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PRENATAL VALPROIC ACID EXPOSURE DISRUPTS TONOTOPIC C-FOS EXPRESSION IN THE RAT BRAINSTEM

A. DUBIEL^a AND R. J. KULESZA^{b*}

^a Auditory Research Center, Lake Erie College of Osteopathic Medicine, Erie, PA 16509, United States

^b Auditory Research Center, Department of Anatomy, Lake Erie College of Osteopathic Medicine, Erie, PA 16509, United States

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Abstract—Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by difficulties with communication and social interactions, restricted, repetitive behaviors and sensory abnormalities. Additionally, the vast majority of subjects with ASD suffer some degree of auditory dysfunction and we have previously identified significant hypoplasia and dysmorphology in auditory brainstem centers in individuals with ASD. Prenatal exposure to the antiepileptic drug valproic acid (VPA) is associated with an increased risk of ASD. In rodents, prenatal exposure to VPA is utilized as an animal model of ASD and is associated with a number of anatomical, physiological and behavioral deficits, including hypoplasia and dysmorphology in the auditory brainstem. Based on these observations, we hypothesized that such dysmorphology in VPA-exposed animals would translate into abnormal activity in brainstem circuits and irregular tonotopic maps. Herein, we have subjected control and VPA-exposed animals to 4 or 16 kHz tones and examined neuronal activation with immunohistochemistry for c-Fos. After these sound exposures, we found significantly more c-Fos-positive neurons in the auditory brainstem of VPA-exposed animals. Further, we found a larger dispersion of c-Fos-positive neurons and shifted tonotopic bands in VPA-exposed rats. We interpret these findings to suggest hyper-responsiveness to sounds and disrupted mapping of sound frequencies after prenatal VPA exposure. Based on these findings, we suggest that such abnormal patterns of activation may play a role in auditory processing deficits in ASD. © 2015 IBRO. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by difficulties with communication and social interactions, restricted, repetitive behaviors and sensory abnormalities (Allen, 1988; Wing, 1997; American Psychiatric Association, 2013). ASD affects 1 in 68 children and 1 in 42 males (CDC.gov, 2014). Auditory dysfunction is a consistent finding in ASD, but varies from deafness to hypersensitivity and often includes difficulty in listening in noisy environments (Greenspan and Wieder, 1997; Rosenhall et al., 1999; Roper et al., 2003; Alcántara et al., 2004; Khalfa et al., 2004; Szelag et al., 2004; Kellerman et al., 2005; Lepistö et al., 2005; Teder-Sälejärvi et al., 2005; Gravel et al., 2006; Tharpe et al., 2006; Kwon et al., 2007; Tomchek and Dunn, 2007; Gomes et al., 2008; Russo et al., 2009; Bolton et al., 2012; Lukose et al., 2013). Additionally, a number of studies provide evidence that individuals with ASD have difficulties processing complex sounds, such as speech (Ceponiene et al., 2003; Boddaert et al., 2004; Bomba and Pang, 2004; Kuhl et al., 2005; Oram Cardy et al., 2005a,b; Whitehouse and Bishop, 2008). There are also a number of characteristic neuronal anomalies with ASD, including abnormal neuronal development, migration and maturation and alterations in soma size, shape and dendritic morphology (Bauman and Kemper, 1985; Ritvo et al., 1986; Gaffney et al., 1988; Arin et al., 1991; Piven et al., 1992; Hashimoto et al., 1993; Raymond et al., 1996; Fatemi et al., 2002b; Palmen et al., 2004; Schumann and Amaral, 2006; Kulesza and Mangunay, 2008; Whitney et al., 2008; Wegiel et al., 2010; Kulesza et al., 2011; Stoner et al., 2014; Wegiel et al., 2014; Lukose et al., 2015). In addition, we have identified significant hypoplasia and dysmorphology in the auditory brainstem of subjects with ASD (Kulesza and Mangunay, 2008; Kulesza et al., 2011; Lukose et al., 2015). Based on these observations, dysmorphology in the auditory brainstem, claustrum and cerebellar Purkinje cells are considered neuropathological hallmarks of ASD (Wegiel et al., 2014; Lukose et al., 2015).

