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# Phenotyping the central nervous system of the embryonic mouse by magnetic resonance microscopy

### Q1 M.A. Martínez-Martínez<sup>a,1</sup>, J. Pacheco<sup>b,1</sup>, V. Borrell<sup>a,\*,1</sup>, S. Canals<sup>b,\*\*,1</sup>

Q2 <sup>a</sup> Developmental Neurobiology Unit, Instituto de Neurociencias, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas & Universidad Miguel Hernández, Sant Joan d'Alacant 03550, Spain <sup>b</sup> Cellular and Systems Neurobiology Unit, Instituto de Neurociencias, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas & Universidad Miguel Hernández, Sant Joan d'Alacant 03550, Spain

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### 32 Introduction

Since the advent of transgenesis and the sequencing of the mouse 33and human genomes, an ever-increasing number of transgenic and 34mutant mouse strains has been produced aiming to generate mouse 35 models of human conditions, and to understand the underlying biology. 36 Among these, the generation of mutant mice to model human diseases 37 of the central nervous system (CNS) has been particularly widespread 38 (Ross and Walsh, 2001) with a recent emphasis in developmental 39 40 abnormalities (Manzini and Walsh, 2011; Rakic and Caviness, 1995). A 41 strong case linking a number of neurologic and psychiatric disorders with failures in the early neurodevelopmental program is building 42upon combined evidence from human and animal studies (Manzini 43and Walsh, 2011; Ross and Walsh, 2001; Watson and Platt, 2012). 44 45Mouse models for these disease-susceptibility genes are of prime importance to elucidate the alterations established early during 46 development and their impact on mature brain architecture. 47

48 Structural phenotyping of the brain conventionally relies on histo 49 logical techniques. While these techniques are perfectly suited to
50 analyze cellular and subcellular architectural details of brain anatomy
51 and connectivity, they are extremely time-consuming when meso-

\* Corresponding author.

Q3

*E-mail addresses*: vborrell@umh.es (V. Borrell), scanals@umh.es (S. Canals). <sup>1</sup> Contributed equally to this work.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2014.04.043 1053-8119/© 2014 Published by Elsevier Inc. ABSTRACT

Genetic mouse models of neurodevelopmental disorders are being massively generated, but technologies for 17 their high-throughput phenotyping are missing. The potential of high-resolution magnetic resonance imaging 18 (MRI) for structural phenotyping has been demonstrated before. However, application to the embryonic 19 mouse central nervous system has been limited by the insufficient anatomical detail. Here we present a method 20 that combines staining of live embryos with a contrast agent together with MR microscopy after fixation, to pro-21 vide unprecedented anatomical detail at relevant embryonic stages. By using this method we have phenotyped 22 the embryonic forebrain of Robo1/2<sup>-/-</sup> double mutant mice enabling us to identify most of the well-known 23 anatomical defects in these mutants, as well as novel more subtle alterations. We thus demonstrate the potential 24 of this methodology for a fast and reliable screening of subtle structural abnormalities in the developing mouse 25 brain, as those associated to defects in disease-susceptibility genes of neurologic and psychiatric relevance. 26 © 2014 Published by Elsevier Inc. 27

> and macroscopic evaluations of brain structure are required. Further- 52 more, methodological artifacts during sample processing inherent to 53 the technique, such as tissue shrinkage or defects in tissue sections 54 (folding, braking, irregular staining, etc.), profoundly affect the reliabil- 55 ity of assessments, most particularly volumetry and 3D arrangement of 56 structures (Cleary et al., 2011a). Alternative methods for three- 57 dimensional imaging of mouse embryos have become available more 58 recently, including optical projection tomography (Sharpe et al., 59 2002), block-face microscopy (Denk et al., 2012; Rosenthal et al., 60 2004), micro-computed tomography (Kulandavelu et al., 2006) and 61 light sheet fluorescence microscopy (Tomer et al., 2012). Effective, 62 non-invasive and high throughput methods are needed for the rapid 63 and accurate phenotypic analysis of mouse mutant brains. 64

> Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has been increasingly used to 65 advance these efforts and characterize brain phenotypes of mouse 66 mutants. Different imaging protocols for small rodents have been devel- 67 oped and its utility demonstrated both in normal and mutant strains 68 (Ahrens et al., 1998; Cahill et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2005; Lerch et al., 69 2011; Silva et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010). In addition, in the last decade 70 MRI has begun to be used in developmental studies, to phenotype the 71 developing mouse at embryonic stages (Chuang et al., 2011; Petiet 72 et al., 2008; Szulc et al., 2013). MRI offers a number of advantages 73 over traditional histological sectioning, particularly its ability to gener- 74 ate, in a non-invasive manner, three-dimensional and non-distorted 75 datasets that allow the accurate calculation of morphometric parame- 76 ters and, hence, to identify novel phenotypes. 77

> Of the various applications of MRI in morphometry and structural 78 phenotyping, imaging of the mouse embryo brain is clearly lagging 79

<sup>\*\*</sup> Correspondence to: S. Canals, Instituto de Neurociencias CSIC–UMH, Campus de San Juan, Avenida Ramón y Cajal, s/n, 03550 San Juan de Alicante, Spain.

