normal phenotype” and “no phenotypic analysis” as well as their child terms were excluded from the analyses. In total, for 348 (63%) of the 547 UHEGs at least one mutant had been generated and annotated, and moreover, 283 (52%) of the UHEGs had been associated with at least one abnormal phenotype (ie, after excluding the terms “normal phenotype” and “no phenotypic analysis”). The list of UHEGs with their abnormal phenotype annotations and normalized (unintegrated) expression levels has been compiled for easy access and can be found in Supplementary File 4.

Phenotype annotation statistics

Most of the UHEGs (57%) with a phenotype annotation have been associated with 1 to 5 terms and generally reported in 1 to 2 mutational studies (Supplementary File 1). Only 7% (39 genes) have been reported for more than 5 mutational studies and 28% (155 genes) in only one study. On the contrary, there are a few genes that have been associated with a very large number of abnormal phenotypes. The most studied genes are *ApoE*, *Prnp*, and *Thra*, which have been included in 82, 24, and 23 different mutational studies, respectively. However, the genes with the greatest number of reported abnormal phenotypes are *Ctnnb1*, *Rpl38*, and *Thra*, with 40, 32, and 27 different terms, respectively, on child level 4 in the MPO. Regarding *ApoE*, *Prnp*, and *Thra*, these genes have been annotated with a slightly less number of child-level 4 terms: 24, 14, and 27 different phenotypes, respectively.

The distribution of the number of annotated terms per gene follows the classical hypergeometric for genomic data, that is, most of the genes have been annotated with a few terms and a small number of genes have been annotated with a very large number of terms (Supplementary File 1). Here, it clearly reflects a bias in the number of mutational studies carried out for a gene and hence, the knowledge that exists for each gene.

Housekeeping genes

Since the genes selected were highly expressed in all included time points, they were also stably expressed; in total, 97% of the genes have a normalized (unintegrated) expression variance <1 . Genes that maintain constant expression levels across many different conditions could represent housekeeping genes. To investigate the presence of such genes, the UHEGs were compared to suggested housekeeping genes in the HRT Atlas v1.0 database (Supplementary File 5).⁷²

Of the 3024 housekeeping genes listed in HRT Atlas v1.0,⁷² only 31 could not be identified in the annotation file for the Affymetrix GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0. For the remaining housekeeping genes, these referred to 6659 probes, and hence, some of them are represented by more than one probe on the chip. Regarding the probes, 96% of them have a normalized (unintegrated) expression variance <1 , showing that most of the suggested housekeeping genes have a stable expression across the samples analyzed in this study.

Regarding UHEGs, in total, 131 (24%) of them are represented in the list of suggested housekeeping genes from the HRT Atlas v1.0.⁷² Hence, most of the suggested housekeeping genes are not highly expressed in the analyzed samples and most of the derived UHEGs are not listed as a housekeeping gene in the database. Furthermore, 29 of these genes have no annotated abnormal phenotype, resulting in 102 (19%) UHEGs as plausible housekeeping genes with at least one annotated abnormal phenotype.

Phenotype annotation analyses

Analyses of the MPO annotation reveal that all 27 first-level terms in the hierarchical structure has at least one gene associated to it; however, some terms have more genes associated than others. The most common abnormal phenotype for the UHEGs, based on number of genes annotated with the term, is “mortality/aging,” followed by “nervous system,” “growth/size/body region” and “behavior/neurological” (Table 2). Regarding second-level terms, the most common phenotypes are “abnormal survival,” “abnormal behavior,” and “abnormal nervous system,” and for third-level terms these are “abnormal motor capabilities/coordination/movement,” “abnormal brain morphology,” and “abnormal neuron morphology” (Supplementary File 2).

There are in total 473 4-level terms with at least one UHEG associated to it, but only 269 (49%) of the UHEGs have been annotated with a 4-level term. Here, “abnormal voluntary movement” is the most occurring as 64 of the UHEGs (12%) have been annotated with the term. This term is followed by “abnormal forebrain morphology” (48 UHEGs, 9%) and “abnormal motor coordination/balance” (44 UHEGs, 8%) (Supplementary File 2). Moreover, on this level, the fourth and fifth most occurring terms are “preweaning lethality, complete penetrance” (42 UHEGs, 8%) and “abnormal learning/memory/conditioning” (38 genes, 7%).

The union of all genes annotated with the top-5 most occurring 4-level terms comprises 139 (26%) of the UHEGs. However, none of these genes have been annotated with all 5 terms, and only 11 of them have been annotated with at least 4 terms and 25 with at least 3 terms.

Relationship between MPO terms

On the contrary, lists with most annotated terms do not capture the relationships that exist between terms on different levels, which in turn do not reflect the complexity of hippocampus' functional roles. To meet this limitation, the hierarchical tree of MPO terms was pictured together with the relationships between terms down to child-level 4; a node in the tree represents an abnormal phenotype annotation and a directed edge represents the relation between a parent and child term, that is, the edge represents the *is_a* relation from the MPO. In addition, the size of a node represents the number of UHEGs that have been annotated with that term. In total, 27 such hierarchical trees were generated, one for each of the first-level terms and their respective child levels. However, as it is not possible to include all these trees here, only some of them will be highlighted and analyzed.

Regarding “mortality/aging,” the most occurring term, the mutational effects mainly refers to lethality prior to or shortly after birth, as most of the genes have been annotated with terms related to preweaning lethality and premature death, and not with other terms related to a later death, such as at or after weaning age (Figure 1).

Table 2. Phenotype annotation derived from the MGI database for the unique highly expressed genes (UHEG) for the first-level terms.

MPO TERM	# GENES	% GENES
Mortality/aging	151	28%
Nervous system phenotype	136	25%
Behavior/neurological phenotype	123	22%
Growth/size/body region phenotype	102	19%
Cellular phenotype	97	18%
Homeostasis/metabolism phenotype	80	15%
Embryo phenotype	58	11%
Cardiovascular system phenotype	57	10%
Muscle phenotype	50	9%
Reproductive system phenotype	43	8%
Hematopoietic system phenotype	41	7%
Immune system phenotype	37	7%
Vision/eye phenotype	28	5%
Liver/biliary system phenotype	27	5%
Respiratory system phenotype	27	5%
Adipose tissue phenotype	25	5%
Skeleton phenotype	25	5%
Integument phenotype	20	4%
Craniofacial phenotype	19	3%
Digestive/alimentary phenotype	18	3%
Endocrine/exocrine gland phenotype	18	3%
Renal/urinary system phenotype	18	3%
Limbs/digits/tail phenotype	15	3%
Hearing/vestibular/ear phenotype	14	3%
Neoplasm	13	2%
Pigmentation phenotype	13	2%
Taste/olfaction phenotype	9	2%

Abbreviations: MGI, Mouse Genomic Informatics; MPO, mammalian phenotype ontology; UHEG, unique highly expressed genes.

MPO term, phenotype term used in MGI; MPO ID, phenotype term ID used in MGI; # UHEG, number of UHEG annotated with the term; % UHEG, percentage number of UHEG annotated with the term; MPO level, child level in the MGI ontology hierarchy.

