

Background

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative disease characterized by progressive deterioration of cognitive functions. Main histopathological findings in postmortem brains of AD patients include beta-amyloid (A β) - containing extracellular plaques and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles consisting of hyperphosphorylated Tau protein. Microglial activation and clustering around amyloid plaques, viewed as chronic inflammation, is a part of AD pathology [1]. Earliest signs of AD may be caused by various A β isoforms which disrupt synaptic function. Reexpression of developmentally regulated molecules, such as the polysialylated neural cell adhesion molecule (PSA-NCAM), which allows structural changes to occur in the brain, is viewed as the brain's attempt to restore its lost connections [2]. 5XFAD mice express 5 mutations characteristic of familial AD, being a model of rapid brain amyloid accumulation [3].

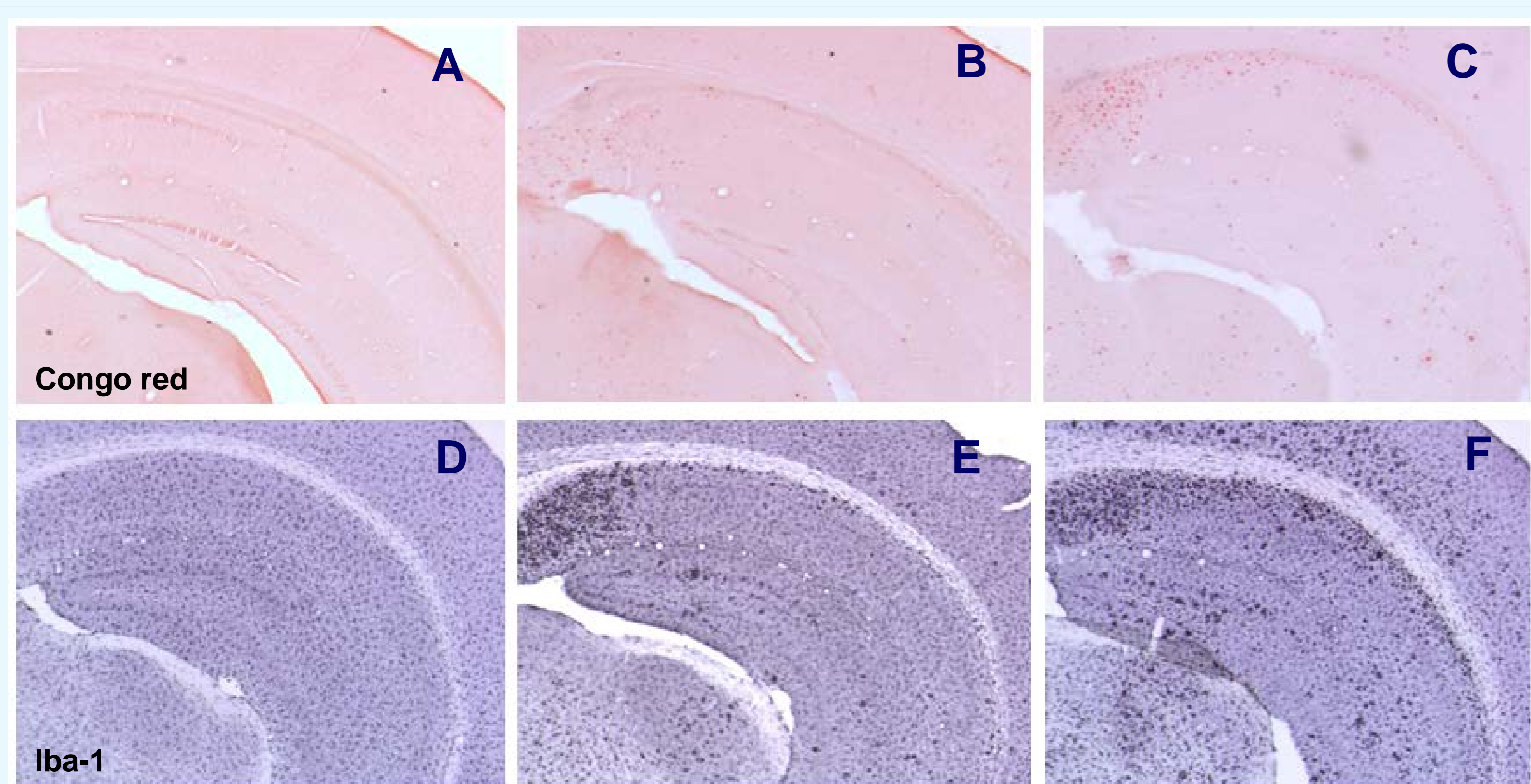


Figure 1. Congo red (marker for A β) and Iba-1 (marker for activated microglia) stained brain sections (hippocampal region) of wild-type (A, D) and 5XFAD mice of 2 (B, E) and 6 months of age (C, F). Magnification 40 x.