The recent increase in ASD diagnoses is believed to result, at least in part from, environmental factors (Christianson et al., 1994; Moore et al., 2000; Rasalam et al., 2005). Of particular note is the observation of increased risk of neurodevelopmental disorders (most

*Corresponding author. Address: Auditory Research Center, Lake Erie College of Osteopathic Medicine, 1858 West Grandview Blvd, Erie, PA 16504, United States. Tel: +1-814-866-8423.

E-mail address: rkulesza@lecom.edu (R. J. Kulesza).

Abbreviations: ASD, autism spectrum disorder; AVCN, anterior ventral cochlear nucleus; CN, cochlear nucleus; CNIC, central nucleus of the inferior colliculus; D, dorsal; DCIC, dorsal cortex of the inferior colliculus; DCN, dorsal cochlear nucleus; E, embryonic; ECIC, external cortex of the inferior colliculus; fn, facial nerve; IC, inferior colliculus; L, lateral; LNTB, lateral nucleus of the trapezoid body; LSO, lateral superior olive; MNTB, medial nucleus of the trapezoid body; MSO, medial superior olive; P, posterior; PAG, periaqueductal gray; PB, phosphate buffer; PVCN, posterior ventral cochlear nucleus; RF, reticular formation; SOC, superior olivary complex; SPON, superior paraolivary nucleus; tz, trapezoid body; VCN, ventral cochlear nucleus; VPA, valproic acid.

66 commonly ASD) in children exposed to the antiepileptic
67 valproic acid (VPA), compared to unexposed children
68 (Bescoby-Chamber et al., 2001; Williams et al., 2001;
69 Rasalam et al., 2005; Koren et al., 2006; Bromley et al.,
70 2013). The prevalence of ASD in children exposed prena-
71 tally to antiepileptic drugs is estimated to be 8–18 times
72 higher than unexposed children (Rasalam et al., 2005)
73 and VPA produces malformations in a dose-dependent
74 manner (Tomson et al., 2011). There is also evidence,
75 from a number of studies, that timed prenatal exposure
76 to VPA (in rodents) produces consistent anatomical, func-
77 tional and behavioral abnormalities (Vorhees, 1987;
78 Binkerd et al., 1988; Ingram et al., 2000; Koren et al.,
79 2006; Rinaldi et al., 2007; Snow et al., 2008; Gandal
80 et al., 2010; Tashiro et al., 2011; Mychasiuk et al.,
81 2012; Reynolds et al., 2012; Banerjee et al., 2014;
82 Engineer et al., 2014b). Thus, prenatal VPA exposure is
83 widely considered an animal model of ASD (Rodier
84 et al., 1996; Ingram et al., 2000; Kolozsi et al., 2009;
85 Kim et al., 2011). Accordingly, we have identified signifi-
86 cant hypoplasia and dysmorphology in the superior oli-
87 vary complex (SOC) of rats exposed to VPA on
88 embryonic day 12.5 (E12.5; Lukose et al., 2011). Specifi-
89 cally, we found significantly fewer neurons in the SOC
90 while surviving neurons were generally smaller, with
91 abnormal neuronal cell body shape and orientation com-
92 pared to control animals. We interpret the irregular orien-
93 tation of neurons in the lateral superior olive (LSO) and
94 medial nucleus of the trapezoid body (MNTB) to implicate
95 abnormal dendritic arbors and disorganized tonotopic
96 axes, diminished sound localization capabilities and
97 diminished encoding of temporal features of complex
98 sounds (i.e. vocalizations; Lukose et al., 2011).