Regarding “growth/size/body region,” it can be seen that the gene mutations affect growth and development of body size, both prior (prenatal) and after birth (postnatal) (Figure 2). Moreover, the mutations mainly seem to result in a growth retardation, rather than an increase of body size, since most of these alleles have been annotated with terms related to

retardation during different development phases, including embryonic, prenatal, and postnatal. There is also an association to a decreased lean body mass.

For “nervous system” phenotype, there are substantially more terms included from the MPO (Figure 3). Hence, this tree is larger than the 2 previous ones with respect to the number of nodes. On the contrary, each term has a smaller number of genes associated to it. In a sense, this makes it more difficult to derive a cohesive picture of the mutational effects. Or, the other way around, it shows that these alleles have a variety of functional roles in the nervous system. But nonetheless, there are some commonalities that can be derived from the tree. There are a number of alleles that affect both the morphological and physiological development of different brain structures, hippocampus included, which indicates that these UHEGs are important for the development of other structures besides hippocampus. There is an apparent association with hippocampus and the spinal cord/central nervous system because several of the genes have been annotated with abnormal phenotypes related to these structures. There are some alleles which affect synaptic morphology, transmission, plasticity, and/or vesicle transport as well as those affecting the formation of myelin sheaths and/or insulation. There is also an association with hippocampus and voluntary movements, via alleles giving rise to abnormalities in motor neuron morphology, and/or the corticospinal tract as well as the somatic nervous systems. To this can also alleles which give rise to seizures be grouped because these seizures have primarily been associated to those characterized by uncontrolled motor activity.

For “behavior/neurological phenotype,” the tree can actually be divided into several subgroups based on a common theme (Figure 4). There is one group of genes that are linked to the control of bodily movements, including coordination of voluntary and involuntary movements, balance and posture, reflexes and catalepsy. Another theme comprises genes linked to emotions and social interactions, more specifically fear and anxiety, aggression and social investigation. A third group of genes are linked to behavior control and which mainly comprises the control of grooming, social/con-specific interactions, and consumption. There is one theme related to fatigue and sleep/wake cycle, which may also be grouped together with behavior related to the circadian rhythm and response to light.

Similar to “nervous system,” the “homeostasis/metabolism” MPO includes more terms, but with fewer genes annotated for each term (Figure 5). For this MPO, the genes have mainly been annotated with “abnormal homeostasis” and “abnormal metabolism,” although there are a few genes linked to responses to physical injury as well as to xenobiotics and maintenance of body temperature. Regarding “abnormal homeostasis,” most of these genes have been associated with maintenance of blood composition (“abnormal blood

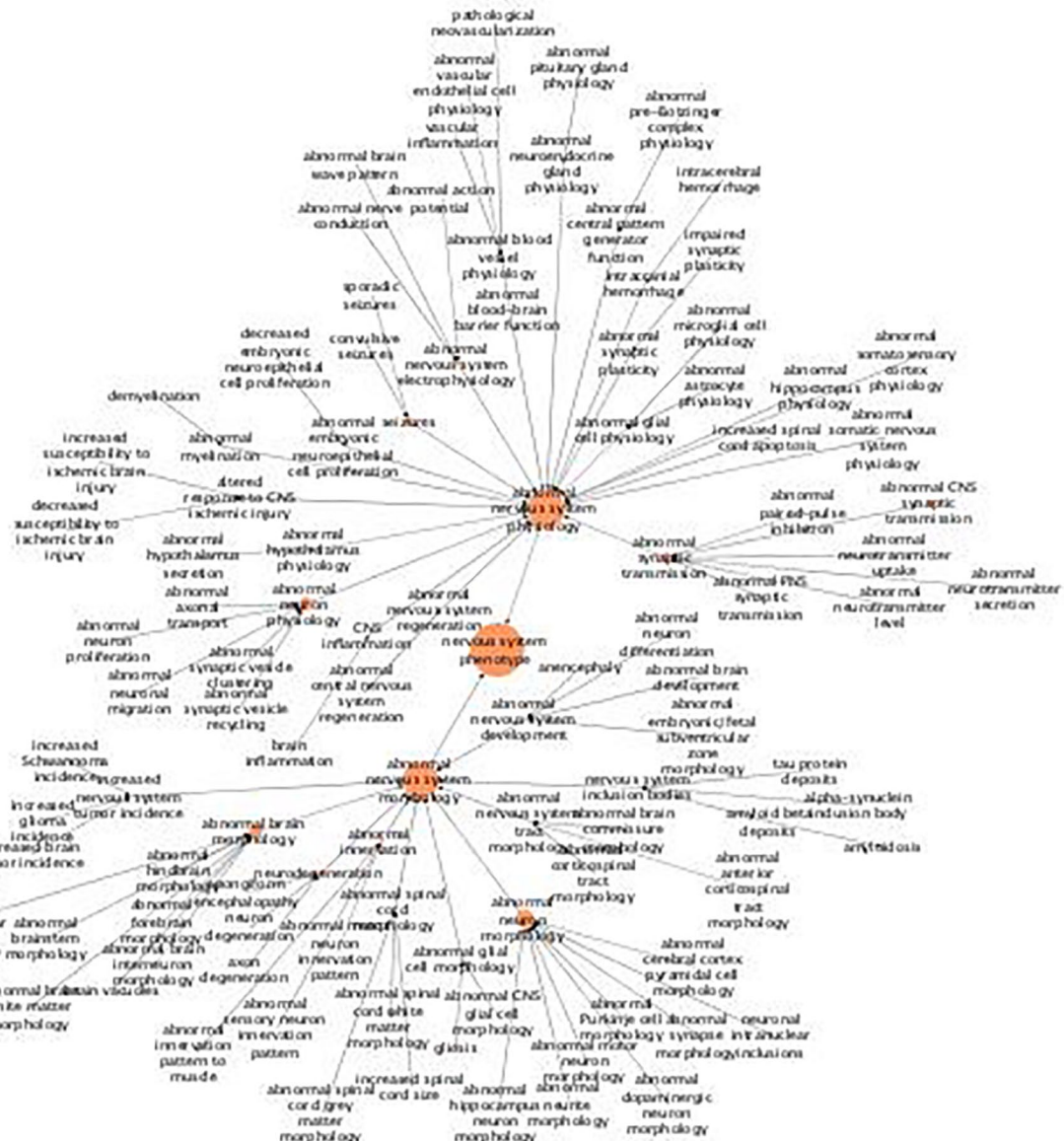


Figure 3. Hierarchical tree for the abnormal phenotype “nervous system.” The figure shows results from abnormal phenotype annotation of the UHEGs depicted with the MPO relations and where a larger circle indicates more genes being annotated with the specified term. MPO indicates mammalian phenotype ontology; UHEG, unique highly expressed genes.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to gain a greater understanding about hippocampal functions during postnatal development, by surveying protein coding genes highly expressed throughout this time period in mouse and use annotation about abnormal phenotypes that had been obtained through mutational studies. Mouse is one of the most commonly used models for human physiology and disease, and especially the C57BL/6 is the one most widely used inbred strain for genetic studies.^{53,54} Moreover, the MGI database contains a wealth of data from various experimental studies and contains a comprehensive catalog of mutant alleles, which are also associated to their phenotype through the MPO.^{67,71} Due to the strain’s popularity, there is also a substantial amount of gene expression data available that can be easily accessed.^{68,69}