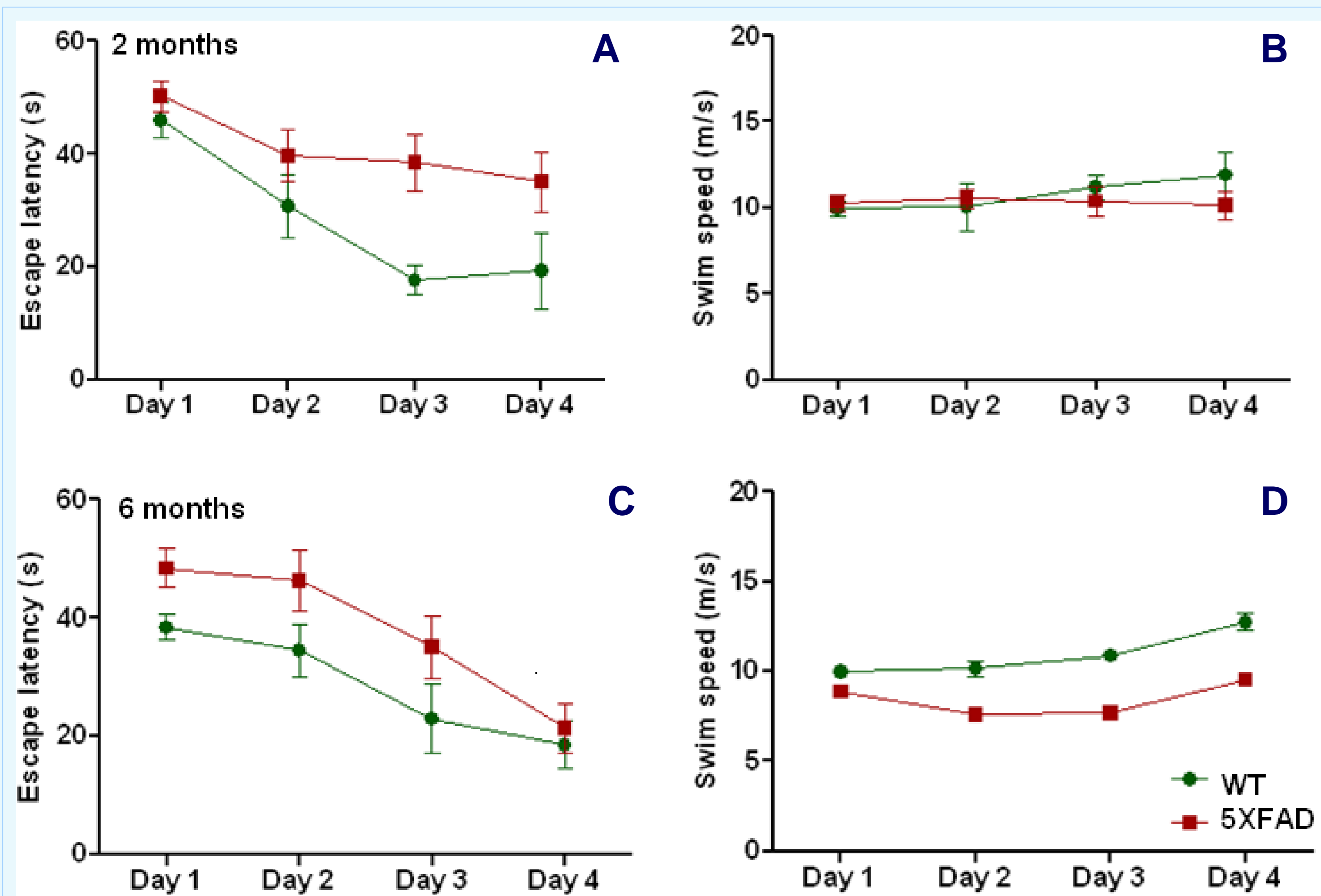


Figure 2. Escape latency (cut-off time 60 s) to find the hidden platform (A, C) and swim velocity (B, D) of 2 and 6 months old 5XFAD and wild-type mice in the Morris water maze task (MWM). Escape latencies and velocities on days 1-4 represent the average of two trials. Vision was assessed on day 5 by making the platform visible and measuring escape latency (not shown). Memory was assessed by removing the platform from the pool on day 6 and measuring percent of time (%) spent in the quadrant of the pool where the platform had been previously (not shown). Two-way ANOVA was used to compare data from days 1-4; t-test was used to compare data from day 5 and 6; n=7-8 per group.

Aims

Our aim was to study whether the progression of hippocampal amyloidosis and microgliosis correlates with cognitive decline and changes in the levels of brain plasticity marker PSA-NCAM in 5XFAD mice.

Methods

5XFAD mice (C57/B6xSJL background) and wild-type littermates of 2 and 6 months were used. Experiments were performed according to European Union legislation by persons holding an appropriate license. Morris water maze task was performed as described previously [4]. Mouse brain sections were processed immunohistochemically and with Congo red stain, images were acquired with an Olympus BX-51 microscope and analyzed using ImageJ. The number of PSA-NCAM-positive cells was counted as in [5], levels of NCAM and PSA-NCAM were confirmed by immunoblot.

Results