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behind and there is much potential that remains unfulfilled. If develop-80 81 mental neuroscience has so far benefited little from MRI, this is likely because of the poor tissue contrast and small size of the embryonic 82 83 brain structures as compared to the adult brain. However, using systems of high magnetic field strength and active staining with contrast agents, 84 enhancing structures not normally visible on MRI, allows image resolu-85 tions in the microscopic range (15–30 µm) (Cleary et al., 2011a; Norris 86 87 et al., 2012; Petiet et al., 2008). Indeed, applying the so-called 88 MRI-microscopy and Gadoteriol as contrast agent (CA), the first non-89 destructive atlas of the whole mouse embryo has been contributed 90 (Petiet et al., 2008). Although these works represent a tremendous advance in MRI of the mouse embryo, the level of anatomical detail 91attained so far for the developing CNS only allows differentiating gross 9293 morphological subdivisions.

Here we report a method for MRI microscopy that yields outstanding 94 anatomical detail of the embryonic mouse CNS at relevant neuro-95 developmental stages. The method is fast, accessible and versatile, 96 97 which makes it ideal for rapid and quantitative screening of neurodevelopmental phenotypes. Central to the method is the staining of living 98 embryos with the CA gadolinium 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-99 1,4,7,10-tetraacetic acid (Gd-DOTA) which provides selective contrast 100 enhancement to the developing CNS. We show the results obtained 101 102 with different variations of the staining protocol, including a convenient in utero staining of the embryos through intraperitoneal (i.p.) administra-103 tion of Gd-DOTA to the pregnant mother. Furthermore, we have identified 104 the specific brain tissues being predominantly highlighted by Gd-DOTA 105staining, thus clarifying the anatomical correlate of contrast enhance-106 107ment. As a proof of concept we have applied this technique to phenotype the forebrain of mouse embryos double mutant for the axon guidance re-108ceptors Robo1 and Robo2, and found not only the well-known structural 109 defects that characterize this mutation but also new, more subtle defects. 110 111 Taken together, the characteristics of our methodology demonstrate its 112 potential to identify, with a fast and accessible protocol, subtle structural abnormalities in the developing brain, as those thought to be associated 113 with defects in disease-susceptibility genes with psychiatric relevance 114 (Courchesne et al., 2007; Levitt et al., 2003; Paul et al., 2007). 115

### 116 Material and methods

### 117 Animals

Animals were handled in accordance with the UMH IACUC, following Spanish and European regulations. Mouse embryos at gestation day 14.5 (E14.5, n = 3) and E17.5 (n = 8) were on an ICR genetic background. Robo1/2 double mutant E17.5 embryos (n = 4) were obtained by mating double transgenic Robo1<sup>+/-</sup>, Robo2<sup>+/-</sup>, which were maintained in CD1, C57BL6, and mixed CD1-C57BL6 backgrounds. Genotyping was performed as described previously (Long et al., 2004).

#### 125 Contrast agent administration

Animals were injected with Gd-DOTA (Dotarem®; Guerbet, Aulnaysous-Bois, France) at 0.5 M in four different ways: (i) 25  $\mu$ /g of Gd-DOTA was injected in the peritoneum of the pregnant mother 2 h before fixation of the pups, (ii) 1.5 to 2  $\mu$ l of the Gd-DOTA was injected in the lateral ventricle of the embryo 30 min. prior to fixation, (iii) 5  $\mu$ l/g of Gd-DOTA was injected in the peritoneum of the embryo 30 min. prior to fixation and (iv)  $5 \mu$ /g of Gd-DOTA was added to the paraformal dehyde 132 (PFA) used to perfuse the animals. Embryos were kept submerged in ice- 133 cold dissection buffer to maximize their survival and minimize any possi- 134 ble pain until fixation. E14.5 mouse embryos were fixed by immersion in 135 phosphate-buffered 4% PFA for 3 h at 4 °C. E17.5 embryos were perfused 136 transcardially with the same fixative solution (including Gd-DOTA 137 only in protocol (iv), see above). Briefly, each individual embryo was 138 immobilized, the thoracic cavity cut open and the beating heart exposed, 139 the right atrium cut open, and a 30-gauge needle was inserted into the left 140 ventricle, through which the fixative solution was manually injected into 141 the heart and bloodstream for 5 min. Post-fixation of E17.5 embryos was 142 performed by immersion in phosphate-buffered 4% PFA for 3 h at 4 °C. 143 After fixation, the whole embryo or the dissected head was extensively 144 washed with phosphate-buffered saline 3 times before embedding in 4% 145 low melting agarose for MRI imaging. Samples were conserved at 4 °C 146 until the imaging session (ranging between 1 to 3 days). 147