Previous gene expression studies on postnatal development in mouse hippocampus have mainly focused on the response to a specific exposure, for example, ethanol, iron, and nicotine exposure,⁷⁵⁻⁷⁹ or a specific gene expressed during postnatal development and/or in the context of a specific neurological disease or disorder.^{25,62,65,66,80-85} The study by Mody et al⁸⁶ focused on genes differentially expressed between different time points during postnatal development (<30 PD) in mouse hippocampus, but did not include any analysis of genes highly expressed over several time points nor relating the results to phenotypic data. Similarly, the study by Iacono et al⁸⁷ focused on genes differentially expressed during different PDs in mouse hippocampus, with the added dimension of studying single-cell RNA-seq data from various hippocampal cell types but did not include any analysis of highly expressed genes nor

phenotypic data. The work by Meyer⁵⁷ focused on genes highly expressed within the hippocampal sector CA1 identified from a mouse brain histological expression atlas including 1013 genes; in total, 16 genes were found to be highly expressed at both 7 PD and in adult mice. However, this study was somewhat limiting as it only included a smaller number of genes and only one time point from the postnatal period, nor did the study include any phenotypic data. Contrarily, the study presented here focus on the analysis of phenotype annotations derived from hetero- or homozygous/wild-type mutational studies for 547 genes found to be highly expressed during the first 30 PD, adding new valuable information about the roles of hippocampus.

On the contrary, this study was limited to protein coding genes and future work should include similar analyses on non-coding RNA (ncRNA) expression, such as microRNAs and long noncoding RNAs, as previous studies have shown that such RNAs are expressed in a tissue- and cell-specific manner, involved in neuronal differentiation and function, and implicated in various brain disorders.⁸⁸⁻⁹⁵ However, although databases providing information on ncRNAs along with tissue expression profiles and predicted functions are now available as well as ncRNA knockout mouse models with reported phenotypes,⁹⁶⁻¹⁰¹ there is still a lack of databases that compiles the results from mutational studies and which also links the ncRNAs to phenotype in a similar way as the MGI's Mammalian Phenotype database. Such databases would be of high value when further studying the roles of hippocampus.

The analysis of the derived phenotype data for the UHEGs revealed that for 63% of them, a mutant had been generated (including those where no abnormal phenotype was detected), and in total, 52% of the UHEGs had been associated with an abnormal phenotype (excluding those where no abnormal phenotype was detected). Moreover, most of these genes had been reported in 1 to 2 mutational studies, and there were only a minor portion of the UHEGs for which there were more than 5 mutational studies. Clearly, there are ethical issues to consider when subjecting animals to experimental studies and such studies should always only be carried out when there is a possibility to generate data that will be useful for a treatment in humans.¹⁰² However, for some of the UHEGs, a very large number of mutational studies have been conducted (14 of the UHEGs in at least 10 different studies), and there is also a minor portion of the UHEGs that have been annotated with a very large number of abnormal phenotypes (only 26 of the UHEGs have at least 10 4-level terms). Such an apparent bias toward a minor portion of the genes under study obscures an objective analysis of the data and limits in-depth analyses.¹⁰³ It is difficult to get a broad and detailed understanding for all of these genes' phenotypic roles because there is only annotation available for about half of the genes and the amount of annotation deviates to such a large extent among these genes; there is a true challenge in analyzing genetic data.

Since the UHEGs showed a stable expression across all time points analyzed, these could be housekeeping genes, which are genes defined as constitutively expressed across different conditions and tissues and mainly required for the maintenance of basic cellular functions. As such they could introduce a bias in the results toward genes that are highly expressed in hippocampus regardless of developmental stage, rather than being involved in the development of hippocampal functions during postnatal period. A portion of the UHEGs (24%) are plausible housekeeping as they are listed in the HRT Atlas v1.0 database.⁷² However, some of these genes did not have any annotated abnormal phenotype in the MGI's Mammalian Phenotype database, leaving 19% of the UHEGs as plausible housekeeping with a resulting abnormality. Furthermore, most of the suggested housekeeping genes listed in the HRT Atlas v1.0 database do not seem to be highly expressed during the first 30 PD in hippocampus, at least based on the samples included in this study. On the contrary, the concept "housekeeping gene," as Hounkpe et al⁷² pointed out, appears to be problematic as the concordance between previous studies aimed at identifying such genes is low and the number of false positives is a major issue. Interestingly, Hounkpe et al⁷² introduced a redefined definition of the concept "housekeeping genes" and identified a number of such genes based on this new definition, which are stored in the HRT Atlas v1.0 database and on which the identification of plausible housekeeping genes in this study is based on. In addition, previous studies have shown that housekeeping genes can be involved in multicellular organogenesis, neurogenesis, developmental processes, and affected by disease.¹⁰⁴⁻¹¹³ Therefore, the identified plausible housekeeping genes among the UHEGs were not automatically ruled out as being involved in the development of hippocampal functions during the postnatal period.

Regarding the abnormal phenotype analyses, there are several interesting results that can be summarized from this study and which will be outlined here. Many of the genes highly expressed during the postnatal period give rise to similar abnormal phenotypes when mutated and have a great overall effect on the individual. As previously described highly expressed genes appear to be multifunctional and that is also shown in the results here.⁵⁵⁻⁶³ A mutation in as many as 151 of these genes can lead to a fatal outcome primarily before or shortly after birth. Hence, the abnormal phenotype of their alleles suggests that they are involved in proper embryo development and infant survival. Interestingly, previous studies have associated hippocampus malformation with sudden death in infants (sudden infant death syndrome, SIDS) and early childhood (sudden unexplained death in childhood, SUDC), and where the 2 syndromes demonstrate similar hippocampal abnormalities.^{81,114,115}

The results for the abnormal phenotype "growth/size/body region" indicates that many of the highly expressed genes are involved in proper growth and increase in body size, since

mutations in these genes mainly led to growth retardation, decrease in body size and lean body mass. Previous studies have shown that fetal growth restriction (also known as intrauterine growth restriction) affects the development of hippocampus and is associated with a decreased hippocampus volume but is also associated with an overall reduced brain volume, abnormalities in the development of white matter myelination and the basal ganglia.^{47,116–122} Moreover, fetal growth restriction has been shown to lead to a reduction in motor capabilities, cognition, and learning as well as behavioral issues such as poor attention and altered mood.^{116–123}

Interestingly, the results indicate a plausible association between hippocampus and the spinal cord. There are also some mutant alleles that gave rise to abnormalities in motor neuron morphology, corticospinal tract, and somatic nervous system. All these parts are vital for proper functioning of voluntary movements, body/motor coordination, and balance.^{124–130} There were also some alleles which gave rise to seizures, and to note, such seizures that primarily have been characterized by uncontrolled motor activity.^{33,131,132} In addition, the results showed that some of the mutant alleles gave rise to behavioral abnormalities related to motor capabilities, coordination, movement, and balance (see results for abnormal phenotype “behavior/neurological”). Previous studies have shown that hippocampus is involved in motor sequence memory consolidation, voluntary movements, motor balance and coordination, and that there is an association between epilepsy and hippocampus.^{33,35–37,133–142} The results here also indicate a connection between hippocampus, voluntary movements, body coordination, and balance, as well as between epilepsy which causes motor seizures, but this has to be further studied before any conclusions can be made.