Two months old 5XFAD mice had a significantly larger hippocampal Iba-1 positive area fraction than wild-type mice (5.45 ± 1.13 vs $2.36 \pm 0.57\%$, $*p=0.041$), the difference had increased by 6 months of age (15.67 ± 2.61 vs $4.89 \pm 0.66\%$, $**p=0.0052$). Congo-red-positive hippocampal area fraction in 5XFAD mice was significantly larger at 6 than at 2 months of age (0.14 ± 0.01 vs $0.05 \pm 0.01\%$, $***p<0.0001$). Congo red-positive hippocampal A β plaque diameter in 5XFAD mice was significantly increased by 6 months compared to 2 months of age (42.20 ± 1.30 vs $31.26 \pm 2.65 \mu\text{m}$, $**p=0.006$). No Congo red-positive plaques were found in the brains of wild-type mice. Two months old 5XFAD mice learned slower in the MWM than wild-type mice (Fig. 2A), (a significant effect of genotype ($F_{1,52}=14.5$, $***p=0.0004$) and day ($F_{1,52}=8.56$, $**p=0.001$), but no interaction). 5XFAD and wild-type mice had no significant differences in swimming velocity, visual function or memory at 2 months of age. At 6 months of age, there was no difference in learning, memory or visual function between 5XFAD and wild-type mice. However, swimming velocity of 5XFAD mice was significantly lower compared to wild-type mice (Fig. 2D), with a significant effect of genotype ($F_{1,56}=107.44$, $***p<0.0001$), day ($F_{3,56}=17.27$, $***p<0.0001$) and an interaction ($F_{3,56}=4.10$, $*p=0.011$).

The number of PSA-NCAM-positive cells was significantly higher in 2, but not in 6 months old 5XFAD mice (Fig. 3A). By 6 months of age, the number of PSA-NCAM-positive cells had decreased significantly in 5XFAD and wild-type mice (Fig. 3B). Immunoblotting showed similar hippocampal levels of NCAM (Fig. 4A,B), significantly higher levels of PSA-NCAM in 6 months old and a trend for increase in 2 months old 5XFAD mice (Fig. 4C,D).