99 Recent studies have shown significant dysfunction in
100 the auditory cortex of rodents exposed to VPA on E12.5
101 (Gandal et al., 2010; Engineer et al., 2014a,b). Specifi-
102 cally, in the cerebral cortex of VPA-exposed animals there
103 is evidence for abnormal tonotopic maps, elevated thresh-
104 olds, delayed responses, decreased phase locking and
105 abnormal temporal responses to speech sounds
106 (Engineer et al., 2014b). Additionally, there is evidence
107 for altered levels of glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD;
108 the rate limiting enzyme in the synthesis of GABA) and
109 GABA receptors in ASD (Fatemi et al., 2002a,b, 2009;
110 Yip et al., 2007, 2008, 2009; Oblak et al., 2010) and fol-
111 lowing VPA exposure (Fukuchi et al., 2009). Indeed, we
112 have proposed previously that disrupted GABA signaling
113 is involved in the auditory difficulties so common in ASD
114 (Kulesza et al., 2011; Lukose et al., 2015). Despite our
115 previous observations of dysplasia in the SOC, the func-
116 tional organization (i.e. tonotopy) of these brainstem cen-
117 ters has not been examined. Moreover, it is unclear to
118 what degree the observed cortical dysfunction is inherited
119 from brainstem centers such as the cochlear nuclei (CN),
120 SOC and inferior colliculus (IC). Based on aforemen-
121 tioned observations, we hypothesize abnormal functional
122 organization of auditory brainstem centers. Since expo-
123 sure to pure tone stimuli has been shown to result in
124 expression of the immediate early gene product c-Fos in
125 clear topographic bands that vary according to the tonal
126 frequency of the sound (Ehret and Fischer, 1991; Friauf,

127 1992, 1995; Rouiller et al., 1992), we choose to use c-
128 Fos expression as a marker of neuronal activation in the
129 auditory brainstem. To examine our hypothesis, we
130 exposed rats to VPA on E12.5 and subjected control
131 and VPA animals to 4-kHz or 16-kHz tones on postnatal
132 day 28 (P28). We then used immunohistochemistry to
133 indirectly quantify neuronal activity patterns in the CN,
134 SOC and IC by identifying neurons expressing c-Fos.
135

125 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

126 Animals

127 Timed-pregnant Sprague–Dawley rats were injected
128 intraperitoneally on embryonic day 12.5 (E12.5) with
129 600 mg/kg VPA or 0.9% saline. On postnatal day 10
130 (P10), litters were culled to 4–6 male pups and then
131 weaned on P21. All experimental procedures were
132 performed on male pups at P28 (Fig. 1A). Animals were
133 maintained on a 12-h light/dark cycle with free access to
134 food and water. The VPA-exposed group includes 11
135 animals. The control group includes 6 saline-exposed
136 animals and 8 non-injection animals (see below). All
137 procedures were approved by the LECOM IACUC.

138 Sound exposure

139 On P28, animals were placed in a sound-attenuated
140 booth for 30 min without sound stimulation (Fig. 1B).
141 The booth was lined on all six walls with Auralex
142 Acoustic Foam which created a 20-dB sound
143 attenuation from ambient noise. After the 30-min
144 acclimatization period in silence, the animals were
145 presented either a 4-kHz (68 dB; 7 control and 6 VPA)
146 or 16-kHz (62 dB; 5 control and 4 VPA) tone for 60 min
147 through Altec Lansing ACS410 speakers (Fig. 1B). The
148 stimuli had 5-ms onset and offset ramps and were
149 60 min in duration. Animals were awake and permitted
150 free movement in the booth for both the isolation and
151 exposure periods. Sound intensities within the booth
152 were calibrated with a sound level meter (Greenlee
153 Textron, 93–20). Analysis of stimulus waveforms
154 revealed energy maxima at 4 and 16 kHz, respectively.
155 Additionally, two controls and one VPA-exposed animal
156 served as no-sound controls (i.e. they remained in the
157 sound-attenuated chamber for 90 min).

158 Immunohistochemistry

159 Immediately after the sound exposure, animal were
160 anesthetized with 80 mg/kg of pentobarbital. When
161 animals were unresponsive, they were perfused through
162 the ascending aorta with normal saline followed by 4%
163 paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer
164 (PB; pH 7.2; fixative). Brains were then dissected from
165 the skull and stored in fixative for at least 24 h.
166 Brainstems were dissected and placed in a solution of
167 30% sucrose in fixative until they were saturated.
168 Brainstems were sectioned on a freezing microtome in
169 the coronal plane at a thickness of 40 μ m. Free-floating
170 sections spanning from the dorsal cochlear nucleus
171 (DCN) through the inferior colliculus (IC) were collected
172 in 0.1 M PB. Every third tissue section was processed

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