Another interesting aspect drawn from the results is that a portion of these genes seems to be important for developing grooming abilities, which is a behavior that functions to maintain hygiene, comfort, and social communication. Grooming can also be considered a physical activity where repeated stereotyped movements are executed as a complex sequenced structure.¹⁴³ The execution of these movements requires an intricate pattern of motor activities and motor control. Previous studies have shown that damages in and degeneration of hippocampus lead to alterations in grooming activities, such as fewer, shorter, and uncomplete grooming sequences.^{144–147} The results here indicate a connection between genes expressed in hippocampus and proper development of grooming abilities, but this also has to be further studied before any conclusions can be made.

Conclusions

This study suggest that genes highly expressed in mouse hippocampus during postnatal period are important for proper embryo development and infant survival, growth, and increase in body size, as well as for voluntary movement functions, motor coordination, and balance. The results also indicated an

association with seizures that have primarily been characterized by uncontrolled motor activity and the development of proper grooming abilities.

Author Contributions

A.L. designed the study methodology, carried out the implementation and analysis of the work, and wrote and critically reviewed the manuscript.

ORCID iD

Angelica Lindlöf  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1837-429X>

Supplemental Material

Supplemental material for this article is available online.

REFERENCES

1. Phelps EA. Human emotion and memory: interactions of the amygdala and hippocampal complex. *Curr Opin Neurobiol.* 2004;14:198–202. doi:10.1016/j.conb.2004.03.015.
2. Richardson MP, Strange BA, Dolan RJ. Encoding of emotional memories depends on amygdala and hippocampus and their interactions. *Nat Neurosci.* 2004;7:278–285. doi:10.1038/nn1190.
3. Anand KS, Dhikav V. Hippocampus in health and disease: an overview. *Ann Indian Acad Neurol.* 2012;15:239–246. doi:10.4103/0972-2327.104323.
4. Tanaka KZ. Heterogeneous representations in the hippocampus. *Neurosci Res.* 2021;165:1–5. doi:10.1016/j.neures.2020.05.002.
5. Maller JJ, Welton T, Middione M, Callaghan FM, Rosenfeld JV, Grieve SM. Revealing the hippocampal connectome through super-resolution 1150-direction diffusion MRI. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9:2418. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-37905-9.
6. Sekeres MJ, Winocur G, Moscovitch M. The hippocampus and related neocortical structures in memory transformation. *Neurosci Lett.* 2018;680:39–53. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2018.05.006.
7. Richter-Levin G, Akirav I. Amygdala-hippocampus dynamic interaction in relation to memory. *Mol Neurobiol.* 2000;22:11–20. doi:10.1385/MN:22:1-3:011.
8. Torrico TJ, Munakomi S. *Neuroanatomy, Thalamus.* Treasure Island, FL: StatPearls; 2021.
9. Squire LR, Genzel L, Wixted JT, Morris RG. Memory consolidation. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.* 2015;7:a021766. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a021766.
10. Vann SD, Albasser MM. Hippocampus and neocortex: recognition and spatial memory. *Curr Opin Neurobiol.* 2011;21:440–445. doi:10.1016/j.conb.2011.02.002.
11. Chen S, He L, Huang AJY, et al. A hypothalamic novelty signal modulates hippocampal memory. *Nature.* 2020;586:270–274. doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2771-1.
12. Fanselow MS, Dong HW. Are the dorsal and ventral hippocampus functionally distinct structures? *Neuron.* 2010;65:7–19. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2009.11.031.
13. Jacobson L, Sapolsky R. The role of the hippocampus in feedback regulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical axis. *Endocr Rev.* 1991;12:118–134. doi:10.1210/edrv-12-2-118.
14. Kim EJ, Pellman B, Kim JJ. Stress effects on the hippocampus: a critical review. *Learn Mem.* 2015;22:411–416. doi:10.1101/lm.037291.114.
15. Perez SM, Lodge DJ. Convergent inputs from the hippocampus and thalamus to the nucleus accumbens regulate dopamine neuron activity. *J Neurosci.* 2018;38:10607–10618. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2629-16.2018.
16. Stein T, Moritz C, Quigley M, Cordes D, Houghton V, Meyerand E. Functional connectivity in the thalamus and hippocampus studied with functional MR imaging. *Am J Neuroradiol.* 2000;21:1397–1401.
17. Cassel JC, Pereira de Vasconcelos A. Importance of the ventral midline thalamus in driving hippocampal functions. *Prog Brain Res.* 2015;219:145–161. doi:10.1016/bs.pbr.2015.03.005.
18. Altemus KL, Almlí CR. Neonatal hippocampal damage in rats: long-term spatial memory deficits and associations with magnitude of hippocampal damage. *Hippocampus.* 1997;7:403–415. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-1063(1997)7:4<403::AID-HIPO6>3.0.CO;2-J.
19. Hopkins RO, Waldram K, Kesner RP. Sequences assessed by declarative and procedural tests of memory in amnesic patients with hippocampal damage. *Neuropsychologia.* 2004;42:1877–1886. doi:10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2004.05.008.