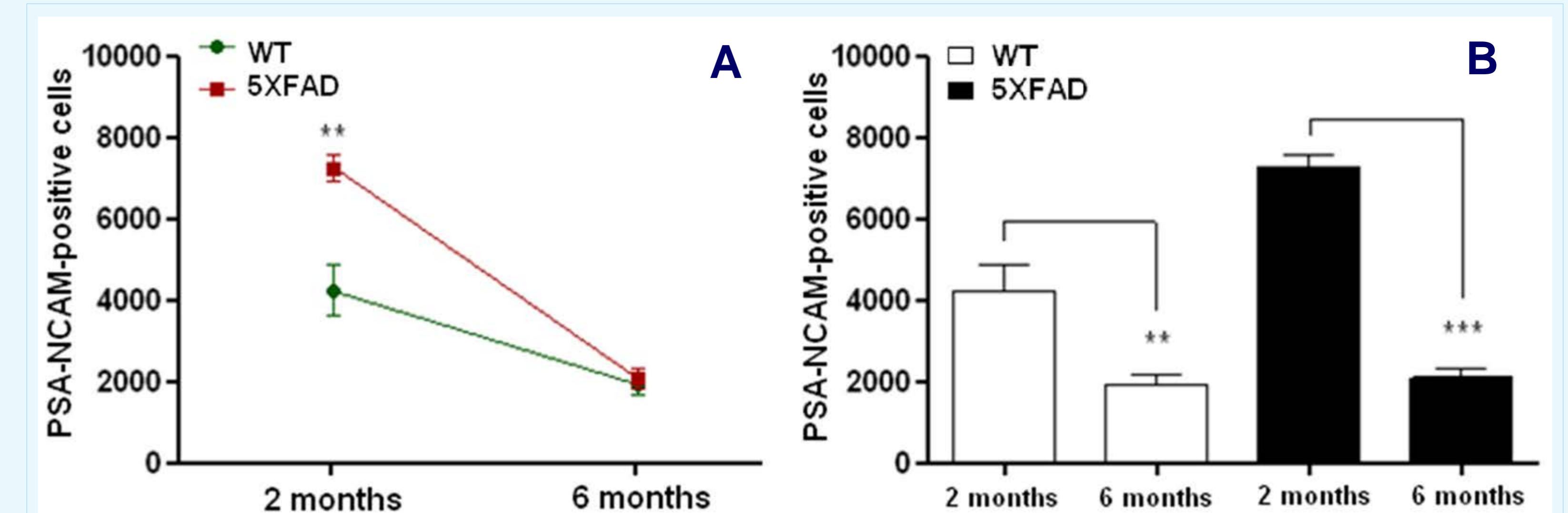


Figure 3. PSA-NCAM-positive cell number in the hippocampal subgranular zone of 2 and 6 month old 5XFAD and wild-type mice. $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, t-test.

