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# Exploring a neurogenic basis of velopharyngeal dysfunction in Tbx1 mutant mice: No difference in volumes of the nucleus ambiguus<sup> $\frac{1}{2}$ </sup>

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#### ABSTRACT

*Results:* No substantial histological differences were noted between the nucleus ambiguus of the two groups. *Tbx*1 mutant mice had mean nucleus ambiguus volumes of 4.6 million  $\mu$ m<sup>3</sup> (standard error of the mean 0.9 million  $\mu$ m<sup>3</sup>) and wild type mice had mean volumes of 3.4 million  $\mu$ m<sup>3</sup> (standard error of the mean 0.6 million  $\mu$ m<sup>3</sup>). Neither the difference nor the variance between the means were statistically significant (*t*-test *p* = 0.30, Levene's test *p* = 0.47, respectively).

*Conclusions:* Based on the histology, there is no difference or variability between the volumes of the nucleus ambiguus of *Tbx*1 heterozygous and wild type mice. The etiology of velopharyngeal hypotonia and variable speech in children with 22q11.2 deletion syndrome warrants further investigation.

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### 1. Introduction

The 22q11.2 deletion syndrome (22q11DS) is the most frequent survivable human syndrome that is caused by a hemizygous microdeletion within a chromosome [1]. In approximately 85% of all 22q11DS patients, a 3 megabase (Mb) region on chromosome 22 is deleted [2] containing about 45 genes [3]. One of the genes that maps within the deleted region is *Tbx*1, which is expressed in pharyngeal endodermal pouches, in pharyngeal mesoderm including the mesodermal cores of the pharyngeal arches, and in head mesenchyme during embryonic development [1] and in the brain after birth [4]. Major phenotypes of 22q11DS can be related to

aberrant development of the pharyngeal arches and pouches 3, 4, and 6, including facial dysmorphism, feeding and speech problems due to velopharyngeal dysfunction (VPD), hypocalcaemia due to parathyroid dysfunction, immune disorders due to thymus dysfunction, and congenital heart disease.

VPD occurs when the valve mechanism of the soft palate and the lateral and posterior pharyngeal walls fail to close the port between the oral and nasal cavities, resulting in hypernasal speech. Some children with VPD undergo surgery to decrease the size of the velopharyngeal port. In general, postoperative residual VPD is more prevalent among children with 22q11DS than in children without the syndrome [5–11], but some patients with 22q11DS fare as well as their non-syndromic counterparts [12–17]. It is not clear why some children with 22q11DS benefit more from surgery than others [7,18]. Phenotype variability of VPD in 22q11DS has been one of the research foci of the 22q11DS team at our tertiary hospital.

All surgical techniques rely on some intrinsic muscle activity for closure of the remaining velopharyngeal port [19]. A possible

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explanation for the different postoperative outcomes is a neuromuscular component of VPD in 22q11DS as seen on nasendoscopic views of attempted velopharyngeal closure [20]. On magnetic resonance imaging, the pharyngeal constrictor muscle in patients with 22q11DS was found to be hypotrophic compared to controls [21], which may be the result of abnormal development of the muscle or its innervation. The etiology of velopharyngeal hypotonia is uncertain, but may primarily result from myogenic or neurogenic abnormalities. Superior constrictor muscle biopsies taken from children with and without 22q11DS revealed no clear histological differences, suggesting a nonmyogenic origin of velopharyngeal hypotonia in patients with 22q11DS [22]. Whether a neurogenic cause underlies VPD in patients with 22q11DS is unclear.

Neurogenic pharyngeal weakness is seen in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, a neurodegenerative disease accompanied by a decreased number of cells in the brainstem nucleus ambiguus (nA) [23,24]. The nA transmits signals from the cerebral cortex to the vagal (n.X) and accessory (n.XI) cranial nerves which innervate the pharyngeal muscles [25–27]. Additionally, some patients with Möbius syndrome, which is characterized by congenital weakness or paralysis of the muscles innervated by the facial nerve (n.VII), have hypoplastic brainstem facial cranial nerve nuclei with fewer neurons than controls [28–30]. Similarly, congenital VPD in 22q11DS could be caused by hypoplastic development of the nA. Unfortunately, noninvasive imaging does not permit an accurate estimation of the size the brainstem nuclei [31], necessitating a histological analysis of brainstem tissue.