20. Eichenbaum H. Hippocampus: cognitive processes and neural representations that underlie declarative memory. *Neuron*. 2004;44:109-120. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2004.08.028.
21. Grunwald T, Kurth M. Novelty detection and encoding for declarative memory within the human hippocampus. *Clin EEG Neurosci*. 2006;37:309-314. doi:10.1177/155005940603700408.
22. Tulving E, Markowitsch HJ. Episodic and declarative memory: role of the hippocampus. *Hippocampus*. 1998;8:198-204. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-1063(1998)8:3<198::AID-HIPO2>3.0.CO;2-G.
23. Andersen MB, Zimmer J, Sams-Dodd F. Postischemic hyperactivity in the Mongolian gerbil correlates with loss of hippocampal neurons. *Behav Neurosci*. 1997;111:1205-1216. doi:10.1037//0735-7044.111.6.1205.
24. Al-Amin M, Zinchenko A, Geyer T. Hippocampal subfield volume changes in subtypes of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Brain Res*. 2018;1685:1-8. doi:10.1016/j.brainres.2018.02.007.
25. Bae YS, Yoon SH, Han JY, et al. Deficiency of aminopeptidase P1 causes behavioral hyperactivity, cognitive deficits, and hippocampal neurodegeneration. *Genes Brain Behav*. 2018;17:126-138. doi:10.1111/gbb.12419.
26. Grimm CM, Aksamaz S, Schulz S, et al. Schizophrenia-related cognitive dysfunction in the Cyclin-D2 knockout mouse model of ventral hippocampal hyperactivity. *Transl Psychiatry*. 2018;8:212. doi:10.1038/s41398-018-0268-6.
27. McNaughton N. Cognitive dysfunction resulting from hippocampal hyperactivity—a possible cause of anxiety disorder? *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*. 1997;56:603-611. doi:10.1016/s0091-3057(96)00419-4.
28. Moodley KK, Chan D. The hippocampus in neurodegenerative disease. *Front Neural Neurosci*. 2014;34:95-108. doi:10.1159/000356430.
29. Dhikav V, Anand K. Potential predictors of hippocampal atrophy in Alzheimer's disease. *Drugs Aging*. 2011;28:1-11. doi:10.2165/11586390-00000000-00000.
30. Sosulina L, Mittag M, Geis HR, et al. Hippocampal hyperactivity in a rat model of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurochem*. 2021;157:2128-2144. doi:10.1111/jnc.15323.
31. Tang MM, Lin WJ, Pan YQ, Guan XT, Li YC. Hippocampal neurogenesis dysfunction linked to depressive-like behaviors in a neuroinflammation induced model of depression. *Physiol Behav*. 2016;161:166-173. doi:10.1016/j.physbeh.2016.04.034.
32. Holm MM, Nieto-Gonzalez JL, Vardya I, et al. Hippocampal GABAergic dysfunction in a rat chronic mild stress model of depression. *Hippocampus*. 2011;21:422-433. doi:10.1002/hipo.20758.
33. Schraegle WA, Nussbaum NL, Titus JB. Executive dysfunction and depression in pediatric temporal lobe epilepsy: the contribution of hippocampal sclerosis and psychosocial factors. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc*. 2018;24:606-616. doi:10.1017/S1355617718000140.
34. Sampath D, Sathyanesan M, Newton SS. Cognitive dysfunction in major depression and Alzheimer's disease is associated with hippocampal-prefrontal cortex dysconnectivity. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat*. 2017;13:1509-1519. doi:10.2147/NDT.S136122.
35. Pan JW, Kim JH, Cohen-Gadol A, Pan C, Spencer DD, Hetherington HP. Regional energetic dysfunction in hippocampal epilepsy. *Acta Neurol Scand*. 2005;111:218-224. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0404.2005.00398.x.
36. Lin K, de Araujo Filho GM, Pascalicchio TF, et al. Hippocampal atrophy and memory dysfunction in patients with juvenile myoclonic epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav*. 2013;29:247-251. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2013.06.034.
37. Liu YQ, Yu F, Liu WH, He XH, Peng BW. Dysfunction of hippocampal interneurons in epilepsy. *Neurosci Bull*. 2014;30:985-998. doi:10.1007/s12264-014-1478-4.
38. McEwen BS, Magarinos AM. Stress effects on morphology and function of the hippocampus. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 1997;821:271-284. doi:10.1111/j.1749-6632.1997.tb48286.x.
39. Kim JJ, Song EY, Kosten TA. Stress effects in the hippocampus: synaptic plasticity and memory. *Stress*. 2006;9:1-11. doi:10.1080/10253890600678004.
40. Insausti R, Cebada-Sanchez S, Marcos P. Postnatal development of the human hippocampal formation. *Adv Anat Embryol Cell Biol*. 2010;206:1-86.
41. Luzzatto AC, Mangano G, Vonesch N. Prenatal development of the hippocampus in two strains of inbred mice. *Int J Dev Neurosci*. 1988;6:211-216. doi:10.1016/0736-5748(88)90001-9.
42. Jacob FD, Habas PA, Kim K, et al. Fetal hippocampal development: analysis by magnetic resonance imaging volumetry. *Pediatr Res*. 2011;69:425-429. doi:10.1203/PDR.0b013e318211dd7f.
43. Ge X, Shi Y, Li J, et al. Development of the human fetal hippocampal formation during early second trimester. *NeuroImage*. 2015;119:33-43. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2015.06.055.
44. Bajic D, Canto Moreira N, Wikstrom J, Raininko R. Asymmetric development of the hippocampal region is common: a fetal MR imaging study. *Am J Neuroradiol*. 2012;33:513-518. doi:10.3174/ajnr.A2814.
45. Dalmau I, Finsen B, Zimmer J, Gonzalez B, Castellano B. Development of microglia in the postnatal rat hippocampus. *Hippocampus*. 1998;8:458-474. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-1063(1998)8:5<458::AID-HIPO6>3.0.CO;2-N.