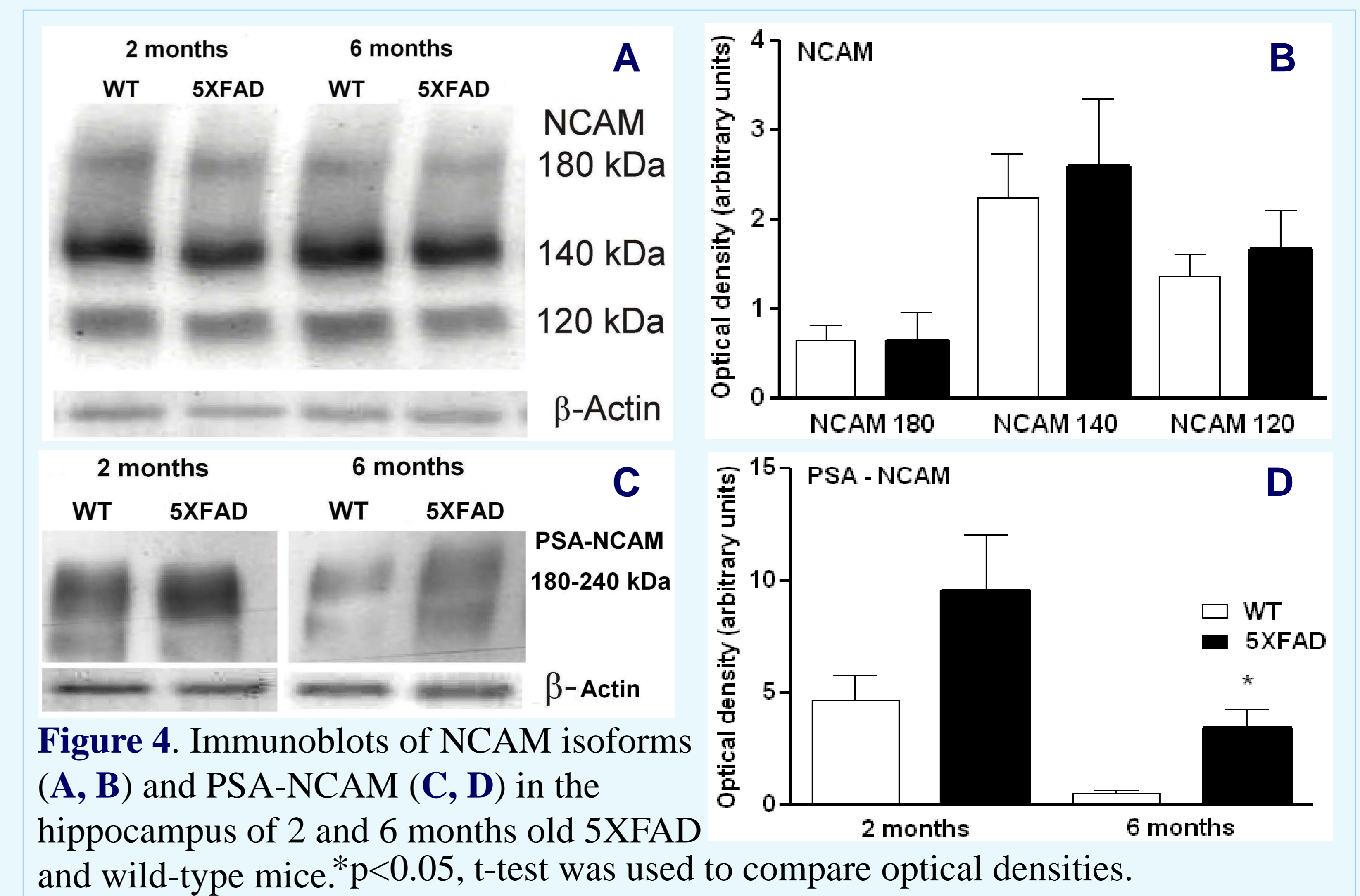


Figure 4. Immunoblots of NCAM isoforms (A, B) and PSA-NCAM (C, D) in the hippocampus of 2 and 6 months old 5XFAD and wild-type mice. $*p<0.05$, t-test was used to compare optical densities.

Discussion

The reason for not observing progressive cognitive impairment in 5XFAD mice despite a progression in hippocampal amyloidosis and microgliosis is unclear, suggesting the existence of a compensatory mechanism. An increase in PSA-NCAM immunoreactivity in human AD brain has been reported [2] and it has been suggested that a high degree of structural plasticity might predispose neurons to tangle formation [6]. Higher level of PSA-NCAM of younger 5XFAD mice suggests that higher hippocampal plasticity might be a factor in AD pathogenesis. Increased PSA-NCAM expression might be caused by increased hippocampal neurogenesis and also by higher activity of enzymes linking PSA to NCAM (polysialyltransferases). The phenotype of PSA-NCAM-expressing cells is unclear as not only progenitors but also dedifferentiated mature cells can express PSA-NCAM.