Postmortem human brainstem material is difficult to obtain. therefore we resorted to studying an animal model of 22q11DS. Among vertebrate model organisms, the neuronal architecture of the mouse is the most similar to that of humans [32]. Mouse models for 22q11DS have been generated by deleting a 1 Mb homologous region on mouse chromosome 16 (Df(16)1, LgDel) including Tbx1, or specifically disrupting the Tbx1 gene [33,34]. The phenotype of Tbx1 heterozygous mutant mice  $(Tbx1^{+/-})$  is less penetrant and does not phenocopy the entire phenotypic spectrum of patients with 22q11DS. However, recent findings demonstrated that seven to eight-day-old  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mouse pups (P7–8) may have VPD since they vocalize at a lower frequency and for a shorter duration compared to wild type littermates [35]. Interestingly, a loss-of-function point-mutation of TBX1 in patients without the typical 22q11.2 deletion, results in phenotypes similar to those found in patients with 22q11DS, including VPD [36]. Therefore,  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mice can be used as an adequate model to study the VPD phenotype found in 22q11DS.

Moreover, as in patients with 22q11DS, phenotypic variance is seen in the  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mouse model [37]: all  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  embryos have fourth pharyngeal arch artery hypoplasia at E10.5, but at term only 30–50% have fourth pharyngeal arch artery-derived cardiovascular defects [33]. The differences in phenotypic penetrance depends on the genetic background of the mouse strains [37–39], and on genetic modifiers including Vegfa, Nrp1, Spry, and retinoic acid [40–44].

The presence of velopharyngeal hypotonia as underlying cause for the VPD was not specifically mentioned in the study with mouse pups [35] nor in the study with patients with the TBX1 point-mutation [36]. The requirement of Tbx1 during development of velopharyngeal muscles and nerves has been shown in Tbx1-deficient ( $Tbx1^{-/-}$ ) mice which die during fetal and neonatal stages:  $Tbx1^{-/-}$  mice have hypoplastic branchiomeric head and neck muscles [45,46] and abnormally fused ganglia of the glossopharyngeal (n.IX) and n.X nerves [47,48]. Thus, although Tbx1 is not expressed in primary neural crest cells [49], the neural crest-derived ganglia are aberrantly formed in the absence of Tbx1 [50].

The objective of this study was to explore the possibility that a neurogenic defect causes velopharyngeal hypotonia in 22q11DS by comparing the gross histology of the nA in the  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mouse model for 22q11DS to that of wild type mice. Diminished or absent activity of Tbx1 gene may indirectly effect the brainstem as it does the cranial nerves [47,48]. Our results indicate that the volume of the nA is not significantly affected by Tbx1 haplosufficiency.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Mice

 $Tbx1^{+/lacZ}$  mice [33] were intercrossed to generate wild type and heterozygous mutant pups. Genotypes were confirmed by PCR using primers specific for the lacZ gene [33]. All mice were maintained on an FVB background. Animal care was in accordance with national and institutional guidelines. The experimental procedure was approved by the animal ethics committee of the Academic Medical Center in Amsterdam, the Netherlands. On postnatal day 7 (P7) the pups (n = 4 of each genotype) were brought into a hypercapnic coma in a sealed cage and sacrificed for tissue isolation. The brainstems were isolated in ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS 1x), fixed by overnight immersion in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), and embedded in paraplast for further processing.

#### 2.2. In situ hybridization

Embedded brainstem tissue was cut into 10 μm thick transverse sections with a Leica RM 2165 rotation microtome, mounted on Starfrost slides, and processed for non-radioactive *in situ* hybridization (ISH) as described [51]. The brainstem motor nuclei were visualized by ISH with a DIG-labeled *Islet-1* (*Isl1*) [52,53] mRNA probe [51]. The sections were photographed using a camera connected to a Zeiss Axiophot microscope.

#### 2.3. Outcome

Morphometric analyses were performed blinded using imaging software (Amira 5.4, Visage Imaging, San Diego, CA, USA). The nA of the mutant and the wild type pups were compared qualitatively by describing the appearance, and quantitatively by calculating the volume marked by IsI1. Rather than measuring every section that contained the nA, the surface area of the nA on a minimum of 10 equally spaced sections encompassing the nA were measured. Using Cavalieri's principle, the sum of the measured areas was multiplied by the distance between the selected sections (Fig. 1). This approximation of the volume is accurate to within 5% of the true volume [54]. The volumes of the nA of Tbx1 $^{+/-}$  and wild type mice were compared using a two-tailed t-test. The variance was measured with Levene's test. Statistical calculations were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows (Version 20.0. Armonk, NY, USA).

#### 2.4. Sample size calculation

The number of pups needed to obtain statistically significant results, was determined based on a study in which n.X innervation of the stomach was compared between wild type and  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mice [48]. At embryonic day 16.5 (E16.5), significantly less n.X fibers intersected in the stomachs of  $Tbx1^{+/-}$  mice (n=9) than in wild type mice (n=9) (14.6  $\pm$  1.6 vs. 20.4  $\pm$  1.3, p<0.05). With these numbers, the required sample size to find a similarly significant difference in nA volumes between the genotypes, with an alpha of 0.05, and a power of 0.80 is only n=2 pups per genotype. Since this calculation is based on the n.X and not the nA, this number was

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