46. Hunsaker MR, Scott JA, Bauman MD, Schumann CM, Amaral DG. Postnatal development of the hippocampus in the Rhesus macaque (*Macaca mulatta*): a longitudinal magnetic resonance imaging study. *Hippocampus*. 2014;24:794-807. doi:10.1002/hipo.22271.
47. Lang U, Frotscher M. Postnatal development of nonpyramidal neurons in the rat hippocampus (areas CA1 and CA3): a combined Golgi/electron microscope study. *Anat Embryol (Berlin)*. 1990;181:533-545. doi:10.1007/BF00174626.
48. Kozareva DA, Cryan JF, Nolan YM. Born this way: hippocampal neurogenesis across the lifespan. *Aging Cell*. 2019;18:e13007. doi:10.1111/acel.13007.
49. Reinhardt VP, Iosif AM, Libero L, et al. Understanding hippocampal development in young children with autism spectrum disorder. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2020;59:1069-1079. doi:10.1016/j.jaac.2019.08.008.
50. Cooper RA, Richter FR, Bays PM, Plaisted-Grant KC, Baron-Cohen S, Simons JS. Reduced hippocampal functional connectivity during episodic memory retrieval in autism. *Cereb Cortex*. 2017;27:888-902. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhw417.
51. Richards R, Greimel E, Kliemann D, et al. Increased hippocampal shape asymmetry and volumetric ventricular asymmetry in autism spectrum disorder. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2020;26:102207. doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2020.102207.
52. Li Y, Shen M, Stockton ME, Zhao X. Hippocampal deficits in neurodevelopmental disorders. *Neurobiol Learn Mem*. 2019;165:106945. doi:10.1016/j.nlm.2018.10.001.
53. Peters LL, Robledo RF, Bult CJ, Churchill GA, Paigen BJ, Svenson KL. The mouse as a model for human biology: a resource guide for complex trait analysis. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2007;8:58-69. doi:10.1038/nrg2025.
54. Bryant CD. The blessings and curses of C57BL/6 substrains in mouse genetic studies. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2011;1245:31-33. doi:10.1111/j.1749-6632.2011.06325.x.
55. Zhang J, He X. Significant impact of protein dispensability on the instantaneous rate of protein evolution. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2005;22:1147-1155. doi:10.1093/molbev/msi101.
56. Gout JF, Kahn D, Duret L, Paramecium Post-Genomics Consortium. The relationship among gene expression, the evolution of gene dosage, and the rate of protein evolution. *PLoS Genet*. 2010;6:e1000944. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1000944.
57. Meyer MA. Highly expressed genes within hippocampal sector CA1: implications for the physiology of memory. *Neuro Int*. 2014;6:5388. doi:10.4081/ni.2014.5388.
58. Pal C, Papp B, Hurst LD. Highly expressed genes in yeast evolve slowly. *Genetics*. 2001;158:927-931.
59. Ouwenga RL, Dougherty J. Fmrp targets or not: long, highly brain-expressed genes tend to be implicated in autism and brain disorders. *Mol Autism*. 2015;6:16. doi:10.1186/s13229-015-0008-1.
60. Dotsch A, Klawonn F, Jarek M, Scharf M, Blocker H, Haussler S. Evolutionary conservation of essential and highly expressed genes in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *BMC Genomics*. 2010;11:234. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-11-234.
61. Karlin S, Mrazek J, Campbell A, Kaiser D. Characterizations of highly expressed genes of four fast-growing bacteria. *J Bacteriol*. 2001;183:5025-5040. doi:10.1128/JB.183.17.5025-5040.2001.
62. Babin PJ, Thisse C, Durlint M, Andre M, Akimenco MA, Thisse B. Both apolipoprotein E and A-I genes are present in a nonmammalian vertebrate and are highly expressed during embryonic development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1997;94:8622-8627. doi:10.1073/pnas.94.16.8622.
63. Nagata N, Oshida T, Yoshida NL, et al. Analysis of highly expressed genes in monocytes from atopic dermatitis patients. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*. 2003;132:156-167. doi:10.1159/000073717.
64. Valor LM, Jancic D, Lujan R, Barco A. Ultrastructural and transcriptional profiling of neuropathological misregulation of CREB function. *Cell Death Differ*. 2010;17:1636-1644. doi:10.1038/cdd.2010.40.
65. Ling KH, Hewitt CA, Tan KL, et al. Functional transcriptome analysis of the postnatal brain of the Ts1Cje mouse model for Down syndrome reveals global disruption of interferon-related molecular networks. *BMC Genomics*. 2014;15:624. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-15-624.
66. Wang X, Patel ND, Hui D, et al. Gene expression patterns in the hippocampus during the development and aging of Glud1 (glutamate dehydrogenase 1) transgenic and wild type mice. *BMC Neurosci*. 2014;15:37. doi:10.1186/1471-2202-15-37.
67. Eppig JT, Smith CL, Blake JA, et al. Mouse genome informatics (MGI): resources for mining mouse genetic, genomic, and biological data in support of primary and translational research. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2017;1488:47-73. doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-6427-7_3.
68. Athar A, Fullgrabe A, George N, et al. ArrayExpress update—from bulk to single-cell expression data. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2019;47:D711-D715. doi:10.1093/nar/gky964.
69. Sarkans U, Fullgrabe A, Ali A, et al. From ArrayExpress to BioStudies. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;49:D1502-D1506. doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa1062.