MRI

Experiments were carried out in a horizontal 7 T scanner with a 30 cm 149 diameter bore (Biospec 70/30v, Bruker Medical, Ettlingen, Germany). The 150 system had a 675 mT/m actively shielded gradient coil (Bruker, BGA 12-S) 151 of 11.4 cm inner diameter. A <sup>1</sup>H rat brain receive-only phase array coil 152 with integrated combiner and preamplifier, no tune/no match, in combination with the actively detuned transmit-only resonator (Bruker BioSpin 154 MRI GmbH, Germany) was employed. 155

Three types of images were acquired for embryos covering the brain 156 (Figs. 2-6), whole head (Figs. 1H-K) or the complete body (Figs. 1A-G). 157 Phantoms containing embryo head or whole body in agarose were 158 placed in a custom-made holder and positioned fixed in the magnet 159 isocenter. T<sub>2</sub> weighted anatomical images were collected using a rapid 160 acquisition relaxation enhanced sequence (RARE), applying the follow- 161 ing parameters: field of view (FOV)  $10 \times 10$  mm, 15 slices, slice thick- 162 ness 0.8 mm, matrix 128  $\times$  128, effective echo time (TE<sub>eff</sub>) 56 ms, 163 repetition time (TR) 2 s and a RARE factor of 8. The BO field distribution 164 in a large voxel ( $30 \times 30 \times 30$  mm<sup>3</sup>) containing the volume to be imaged was acquired (FieldMap). Samples were localized with a T2 weight- 166 ed RARE sequence, and first- and second-order shims adjusted with 167 MAPSHIM application in a sufficiently large voxel containing the brain. 168 3D data were acquired using a RARE 3D sequence with TR 1000 ms, 169 TE<sub>eff</sub> 45 ms, BW 75000 Hz, RARE factor 16 and 26 averages in a total ac- 170 quisition time of 24 h. Antialiasing was implemented to avoid image 171 folding (P1 and P2 of 1.2 and 1.1, respectively). For brain studies, the 172 matrix size was  $230 \times 270 \times 150$  using a FOV of  $7.6 \times 9.0 \times 5.0$  mm<sup>3</sup>, 173 which yielded an isotropic resolution of 33 µm in 24 h acquisition time. 174 For full head imaging, a FOV of  $9.70 \times 11.8 \times 7.6 \text{ mm}^3$  with a matrix 175 size of  $234 \times 286 \times 184$  was used, rendering an isotropic resolution of 176 41 µm, with 26 averages in a total acquisition time of 30.75 h. Finally, 177 whole embryo imaging was performed with the same protocol in a 178 FOV of 24.0  $\times$  15.5  $\times$  10.8 mm<sup>3</sup> with a matrix of 300  $\times$  194  $\times$  134, rendering an isotropic resolution of 80 µm. In this last case, 10 averages 180 were acquired in 4.5 h. 181

### Image processing quantification

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Data were acquired and processed with a Hewlett-Packard console 183 running Paravision 5.1 software (Bruker Medical GmbH, Ettlingen, 184

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**Fig. 1.** Gd-DOTA-enhanced MRI in the whole embryo selectively highlights the central nervous system (CNS). (A–C) Visualization of a whole E17.5 mouse embryo with an i.p. injection of Gd-DOTA, in external view (A), a single MRI plane (B), and the full stack of MRI images (C). Gd-DOTA treatment selectively highlights CNS structures such as the spinal cord (SC), mesencephalon (Mes) and telencephalon (Tel), and to a lesser extent other structures like the stomach (Sto), nasal cavity (nc), mouth (mo) and trachea (tr). (D–G) Full MRI image stacks filterprocessed to further distinguish body organs with different contrast levels. This filtering allows to exquisitely reveal the outer contours of the CNS (shades of gray) over all other body organs and tissues (shades of red). (F, G) Detailed views of the forebrain from the dorsal and ventral sides illustrating the three-dimensional reconstruction of the neocortex (NCx), olfactory bulb (OB) and basilar pons (bp). (H–K) Rotation and re-slicing of the brain volume to generate example 2D-planes in horizontal (H), coronal (I), sagittal (J) and oblique (K) orientations. Inserts in the top left corner show the position of the selected slices over the 3D reconstructed brain. Arrowheads in (K) point towards the thalamo-cortical pathway. Scale bar: 3 mm (A–E), 1.3 mm (H–K).

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