70. Wilson CL, Miller CJ. Simpleaffy: a BioConductor package for Affymetrix Quality Control and data analysis. *Bioinformatics*. 2005;21:3683-3685. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bti605.
71. Smith CL, Eppig JT. The mammalian phenotype ontology as a unifying standard for experimental and high-throughput phenotyping data. *Mamm Genome*. 2012;23:653-668. doi:10.1007/s00335-012-9421-3.
72. Hounkpe BW, Chenou F, de Lima F, De Paula EV. HRT Atlas v1.0 database: redefining human and mouse housekeeping genes and candidate reference transcripts by mining massive RNA-seq datasets. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;49:D947-D955. doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa609.
73. Spitzer M, Wildenhain J, Rappsilber J, Tyers M. BoxPlotR: a web tool for generation of box plots. *Nat Methods*. 2014;11:121-122. doi:10.1038/nmeth.2811.
74. Shannon P, Markiel A, Ozier O, et al. Cytoscape: a software environment for integrated models of biomolecular interaction networks. *Genome Res*. 2003;13:2498-2504. doi:10.1101/gr.1239303.
75. Nakauchi S, Su H, Trang I, Sumikawa K. Long-term effects of early postnatal nicotine exposure on cholinergic function in the mouse hippocampal CA1 region. *Neurobiol Learn Mem*. 2021;181:107445. doi:10.1016/j.nlm.2021.107445.
76. Niedzwiedz-Massey VM, Douglas JC, Rafferty T, Wight PA, Kane CJM, Drew PD. Ethanol modulation of hippocampal neuroinflammation, myelination, and neurodevelopment in a postnatal mouse model of fetal alcohol spectrum disorders. *Neurotoxicol Teratol*. 2021;87:107015. doi:10.1016/j.ntt.2021.107015.
77. Shivakumar M, Subbanna S, Joshi V, Basavarajappa BS. Postnatal ethanol exposure activates HDAC-mediated histone deacetylation, impairs synaptic plasticity gene expression and behavior in mice. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol*. 2020;23:324-338. doi:10.1093/ijnp/pyaa017.
78. Barks A, Fretham SJB, Georgieff MK, Tran PV. Early-life neuronal-specific iron deficiency alters the adult mouse hippocampal transcriptome. *J Nutr*. 2018;148:1521-1528. doi:10.1093/jn/nxy125.
79. Nguyen T, Li GE, Chen H, Cranfield CG, McGrath KC, Gorrie CA. Neurological effects in the offspring after switching from tobacco cigarettes to e-cigarettes during pregnancy in a mouse model [published online ahead of print August 28, 2019]. *Toxicol Sci*. doi:10.1093/toxsci/kyz194.
80. van Liempd SM, Cabrera D, Lee FY, et al. BLOC-1 deficiency causes alterations in amino acid profile and in phospholipid and adenosine metabolism in the postnatal mouse hippocampus. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:5231. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-05465-z.
81. Eidahl JML, Stray-Pedersen A, Rognum TO, Opdal SH. Aquaporin 4 expression in the hippocampus in sudden infant death syndrome and sudden unexplained death in childhood. *J Chem Neuroanat*. 2021;115:101962. doi:10.1016/j.jchemneu.2021.101962.
82. Zhang L, Pilarowski G, Pich EM, et al. Inhibition of KDM1A activity restores adult neurogenesis and improves hippocampal memory in a mouse model of Kabuki syndrome. *Mol Ther Methods Clin Dev*. 2021;20:779-791. doi:10.1016/j.omtm.2021.02.011.
83. Tang HL, Chen SY, Zhang H, et al. Expression pattern of ALOXE3 in mouse brain suggests its relationship with seizure susceptibility [published online ahead of print October 15, 2020]. *Cell Mol Neurobiol*. doi:10.1007/s10571-020-00974-4.
84. Sourial M, Doering LC. Abnormal neural precursor cell regulation in the early postnatal Fragile X mouse hippocampus. *Brain Res*. 2017;1666:58-69. doi:10.1016/j.brainres.2017.04.013.
85. Uchida K, Hasuoka K, Fuse T, et al. Thyroid hormone insufficiency alters the expression of psychiatric disorder-related molecules in the hypothyroid mouse brain during the early postnatal period. *Sci Rep*. 2021;11:6723. doi:10.1038/s41598-021-86237-8.
86. Mody M, Cao Y, Cui Z, et al. Genome-wide gene expression profiles of the developing mouse hippocampus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2001;98:8862-8867. doi:10.1073/pnas.141244998.
87. Iacono G, Benevento M, Dubos A, et al. Integrated transcriptional analysis unveils the dynamics of cellular differentiation in the developing mouse hippocampus. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:18073. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-18287-w.
88. Keihani S, Kluever V, Fornasiero EF. Brain long noncoding RNAs: multitask regulators of neuronal differentiation and function. *Molecules*. 2021;26:3951. doi:10.3390/molecules26133951.
89. Chen L, Zhang YH, Pan X, et al. Tissue expression difference between mRNAs and lncRNAs. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2018;19:3416. doi:10.3390/ijms19113416.
90. Ward M, McEwan C, Mills JD, Janitz M. Conservation and tissue-specific transcription patterns of long noncoding RNAs. *J Hum Transcr*. 2015;1:2-9. doi:10.3109/23324015.2015.1077591.
91. Chen R, Piao X, Xiao M, Wang F, Liu L. Long noncoding RNAs interact with mRNAs: a new perspective on the mechanism of premature brain injury. *Neurosci Lett*. 2019;707:134274. doi:10.1016/j.neulet.2019.05.028.
92. Garcia-Fonseca A, Martin-Jimenez C, Barreto GE, Pachon AFA, Gonzalez J. The emerging role of long non-coding RNAs and microRNAs in neurodegenerative diseases: a perspective of machine learning. *Biomolecules*. 2021;11:1132. doi:10.3390/biom11081132.
93. Maniati MS, Maniati M, Yousefi T, Ahmadi-Ahangar A, Tehrani SS. New insights into the role of microRNAs and long noncoding RNAs in most common neurodegenerative diseases. *J Cell Biochem*. 2019;120:8908-8918. doi:10.1002/jcb.28361.
94. Isakova A, Fehlmann T, Keller A, Quake SR. A mouse tissue atlas of small noncoding RNA. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2020;117:25634-25645. doi:10.1073/pnas.2002277117.
95. Bhatti GK, Khullar N, Sidhu IS, et al. Emerging role of non-coding RNA in health and disease. *Metab Brain Dis*. 2021;36:1119-1134. doi:10.1007/s11011-021-00739-y.
96. Andres-Leon E, Gomez-Lopez G, Pisano DG. Prediction of miRNA-mRNA interactions using miRGate. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2017;1580:225-237. doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-6866-4_15.
97. Kozomara A, Birgaoanu M, Griffiths-Jones S. miRBase: from microRNA sequences to function. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2019;47:D155-D162. doi:10.1093/nar/gky1141.
98. Consortium RN. RNAcentral 2021: secondary structure integration, improved sequence search and new member databases. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;49:D212-D220. doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa921.
99. Doyle A, McGarry MP, Lee NA, Lee JJ. The construction of transgenic and gene knockout/knockin mouse models of human disease. *Transgenic Res*. 2012;21:327-349. doi:10.1007/s11248-011-9537-3.
100. Sauvageau M, Goff LA, Lodato S, et al. Multiple knockout mouse models reveal lincRNAs are required for life and brain development. *eLife*. 2013;2:e01749. doi:10.7554/eLife.01749.
101. Park CY, Choi YS, McManus MT. Analysis of microRNA knockouts in mice. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2010;19:R169-R175. doi:10.1093/hmg/ddq367.
102. Ghasemi M, Dheppour AR. Ethical considerations in animal studies. *J Med Ethics Hist Med*. 2009;2:12.
103. Haynes WA, Tomczak A, Khatri P. Gene annotation bias impedes biomedical research. *Sci Rep*. 2018;8:1362. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-19333-x.
104. Uechi T, Nakajima Y, Nakao A, et al. Ribosomal protein gene knockdown causes developmental defects in zebrafish. *PLoS ONE*. 2006;1:e37. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0000037.
105. Guibinga GH, Hsu S, Friedmann T. Deficiency of the housekeeping gene hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyltransferase (HPRT) dysregulates neurogenesis. *Mol Ther*. 2010;18:54-62. doi:10.1038/mt.2009.178.
106. Tanic N, Perovic M, Mladenovic A, Ruzdijic S, Kanazir S. Effects of aging, dietary restriction and glucocorticoid treatment on housekeeping gene expression in rat cortex and hippocampus-evaluation by real time RT-PCR. *J Mol Neurosci*. 2007;32:38-46. doi:10.1007/s12031-007-0006-7.
107. Al-Bader MD, Al-Sarraf HA. Housekeeping gene expression during fetal brain development in the rat-validation by semi-quantitative RT-PCR. *Brain Res Dev Brain Res*. 2005;156:38-45. doi:10.1016/j.devbrainres.2005.01.010.
108. Shaydurov VA, Kasianov A, Bolshakov AP. Analysis of housekeeping genes for accurate normalization of qPCR data during early postnatal brain development. *J Mol Neurosci*. 2018;64:431-439. doi:10.1007/s12031-018-1037-y.
109. Krzystek-Korpacka M, Diakowska D, Bania J, Gamian A. Expression stability of common housekeeping genes is differently affected by bowel inflammation and cancer: implications for finding suitable normalizers for inflammatory bowel disease studies. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2014;20:1147-1156. doi:10.1097/MIB.0000000000000067.
110. Lin J, Redies C. Histological evidence: housekeeping genes beta-actin and GAPDH are of limited value for normalization of gene expression. *Dev Genes Evol*. 2012;222:369-376. doi:10.1007/s00427-012-0420-x.
111. Han L, Wang J, Ji XB, et al. Transcriptomics analysis identifies the presence of upregulated ribosomal housekeeping genes in the alveolar macrophages of patients with smoking-induced chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Int J Chron Obstruct Pulmon Dis*. 2021;16:2653-2664. doi:10.2147/COPD.S313252.
112. Perfetti V, Manenti G, Dragani TA. Expression of housekeeping genes in Hodgkin's disease lymph nodes. *Leukemia*. 1991;5:1110-1112.
113. Timaru-Kast R, Herbig EL, Luh C, Engelhard K, Thal SC. Influence of age on cerebral housekeeping gene expression for normalization of quantitative polymerase chain reaction after acute brain injury in mice. *J Neurotrauma*. 2015;32:1777-1788. doi:10.1089/neu.2014.3784.
114. Luijckink LLM, Vivekanandarajah A, Waters KA, Machaalani R. The alpha7 and beta2 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunits regulate apoptosis in the infant hippocampus, and in sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS). *Apoptosis*. 2020;25:574-589. doi:10.1007/s10495-020-01618-0.
115. Kinney HC, Haynes RL, Armstrong DD, Goldstein RD. Abnormalities of the hippocampus in sudden and unexpected death in early life. In: Duncan JR,

- Byard RW, eds. *SIDS Sudden Infant and Early Childhood Death: The Past, the Present and the Future*. Adelaide, SA, Australia: University of Adelaide Press; 2018:661-688.
116. Numpang B, Ke X, Yu X, et al. Fetal growth restriction alters hippocampal 17-beta estradiol and estrogen receptor alpha levels in the newborn male rat. *Syst Biol Reprod Med*. 2013;59:184-190. doi:10.3109/19396368.2013.786767.
117. Gilchrist CP, Cumberland AL, Kondos-Devic D, et al. Hippocampal neurogenesis and memory in adolescence following intrauterine growth restriction. *Hippocampus*. 2021;31:321-334. doi:10.1002/hipo.23291.
118. Ke X, McKnight RA, Caprau D, et al. Intrauterine growth restriction affects hippocampal dual specificity phosphatase 5 gene expression and epigenetic characteristics. *Physiol Genomics*. 2011;43:1160-1169. doi:10.1152/physiolgenomics.00242.2010.
119. Lodygensky GA, Seghier ML, Warfield SK, et al. Intrauterine growth restriction affects the preterm infant's hippocampus. *Pediatr Res*. 2008;63:438-443. doi:10.1203/PDR.0b013e318165c005.
120. O'Grady SP, Caprau D, Ke XR, et al. Intrauterine growth restriction alters hippocampal expression and chromatin structure of Cyp19a1 variants. *Syst Biol Reprod Med*. 2010;56:292-302. doi:10.3109/19396368.2010.490871.
121. Schober ME, McKnight RA, Yu X, Callaway CW, Ke X, Lane RH. Intrauterine growth restriction due to uteroplacental insufficiency decreased white matter and altered NMDAR subunit composition in juvenile rat hippocampi. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*. 2009;296:R681-R692. doi:10.1152/ajpregu.90396.2008.
122. Mallard C, Loeliger M, Copolov D, Rees S. Reduced number of neurons in the hippocampus and the cerebellum in the postnatal guinea-pig following intrauterine growth-restriction. *Neuroscience*. 2000;100:327-333. doi:10.1016/s0306-4522(00)00271-2.
123. Mallard EC, Rehn A, Rees S, Tolcos M, Copolov D. Ventriculomegaly and reduced hippocampal volume following intrauterine growth-restriction: implications for the aetiology of schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res*. 1999;40:11-21. doi:10.1016/s0920-9964(99)00041-9.
124. Tippetts P. The concept of voluntary motor control in the recent neuroscientific literature. *Synthese*. 2004;141:247-276.
125. Rothwell JC. *Control of Human Voluntary Movement*. New York, NY: Aspen Publishers; 1987:xii, 325.
126. Robinson SR. Spinal mediation of motor learning and memory in the rat fetus. *Dev Psychobiol*. 2015;57:421-434. doi:10.1002/dev.21277.
127. Tresch MC, Saltiel P, Bizzi E. The construction of movement by the spinal cord. *Nat Neurosci*. 1999;2:162-167. doi:10.1038/5721.
128. Baudry S. Aging changes the contribution of spinal and corticospinal pathways to control balance. *Exerc Sport Sci Rev*. 2016;44:104-109. doi:10.1249/Jes.0000000000000080.
129. Taube W, Gruber M, Beck S, Faist M, Gollhofer A, Schubert M. Cortical and spinal adaptations induced by balance training: correlation between stance stability and corticospinal activation. *Acta Physiol (Oxford)*. 2007;189:347-358. doi:10.1111/j.1748-1716.2007.01665.x.
130. Akinrodoye MA, Lui F. *Neuroanatomy, Somatic Nervous System*. Treasure Island, FL: StatPearls; 2021.
131. Fasano A, Di Bonaventura C, Bove F, et al. Movement disorders phenomenology in focal motor seizures. *Movement Disord*. 2018;33:S206.
132. Pack AM. Epilepsy overview and revised classification of seizures and epilepsies. *Continuum (Minneapolis, MN)*. 2019;25:306-321. doi:10.1212/CON.0000000000000707.
133. Mukamel R, Ekstrom AD, Kaplan J, Iacoboni M, Fried I. Single-neuron responses in humans during execution and observation of actions. *Curr Biol*. 2010;20:750-756. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2010.02.045.
134. Albouy G, Sterpenich V, Baletau E, et al. Both the hippocampus and striatum are involved in consolidation of motor sequence memory. *Neuron*. 2008;58:261-272. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2008.02.008.
135. Fernandez-Seara MA, Aznarez-Sanado M, Mengual E, Loayza FR, Pastor MA. Continuous performance of a novel motor sequence leads to highly correlated striatal and hippocampal perfusion increases. *NeuroImage*. 2009;47:1797-1808. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.05.061.
136. Gheysen F, Van Opstal F, Roggeman C, Van Waelvelde H, Fias W. Hippocampal contribution to early and later stages of implicit motor sequence learning. *Exp Brain Res*. 2010;202:795-807. doi:10.1007/s00221-010-2186-6.
137. Rose M, Haider H, Salari N, Buchel C. Functional dissociation of hippocampal mechanism during implicit learning based on the domain of associations. *J Neurosci*. 2011;31:13739-13745. doi:10.1523/Jneurosci.3020-11.2011.
138. Chatzikonstantinou A. Epilepsy and the hippocampus. *Front Neurol Neurosci*. 2014;34:121-142. doi:10.1159/000356435.
139. Nakanishi K, Sakakima H, Norimatsu K, et al. Effect of low-intensity motor balance and coordination exercise on cognitive functions, hippocampal A beta deposition, neuronal loss, neuroinflammation, and oxidative stress in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Exp Neurol*. 2021;337:113590. doi:10.1016/j.expneurol.2020.113590.
140. Geva S, Jentschke S, Argyropoulos GPD, Chong WK, Gadian DG, Vargha-Khadem F. Volume reduction of caudate nucleus is associated with movement coordination deficits in patients with hippocampal atrophy due to perinatal hypoxia-ischaemia. *NeuroImage Clin*. 2020;28:102429. doi:10.1016/j.nicl.2020.102429.
141. Burman DD. Hippocampal connectivity with sensorimotor cortex during volitional finger movements: laterality and relationship to motor learning. *PLoS ONE*. 2019;14:e0222064. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0222064.
142. Dolfen N, King BR, Schwabe L, et al. Stress modulates the balance between hippocampal and motor networks during motor memory processing. *Cerebell Cortex*. 2021;31:1365-1382. doi:10.1093/cercor/bhaa302.
143. Kaluff AV, Stewart AM, Song C, Berridge KC, Graybiel AM, Fentress JC. Neurobiology of rodent self-grooming and its value for translational neuroscience. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2016;17:45-59. doi:10.1038/nrn.2015.8.
144. Cannon RL, Paul DJ, Baisden RH, Woodruff ML. Alterations in self-grooming sequences in the rat as a consequence of hippocampal damage. *Psychobiology*. 1992;20:205-218.
145. Rudnitskaya EA, Kozlova TA, Burnyasheva AO, et al. Features of postnatal hippocampal development in a rat model of sporadic Alzheimer's disease. *Front Neurosci*. 2020;14:533. doi:10.3389/fnins.2020.00533.
146. Jahan MS, Ito T, Ichihashi S, et al. PlexinA1 deficiency in BALB/cAJ mice leads to excessive self-grooming and reduced prepulse inhibition. *IBRO Rep*. 2020;9:276-289. doi:10.1016/j.ibror.2020.10.004.
147. Mu MD, Geng HY, Rong KL, et al. A limbic circuitry involved in emotional stress-induced grooming. *Nat Commun*. 2020;11:2261. doi:10.1038/s41467-020-16203-x.